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Gender Stereotypes of Citizenship Performance and Their Influence on Organizational Rewards

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Gender Stereotypes of Citizenship Performance and Their
Influence on Organizational Rewards

by

Lisa Wilkinson

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Lisa Wilkinson

ABSTRACT

Gender differences were investigated on ratings of citizenship performance (altruistic behaviors in the workplace). Self, peer, and supervisor ratings were collected on the three dimensions of citizenship performance (personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative) with scale type and gender as possible moderators of citizenship performance ratings.

Two hundred and twenty-four individuals' performance ratings were collected, from different companies across the United States. The majority of these participants were white and female, and the largest industry sampled was the customer service industry. Participants were asked to complete a performance rating about themselves and have their peers and supervisor evaluate their performance. It was found that peers and supervisors rated women significantly higher on citizenship performance than they rated men. No gender differences were found on self ratings.

Scale type was found to moderate the findings for peer ratings, but not supervisor ratings. The difference between men and women was larger on the objective scale than on the subjective scale. Further, a significant relationship was found between supervisor ratings of citizenship performance and salary for men, but not for women.

Implications are discussed for men and women in the workplace in regards to

women receiving higher citizenship performance than men and women not being rewarded equally with a higher salary for performance citizenship performance as were men.

Chapter 1

Introduction

As of 2001, women make up 45% of managers in the United States, but only 4% of the top executives (Carli & Eagly, 2001). In 2003, women's salary was only 79% of men's median salary (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003). These statistics demonstrate current differences in rewards and promotional opportunities received by men and women in the workplace. A great number of studies have been done to determine the reason for these gender gaps in the workplace. One type of performance that has received little research is gender differences in citizenship performance.

Citizenship performance is performance that supports the core tasks of the job (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001) and this type of performance has consistently been found to contribute variance associated with overall performance evaluations (Allen & Rush, 1998; Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Conway, 1999; Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and organizational rewards (Allen, in press; Allen & Rush, 1998; Chen & Heilman, 2001; Holladay, Halverson, Strong, Quinones, & Caplinger, 2004; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000). The question asked in the present study is whether men and women are equally evaluated and rewarded for their citizenship performance. Recently, Kidder and Parks (2001) hypothesized that there are gender stereotypes of citizenship performance that can lead to differential expectations for men and women to perform citizenship performance. Consequently, ratee gender is predicted

to impact citizenship performance ratings differently for the three citizenship performance dimensions, personal support, organizational support, or conscientious initiative. To further understand the impact of gender on citizenship performance ratings, ratings are compiled from three different rating sources, self, peer, and supervisor. The influence of gender is predicted to vary across rating source. Further, the Shifting Standards Model (SSM; Nelson, Biernat, and Manis, 1990) is also used to develop hypotheses regarding the relationship between gender and citizenship performance. The SSM predicts that subjective measures (Likert type scales) will mask rater stereotypes and that objective measures will demonstrate stereotypes held by raters. Predictions about findings of gender differences in citizenship performance ratings will be based on rating sources and scale type. The final consideration will be how gender differences in citizenship performance relate to organizational rewards (salary and promotions). Because there are higher expectations for men and women to perform different dimensions of citizenship behaviors, gender is predicted to moderate the relationships between citizenship performance and organizational rewards.

This paper will begin with a review of citizenship performance construct development, dimensions, consequences, and gender stereotypes. The stereotypes section will be followed by the proposed influence of rating source on citizenship performance ratings. The influence of scale type will be addressed next, and finally a discussion on the influence of gender on the citizenship performance and rewards relationship.

Citizenship Performance

Construct Development. The term citizenship performance was introduced in an article by Borman et al (2001). Although this term is new, the concept is not. The topics addressed by citizenship performance can be traced back as early as 1939, in Chester Barnard's book, "The Functions of an Executive." In his book, Barnard claimed that individuals perform behaviors outside the task performance domain that contribute to the organization. He emphasized employee cooperation through working well with co-workers and sacrificing one's own needs for the good of the company. Barnard considered these behaviors to be examples of actions that individuals can perform to improve the work environment and increase productivity.

After Barnard's paper, little attention was devoted to the topic of altruistic behaviors in the workplace (Katz, 1964; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) until Organ (1977) wrote, "A Reappraisal and Reinterpretation of the Satisfaction Causes Performance Hypothesis." In his article, Organ (1977) described the lack of support for the hypothesis that a happy employee is a productive employee and that during the 1960's and 1970's the idea of satisfaction causing performance was losing support. Reviews on the satisfaction and performance relationship concluded that there was no consistent relationship between satisfaction and performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Organ (1977) hypothesized that by widening the definition of performance to include helping behaviors, a stronger relationship between satisfaction and performance would result. Organ felt that there were a number of circumstances where management valued helping behaviors as much or more than productivity. He described these

altruistic behaviors as coming to work each day, working well with co-workers, not complaining, and adhering to organizational rules and policies.

After Organ's (1977) essay, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) introduced the term Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). The authors defined OCB as altruistic behaviors that facilitate the functioning of the business. In 1988, Organ refined the definition of OCB to be behaviors that do not receive "formal rewards" but that contribute to company productivity. These behaviors are not rewarded directly, but they become part of the supervisors' general impression of the worker (Organ, 1995). The term OCB was one of the many terms created in the 1980's and 1990's to describe helping behaviors in the workplace (e.g., prosocial behaviors, extra-role behaviors, and contextual performance).

The term Prosocial Organizational Behaviors (POB; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) was adopted in 1986. The definition of POB is altruistic behaviors in the workplace that facilitate a positive work environment. However, this definition was eventually abandoned by the authors, because they felt it was too vague (Organ, 1997). The definitions of POB and OCB make the distinction between extra-role and in-role/role prescribed behaviors. In an attempt to determine the validity of the in-role/extra-role distinction, Morrison (1994) asked supervisors and employees to categorize behaviors as either in-role or extra-role. More specifically, Morrison asked clerical employees and their supervisors to rate behaviors as either part of their job or beyond their job requirements. The results found only one significant negative correlation ($r = -.15$) between supervisor ratings and employee ratings. Further, percent agreement among supervisors and percent agreement among clerical employees were only moderate

ranging from 53% to 88%. These findings are important because they illustrate the difficulty of distinguishing between in-role and extra-role performance. The inconsistent categorizing of tasks as either in-role or extra-role demonstrates a problem with the definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Prosocial Organizational Behavior.

In 1993, Borman and Motowidlo developed the construct contextual performance that succeeded in overcoming the problems with the extra-role/in-role distinction found by Morrison (1994). These authors replaced the in-role/extra-role categorization with the contextual/task performance categorization. Contextual performance was defined as behaviors that support core performance by strengthening the business environment. In contrast, task performance was defined as behaviors that directly influence company productivity. Not only does this distinction get around the fuzzy in-role/extra-role distinction, but several studies have found evidence that supports the distinction between task and contextual performance (Borman et al, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Van Scotter et al, 2000).

Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) performed the first study to test the independent influence of contextual and task performance on supervisor ratings of overall performance. When the two types of performance were regressed on overall performance, task performance was found to contribute 13% of the variance beyond contextual performance and contextual performance was found to contribute 11% of the variance beyond task performance. Further, several predictors were found to be differentially related to task and contextual performance. Job experience, for example, produced a higher correlation with task performance than with contextual performance and

personality variables produced higher correlations with contextual performance than with task performance. These findings provide empirical support that task and contextual performance are independent constructs that both have unique influence on performance ratings.

In 1997, Organ wrote an article to weed through the number of terms in the literature that had been introduced to describe the similar concept of helping behaviors. He further addressed the problems that he saw with his own definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Organ agreed with other critics that describing OCB as extra-role is not a clear distinction from in-role behavior. Organ supported the definition of contextual performance created by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), but he felt that the name, contextual performance, did not allow for immediate interpretation of its meaning and he felt that the term was too formal.

In response to Organ's (1997) critique of the term contextual performance, Borman et al (2001) introduced the term citizenship performance. Citizenship performance is synonymous with contextual performance. The definition of citizenship performance given by Borman et al (2001) is performance that contributes to company productivity by providing positive influences on the environment and facilitating task performance. Some examples of citizenship performance are helping co-workers with their tasks, speaking well of the organization to outsiders, and learning the skills of the job outside of the workplace. The term contextual performance will be used in the present study.

Dimensions. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) were the first to identify multiple dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. The authors created a 16-item scale

of OCB by interviewing managers and asking them to ‘identify instances of helpful, but not absolutely required, job behaviors’ (p. 656). A factor analysis was performed on the 16-item OCB scale and two dimensions were identified, altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism was defined as behaviors directed at the individual employee and generalized compliance was defined as actions that are ‘right and proper’ for the good of the company. These two factors are still widely used (e.g., Hui et al, 2000). In 1988, Organ added several dimensions to Smith, Organ, and Near’s two dimension taxonomy, including sportsmanship (tolerating working conditions without complaint), civic virtue (interest and involvement in the companies success), cheerleading (supporting and applauding co-workers), conscientiousness (attention to detail), and courtesy (helping with problem solving and prevention). And in 1990, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter created a scale with 5 of the dimensions defined by Organ (1988), altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and courtesy. MacKenzie et al (1991) used content analysis to reduce the five dimension scale to a 4 dimension scale that did not include conscientiousness. Finally, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) reduced the 4 dimension scale to three dimensions when they found that managers had a hard time distinguishing between the altruism and courtesy dimensions and combined these dimensions into one measure called helping behaviors. The final three dimensions of OCB proposed by these authors were helping behaviors (assisting employees with their work), civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

The 3-dimension taxonomy determined by MacKenzie et al (1993) is a widely used taxonomy, but Williams and Anderson (1996) supported a two dimension model of OCB, similar to the altruism and generalized compliance dimensions developed by

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). Williams and Anderson broke Organizational Citizenship Behavior into altruistic behaviors that are targeted at the organization (OCBO) and altruistic behaviors that are targeted at the individual employee (OCBI).

For contextual performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) originally suggested a five-dimension taxonomy. The five dimensions were, “persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully, volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job, helping and cooperating with others, following organizational rules and procedures, and endorsing, supporting and defending organizational objects” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 102).

However, in 2000, Coleman and Borman identified all the dimensions that have been used in the literature (27 dimensions), and performed a content analysis of the dimensions to sort them into content similar categories. Several procedures were done, including a factor analysis which sorted the dimensions based on their shared variance, and the result was a 3-factor model. The authors named the three dimensions organizational support, personal support, and conscientious initiative. Organizational support was found to encompass compliance, civic virtue and sportsmanship. The definition of organizational support is demonstrating loyalty to the company in how you speak about the company to outsiders and supporting company policies and objectives with people inside the company. Personal support was found to encompass altruism and courtesy. The definition of personal support is helping co-workers on the job, cooperating with co-workers, and having regard for co-workers. Finally, conscientious initiative encompasses the conscientiousness dimension and is defined as accomplishing one’s work despite obstacles and seeking opportunities to increase knowledge and skills.

These three dimensions that were empirically created by Coleman and Borman (2000) will be used in the present study.

Consequences. A number of studies have found that citizenship performance contributes to the variance associated with supervisor performance ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998; Borman et al, 1995; Conway, 1999; MacKenzie et al, 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). As described previously, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found that both task and contextual performance contributed unique variance in overall performance ratings. The influence of OCB was also demonstrated by two studies that found it accounted for 30% (Mackenzie et al., 1991) and 48% (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) of the variance in evaluations of insurance salesman. These results illustrate the importance placed on citizenship performance for employee evaluations.

Not only have studies supported the influence of citizenship performance in supervisor ratings, but studies have also found that citizenship performance correlates with various organizational rewards. Hui et al (2000) found that supervisor ratings of OCB accounted for 3% of the variance in promotion decisions and that self-ratings of OCB accounted for 4% of the variance in promotion decisions. Holladay et al (2004) found that supervisor ratings of OCB accounted for a significant amount of variance (.3%) in salary after controlling for employee job level and task performance. Allen (in press) found that self ratings of OCB related to employees' salary and number of promotions. Allen used the two dimensions of OCB, OCBI and OCBO (Williams & Anderson, 1996) described earlier. Self-ratings of OCBI were significantly correlated with salary ($r = .11$), but not with promotions ($r = .06$). Self-ratings of OCBO were significantly correlated with salary ($r = .18$) and with promotions ($r = .12$). These

findings provide evidence that OCB is related to organizational rewards. Further, Allen (in press) and Hui et al. (2000) demonstrated the usefulness of self ratings in OCB research by finding a significant relationship between self-ratings of OCB and organizational rewards. These findings provide support for the validity of self ratings.

Van Scotter et al (2000) used longitudinal data to investigate the impact of contextual performance on promotability ratings, career advancement, medals, and informal rewards (rewards that might not be in an employee's file but that still affect an employee's career progression). These authors found that contextual performance provided incremental variance in promotability ratings and informal rewards and that task performance provided incremental variance in career advancement and promotability ratings.

Finally, Allen and Rush (1998) and Chen and Heilman (2001) had supervisors and mock supervisors, respectively, provide ratings of reward recommendations and found that an employee's OCB was related to reward recommendation ratings. Reward recommendations were measured with a five-item scale of how likely the supervisor would be to recommend the ratee for a "salary increase, promotion, high profile project, public recognition, and opportunity for professional development." The studies described above illustrate the impact that citizenship performance has on performance evaluations and organizational rewards. Therefore, how an employee's citizenship performance is interpreted by raters could have an impact on employees' rewards and evaluations. How a rater interprets an employee's citizenship behavior can be influenced by a number of factors.

Stereotypes of Citizenship Performance. There are several factors that can influence ratings of behaviors. Feldman (1981) describes an office as an “informationally noisy environment” (p. 128). Not only is there a great deal of information for a supervisor to attend to, but direct contact with subordinates is often limited. Feldman further argues that supervisors are required to do a number of cognitively taxing tasks, only one of which is to evaluate their subordinates. A number of theorists have conceptualized the cognitive process that supervisors go through when evaluating an employee’s performance (De Nisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen, Barnes-Farrell, & McKellin, 1993; Landy & Farr, 1980). Although the number of steps and order vary, there are four steps common to these models, gathering information, storing the information in memory, retrieving the information from memory, and evaluating the information (Ilgen et al., 1981).

This process can be cognitively taxing on evaluators and as a consequence, raters may perform mental shortcuts. Feldman (1981) describes categorization as one shortcut that helps supervisors simplify the cognitive performance evaluation process. Categorization is the process of placing individuals in categories that contain a prototype of how people in that category perform (Feldman, 1981). A prototype is a model of the expected characteristics that are assumed to be representative of all individuals in that category. When individuals are placed in a category based on demographic information such as gender or age, stereotypes held by raters are triggered. Beliefs about behaviors and attributes of that demographic group create expectations for the target employee’s future behavior.

Ridgeway (2001) says that “people automatically and almost instantly sex categorize any concrete other to whom they must relate. Sex categorization automatically activates gender stereotypes ... and primes them to affect judgments” (p. 643). Stereotypes held by raters can affect performance ratings at all four steps in the cognitive process (Heilman, 1995). The first step in the proposed cognitive process is gathering information. The predicted influence of stereotypes on gathering information is that behaviors performed by employees that match a rater’s stereotype are attended to and those that do not match the rater’s stereotype are considered transient behaviors or atypical behaviors. For example, if men are predicted to be more assertive in the workplace than are women, evidence of men being assertive will be easily noticed and perceived rather than evidence of women being assertive.

The second and third steps are storing the behaviors in memory and retrieving the information from memory. Heilman (1995) claims that people remember behaviors that are consistent with stereotypes rather than those that are not consistent. Further, information is more easily retrieved when it corresponds to the stereotype held by the rater. Therefore, instances of men being assertive are more likely to be stored and recalled than examples of women being assertive. And finally, raters evaluate rateses based on characteristics consistent with the stereotype even if the stereotype is the only information provided to them. Therefore, even if a supervisor has little experience working with her subordinates, she would likely rate a man as more assertive than she would a woman.

Considering the hypothesized impact of stereotypes on performance evaluations just described, findings of bias in performance ratings might be expected. However,

findings of gender bias in overall performance evaluations have been mixed (Pulakos, White, Oppler, and Borman, 1989). Pulakos et al (1989) performed a study with a large military sample and concluded that gender has only a small effect on performance ratings. One possible reason that results have been mixed is that raters may hold different gender stereotypes. Dobbins, Cardy, and Truxillo (1988) found evidence that raters who held gender stereotypes of women as incompetent in the workplace had less accurate ratings of women's performance than did raters who did not have gender stereotypes of women as incompetent in the workplace.

Further evidence of the influence of gender stereotypes on performance appraisals has been found. Gender-neutral jobs have been found to have only a small effect of gender bias, but jobs that are stereotypically male and jobs that are stereotypically female are more likely to demonstrate gender bias (Carli, 2001). Considering the impact that stereotypes have been found to have on overall performance ratings (Dobbins et al, 1988) and the influence that citizenship performance has been found to have on overall performance (e.g. Allen & Rush, 1998), it is important to consider possible stereotypes of citizenship performance.

Allen and Rush (2001) found evidence that there are gender stereotypes of citizenship performance when they tested the assumption that people have differential expectations for men and women to perform citizenship performance. These researchers found that when participants were rating someone on a stereotypical male job or a gender neutral job, there was greater expectation for women to perform OCB than there was for men. Therefore, raters perceived that the base rate was higher for women to perform

OCB than it was for men to perform OCB. This study provides direct support for gender stereotypes of citizenship performance.

Kidder and Parks (2001) provided indirect support for stereotypes of citizenship performance by comparing characteristics of an organizational citizen with characteristics of a stereotypical male and a stereotypical female. These authors claimed that stereotypes of women and men overlap with the characteristics of an organizational citizen.

Kidder and Parks used four of the dimensions proposed by Organ (1988), altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue in their discussion. The present study used Coleman and Borman's (2000) three dimension taxonomy of citizenship performance. Throughout the following discussion, Coleman and Borman's three dimension taxonomy will be contrasted with the four dimensions discussed by Kidder and Parks. The first dimension to be discussed is Coleman and Borman's (2000) conscientious initiative dimension which encompasses Organ's (1988) conscientious dimension. This dimension was not discussed by Kidder and Parks (2001) in terms of gender stereotypes. The definition of conscientious initiative is a desire to fulfill one's job duties and create the best opportunities for self and company. Martin (1987) conducted a study on individual differences in sex stereotyping. Included in her study were the dimensions conscientiousness and reliability, which are aspects of conscientious initiative. Martin found no gender stereotypes associated with conscientiousness or reliability in her study. Therefore, for the present study, the conscientious initiative dimension will act as a control. No gender stereotypes are expected for the conscientious initiative dimension.

Coleman and Borman's (2000) personal support dimension encompasses Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy dimensions and is defined as assisting co-workers with problems, being considerate of co-workers needs, and cooperating with co-workers. Two terms have been used throughout the literature to describe male and female stereotypes, communal and agentic (Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000). The existence of these gender stereotypes has been supported in meta-analyses (e.g., Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Communal refers to behaviors that are directed at others, such as concern for others, and providing support and comfort. Agentic, on the other hand, refers to characteristics that are assertive, capable, confident, and self sufficient. Communal is considered a stereotype of female behavior and agentic is considered a stereotype of male behavior. These findings, Kidder and Parks (2001) argued, overlap with the definitions of altruism and courtesy, which are two aspects of Coleman and Borman's personal support dimension. Therefore, Kidder and Parks' argument provides support for viewing personal support behaviors as female stereotypic behavior.

The final dimension, organizational support, encompasses Organ's (1988) civic virtue and sportsmanship dimensions and is defined as behaviors that demonstrate support for the organization by following the rules and exhibiting organizational commitment to co-workers and people outside the workplace. Kidder and Parks hypothesize that both civic virtue and sportsmanship contain masculine stereotypes. Sportsmanship is defined as being a team player by not expressing negative views about the organization and accepting circumstances without complaint. The authors claim that men are stereotyped to be impassive and that women are stereotyped to be more affected and quicker to complain. Stereotypes of women being more emotionally expressive than

are men have been supported by a number of studies (e.g., Hutson-Comeaux & Kelly, 2002). Kidder and Parks argue that because there is a stereotype that women are more emotionally expressive than are men, women will be expected to be quicker to voice a complaint. Consequently, raters are predicted to consider sportsmanship behaviors to be stereotypically male.

Similarly, Kidder and Parks (2001) predict that civic virtue has masculine stereotypes. Civic virtue is taking an interest and making suggestions about procedures and policies in the company. The authors feel that the political arena has been dominated by males as evidenced by the large number of men in politics. Further, voicing an opinion is considered assertive. Assertiveness was found by Eagly and Crowley (1986), in their meta-analysis, to be a male stereotype. Therefore, stereotypes are predicted to exist for men to perform civic virtue behaviors. Both civic virtue and sportsmanship are predicted to be stereotypically male performance and consequently, organizational support is predicted to contain male stereotyped behaviors.

Gender stereotypes are thought to affect citizenship performance ratings through differential expectations of men and women to perform citizenship performance. Kidder and Parks (2001) claim that expectations about behaviors may fluctuate based on gender. Men and women are predicted to have gender roles that are defined by gender stereotypes. These gender roles are predicted to create differential expectations for men and women to perform citizenship performance. Women are expected to perform personal support behaviors and men are expected to perform organizational support behaviors. No gender expectations are anticipated with conscientious initiative behaviors.

Differential gender expectations for citizenship performance should impact citizenship performance ratings. Raters recognize, remember, and retrieve information about behaviors that meet their expectations. The present study predicts that gender will influence ratings of personal support and organizational support. More specifically, ratings are predicted to be higher for females on the personal support dimension, higher for males on organizational support dimension, and no gender difference is expected on conscientious initiative dimension.

