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**TAKING CHARGE:**

**EXAMINING ANTECEDENTS, MODERATORS, AND CONSEQUENCES**

A Dissertation in

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**ABSTRACT**

Taking charge is an extra role behavior that is change oriented and aimed at organizational improvement. The present study was the first empirical attempt to simultaneously examine antecedents, moderators, and consequences of taking charge. Specifically, resistance to change, proactive personality, and goal orientation were proposed as antecedents. The unit-level climate dimensions of manager supportiveness and climate for innovation were examined as moderators of the relationship between proposed antecedents and taking charge behavior. Consequences of taking charge included perceived taking charge effectiveness and rated task performance. Employee political skill was expected to moderate relationships between taking charge and its outcomes. Hypotheses were tested using a field sample comprising 160 employees working in a public agency. In addition, 25 managers were interviewed regarding their perceptions of employee taking charge behavior. Proactive personality and performance approach goal orientation positively predicted taking charge. The routine seeking dimension of resistance to change positively predicted taking charge when a negative direction had been predicted. Correlational analyses indicated that employees who were newer to the organization and who were more satisfied with their unit were more likely to take charge. Regression analyses indicated that a combined variable of taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness was positively related to rated task performance. Political skill was not found to moderate the relationship between taking charge and rated task performance. Managerial interviews revealed that, for this particular organization, contextual features and job competence were more dominant themes than individual qualities in understanding taking charge behavior.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The importance of an employee's willingness to behave in ways that support the effective functioning of organizations cannot be understated, especially when organizations are embedded in an environment of change (Furst & Cable, 2008; Ford & Ford, 1995). Besides the emergence of the service sector (Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007), rapid organizational changes include the rise of team based work structures where employees have higher levels of autonomy and the transition from assigned office space to arrangements of shared workspace (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007; Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). Jobs are also increasingly complex, and higher levels of employee interaction are needed to accomplish work objectives (Appelbaum & Berg, 1999). While the rapid pace of organizational change requires employees to update their skills on a continual basis (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005), it also signals the growing importance of extra role behaviors that are change-oriented, and that are targeted at organizational improvement.

Extra role behavior (ERB) refers to discretionary employee behavior that exceeds role requirements or expectations such that the organization benefits (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Such discretionary, proactive behavior is vital to an organization's long-term viability, particularly when various organizational contingencies cannot be fully anticipated (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Organizations are therefore dependent upon "the resources of people in innovation, in spontaneous cooperation, in protective and creative behavior" (Katz, 1964, p. 133) for its overall effectiveness (Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008).

Taking charge is an important ERB that has been neglected in the literature (Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne et al., 1995). While taking charge is similar to other types of ERB in its discretionary nature, it is distinct in that it is oriented towards change and

targeted towards improvement. Specifically, taking charge "refers to voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). From a practical perspective, taking charge is important towards ensuring organizational viability as organizations require employees who are willing to challenge current organizational processes so that positive change can be enacted. In addition, the antecedents of this construct can inform organizations how to promote taking charge behavior and encourage employees to view their roles more broadly (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

To date, empirical research on taking charge remains sparse with only a limited number of studies examining this construct (Chiaburu, & Baker, 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Specific calls have been made to develop the nomological network of taking charge (McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). From a research perspective, investigation into ERBs other than organizational citizenship behaviors is necessary to develop a more complete, comprehensive notion of the behaviors needed for organizational survival (Katz, 1964). Moon et al. (2008) highlight that the emphasis on OCB in ERB research has led to "an overly narrow conceptualization of extra role behavior (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406). Current evidence suggests the conceptual distinction of taking charge from OCB, indicating that taking charge may be energized by factors that have not yet been integrated within the ERB nomological network (McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008).

Given the lack of research on taking charge, (Chiaburu, & Baker, 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), the present research seeks to address this need by identifying potential antecedents of taking charge, including resistance to change (Oreg, 2003), proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), and goal orientation (Dweck, 1986). The

proposed study also seeks to better understand potential consequences of taking charge, namely perceived taking charge effectiveness and task performance. Potential moderators of the relationship between predictors and taking charge include climate dimensions such as supportive management (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and climate for innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994). The extent to which political skill (Ferris et al., 1999) may moderate the relationship between taking charge and performance will also be investigated. Finally, the degree to which identified predictors of taking charge are related to a more traditional form of ERB, interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), will be examined. Interpersonal facilitation refers to the cooperation and consideration that colleagues afford to one another to facilitate coworker performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

A primary contribution of the present research is the development of a theoretical model of taking charge that includes a consideration of antecedents, consequences and moderators, thereby responding to calls in the literature to develop the nomological network of taking charge. Previous studies examining taking charge have found the construct to be important and promising (Chiaburu, & Baker, 2006; McAllister et al., Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, none of these studies have simultaneously examined antecedents, moderators, and consequences in a single study.

Morrison and Phelps (1999, p.416) have pointed out the need to identify predictors, especially those that may be "counterintuitive or novel." The present study examines potential predictors of taking charge that have not been examined in previous research. These include resistance to change (Oreg, 2003), proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and goal orientation (Dweck, 1988). Moon et al. (2008) have also made the call to identify consequences of taking charge. The present study addresses this call by studying the link between taking charge

and two potential consequences of taking charge: perceived taking charge effectiveness and rated task performance.

A second contribution of the present research is to expand the body of multilevel research in ERB by examining the impact of unit climate dimensions on individual performance of taking charge, an ERB that has received little research attention (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Chiaburu and Baker (2006) note the need to test the influence of organizational or unit level factors on taking charge behaviors. Failure to take into account nested structures within organizations can result in mistaken conclusions (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). It is important for organizational research to acknowledge the inherently nested nature of organizational behavior, recognizing that individuals are nested within groups, and that organizations are comprised of groups (Ployhart, Weekly, & Baughman, 2006). The present study addresses this need by examining the moderating impact of unit-level supportive management (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and climate for innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994) on individual-level relationships between taking charge predictors and taking charge behavior. Given the importance of multilevel theory (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000), extra role multilevel research has tended to focus on group-level or unit-level OCB (for example, Bommer, Dierdorff, & Rubin, 2007; Ehrhart, 2004; Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Kidwell, Mossholder & Bennett, 1997; Koys, 2001; Van Dyne, Kossek, & Lobel, 2007) with limited research on group-level taking charge (Choi, 2007).

Finally, by examining the differential impact of various predictors on the newer concept of taking charge and the older concept of interpersonal facilitation, the present research contributes towards the overall ERB research by assessing the degree to which "nomological networks of various extra role behavior constructs are convergent or discriminable" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p.416).

Extra Role Behavior

The ERB literature employs the use of several terms, such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Organ, 1998), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and prosocial behavior (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief, & Motowidlo, 1986; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). ERB is the construct that unites these disparate terms. OCB and contextual performance are synonymous terms which focus on a helping form of ERB. Taking charge is also an ERB but differs from OCB and contextual performance in that it is change-oriented, and specifically targeted at improving organizational functioning (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The following review first provides an overview of the ERB construct, after which the literature on OCB and contextual performance will be reviewed.

In their discussion of ERBs, Van Dyne and colleagues (1995) define four aspects of the construct. First, ERBs are voluntary and not part of formal job responsibilities. Because they are not officially rewarded, failure to perform ERBs should not result in any sanction. Second, ERBs are also deliberate; that is, an employee intentionally performs the ERB. Third, the employee performs ERBs with positive intentions. Fourth, an employee performs ERBs such that the intended beneficiary is not the employee but another entity.

ERB is conceptually distinct from in-role behavior (IRB), which refers to behavior that is "required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role" (Van Dyne et al., 1995, p. 222). Because ERBs are not explicitly required, understanding their nature is only possible in contrast to IRBs that have been specified as within roles or expectations (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Van Dyne at al. (1995) note that both the label of ERB and IRB might be applied to the same behavior, depending on the perspective of the observer, employee characteristics and the time frame of observation.

Empirical evidence suggests that ERB and IRB, while related aspects of performance, are empirically distinct (Barksdale & Werner, 2001; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Williams & Anderson, 1991). ERB and IRB are also theoretically predicated upon different antecedents and likely to lead to different consequences (Organ, 1988). For example, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne (1998) found that in-role performance was an antecedent to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while extra-role performance was an outcome of job satisfaction and commitment among sales agents.

Van Dyne et al. (1995) offer a typology of ERBs that highlight two underlying dimensions: affiliative / challenging and promotive / prohibitive. The affiliative / challenging dimension refers to the extent which an ERB may either strengthen (affiliative) or damage (challenging) relationships. Affiliative behaviors refer to helping others whereas challenging behaviors include criticizing the way things get done. In comparison, the promotive / prohibitive dimension refers to the extent to which an ERB is meant to encourage (promotive) or inhibit (prohibitive) an outcome. Task facilitation is an example of promotive behaviors while prohibitive behaviors include reporting wrong doing.

Based on the two dimensions of affiliative / challenging and promotive / prohibitive, Van Dyne et al (1995) propose a typology of four general forms of ERB: affiliative / promotive, affiliative / prohibitive /, challenging / prohibitive, challenging / promotive (see Figure 1). Affiliative / promotive refers to helping and cooperating behaviors that do not give rise to controversy. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has received the most research attention in this category (Hoffman et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Affiliative / prohibitive behavior includes stewardship where a more powerful organizational member may seek to protect a less powerful organizational member from injustice by restricting the less powerful organizational member. Voice is an example of challenging / promotive behaviors that refers to constructive

vocalization meant to improve situations and not criticize them. Van Dyne et al (1995) note that there has been less research attention given to affiliative / prohibitive and challenging / promotive behaviors, in part due to their less common nature as compared to helping behavior. Finally, challenging / prohibitive behavior includes whistle blowing and principled organizational dissent. Whistle blowing refers to organizational member disclosure of illegal or illicit behavior controllable by their employers to parties able to redress such behavior (Near & Miceli, 1985). Principled organizational dissent is the effort to alter an organization's current state through thoughtful and deliberate objection to any current policy (Graham, 1986).

*OCB: Conceptual and Empirical Development*

The type of ERB that has received widest attention is OCB (Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002, Morrison & Phelps, 1999). OCB is defined as discretionary behavior that, while not explicitly recognized by an organization's formal reward system, serves to facilitate effective organizational functioning (Organ, 1988). Although there has been strong theoretical interest in the OCB construct, the literature has tended to focus more on understanding relationships between OCB and other constructs rather than refining the OCB construct. Despite a 20-year history, there remains ambiguity regarding how OCB should be defined and measured (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000; LePine et al., 2002).

OCB research has mainly been driven by social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Thibault & Kelley, 1959; Gouldner, 1960; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Organ (1990) argues that the employee performance of OCB is based on social exchange. In contrast to economic exchanges that involve contractual specification, social exchanges are diffuse, informal, and open to individual interpretation. Employees who feel justly treated will reciprocate by performing OCB whereas employees who are unjustly treated will withhold OCB (Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). Given the reliance on the social exchange perspective

in OCB theorizing, Zellars and Tepper (2003) have called for a broadened use of theory in potentially understanding OCB as impression management, coping, and self-concept.

A key issue in OCB research involves construct dimensionality with no clear consensus within the literature (Ehrhart, 2004). In its original conceptualization, Smith et al (1983) identified two factors: altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism includes behavior meant to directly assist others in a face-to-face encounter, while generalized compliance refers to adherence to norms of what it means to be a good worker. Organ's (1988) subsequent expansion of the OCB construct led to five dimensions to include the following: altruism (e.g., helping a colleague with a work-related difficulty), conscientiousness (e.g., not taking extra breaks), sportsmanship (e.g., avoid making petty complaints), courtesy (e.g., considers how actions will affect others) and civic virtue (e.g., keeping up with organizational changes). Podsakoff et al (2000) subsequently identified up to 30 different types of OCB, noting the degree of conceptual overlap amongst them.

While early work on OCB has focused on helping, recent work has also focused on intended beneficiaries of OCB (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007). Such intended beneficiaries can be considered along two broad categories: OCBI and OCBO. OCBI refer to OCBs that directly benefit individuals in organizations and indirectly contribute to organizations. Such behaviors include helping behavior or adhering to informal norms to keep order. OCBOs target the organization in general (e.g., voluntarily serving on organizational committees) (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Skarlicki & Lathm, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Research on intended beneficiaries of OCBs has received empirical support. For example, empirical studies suggest that citizenship behavior has two dimensions: behavior supporting the union (OCBO) and behavior supporting union members (OCBI) (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Skarlicki and Latham, 1996). Somech and Drach-Zahacy (2004) note the importance of this distinction as different levels of antecedents

may be related to different OCB targets. For example, McNeely and Meglino (1994) found that contextual factors, such as equity and reward, predicted OCBO while personal dispositions, such as empathy, predicted OCBI. OCBI and OCBO may also relate differentially to similar outcomes. For example, Allen (2006) found that the performance of high OCBI and low OCBO predicted lower promotion rates than did low OCBI and low OCBO. Turnley, Bolino, Lester, and Bloodgood (2003) studied the degree to which organizational fulfillment of psychological contracts affected OCBs and found that psychological contract fulfillment was more strongly positively associated with OCBO than with OCBI.

While several OCB frameworks have been developed (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994), there tends to be some degree of overlap between these frameworks and Organ's (1988) five-dimensional framework (Coleman & Borman, 2000). For example, Van Dyne et al (1994)'s notion of social participation overlaps with altruism and courtesy while loyalty overlaps with sportsmanship and civic virtue (LePine et al., 2002). Lepine et al. (2002) note that Organ's framework has been investigated more so than other frameworks, in part due to the presence of strong measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Fetter, 1990).

*Contextual Performance*

The proliferation in OCB research has also come with a lack of consistent terminology with which researchers have used to label the OCB construct (LePine et al., 2002). Of specific interest is the term contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997), the label most used by the human resource management literature (LePine et al., 2002). Contextual performance refers to individual efforts "that are not directly related to their main task functions but are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 71). Although contextual performance and OCB were previously defined differently (LePine et al.,

2002), Conway (1999, p. 3) notes explicitly that contextual performance and OCB are "virtually identical" with Organ's (1997) redefinition.