Previous studies (Sutton, 1998; Wilkinson, 2001) failed to find support for gender differences in ratings of citizenship performance. The present study will look at ratings from three different rating sources and will add a possible moderator of gender's influence on citizenship performance ratings. In 1995, Heilman identified conditions that can affect the impact of stereotypes on performance ratings. One condition that Heilman identified as influencing the impact of stereotypes is the more information about the ratee that is available to raters, the less likely they are to rely on stereotypes when making performance ratings. Further, the less interpretation is required as to the nature of a behavior, the less likely a rater is to rely on stereotypes. Another condition that can affect the impact of stereotypes on performance evaluations is motivations. The more motivated the evaluator is to make accurate judgments, the more likely the evaluator is to be accurate in their assessment (Heilman, 1995). Motivation to accurately evaluate someone and the amount of available information can vary across rating sources.

Multi-rater

Multi-source feedback is a method of collecting performance appraisals from more than one source (London and Smither, 1995). Most companies use supervisors for

administrative decisions and the remaining rater sources (self, peer, subordinates, or customers) for feedback (Murphy, Cleveland, & Mohler, 2001). One reason that multiple sources are not used in administrative decisions is that studies have found low agreement between different rater sources (peers, supervisors, self, subordinates). In 1988, Harris and Schaubroeck performed a meta-analysis that resulted in correlations of .35, .36, and .62 between rater pairs (self-peer, self-supervisor, and peer-supervisor, respectively). Conway and Huffcutt (1997) performed a more recent meta-analysis with similar results (self-peer = .19, self-supervisor = .22, and peer-supervisor = .34). These findings put the validity of alternative rater sources into question. For the present study, it is important to understand why these correlations are so low and what the different rater sources are actually measuring.

Conway, Lombardo, and Sanders (2001) provide evidence for the validity of alternative rating sources in their meta-analysis. These researchers used objective measures of performance to investigate the incremental validity of peer and subordinate performance ratings over supervisor ratings. Both subordinate and peer ratings added 3% incremental validity over supervisor ratings. The authors also found that all three rating sources were significantly correlated with objective ratings (supervisors = .35, subordinates = .25, and peers = .29). These results provide evidence that subordinate and peer ratings provide valid information and information that is not obtained in supervisor ratings.

A number of explanations have been proposed for the low correlations across rating sources (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). Borman (1997) supported the explanation that the low reliabilities across rating sources are found because raters are from different

organizational levels and they are likely to observe different behaviors, define performance differently, or weight dimensions differently. Borman (1974) stated that the low reliabilities between raters are because “raters at different levels probably observe significantly different facets of a ratee’s job performance...high agreement between such raters may be an unduly severe and perhaps even an erroneous requirement” (p. 105).

Conway and Huffcutt (1997) found evidence in favor of the explanation provided by Borman (1997). These authors took reliabilities of rating sources within the same level and compared them to raters from different levels. The results found that, overall, within level interrater reliabilities (supervisors = .5, subordinates = .3, and peers = .37) were larger than across level interrater reliabilities (peers-supervisors = .34, subordinates-supervisors = .22 and peers-subordinates = .22).

An investigation by Borman (1974) provides possible reasons why raters at different levels provide different ratings. Borman conducted a study that focused on raters at different levels and how these raters either observe different behaviors or evaluate different dimensions of performance. Professors were the supervisor raters and secretaries rated themselves (self ratings) and provided peer ratings of their coworkers. Supervisors and secretaries developed dimensions of performance that they felt represented a university secretaries’ job. The secretaries identified four dimensions, job knowledge, organization, cooperation with co-workers, and responsibility. The instructors identified three dimensions, technical competence, conscientiousness, and judgment. Cooperation with co-workers was a job dimension identified by the secretaries, but not by the supervisors. Cooperation with co-workers would fall into the personal support dimension. Therefore, these results suggest that peers may value

personal support behaviors in their co-workers more than supervisors. Further, rater agreement was greater on raters' own dimensions than on the other groups' dimensions. It was concluded that, "Interrater agreement might be higher on dimensions upon which raters share meaningful information about ratees than on dimensions where this is not the case" (Borman, 1974, p. 118).

Similarly, Conway et al's (2001) meta-analysis hypothesized that peers would value "getting along" behaviors and supervisors would value "getting ahead" behaviors. These authors describe Hogan and Shelton's (1998) argument that relationships, whether in an office environment or not, are based on how rewarding the relationship is for each individual. In the context of a performance appraisal, evaluators analyze behavior considering how it will influence their own job. Supervisors are likely to value subordinate behaviors that will benefit the organization and peers are likely to value co-worker behaviors that will help them do their job and make the work environment more pleasant.

Conway et al (2001) predicted that interpersonal personality variables (for example, agreeableness and affiliation) would be correlated with peer ratings, but not with supervisor ratings. These, "getting along" behaviors were considered by the authors to be measures of ratees' aptitude for organizational citizenship behavior. It was further predicted that ratee's cognitive ability would correlate with supervisor ratings, but not with peer ratings. As predicted, peer ratings correlated with ratees' agreeableness and affiliation and supervisor ratings did not. Supervisor and peer ratings were found to correlate with cognitive ability. Contrary to the researchers expectations, peers found cognitive ability valuable in their co-workers.

The “getting along” personality measures described by Conway et al (2001) resemble the personal support dimension that focuses on maintaining positive interactions with co-workers. The finding that supervisor ratings did not have a significant relationship with agreeableness and affiliation puts into question the emphasis that supervisors place on their subordinates’ ability to get along with their co-workers. Therefore, because supervisors did not appear to value personal support aspects of subordinate performance and because they are not likely to directly witness employees performing altruistic acts directed at individuals, supervisors are likely to rely heavily on stereotypes when making personal support ratings. Further, supervisors are likely to be motivated to accurately evaluate organizational support behaviors in their subordinates, but peers are less likely to be as motivated to identify and evaluate these behaviors.

Conway et al (2001) showed evidence that both peer and supervisor ratings provide useful and unique information and that raters consider different behaviors when making their ratings. These results demonstrate the advantage of studying different rating sources. However, because the present study is investigating gender differences in ratings of citizenship performance, an important consideration is whether results found in multi-rater studies extend to the context of citizenship performance.

Citizenship Performance. Becker and Vance (1993) and Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Russell (2000) conducted studies that investigated how ratings from multiple raters converged on different dimensions of OCB. Becker and Vance (1993) correlated self, supervisor, and peer ratings across three dimensions of OCB. The three OCB dimensions were altruism/local (targeted at co-workers in the same department), altruism/distant (targeted at co-workers outside one’s department), and conscientiousness. The results

were similar to the results found by Harris and Shaubroeck (1988) with peer and supervisor ratings correlating the highest at .47 and self with supervisor and self with peer ratings correlating .38 and .35, respectively.

Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Russell (2000) conducted a similar study using subordinate, self, and superior ratings with five of the dimensions (sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, altruism, and courtesy) proposed by Organ (1988). The results were similar to those found by Conway and Huffcutt (1997). The correlation between subordinate and superior ratings was .48 and correlations with self ratings were the lowest of the rating pairs (self-subordinate = .07 and self-supervisor = .11). These results demonstrate evidence for the generalizability of multi-rater research on overall performance to multi-rater research on citizenship performance.

On the basis of collective findings on multi-rater evaluations, it seems that different rating sources provide unique and relevant information on overall performance and citizenship performance. For the present study, it is important to consider the unique perspective the three rating sources have in making citizenship performance ratings. The following section breaks the discussion down by the three rating sources, supervisor, peer, and self. Conscientious initiative dimension will not be discussed in the following sections because gender is not predicted to influence ratings of conscientious initiative because Martin (1987) found no gender stereotypes associated with this dimension.

Supervisor ratings. Supervisors are the most common rating source in companies. A consistent finding is that supervisors rate employees on citizenship and task performance when making overall performance evaluations (e.g. Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). The personal support dimension is composed of behaviors directed at

individual employees. Supervisors are less likely to witness these behaviors directly. Further, even if supervisors witness personal support behaviors, they are still not the recipients of these behaviors and the details surrounding the exchange are more ambiguous for them. Heilman (1995) stated that the less information or the more ambiguous the information is, the more likely evaluators are to rely on stereotypes when making ratings.

In the meta-analysis by Conway et al (2001), personality variables, agreeableness and affiliation, were not correlated with supervisor ratings. Therefore, supervisors either are not given the opportunity to witness these behaviors or they do not value these behaviors in subordinate performance. Whichever is the case, supervisors do not have the same quality of available information to make decisions about subordinates' personal support performance. Since supervisors have less information on employee's personal support behaviors, they are predicted to be more influenced by ratee gender when making their ratings and consequently, women are predicted to receive higher personal support ratings than are men.

The second dimension, organizational support, represents behaviors that demonstrate loyalty to the company by not complaining about company policies and speaking well of the company to outsiders. Supervisors may not directly witness these behaviors being performed by subordinate often, but they are predicted to value these behaviors in their subordinates. Therefore, supervisors are expected to be motivated to witness, remember, and accurately rate these behaviors because supervisors want to reward subordinates who contribute to the company with organizational support behaviors. Therefore, employee gender is not expected to impact supervisor ratings of

citizenship performance resulting in no difference between men and women on supervisor ratings of organizational support.

Peer ratings. The second rating source used in the present study is peers. Peers are expected to be the recipients of the personal support behaviors and to witness many personal support behaviors directly. Further, peers are predicted to value personal support in their co-workers to a greater extent than are supervisors. Conway et al (2001) found that peers value ‘getting along’ dimensions and Borman (1974) found that peers identified cooperating with co-workers as one of the four dimensions of secretary performance. The motivation to accurately rate personal support behaviors and the increased likelihood of peers to directly witness personal support behaviors is predicted to reduce or eliminate the impact of gender on personal support ratings.

Organizational support behaviors are likely to be witnessed by peers a great deal, but not valued by peers to the same extent as supervisors. Peers are not predicted to be as motivated to evaluate organizational support behaviors. When making ratings on organizational support, peers are predicted to be influenced by ratee gender and consequently rate men higher on organizational support performance than women.

Self ratings. For self ratings, the degree that a rater witnesses or values citizenship behaviors is not a concern because employees will be rating their own performance. However, an important consideration is biases held by raters and how they influence self ratings of citizenship performance. A great deal of research has been done on gender differences in self ratings of overall performance. Although the findings have been mixed, the most common result is that women rate themselves more accurately than do men and that men inflate their performance ratings (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997).

Atwater and Yammarino (1997) provided a review of current findings on self evaluations. A majority of studies on gender differences in self evaluations have found that males rate themselves higher than do females on performance (Daubman, Heatherington, & Ahn, 1992; Deaux, 1998; Lindeman, Sundvik, & Rouhiainen, 1995). The authors stated that there is some evidence that feminine modesty may be the cause of the low self evaluations found in women.

To further understand the difference between men and women on self evaluations, Beyer (1990) had men and women complete self evaluations, while manipulating the gender stereotype of the tasks. More specifically, Beyer had participants perform a stereotypical masculine task, several gender neutral tasks, and a stereotypical feminine task and then asked them to evaluate their performance on the tasks. Men rated their performance significantly higher than did women on the masculine task and on one of the gender neutral tasks. There were no significant gender differences found between men and women on the feminine task. Therefore, men are predicted to overestimate their performance and women to underestimate their performance on male stereotyped performance. However, on female stereotyped performance, women are expected to show modesty and therefore, no differences are expected between men and women on female stereotyped behaviors.

Kidder (2002) performed a study that asked participants to rate their OCB on two dimensions, civic virtue and altruism. Civic virtue was theorized to have masculine stereotypes and altruism was theorized to have feminine stereotypes. Kidder predicted that people would rate themselves according to their gender stereotypes. More specifically, it was hypothesized that women would rate themselves higher than would

men on altruism and that men would rate themselves higher than would women on civic virtue. These results were supported on the civic virtue dimension, but not on the altruism dimension. Consistent with earlier findings by Beyer (1990), men rated themselves higher than did women on the male stereotyped behaviors and no differences were found between men and women on self ratings of female stereotyped behaviors. These results were obtained using a subjective, Likert type, measure of OCB. In the following section, the Shifting Standards Model (SSM) will provide a theory that will impact the predictions made above of the influence of gender on citizenship performance ratings.

Shifting Standards Model

The Shifting Standards Model (SSM), developed by Nelson et al (1990), predicts that the type of scale used to make ratings can affect the visibility of stereotypes. Nelson, Biernat, and Manis (1990) first developed the SSM in a study designed to investigate the resilience of stereotypes. In this study, participants were given pictures of men and women and asked to guess the height of the man or the woman in the picture. It was found that raters estimated men's height as taller than it really was and estimated women's height as shorter than it really was. Further, the more ambiguous the stimulus was, standing or sitting, the more the raters relied on the stereotype that men are taller than are women. Based on these findings, the authors hypothesized that the nature of the objective scale type used in the height ratings, feet and inches, is what made the stereotypes so resilient. The authors further theorized that a subjective scale has ambiguous meaning. They described the subjective scale as a Likert type scale with ambiguous endpoints ranging from, for example, very tall to very short. Raters may have

a different opinion on what it means to be very tall. Whereas rating someone as five foot four inches, does not leave room for interpretation.

Following the results by Nelson et al (1990), Biernat, Manis, and Nelson (1991) performed a study to compare ratings on gender stereotyped variables using subjective and objective scales. The authors used three variables that they felt were gender stereotyped, weight, height, and income. The authors expanded on the statements made by Nelson et al (1990) by predicting that when raters use a subjective scale to measure stereotyped behavior, they base their rating on a standard that is specific to the group they are rating. For instance, a rater might consider a man who weighs 200 pounds to be average, but a woman who weighs 200 pounds to be above average in weight. In order for a man to receive the same rating as a woman, he would need to weigh more than the woman. Consequently, men and women could have the same subjective rating of above average, but weigh different amounts. Raters are not making their ratings based on the average weight of a human, but they are shifting their standards by gender or group membership. These shifts in standards are hypothesized to hide rater stereotypes. However, when raters use an objective measure, they are forced to put men and women on the same scale and directly compare their weight. No interpretation is needed when someone is predicted to weigh 200 pounds because it has a universal meaning. With stereotyped behaviors raters are predicted to have different standards for men and women. When a subjective scale is used the different standards are hidden. When an objective scale is used raters must rate men and women on the same scale which makes stereotypes visible.

Biernat et al (1991) proposed that men would be rated higher than would women on three stereotyped variables, height, weight, and income, when an objective scale was used. No differences were expected between men and women on subjective scales. Subjective scales were 7-point Likert type scales. The income variable, for example, ranged from financially very unsuccessful to financially very successful. Objective measures were height in inches, weight in pounds, and income in dollars. The results were generally consistent with the hypotheses. Men were rated higher than were women on height, weight, and salary for the objective scales. On the subjective scales men were rated higher than were women for height and weight, which was contrary to the hypotheses.

After the success with the initial studies, a number of studies were done that also supported the shifting standards model (Biernat, 1993; Biernat, Crandall, Young, Kobrynowicz, & Haplin, 1998; Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Biernat & Manis, 1994). Biernat et al (1998) found support for the shifting standards model in an organizational context with a sample of United States Army officers in a leadership training program. The researchers provided evidence that there is a stereotype of men as more competent military leaders than are women. Subjective and objective performance ratings were completed at three times across the 9-week training program. The subjective measure was self and peer ratings on a 5 point scale from outstanding to needs much improvement. The objective measure was rankings of self with groupmates on leadership competence. Scale type and gender were found to interact on peer and self ratings of leadership ability. Men were rated higher than were women on both the subjective and objective measures, but the difference was more pronounced on the objective measures.

This study provides support for the shifting standards model generalized to performance ratings.

The present study will apply the shifting standards model to gender stereotypes of citizenship performance theorized by Kidder and Parks (2001) and supported by Allen and Rush (2001). It is hypothesized that subjective ratings of citizenship performance will mask gender stereotypes resulting in either no gender differences found or a smaller gender difference than found with an objective scale. The predicted influence of both scale type and rating source will be discussed next, broken down by rating source.

Citizenship Performance Hypotheses

Supervisors. The first rating source to be discussed is supervisors. In 1995, Organ and Ryan performed a meta-analysis that aggregated studies that reported gender differences in OCB ratings. Only five studies were included in the analysis of gender differences in ratings of altruism and only four studies were included in the analysis of gender differences in ratings of generalized compliance. No gender differences were found on either generalized compliance or altruism. However, most of the scales that have been used to measure OCB have been subjective. Further, it was not clear whether these ratings were made by peers or supervisors. Therefore, it is plausible that gender stereotypes were masked by the subjective rating scale or that the rating source affected the findings.

Deluga (1998) provided another study that included gender in its OCB study and that was done after Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta analysis. Deluga used subjective supervisor ratings of OCB and reported the results only at the aggregate level, not by dimensions. No significant gender differences were found and a possible reason is that

the researcher did not evaluate gender differences at the dimension level and because the researcher used a subjective scale that may have masked rater stereotypes. It is possible that there were gender differences on the individual dimensions but because men are predicted to receive higher ratings on one dimension and women on another dimension, these effects may have cancelled each other out.

Recently, Holladay et al (2004) used a sample of employees in a large non-profit organization to test if men and women are equally evaluated on their citizenship performance. These authors found that women were given higher ratings on OCB than were men. OCB was assessed by supervisors on a subjective measure and they did not evaluate gender differences by dimension. This study provides support that there are gender differences in ratings of citizenship performance and the present study wishes to explore these differences in more detail.

Finally, Wilkinson (2003) performed a study on gender differences in citizenship performance ratings, using both objective and subjective measures of citizenship performance. No gender differences were found on either scale type. However, this study was conducted in a lab setting where student raters were given a list of fictional professor behaviors that reduced ambiguity and also likely reduced the rater's reliance on stereotypes.

To improve on Wilkinson's (2003) experiment, the present study will be conducted in an organization and ratings will be taken from multiple sources. The effect of the shifting standards model is predicted to vary with the rating source. In accordance with the SSM, scale type is predicted to moderate the influence of gender on citizenship performance. For the personal support dimension, women are predicted to be rated

higher than are men, but the difference is predicted to be larger on objective ratings than on subjective ratings. However, no differences are predicted on ratings of organizational support or conscientious initiative for either scale type.

Hypothesis 1: No differences are expected between men and women on ratings of organizational support dimension or the conscientious initiative dimension with either scale type. Women are predicted to be rated higher than are men on the personal support dimension, but the difference is predicted to be larger on the objective measure than on the subjective measure.

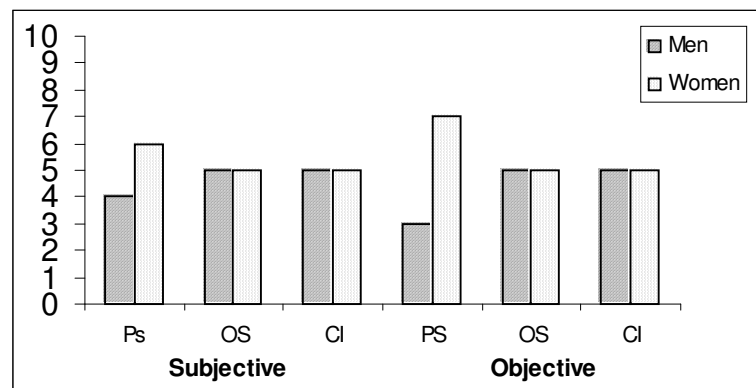


Figure 1. Predicted Results for Hypothesis 1.

Peers. The next rating source is peers. Since the Organ and Ryan (1995) meta-analysis a few studies have been published that reported the influence of gender on peer ratings of OCB (Lovell et al, 1999; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). Lovell et al's (1999) study asked resident advisors to rate co-worker performance on three dimensions of OCB, altruism, sportsmanship, and mediation. No significant differences were found on the three dimensions. Ratings made on the altruism dimension had marginal significance, with women receiving higher ratings than did men. The present study would predict that men would receive higher ratings than would women on

sportsmanship. However, because a subjective scale was used, stereotypes may have been masked with men rated against men and women rated against women.

The second study that included gender was done by LePine and Van Dyne (1998). These researchers had employees rate their peers on voice behaviors. The voice dimension was included in Coleman and Borman's (2000) organizational support dimension and raters would therefore be predicted to favor males in their ratings. LePine and Van Dyne did find that males were rated higher on peer subjective ratings of voice than were females.

The final study that looked at gender differences in OCB was done by Van Dyne and Ang (1998) on a Singapore population. These authors studied the variable helping, which is described as behaviors that are directed at co-workers. Therefore, Kidder and Parks (2001) would predict helping behaviors to be female stereotyped behaviors, with women receiving higher ratings than males. The authors did find that peers rated females higher on subjective ratings of helping than they did males. However, the present study would have predicted no gender difference because peers are motivated to rate these behaviors and directly witness these behaviors and therefore gender is not predicted to influence these ratings. One possible reason for the discrepancy could be the set up of the study. The sample contained workers from four different jobs in a bank and hospital and the distribution of male and female was 66% female across all jobs. However, it is not clear whether there were similar proportion of men and women within each job. In other words, the female sample could have been made up nurses and the male sample could have been made up of bank officers. Men and women are not normally evenly distributed across these two jobs with women being more heavily employed in the

nursing field and men being more heavily employed as bank officers. Therefore, the gender difference found could be a function of job rather than gender.

In the present study, no gender differences are predicted on the conscientious initiative dimension or the personal support dimension. Men are predicted to receive higher ratings than are females on the organizational support dimension, but the difference is predicted to be larger on the objective measures than on the subjective measures.

Hypothesis 2: No differences are expected between men and women on personal support or conscientious initiative dimensions. Men are predicted to be rated higher than are women on the organizational support dimension, but the difference is predicted to be larger on the objective scale than on the subjective scale.

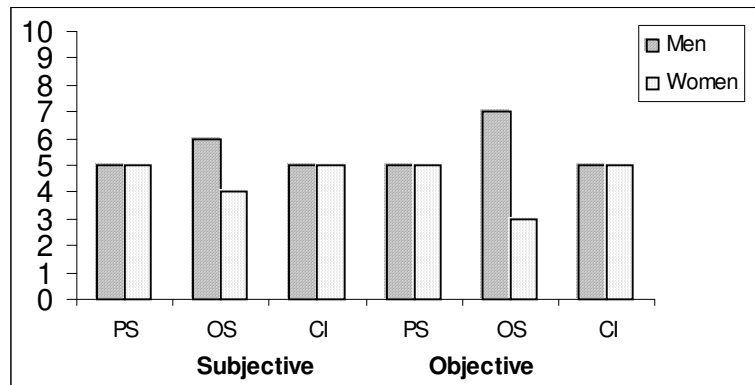


Figure 2. Predicted Results for Hypothesis 2.

Self. The final rating source to be discussed is self ratings. Four studies were identified as having reported the relationship between gender and subjective self ratings of OCB (Allen, in press; Kidder, 2002; Morrison, 1994; Tompson & Werner, 1997). Both Allen (in press) and Tompson and Werner (1997) found no gender differences in self ratings on all of the dimensions that they evaluated. Morrison (1994) found that

three out of her five OCB dimensions had gender differences in favor of females. Finally, the study by Kidder (2002), discussed earlier, provided direct evidence for the present study's hypotheses, with men rating themselves higher on the civic virtue dimension, but no differences found on the personal support dimension. These mixed findings may be a result of the nature of a subjective scale and that even on subjective self ratings, women are comparing themselves to other women and men are comparing themselves to other men. Therefore, the present study will focus on findings from self-ratings of task performance and the results of the Kidder (2002) study which was the only study to directly study gender differences in OCB dimensions.

Based on the findings of gender differences in self-ratings of task performance, men are expected to overestimate their performance and women to underestimate their performance on male stereotyped behaviors. These results are expected to be found on objective and subjective scales of organizational support. For female stereotyped tasks measured with a subjective scale, women are expected to be modest and no differences are predicted between men and women. However, on the objective measures, women are predicted to rate themselves higher than men because they will be forced to compare themselves to men and modesty is not predicted to influence the ratings. No differences are expected between men and women on the conscientious initiative dimension.

Hypothesis 3: Male self ratings will result in higher ratings for men than for women on both subjective and objective measures of the organizational support. Female ratings will result in higher ratings made by women than made by men on objective measures, but no differences are predicted on subjective measures. No differences are predicted for subjective or objective measures of conscientious initiative.

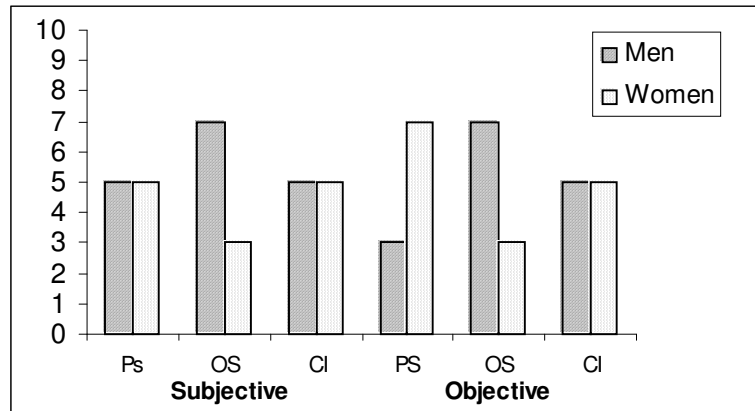


Figure 3. Predicted Results for Hypothesis 3.

Rewards

Currently, in the United States, the salaries and promotion rates into upper management for women are not equal to that of men (Carli & Eagly, 2001). A number of studies have found that citizenship performance accounts for variance in salary and promotions (Allen, in press; Holladay et al, 2004; Hui et al, 2000; Van Scotter et al, 2000). One possible reason for the discrepancy in promotions and salary for men and women is that they are not equally rewarded and promoted for their citizenship performance. As previously described, the present study is theorizing that women will receive higher ratings on personal support than will men and that men will receive higher ratings on organizational support than will women. The next step is to question if men and women will receive equal rewards for performing citizenship behaviors. To address this question, the relationship between supervisor ratings and rewards will be investigated for men and for women. Only supervisor ratings will be used because in most organizations only supervisors have influence with regard to promotion and salary decisions. Peer and self-ratings typically are used only for developmental purposes

(Murphy, Cleveland, & Mohler, 2001). Therefore, supervisor ratings are expected to provide the best representation of how gender impacts the relationship between citizenship performance and employee rewards in actual organizations.

In answer to the question above, Kidder and Parks (2001) theorized that men and women would not be rewarded equally for their citizenship performance. Part of their argument was that stereotyped feminine behaviors are viewed as in-role behaviors for females and extra-role for males. Similarly, behaviors that are stereotyped masculine are viewed as in-role for males and extra-role for females. Therefore, males performing stereotyped female tasks would be going above their regular duties, but females performing stereotyped female tasks would be meeting rater expectations. In relation to rewards, Kidder and Parks predicted that women would not be rewarded for female stereotyped citizenship behaviors to the same degree as would men and that men would not be rewarded for male stereotyped citizenship behaviors to the same degree as would women. Consequently, because women are expected to perform personal support behaviors, they are not predicted to receive the same amount of rewards for these behaviors as are men and because men are expected to perform organizational support behaviors, they are not predicted to receive the same amount of rewards for these behaviors as are women. Therefore, it is likely that the relationship between personal support and rewards will be greater for men than it will be for women and the relationship between organizational support and rewards will be greater for women than it will be for men. Martin (1987) found no gender stereotypes of conscientiousness and reliability; therefore, gender is not expected to influence the relationship between conscientious initiative and rewards.

Only a few studies have investigated how gender affects the relationship between citizenship performance and organizational rewards (Allen, in press; Allen & Rush, 2001; Chen & Heilman, 2001; Holladay, 2004; Wilkinson, 2003). Allen and Rush (2001) studied the relationship between gender, OCB and reward recommendations. Participants viewed videotapes of either a male or female instructor who demonstrated either high or low OCB. The authors predicted that the influence of OCB on reward recommendations would be greater for males than it would be for females. However, no support was found for this hypothesis. It should be noted that Allen and Rush did not examine OCB by dimension. Because women are predicted to be rewarded for the organizational support and men are predicted to be rewarded for the personal support, the effect of gender may have been cancelled out.

On the other hand, there are several studies that have supported the idea that men and women are not rewarded equally for their citizenship behavior. In 2003, Wilkinson performed a study that used mock teaching evaluations to investigate if male and female teachers would be rewarded differently for their citizenship performance. Multiple regression was used to test an interaction between citizenship performance and gender on ratings of reward recommendations. No significant interaction was found. However, when the citizenship performance was broken apart by dimension, the interaction between the personal support dimension and gender accounted for significant variance in reward recommendations with the correlation between citizenship performance and reward recommendations being significantly different from zero for women, but not for men. The interactions between gender and conscientious initiative and gender and organizational support were not significant. In Wilkinson's study, the participants were

students and the personal support behavioral statements are likely to be the most relevant for students because they represent performance that directly affects the students (eg. Dr. Smith is helpful to co-workers and students). Further, 83% of the participants were women and women are likely to value personal support behaviors because of their tendencies to be nurturers (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). On the contrary, the organizational support performance statements were about professors' commitment to the department and the amount of time they spend complaining about the departmental rules, which is not likely to be as important to the student raters. Therefore, students are expected to value the personal support behaviors, which is different from supervisors who are expected to place more value on organizational support behaviors. The personal support findings will be addressed again under the organizational support section below. The lack of findings for the organizational support dimension is contrary to expectations. Because students are not as likely to be invested in making the organizational support ratings, gender would be predicted to have an impact on the ratings. However, in Wilkinson's study, gender did not have an effect on the relationship between organizational support and reward recommendations. One explanation for the null result may be that students received extra credit for filling out the materials and may not have been invested in the rating process. They may not have carefully read the materials and therefore, the stereotypes may not have been triggered on the organizational support ratings.

Allen (in press) examined the relationship between self ratings of OCBO (OCB directed at the organization) and OCBI (OCB directed at the individual employee) with salary and promotions. Overall, self-ratings of OCBI were significantly correlated with

salary ($r = .11$), but not with promotions ($r = .06$) and self-ratings of OCBO were significantly correlated with salary ($r = .18$) and with promotions ($r = .12$). Allen also tested the moderating effect of gender and found that gender moderated promotions, but not salary. The correlation between OCBO and promotions was significant for males, but not for females. The correlation between OCBI and promotions was not significantly different from zero for males or females, but the correlation for males was significantly larger than the correlation for females. Therefore, gender was found to moderate the relationship of OCB with promotions, but not the relationship of OCB with salary.

More recently, Holladay et al (2004) found that gender moderated the relationship between supervisor ratings of OCB and salary. However, in contrast to the findings of Allen (in press), women were found to have a stronger relationship between citizenship performance and rewards than were men. Although the interaction term was significant, it added only .3% variance to the model. Further, an overall measure of citizenship performance was used, which may have masked dimensional effects.

Chen and Heilman (2001) also found evidence that men and women are not rewarded equally for OCB. These researchers performed a vignette study in which participants evaluated employee performance. The employees in the vignette either performed OCB, did not perform OCB, or only task information was provided. The type of OCB depicted was that of a coworker helping another coworker (personal support). When only task information was provided in the vignette, there were no differences in the reward recommendations given to men and women. However, when a vignette included a person either performing OCB or choosing not to perform OCB, men were given higher reward recommendations than were women. More specifically, when ratings were made

on the vignette where the employee performs OCB, men were given higher reward recommendation ratings than men were on the vignette with only task information provided and no significant differences were found between the two vignettes for women. In other words, men were rewarded for performing OCB, but women were not. When the employee in the vignette chose not to perform OCB, women were given significantly lower reward recommendations than the ratings given to women when only task information was provided, and no significant differences were found between the two vignettes for men. In other words, women were punished for not performing OCB and men were not. This study is especially interesting because it demonstrates that women may be punished for *not* performing personal support behaviors. This is consistent with recent research concerning prescriptive gender stereotypes. More specifically, women who violate the prescriptive gender stereotype of “niceness” are evaluated negatively (Rudman & Glick, 2001).

Personal support. Based on the theory by Kidder and Parks (2000) and the findings by Chen and Heilman (2001), men are likely to receive greater rewards for performing personal support behaviors than are women. Further, based on prescriptive gender stereotypes, women are likely to be punished for not performing personal support.

Hypothesis 4: Gender is predicted to moderate the relationship between supervisor ratings of personal support and rewards. A curvilinear relationship is predicted between personal support and rewards for both men and women. Men who perform above average levels of personal support performance are predicted to be rewarded for their performance, but no relationship is predicted between rewards and personal support for

men with below average performance. Women who perform below average levels of personal support performance are predicted to receive lower rewards, but no relationship is predicted between personal support and rewards for women who perform above average levels of personal support.

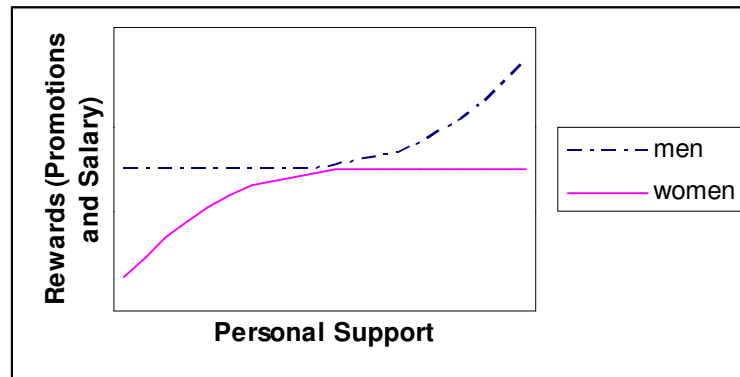


Figure 4. Predicted Results for Hypothesis 4.

Organizational Support and Conscientious Initiative. Conway et al's (2001) meta-analysis found that supervisors value "getting ahead" behaviors when making their ratings. Getting ahead behaviors are similar to organizational support behaviors and supervisors are likely to value the organizational support behaviors. Further, supervisors are likely to be motivated to rate organizational support behaviors accurately and thus gender stereotypes are less likely to influence the relationship between organizational support and rewards. However, in Wilkinson's (2004) study, student raters were expected to value personal support behaviors when making their ratings and consequently, gender would not be predicted to influence those ratings, but the findings indicated that gender did moderate the relationship between personal support and reward recommendations. Therefore, with these conflicting results, an exploratory research question is posed.

Research Question 1: Does gender moderate the relationship between supervisor ratings of organizational support and rewards?

Martin (1987) found no gender stereotypes associated with the conscientious initiative dimension. As a consequence, gender is not predicted to impact the relationship between conscientious initiative and rewards. However, this issue will be explored by testing the following research question.

Research Question 2: Does gender moderate the relationship between supervisor ratings of conscientious initiative and rewards.

To summarize, if men are rewarded for performing personal support behaviors and women are not and if women are punished for not performing personal support behaviors and men are not these results would provide a reason for the disparity between men and women on promotions into upper management and for the existing salary gap between men and women.

Chapter 2

Method

Participants

Participants were full-time employees from multiple companies across the United States. Participation was rewarded by either entering the participant's name in a raffle to win a \$100 gift certificate or by providing the participant with a report detailing their performance ratings. Participants were required to have a supervisor who witnessed their daily work activity and work full time. All participation was voluntary.

Two hundred and eighty-one individuals initially agreed to participate in the study. Twenty-two of the volunteers withdrew before the study got started, resulting in no data. Several reasons were provided for dropping out, for example, quitting the company and being too busy. Of the 259 volunteers who provided data, 227 resulted in usable data. In order to use an individual's data to test Hypotheses 1 through 3, a self-evaluation, a peer-evaluation, and a supervisor-evaluation had to be completed. Table 1 displays the 162 participants who were used to test Hypotheses 1 through 3 by gender, scale type, and company. Data from 97 individuals did not meet the criteria to be used in testing Hypotheses 1 through 3. Data was incomplete in a number of ways: 51 individuals had no self or peer evaluation, seven individuals had no supervisor or peer evaluation, three individuals had no self or supervisor evaluation, 15 individuals had no self evaluation, 19 individuals had no supervisor evaluation, and two individuals had no peer evaluation.

Table 1. Company Sample Sizes for Hypotheses 1 Through 3 By Company.

Company	Objective			Subjective			Total
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	
Casino	6	21	27	9	16	25	52
Distribution	0	0	0	5	3	8	8
Pharmaceutical	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
Government 1	0	0	0	3	1	4	4
Government 2	10	1	11	0	0	0	11
Telecommunications	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
Bank	16	5	21	13	17	30	51
Healthcare Facility	7	6	13	0	0	0	13
Snowball	14	3	17	4	0	4	21
Total	55	36	91	34	37	71	162

In order for individual's data to be included in testing Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2, individuals needed to report their gender, salary or promotions, and have a completed supervisor evaluation. Table 2 displays the 226 participants who had complete data for the promotional analyses and 218 participants who had complete data for the salary analyses. Data was incomplete for 32 individuals in two ways: 29 individuals had no supervisor evaluations and three individuals had no demographic information.

Data was collected in two ways. The first data collection method was snowball sampling that offered potential participants an opportunity to be entered in a raffle to win a \$100 gift certificate. The second method was through companies where participants received a feedback report for their participation. The snowball method resulted in 41 individuals agreeing to participate with usable data for 30 individuals. Table 1 displays the usable data by company, scale and gender for Hypotheses 1 through 3, and Table 2 displays the usable data by company and gender for Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2. Two hundred and forty employees from eight different companies

volunteered to participate in exchange for receiving a performance feedback report and 197 resulted in usable data. One large Midwestern pharmaceuticals company and one large South-Eastern telecommunications company had one participant each. Two West Coast government offices participated with four and 11 participants and all data was used in the analyses. One medium sized West Coast casino had 122 volunteers for the study. Data was used for 106 of the 122 volunteers. A large Midwestern bank had 60 employees volunteer to participate, 52 of which were included in the present study. A medium sized Midwestern distribution company had 25 volunteers participate, only 8 of which had usable data. A large South-Eastern health center had 14 employees volunteer to participate and data from all 14 employees were used in the analyses.

Table 2. Company Sample Sizes for Hypothesis 4 and Research Question 1 and 2 By Company.

Company	Promotions			Salary		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
Casino	39	66	105	33	66	99
Distribution	5	3	8	5	3	8
Pharmaceutical	1	0	1	1	0	1
Government 1	3	1	4	3	1	4
Government 2	10	1	11	10	1	11
Telecommunications	1	0	1	1	0	1
Bank	30	22	52	30	21	51
Healthcare Facility	8	6	14	8	6	14
Snowball	24	6	30	24	5	29
Total	121	105	226	115	103	218

Overall, 227 self demographic surveys were completed and used in analyses. The following statistics are the demographics for individuals whose data were used in the present study. The majority of the self sample were women ($N = 120, 53\%$) with bachelor degrees ($N = 82, 42\%$). Self raters ranged in age from 20 to 71 ($M = 37.64, SD =$

10.08) and tenure with the company ranged from 3 months to 27 years ($M = 5.59$, $SD = 5.41$). One-third (33%) of the self raters were white ($N = 77$) and the two most common job levels were managerial ($N = 90$, 40%) and frontline ($N = 92$, 41%). The largest industry represented was the customer service industry ($N = 106$, 47%) and the second largest was the banking industry ($N = 54$, 24%).

There were 544 completed peer evaluations that were used in analyses and rates had an average of 2.36 peer raters ($SD = 1.87$). The majority of peer respondents were white ($N = 322$, 66%) and approximately half the sample were female ($N = 254$, 51%) with bachelor degrees ($N = 251$, 50%). The largest job level reported was managerial ($N = 227$, 45%), followed by frontline ($N = 153$, 30%). The two largest industries reported were banking ($N = 210$, 39%) and customer service ($N = 171$, 32%) industries. The peer respondents ranged in age from 21 to 65 ($M = 39.33$, $SD = 9.46$). The range of time that respondents had worked with the ratee was 3 months to 24 years ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 5.66$). Three responses were removed because they had worked with the respondent for less than 3 months. Tenure with the company ranged from 3 months to 28 years ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 5.66$).

Finally, there were 255 supervisor respondents and ratees had an average of 1.12 supervisor raters ($SD = .41$). The majority of supervisor respondents were white ($N = 175$, 76%), had their bachelors degree ($N = 82$, 47%), were at the managerial job level ($N = 232$, 94%), and were male ($N = 161$, 65%). The two largest industries represented in the supervisor sample were customer service ($N = 112$, 44%) and banking ($N = 63$, 25%) industries. The age ranged from 23 to 65 years ($M = 42.68$, $SD = 9.42$). The supervisor

raters had tenure with the company ranging from 3 months to 36 years ($M = 8.25$, $SD = 7.96$) and had worked with the ratee for 3 months to 12 years ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 3.08$).

Design

The study design was a 2x2 between subjects factorial design. Completed data was collected for 162 participants (162 self ratings, 162 peer ratings, and 162 supervisor ratings). The independent variables were gender and scale type and the dependent variables were the three dimensions of citizenship performance, personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative. Table 3 illustrates the sample distribution by rater and participant gender for each dependent variable.

Table 3. Distribution of Participants by Scale Type and Gender for the Three Dependent Variables.

Scale Type	Dependent Variable						Total
	Personal Support		Organizational Support		Conscientious Initiative		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Objective	45	33	45	33	45	33	78
Subjective	44	40	44	40	44	40	94
Total	89	73	89	73	89	73	162

Note: values represent sample size in each cell.

Procedure

Throughout the procedures section, “participants” are defined as individuals whose performance is being rated and “respondents” are individuals who are rating the participants’ performance. Two procedures were used to collect data for this study. The first procedure was through company contact. Initial contact with companies was made by calling a contact person within the human resource department and offering an opportunity for their employees to receive a 360-degree feedback report. In order to increase interest in the 360 report, twelve items were added to the questionnaire to

increase the breadth of performance evaluated, but the items were not used in the analyses. Five extra items measured trustworthiness, five measured communication skills, and there were two open ended questions asking about employees' strengths and weaknesses.

The company contact person initiated the process by sending an email or a paper memo (Appendix A) to employees explaining the opportunity and detailing the process. Names and email addresses of employees interested in participating in the study and receiving a feedback report were provided to the researcher. The researcher sent an email/memo (Appendix B) instructing potential participants to go to a website to choose their peer and supervisor raters. The website asked participants to provide the email addresses of peers and supervisors who witness their daily work activities and have worked with them for at least 3 months. When the participants clicked the submit button, the email addresses were sent to the researcher.

Once rater emails were compiled, emails/memos (Appendix C) were sent to raters instructing them to go to a website and complete the performance evaluation about the participant. Participants were given a link to fill out a self evaluation and a separate link to complete evaluations about peers and/or subordinates. The first page raters encountered after entering the website was the consent form (Appendix D). If they agreed to participate, they were asked to click a button to proceed to the questionnaire. Participants were assigned to either the objective or subjective scale condition. Work groups and companies received the same scale type so that they would receive the same form of feedback. Each company was assigned a different scale, with the scale type

being alternated by company. The two largest companies were an exception. The casino represented a large portion of the study and therefore half the casino participants were assigned the objective scale and half were assigned the subjective scale, in order to avoid confounding company with scale type. Scale type within the casino was alternated within gender and job title. For example, the first female poker dealer was given a subjective scale and the second an objective scale.

The second largest company was the bank. Within the bank, there were four work groups with 7, 11, 15, and 22 employees respectively. The size 7 and size 15 work groups were assigned the objective scale and the size 11 and size 22 work groups were assigned the subjective scale. Tables 1 and 2 display the distribution of participations in the company by gender and scale type. Appendix E provides an example of the objective self questionnaire and Appendix F provides an example of the subjective peer/supervisor questionnaire. After completing the evaluation component of the questionnaire, participants were asked demographic questions (Appendix H). The self report questionnaire contained two additional demographic items, not contained in the peer or supervisor questionnaire, asking participants to report their current salary and the number of promotions they have received on their current job. After submitting the evaluations, employees were sent to a website that thanked them for their participation and provided them with an email address they could use to request more information about the study (Appendix G). Raters were given one week to complete the ratings and one reminder was sent the day before their deadline. Questionnaire data completed by raters was sent to the researcher and evaluations were matched by the ratee's name that was included in the questionnaire.