*OCB Measurement*

A wide variety of scales have been used to measure OCB (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). However, as noted by Hoffman et al (2007), nearly all OCB measures have, to varying degrees, adopted subsets of the five OCB dimensions proposed by Organ (1988). These five dimensions are altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Altruism refers to voluntary efforts to help a colleague with work difficulties, such as helping a newcomer learn their job. Courtesy includes behaviors that help a colleague prevent problems. An example of courtesy is the provision of advance notice to colleagues so that they can properly schedule their work. Conscientiousness is behavior that is above the minimum level expected for internal work maintenance. These efforts pertain to punctuality and resource conservation. Civic virtue is the constructive participation of an organization's political processes, such as being updated on larger issues affecting the organization. Sportsmanship refers to the tolerance of work inconveniences without complaining. Based on Organ (1988), Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed a measure of OCB comprising subscales for each of the five dimensions proposed. As noted by Hoffman et al (2007), Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) measure is one of the most popularly used in OCB research. Williams and Anderson (1991) have also based their measure of OCBI and OCBO on Organ's (1988) 5-dimension taxonomy. Specifically, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that OCBI should be comprised of the altruism and courtesy dimensions while OCBO be made up of civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship.

In terms of rating sources, Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Russell (2000) note that research on OCB has tended to rely on supervisory OCB ratings. A concern is that supervisors may not be fully aware of the extent to which an employee performs OCB as certain OCBs may be

performed out of view of the supervisor (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Although a legitimate concern, it is presently suggested that OCBs targeted at organizational improvement are likely to be performed in front of the supervisor. This is especially so when an employee needs to work within organizationally sanctioned processes to effect constructive change. Ehrhart (2004) further notes that the use of supervisor ratings on unit OCB avoids the difficulty of same-source bias where predictor and outcome measures are both obtained from unit members (Ostroff, Kinicki & Clark, 2002) and that the use of supervisor ratings reflects the evaluation of the manager as a whole. Allen et al. (2000) found that OCB ratings provided by subordinates and superiors tended to relate more strongly than OCB ratings made by the self and others. These arguments suggest the suitability of asking supervisors to provide OCB ratings.

As part of an effort to develop the nomological network of OCBs and the overall nomological network of ERBs, the present study examines the interpersonal facilitation dimension of contextual performance which is measured by the likelihood of an employee engaging in behaviors that contribute to the social and psychological context at work (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). This is in line with a recommendation by LePine et al (2002) who argue that, compared with an alternative approach that obtains frequencies of OCB behavior, examining the likelihood with which an employee will engage in OCBs provides a better indication of such contextual behavior to the organization. A low score obtained by counting the frequency of helping behaviors is an inaccurate representation of an employee's contribution to the social and psychological context as employees may still add to a positive social and psychological context through other means, for example, suggesting procedural improvements. Thus, while research on taking charge has compared taking charge with other forms of helping behavior, such as civic virtue, altruism, and interpersonal helping (McAllister et al., 2007;

Morrison & Phelps, 1999), the present seeks to make a contribution by comparing taking charge to interpersonal facilitation.

*OCB Antecedents*

Four important groups of OCB antecedents have been identified: individual differences, task differences, organizational differences and leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Based on a meta-analytic review, Podsakoff et al. (2000) note that job attitudes, task characteristics, and leader behaviors are more strongly predictive of OCB than other antecedents. It should be noted, however, that conscientiousness was still predictive of generalized compliance even when common method variance was accounted for (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Consistent evidence indicate that job satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, and organizational commitment positively predict OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Fassina, Jones and Uggerslev (2008) provided more recent meta-analytic evidence indicating that job satisfaction and fairness perceptions explained unique variance in OCB dimensions. Both role ambiguity and role conflict were inversely associated with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship. Task characteristics such as feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively associated with OCB while routinization was negatively associated with OCB. In terms of organizational characteristics, group cohesiveness had a positive relationship with OCB. Perceived organizational support was positively related to altruism, in particular. Ilies, Nhahgrang and Morgeson (2007) provided meta-analytic evidence to support a moderately strong positive relationship between leader-member exchange and OCB. Leader-member exchange was found to predict OCB targeted at the individual significantly more strongly than when targeted at organizations.

*OCB Consequences*

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The importance of distinguishing between IRB and ERB has practical significance when both types of behaviors are taken into consideration in performance assessment (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) which subsequently impact decisions regarding training, compensation, and promotion (Orr, Sackett & Mercer, 1989). Podsakoff et al (2000) suggest that OCBs account for more variance in performance evaluations than objective performance. Both IRB and ERB may affect overall organizational performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994, 1997; Walz & Nieboff 1996). Thus, although IRB and ERB are defined in distinct terms, empirical research has shown that this distinction is not clear.

Research examining the consequences of OCB have focused on organizational effectiveness and managerial performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Meta-analytic evidence found that OCBs explained up to 19% of the variance in performance quantity and more than 18% of the variance in performance quality (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Generally, OCB has been associated with the following organizational effectiveness outcomes (Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008):  enhanced work group performance and unit effectiveness, (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne & Mackenzie, 1997), enhanced profitability, (Koys, 2001), and higher revenue per full time employee and customer satisfaction (Walz & Niehoff, 2000).

Evidence on the relationship between OCB and performance is mixed as OCBs do not necessarily lead to enhanced outcomes. While empirical research generally supports the contribution of OCBs to organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), Walz and Niehoff (2000) noted that profit margin and financial performance were not significantly related to OCB. At the same time, certain helping behaviors may hinder performance. Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994) found that helping behavior was negatively related to unit performance. Likewise, Posakoff et al. (1997) also found that helping behavior was negatively related to work crew performance quality, while civic virtue was negatively related to the quantity of work crew

performance. Evidence of the impact of OCB on performance is thus mixed, and there is a need to further examine potential moderators of the relationship between OCBs and unit performance, as well as between other ERBs on performance.

Regarding managerial evaluations, evidence suggests that OCB positively affects managerial personnel decisions, and that the impact of OCB is as strong as in-role performance (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Mackenzie et al., 1998; Werner, 1994, 2000; Whiting et al., 2008). Common method variance generally weakens the relationship between OCB and managerial decisions but does not eliminate them. Recent work has examined potential moderators of OCB and managerial evaluations. For example, Bachrach, Powell, Bendoly and Richey (2006) found that high performance at the unit-level was more likely viewed as due to employee helping when task interdependence is high. This suggests that task interdependence may help determine how managers explain unit-level performance. It should be noted, however, that recent meta-analytic evidence (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) indicates that OCBs are positively related to job performance ratings and reward allocation decisions, as well as negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover at the individual level. Unit-level OCBs are also positively related to unit-level performance, enhanced customer satisfaction, and reduced unit-level turnover.

Although OCB is generally regarded as positive, more recent research has also examined the costs of OCB. Individual initiative is a specific type of OCB in which employees "engage in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524). Examples of such behavior include working on weekends and volunteering for special projects on top of normal job responsibilities. Bolino and Turnley (2005) note that the negative relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict is stronger for women than men. Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and

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Ensley (2004) found that OCBs performed by coworkers were inversely associated with employees' job satisfaction and unrelated to organizational commitment when abusive supervision was high. Efforts have also been made to develop theoretical models to account for the negative impact of OCB. For example, Bergeron (2007) posits that the time spent on OCB may be at the expense of task performance, thereby damaging employee prospects while helping the organization.

Given that the majority of ERB research has focused on OCB (Hoffman et al., 2007), it is timely for the ERB nomological network to be developed by examining taking charge (Morrison and Phelps, 1999), a neglected form of ERB. The subsequent review on taking charge discusses the key elements of this ERB, as well as distinguishes it from other ERBs with the application of the typology by Van Dyne et al. (1995). Current theoretical perspectives and empirical evidence on taking charge are then presented, with existing limitations of taking charge research identified. Contributions of the present study in how it addresses existing limitations of the taking charge literature will be discussed.

<div align="center">Taking Charge</div>

*Construct Definition*

Taking charge "entails voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). In their paper on extra role efforts to introduce workplace changes, Morrison and Phelps (1999) note that taking charge is discretionary behavior targeted at enhancing organizational effectiveness through functional change. Taking charge is meant to improve the organization, rather than for individual gain (Moon et al., 2008). Examples of taking charge behavior include altering how a job is

performed to be more effective, making constructive suggestions for improving organizational practices, and implementing solutions to urgent organizational problems.

As a further example of taking charge within an organizational context, an employee within a training unit may observe that events organized by the recruitment unit can be improved. If this employee offers constructive suggestions that enhance recruitment, the employee is taking charge as the individual is going above and beyond his or her expected job role in the training unit by offering ideas to the recruitment unit. Furthermore, it is the recruitment unit and the organization as a whole that benefits in the form of higher recruitment success, rather than the individual making the suggestion. In making such suggestions and challenging the status quo of recruitment processes, however, the employee runs the risk of damaging his or her work relationships in the organization if not done tactfully. To further define taking charge, the following section differentiates taking charge from other types of ERBs.

Van Dyne et al.'s (1995) typology proposes two underlying dimensions of ERBs: affiliative / challenging and promotive / prohibitive. To review, the former dimension refers to the extent to which an ERB either strengthens (affiliative) or damages (challenging) relationships whereas the latter refers to the extent to which an ERB encourages (promotive) or inhibits (prohibitive) an outcome. Taking charge is a challenging and promotive form of ERB that is change oriented and targeted towards improvement. Taking charge entails constructive challenge meant to improve the situation, rather than merely offering criticism. Taking charge has a proactive focus directed at facilitating or encouraging change. As depicted in Figure 1, taking charge is in the top right quadrant comprised of both challenging and promotive dimensions.

While voice is also a challenging and promotive type of ERB, taking charge is distinct from voice. Voice is "any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs" (Hirschman, 1970, p. 30). Although both are change-oriented, the objective of

voice behavior is to remove personal dissatisfaction while taking charge behavior seeks to create organizational improvement (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Voice is conceptualized as a broader construct than taking charge, including behaviors that are less effortful and behaviors that do not necessarily lead to organizational enhancement.

In contrast to taking charge, affiliative and promotive behaviors refer to helping and cooperating behaviors that do not give rise to controversy (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Such ERBs are not change oriented but tend to be spontaneous acts of support. Given its constructive but challenging nature towards the status quo, taking charge is more likely to lead to conflict and relational damage, as compared to affiliative and promotive behaviors which emphasize relational smoothness (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). While taking charge has been acknowledged as a neglected form of ERB, OCB, a type or affiliative and promotive behavior has received the most research attention (Hoffman et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Affiliative and prohibitive ERBs are stewardship behaviors that are oriented towards preventing action that might lead to harm (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Individuals who engage in such behavior may be employees with more authority who intervene on behalf of a less powerful employee. For example, a mentor may take action to protect a protégé. Thus, unlike taking charge, affiliative and prohibitive ERBs are not focused on change but on the protection and preservation of relationships that may involve interceding behaviors to prevent harm from coming to others. This is in contrast to taking charge which might potentially damage relationships due to its challenging nature.

Finally, taking charge is unlike challenging and prohibitive types of ERBs which focus on criticizing either the current situation or the behavior of others to stop what is viewed as inappropriate behavior (Van Dyne at al., 1995). Examples include principled dissent and whistle blowing. Whistle blowing refers to organizational member disclosure of illegal or illicit behavior

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controllable by their employers to parties able to redress such behavior (Near & Miceli, 1985). Principled organizational dissent is the effort to alter an organization's current state due to thoughtful and deliberate objection to any current policy (Graham, 1986). Challenging and prohibitive ERBs tend to be planned and thought through, with logical reasoning used to criticize past behavior. Unlike taking charge which focuses on future-oriented change, challenging and prohibitive ERBs focus on is what is wrong with past actions (Van Dyne at al., 1995). In contrast, while the impetus of taking charge is organizational improvement, taking charge behavior may not be based on the belief that current organizational practices are wrong. Unlike taking charge, challenging and prohibitive ERBs are usually prompted by interests beyond the organization, and are usually taken regardless of whether the organization benefits from such action. While taking charge generally seeks to implement positive practices, challenging and prohibitive ERBs seek to expose or remove negative practices. Taking charge tends to be implemented through internally approved means while such orderly implementation does not characterize challenging and prohibitive ERBs (Graham, 1986; Miceli & Near, 1982; Van Dyne at al., 1995).

Apart from the various categories of ERBs, taking charge is also distinguishable from related constructs such as role innovation and personal initiative. Role innovation is the alteration or enhancement of a job role or procedures involved in the performance of the role, while taking charge behavior can be aimed beyond an individual's specific job role (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Personal initiative is a pattern of behavior that leads to "an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is formally required in a given job" (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996, p. 38). Although certain elements of personal initiative resemble taking charge, such as the offering of suggestions, Morrison and Phelps (1999) emphasize that personal initiative describes behavioral tendencies toward proactive behavior. Research has examined personal initiative as a trait (Sonnentag, 2003) or as a stable behavioral tendency (Hornung,

Rousseau & Glaser, 2008). In contrast, taking charge is expected to be more malleable and situationally dependent.

Taking charge is also distinct from leadership. Taking charge may be considered as part of in-role behavior for some leaders. This may be especially the case for transformational leaders who are likely to initiate change by encouraging employees to go beyond complying with regulation. Transformational leaders encourage employees to solve problems innovatively and inspire a vision, empower employers, foster acceptance of group goals, and are attentive to the needs of employees (Detert & Burris, 2007). Through these behaviors, transformational leaders seek to inspire their followers to contribute their ideas targeted at improving the organization (Detert & Burris, 2007; Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008). In essence, transformational leadership promotes the performance of extra role behavior that contributes towards organizational effectiveness (Bettencourt, 2004). It is recognized, however, that taking charge may not be in-role behavior for laissez-faire leaders who typically are non-responsive to employee performance (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008) and who do not consider offering constructive suggestions for organizational improvement part of their role.

In contrast, taking charge is extra role behavior by employees who are not expected to be change-oriented as part of their in-role behavior. Such employees are not expected to continually make suggestions for change or improve existing procedures for greater organizational effectiveness. Since they are not expected to take charge as part of their in-role behavior, employees should have autonomy to do so if they choose to.

Current research has given limited attention to potential disadvantages of taking charge. Taking charge could be an expression of a narcissistic personality (e.g. Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Such individuals tend to have an over-inflated sense of entitlement and self-importance, and are preoccupied by boundless success (DSM IV; American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Narcissistic individuals may think that only they have the ability to take charge, and that other employees should listen to them. Furthermore, individuals may take charge but do so badly in that their efforts result in pointless of even detrimental changes that are not beneficial to anybody. Finally, the time and effort needed to take charge may detract from an employee's in-role performance. The present research begins to address the limitations of taking charge by understanding when taking charge can be ineffective, and when there can be excessive taking charge from a manager's point of view

*Theoretical Development*

Three theoretical perspectives have been applied to the study of taking charge: an expectancy-based model (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), role perceptions (McAllister et al., 2007), and attribution theory (Grant, Parker & Collins, 2009). In their paper, Morrison and Phelps (1999) adopted an expectancy-based theoretical foundation by stating that an individual's taking charge behavior is influenced by the likelihood of its success and the consequences of taking charge. Taking charge is the result of a decision making process in which individuals are more likely to challenge current organizational practice when they perceive that the suggested change can and will be implemented.

A somewhat related perspective to the expectancy-based model is role perceptions in understanding taking charge behavior (McAllister et al., 2007). This perspective examines the degree to which employee beliefs about whether taking charge is role prescribed and associated with valued rewards affects taking charge behavior. Role perceptions include role breadth (the degree to which an employee views taking charge as in-role), instrumentality perceptions (the extent to which valued outcomes are viewed as being related to taking charge), efficacy perceptions (the extent to which an employee believes he or she can fulfill broader responsibilities) and role discretion perceptions (the extent to which employees view the

performance of taking charge as discretionary) (McAllister et al., 2007). The use of both of these theoretical perspectives have contributed to the incipient identification of several taking charge antecedents. Using the expectancy-based model, Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that top management openness, self efficacy, and felt responsibility were positively related to taking charge. McAllister et al (2007) found that role breadth and perceived instrumentality were positively associated with taking charge.

Attribution theory is the third theoretical perspective that has been applied towards the explanation of manager reactions to employee prosocial behavior (Grant et al., 2009), and may be used to understand taking charge behavior. Attribution theory suggests that intentions are important in the performance of prosocial behavior. Specifically, for the manager to reward prosocial behavior, Grant et al (2009) argue that managers should believe that an employee is performing such behavior with good intentions. Examining a composite of proactive behavior comprising taking charge, voice, issue-selling, and anticipatory helping, Grant et al (2009) found that such proactive behaviors were more strongly associated with higher supervisory performance ratings when employees demonstrated low negative affect and strong prosocial values. This finding suggests that the relationship between taking charge and rated task performance is likely to be moderated by variables indicative of how taking charge was carried out.

Personality traits have been identified as an important group of OCB antecedents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) with conscientiousness receiving meta-analytic support in its relationship with altruism and generalized compliance (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Besides conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience have been found to be positively related to OCB (McManus & Kelly, 1999; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Big Five personality traits may relate to other forms of ERB, such as taking charge. Individuals who are more open to change may have a greater tendency to suggest changes in how work gets done, and

highly agreeable individuals may be more likely to engage in OCB rather than taking charge behavior as the latter may require them to be disagreeable to offer suggestions that change the status quo. At the same time, it is important to note that there should be close correspondence between predictors and outcomes in terms of specificity (Smith & Schneider, 2004). While broad traits may predict overall job performance (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001), more specific personality characteristics may be needed in predicting narrower behaviors like taking charge (Hogan & Roberts 1996; Hough, 1992; Stewart, 1999). The importance of a narrower conceptualization of personality predictors in relation to taking charge was illustrated by Moon et al (2008) who examined conscientiousness at a facet level and found that duty, an other-centered facet, had a positive relationship with taking charge while achievement striving, a self-centered facet, had a negative relationship with taking charge. Therefore, the present study focuses on narrower personality traits rather than a broad conceptualization of Big Five personality traits.

Taking charge, as conceptualized by Morrison and Phelps (1999), has been the basis of the development of change-oriented OCBs (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007). Specifically defined for a retail context, change-oriented OCBs refer to "constructive, extra-role efforts by individual retail boundary-spanning employees to identify and implement organizationally functional changes with respect to work methods, policies, and procedures within the context of their jobs, stores, or organizations" (Bettencourt, 2004, p. 165). Change-oriented OCBs emphasize the broader context of an employees' work role and job where changes can be made and do not confine changes to employee adaptability during service situations (Bettencourt, 2004). Further, as emphasized by Bettencourt (2004), employees who perform change-oriented OCBs "must be change oriented and willing to risk upsetting the status quo and interpersonal relationships at least in the short term" (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001, p. 328). Examples of change-oriented OCBs

include scanning for problems in service delivery and communicating internal organizational difficulties that may result in new services.

Although change-oriented OCBs draw from similar constructs in management, such as the taking charge construct (Bettencourt, 2004; Morrison and Phelps, 1999), change-oriented OCB is a broader construct than taking charge. Choi (2007) notes that change-oriented OCB is an integration of LePine and Van Dyne's (2001, p.326) definition of voice as "constructive change-oriented communication intended to improve the situation" and Morrison and Phelps' (1999) taking charge construct which emphasizes performing extra role behavior to introduce work-related changes to benefit the organization. Change-oriented OCB therefore bears some conceptual overlap with the taking charge construct. The present study focuses on taking charge as both an outcome of potential taking charge antecedents, and as an antecedent of performance outcomes.

*The Measurement of Taking Charge*

Studies examining taking charge have all been cross-sectional field studies where organizational employees were surveyed (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Moon et al., 2008; McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is measured using a 10-item scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999). Sample items include "This person often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job," "This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures," and "This person often tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems." Taking charge has been shown to correlate positively with top management openness, group norms, general self-efficacy, felt responsibility, expert power, organizational level, procedural justice, achievement striving, helping instrumentality, helping efficacy, helping discretion, taking charge role breadth, taking charge instrumentality, taking charge efficacy, taking charge discretion, voice, rational issue selling, and helping behavior

(Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Taking charge has been found to load on a separate factor from other constructs (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Chiaburu & Baker, 2005). Results of a confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that taking charge is distinct from in-role behavior and the altruism and civic virtue dimensions of OCB (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Factor loadings of all items from each scale were significant and corresponded to the hypothesized latent construct. In testing a series of hierarchically nested models, Morrison and Phelps (1999) also demonstrated that the hypothesized four-factor model was the best fit. Finally, as argued by Morrison and Phelps (1999), the discriminant validity of taking charge was further supported by the size of the correlations amongst the four latent constructs which ranged from .34 to .63 (mean of .49).

Employee taking charge is typically reported by either coworker ratings (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), supervisor ratings (Grant et al., 2009; McAllister et al., 2007) or both (Moon et al., 2008). Only one study (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006) used a self-reported measure of taking charge.

It should be noted that the measurement of change-oriented OCB deviates from the 10-item scale of Morrison and Phelps (1999). While Bettencourt (2004) used a slightly reworded version of Morrison and Phelp's (1999) taking charge scale, Choi (2007) measured change-oriented OCB with a four-item scale where only two items were adapted from Morrison & Phelps (1999). The remaining two items in Choi's (2007) scale on change-oriented OCB were adapted items from an innovation climate scale (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Findings reported by both Bettencourt (2004) and Choi (2007) should be considered with this measurement caveat in mind.

*Empirical Studies*

Individual characteristics are important in influencing the degree to which employees take charge. Based on a sample of 278 white-collar employees from different organizations, Morrison

and Phelps (1999) found that employees who are self-efficacious and who have a high level of felt responsibility (a strong belief that they are personally obligated to promote constructive change) are more likely to take charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Surveying a sample of 211 employees at a work facility overseeing logistical operations for a work organization, Chiaburu and Baker (2006) found that employees with a high propensity to trust were more likely to take charge, especially when they were less likely to consider benefits received from the organizations as entitlements. Using two diverse samples comprising both coworkers and their supervisors, Moon et al (2008) found that different facets of conscientiousness predicted taking charge differentially. Duty, which is other-centered, positively predicted taking charge while achievement striving, which is focused on the self, negatively predicted taking charge. Based on a sample of 183 employees in a national retail sales organization, Bettencourt (2004) found that organizational commitment more strongly predicted change-oriented OCB at lower levels of learning goal orientation. Choi (2007) surveyed a sample of 1923 employees from a division of an electronics company in Korea and found that psychologically empowered individuals were more likely to engage in change-oriented OCB.

In addition to individual characteristics, contextual factors also play an important role in taking charge behavior. Supervisory output control (the degree to which there is supervisory reliance on behaviors and procedures for monitoring and assessment) positively predicted employee taking charge behavior (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006). Manager leadership behavior also affected employee taking charge. Specifically, contingent reward leadership had a stronger negative relationship with taking charge at higher levels of employee performance goal orientation. Basing their analysis on 183 surveys where both employees and managers of a national chain of specialty retail shops provided change-oriented OCB ratings, core

transformational leadership had a stronger positive relationship with change-oriented OCB when employee performance goal orientation was high (Bettencourt, 2004).

Additional contextual predictors include top management openness to employee suggestions and employee-initiated change. Employee perceptions of top management openness were positively related to taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Procedural justice perceptions positively predicted taking charge behavior (Moon et al., 2008). Evidence further suggests that distributive justice perceptions positively supported taking charge behavior when taking charge was assessed by supervisors, but not by coworkers (Moon et al., 2008). In addition, perceived role breadth and perceived instrumentality were positively related to taking charge (McAllister et al., 2007). With further consideration of justice perceptions, procedural justice more strongly predicted taking charge when perceived role breadth was high, that is, when taking charge was viewed as being in-role. Taking charge was minimized when procedural justice was low, regardless of perceived role breadth.

While research has identified antecedents of taking charge behavior, there are several limitations in taking charge research. An important shortcoming is the limited nomological network of taking charge. Only a few constructs have been related to taking charge. As previously discussed, it is known that taking charge is predicted by individual characteristics such as self-efficacy, felt responsibility, propensity to trust, the achievement striving and duty facets of conscientiousness, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. Taking charge is also related to contextual features such as supervisory output control, manager leadership behavior, management openness, justice perceptions, and role breadth perceptions (Bettencourt, 2004; Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Choi, 2007; Moon et al., 2008; McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The paucity of research on taking charge has led to specific calls to study novel and counterintuitive predictors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The present study addresses this call

by studying the relationships between potential predictors of taking charge such as resistance to change (Oreg, 2003), proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), learning goal orientation, performance-approach goal orientation, and performance-avoid goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1999). Apart from learning goal orientation, the remainder of these potential predictors have yet to be empirically related to taking charge.

Initial efforts have been made to compare antecedents of taking charge with more traditional types of ERBs, such as dimensions of OCB. McAllister et al (2007) have found that perceived role breadth and perceived instrumentality positively predicted both taking charge and interpersonal helping. On the other hand, perceived efficacy positively predicted taking charge but not interpersonal helping. McAllister et al (2007) also found that the positive impact of procedural justice on helping was stronger when helping was perceived as extra role behavior while the positive impact of procedural justice was stronger when perceived taking charge was perceived as in-role behavior. In the development of their 10-item scale on taking charge, Morrison and Phelps (1999) provided evidence to indicate that taking charge is distinct from in-role behavior as well as altruism and civic virtue, two of the most typically measured types of OCB. Chiaburu and Baker (2006) note that an especially important theoretical effort is to compare taking charge with other ERBs, seeking out the extent to which the nomological networks of different ERBs can be differentiated (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The present contributes to this effort by investigating how identified predictors of taking charge relate to interpersonal facilitation, a dimension of contextual performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) that has not been previously considered in relation to taking charge.

Another limitation of existing research is that, to date, taking charge has always been conceptualized as an outcome variable (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Moon et al., 2008; McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Specific calls have been made to investigate the

performance consequences of taking charge (Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). To address such calls, the present study has conceptualized taking charge as a predictor of performance outcomes. The present effort to link taking charge with task performance represents the first effort to empirically support the claim that taking charge has performance consequences.

An additional constraint in the existing research is a limited understanding of when taking charge is likely to benefit or harm an organization, or when it is likely to be effective or ineffective (Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). For example, employees may be inept at implementing new procedures meant to enhance their job performance. They may also not possess the right skills to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems. In such cases, it is likely that their taking charge efforts will prove ineffective. The degree to which an outcome is functional also depends on a stakeholder's perspective (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Perceived taking charge effectiveness thus reflects the extent to which a manager perceives that an employee is effective in engaging in taking charge behaviors, and contributes to overall organizational effectiveness when taking charge.

While meant to be functional to the organization, taking charge may lead to dysfunctional outcomes if there is too much taking charge behavior. For example, excessive levels of employee taking charge behavior are likely to lead to coordination difficulties as not everyone may be kept updated on the latest procedural improvement. Leaders may also feel threatened by too much taking charge behavior on the part of the employee. Thus, a further goal of the present study is to also understand conditions under which taking charge is likely to be deemed effective or ineffective. Specifically, the moderating impact of political skill (Ferris et al., 2005) on the relationship between taking charge and task performance will be examined.