The casino sample had two exceptions that were not used in the other companies. First, the general manager of the casino and the researcher created job specific questions that were added to the citizenship performance items. The questions ranged from 14 to 22 questions, depending on the job. The final scales ranged from 32 to 40 items with two open ended questions. Differences between companies and scales were analyzed and are included in the results section.

The second exception with the casino was that approximately 55 employees provided a list of respondent emails to rate their performance, but never completed the self evaluation. Consequently, these 55 employees had supervisor ratings, but no self evaluations. Therefore, without gender and salary or promotions information, the supervisor evaluations could not be used to test hypotheses. These 55 employees were asked to go to the website and complete the demographic information. Consequently, data from participants who were uncomfortable completing the self evaluation could still be used in the present study. Fifty-one employees completed the demographic information and their data was included in the analyses.

The second procedure was the snowball sampling method. Individuals who were acquainted with the researcher were sent an email asking them to participate in the study (Appendix I). They were asked to create an identification number and forward an email to a supervisor and a co-worker asking the supervisor and co-worker to anonymously complete an evaluation using the identification number. As an incentive, participants were entered in a raffle to win a \$100 gift certificate. At the end of the forwarded email, participants were asked to again forward the email to people they know who might be willing to participate in the study.

The snowball sampling method used the shorter performance evaluation with only 18-items. An item was added to the demographic section asking participants to identify their job industry (tourist, education, real estate/construction, agriculture, government, healthcare, technology, retail/distribution, professional/financial, manufacturing, or other). Differences between data collected within participating companies and data collected using snowball sampling were investigated and will be described in the post hoc results section.

Measures

Citizenship Performance. Borman, Buck, Hanson, Motowidlo, Stark, and Drasgow (2001) developed a computerized adaptive rating scale of 124 behavioral statements of citizenship performance. Each of these statements were given an effectiveness rating that ranged from 1 (very ineffective) to 4 (very effective). The standard deviation of effectiveness ratings was less than .5 for 80% of the statements. Items were sorted into Coleman and Borman's (2000) three dimensions, personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative with an average accuracy of 90%. For the present study, 18 items were chosen for the citizenship performance measures. The items were chosen based on four criteria, 1) percent correctly sorted into dimensions, 2) standard deviation of effectiveness ratings, 3) mean of effectiveness ratings, and 4) generalizability of the item to all jobs. All 18 items were sorted with at least 89% accuracy and with an average accuracy of 96%. The average standard deviation of the effectiveness ratings was .44 and the largest standard deviation was .52. For each dimension, six positively worded items were chosen with performance ratings of "very effective" (mean rating > 3.5) to avoid discouraging participation with

negatively worded items. Finally, statements that included information about group tasks were excluded to make them more applicable across jobs. The eighteen items and the statistics obtained by Borman et al (2001) are included in Appendix J.

For the subjective measure of citizenship performance, raters were asked how much they agreed with the behavioral statements on a five-point scale that ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The coefficient alphas for the subjective measures of citizenship performance were .83 for personal support, .86 for organizational support, and .84 for conscientious initiative.

For the objective measure of citizenship performance, participants were asked to estimate the percent likelihood that the employee would perform each behavior. This scale was considered objective because “it does not allow for category -based shifts in the meaning of response options” (Biernat, 1995, p. 93). In other words, this is an absolute measure of behavioral occurrence that is not likely to be measured relative to the other sex. Biernat and Kobrynowicz (1997) used a similar objective scale in their study of gender biases in employee selection. Biernat and Kobrynowicz’s objective measure asked evaluators to estimate the percent likelihood that the job applicant would be overqualified for the job. Biernat and Kobrynowicz’s objective measure resulted in a successful application of the shifting standards model. Analyses of internal consistency resulted in coefficient alphas of .90 for personal support, .91 for organizational support, and .90 for the conscientious initiative scale.

Salary. A one-item measure was used to obtain salary information. Participants were asked to “enter your total annual compensation, including annual salary, commissions, tips, and bonuses.” Dreher and Cox (1996) used a similar measure of what

they called direct compensation. This measure is expected to capture the monetary, merit based rewards that may differ from company to company. Indirect measures of compensation, for example health care, were not included. The reported salaries ranged from \$12,870 to \$200,000 ($M = \$52,191$, $SD = \$23,297$).

Promotions. A one-item measure was used to obtain promotion information. The self report promotion item asked participants to indicate “the number times you have been promoted while working with your current company.” Promotions were defined as, “a significant increase in responsibility, annual salary, or a change in organizational rank” (Allen, in press). This measurement was chosen because multiple job types were used in these analyses and promotion might be defined in different ways for different companies. For example, some companies may not give employees a new title, but may give them an increase in responsibilities. The reported number of promotions ranged from 0 to 10, with 0 the most frequently reported value (41%). The mean number of promotions was 1.49 ($SD = 1.70$).

Demographics. Demographic information was collected at the end of each completed survey. Appendix H displays the demographic questions. All raters were asked to indicate their age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, industry, job level, country they work in, and tenure. Self raters were also asked to include their salary and promotional data. Peer and supervisor raters were asked how long they have work with the person they evaluated.

Chapter 3

Results

Factor Analyses

Six principle components analyses were done to verify that the citizenship performance items loaded on their intended dimensions. Analyses were done for each rater group (self, peer, and supervisor) and on each scale type (objective and subjective). Promax oblique rotations were performed with forced three factor solutions.

The 3-factor model accounted for 75% of the variance in the objective supervisor ratings of citizenship performance and 64% of the variance in the subjective supervisor ratings of citizenship performance. The eigenvalues, before the rotation, were 9.86, 2.00, and 1.64 (55%, 11%, and 9%, respectively) for the objective scale and 7.98, 1.94, and 1.53 (44%, 11%, and 9%, respectively) for the subjective scale. The pattern matrices for both scale types are displayed in Table 4. The sample size was 113 for the objective scale and 124 for the subjective scale. According to Stevens (2002), with a sample size of 100, the minimum value for an item to be considered loaded on a factor is .51.

For both the objective and subjective scales, item 6 (“willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills”), the final personal support item, did not meet the minimum loading criteria on any of the three factors. For the objective scale type, two conscientious initiative items, item 13 and item 14, did not meet the .51 minimum loading criteria for the conscientious initiative factor (.27 and .45, respectively). Item 13 (“persists with unusually high levels of effort, determination and

stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable”) did, however, load on the organizational support dimension instead of the intended conscientious initiative dimension and item 14 did not

Table 4. Pattern Matrix for Supervisor Ratings of Citizenship Performance.

	Objective Scale Components			Subjective Scale Components		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. goes out of his or her way to cheer others on in times of adversity. (PS1)	.06	<u>.90</u>	-.02	.06	-.06	<u>.85</u>
2. always show consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed. (PS2)	-.22	<u>.96</u>	.04	-.31	.18	<u>.88</u>
3. cooperates fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions. (PS3)	-.03	<u>.90</u>	.06	.01	.04	<u>.82</u>
4. goes out of his or her way to congratulate others for their achievements. (PS4)	.19	<u>.78</u>	-.03	.24	-.05	<u>.64</u>
5. listens sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provides emotional support. (PS5)	.12	<u>.82</u>	-.08	.03	-.16	<u>.81</u>
6. willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills. (PS6)	.22	.32	.47	.45	.04	.35
7. offers sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization's mission and objectives. (OS1)	<u>.77</u>	-.12	.21	<u>.70</u>	.18	-.10
8. shows determination to stay with the organization despite hardships. (OS2)	<u>.83</u>	.19	-.20	.07	<u>.80</u>	-.01
9. actively embraces the organization's missions and objectives. (OS3)	<u>.86</u>	-.04	.05	.05	<u>.69</u>	.10
10. defends the organization vigorously when others criticize it. (OS4)	<u>.99</u>	-.01	-.19	.01	<u>.93</u>	-.18
11. shows sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization. (OS5)	<u>.93</u>	.02	-.10	-.16	<u>.96</u>	.01
12. persuades others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission. (OS6)	<u>.81</u>	-.05	.15	.08	<u>.71</u>	.13
13. persists with unusually high levels of effort, determination and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable. (CI1)	<u>.56</u>	-.03	.27	<u>.93</u>	-.20	-.14
14. looks for and creates opportunities to develop own knowledge and skills. (CI2)	.44	.08	.45	<u>.85</u>	-.20	.09
15. strives for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations. (CI3)	-.04	-.01	<u>.93</u>	<u>.73</u>	.22	-.09
16. consistently completes work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short. (CI4)	.10	-.16	<u>.87</u>	.47	.25	.02
17. always finds additional work to do when own normally scheduled duties are completed. (CI5)	.04	.04	<u>.85</u>	<u>.62</u>	.15	.06
18. uses own personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization. (CI6)	-.23	.09	<u>.95</u>	<u>.60</u>	.14	.16

sufficiently load on any factor ('looks for and creates opportunities to develop own knowledge and skills'). For the subjective scale, item 7, the first organizational support item ('offers sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization's mission and objectives'), did not meet the minimum criteria to be considered loaded on the organizational support factor (.18), but did load on the conscientious initiative factor (.70). Similarly, the fourth conscientious initiative item, (item 16; 'consistently completes work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short') did not meet the minimum loading criteria for the conscientious initiative factor (.47).

For peer ratings, the 3-factor model accounted for 72% of the variance in objective citizenship performance and 62% of the variance in subjective citizenship performance. The eigenvalues, before the rotation, were 10.15, 1.68, and 1.11 (56%, 9%, and 6%, respectively) for the objective scale and 8.08, 1.76, and 1.27 (45%, 10%, and 7%, respectively) for the subjective scale. The pattern matrices for both scale types are displayed in Table 5. The sample size for the objective scale was 238 and the sample size for the subjective scale was 253. According to Stevens (2002), with a sample size of 200, the minimum value for an item to be considered loaded on a factor is .36 and with a sample size of 250 the minimum value for an item to be considered loaded on a factor is .33.

For the objective scale, the final personal support item, item 6, did not load sufficiently on the personal support factor (.31), but did load on the conscientious initiative factor (.47). Further, the first organizational support item, item 7, met the minimum criteria for loading on both the organizational support factor (.40) and the

conscientious initiative factor (.37). Finally, the third conscientious initiative item (“strives for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations”) loaded on both the conscientious initiative factor (.52) and the organizational support factor (.42). For the subjective scale, the only item that did not load on the intended

Table 5. Pattern Matrices for Peer Ratings of Citizenship Performance.

	Objective Scale Components			Subjective Scale Components		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. goes out of his or her way to cheer others on in times of adversity. (PS1)	.02	-.07	<u>.88</u>	<u>.89</u>	-.03	-.05
2. always show consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed. (PS2)	-.13	.15	<u>.81</u>	<u>.80</u>	.05	-.09
3. cooperates fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions. (PS3)	.07	-.08	<u>.87</u>	<u>.73</u>	-.05	.19
4. goes out of his or her way to congratulate others for their achievements. (PS4)	.04	-.05	<u>.88</u>	<u>.69</u>	.15	-.06
5. listens sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provides emotional support. (PS5)	-.01	.03	<u>.83</u>	<u>.84</u>	-.13	.03
6. willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills. (PS6)	<u>.47</u>	.13	.31	<u>.62</u>	.19	.03
7. offers sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization' s mission and objectives. (OS1)	<u>.37</u>	<u>.40</u>	.07	.13	<u>.46</u>	.24
8. shows determination to stay with the organization despite hardships. (OS2)	.16	<u>.74</u>	-.13	.12	-.19	<u>.77</u>
9. actively embraces the organization's missions and objectives. (OS3)	.12	<u>.72</u>	-.02	-.10	.07	<u>.79</u>
10. defends the organization vigorously when others criticize it. (OS4)	-.06	<u>.99</u>	-.08	-.04	-.07	<u>.90</u>
11. shows sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization. (OS5)	-.09	<u>.96</u>	.02	.06	.01	<u>.78</u>
12. persuades others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission. (OS6)	-.07	<u>.79</u>	.22	-.06	.14	<u>.75</u>
13. persists with unusually high levels of effort, determination and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable. (CI1)	<u>.90</u>	-.06	-.04	.12	<u>.80</u>	-.23
14. looks for and creates opportunities to develop own knowledge and skills. (CI2)	<u>.97</u>	-.12	.01	-.13	<u>.96</u>	-.14
15. strives for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations. (CI3)	<u>.52</u>	<u>.42</u>	-.00	-.04	<u>.64</u>	.24
16. consistently completes work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short. (CI4)	<u>.77</u>	.07	.00	.09	<u>.70</u>	.02
17. always finds additional work to do when own normally scheduled duties are completed. (CI5)	<u>.92</u>	-.03	-.03	-.02	<u>.72</u>	.12
18. uses own personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization. (CI6)	<u>.72</u>	.17	.02	.07	<u>.63</u>	.17

factor was the first organizational support item. Item 7 did not meet the minimum criteria for loading on organizational support (.24), but did load on the conscientious initiative dimension (.46).

The 3-factor model accounted for 59% and 46% of the variance in self ratings of objective and subjective (respectively) citizenship performance. The eigenvalues, before the rotation, were 6.40, 2.61, and 1.69 (35%, 14%, and 9%, respectively) for the objective scale and 4.60, 2.04, and 1.70 (26%, 11%, and 9%, respectively) for the subjective scale. The pattern matrices for both scale types are displayed in Table 6. The sample sizes for self ratings of citizenship performance with an objective scale and a subjective scale were 84 and 87, respectively. According to Stevens (2002), with a sample size of 80, the minimum value for an item to be considered loaded on a factor is .57.

As can be seen in Table 6, the results for the self ratings do not provide strong support for the predicted three factor model. This is likely because small sample sizes in the self ratings created unreliable factor loadings. Therefore, rather than investigating the factor analysis conducted on self ratings in detail, this data will be used to support findings in the peer and supervisor factor analyses. For the peer and supervisor ratings, only two items did not load on their predicted factor more than once, item 6 (personal support item) and item 7 (organizational support). These two items were consistently a problem across both rater groups and scale types. These two items either did not load on any factor or loaded on the conscientious initiative factor rather than the expected factor. As was found with the previous raters, these two items do not load on their intended factor in the self ratings. For both the objective and subjective scale types, item 6 does not meet the minimum criteria for loading on any of the three factors. For the objective

scale, item 7 meets the loading criteria on the conscientious initiative factor (.75), but doesn't sufficiently load on any of the factors in the subjective scale.

Table 6. Pattern Matrices for Self Ratings of Citizenship Performance.

	Objective Scale Components			Subjective Scale Components		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. goes out of his or her way to cheer others on in times of adversity. (PS1)	-.09	-.13	<u>.97</u>	-.00	<u>.92</u>	-.34
2. always show consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed. (PS2)	.52	-.07	.36	-.46	.33	.51
3. cooperates fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions. (PS3)	-.08	-.02	<u>.85</u>	.08	<u>.73</u>	-.03
4. goes out of his or her way to congratulate others for their achievements. (PS4)	.42	.22	.37	-.07	.15	<u>.71</u>
5. listens sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provides emotional support. (PS5)	-.07	.15	<u>.63</u>	-.15	<u>.67</u>	.12
6. willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills. (PS6)	.30	.53	.07	.37	.38	.15
7. offers sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization's mission and objectives. (OS1)	.04	<u>.75</u>	.06	.27	-.17	.46
8. shows determination to stay with the organization despite hardships. (OS2)	<u>.66</u>	-.09	.07	<u>.43</u>	.36	-.03
9. actively embraces the organization's missions and objectives. (OS3)	<u>.73</u>	.01	.09	.28	-.09	.54
10. defends the organization vigorously when others criticize it. (OS4)	<u>.89</u>	-.04	-.06	.51	.17	.27
11. shows sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization. (OS5)	<u>.93</u>	-.05	-.13	<u>.63</u>	.27	.05
12. persuades others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission. (OS6)	<u>.90</u>	.01	-.17	.34	.20	.27
13. persists with unusually high levels of effort, determination and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable. (CI1)	-.30	<u>.75</u>	.07	<u>.66</u>	-.21	-.04
14. looks for and creates opportunities to develop own knowledge and skills. (CI2)	-.10	<u>.94</u>	-.22	<u>.77</u>	-.02	-.15
15. strives for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations. (CI3)	-.10	<u>.84</u>	.08	.42	.14	.09
16. consistently completes work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short. (CI4)	.21	.55	-.08	<u>.65</u>	-.10	-.08
17. always finds additional work to do when own normally scheduled duties are completed. (CI5)	.11	<u>.72</u>	-.06	-.13	-.20	<u>.88</u>
18. uses own personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization. (CI6)	.05	.35	.23	.45	-.17	.32

In conclusion, the final personal support item and the first organizational support item, were removed from the scales because they were consistently loading on the unintended conscientious initiative factor and not loading on the intended factors.

Hypotheses

The first step before analyzing the hypotheses was to aggregate the peer and supervisor ratings by participant. If a participant had more than one boss or more than one peer rater, the average of the peers or the supervisors was taken. Intraclass Correlations (ICC) were run to support aggregating the peer and supervisor ratings on the three measures of citizenship performance. Moderate agreement was found between peer raters (Personal support: ICC (2,k) = .47; Organizational support: ICC (2,k) = .53; Conscientious Initiative: ICC (2,k) = .52) and supervisor raters (Personal support: ICC (2,k) = .47; Organizational Support: ICC (2,k) = .44; Conscientious Initiative: ICC (2,k) = .57). Viswesvaran, Ones, and Schmidt (1996) performed a meta-analysis looking at interrater reliability of supervisor and peer ratings of job performance and found the average interrater agreement between supervisors was .52 and the average interrater agreement between peers was .42. Therefore, the raters in the present study have moderate agreement, providing support for averaging respondents performance ratings.

The second step was to convert citizenship performance data to z-scores, in order to compare the different scales used in the objective and subjective scales. Descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 7 (in z-scores) and Table 8 (in raw scores). Hypotheses 1 through 3 were tested using a 2 x 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), with three dependent variables (personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative). The independent variables were scale type (objective and subjective) and

gender. Correlations between the demographic variables and the dependent variables are displayed in Table 9 and zero order correlations between items are displayed in Table 10 and separated by rater in Tables 11 through 13. Hypothesis 1 predicted that no

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics by Gender, Scale Type, and Rater Using Z-Scores.

		Gender					
		Female			Male		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
		Supervisor					
Objective	Personal Support	76	0.22	0.77	52	-0.32	0.93
	Organizational Support	77	0.07	0.80	52	-0.10	1.00
	Conscientious Initiative	77	0.06	0.92	52	-0.05	0.68
Subjective	Personal Support	67	0.22	0.78	60	-0.25	0.76
	Organizational Support	67	0.09	0.79	60	-0.10	0.87
	Conscientious Initiative	67	0.23	0.73	60	-0.25	0.73
		Peer					
Objective	Personal Support	165	0.19	0.75	111	-0.28	0.92
	Organizational Support	164	0.19	0.75	111	-0.29	0.93
	Conscientious Initiative	165	0.15	0.82	111	-0.21	0.87
Subjective	Personal Support	134	0.01	0.80	134	-0.01	0.78
	Organizational Support	134	-0.06	0.80	134	0.06	0.79
	Conscientious Initiative	134	0.00	0.76	134	0.00	0.81
		Self					
Objective	Personal Support	51	-0.02	0.79	36	0.02	0.71
	Organizational Support	51	-0.15	0.80	36	0.21	0.78
	Conscientious Initiative	51	0.06	0.67	36	-0.09	0.73
Subjective	Personal Support	46	0.06	0.63	43	-0.07	0.71
	Organizational Support	47	-0.03	0.74	43	0.04	0.74
	Conscientious Initiative	47	0.12	0.59	43	-0.12	0.67
		Total					
Total	Personal Support	539	0.12	0.77	436	-0.15	0.83
	Organizational Support	540	0.05	0.78	436	-0.06	0.87
	Conscientious Initiative	541	0.10	0.78	436	-0.11	0.79

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics by Gender, Scale Type, and Rater Using Raw Data.

		Gender					
		Female			Male		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
		Supervisor					
Objective	Personal Support	76	77.37	15.78	52	66.00	19.18
	Organizational Support	77	76.92	17.20	52	73.18	21.65
	Conscientious Initiative	77	70.67	22.24	52	67.92	16.92
Subjective	Personal Support	67	3.95	0.64	60	3.57	0.62
	Organizational Support	67	4.00	0.62	60	3.85	0.69
	Conscientious Initiative	67	3.90	0.65	60	3.47	0.66
		Peer					
Objective	Personal Support	165	79.92	15.82	111	69.96	19.46
	Organizational Support	164	82.97	14.80	111	73.42	18.52
	Conscientious Initiative	165	79.16	20.06	111	70.28	21.18
Subjective	Personal Support	134	3.68	0.66	134	3.66	0.63
	Organizational Support	134	3.77	0.54	134	3.84	0.53
	Conscientious Initiative	134	3.57	0.62	134	3.57	0.66
		Self					
Objective	Personal Support	51	79.22	14.51	36	79.89	13.16
	Organizational Support	51	80.71	13.16	36	86.78	12.61
	Conscientious Initiative	51	80.37	15.18	36	77.35	16.56
	Salary	61	53,171	18,365	46	47,643	27,630
	Promotions	65	1.85	1.71	48	1.15	1.80
Subjective	Personal Support	46	4.00	0.49	43	3.91	0.54
	Organizational Support	47	4.01	0.54	43	4.07	0.55
	Conscientious Initiative	47	4.01	0.45	43	3.80	0.51
	Salary	54	43,024	22,221	58	53,481	26,087
	Promotions	56	1.64	1.70	58	1.26	1.53
		Total					
Total	Personal Support	539	0.12	0.77	436	-0.15	0.83
	Organizational Support	540	0.05	0.78	436	-0.06	0.87
	Conscientious Initiative	541	0.10	0.78	436	-0.11	0.79
	Salary	547	52,526	22,117	451	51,785	24,670
	Promotions	562	2.05	1.85	457	1.28	1.55

Table 9. Zero Order Correlations Between Demographic and Dependent Variables.