Calls for cross-level research have also been made to study the interactive impact of team or organizational level factors and individual characteristics on taking charge (Chiaburu & Baker,

2006; Choi, 2007). Choi (2007) found cross-level effects such that that strong company vision and perceived innovative climate at the group level increased change-oriented OCB at the individual level. Psychological empowerment and felt responsibility for change were also group-level mediators for change-oriented OCB. Based on this work indicating the viability of cross-level models of taking charge, the present study will explore manager supportiveness (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and climate for innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994) as two unit climate variables that may potentially predict individual-level taking charge behavior.

Having discussed the potential contributions of the present study, the next section reviews the theoretical basis for the inclusion of interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) as a comparison ERB. The theoretical basis of the proposed predictors of taking charge are also reviewed, including: resistance to change (Oreg, 2003) proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), learning goal orientation, performance-approach goal orientation, and performance-avoid goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997). Statements of hypotheses will be presented for these predictors in relation to both taking charge and interpersonal facilitation.

<div align="center">Interpersonal Facilitation</div>

*Conceptual Development*

Interpersonal facilitation is one of two facets comprising contextual performance, the other being job dedication (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Interpersonal facilitation refers to the cooperation and consideration that colleagues afford to one another to facilitate coworker performance while job dedication refers to self-discipline at work such as working hard and following work regulations. Evidence suggests that both the interpersonal facilitation and job dedication dimensions of contextual performance contribute uniquely to overall performance (Conway, 1999; Johnson, 2001; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Kiker and Motowidlo (1999) found that interpersonal effectiveness leads to greater rewards for technically effective

individuals, whereas technical effectiveness is more rewarding for more interpersonally effective individuals. The researchers suggest that task and interpersonal effectiveness are both equally important such that effectiveness in one area of performance does not make up for ineffectiveness in the other area. Contextual performance has been shown to predict career advancement and rewards over time (Van Scotter, Modowidlo, & Cross, 2000) and is especially critical to team performance (LePine, Hanson, Borman & Motowidlo, 2000; Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2005). The present study focuses on the interpersonal facilitation dimension of contextual performance as a specific form of affiliative / promotive ERB that may be contrasted with taking charge, a challenging / promotive type of ERB. The selection of interpersonal facilitation is particularly appropriate because it emphasizes supportive, cooperative, and considerate behaviors (Van Scotter, 2000) that support the status quo rather than behaviors that challenge the status quo (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

*Empirical Research*

Interpersonal facilitation has been positively correlated with job dedication, experience, promotion, job knowledge, job satisfaction, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, positive affectivity, goal orientation, expectancy of task success, and affective commitment, while negatively correlated with turnover (Van Scotter, 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Interpersonal facilitation impacts manager perceptions of employee behavior. Subordinates perceived as being less interpersonally facilitative are more likely to be seen by their supervisors as engaging in more ingratiation (Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007). Individuals who are less agreeable are more likely to demonstrate interpersonal facilitation when organizational politics is low, whereas highly agreeable individuals tend to show more interpersonal facilitation regardless of perceived organizational politics (Witt, Kacmar, Carlson, & Zivnuska, 2002). In a meta-analysis of managerial jobs, however, peers seem to be more

attentive to interpersonal facilitation when making performance ratings than managers who tend to focus more on task performance (Conway, 1999). Having outlined the conceptual and empirical development of interpersonal facilitation, I provide a set of hypotheses relating proposed antecedents of taking charge to interpersonal facilitation to explicitly contrast these two different forms of ERB.

<div align="center">Resistance to Change</div>

*Conceptual Development*

Resistance to change refers to a stable dispositional tendency to avoid making changes, to minimize the value of change in general, and to consider change unpleasant across various types of change and contexts (Oreg, 2003; 2008). Four dimensions of resistance to change have been identified: routine seeking, emotional reaction to imposed change, short-term focus, and cognitive rigidity (Oreg, 2003; 2008). The first dimension, routine seeking, reflects the *behavioral* component of change resistance and refers to the tendency to incorporate routines into one's life. It is the degree to which an individual enjoys and seeks out stable environments. The second dimension, emotional reaction, is an *affective* component of change resistance and refers to the stress and discomfort experienced when dealing with change. Short term focus is the third dimension that also reflects an *affective* component of change resistance but focuses on the degree to which individuals are preoccupied by short-term inconveniences associated with change. Such individuals with a strong short-term focus are likely to reject a more rational choice that provides them with benefits in the long-term. Cognitive rigidity is the fourth dimension that reflects the regularity and ease with which people alter their opinions. It is an unwillingness to consider different perspectives. Cognitive rigidity reflects the *cognitive* component of resistance to change. Oreg's (2003) conceptualization of resistance to change as multidimensional is supported by empirical evidence suggesting that resistance to change has cognitive, emotional

and behavioral components (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen,

Tourish, & DiFonzo, 2004; Piderit, 2000; Stanley, Meyer, &  Topolnytsky, 2005). A

multidimensional view of change resistance is needed for a comprehensive assessment of this

construct (Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008).

*Empirical Research*

Contextual factors have been found to influence an individual's resistance to change. In a

study examining reactions to change in a large Dutch organization, Van Dam et al. (2008) found

that employees who had received more information and opportunities for participation, and had

experienced more trust in management subsequently reported less resistance to change. Van Dam

and Oreg (2008) found that psychological reactions during organizational change predicted

change resistance. Trust in management and perceived control negatively predicted resistance to

change, while change-related cynicism and perceived uncertainty positively predicted resistance

to change. Different contextual features also relate differently to different dimensions of

resistance to change. For example, Oreg (2006) found that perceived threats to job security and

perceived threats to intrinsic rewards inversely predicted affective resistance while social

influence positively predicted affective resistance. On the other hand, social influence and level

of information available were positively related to behavioral resistance.

Different dimensions of resistance to change have been found to predict different

outcomes. Oreg (2006) noted that affective resistance negative predicted job satisfaction,

behavioral resistance positively predicted intention to quit, and cognitive resistance negatively

predicted continuance commitment. Oreg (2006) argued that such nuanced findings underscore

the importance of treating resistance to change as a multidimensional construct. In addition, Oreg

(2006) found that the composite measure of dispositional resistance to change was more strongly

related to affective resistance in a positive direction than behavioral resistance, suggesting that

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individuals may be predisposed towards negative emotions about change and may be more likely to act against organizational change, regardless of the particular nature of the change event.

Due to the novelty of the construct, research on dispositional resistance to change has focused on the construct validity of the measure. In demonstration of both convergent and discriminant validity, Oreg (2003) found that resistance to change correlated positively with risk aversion, and negatively with sensation seeking and tolerance for ambiguity. Weaker positive relationships were established between resistance to change and dogmatism as well as neuroticism. Oreg (2003) noted that the moderate correlations that were lower than the subscale reliabilities supports the scales' construct validity. Openness to change was also weakly associated with openness to experience in an inverse direction. Resistance to change was not significantly related to cognitive ability. In further support of its construct validity, Oreg (2003; 2008) noted that the composite resistance to change score predicted individual responses to change in various contexts, such as resistance to innovation and responses to voluntary change. Significant correlations between its subscales support the four factor structure of the scale (Oreg 2003). The loading of all subscales onto a second order factor as well as the moderate-to-high intercorrelations among factors suggested that these subscales represent facets of the same underlying disposition. The construct validity of the resistance to change measure has recently been supported across data from 17 countries (Oreg, Bayazit, Vakola, Arciniega, Armenakis, Barkauskiene, et al., 2008). Via structural replication of the resistance to change measure and empirical support for partial measurement equivalence, Oreg et al. (2008) established the cross-national validity of the construct. Oreg et al. (2008) noted that the meaning of dispositional resistance to change was equivalent across countries, and that the measure was both reliable and valid in the 17 nations sampled for the study.

*Linkage to Taking Charge*

While most research on resistance to change has focused on the construct validity of the construct, the present study seeks to make a contribution by examining resistance to change as an antecedent of taking charge. Routine seeking, emotional reaction, and cognitive rigidity are hypothesized to negatively predict taking charge. As this is the first study to relate resistance to change to taking charge, only one affective subscale of the resistance to change scale will be used for the present study. The emotional reaction subscale was selected over the short term focus subscale as it contained items that pertained directly to a work context. At the same time, because the short term focus subscale explained less variance than the emotional reaction subscale in an exploratory factor analysis and correlated with the emotional reaction subscale at .52 (Oreg, 2003), the use of the emotional reaction subscale over the short term focus subscale was considered appropriate for the present study.

*Resistance to Change and Taking Charge*

Given that taking charge is conceptualized as a change-oriented construct (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), individuals who are highly resistant to change should be less likely to demonstrate taking charge behavior. Taking charge strongly emphasizes employee behavior such as the improvement of organizational policies and the active suggestion of ideas to help the organization function better. Individuals who tend to resist change are more likely to have negative attitudes towards change, and are less likely to start any change effort (Oreg, 2003; 2006). People who are high on dispositional resistance to change "are less likely to voluntarily incorporate changes into their lives, and when change is imposed upon them they are more likely to experience negative emotional reactions, such as anxiety, anger and fear" (Oreg, 2006, p. 77) Thus it is hypothesized that individuals high in routine seeking are less likely to take charge.

> *Hypothesis 1a: The routine seeking dimension of resistance to change is negatively related to taking charge.*

Individuals who experience strong negative emotions in dealing with change are less likely to voluntarily engage in change-oriented behavior. Taking charge is likely to be associated with a measure of emotional discomfort because of the challenging nature of these behaviors.

*Hypothesis 1b: The emotional reaction dimension of resistance to change is negatively related to taking charge.*

Individuals who stubbornly refuse to consider alternative ways of getting work done are also unlikely to come up with suggestions for work improvement. Such individuals are much less likely to engage in discretionary behaviors that are change-oriented.

*Hypothesis 1c: The cognitive rigidity dimension of resistance to change is negatively related to taking charge.*

*Resistance to Change and Interpersonal Facilitation*

As noted earlier, the present study focuses on the interpersonal facilitation dimension of contextual performance as a specific form of affiliative / promotive ERB that may be contrasted with taking charge, a challenging / promotive type of ERB. Resistance to change is not expected to relate to interpersonal facilitation. Individuals who are predisposed to resist change view change as unpleasant across several contexts and types of change (Oreg, 2003). Interpersonal facilitation does not focus on change-oriented behavior. Instead, it comprises spontaneous behaviors which occur as part of daily work interactions, such as praising co-workers when they have achieved success. Thus, resistance to change is not expected to relate to interpersonal facilitation. A similar logic applies to the emotional reaction dimension of resistance to change. Interpersonal facilitation does not include change events that might arouse stress and discomfort. Emotional reaction is thus not expected to be related to interpersonal facilitation. Finally, the ease and frequency with which individuals change their minds is not expected to relate to interpersonal facilitation. Cognitive rigidity is not expected to impact the degree to which an individual

engages in cooperative and considerate behavior towards colleagues to facilitate coworker performance. Overall, resistance to change is not expected to relate to interpersonal facilitation

Proactive Personality

*Conceptual Development*

Proactive personality is a dispositional construct that describes the degree to which individuals exert influence on the environment. It is the "relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 104). Proactive personality is based on the notion that individuals purposeful agents who strive to "make things happen" (Bandura, 2001, p.2). Highly proactive individuals tend to seek opportunities across a range of activities and situations where they are able to exert influence and persevere in action until meaningful change takes place. Proactive individuals are thought to have high performance standards, and utilize available resources in attaining such standards. Conversely, individuals who tend to be less proactive are passive adaptors to the environment, and do not identify opportunities for change (Crant, 1996; 2000).

Proactive personality is one of several constructs that seek to account for the behaviors of proactive individuals (Thompson, 2005). Other constructs include personal initiative and role-breadth self-efficacy. Personal initiative is a behavioral pattern where individuals take a self-starting approach to work and go beyond prescribed job requirements (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997; Frese et al., 1996). Role breadth self-efficacy is employees' perceived capability of performing a broader and more proactive set of work tasks that are beyond formal technical requirements (Parker, 1998). Noting the lack of an integrated research approach towards the study of proactive behavior, Crant (2000) highlights that proactivity at work has been investigated from both a dispositional and situational perspective. In particular, proactive personality is distinguished from taking charge in that the former is dispositionally based while

the latter assesses "tendencies toward situation-specific proactive behavior presumed to change in response to environmental conditions" (Crant, 2000, p. 444). Further, while taking charge and proactive personality are both action-oriented, taking charge has a narrower focus on how work is performed (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006).

*Empirical Research*

In terms of dispositional correlates, proactive personality is positively related to conscientiousness, extraversion (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000), openness to experience, and negatively related to neuroticism (Crant & Bateman, 2000). Proactive personality positively predicts criterion variables, such as charismatic leadership and motivation to learn, beyond the contribution of Big Five personality traits (Chan, 2006; Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006). Outcomes at the individual level include higher commissions (Crant, 1995), salary and number of promotions (Siebert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999), levels of newcomer task mastery, political knowledge (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), leadership (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Deluga, 1998) entrepreneurship (Becherer & Maurer, 1999; Crant, 1996) and perceived job success (Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooney, Near, & Baldwin, 2008). Outcomes at the team level include improved team performance (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) and work group integration (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). At the organizational level, proactive personality is linked with higher company sales (Becherer & Maurer, 1999) and organizational innovation (Parker, 1998).

While research suggests that proactive personality is an important predictor of individual, team and organizational success (Crant, 2000), several studies have found moderated relationships. For example, proactive personality positively predicts work attitudes and outcomes only for individuals with high levels of situation judgment effectiveness but negatively predicts work attitudes and outcomes for those with low situation judgment effectiveness (Chan, 2006).

Chan (2006) defines situation judgment effectiveness as individual differences in the ability to make effective situational judgments or responses. Such evidence suggests that proactive personality may at times be either adaptive or maladapative (Chan, 2006). Further, proactive personality positively predicts career satisfaction to the extent that individuals have a high person-job fit and person-organization fit, and job satisfaction when individuals have high person-organization fit (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005).

   *Linkage to Taking Charge*

   A positive relationship between proactive personality and taking charge is hypothesized because individuals with high levels of proactive personality characteristically engage in behaviors that are representative of taking charge, including "active surveying of their environment, maintain vigilance, and enact behaviors intended to bring about desired outcomes" (Cunningham & De La Rosa, 2008, p.272). In contrast, individuals with lower levels of proactive personality have a reduced propensity to exert such influence over their environment, reacting in a more passive manner (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Given that taking charge is deliberate, effortful behavior oriented towards changing how work is performed (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), individuals with a high level of proactive personality are best positioned to identify aspects of the work environment that they may duly influence. Active changing of the environment is thus a key mechanism by which individuals high in proactive personality will seek to take charge.

   Besides the ability to identify aspects of their environment that they may alter, individuals high in proactive personality are also more likely to engage in taking charge via a willingness to perform extra-role behaviors. This argument is supported by the finding that proactive personality is associated with proactive work behavior via flexible role orientation and role breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006), suggesting that individuals with high proactive

personality are more willing to expend effort for the sake of the organization and engage in taking charge behavior.

An important aspect of the proactive personality construct is the emphasis on being a constructive force for change. Fuller, Marler, and Hester (2006) suggest that individuals who are high in felt responsibility for constructive change are more likely to engage in continuous improvement behavior and offer constructive communications that promote change. Through these mechanisms, individuals high in proactive personality are therefore more likely to take charge.

*Hypothesis 2a: Proactive personality is positively related to taking charge.*

Proactive personality is also likely to positively predict interpersonal facilitation, although the strength of association is expected to be weaker as compared to the expected positive association between proactive personality and taking charge. To the extent that engaging interpersonal facilitation is the promotion of a smooth social context that supports task performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), it may also be viewed as one way of influencing the environment via taking the initiative to help others (Thompson, 2005). However, given that the proactive personality construct is measured by items indicating a potential willingness to go against opposition (for example, "I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition"), the positive relationship between proactive personality and interpersonal facilitation is expected to be weaker than the positive relationship between proactive personality and taking charge.

*Hypothesis 2b: Proactive personality is positively related to interpersonal facilitation.*

*Hypothesis 2c: Proactive personality has a stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation.*

Goal Orientation

*Conceptual and Empirical Development*

Goal orientation captures differences in how individuals interpret performance

engagements (Chen & Mathieu, 2008). The goal orientation construct has its roots in educational

psychology (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988), and was initially developed to

explain individual differences in students' learning. Based on a socio-cognitive approach where

beliefs and goals are central in how individuals define themselves, Dweck (1986) argued for the

existence of performance and learning goals. Individuals with learning goals are more attuned to

learning for its own sake. Learning goal orientation emphasizes a development orientation where

abilities can be developed as they are malleable (Attenweiler and Moore, 2006). On the other

hand, performance goals orientate the individual towards obtaining positive evaluations or

avoiding negative judgments from others. Individuals high in performance goal orientation are

likely to stress the importance of short-term performance results and view failure as a weakness

(Attenweiler & Moore, 2006).

Whether an individual adopts performance or learning goals is dependent on one's view

of intelligence (Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Specifically, individuals who have an entity view think

that intelligence and performance is fixed and cannot be enhanced through effort. Such

individuals are more likely to adopt performance goals. In contrast, individuals who adhere to an

incremental perspective of intelligence are more likely to adopt learning goals as they think that

performance can be improved through effort.

Learning goal orientation positively predicts self-regulatory behaviors, such as planning

and goal setting that in turn promote achievement (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994). Individuals

with a high learning goal orientation pursue an adaptive response pattern in which they are

persistent and enjoying challenges (Brett & Vandewalle, 1999). Learning goal orientation

positively predicts job seeking intensity (Creed, King, Hood & McKenzie, 2009). Learning goal orientation is also positively related to openness to new experiences (VandeWalle, 1997), an internal locus of control (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996), the desire to work hard (VandeWalle, 1997), and effort (VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999). On the other hand, individuals with high levels of performance goal orientation have thoughts of escaping from the task, leading to reduced performance (Button et al., 1996; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1996). In a learning situation, such individuals demonstrate a maladaptive response pattern where there is task withdrawal, negative ability attribution, decreased task interest, anxiety, and reduced motivation to learn (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Kozlowski et al., 2001; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007).

Because it was not though to be possible that an individual may have both an entity and incremental view of intelligence, learning and performance goal orientations were initially viewed as being on bipolar ends of an underlying continuum as (Dweck, 1986, 1989). However, subsequent evidence indicates that learning and performance goal orientations are independent dimensions (Button et al., 1996). Individuals can be high or low on both dimensions (Attenweiler & Moore, 2006; Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Payne at al., 2007; Phillips & Gully, 1997). Individuals who are high on both orientations tend to be concerned about performing well relative to others, but still want to enhance their competence (VandeWalle et al., 1999).

Based on Dweck's (1986) research, Farr, Hoffman, and Ringenbach (1993) first introduced the goal orientation construct to organizational psychology when they described goal orientation as a psychological framework that influences how individuals interpret and respond to achievement situations. Since then, the significance of goal orientation has been recognized in a broad array of human resource and organizational contexts (e.g., Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2003; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Gully & Phillips, 2005; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Kozlowski et al.,

2001; Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002; Roberson & Alsua, 2002). Specifically, in a selection context, Roberson and Alsua (2002) found that preferential selection adversely affected women when performance goal orientation was situationally induced, but not when a learning goal orientation was induced. Kozlowski et al (2001) found that when steering trainees to self-regulate toward specific learning objectives, mastery goals promoted self-perceived capability to deal with task challenges. With regards to performance evaluation, Vandewalle and Cummings (1997) found that learning goal orientation and feedback seeking were positively related whereas performance goal orientation and feedback seeking were negatively related. The significance of goal orientation for organizational research is further established by meta-analytic evidence demonstrating that goal orientation predicts job performance above and beyond cognitive ability and personality (Payne et al., 2007).

Within organizational research, goal orientation has been conceptualized as an individual trait that is stable (e.g., Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Button et al., 1996), or a situational state influenced by a specific task or context (e.g., Stevens & Gist, 1997) that may be experimentally induced (e.g., Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, & Schmidt, 2000). VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) note that despite evidence for goal orientation being a trait, it can also be influenced by situational cues pertaining to effort, evaluation and standards. When the situation offers strong cues, trait goal preferences may be overcome by situational cues. Payne et al. (2007) note that goal orientation may be both a trait and a state, with trait goal orientation directly influencing state goal orientation. This perspective is supported by Porath and Bateman (2006, p. 190) who note that goal orientation may have both dispositional and situational component, thereby being "a malleable construct that individuals can use strategically to better self-regulate."

While goal orientation has been mainly investigated from the two-factor model separating goal orientation into a learning or mastery component and a performance component (Brett &

VandeWalle, 1999; Payne et al., 2007; Schell & Conte, 2008), a three factor model has been subsequently proposed where the performance component has been further partitioned into performance-approach and performance-avoid components (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 1999). Because the original definition of performance goal orientation is the desire to gain positive judgment and avoid negative evaluation of one's ability, VandeWalle (1997) argued that performance goal orientation should be further differentiated to include a performance-prove goal orientation (individual seeks to prove one's competence) and performance-avoid goal orientation (individual seeks to avoid the disproval of one's competence). Individuals with a strong performance-avoid goal orientation also focus on performance, but this focus is motivated by seeking to avoid negative outcomes (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996); it is fundamentally aversive and threat based (Elliot, 1999). Proponents of the three-factor model argue that the performance-avoid factor should be included because learning goal orientation and performance-approach orientation are both approach-related (Schell & Conte, 2008).

Empirical evidence suggests that three factor model may be the most valid (Day, Radosevich, & Chasteen, 2003). Learning goal orientation positively predicted the selection of skill improvement content goals but was unrelated to avoidance or positive comparison content goals (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). Additionally, performance-prove goal orientation was significantly related to positive comparison content goals but unrelated to developmental or avoidance content goals. Performance-prove goal orientation has also been shown to positively predict feedback-seeking, proactive behavior and sales performance (Porath & Bateman, 2006). Performance-avoid goal orientation was positively related to the adoption of avoidance content goals of not looking bad or incompetent at presentations, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation from others (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; VandeWalle, 1997). However, performance-avoid goal orientation was inversely related to optimism, the

desire to work hard, feedback-seeking, polychronicity, and sales performance (Brett &VandeWalle, 1999; Porath & Bateman, 2006; Schell & Conte, 2008). Performance-avoid goal orientation was more strongly related to an entity implicit theory of ability than was performance-approach goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997). Evidence also suggests that job seeking intensity is positively related to learning goal orientation, but is not associated with performance approach goal orientation or performance avoid goal orientation (Creed et al., 2009). Overall, such findings are in line with researchers who suggest that adopting learning and performance-prove goal orientations may lead to more optimal outcomes than adopting a performance-avoid goal orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & McGregor, 1999; Porath & Bateman, 2006).

Given the empirical evidence supporting the validity of the three-factor model, the present study examines goal orientation from a learning, performance-approach and performance-avoid perspective. In relation to taking charge, goal orientation has been found to have a direct relationship with change-oriented OCBs. Specifically, Bettencourt (2004) found that learning goal orientation positively predicted change-oriented OCB. Learning goal orientation moderated the marginally significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and change-oriented OCB such that this positive relationship was stronger at weaker levels of learning goal orientation. Goal orientation also moderated relationships between leadership and change-oriented OCB. Specifically, high levels of transformational leadership behaviors positively predicted change-oriented OCBs among employees high in performance goal orientation (Bettencourt, 2004). Conversely, contingent reward leadership negatively predicted change-oriented OCB among employees high in performance goal orientation (Bettencourt, 2004). The present research expends upon Bettencourt (2004) who examined relationships between performance and learning goal orientation and change-oriented OCB. In contrast, the influence of

performance-prove goal orientation and performance-avoid goal orientation on taking charge will be presently investigated.

*Linkage to Taking Charge*

It is hypothesized that learning goal orientation positively predicts taking charge behavior. Individuals who are high in learning goal orientation are more likely to adopt goals that require them to gain new competence (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). Taking charge requires that an individual determine that they want to promote organizational functioning, and this goal requires the individual to learn the necessary skills to achieve that goal. As argued by Bettencourt (2004), having a learning goal orientation is critical when there is an effort towards change because individuals need to suggest new ways of implementing existing procedures. Especially when task situations are novel, the implementation of new procedures will entail learning new skills and knowledge. Individuals with a strong learning goal orientation are likely to apply themselves, persist when addressing difficult situations, and seek constructive solutions to challenges (Bettencourt, 2004). Employees with a strong learning goal orientation also tend to seek out novel situations and opportunities to identify new ways of working. They are oriented toward continuous improvement, and such individuals are not overly concerned with making mistakes (Bettencourt, 2004). Learning goal orientation positively predicts employee continuous improvement efforts in how they perform job tasks (Bettencourt, 2004). At the same time, learning goal orientation promotes continuous improvement within the broader context of an individual's work environment (Bettencourt, 2004). Learning goal orientation is therefore expected to be an important predictor for taking charge behavior.

*Hypothesis 3a: Learning goal orientation is positively related to taking charge.*

Learning goal orientation is expected to positively predict interpersonal facilitation. This is in line with Chiaburu, Marinova, and Lim (2007) who demonstrated a positive relationship

between learning goal orientation and helping behavior. This study also found a positive relationship between communion striving efforts that facilitate social acceptance as a motivational basis and helping behavior. Such efforts, which include being agreeable and seeking solidarity, are essentially affiliative and promotive in nature. It is therefore expected that there be a positive relationship between learning goal orientation and interpersonal facilitation. However, given that taking charge requires an orientation towards making suggestions for new ways of working, while interpersonal facilitation focuses more on maintaining affiliations, it is expected that taking charge will have a stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation.

> *Hypothesis 3b: Learning goal orientation is positively related to interpersonal facilitation.*

> *Hypothesis 3c: Learning goal orientation has a stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation.*

Performance-approach goal orientation is expected to positively predict taking charge. Performance-approach goal orientation has been linked with several outcomes in an academic setting indicating enhanced effort, including higher levels of aspiration, absorption during task engagement, higher course grades and enhanced exam performance (Porath & Bateman, 2006). Further, individuals with a strong proving goal orientation are also likely to demonstrate proactive behaviors that indicate competence (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In particular, Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas (1998, p. 222) note that "individuals with a performance orientation want to publicly achieve greater success compared with others." Because taking charge requires individuals to extend themselves beyond what is required for in-role performance, individuals high in performance-approach goal orientation will be willing to proactively demonstrate behaviors that suggest they are more competent than others.

> *Hypothesis 3d: Performance-approach goal orientation is positively related to taking charge.*

Because performance-approach goal orientation is a demonstration of one's competence (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999), it is not expected to be related to interpersonal facilitation. A goal orientation which emphasizes outperforming others is not likely to be associated with interpersonal facilitation which is affiliative and promotive of smooth relationships. Thus no relationship is expected between performance-approach goal orientation and interpersonal facilitation.

Individuals high in performance-avoid goal orientation tend to focus passively on avoiding failure and are fearful of negative evaluation (Porath & Bateman, 2006; VandeWalle, 1997). Such individuals try to avoid seeming incompetent at presentations (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). Individuals high in performance-avoid orientation therefore deliberately avoid opportunities that may disprove their competence. In contrast, taking charge requires that individuals purposefully seek out opportunities to make constructive suggestions for organizational improvement. Given that such suggestions may not actually lead to positive outcomes, individuals high in performance-avoid goal orientation are likely to regard making suggestions for change as a potential opportunity for their competence to be disproved. Individuals high in performance-avoid goal orientation therefore avoid taking charge due to their fear of negative evaluation.