	Personal Support	Organizational Support	Conscientious Initiative
Age	-.057	.179*	-.169*
Tenure	-.016	.148	-.076
Race	.062	-.058	.080
Education	.017	.186	.126
Job Level	-.010	-.066	.039
Gender	-.345**	-.165*	-.324**
Company	-.012	.044	-.047

Note: * Correlation is significant at the .05 level. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1. Level coded: 1 = management, 2 = non-management.

Table 10. Zero Order Correlations Between Citizenship Performance Items.

	PS1	PS2	PS3	PS4	PS5	PS6	OS1	OS2	OS3	OS4	OS5	OS6	CI1	CI2	CI3	CI4	CI5	CI6
PS1	-																	
PS2	.575	-																
PS3	.654	.546	-															
PS4	.541	.576	.583	-														
PS5	.600	.500	.570	.539	-													
PS6	.496	.470	.495	.537	.494	-												
OS1	.360	.300	.367	.453	.327	.560	-											
OS2	.315	.299	.368	.338	.342	.442	.439	-										
OS3	.343	.343	.365	.392	.340	.438	.546	.516	-									
OS4	.329	.305	.371	.373	.324	.400	.437	.552	.637	-								
OS5	.379	.377	.414	.408	.370	.440	.439	.561	.552	.745	-							
OS6	.392	.407	.419	.475	.358	.490	.500	.513	.594	.624	.706	-						
CI1	.327	.262	.345	.366	.290	.430	.444	.262	.334	.352	.370	.388	-					
CI2	.347	.284	.367	.386	.306	.505	.503	.318	.367	.354	.417	.430	.715	-				
CI3	.375	.347	.397	.426	.350	.519	.521	.430	.448	.440	.489	.495	.417	.571	-			
CI4	.299	.332	.361	.398	.349	.459	.434	.399	.410	.364	.418	.415	.420	.495	.622	-		
CI5	.327	.386	.384	.424	.358	.502	.495	.357	.447	.394	.407	.467	.474	.496	.604	.589	-	
CI6	.371	.348	.409	.410	.377	.471	.476	.412	.433	.409	.407	.460	.397	.512	.642	.588	.596	-

Note: Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level. PS = Personal Support, OS = Organizational Support, and CI = Conscientious Initiative. N ranges from 932 to 973.

Table 11. Zero Order Correlations for Supervisor Ratings by Scale Type Between Gender, Citizenship Performance, Salary, and Promotions.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Objective					
1. Gender	1.000					
2. Personal Support	-.309**	-				
3. Organizational Support	-.092	.628**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.062	.574**	.679**	-		
5. Salary	-.140	.167	.076	.058	-	
6. Promotions	-.214*	.204*	.220*	.236**	.423**	-
	Subjective					
1. Gender	-					
2. Personal Support	-.290**	-				
3. Organizational Support	-.115	.456**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.316**	.538**	.594**	-		
5. Salary	.249**	-.140	.107	-.038	-	
6. Promotions	-.077	-.037	-.044	.096	.096	-

Note: * Correlation is significant at the .05 level. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level. N range from 119 to 129

differences would be found between men and women on supervisor ratings of organizational support and conscientious initiative, but that women would be rated higher than would men on the personal support dimension. Further, the difference between men

Table 12. Zero Order Correlations for Peer Ratings by Scale Type Between Gender, Citizenship Performance, Salary, and Promotions.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Objective					
1. Gender	-					
2. Personal Support	-.273**	-				
3. Organizational Support	-.274**	.651**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.209**	.634**	.747**	-		
5. Salary	-.307**	.213**	.289**	.216**	-	
6. Promotions	-.347**	.138*	.333**	.301**	.302**	-
	Subjective					
1. Gender	-					
2. Personal Support	-.014	-				
3. Organizational Support	.074	.482**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.001	.601**	.599**	-		
5. Salary	.111	-.145*	.088	-.017	-	
6. Promotions	-.188**	-.108	.037	.020	-.007	-

Note: * Correlation is significant at the .05 level. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level.
N range from 262 to 276

Table 13. Zero Order Correlations for Self Ratings by Scale Type Between Gender, Citizenship Performance, Salary, and Promotions.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Objective					
1. Gender	-					
2. Personal Support	.025	-				
3. Organizational Support	.220*	.547**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.109	.371**	.323**	-		
5. Salary	-.120	-.013	-.002	.057	-	
6. Promotions	-.196*	-.051	-.113	.023	.525**	-
	Subjective					
1. Gender	-					
2. Personal Support	-.096	-				
3. Organizational Support	.045	.352**	-			
4. Conscientious Initiative	-.189	.264*	.437**	-		
5. Salary	.212*	-.019	.049	-.058	-	
6. Promotions	-.119	.041	.240*	.140	.081	-

Note: * Correlation is significant at the .05 level. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level.
N range from 86 to 114

and women was predicted to be larger on the objective scale than on the subjective scale.

Means for supervisor ratings are displayed in Table 14 as raw scores and in Table 15 as z-scores. Wilk's Lambda for the interaction between scale type and gender was not significant ($\bar{E} = .981, F(3,156) = 1.00, ns, \zeta^2 = .02$). No significant differences were found for the main effect of scale type ($\bar{E} = .999, F(3,156) = .03, ns; \zeta^2 = .00$), but there was a significant main effect for gender ($\bar{E} = .834, F(3,156) = 10.36, p < .01; \zeta^2 = .17$).

Table 14. Means for Supervisor Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Raw Scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	79.39	13.39	44	63.76	19.52	33	72.69	17.55	77
Subjective	3.92	.55	45	3.59	.62	40	3.77	.77	85
Organizational Support									
Objective	82.27	10.83	44	73.41	23.19	35	78.48	17.67	77
Subjective	4.02	.57	45	3.91	.77	40	3.97	.67	85
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	77.72	15.52	44	67.24	14.45	33	73.23	15.86	77
Subjective	3.91	.77	45	3.61	.62	40	3.81	.61	85

Table 15. Means for Supervisor Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Z-scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	.33	.61	45	-.44	.97	33	-.00	.87	77
Subjective	.19	.70	44	-.23	.78	40	-.01	.77	85
Total	.26	.66	89	-.33	.87	76			
Organizational Support									
Objective	.19	.55	45	-.26	1.18	33	-.00	.90	77
Subjective	.07	.71	44	-.07	.97	40	.00	.84	85
Total	.13	.63	89	-.16	1.06	73			
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	.22	.76	45	-.28	.68	33	-.00	.77	77
Subjective	.22	.65	44	-.24	.73	40	.00	.72	85
Total	.22	.70	89	-.26	.70	73			

T-tests were employed to investigate the main effect of gender more closely.

Results indicated significant gender differences in personal support ($t(1,132) = 4.74, p < .01, \zeta^2 = .13$), organizational support ($t(1,112) = 2.01, p < .05, \zeta^2 = .03$), and conscientious initiative ($t(1,160) = 4.33, p < .01, \zeta^2 = .10$), with the modified bonferroni (.05/number of comparisons; .05/3, .05/2, .05/1) used to control the familywise error rate.

Women were rated significantly higher on all types of citizenship performance, but the effect size was largest on the personal support dimension which accounted for 13% of the variance. Partial support was found for Hypothesis 1, women were rated significantly higher than were men on the personal support dimension.

Table 16. Means for Peer Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Raw Scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	81.97	10.89	45	67.24	15.70	33	76.58	14.50	78
Subjective	3.88	.60	44	3.77	.50	40	3.83	.81	84
Organizational Support									
Objective	83.24	10.35	45	74.27	14.53	33	79.44	13.00	78
Subjective	3.83	.53	44	3.92	.45	40	3.87	.49	84
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	81.52	12.78	45	69.69	18.19	33	76.52	16.29	78
Subjective	3.76	.67	44	3.66	.48	40	3.71	.59	84

Table 17. Means for Peer Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Z-Scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	.33	.67	45	-.45	.97	33	.00	.87	78
Subjective	.08	.89	44	-.09	.73	40	.00	.81	84
Total	.21	.78	89	-.25	.86	73			
Organizational Support									
Objective	.26	.69	45	-.35	.97	33	.00	.87	78
Subjective	-.07	.89	44	.08	.76	40	-.00	.83	84
Total	.10	.81	89	-.12	.88	73			
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	.26	.67	45	-.35	.93	33	-.00	.85	78
Subjective	.06	.92	44	-.06	.66	40	.00	.80	84
Total	.16	.81	89	-.19	.81	73			

Hypothesis 2 predicted that no differences would be found between men and women on peer ratings of organizational support and conscientious initiative. However, men were predicted to be rated higher than were women on the organizational support dimension and the difference was predicted to be greater on the objective scale than on the subjective scale. The means for peer ratings in raw scores and z-scores are displayed in Tables 16 and 17. The MANOVA was significant for the interaction of scale type and gender ($\eta^2 = .947$, $F(3,156) = 2.93$, $p < .05$; $\zeta^2 = .05$). The main effect for scale type was not significant ($\eta^2 = .999$, $F(3,156) = .07$, ns ; $\zeta^2 = .00$), but the main effect for gender was significant ($\eta^2 = .911$, $F(3,156) = 5.09$, $p < .01$; $\zeta^2 = .09$). Therefore, the interaction and main effect for gender were investigated further with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Table 18 displays the results of the subsequent ANOVA analyses. The ANOVA models were significant for all three dependent variables (personal support: $F(3,158) = 6.22$, $p < .01$; organizational support: $F(3,158) = 3.65$, $p < .05$; conscientious initiative: $F(3,158) = 3.87$, $p < .05$). The main effect for gender was significant on personal support

Table 18. Analysis of Variance Results for Peer Ratings.

Variable	Personal Support			Organizational Support			Conscientious Initiative		
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>MB</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>MB</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>MB</i>
Model	3	6.22*	.017	3	3.65*	.05	3	3.87*	.025
Gender	1	13.66*	.008	1	3.11	.05	1	8.42*	.01
Gender x Scale Type	1	5.79*	.017	1	8.29*	.0125	1	3.70	.025
MSE	158	.65		158	.68		158	.65	

Note: MB = Modified Bonferroni technique to control for familywise error rate. *p • MB

($F(1,158) = 13.86$, $p < .01$, $\zeta^2 = .08$) and conscientious initiative ($F(1,158) = 8.421$, $p < .01$, $\zeta^2 = .07$), but organizational support was not significant. $F(1,158) = 3.11$, $p = ns$, ζ^2

= .02). Women received higher ratings than did men on all three types of citizenship performance.

Finally, the interaction term was significant for the personal support ($F(1,158) = 5.79, p < .05, \zeta^2 = .04$) and organizational support variables ($F(1,158) = 8.29, p < .05, \zeta^2 = .04$) with the modified bonferroni applied. However, the interaction term was not

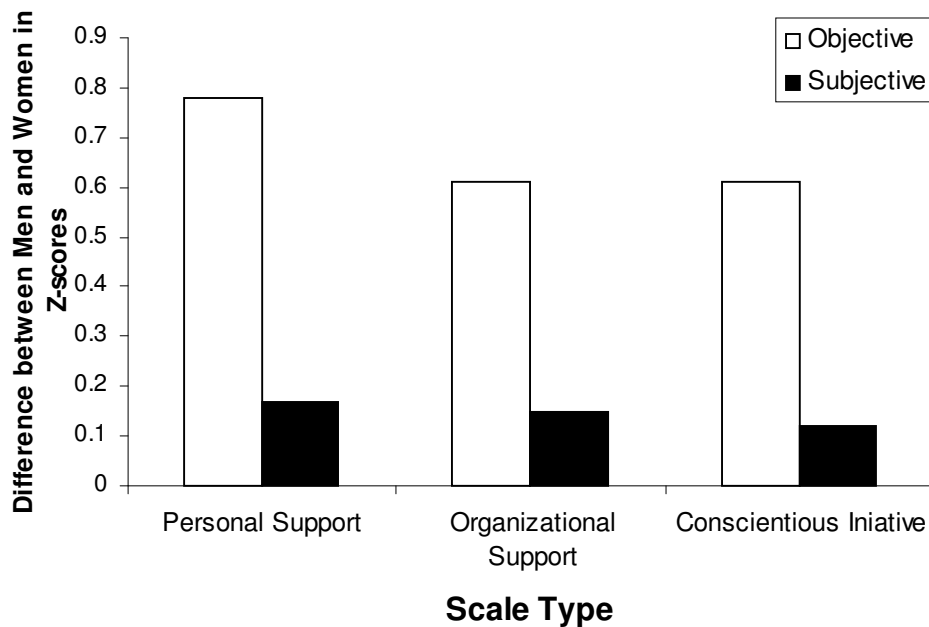


Figure 5. Mean Differences Between Men and Women on Peer Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Scale Type.

significant in the conscientious initiative dimension model ($F(1,158) = 3.70, ns, \zeta^2 = .02$). Tables 16 and 17 illustrate that women were rated higher than were men on all ratings except the subjective measure of organizational support. Figure 5 illustrates the mean differences between men and women on the three dimensions of citizenship performance, separated by objective and subjective scale type. This figure shows that the differences between men and women were greater on the objective scales than they were on the subjective scales. The subsequent t-tests support the visual representation found in

Figure 5. The three t-tests comparing men and women on the objective scale were significant with the modified bonferroni employed (personal support: $t(76) = -4.21, p < .001$; organizational support: $t(76) = -3.07, p < .01$; conscientious initiative: $t(76) = -3.33, p < .001$), but the three t-tests comparing men and women on the subjective scale were not significant (personal support: $t(82) = -.94, ns$; organizational support: $t(82) = .81, ns$; conscientious initiative: $t(82) = -.71, ns$). This finding is contrary to Hypothesis 2. The only gender difference predicted for Hypothesis 2 was that men would be rated higher than would women on the organizational support dimension. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that men would rate themselves higher than would women on both objective and subjective measures of organizational support. Women were predicted to rate themselves higher than would men on objective measures of personal support. No gender differences were predicted for subjective measures of personal support and no gender differences were predicted on the conscientious initiative dimension. Tables 19 and 20, displayed on the following page, the means for self ratings in raw scores and self ratings in z-scores. The MANOVA was not significant for the interaction of scale type and gender ($\bar{\epsilon} = .992, F(3,156) = .42, p = ns, \zeta^2 = .01$) and was not significant for the main effect of scale type ($\bar{\epsilon} = .999, F(3,156) = .03, p = ns, \zeta^2 = .00$). The main effect for gender was significant ($\bar{\epsilon} = .917, F(3,156) = 4.71, p = .01, \zeta^2 = .08$) and this result was explored further with three t-tests comparing men and women on the three dependent variables.

The subsequent t-tests resulted in a significant difference between men and women on the conscientious initiative dimension ($t(160) = 2.33, p = .05, \zeta^2 = .03$), with women rating themselves significantly higher than did men. Neither organizational

Table 19. Means for Self Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Raw Scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	79.47	14.00	45	8.01	12.81	33	79.95	13.44	78
Subjective	3.98	.48	44	3.87	.54	40	3.93	.51	84
Organizational Support									
Objective	81.41	12.44	45	86.67	12.83	33	83.90	12.75	78
Subjective	4.00	.51	44	4.07	.55	40	4.03	.53	84
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	81.60	15.02	45	76.71	17.00	33	79.53	15.97	78
Subjective	4.02	.45	44	3.80	.53	40	3.91	.50	84

Table 20. Means for Self Ratings of Citizenship Performance by Gender and Scale Type in Z-Scores.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Objective	-.03	.77	45	.04	.70	33	-.00	.74	78
Subjective	.07	.63	44	-.08	.70	40	-.00	.66	84
Total	.02	.70	89	-.02	.70	73			
Organizational Support									
Objective	-.13	.80	45	.17	.84	33	-.00	.83	78
Subjective	-.04	.70	44	.4	.75	40	.00	.72	84
Total	-.08	.75	89	.10	.79	73			
Conscientious Initiative									
Objective	.10	.67	45	-.13	.75	33	-.00	.71	78
Subjective	.13	.59	44	-.13	.68	40	.00	.65	84
Total	.11	.63	89	-.13	.71	73			

support ($t(160) = -1.51$, r_s , $\zeta^2 = .02$) nor personal support ($t(160) = .41$, r_s , $\zeta^2 = .00$) resulted in significant gender differences. With the modified Bonferroni correction, however, the difference between men and women on the conscientious initiative dimension was no longer significant ($\alpha/\text{number of comparison}$, $.05/3 = .017$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 received no support. This result is further examined in the post hoc analyses.

The remaining hypotheses were tested with multiple regression. Subjective and objective citizenship performance scales were combined into one measure of personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative, because initial mean gender differences on citizenship performance will not influence the slope of the regression analyses. Supervisor ratings were used to analyze Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2 because they are expected to provide the best representation of how gender impacts the relationship between citizenship performance and employee rewards in actual organization. The correlations between gender, salary, promotions, and the three measures of citizenship performance are displayed in Table 21 and separated by gender and displayed in Table 22.

Table 21. Correlations Between Variables included in Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender	-					
2. Salary	.05	-				
3. Promotions	-.17*	.30**	-			
4. Personal Support	-.28**	.05	.10	-		
5. Organizational Support	-.11	.15*	.11	.53**	-	
6. Conscientious Initiative	-.21**	.08	.21**	.56**	.62**	-
Mean	.47	49,542	1.49	-.00	.00	.00
SD	.50	23,866	1.70	.83	.85	.79
N	227	218	226	227	227	227

Note: Gender coded females = 0, males = 1. **Significant at the .01 level; *Significant at the .05 level.

At step one, the citizenship performance dimension was entered ($Y = b_1X + b_0$) followed by the quadratic citizenship performance term ($Y = b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_0$). At step three, gender was entered ($Y = b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_3Z + b_0$) followed by the linear interaction term ($Y = b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_3Z + b_4XZ + b_0$). The final step was the addition of the quadratic interaction term ($Y = b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_3Z + b_4XZ + b_5X^2Z + b_0$). Hypothesis 4 predicted that gender would moderate the relationship between personal support and rewards creating a curvilinear relationship. Men who performed above average on personal support were predicted to have a positive relationship between personal support and

Table 22. Correlations Between Variables in Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2 for Supervisor Ratings Separated by Gender.

	1	2	3	4	5
Women					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.24*	-			
3. Personal Support	-.16	.05	-		
4. Organizational Support	-.01	.09	.51**	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	-.06	.13	.53**	.70**	-
Mean	48,406	1.75	.22	.08	.16
SD	20,807	1.70	.75	.75	.82
N	115	121	121	121	121
Men					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.39**	-			
3. Personal Support	.24**	.07	-		
4. Organizational Support	.26**	.11	.53**	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	.23*	.25**	.53**	.55**	-
Mean	50,810	1.19	-.25	-.10	-.17
SD	26,923	1.65	.85	.95	.73
N	103	105	106	106	106

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

rewards, but no relationship was predicted for men who perform below average on personal support. Women who perform below average on personal support were predicted to have a negative relationship between personal support and rewards.

However, women who perform above average on personal support were predicted to have no relationship between personal support and rewards.

Table 23 displays the results for Hypothesis 4. The quadratic interaction term was not a significant addition to either the salary (step 5; $\hat{\alpha} = .07, t(212) = .51, ns$) or the promotions models (step 5; $\hat{\alpha} = .18, t(220) = 1.56, ns$). In the salary model, the linear interaction term was the only significant addition at step 4 ($\hat{\alpha} = .31, t(211) = 2.77, p < .01$) and personal support was not a significant predictor of salary (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .05, t(211)$

Table 23. Curvilinear Regression for Supervisor Ratings of Personal Support.

	Standardized regression weights				
	Salary				
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Personal Support	.05	.05	.07	-.16	-.14
Quadratic Personal Support		-.07	-.06	.01	-.04
Gender			.08	.07	.04
Linear Interaction				.31	.31
Quadratic Interaction					.07
R^2 at each step	.00	.01	.01	.05	.05
R^2 change		.00	.01	.03	.00
F	.63	.90	1.28	7.65**	.26
N	216	215	214	213	212
	Promotions				
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Personal Support	.10	.08	.04	.07	.08
Quadratic Personal Support		-.15	-.14	-.15	-.26
Gender			-.14	-.14	-.21
Linear Interaction				-.05	-.03
Quadratic Interaction					.18
R^2 at each step	.01	.03	.05	.05	.06
R^2 change		.02	.02	.00	.01
F	2.47	4.98*	4.32*	.61	.12
N	224	223	222	221	220

Note: **Significant at the .01 level; *Significant at the .05 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

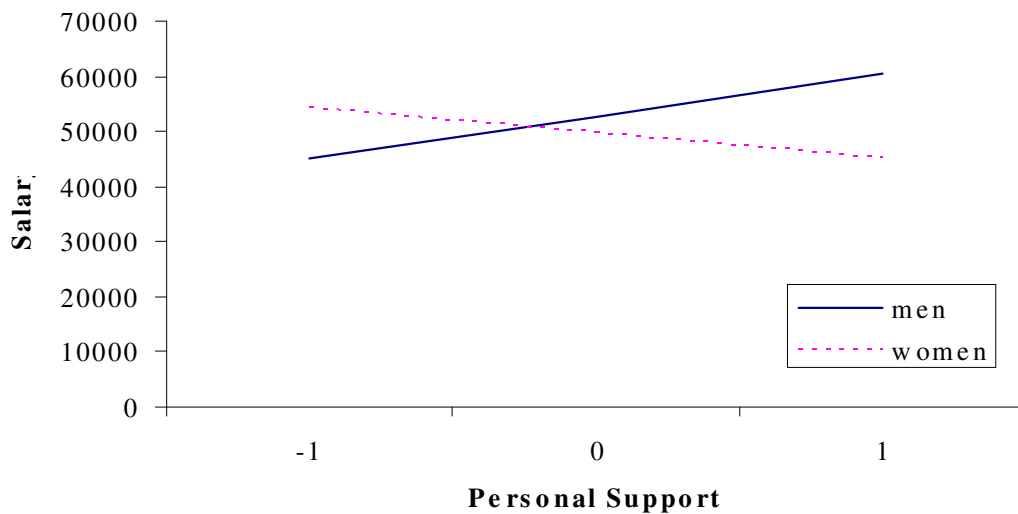


Figure 6. Regression of Personal Support on Salary for Men and for Women.