> *Hypothesis 3e: Performance-avoid goal orientation is negatively related to taking charge.*

A negative relationship between avoidance-performance goal orientation and interpersonal facilitation is expected. Chiaburu et al (2007) argue that avoidance-performance goal orientation reduces an individual's likelihood of engaging in helping behavior, as there is a concern over making mistakes and seeming incompetent while helping others. These researchers demonstrated a negative relationship between avoidance-performance goal orientation and helping behavior. In line with Chiaburu et al. (2007), a negative relationship is expected between

performance-avoidance goal performance and interpersonal facilitation. Given that taking charge

may be more strongly related to evaluations by others because it emphasizes competence in

offering suggestions for change whereas interpersonal facilitation emphasizes consideration of

co-workers, it is expected that performance-avoid goal orientation is more strongly negatively

related to taking charge than interpersonal facilitation.

> *Hypothesis 3f: Performance-avoid goal orientation is negatively related to*
> *interpersonal facilitation.*

> *Hypothesis 3g: Performance-avoid goal orientation is more strongly negatively*
> *related to taking charge than interpersonal facilitation.*

Psychological Climate: Manager Supportiveness and Innovation

*Conceptual Development*

Climate is typically defined as the shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices,

and procedures that are both formal and informal (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). It is a

multidimensional construct that refers to how organizational environments are perceived and

interpreted by employees (James & James, 1989; James, James, & Ashe, 1990). Variation in the

perceptions of organizational environments is due to individual differences across employees,

situational differences and the combined impact of the individual and the situation (Brown &

Leigh, 1996). Interpretation of environmental attributes may be along situational referents such as

safety (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Zohar, 2000), innovation (Anderson & West,

1998), and customer service (Burke, Borucki, & Hurley, 1992).

There is not a single climate per se in an organization (Hayes, Bartke, & Major, 2002) but

rather "climates for something" (Schneider, 1975). Schneider (1990) supports a facet-specific

climate approach where climate has a focus and is tied to something of interest. Climate is thus

viewed as domain specific where multiple dimensions of climate may influence outcomes in the

specific domain under consideration (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003; Hunter, Bedell, &

Mumford, 2007; Scheneider, 1990; Schneider and Reichers, 1983). The selection of specific climate dimensions as they relate to outcomes of interest is therefore justified.

It should, however, be noted that the proliferation of the number of climate dimensions has led to a reduced meaningfulness in molar climate as a construct, as well as inconsistency in the use of labels (Carr et al., 2003). Different dimensions identified by different researchers may have strong conceptual overlap. Despite conceptual overlap, similar dimensions have not been similarly associated with the same outcomes. For example, Brown and Leigh (1996) identified a recognition dimension that was highly similar to a rewards dimension identified by Pritchard and Karasick (1973). These dimensions both refer to the level of appreciation and recognition an organization affords to their employees efforts and contributions. Parker et al. (2003) argue for the use of standardized measures in the study of psychological climate to promote understanding of how contextual factors may moderate the impact of climate perceptions.

Climate can exist at multiple levels, such as the individual or psychological, group, department, division, or organizational levels (Hayes et al., 2002). James and Sells (1981, p. 275) conceptualized psychological climate as "individuals' cognitive representations of relatively proximal situational events, expressed in terms that reflect the psychological meaning of the situation to individuals." Within an organizational context, Schneider, Wheeler, and Cox (1992, p. 705) defined climate as "employees' perceptions of the events, practices, and procedures as well as their perceptions of the behaviors that are rewarded, supported and expected." When individual perceptions are similar enough to justify aggregation, higher level climates such as group and organizational climates exist. Perceptual agreement suggests "a shared assignment of psychological meaning allowing individual perceptions to be aggregated and treated as a higher-level construct" (Patterson et al., 2005, p. 380). However, when individual perceptions differ, aggregation is inappropriate, and climate exists at the level of individual perceptions. Most recent

research focuses on aggregate climate rather than on psychological climate at the individual level (e.g., Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Ehrhart, 2004; Gavin & Hofmann, 2002; Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, & Tordera, 2002; Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Hui, Chiu, Yu, Cheng, & Tse, 2007; Richardson & Vandenberg, 2005; Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcombe, 2000; Tse, Dasborough, & Ashkanasy, 2008). In line with their research, the present study investigates the role of unit-level climate as a potential moderator of the relationship between antecedents (resistance to change, proactive personality, and goal orientation) and taking charge.

As noted by Hayes et al (2002), any discussion on climate should consider differences between climate and culture. Hayes et al (2002) points out that most climate theorists have either excluded culture from their models, or have included culture as a contextual feature in examining climate. For example, Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo (1990) conceptualized organizational culture as a predictor of human resource practices, which in turn, predicted climate. On the other hand, another approach has been to argue that both culture and climate "focus on the internal social psychological environment as a holistic, collectively defined social context" (p. 627). Thus, differences in culture and climate are mainly differences in interpretation rather than substantive differences in phenomenon. A third approach has been to focus on the appropriate level of analysis at which either climate or culture is formed and how it influences behavior and outcomes (Hayes et al., 2002).

*Empirical Research*

Meta-analytic evidence found that climate perceptions have stronger positive relationships with employee work attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, and job involvement) and psychological well-being, as compared to employee motivation and performance (Parker et al., 2003). The impact of psychological climate on performance was fully mediated by employee attitudes and motivation. Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) provided empirical support that that involvement

climate fully mediated the relationship between leadership and absenteeism. Further meta-analytic evidence (Carr et al., 2003) suggested that three higher order facets of climate (affective, cognitive, and instrumental) influenced individual level outcomes of job performance, psychological well-being, and withdrawal via job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Brown and Leigh (1996) indicated that the degree to which employees regarded their organizational environment as being psychologically safe and meaningful positively predicted productivity through job involvement and effort.

Climate dimensions have also been found to moderate the relationship between perceptions of politics and commitment. Specifically, politics perceptions interacted with climate factors in predicting commitment (Kiewitz, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Castro, 2002). Perceptions of high managerial support neutralized the harmful effects of perceptions of politics in the organization. Further, perceptions of supportive management and self-expression reduced the negative impact of organizational politics on intention to leave (Kiewitz et al., 2002).

With regards to how climate perceptions affect OCB, Leung (2008) found that lower hierarchical levels of ethical climate, which denoted a weak relational contract between employee and employer, were negatively associated with OCB. Conversely, higher hierarchical levels of ethical climate, which indicated a strong relational contract positively predicted OCB. Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) demonstrated that involvement climate partially mediated the relationship between leadership and OCB.

*Supportive Management and Climate for Innovation*

The present study seeks to understand how perceptions of psychological climate may act as a boundary condition of taking charge behavior. While previous research has related perceptions of psychological climate to OCBs, research on taking charge has yet to relate psychological climate dimensions to taking charge behavior. The present study therefore extends

current research by identifying specific dimensions of psychological climate that may moderate relationships between antecedents (resistance to change, proactive personality, goal orientation) and taking charge.

Two specific types of climate are arguably related to taking charge: supportive management (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and climate for innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Supportive management refers to the degree to which management expects a high degree of rule following behavior, or permits flexibility in how tasks are accomplished (Brown & Leigh, 1996). There is high support when management is regarded as flexible and employees have a sense of control over how they accomplish their work. Supported employees feel that they can try new ways of doing things without fear of recrimination should there be failed efforts.

Evidence suggests that manager supportiveness can positively influence employee outcomes. For example, Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, and Xanthopoulou (2007) found that supervisor support buffered the negative effects of student misbehavior on teacher work engagement. Further, Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that top management openness, the degree to which top management is thought to promote suggestions and change efforts from below, positively predicted taking charge behavior. Specifically, if employees perceived that top management supported risky change-oriented activity, they would feel more confident of their efforts and be less concerned about risks (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998).

The present study expects manager supportiveness climate to play a moderating role in the relationships between proposed antecedents and taking charge. Evidence supports the moderating role of climate. Examining safety climate as a moderator, Hofmann et al. (2003) found that the presence of high-quality supervisor-employee exchange relationships promoted broadened safety citizenship role definitions when there was a positive safety climate. Employees who experienced a stronger safety climate regarded safety behaviors as part of their formal role

responsibilities. There was no such broadening of employee citizenship role definitions under weaker safety climates. Climate therefore provided a context where certain behaviors were recognized as being important (Hofmann et al., 2003). For the present study, manager supportiveness climate is a context which is likely to have a promotive effect on employees taking charge. A climate that permits flexibility in how tasks are accomplished is likely to promote any inclination towards making constructive suggestions on improving how work gets accomplished.

While manager supportiveness refers to the degree of flexibility in task accomplishment, climate for innovation is the degree to which an organization supports new ideas and change efforts (Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, & Tordera, 2002; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Scott and Bruce (1994) note that employees will be more likely to engage in individual innovation if they recognize a climate for innovation. Tordera, Gonzalez-Roma, and Peiro (2008) argue that when there is a strong climate for innovation, employees respond to demands by finding new ways of working.

Evidence also supports the moderating role of climate for innovation on employee outcomes. Specifically, Tordera et al. (2008) found that the negative relationship between leader-member exchange quality and role overload was stronger when innovation climate was high. Such evidence suggests that, akin to manager supportiveness climate, climate for innovation is the context which accentuates the extent to which employees may be more likely to engage in taking charge behavior.

*Climate as a Moderator of the Resistance to Change – Taking Charge Relationship*

With specific reference to resistance to change, Van Dam et al. (2008) found an inverse relationship between perceived development climate and resistance to change that was mediated by information, participation, and trust in management. These findings indicate that features of

the work environment serve as a context to promote change efforts. When there is a supportive climate towards flexibility in work accomplishment and reduced concern over failed efforts, individuals who tend to resist change may be more likely to make suggestions toward organizational improvement.

*Hypothesis 4a: The negative relationship between routine seeking and taking charge is weakened when supportive management climate is strong.*

*Hypothesis 4b: The negative relationship between emotional reaction and taking charge is weakened when supportive management climate is strong.*

*Hypothesis 4c: The negative relationship between cognitive rigidity and taking charge is weakened when supportive management climate is strong.*

Similarly when there is a climate that supports new ideas and change efforts, individuals who are resistant to change may be more inclined to offer suggestions on how to improve organizational functioning. When individuals perceive that work environment supports the implementation of new ideas, individuals who seek out routines may be more likely to consider how current work processes can be improved. Further, individuals who tend to feel discomfort when dealing with change may be more likely to propose changes when the work environment encourages new ideas. Finally, individuals who are disinclined to consider other ways of working may be more likely to propose constructive change for organizational effectiveness when it is clear that proposing new ways of working is encouraged.

*Hypothesis 4d: The negative relationship between routine seeking and taking charge is weakened when climate for innovation is strong.*

*Hypothesis 4e: The negative relationship between emotional reaction and taking charge is weakened when climate for innovation is strong.*

*Hypothesis 4f: The negative relationship between cognitive rigidity and taking charge is weakened when climate for innovation is strong.*

*Climate as a Moderator of the Proactive Personality – Taking Charge Relationship*

Individuals high in proactive personality should be particularly adept at identifying opportunities at work that allow them to exert their influence (Bateman & Crant, 1993). When there is high supervisory support for constructive change and flexibility in work accomplishment, individuals high in proactive personality may be likely to exert greater effort towards making suggestions for organizational improvement.

> *Hypothesis 4g: The positive relationship between proactive personality and taking charge is strengthened when supportive management climate is strong.*

Proactive personality has been found to enhance organizational innovation. Specifically, proactive personality positively predicted the use of communication briefings for the dissemination of strategic information and membership in voluntary continuous improvement groups (Parker, 1998). Thus, when the work environment is supportive of new ways of working, it is likely that individual high in proactive personality will be even more likely to take charge.

> *Hypothesis 4h: The positive relationship between proactive personality and taking charge is strengthened when climate for innovation is strong.*

*Climate as a Moderator of the Goal Orientation – Taking Charge Relationship*

Individuals who have a strong learning orientation are already inclined towards learning for its own sake and enjoy challenges (Brett & VandeWalle. 1999). Such a tendency towards learning new work approaches is likely to be enhanced when the work environment is perceived to be supportive of change initiated by employees.

> *Hypothesis 4i: The positive relationship between learning goal orientation and taking charge is strengthened when supportive management climate is strong.*

Similar to the rationale for management support, it is expected that individuals who value learning for its own sake should find that a climate receptive towards new ideas is promotive of taking charge behavior. Bettencourt (2004) notes that learning goal orientation motivates continuous improvement in both primary task activities and the broader context of one's working

environment. Thus, individuals who are high in learning goal orientation will be even more likely to take charge when the environment supports continuous improvement.

> *Hypothesis 4j: The positive relationship between learning goal orientation and taking charge is strengthened when climate for innovation is strong.*

Individuals who have a strong performance-approach orientation have a strong desire to prove their competence (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999) and are also more likely to demonstrate proactive behavior (Porath & Bateman, 2006). Therefore, it is expected that when there is a supportive management climate that encourages employee flexibility in work accomplishment, individuals who have a strong inclination towards demonstrating competence will be more likely to devise new ways of doing their work.

> *Hypothesis 4k: The positive relationship between performance-approach goal orientation and taking charge is strengthened when supportive management climate is strong.*

Similarly, when there is a climate that an environment that values new ideas and their implementation, individuals with a high performance-approach goal orientation will want to display taking charge behavior to prove their competence to others.

> *Hypothesis 4l: The positive relationship between performance-approach goal orientation and taking charge is strengthened when climate for innovation is strong.*

Individuals with a strong performance-avoid goal orientation want to avoid negative outcomes and will try not to look bad at work (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). When there is a reduced concern for recrimination over failed attempts at change in the work environment, it is possible that individuals may be less likely to worry about how their competence is perceived, and may be more inclined to engage in taking charge behavior.

> *Hypothesis 4m: The negative relationship between performance-avoid goal orientation and taking charge is weakened when supportive management climate is strong.*

Scott and Bruce (1994) note that employees who think that their organization supports new ideas and provides the necessary resources are more likely to express suggestions for change more frequently and with less concern for reprisal. Thus, individuals with a strong performance-avoid goal orientation may feel more at ease engaging in taking charge behavior when they perceive that the work environment is amenable to new ideas for improvement. In fact, not engaging in taking charge behavior when the context calls for it may be perceived as a display of lack of competence.

> *Hypothesis 4n: The negative relationship between performance-avoid goal*
> *orientation and taking charge is weakened when climate for innovation is strong.*

Manager supportiveness and climate for innovation are not expected to operate as relevant climate dimensions that affect relationships between resistance to change, proactive personality, goal orientations and interpersonal facilitation. While manager supportiveness climate emphasizes acceptability of flexibility in how an employee accomplishes their work (Brown & Leigh, 1996), climate for innovation focuses on the importance of suggestions for continuous improvement and their implementation (Scott & Bruce, 1994). These are not dimensions that conceptually relate to interpersonal facilitation, which refer to cooperative and helpful acts that facilitate co-worker performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). The present research did not surface any empirical evidence linking manager supportiveness climate and climate for innovation with interpersonal facilitation.

## Task Performance

*Conceptual Development*

Job performance is a complex, multidimensional construct (Campbell, 1999). Both task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Conway, 1996; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Task performance refers to behaviors that transform raw materials into goods and services produced by

the organization. Task performance serves and maintains the technical core through necessary service and maintenance functions, such as supply restocking, product distribution, planning, coordination, and supervision (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Whiting et al (2008) further point out that task performance is also known as in-role behavior which refers to prescribed job duties and official job descriptions (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Task performance may also include behavior that adds to customer service or goods to customers (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

*Task Performance, Taking Charge, and Perceived Taking Charge Effectiveness*

Whiting et al (2008) point out that limited research has investigated the relationship between other ERBs and performance ratings. Given that both voice and taking charge are regarded as challenging and promotive ERBs, insight on the potential relationship between taking charge and performance ratings may be drawn from research examining the link between voice and performance ratings (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Although Van Dyne and LePine (1998) found that voice behavior was generally positively related to performance appraisal ratings from supervisors, peers, and the individual, they still noted that it was "not clear whether helping or voice or some combination of the two contributed to the high supervisory ratings of employee performance" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 117).

Whiting et al (2008) provide several arguments for why ERBs of a challenging nature will lead to more positive performance appraisals. First, the fast-paced nature of current work environments makes organizational adaptation a necessity. Behaviors that challenge the status quo to promote constructive change should also facilitate organizational adaptability. Managers are more likely to view behaviors that promote constructive change as an important part of performance. Second, employees who offer constructive suggestions and ideas to their managers enhance their managerial performance, as managers tend to work through their subordinates to

get work done. These managers are more likely to engage in exchange behavior by rating these subordinates positively. Third, subordinates who make constructive suggestions to enhance organizational function are more likely to be seen as more committed than employees who do not make such suggestions. Commitment perceptions, in turn, lead to higher performance ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998). In light of such arguments, it is hypothesized that taking charge will positively predict task performance ratings provided by managers.

*Hypothesis 5a: Taking charge is positively related to rated task performance.*

It should also be noted that taking charge is distinct from perceived taking charge effectiveness as an employee's act of taking charge does not necessarily guarantee improved organizational outcomes. Perceived taking charge effectiveness is the degree to which taking charge behavior contributes to overall organizational effectiveness and goal attainment. It is expected that the degree to which an employee is viewed as enhancing organizational effectiveness will be positively related to rated task performance.

*Hypothesis 5b: Perceived taking charge effectiveness is positively related to rated task performance.*

Available evidence on the relationship between interpersonal facilitation, a type of OCB, and task performance is mixed. Certain helping behaviors may hinder performance at the unit level. Posakoff et al (1997) found that helping behavior was negatively related to work crew performance quality, while civic virtue was negatively related to the quantity of work crew performance. Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994) found that helping behavior negatively impacted unit performance. In contrast, OCB has been associated with positive performance outcomes at unit and organizational levels, (Koys, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Whiting et al., 2008). Experimental evidence supports a positive relationship between OCB and appraisal ratings, even after controlling for the impact of task performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002). Therefore, there

is a need to further examine potential moderators of that impact the relationship between OCBs and unit performance, as well as study the impact of other ERBs on performance. In line with such evidence, the present study does not posit a direct relationship between interpersonal facilitation and task performance.

<div align="center">Political Skill</div>

*Conceptual Development*

Early conceptualizations defined political skill as the ability to exercise influence through the use of persuasion, manipulation, and negotiation (Mintzberg, 1993). Subsequent theorists regarded political skill as "an interpersonal style construct that combines social perceptiveness or astuteness with the capacity to adjust one's behavior to different and changing situational demands in a manner that inspires trust, confidence, and genuineness, and effectively influences and controls the responses of others" (Ferris, Anthony, Kolodinsky, Gilmore, & Harvey, 2002, p. 111). Most recently, Ferris et al. (2005) have defined political skill as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and / or organizational objectives" (p. 127).

In an effort to refine the political skill construct, Ferris et al. (2005) further expanded the notion of political skill. Specifically, through high levels of social astuteness and keen observation of others, politically skilled individuals tend to accurately interpret social situations (Pfeffer, 1992; Snyder, 1987). They are also able to properly adapt their behavior to achieve desired responses from others through interpersonal influence (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980). Such individuals are also adept at developing strong networks as they easily develop friendships and entrench themselves in beneficial alliances (Ferris et al., 2005). In presenting themselves with authenticity and sincerity, politically skilled individuals inspire trust in others since they are not seen as being manipulative (Jones, 1990). While political skill has been viewed

as a social effectiveness construct, Ferris, Perrewe and Douglas (2002) note that political skill is different from other social skills such as social competence (Schneider, Ackerman & Kanfer, 1996) as it is targeted towards achieving success in organizations. While social skills constructs indicate social facility, only political skill specifically addresses interpersonal interactions in an organizational setting, taking into account organizational social and political realities (Ferris, Perrewe, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000). Political skill is recognized as a malleable competency with dispositional antecedents (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2003; Ferris et al., 2002).

*The Measurement of Political Skill*

The measurement of political skill has evolved alongside its conceptualization. Ferris et al. (1999) developed a six-item measure to measure the political skill construct in a concise, unidimensional manner. According to Ferris et al. (1999), the six-item measure captures the view that political skill entails the ability to interpret, influence, and control social situations in a way that is not perceived as overt or controlling. Instead, politically skilled individuals exert such influence in an implicit and unobtrusive manner. Convergent validity evidence of the six-item scale indicates that political skill had moderately positive correlations with event understanding, self-monitoring, positive affectivity, extraversion, empathy, conscientiousness, and delay of gratification (Ferris et al., 1999). In support of its discriminant validity, Ferris et al. (1999) also found political skill and general mental ability to be uncorrelated.

In further refinement of the political skill measure, Ferris et al. (2005) developed an 18-item scale to measure an expanded conceptualization of political skill. Specifically, Ferris et al. (2005) note that the conceptual contribution of the new scale includes the dimensions of networking ability and apparent sincerity, both of which were not considered in the Ferris et al. (1999) scale. Similar to the six-item scale, Ferris et al.'s (2005) 18-item scale also demonstrated

positive correlations with self-monitoring, political savvy, and emotional intelligence. The 18-item scale was negatively related to trait anxiety, and not correlated with general mental ability. Ferris et al. (2005) further demonstrated that political skill was not redundant with influence tactics, such as upward appeal and assertiveness. Liu et al. (2007) indicated that political skill was positively related to extraversion, with interpersonal influence and networking ability having the strongest relationships. Ferris et al. (2005) reported significant positive relationships between conscientiousness and social astuteness. While Ferris et al. (2005) provide empirical support that the 18-item measure may be a more effective predictor of relevant outcomes than the unidimensional scale by Ferris et al. (1999), evidence suggests that the four-factor structure of the 18-item scale (Ferris et al., 2005) may not replicate across samples (e.g., Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). In light of such evidence on the potential instability of the 18-item scale, the present study will use the six-item scale developed by Ferris et al. (1999).

*Empirical Research*

Interestingly, some evidence suggests that a moderate level of political skill may be optimal. Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, and Ferris (2004) found that a moderate level of political skill was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of job tension, while higher and lower levels of political skill were negatively related to these outcomes.

Individuals who are politically skilled may experience more positive work outcomes, compared to those less politically skilled. Higgins (2000) found that job applicant political skill impacted interviewer ratings and applicant evaluations in a favorable manner. Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, and Shaw (2007) found that politically skilled individuals who used high levels impression management tactics attained more positive supervisor ratings than those who used the tactics but were low in political skill. Interestingly, when lacking in political skill, individuals

were more likely to be viewed positively by their supervisors when they eschewed such tactics (Harris et al., 2007).

Political skill has been examined not just from the role of the subordinate but that of the leader as well. Douglas and Ammeter (2004) found that subordinate perceptions of leader political skill significantly predicted leader effectiveness after controlling for leader demographic and social skill variables. Ahearn et al. (2003) found that leader political skill positively predicted team performance, even after accounting for contextual factors.

*Political Skill and Performance*

In the present study, it is hypothesized that political skill will have a direct positive relationship with task performance. This hypothesis is based on empirical evidence that supports a positive relationship between political skill and job performance at both an individual (Ferris et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2007; Semadar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006) and unit levels (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). Specifically, Ferris et al. (2005) found that employee political skill positively predicted supervisor-rated job performance across two samples. Semadar et al. (2006) further found that political skill predicted managerial job performance more strongly than self-monitoring, leadership, self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence. Douglas and Ammeter (2004) demonstrated that specific dimensions of political skill negatively predicted unit level performance. Specifically, interpersonal influence and control were negatively associated with unit performance, suggesting that their combined use might be viewed as being manipulative. Besides task performance, political skill has also been shown to predict contextual performance. Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, and Hochwarter (2008) found that political skill more strongly predicted contextual performance than task performance.

*Hypothesis 6a: Political skill is positively related to task performance.*

*Political Skill as a Moderator.* It is also hypothesized that political skill moderates the relationship between taking charge and task performance such that the positive relationship between taking charge and task performance is strengthened when political skill is high. Political skill may have a protective effect, as it has been found to moderate the relationships between stressors and strain reactions. Perrewe et al. (2005) found that political skill attenuated the detrimental impact of role overload on psychological strain such as job tension, job dissatisfaction and overall anxiety. Similarly, Perrewe et al. (2004) found that enhanced political skill mitigated the negative impact of role conflict on anxiety and physiological strain. In a similar vein, Zellars, Perrewe, Rossi, Tepper, and Ferris (2008) found that the positive relationship between negative affectivity and physiological strain was weakened when employees were high in political skill. In terms of emotional labor, Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, and Ferris (2005) demonstrated that individuals low in political skill experienced emotional labor as a result of engaging in political behavior whereas such reactions were minimized for highly political skilled individuals. Harvey, Harris, Harris, and Wheeler (2007) found a stronger negative relationship between social stress and career satisfaction when an individual had lower levels of political skill. These findings are in line with Ferris et al (1999) who suggest that political skill provides a measure of self-confidence and personal security from being able to understand and control work events. It is likely that such resources enable highly politically skilled individuals to be less stressed at work.

Taking charge is a behavior that may not always be seen in a positive light. Because it is a challenging ERB, taking charge may potentially disrupt employee-manager relationships as the employee makes suggestions that may not be well received by management. Employees who are able to interpret and influence work events in a non-controlling manner are more likely to present change-oriented suggestions in a way that is palatable to management, thus leading to improved

performance outcomes. It is therefore hypothesized that the positive relationship between taking

charge and task performance is strengthened when political skill is high.

> Hypothesis 6b: The positive relationship between taking charge and task
> performance is strengthened when political skill is high.

*Political Skill and Perceived Taking Charge Effectiveness*

Political skill is expected to positively predict perceived taking charge effectiveness.

Because taking charge requires working through organizationally sanctioned processes to effect

positive organizational change (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), individuals who are more politically

skilled are better able to navigate these processes more effectively such that their efforts to take

charge will be more effective. In other words, politically skilled individual are better equipped to

interpret, influence, and control social situations (Ferris et al., 1999) such that their suggestions

will be more positively received by their supervisors. Individuals who are more politically

attuned are thought to have a stronger sense of personal security and self-confidence through their

understanding and control of social and organizational events (Ferris et al., 2005., Ferris et al.,

2002). Heightened security and self confidence enables individuals who are politically skilled to

not just demonstrate influence attempts, but also to execute such efforts in an effective manner

(Treadway et al., 2004).

> Hypothesis 6c: Political skill is positively related to perceived taking charge
> effectiveness.

*Political Skill as a Moderator.* Political skill is also expected to moderate the relationship

between taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness such that the positive

relationship between taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness is strengthened

when political skill is high. This hypothesis is supported by evidence indicating that the manner

with which influencing behaviors are delivered plays a key role affecting how well such influence

behaviors are received. Specifically, Treadway et al (2007) found that the ingratiation behavior of

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politically skilled subordinates was not viewed by supervisors as indicative of deliberate efforts

for personal gain. Conversely, supervisors of less politically skilled subordinates perceived

efforts to ingratiate. Thus, Treadway et al. (2007, p.853) argue that "political skill represents one

triggering mechanism that can alter the perception of ingratiation from self-interest to positive

interpersonal behavior." High levels of political skill strengthen the positive relationship between

taking charge behavior and perceived taking charge effectiveness.

> *Hypothesis 6d: The positive relationship between taking charge and perceived*
> *taking charge effectiveness is strengthened when political skill is high.*

*Organizational Context*

This study was conducted at a public agency in the East region of the United States. The

key function of this agency is to provide affordable housing for low-income city residents. The

Council of Large Public Housing Authorities (2004) notes the significant role of public housing

authorities as key contributors of community revitalization and as managers of real estate assets

vital to the supply of the nation's housing. In the early 1990s, public housing agencies faced

several difficulties, such as increasing concentrations of low income families in old

developments. There were also limited funds available for much needed capital improvements

(The Council of Large Public Housing Authorities, 2004). With the introduction of programs

such as The HOPE VI program and Section 8 Housing Choice Vouchers, improvements in public

housing have occurred (The Council of Large Public Housing Authorities, 2004). For example,

the HOPE VI program in 1992 administered a grant by the U.S. Department of Housing and

Urban Development, which led to innovations in housing design and property. The HOPE VI

program has been credited with improvements in public housing via neighborhood revitalization

programs and the use of public funds to promote private investment in revitalized households.