$= .79, ns$). Figure 6 displays the separate regression equations for men and women. The regression of salary on personal support was not significant for women ($\hat{\beta} = -.16, t(113)$ highest promotions were given to those who had the mean personal support ratings, whereas, high and low levels of personal support were not rewarded as much as those who received a mean score. Finally, personal support was found to be a significant predictor of promotions (step 1; $\hat{\beta} = .10, t(211) = 1.57, p < .05$) and accounted for 4% of the variance in promotions. Overall, these results do not support the curvilinear relationship predicted in Hypothesis 4.

Research Question 1 investigated whether gender moderated the relationship between organizational support and rewards and Research Question 2 investigated whether gender moderated the relationship between conscientious initiative and rewards. Hierarchical multiple regressions were used to analyze Research Questions 1 and 2. The citizenship performance dimension was entered first, then gender, and finally, the interaction term was entered in step 3. Table 24 displays the regression results for

Research Question 1. The interaction between organizational support and gender was not significant for salary (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .45$, $t(214) = 1.86$, $p = .06$) or for promotions (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = -.01$, $t(222) = -.05$, ns). Organizational support was a significant predictor of salary

Table 24. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Supervisor Ratings of Organizational Support.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Organizational Support	.15	.16	-.27
Gender		.08	.07
Interaction			.45
R^2 at each step	.02	.03	.04
R^2 change		.01	.02
F	5.05*	1.20	3.47 [‡]
N	216	215	214
Promotions			
Organizational Support	.11	.10	.11
Gender		-.16	-.16
Interaction			-.01
R^2 at each step	.01	.03	.03
R^2 change	.01	.02	.00
F	2.93	5.51	.00
N	224	223	222

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; [‡]Significant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

(step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .15$, $t(222) = 2.25$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .02$) and accounted for 2% of the variance in salary, but was not a significant predictor of promotions (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .11$, $t(222) = 1.17$, ns). Because these analyses were posed as a research question and the p-value for the interaction on salary was .06, the results were analyzed further to explore the findings for future research. Figure 7 displays the separate regression equations for men and women. The regression equation for men was significant ($\hat{\alpha} = .26$, $t(101) = 2.86$, $p < .01$) and accounted for 7% of the variance in salary but, the regression equation was not significant for women ($\hat{\alpha} = -.15$, $t(113) = -1.63$, ns). Therefore, organizational support

predicts salary for men, but not for women.

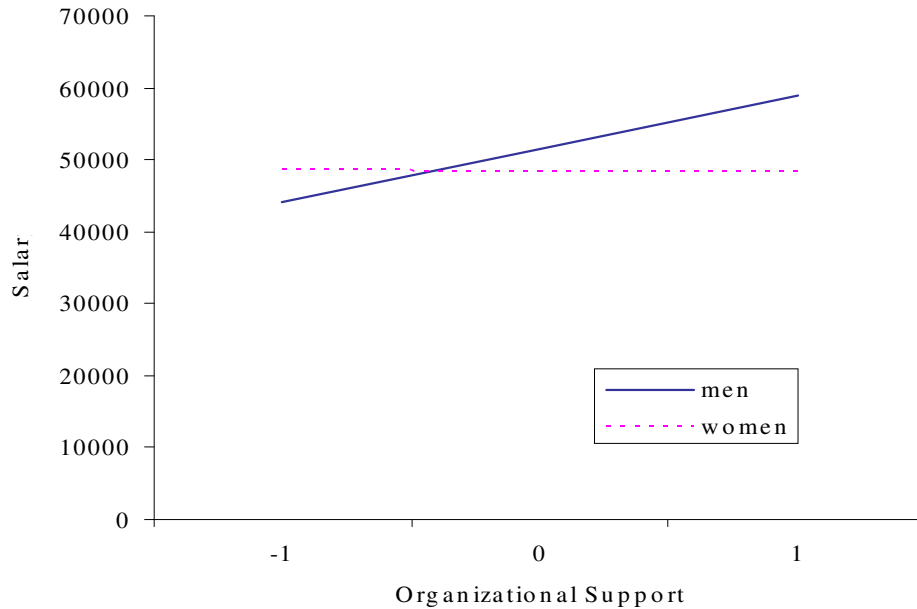


Figure 7. Regression of Organizational Support on Salary for Men and for Women.

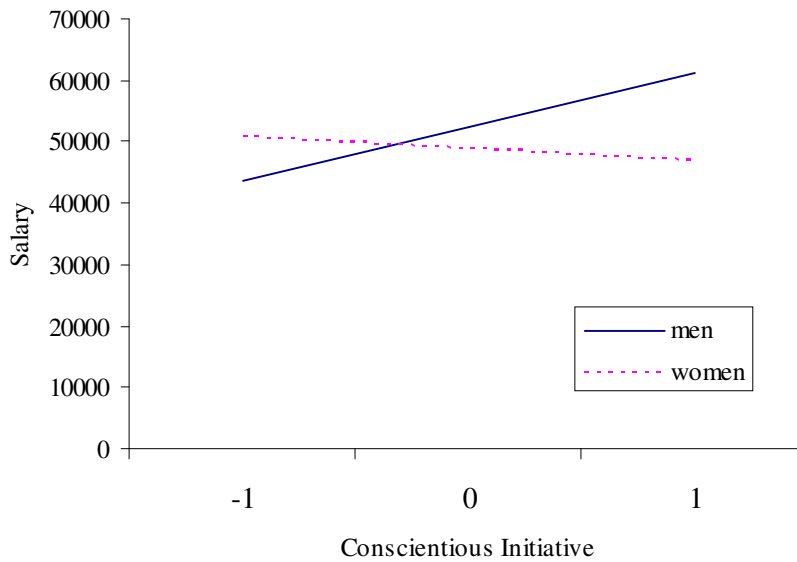
Research Question 2 asked if gender moderated the relationship between conscientious initiative and rewards. Table 25, on the previous page, displays the regression results for Research Question 2. The interaction term for salary was significant (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .51$, $t(214) = 2.37$, $p < .05$) and the interaction term for promotions was not significant (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .21$, $t(222) = -1.05$, *ns*). Conscientious initiative was a significant predictor of promotions (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .21$, $t(222) = 3.24$, $p < .01$; $R^2 = .05$) but not of salary (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .08$, $t(222) = 1.11$, *ns*). Figure 8 illustrates the regression equations of conscientious initiative on salary for men and for women. The regression of conscientious initiative on salary was significant for men ($\hat{\alpha} = .23$, $t(101) = 2.41$, $p < .05$) and accounted for 5% of the variance. However, the regression of conscientious initiative on salary was not

Table 25. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Supervisor Ratings of Conscientious Initiative.

	Standardized regression weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Conscientious Initiative	.08	.10	-.39
Gender		.08	.08
Interaction			.51
R^2 at each step	.01	.01	.04
R^2 change		.01	.03
F	1.24	1.24	5.61*
N	216	215	214
Promotions			
Conscientious Initiative	.21	.19	-.01
Gender		-.13	-.12
Interaction			.21
R^2 at each step	.05	.06	.07
R^2 change	.05	.02	.01
F	10.52**	3.63	1.10
N	224	223	222

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; **Significant at the .01 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

Figure 8. Regression of Conscientious Initiative on Salary for Men and for Women.



significant for women ($\hat{\alpha} = -.06$, $t(113) = -.67$, *ns*). Therefore, conscientious initiative predicted salary for men, but not for women.

Post Hoc Analyses

Company Differences

The following analyses were done to determine if the company data was sampled from or the method that was used to collect the data, impacted the results. Table 26 displays the means of the citizenship performance dimensions by company and by gender. There were four groupings created, due to the low sample size for the majority of the companies. Group 1 were participants from the Casino ($N = 52$). Group 2 were participants from the bank ($N = 51$). Group 3 were participants from the remaining companies ($N = 38$) and group 4 were participants from the snowball sample ($N = 21$).

Table 26. Means for Non-Self Ratings of Citizenship Dimensions by Company and by Gender.

	Personal Support			Organizational Support			Conscientious Initiative		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Snowball Sample									
Male	.46	.80	6	.48	1.10	6	.79	.39	6
Female	.60	.60	36	.12	.89	36	.48	.78	36
Total	.58	.62	42	.18	.92	42	.52	.75	42
Casino									
Male	-.50	1.00	74	-.28	1.12	74	-.42	.82	74
Female	-.07	.77	30	-.04	.93	30	-.11	.96	30
Total	-.38	.95	104	-.21	1.07	104	-.33	.87	104
Bank									
Male	-.12	.56	45	-.01	.79	45	-.11	.57	45
Female	-.02	.69	62	.11	.58	62	.15	.58	62
Total	-.06	.63	107	.06	.67	107	.04	.59	107
Remaining Companies									
Male	-.11	.71	21	-.06	.60	21	-.11	.65	21
Female	.46	.63	50	.20	.62	50	.21	.73	50
Total	.29	.70	71	.12	.62	71	.12	.72	71

Data used for Hypotheses 1 to 3 were analyzed first. The analyses were rerun with the variable company added. The three way interaction between company, gender, and scale type was investigated to determine if the findings varied by company. The interaction was not significant for supervisor ratings ($\hat{E} = .927, F(6,290) = 1.88, ns, \zeta^2 = .04$), peer ratings ($\hat{E} = .982, F(6,290) = .44, ns, \zeta^2 = .01$), or self ratings ($\hat{E} = .926, F(6,290) = 1.88, ns, \zeta^2 = .04$). Therefore, company did not appear to influence the significance of Hypotheses 1 to 3.

Table 27. Means for Salary and Promotions by Company.

	Salary			Promotions		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Snowball Sample	38,800	23,658	28	1.86	1.64	29
Casino	43,681	20,619	99	.53	1.27	105
Bank	59,355	25,712	57	2.55	1.60	58
Remaining Companies	59,004	21,065	34	2.32	1.43	34

A second grouping was created to look for differences between data collected at the casino and data collected at other locations. This was done for the regression analyses because almost half the data used in these analyses was collected from the casino location ($N = 105$) and the questionnaire completed in the casino sample was longer (32 to 40 items) than the questionnaire used in other companies (18 or 28 items depending on sampling method). Table 27, above, displays the means for salary and promotions by company. Table 28, on the following page, displays the regression results including the interaction with company as step 5. The interactions between gender, citizenship performance dimensions, and company were not significant for salary (Personal support: $\hat{\alpha} = -.23, t(212) = -.79, ns$; Organizational support: $\hat{\alpha} = .14, t(212) = .41, ns$; Conscientious initiative: $\hat{\alpha} = .21, t(212) = .86, ns$), nor were they significant for promotions (Personal support: $\hat{\alpha} = -.17, t(220) = -.57, ns$; Organizational support: $\hat{\alpha} =$

.17, $t(220) = .49$, *ns*; Conscientious initiative: $\hat{\alpha} = .46$, $t(220) = 1.88$, $p < .10$).

Therefore, the first grouping of company is not predicted to influence the results for

Table 28. Hierarchical Multiple Regression with Company Included as an Interaction Term in Step 5.

	Standardized regression weights		
	Personal Support	Organizational Support	Conscientious Initiative
Salary			
Step 5 ($\hat{\alpha}$) Interaction with Company group	-.23	.14	.21
R^2 at each step	.07	.05	.04
R^2 change	.00	.00	.00
F	.63	.17	.73
df	5, 217	5, 217	5, 217
Promotions			
	Personal Support	Organizational Support	Conscientious Initiative
Step 5 ($\hat{\alpha}$) Interaction with Company group	-.17	.17	.46
R^2 at each step	.04	.04	.08
R^2 change	.00	.00	.02
F	.32	.24	3.54 [¥]
df	5, 220	5, 220	5, 220

Note: Citizenship performance entered first, gender entered second, company entered third, interaction between citizenship performance and gender entered fourth, interaction between company, gender, and citizenship performance entered fifth. [¥]Significant at the .10 level.

Hypothesis 4 and Research Questions 1 and 2. Table 29 displays the regression results of the interaction with casino versus not casino, gender, and citizenship performance dimensions. The interactions were not significant for salary (Personal support: $\hat{\alpha} = .08$, $t(212) = .45$, *ns*; Organizational support: $\hat{\alpha} = .06$, $t(212) = .30$, *ns*; Conscientious initiative: $\hat{\alpha} = .30$, $t(212) = 1.70$, $p < .10$), but the interactions for promotions were significant for organizational support ($\hat{\alpha} = .44$, $t(220) = 2.78$, $p < .01$) and conscientious initiative ($\hat{\alpha} = .52$, $t(220) = 3.40$, $p < .01$) but not significant for personal support ($\hat{\alpha} = .12$, $t(220) = .74$, *ns*). Table 30 displays the correlations between the three measures of

Table 29. Hierarchical Multiple Regression with Casino Versus Non Casino Variable Included as an Interaction Term in Step 5.

	Standardized regression weights		
	Personal Support	Organizational Support	Conscientious Initiative
Salary			
Step 5 ($\hat{\alpha}$) Interaction with Casino vs. Not Casino	.08	.06	.30
R^2 at each step	.12	.10	.10
R^2 change	.00	.00	.01
F	.20	.09	2.89 [‡]
df	5, 217	5, 217	5, 217
Promotions			
Step 5 ($\hat{\alpha}$) Interaction with Casino vs. Not Casino	.12	.44	.52
R^2 at each step	.29	.30	.32
R^2 change	.00	.03	.04
F	.54	7.75**	11.58**
df	5, 220	5, 220	5, 220

Note: Citizenship performance entered first, gender entered second, company entered third, interaction between citizenship performance and gender entered fourth, interaction between company, gender, and citizenship performance entered fifth. **Significant at the .01 level.

Table 30. Correlations Between Salary, Promotions, and the Three Dimensions of Citizenship Performance Broken Out by Company.

	Salary			Promotions		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Non-Casino Sample						
Personal Support	-.283**	.114	-.161 [‡]	-.118	-.248	-.138
Organizational Support	-.064	.155	.024	-.095	-.319*	-.168 [‡]
Conscientious Initiative	-.176	-.027	-.142	-.123	-.307	-.168 [‡]
Total	-.235*	.105		-.153	-.383*	
N	82	37	119	82	39	121
Casino Sample						
Personal Support	.023	.229	.149	-.040	.058	.018
Organizational Support	.096	.282*	.228*	.147	.246*	.214*
Conscientious Initiative	.049	.292*	.187 [‡]	.126	.378**	.261**
Total	.063	.311*		.091	.260*	
N	33	66	99	39	66	105

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level, *Correlation is significant at the .05 level, [‡]Correlation is significant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

Table 31. Correlations between Companies and Citizenship Performance Dimensions in Non Casino Sample.

Company		Personal Support	Organizational Support	Conscientious Initiative
Remaining Companies	Salary	-.046	-.301 [‡]	-.231
	<i>N</i>	34	34	34
	Promotions	-.085	-.065	-.157
	<i>N</i>	34	34	34
Snowball	Salary	.203	.096	.231
	<i>N</i>	28	28	28
	Promotions	-.069	-.346 [‡]	-.380*
	<i>N</i>	29	29	29
Bank	Salary	-.196	.104	-.040
	<i>N</i>	57	57	57
	Promotions	-.102	-.114	-.003
	<i>N</i>	58	58	58

Note: *Correlation is significant at the .05 level. [‡]Correlation is significant at the .10 level.

Table 32. Regression Results of Promotions with Only the Casino Sample Included.

	Standardized regression weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Personal Support			
Personal Support	.02	.03	-.53
Gender		.08	.11
Interaction			.60
<i>R</i> ² at each step	.00	.01	.04
<i>R</i> ² change		.01	.03
<i>F</i>	.03	.65	3.32
<i>df</i>	1, 103	2, 102	3, 101
Organizational Support			
Organizational Support	.21	.22	-.09
Gender		.08	.10
Interaction			.32
<i>R</i> ² at each step	.05	.05	.06
<i>R</i> ² change		.01	.01
<i>F</i>	4.92*	.71	.84
<i>df</i>	1, 103	2, 102	3, 101
Conscientious Initiative			
Conscientious Initiative	.26	.27	-.39
Gender		.27	.18
Interaction			.71
<i>R</i> ² at each step	.07	.08	.13
<i>R</i> ² change	.07	.01	.05
<i>F</i>	7.53**	1.04	5.92*
<i>df</i>	1, 103	2, 102	3, 101

**Significant at the .01 level, *Significant at the .05 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

citizenship performance and the two measures of rewards split by data from the casino sample and the data from the non casino sample. Table 31 displays the correlations between the three measures of citizenship performance and the two measures of rewards by companies in the non casino sample to explore the origin of the negative correlations between the citizenship behaviors and organizational rewards. The regression analyses

Table 33. Regression Results of Promotions with Non Casino Sample.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Personal Support			
Personal Support	-.14	-.16	.02
Gender		-.10	-.08
Interaction			-.18
R^2 at each step	.02	.03	.03
R^2 change		.01	.00
F	2.29	1.10	.43
df	1, 119	2, 118	3, 117
Organizational Support			
Organizational Support	-.17	-.17	.01
Gender		-.08	-.07
Interaction			-.19
R^2 at each step	.028	.034	.038
R^2 change		.006	.004
F	3.45 [¥]	.78	.43
df	1, 119	2, 118	3, 117
Conscientious Initiative			
Conscientious Initiative	-.17	-.18	.01
Gender		-.09	-.07
Interaction			-.20
R^2 at each step	.028	.036	.040
R^2 change		.008	.004
F	3.44 [¥]	.95	.53
df	1, 119	2, 118	3, 117

Note: **Significant at the .01 level, *Significant at the .05 level. [¥]Significant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

were rerun on promotions with data from the casino sample (Table 32). The interaction between gender and citizenship performance was significant for the conscientious initiative scale ($\hat{\alpha} = .71, t(101) = 2.43, p < .05$) after the modified bonferroni was applied, but the interactions were not significant for personal support ($\hat{\alpha} = .60, t(101) = 1.82, p < .10$) or for organizational support ($\hat{\alpha} = .32, t(101) = .92, ns$). The regression analyses were also rerun for non casino sample (Table 33, on the previous page) and none of the interactions were significant (Personal support: $\hat{\alpha} = -.03, t(117) = -.13, ns$; Organizational support: $\hat{\alpha} = -.19, t(117) = -.67, ns$; Conscientious initiative: $\hat{\alpha} = -.20, t(117) = -.73, ns$).

Rater Group Differences

Inter-rater reliabilities are displayed in Table 34. Peer and supervisor inter-rater reliability was the highest on the personal support dimension (.25) and on the conscientious initiative dimension (.23). Inter-rater reliabilities on the organizational support dimension were low and ranged from .03 to .08.

Table 34. Inter-rater Correlations on Three measures of Citizenship Performance.

	Personal Support		
	1	2	3
1. Supervisor	-		
2. Peer	.251**	-	
3. Self	.060	.076	-
	Organizational Support		
1. Supervisor	-		
2. Peer	.049	-	
3. Self	.030	.083	-
	Conscientious Initiative		
1. Supervisor	-		
2. Peer	.227**	-	
3. Self	.183*	.137	-

Note: $N = 162$

Differences between self and other ratings were analyzed for gender differences in how men and women rated their performance in relation to their coworkers.

Coworkers were a combined measure of peer and supervisor ratings. Three repeated measures MANOVAs were performed with self ratings of citizenship performance and peer/supervisor ratings of citizenship performance as the within-subjects variable and participant gender as the between subjects variable. Table 35 displays the means of the citizenship performance dimensions separated by rater and gender. The Wilks' Lambda was significant for personal support ($\bar{\epsilon} = .840, F(2,159) = 15.12, p < .01, \zeta^2 = .16$), organizational support ($\bar{\epsilon} = .942, F(2,159) = 4.86, p < .01, \zeta^2 = .06$), and conscientious initiative ($\bar{\epsilon} = .870, F(2,159) = 11.83, ns, \zeta^2 = .13$). These findings were explored further with paired t-tests. The differences between self and peer/supervisor ratings were significant for men (personal support: $t(72) = 4.41, p < .01$; organizational support: $t(72)$

Table 35. Means of Citizenship Performance Dimensions by Self ratings Versus Peer/Supervisors Ratings and by Gender.

	Female			Male			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Personal Support									
Self Ratings	.17	.70	89	.12	.71	73	.15	.70	162
Non-Self Ratings	.16	.70	178	-.36	.86	140	-.08	.82	324
Total	.16	.70	267	-.20	.85	219			486
Organizational Support									
Self Ratings	.07	.72	89	.24	.76	73	.15	.74	162
Non-Self Ratings	.04	.50	178	-.22	.73	140	-.07	.63	324
Total	.05	.74	267	-.06	.92	219			486
Conscientious Initiative									
Self Ratings	.27	.64	89	.01	.72	73	.15	.68	162
Non-Self Ratings	.11	.59	178	-.30	.53	140	-.07	.60	324
Total	.16	.71	267	-.20	.74	219			486

$= 3.32, p < .01$, and conscientious initiative: $t(72) = 2.51, p < .05$) with the Modified Bonferroni, but not for women (personal support: $t(88) = .19, ns$; organizational support: $t(88) = -.45, ns$, conscientious initiative: $t(88) = .88, ns$). Therefore, men were found to

rate themselves higher than their coworkers rated them, but no differences were found between women's self ratings and ratings provided by their coworkers.

Peer and Self Ratings

To explore the data further for future research, Research Questions 1 and 2 were rerun with peer and self ratings. Table 36 displays the correlations for men and women between peer ratings of citizenship performance and rewards. Next, peer ratings of citizenship performance, gender, and the interaction between gender and citizenship performance were regressed on salary and on promotions. Table 37 displays the regression results for peer ratings of organizational support. The interaction between organizational support and gender was not significant for salary (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = -.05$, $t(191)$

Table 36. Correlations Between Variables for Peer Ratings Separated by Gender.

	1	2	3	4	5
Women					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.24*	-			
3. Personal Support	-.15	-.02	-		
4. Organizational Support	.20*	.26**	.64**	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	.02	.19	.66**	.75**	-
<i>M</i>	49,359	1.81	.21	-.00	.07
<i>SD</i>	21,390	1.72	.66	.76	.81
<i>N</i>	101	104	105	105	105
Men					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.15	-			
3. Personal Support	.13	.16	-		
4. Organizational Support	.18	.19	.71*	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	.07	.22*	.73**	.67**	-
<i>M</i>	49,403	1.16	-.13	-.08	-.12
<i>SD</i>	22,074	1.42	.72	.73	.74
<i>N</i>	94	95	96	96	96

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

= -.22, *ns*) or for promotions (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = -.16$, $t(195) = -.76$, *ns*). Organizational support was a significant predictor of salary (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .19$, $t(193) = 2.63$, $p < .01$) and promotions (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .23$, $t(197) = 3.38$, $p < .01$). Finally, gender was not a significant

Table 37. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Peer Ratings of Organizational Support.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Organizational Support	.19	.19	.24
Gender		.02	.02
Interaction			-.05
R^2 at each step	.04	.04	.04
R^2 change		.00	.00
F	6.92**	.08	.05
df	193	192	191
Promotions			
Organizational Support	.23	.23	.38
Gender		-.19	-.19
Interaction			-.16
R^2 at each step	.06	.09	.09
R^2 change		.04	.00
F	11.41**	7.83**	.58
df	197	196	195

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; †Significant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

predictor of salary (step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = .02$, $t(192) = .28$, *ns*), but it was a significant predictor of promotions (step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = -.19$, $t(196) = -2.11$, $p < .05$) with females ($M = 1.81$, $SD = 1.72$) receiving more promotions than did males ($M = 1.16$, $SD = 1.42$).

Table 38 displays the regression results for peer ratings of conscientious initiative. The interaction between conscientious initiative and gender was not significant for salary (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .24$, $t(191) = 2.63$, *ns*) or for promotions (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .12$, $t(172) = 1.30$, *ns*). Conscientious initiative was not a significant predictor of salary (step 1: $\hat{\alpha} = .04$, $t(193) = .60$, *ns*) or promotions (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .22$, $t(174) = 3.16$, *ns*). Gender was not a significant predictors of salary (step 2; $\hat{\alpha} = .01$, $t(192) = .12$, *ns*), but it was a significant predictor of

Table 38. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Peer Ratings of Conscientious Initiative.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Conscientious Initiative	.04	.05	-.11
Gender		.01	.01
Interaction			.24
R^2 at each step	.00	.00	.04
R^2 change		.00	.04
F	.36	.02	6.94**
df	193	192	191
Promotions			
Conscientious Initiative	.22	.20	.12
Gender		-.18	-.18
Interaction			.12
R^2 at each step	.05	.08	.09
R^2 change		.03	.01
F	9.97**	6.56*	1.69
df	197	196	195

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; [†]Significant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

Table 39. Correlations Between Variables for Self Ratings Separated by Gender.

	1	2	3	4	5
Women					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.24*	-			
3. Personal Support	-.06	-.13	-		
4. Organizational Support	.03	-.08	.44**	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	.04	-.13	.17	.36**	-
M	48,406	1.75	.02	-.09	.09
SD	20,807	1.70	.72	.77	.63
N	98	98	97	98	98
Men					
1. Salary	-				
2. Promotions	.39**	-			
3. Personal Support	.03	.12	-		
4. Organizational Support	-.00	.25*	.50**	-	
5. Conscientious Initiative	-.02	.25*	.50**	.45**	-
M	50,899	1.21	-.03	.12	-.11
SD	26,807	1.65	.71	.76	.70
N	77	78	79	79	79

Note: **Significant at the 0.01 level; *Significant at the 0.05 level.

promotions (step 2; $\hat{\alpha} = -.18, t(173) = -2.56, p = .05$).

Table 39, on the previous page, displays the correlations for men and for women between self ratings of citizenship performance and rewards. Table 40, on the following page, displays the regression results for self ratings of organizational support. The interaction between organizational support and gender was not significant for salary (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = -.04, t(171) = -.18, ns$), but it was significant for promotions (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .51, t(171) = 2.20, p < .05$). Regression equations were rerun with promotions regressed on organizational support separately for men and for women. Organizational support accounted for a significant amount of variance in promotions for men ($\hat{\alpha} = .25, t(76) = 2.26, p < .05$) but not for women ($\hat{\alpha} = -.08, t(96) = -.75, ns$). Organizational support was not a significant predictor of salary (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .02, t(173) = .31, ns$;) or promotions (step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .05, t(174) = .65, ns$;) . Finally, gender was not a significant predictor of salary (step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = .08, t(172) = 1.02, ns$), but it was a significant predictor of promotions (step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = -.16, t(173) = -2.11, p < .05$) with females ($M = 2.06, SD = 1.66$) receiving more promotions than did males ($M = 1.58, SD = 1.77$).

Table 41 displays the regression results for self ratings of conscientious initiative. The interaction between conscientious initiative and gender was not significant for salary (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .01, t(171) = .06, ns$) or for promotions (step 3; $\hat{\alpha} = .12, t(172) = 1.42, ns$). Gender and conscientious initiative were not significant predictors of salary (conscientious initiative at step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = -.00, t(173) = -.03, ns$; gender at step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = .08, t(172) = 1.06, ns$) or promotions (conscientious initiative at step 1; $\hat{\alpha} = .08, t(174) = 1.01, ns$; gender at step 2: $\hat{\alpha} = -.14, t(173) = -1.87, p = .06$).

Table 40. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Self Ratings of Organizational Support.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Organizational Support	.02	.01	.05
Gender		.08	.08
Interaction			-.04
R^2 at each step	.00	.01	.01
R^2 change		.01	.00
F	.09	1.05	.03
df	173	172	171
Promotions			
Organizational Support	.05	.07	-.41
Gender		-.16	-.17
Interaction			.51
R^2 at each step	.00	.03	.05
R^2 change		.03	.03
F	.42	4.45*	4.84*
df	174	173	172

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; ^ySignificant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

Table 41. Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Self Ratings of Conscientious Initiative.

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Salary			
Conscientious Initiative	-.00	.01	.01
Gender		.08	.08
Interaction			.01
R^2 at each step	.00	.01	.01
R^2 change		.01	.00
F	.00	1.13	.00
df	173	172	171
Promotions			
Conscientious Initiative	.08	.06	.01
Gender		-.14	-.17
Interaction			.12
R^2 at each step	.01	.03	.04
R^2 change		.02	.01
F	1.02	3.50 ^y	2.02
df	174	173	172

Note: *Significant at the .05 level; ^ySignificant at the .10 level. Gender coded: females = 0, males = 1.

Outlier Analyses

There were several large outliers identified in the descriptive statistics as having more promotions and a larger salary. An outlier analysis was employed to determine if these variables had a large impact on the data. Outliers with studentized residuals greater than three were identified and an influence analysis was done with Cook's distance (greater than .2), leverage, and DF beta statistics investigated. The influence criteria were based on recommendations by Pedhazur (1997). No changes in significance resulted from the removal of outliers.

Chapter 4

Discussion

A gender wage gap and differences in promotional opportunities for men and women continue to exist in the workplace today. The present study was designed to address these differences by studying citizenship performance, which has received little research in connection with gender and organizational rewards. Past studies have found that citizenship performance is related to salary and promotions (e.g. Allen, in press; Hui et al, 2001) and several studies have tested whether gender moderated the relationship between citizenship performance and rewards, with inconsistent results (e.g. Wilkinson, 2001; Chen & Heilman, 2001). The present study found that there was a relationship between citizenship performance and salary for men, but not for women. However, no gender differences were found in regards to promotions.

Supervisor and Peer Ratings of Citizenship Performance

This present study began by investigating gender differences in ratings of citizenship performance. Previous research investigating gender differences in citizenship performance ratings resulted in mixed findings (e.g., Kidder, 2002; Lovell et al, 1999; Organ & Ryan, 1995). To explain the mixed results, rater (supervisor, peer, and self), type of citizenship performance (personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative), and scale type (objective or subjective) were investigated as possible factors that could be influencing the relationship between gender and citizenship performance. Three hypotheses were proposed, one for each rater group (self, peer, and

supervisor). First, supervisor ratings were investigated. Supervisors were expected to value “getting ahead” behaviors (Conway et al, 2001) when rating performance, reducing their reliance on stereotypes when rating organizational support behaviors. However, supervisors were predicted to be influenced by stereotypes when rating personal support behaviors, consequently, rating women higher than they rated men. This difference was predicted to be larger on the objective measure of citizenship performance than on the subjective measure (Nelson, Biernat, & Manis, 1990). No gender differences were expected on ratings of organizational support behaviors or conscientious initiative behaviors. Contrary to expectations, supervisors rated women higher than they rated men on all three types of citizenship performance and scale type had no impact on the results.

Peer ratings of citizenship performance were similarly investigated. It was predicted that peers would value “getting along” behaviors (Conway et al, 2001) when making ratings reducing their reliance on stereotypes when rating personal support behaviors. However, peers were predicted to be influenced by stereotypes on organizational support ratings. Consequently, peers were expected to rate men higher than they rated women on organizational support behaviors, with the difference predicted to be larger on the objective measure of citizenship performance than on the subjective measure (Nelson, Biernat, and Manis, 1990). No gender differences were predicted on ratings of personal support or conscientious initiative.

The results did not support the second hypothesis. Women were rated higher than were men on all three measures of citizenship performance. Scale type was found to moderate the relationship between gender and citizenship performance, with the

difference between men and women being greater when an objective scale was used than when a subjective scale was used.

Both peer and supervisor respondents rated women higher than they rated men on all three types of citizenship performance. Further, this finding was fairly consistent across the companies sampled in the present study (see Table 42; snowball sample was the exception). Despite the consistent finding in the present study, previous research has been inconsistent. Organ and Ryan (1995) found no gender differences in their meta-analysis, but other studies have found gender differences in ratings of citizenship

Table 42. Zero Order Correlations Between Gender and Peer/Supervisor Ratings of Citizenship Performance, Broken out by Company.

		1	2	3	4
All other companies (N = 71)	1. Gender	-			
	2. Personal Support	-.37**	-		
	3. Organizational Support	-.19	.38**	-	
	4. Conscientious Initiative	-.20	.44**	.61**	-
Snowball (N = 42)	1. Gender	-			
	2. Personal Support	-.08	-		
	3. Organizational Support	.14	.34*	-	
	4. Conscientious Initiative	.15	.52**	.48**	-
Casino (N = 104)	1. Gender	-			
	2. Personal Support	-.21	-		
	3. Organizational Support	-.10	.75**	-	
	4. Conscientious Initiative	-.16	.62**	.68**	-
Bank (N = 107)	1. Gender	-			
	2. Personal Support	-.08	-		
	3. Organizational Support	-.09	.32**	-	
	4. Conscientious Initiative	-.22*	.45**	.52**	-

Note: Gender coded 1 = female and 2 = male. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level.

performance (e.g., Kidder, 2002; Holladay et al, 2004). Further, Kidder and Parks' (2001) theory predicted gender differences would vary across the citizenship performance dimensions. This theory was not supported by the present research, but has been supported in previous research (e.g., Kidder, 2002; Lovell et al, 1998). Possible reasons

for the inconsistent results and lack of support for Kidder and Parks' (2001) theory will be discussed further below.

The first explanation offered for the inconsistent results is that the type of scale used to measure citizenship performance is impacting the results. Scale type was a variable tested in the present study and was found to influence peer ratings, but not supervisor ratings. It is possible that studies using a subjective scale to measure citizenship performance are masking gender differences because respondents are rating women against women and men against men. However, the unexpected finding that supervisors did not follow the shifting standards pattern puts the influence of scale type into question. Biernat et al. (1998) also found support for the SSM with peer ratings of performance. However, Biernat et al's study did not incorporate supervisor ratings and therefore, only provides partial support for the results in the current study. The following discussion offers explanations why peers demonstrated the Shifting Standards Model (SSM) and supervisors did not. First, supervisors are more likely to be motivated to rate performance accurately resulting in them shifting their standards when rating job performance. Second, supervisors may witness more behaviors than peers. The more ambiguous the rating situation is, the more likely a rater is to rely on stereotypes (Heilman, 1995) resulting in less accurate ratings. Conway et al's (2001) meta-analysis found that supervisor ratings were more highly related to objective measures (.35) than were peer ratings (.29). This finding provides some support that supervisor ratings are more related to actual performance than are peer ratings. Whether peers witness fewer citizenship behaviors or are less motivated to provide accurate ratings, they appear to shift standards to some extent. Considering that there was no effect of scale type for

supervisor ratings, it is not likely that scale type is the reason for the inconsistent results of gender differences in citizenship performance ratings.

A second variable that could be creating these inconsistent findings is whether the study was conducted in the lab or in the field. Within a lab study, the level of citizenship performance is manipulated and the complexity and competing stimulants that are found in a real world environment are reduced. Caution should be taken when generalizing lab studies to a real world environment because the workplace environment is hard to replicate in a lab study. This could explain the null results found in some lab studies (e.g., Sutton, 1998; Wilkinson, 2003) versus studies done in a field setting.

The third explanation for the inconsistent results of gender differences in citizenship performance ratings is that the gender stereotype of the job is affecting the results. Both Allen and Rush (2001) and Farrell and Finkelstein (2005) found that male stereotyped or gender neutral jobs increased the expectations for women to perform citizenship performance. The two most common jobs employed in the present study were managers and poker dealers. Schein (1973) found that characteristics of managers were considered more closely aligned with characteristics of men than women (see also Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989). This result provides some evidence that the job of a manager possesses male stereotypes. More research is needed to determine if gender stereotypes exist of poker dealers, but it seems likely that it is a male stereotyped job based on the percentage of poker dealers that were males in the current study (74%). Further, not only is the job of a poker dealer a possibly masculine job, but the gambling industry might be a stereotypical male industry, which may increase the expectations for women to perform citizenship behaviors.

The final proposed cause of the inconsistent results regarding gender differences is the type of citizenship performance evaluated. Kidder and Parks (2001) predicted that there would be higher expectations for women to perform personal support behaviors than there would be for men and higher expectations for men to perform organizational support behaviors than there would be for women. However, the present study did not find support for this theory and three explanations are provided for the lack of support.

The first proposed explanation for no dimensional differences is that the theory is wrong and instead of different gender stereotypes associated with each citizenship performance dimension, there is an overall stereotype of women as greater organizational citizens than are men. It is possible that women are actually expected to perform more personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative than are men. Allen and Rush (2001) found support for an overall gender stereotype of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) in their study. These researchers found that raters had greater expectations for women to be organizational citizens than they had for men. While Allen and Rush did not look at individual dimensions of OCB, a recent study by Farrell and Finkelstein (2005) did look at gender differences on the dimension level. These researchers found that raters had higher expectations for women to perform both altruism and generalized compliance (personal support and organizational support, respectively). On the other hand, Ehrhart and Godfrey (2003) performed a study that investigated raters' perceived similarity between characteristics of OCB dimensions and characteristics of men and women. These authors found that raters linked helping behaviors (encompassed by personal support dimension) with female characteristics and civic virtue behaviors (encompassed by organizational support dimension) with male

characteristics. This study provides support for Kidder and Parks (2001) claims that there are gender stereotypes that women perform more personal support behaviors than do men and that men perform more organizational support behaviors than do women. The conflicting results make it is hard to come to conclusions about Kidder and Parks' (2001) theory.

In their study, Farrell and Finkelstein provided a second explanation for the conflicting results regarding dimensions. These authors claimed that the scale used to measure the citizenship performance construct may not map directly onto the gender stereotyped concepts. Consequently, when trying to trigger stereotypes, the scale used to capture citizenship performance would not demonstrate the stereotypes to the same extent as directly investigating gender stereotypes. In other words, how the construct is operationalized is affecting the gender stereotypes that the construct is proposed to evoke. Future research should address this hypothesis by testing if different scales used to measure citizenship performance trigger the same stereotypes. Further, there are a number of different dimensions of citizenship performance proposed and the differences between dimensions, while minor, could impact study results. The theory by Kidder and Parks is based on the dimensions created by Mackenzie et al (1993), which could have aspects in them that are not captured in the citizenship performance dimensions, developed by Coleman and Borman (2000).

The third explanation for the lack of differences between dimensions is that raters are falling victim to halo error. Halo is a common rater error that occurs when raters provide the same score for an individual across all dimensions and do not discriminate between dimensions. Lance, LaPointe, and Steward (1994) contend that halo errors are a

result of raters basing their ratings on a general impression formed of the ratee. These authors tested the general impression model and found that it more accurately accounted for the halo error than did the other proposed models. Even when the researchers tried to reduce the rater's reliance on a general impression of the ratee, raters still based their ratings on an overall impression of the ratee's performance and failed to discriminate between the performance dimensions.

It is possible that respondents, in the present study, were relying on a general impression of the participant when making their ratings and failed to distinguish between dimensions. If raters are basing their ratings on a general impression they have of a participant, the next consideration is, are raters relying on a general impression of the participant's overall performance or are they relying on a general impression of the participant's citizenship performance. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found evidence that raters do distinguish between task and contextual performance. In their study, contextual performance accounted for unique variance above task performance and task performance accounted for unique variance above contextual performance. Perhaps raters are able to distinguish between citizenship and task performance, but are unable to distinguish between the dimensions of citizenship performance. In other words, supervisors could be basing their ratings on a general impression they have of the participant's citizenship performance.

If raters are basing their ratings on a general impression they have of citizenship performance, they may be influenced by an overall stereotype that women are expected to be better organizational citizens. Future research should investigate this question by making citizenship performance dimension a between subjects variable and having each

rater complete an evaluation of only one dimension of citizenship performance. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) and Van Dyne and Ang (1998) used only one dimension of OCB in their study. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) measured voice behavior (encompassed in the organizational support dimension) and found that men received higher ratings than did women and Van Dyne and Ang (1998) measured helping behaviors (encompassed in the personal support dimension) and found that women received higher ratings than did men. The only study found that used peer or supervisor ratings and found a dimensional difference was Lovell et al (1998). These researchers found a marginally significant difference between men and women on the altruism dimension. The remaining studies resulted in no distinct dimensional differences between men and women. These results provide some support that if citizenship performance dimensions are combined into one scale then raters base their ratings on an overall stereotype they have of women performing more citizenship performance than do men. However, if respondents are asked to provide ratings on only one dimension, then raters are influenced by the specific gender stereotypes of each dimension. It appears that more research is needed before conclusions can be made about Kidder and Parks' theory.

A number of explanations were provided for the conflicting results between past research and the present study. The most compelling explanation was that women were rated higher than were men on citizenship performance in the present study, because of the gender stereotypes associated with the jobs sampled and/or the industry sampled.

Self Ratings of Citizenship Performance

Based on the findings that peers and supervisors rate women higher on citizenship performance than they rate men, it seems likely that women would rate themselves higher

than would men. However, past research has consistently found that men inflate their ratings and that women rate themselves more accurately than do men (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997). Beyer (1990) found that men rated themselves higher than did women on male stereotyped tasks and no gender differences were found on female stereotyped tasks. Therefore, when citizenship performance was measured with a subjective scale men were predicted to rate themselves higher on the organizational support dimension, but no gender differences were predicted on personal support. However, it was predicted that women would rate themselves higher than would men on objective measures of personal support because they would be forced to rate themselves against men. No gender differences were predicted on conscientious initiative because no gender stereotypes were identified.

These predictions were not supported. No significant gender differences were found for self ratings of personal support or organizational support and scale type had no impact on the ratings. However, women did rate themselves higher than did men on both objective and subjective measures of conscientious initiative.

Further analyses revealed that men rated themselves significantly higher than their coworkers on all three dimensions of citizenship performance. However, no significant differences were found between women's self ratings and coworker's (supervisor and peer) ratings of their performance. These findings are in congruence with past results on gender and self ratings (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1997) that show that women rate themselves in congruence with others' ratings of their performance and that men rate themselves higher than others rate their performance. This finding was replicated on both personal support and organizational support and provides evidence that previous research

on self ratings of overall or task performance apply to citizenship performance ratings. Considering that no gender differences were found between citizenship performance dimensions, the results are in line with past research. Past research has found no gender differences in self ratings and that women's self ratings were more closely related to others' ratings than were men's self ratings. The exception is the conscientious initiative dimension, where women did rate themselves higher than did men on both scale types. This finding was unexpected and more research is needed to explore this finding further.

Salary and Promotions

Considering that women received higher citizenship performance ratings and that citizenship performance has been linked to organizational rewards, women might be expected to receive more promotions and have a higher salary than did men. However, Kidder and Parks (2000) theorized that stereotypical female behaviors (personal support in the present study) would be considered in-role performance for women and extra-role for men. This would result in men being rewarded for performing personal support behaviors and women not being rewarded for performing personal support behaviors. Chen and Heilman (2001) found that women were punished for not performing OCB and that men were rewarded for performing OCB. Consequently, the current study predicted that men who perform personal support would be rewarded for performing extra-role behaviors, however women who perform personal support behaviors would not be rewarded because these behaviors are an expected part of their job or in-role. Further, women were predicted to receive lower ratings for not performing personal support but men were not predicted to be punished for not performing personal support. Finally, the

influence of gender on the relationships between the remaining citizenship performance dimensions and organizational rewards were explored.

As was found in previous research (e.g. Allen, in press), measures of citizenship performance were positively related to salary and promotions. More specifically, organizational support dimension was related to salary (.15) and conscientious initiative (.21) was related to promotions. Surprisingly, personal support was not significantly correlated with either promotions (.06) or salary (.10). More relevant to the current study, gender was found to moderate these relationships. Results demonstrated a relationship between salary and the three dimensions of citizenship performance for men, but not for women. Gender, however, was not found to impact the relationship between promotions and citizenship performance. Therefore, men were rewarded with a higher salary for performing citizenship performance, but women were not.

This finding is contrary to the findings by Holladay et al (2004), Allen and Rush (2001), and Wilkinson (2003). Holladay et al (2004) found that gender moderated the relationship between OCB and salary with women having a stronger relationship between OCB and salary than did men. However, the variance accounted for by the interaction term in Holladay et al's study was .003. This amount of variance accounted for does not meet the criteria by Cohen (1992; .02%) of a small effect size.

Both Allen and Rush (2001) and Wilkinson (2003) found null results for the moderation of gender on citizenship performance and *reward recommendations*. Both of these studies were done in the lab, which is an artificial setting. The difference found in the present study could be something that is only captured in the complexity of a real world environment. One reason provided by Wilkinson (2003) for her null results was

that raters were given instances of performance that directly matched the citizenship performance items. Therefore, raters were not influenced by stereotypes because little room was left for interpretation. This explanation would account for the difference in findings between the present study and the previous results by Allen and Rush (2001) and Wilkinson (2003).

Another explanation for the difference in results could be the gender stereotypes of the job or industry. The casino sample contained approximately 67% males and was half the sample used in the final hypothesis. As described earlier, past research has found that male stereotyped jobs resulted in increased expectations for women to perform citizenship performance, stereotypes associated with the job could be impacting these results.

The moderating effect of gender on citizenship performance and salary was not found with promotions. However, the lack of findings with promotions was not surprising considering the low occurrence of promotions in organizations. Range restriction was demonstrated in the promotions variable with 41% of the participants, in the present sample, receiving no promotions and 59% receiving one or fewer promotions. Allen (in press), however, did find an interaction between gender and OCB on promotions. In Allen's study, the mean number of promotions was 2.5 with a standard deviation of 2.6. In the present study the mean number of promotions was 1.5 with a standard deviation of 1.7. The added variability in Allen's (in press) sample provides more chance to detect a moderation effect. The low occurrence of promotions could be a product of the sample in the present study. The casino sample had the lowest occurrence with a mean number of promotions of .53 and the casino encompassed half the sample

used in the regression analyses. However, when the results were rerun separately on only the casino sample, citizenship performance was a significant predictor of promotions for men, but not for women. Therefore, it appears that the null findings with promotions were not likely a product of the low variance found in promotions.

Company differences were investigated further and it was found that the interaction between the three variables, casino versus not casino, gender, and citizenship performance, was a significant predictor of promotions. In the casino sample, the relationship between promotions and citizenship performance was significant for men but it was not significant for women (see Table 30). In the non-casino sample, the relationship between citizenship performance and promotions was also stronger for men than it was for women, but it was a stronger negative relationship. Therefore, it appears that men were promoted for performing citizenship performance in one sample and punished for performing it in another sample.

This finding is surprising and contrary to past research (e.g., Hui et al, 2001). It is possible that individuals who focus on citizenship performance, do so at the expense of their task performance. If employees who perform high levels of citizenship performance are not performing well on their task performance, it could have negative consequences on their promotional opportunities.

Another possible reason for the negative relationship is the culture of the organization sampled and the degree that citizenship performance is valued and encouraged. If men go outside their job role to perform behaviors that are not valued in their workplace, it could have negative consequences on their rewards. Future research

should investigate company culture as a possible moderator in the relationship between citizenship performance and rewards.

Overall, there was a consistent finding across citizenship performance dimensions and companies that there is a relationship between citizenship performance and salary for men, but not for women. The implications of these findings will be discussed below.

Limitations

One limitation in the present study was the inability to adequately detect differences by company. The results of this study might depend on the unique environment of the companies sampled. However, the present study was not designed to test for company differences and therefore the sample sizes within each company are not large enough to truly test these differences. The differences found between the casino sample and the remaining sample, were an indication that company could have an impact on the findings. It is not clear what is causing these differences, it could be the industry, the workplace culture, or salary and promotions policy.

A second limitation was the sampling of companies and the unequal distribution to conditions within each company. For the final hypothesis, the casino made up half the sample and a large number of the casino sample were males (67%). The number of men and women and/or objective and subjective scales was not equal, within each company and a number of the companies that were sampled were only given one scale type. Although giving the company the same scale type was done to provide quality feedback reports, it created a possible confound of company and scale type. Finally, the snowball sample resulted in no males in the objective scale type condition. Future research should

focus on gaining more control of the proportion of men and women in the conditions, within each company.

A third limitation involving experimental control was control over the rating process. Because this study was based in the workplace, controlling all variables that could affect the result was impossible. In particular, control was minimal on who actually filled out the evaluation. Future research should try to gain more control over the rating process, but also maintain the realism of the field of study.

A final limitation was the self report of salary and promotions. Even though the definitions were included to give the participants a similar frame of reference, there were still errors in reporting. Two conscientious participants emailed the researcher letting her know that they had reported their salary wrong. However, there could be a number of participants that did not carefully read the description of promotions and salary and this could have created error in the rewards variables reducing the ability to detect an effect. To eliminate self-report error, future research should obtain this information from company reports.

Practical and Theoretical Implications

The consistent finding that women were rated significantly higher than were men across all types of citizenship performance, companies, and peer and supervisor raters has both theoretical and practical implications. One practical implication is that women in the workplace are more likely to perform citizenship performance than are men. Awareness of this difference could create a greater appreciation for women in the workplace and for the unique type of performance that they bring. Future research

should investigate if increased awareness of citizenship performance and what it can offer to the organization can have positive consequences for women in the workplace.

This finding has theoretical implications on the theory proposed by Kidder and Parks (2001) and provides more understanding for the inconsistent results that have been found in past research on this topic. Contrary to the dimensional gender differences proposed by Kidder and Parks (2001), raters appear to rely on an overall stereotype of women in an altruistic role. These results are in line with the findings by Allen and Rush (2001) and Farrell and Finkelstein (2005). Therefore, there may exist stereotypes of men performing greater levels of organizational support, but in application raters may have a hard time distinguishing these dimensions and rely on an overall impression they have of the ratee's citizenship performance. Future research should address the question of whether women are being rated higher than men because they are actually performing more citizenship performance than are men or are they rated higher because of stereotypes, or both. Further, this result provides more information on why there are inconsistent findings of gender differences in citizenship performance ratings. Although inconsistencies could be caused by a number of factors, one likely influence is the gender stereotype of the jobs sampled. Future research should directly test this theory by substantially sampling varying job types to represent male, female, and gender neutral jobs and/or industry to determine if stereotypes within industry or job are impacting the results.

Self ratings in the present study supported previous findings that women's self ratings are similar to other's ratings, but that men's self ratings are higher than other's ratings. This finding has practical implications for companies that offer 360-degree

feedback to their employees. When working on developing an individual's performance, it is useful to know males' and females' self rating tendencies to improve the employee's development and self awareness process.

Another important finding from the present study was that supervisors did not shift their standards when making citizenship performance ratings, but that peers did. This provides support for the use of supervisor ratings for promotional and salary decisions and using peer ratings for development purposes. The low correlations between supervisor and peer ratings has already caused many organizations to use peer ratings for development purposes only (Murphy et al, 2001) and these results support the limited use of peer raters. Further, these results could have theoretical implications for the shifting standards model. One possible reason for supervisors not shifting their standards is that they are more motivated to rate performance accurately or they have less ambiguity in their ratings because they witness more behaviors. Future research should test this hypothesis to see if shifting standards can be reduced by varying the ambiguity of the rating situation and rater motivation

The consistent findings, between this study and Allen (in press), that citizenship performance is positively related to organizational rewards for men, but not for women, shed some light on why the objective career outcomes of women continue to be less than those of men. Although peer and supervisor ratings, observed in the present study, showed that women engage more frequently in citizenship behaviors than do men, they were not rewarded for it. These findings are also consistent with task performance research that indicates that even when men and women receive similar performance ratings and follow the same career path, men and women tend to be rewarded differently

(e.g., Shore, 1992; Stroh, Brett & Reilly, 1992). Thus, gender discrimination does not appear to occur so much at the level of performance evaluation, but in how the performance is rewarded. As suggested by Allen and Rush (2001), the citizenship performance of women appears to be less valued than that of men. Additional research is needed to better discern why and under what circumstances this occurs. For example, the effects observed in the present study may diminish in female stereotyped jobs like nursing. Further, the effect may be increased in a male stereotyped industry like the army.

Overall, the present study sheds light on the inconsistent results regarding gender differences in citizenship performance ratings, supported previous research on self ratings, and identified one possible reason why there is a wage gap between men and women.

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Appendices

Appendix A
Sample E-mail Sent To Potential Participants From Management

We have been given an opportunity participate in a 360-Degree Feedback process. This process is a performance development tool. How it works is you rate your own performance and then your peers, supervisor, and subordinates rate your performance. The ratings are compiled and then you receive a report with all ratings of your performance. This report will allow you to identify areas that need improvement and areas that you excel at. It will also allow you to identify discrepancies between how you rated your own performance and how your coworkers rated your performance.

It is important to realize that participation is voluntary and that these evaluations will only be used as a performance development tool. The ratings will have no negative consequences for your job, it is strictly a tool to help you improve your own performance.

The 360 is going to be administered by a psychology graduate student, Lisa Wilkinson, working on her dissertation research. For the purposes of her research, demographic information will be asked at the bottom of the survey. This information will be used for her dissertation research only and your name will not be included with this information. If you have any questions or concerns you can contact Lisa Wilkinson at lvwilkin@mail.usf.edu.

Listed below are the three steps in the process as well as the deadline for each task.

1. On <DATE> you will receive an email from Lisa Wilkinson. The email will include a link to a website where you will be asked to pick peers, supervisor, and subordinates you want to rate your performance. You must pick your raters by <DATE>.
2. On <DATE> you will receive an email from Lisa Wilkinson asking you to go to a website and complete a self evaluation. You might also be asked to fill out ratings about your co-workers. Each evaluation should take approximately 5 to 10 minutes to complete. All ratings must be completed by <DATE>.
3. Once all the data is in, you will receive a PDF report, via email, with your performance ratings compiled.

Appendix B
Email Requesting Participants Choose Their Raters

Greetings.

You are participating in 360-Degree Feedback process. The final product of this process is a report that summarizes your strengths and weaknesses according to your coworkers. The first step is to click on the link below that will take you to a website to pick your peer, supervisor, and subordinate raters. You want to pick raters who can provide you with the best feedback and who have worked with you for at least 3 months. The more contact you have with your raters, the better feedback they can provide you.

<http://www.lisawilkinson.net/raterselection.php>

Please let me know if you have any questions or concerns.

Lisa Wilkinson, MA

Appendix C
Email Inviting Raters to Complete Evaluation

Greetings!

You have been selected to provide performance feedback. Below you will find links to websites with performance evaluations. Please click the link next to each participant and complete an evaluation about them. Keep in mind that your **ratings are confidential**. I cannot identify who sent the rating and at no time during the rating process will you be asked to include your name, with the exception of the self ratings. The final report will not provide individual rater scores but averages. So participants will not be able to identify individual responses. Therefore, please take your time and provide your coworkers with quality feedback.

Self Evaluation: www.lisawilkinson.net/self1b.php
Rate Sue Brown's performance: www.lisawilkinson.net/peer1b.php
Rate Mark Smith's performance: www.lisawilkinson.net/peer1b.php

Thank you for your time and please let me know if you have any questions.

Lisa Wilkinson, MA

Appendix D Consent Form

The purpose of this research study is to test how different raters evaluate employee performance. You will be asked to rate your own performance, your coworker's performance or your subordinate's performance and to provide other background data about yourself. This survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

If you agree to participate your name will be entered into a raffle with a chance to win a \$100 gift certificate <<**you will receive a feedback report with the ratings included by your raters**>>. There are no risks for your participation in this study.

Your privacy and research records will be kept confidential to the extent of the law. {Your participation will be anonymous. Your name will not be included with your evaluations. The only way to identify your evaluation will be with an identification number that you create.} Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services, and the USF Institutional Review Board may inspect the records from this research project.

The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from others in the publication. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would personally identify you in any way. For research purposes, a number will be used to identify you and only investigators will have access to your evaluations, which will be kept on a password protected computer. Your decision to participate in this research study is completely voluntary. You are free to participate in this research study or to withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive, if you stop taking part in the study.

If you have any questions about this research study, contact Lisa Wilkinson at lvwilkin@helios.acomp.usf.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a person who is taking part in a research study, you may contact the Division of Research Compliance of the University of South Florida at (813) 974-5638.

- By checking the box below before "I agree to participate" you are saying that:
- I have fully read or have had read and explained to me this informed consent form describing this research project.
- I understand that I am being asked to participate in research. I understand the risks and benefits, and I freely give my consent to participate in the research project outlined in this form, under the conditions indicated in it.

I agree to participate under the above terms and conditions

Appendix E
Self Feedback Questionnaire

(Snowball) First, input the six digit code that you created and sent to your coworkers and supervisor:

Eg. UB45H7

(Company) First, input your name:

Below you will find 18 behavioral statements. We are interested in how likely you are to perform the following behaviors at work. You are asked to estimate the likelihood you would perform these behaviors. If you believe that there is a 80% likelihood you would perform the behavior, you should mark the circle below ‘80%’. Please answer as accurately as possible.

1. I go out of my way to cheer others on in times of adversity.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
2. I always show consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
3. I go out of my way to congratulate others for their achievements.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
4. I cooperate fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
5. I listen sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provide emotional support.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
6. I willingly offer to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>

Appendix E: (Continued)

7. I offer sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization' s mission and objectives.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
8. I show determination to stay with the organization despite hardships.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
9. I persuade others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
10. I defend the organization vigorously when others criticize it.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
11. I show sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
12. I actively embrace the organization's missions and objectives.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
13. I use my personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
14. I look for and create opportunities to develop my own knowledge and skills.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○
15. I strive for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations.	0% ○	20% ○	40% ○	60% ○	80% ○	100% ○

Appendix E: (Continued)

16. I consistently complete work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
17. I always find additional work to do when my own normally scheduled duties are completed.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>
18. I persist with unusually high levels of effort, determination, and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable.	0% <input type="radio"/>	20% <input type="radio"/>	40% <input type="radio"/>	60% <input type="radio"/>	80% <input type="radio"/>	100% <input type="radio"/>

Appendix F
Peer and Supervisor Feedback Questionnaire

(Snowball) First, input the six digit code that you created and sent to your coworkers and supervisor:

Eg. UB45H7

(Company) First, input the name of the person you are evaluating:

Second, indicate whether you are this employee’s coworker or super visor.

e.g. coworker

Below you will find 18 behavioral statements. We are interested in how likely someone is to perform the following work behaviors. You are asked to agree or disagree with the statement for the employee you are evaluating. If you strongly agree that the employee does perform the behavior, then you should mark the circle located below ‘Strongly Agree’. Please answer as accurately as possible.

This Employee:

1. goes out of my way to cheer others on in times of adversity.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
2. always shows consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
3. goes out of my way to congratulate others for their achievements.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
4. cooperates fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
5. listens sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provide emotional support.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>

Appendix F: (Continued)

6. willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
7. I offer sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization' s mission and objectives.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
8. I show determination to stay with the organization despite hardships.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
9. I persuade others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
10. I defend the organization vigorously when others criticize it.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
11. I show sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
12. I actively embrace the organization's missions and objectives.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>

Appendix F: (Continued)

13. I use my personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
14. I look for and create opportunities to develop my own knowledge and skills.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
15. I strive for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
16. I consistently complete work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
17. I always find additional work to do when my own normally scheduled duties are completed.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>
18. I persist with unusually high levels of effort, determination, and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable.	Strongly Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Neither Agree Nor Disagree <input type="radio"/>	Agree <input type="radio"/>	Strongly Agree <input type="radio"/>

Appendix G
Final Page Viewed by Participants

Thank You!

If you have any questions about this study or you would like to receive more information about this study please e-mail Lisa Wilkinson at: lvwilkin@mail.usf.edu.

(Snowball)Raffle

If you wish to be included in the raffle to win a \$100 gift certificate to either Best Buy, Target, or Borders, please e-mail me at the following e-mail address and put raffle in the subject: lvwilkin@mail.usf.edu. You will be notified by e-mail if you win.

Lisa Wilkinson, MA
University of South Florida
4202 E. Fowler Ave., PCD 4118G
Tampa, FL. 33620
lvwilkin@mail.usf.edu

Appendix H
Demographic Information

Now we would like to ask you for a little information about yourself.

1. Age:

2. Gender: Male Female

***this is a required field**

3. Race or ethnicity:

- African-American
- White, non-Hispanic
- Hispanic/Latina
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Native American/Alaskan

other

4. Highest level of education completed:

- High School
- Some College
- Associate Degree
- Bachelor Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctorate Degree

5. What industry do you work in:

- Aerospace
- Education
- Hospitality
- Real Estate
- Manufacturing
- Government
- Pharmaceuticals
- Telecommunications
- Transportation
- Banking
- Law
- Tourist
- Information Technology
- Other

***only for snowball sampling**

Appendix H: (Continued)

6. How would you describe your job:

- Frontline/assembly/manufacturing
- Administrative
- Management
- Technical
- Sales/Marketing
- Other

7. How long have you been with your current company: years months

8. Is your job based in the United States? Yes No

If no, what country do you work in?

9. How long have you worked with the co-worker/subordinate that you are evaluating: :
years months

**this is for peer/supervisor ratings*

10. Please enter your current total annual compensation, including salary, commissions, and bonuses: \$

**this is a required field*

**this is for self report ratings*

11. How many promotions have you had while working with your present company? By promotions we mean a significant increase in the responsibility, annual salary, or a change in organizational rank.

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- more than 4

**this is a required field*

**this is for self report ratings*

Appendix I
Sample E-mail Sent to Recruit for Snowball Sampling Method

Greetings.

You are asked to complete a performance feedback survey for a study conducted by the University of South Florida. By filling out this survey:

- Your name will be entered in a raffle to win a \$100 gift certificate to Target, Best Buy, or Borders.

The survey takes **no more than 10 minutes** to complete and the performance evaluation information will be kept confidential. *To participate you must have a coworker and a supervisor who witness your daily work activities.*

Complete the following four easy steps:

1. Create a six digit identification code of three numbers and three letters to match up your evaluation with those of your co-workers and supervisor and keep your answers confidential. Create an identification code that is unique to you. For example, do not choose ABC123. **Make sure that you write down your identification code because you will need it to fill out the questionnaire.**
2. Forward this e-mail to three coworkers and your supervisor and ask them to evaluate your performance by clicking on the link enclosed in this e-mail. The coworkers you forward this to must witness your daily work activities and you must send this message to at least one coworker and your supervisor. **You must include the identification code you just created, in the e-mail to your coworkers and supervisor.**
3. Please forward this e-mail to anyone you know who might be willing to participate in this study for a chance to win a \$100 gift certificate.
4. Click on the link below or copy and paste it into your web browser to begin the questionnaire:

<http://helios.acomp.usf.edu/~lvwilkin/cf1.htm>

Thank you for your participation!

Please contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Lisa Wilkinson, MA
University of South Florida
4202 E. Fowler Ave., PCD 4118G
Tampa, FL. 33620
lvwilkin@mail.usf.edu

Appendix J
Ratings of Citizenship Performance Items

	Dimensions	Effectiveness Ratings	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Personal Support			
1. goes out of his or her way to cheer others on in times of adversity.	97	3.81	.46
2. always show consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed.	100	3.60	.50
3. cooperates fully with others by enthusiastically endorsing their suggestions.	97	3.68	.53
4. goes out of his or her way to congratulate others for their achievements.	89	3.87	.35
5. listens sincerely and sympathetically to others' personal problems and provides emotional support.	95	3.70	.46
6. willingly offers to help others by teaching them necessary knowledge or skills.	100	3.65	.54
Organizational Support			
7. offers sound suggestions for changes in administrative or organizational procedures that would better serve the organization' s mission and objectives.	92	3.51	.51
8. shows determination to stay with the organization despite hardships.	100	3.78	.42
9. actively embraces the organization's missions and objectives.	100	3.70	.52
10. defends the organization vigorously when others criticize it.	97	3.87	.42
11. shows sincere pride and enthusiasm for the organization.	97	3.92	.28
12. persuades others to follow organizational rules and procedures because they are in the best interest of the organization's mission.	89	3.65	.48
Conscientious Initiative			
13. persists with unusually high levels of effort, determination and stamina to complete work tasks successfully despite very difficult conditions or obstacles that might seem insurmountable.	92	3.92	.28
14. looks for and creates opportunities to develop own knowledge and skills	100	3.78	.42
15. strives for a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations.	95	3.92	.49

Appendix J: (Continued)

16. consistently completes work on time or ahead of time, even when deadlines seem impossibly short.	95	3.81	.40
17. always finds additional work to do when own normally scheduled duties are completed.	100	3.84	.37
18. uses own personal time and resources to take training and development courses outside the organization.	95	3.81	.46

About the Author

Lisa Wilkinson was born in Santa Rosa, CA. She received her Bachelor of Arts from University of California, San Diego in 1998 with a major in Psychology. Lisa started graduate school at the University of South Florida in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in 1999 and completed her Master of Arts in 2003. The title of her thesis was Gender Stereotypes of Citizenship Performance. Finding little support for her hypotheses, Lisa continued the topic of gender stereotypes in the workplace with her work on her dissertation. She completed her Doctor of Philosophy in winter, 2005. She currently resides in Southern California.