The Section 8 Housing choice vouchers program allows more low income residents to afford

housing in the private rental market. However, the continued development of public housing may

be impeded as threats to funding sources exist. For example, attempts have been to end the HOPE

VI program that provides seed grants to revitalize neighborhoods (Council of Large Public

Housing Authorities, 2004) when evidence supports its continuation (Popkin et al., 2004).

*Participants*

The public agency employs approximately 1,000 individuals. Out of these 1,000

individuals, about two-thirds are union members. About 300 non-union members of the

organization were the intended participants of the present study. These 300 employees worked in a variety of departments within the organization, including property management, program administration, information systems, development, design, finance, and strategic management. In total these 300 employees represent approximately 40 work units ranging in size from 2 to 18 members each. There are approximately 58 organizational work units in total out of 1,000 employees.

Out of these 300 employees, 188 employees were participants in this study (160 employees and 28 managers). While data was collected from employees in 29 units out of a possible 40 units, units comprising two or less members were collapsed with pre-existing units. This resulted in a total of 22 units. Out of these 22 units, only 11 units had a 100% response rate within the unit. Thirteen units had a response rate of at least 75%, and 19 units had at least 50% of employees completing the survey. In light of the fact that only 19 units had 50% coverage, the moderator hypotheses regarding climate could only be examined in an exploratory manner.

*Employee Sample.* Of the employees who reported their ethnic background, 58% were African American, 28% were Caucasian, 9.3% were Asian American, 3.3% were Hispanic, and 1.3% were Asian Indians. Female participants comprised 54.9% of the sample, and the average participant age was 39.8 years (range of 20 years to 80). Of those who reported employment type, all participants were full-time employees of the organization. In terms of educational level, 20.8% of participants held a masters degree, 55.2% of participants held a bachelor's degree, 9.1% of participants had an associates degree, and 14.3% obtained a high school diploma, Employees reported working an average of 43.1 hours per week. Average organizational tenure was 8.2 years. Participating employees spent an average length of 5.2 years with their respective unit, and reported an average job position tenure of 5.7 years. Differences were possible because an employee may have moved across units while still holding the same job position. For example, an

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asset manager may have moved to a different housing site or unit while still retaining the same job position.

These 160 employees represented 45 different job titles. With the exception of 37 asset managers who participated in the present study, the remaining 123 participants were employees performing centralized staff functions. Only 35.9% of employees indicated they had direct reports. Of those who reported direct reports, 6.6% of participants indicated they had 1 direct report while only 0.7% of participants indicated up to 35 direct reports. The average number of employee direct reports was 1.95.

*Manager Sample.* The manager sample demonstrated demographic similarity to the employee sample. Out of the 28 managers who participated, 42.9% were African American, 32.1% were Caucasian, 10.7% were Asian American, 7.1% were Hispanic, and 7.1% were Asian-Indians and individuals of multicultural parentage. Again, female participants comprised the majority of the sample at 53.6%, and the average participant age was 41.8 years (range of 26 to 62 years). Managers from all participating 29 units were represented, and all worked full time. In terms of educational profile, 28.6% of participants held a masters degree, 53.8% of participants held a bachelor's degree, 7.7% of participants had an associates degree, and 7.7% of participants obtained a high school diploma. The 28 managers represent 18 different job titles. Managers reported working an average of 50 hours per week. Average organizational tenure was 8.5 years. Participating employees had spent an average length of 5.4 years with their respective unit, and an average job position tenure of 2.9 years.

*Procedure*

*Employee Data Collection.* Prior to the start of the data collection process, a pilot survey was administered to two organizational employees who reviewed the employee survey for clarity

and understanding. These two employees indicated that they found all questions clearly worded and had no difficulty responding.

Subordinates were asked to self-report on questions measuring resistance to change, proactive personality, goal orientation, supportive management, climate for innovation, and demographic information. Copies of all surveys were attached to an informed consent form, together with a brief explanation of the study. Instructions on how to complete the form were also provided. A face-to-face administration of the survey for employees was conducted during a training session in October 2008 attended by about 80 participants. The administration of the survey to the remainder of the intended sample was through internal coordination with the researcher's organizational contact. A series of face-to-face survey administration meetings took place between late October 2008 and early December 2009, halting data collection until early January 2009. The employee phase of data collection was completed in February 2009 (see Table 2 for both subordinate and manager data collection schedule).

*Manager Data Collection*. Before administering the survey to managers, the survey was reviewed by one manager for clarity and understanding. This manager indicated that the survey was clearly worded and noted overlap between the present research survey and organizational appraisal evaluation form in the common focus on task performance.

At the first administration of a paper-and-pencil survey, managers were asked to rate the effectiveness of their subordinates' taking charge behavior, perceived taking charge effectiveness, task performance, and interpersonal facilitation. Managers were also asked to provide demographic information and ratings on control variables. In addition to the paper and pencil survey, managers were asked to participate in a short interview regarding their responses on taking charge and its effectiveness. The managerial interview will be further discussed under qualitative analyses. Through internal coordination with the researcher's organizational contact,

appointments were made with managers where the first survey and interview were conducted. This first round of data collection started in March 2009 and was completed in April 2009.

At the second managerial survey, managers were asked to provide the second rating of employees' task performance. The second round of data collection was conducted with participating managers in May 2009. Appointments were again made through internal coordination with the researcher's organizational contact. There was a time separation of 3 weeks between completion of the first round of manager surveys and the second round of manager surveys.

*Measures*

*Resistance to change.* Three out of four subscales of Oreg's (2003) resistance to change measure were used: routine seeking, emotional reaction to imposed change, and cognitive rigidity (see Appendix A). The short-term focus subscale was not included as the items on emotional reaction to imposed change, also an affective dimension, were more reflective of a work context. In terms of face validity, the emotional reaction to imposed change subscale was deemed more suitable for the current organizational context. For all subscales, employees rated themselves on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree").

The routine seeking subscale comprised 5 items that reflected the behavioral dimension of change resistance where individuals are inclined to incorporate routines into daily life. An example of an item is "I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones." In studies demonstrating the factor structure of the resistance to change scale, coefficient alpha for the routine seeking subscale ranged from .68 to .82 (Oreg, 2003). The emotional reaction to imposed change subscale comprises 4 items measuring the amount of stress and discomfort an individual feels when dealing with change. Coefficient alpha for this subscale ranged between .71 to .87. An example item is "If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change

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regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed." Cognitive rigidity measures the ease and regularity with which individuals change their minds and is comprised of 4 items. An example item is "Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind." Coefficient alpha for this subscale ranged between .68 to .84. The reliability for the resistance to change scale for the present study was $\alpha = 0.66$.

*Proactive personality.* Proactive personality was measured by the shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) unidimensional proactive personality scale (see Appendix B). This 10-item scale was developed by Siebert et al (1999). An example item is, "If I see something I don't like, I fix it." Employees provide ratings on a scale where "1" is "Strongly disagree" and "5" is "Strongly agree". The shortened version has a reported Cronbach's alpha of .86 (Siebert et al., 1999). Siebert et al (1999) established the validity and reliability of the 10-item version by demonstrating a .96 correlation between the shortened 10-item scale and the full-length 17-item scale. The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = 0.86$ in the current study.

*Learning goal orientation.* Learning goal orientation was measured by VandeWalle's (1997) 5-item scale (see Appendix C). An example item is "I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from." Employees will be asked to rate themselves on Learning Goal Orientation on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree"). Across two different samples, Cronbach's alpha was reported to be between .88 and .89 (VandeWalle, 1997). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = 0.82$ in the current study.

*Performance approach goal orientation.* VandeWalle's (1997) 4-item scale was used to measure this construct (see Appendix D). An example item is "I like to show that I can perform better than my coworkers." Across two different samples, Cronbach's alpha was reported to be at between .84 and .85 (VandeWalle, 1997). Employees rated themselves on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree"). The alpha value for this scale was 0.87 in the current study.

*Performance avoid goal orientation.* VandeWalle's (1997) 4-item scale was used to

measure performance avoid goal orientation (see Appendix E). An example item is "I would

avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to

others." Employees rated themselves on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly

agree"). Across two different samples, Cronbach's alpha was reported to be between .83 and .88

(VandeWalle, 1997). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = 0.83$ in the present study.

*Supportive Management.* Supportive management was measured using Brown and

Leigh's (1996) 5-item scale (see Appendix F). An example of an item is "My manager is

supportive of my ideas and ways of getting things done." Cronbach's alpha for Supportive

Management was .83 and .85 across two samples (Brown & Leigh, 1996). Employees were asked

to rate their managers on a scale where "1" is "Strongly disagree" and "5" is "Strongly agree".

The reliability for the 5-item scale in the present study was $\alpha = 0.57$ in the present study.

*Climate for innovation.* While the original scale measuring climate for innovation (Scott

& Bruce, 1994) comprised of two dimensions, support for innovation and resource supply, the

present study followed Morrison and Phelps (1999) to only use the support for innovation

dimension to assess unit-level climate for innovation (see Appendix G). The support for

innovation factor contains items reflecting support for creativity and tolerance for differences,

while the resource supply factor assesses the degree to which resources are deemed sufficient.

The use of the support for innovation dimension was appropriate as it was this dimension that

pertained more directly to support for change-oriented behavior. The present study requested

employees to rate their units on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree") using

five positively-worded items.  An example item is "This unit is open and responsive to change."

It should be noted that the original referent used by Scott and Bruce (1994) was the organization.

The present study adapted the scale to refer to the unit rather than the organization. Cronbach's

alpha for the five items was reported to be at .84 (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). For the present study, the alpha value was 0.86 in the present study.

*Political skill.* Political skill was measured using the unidimensional six-item scale developed by Ferris et al. (1999; see Appendix H). Across several samples, the six-item scale had a reported Cronbach's alpha of at least .70 (Ferris et al., 1999). A sample item is "I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me." Employees rated themselves on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree"). This is in line with previous research where self-ratings of political skill were used (e.g., Jawahar et al., 2008; Kolodinsky et al., 2004; Perrewe et al., 2004; Perrewe et al., 2005). The scale's reliability for the present study was 0.81.

*Taking charge.* Taking charge was assessed with the Taking Charge scale by Morrison and Phelps (1999) (see Appendix I). It was a measure of the degree to which employees engage in change efforts that extend beyond their formal role. The scale comprised 10 items asking participants to indicate on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree") the extent to which each statement was characteristic of an employee's behavior. An example of an item is, "This person often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization."

The taking charge scale was developed through a multistage process where a list of prototypical change-oriented employee behaviors were provided by full-time employees enrolled in a part-time MBA program. Internal consistency of the scale was .92 after one item was dropped due to low item-to-total correlation. The Taking Charge scale was found to be unidimensional. Morrison and Phelps (1999) demonstrated both construct and discriminant validity of the Taking Charge scale relative to OCB dimensions such as altruism, civic virtue, and in-role performance.

In the present study, managers were asked to provide ratings on employees they regularly supervise. Three items from the original 10-item scale were removed after feedback from the organizational contact suggested that the items would not be applicable to the public agency's operating context. These items were, "This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive," "This person often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice," and "This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures." These items were deemed inapplicable to the organizational context given the need to strictly abide by federal regulations to meet inspections standards. Failure to meet inspection standards will potentially jeopardize federal funding for agency programs. One item was also slightly reworded from "This person often tries to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency" to "This person often tries to introduce new structures or approaches to improve efficiency." Only the organization's technology department was authorized to make technological introductions, and the removal of the technological reference would broaden the applicability of the item to organizational employees. The scale demonstrated an alpha value of 0.92 in the present study.

*Perceived taking charge effectiveness.* Three items were written to measure perceived taking charge effectiveness (See Appendix J). Perceived taking charge effectiveness reflected the extent to which a manager agrees that the employee is effective in engaging in taking charge behaviors, and contributed to overall organizational effectiveness when taking charge. Managers rated perceived employee taking charge effectiveness on a scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree") using the following items: "This employee is effective in adopting improved procedures for doing his or her job," "This employee increases organizational effectiveness when bringing about improved procedures for the work unit or department," and "By making constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization, this employee

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helps the organization achieve its goals." The alpha value for this scale was 0.93 in the current study.

*Rated task performance.* Task performance refers to prescribed job duties and official job descriptions (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Managers rated employee task performance using five items (Williams & Anderson, 1991; see Appendix K), for example, "This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description." Following Morrison and Phelps (1999), only positively worded items are used. Morrison and Phelps (1999) report that Cronbach's alpha for task performance as measured by four items is .94. The alpha value for the 5-item rated task performance scale for time 1 task performance and time 2 task performance was 0.94 and 0.91 respectively in the present study.

*Interpersonal facilitation.* Cronbach's alpha for the interpersonal facilitation scale has been reported to be at .89 (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Interpersonal facilitation was measured with manager ratings of employees using a 7-item scale (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) (see Appendix L). An example item is "Help someone without being asked." The alpha value for this scale was 0.90 in the current study.

*Demographics and Control Variables.* Participants were asked to provide information on gender, age, ethnicity, educational level, job tenure, unit tenure, average number of hours worked per week and hierarchical position. Unit size information was also collected.

Information on gender was collected it has been shown to be associated with ERBs and performance ratings (Bowen, Swim, & Jacobs, 2000; Allen, 2006; Morrison, 1994). Gender bias in performance ratings has been supported by meta-analytic evidence indicating bias in favor of men when raters where all male (Bowen et al., 2000). Gender has also been shown to moderate the impact of OCBs such that the positive relationship between OCBO and promotions was significant for men but not women (Allen, 2006). Allen (2006) suggests that male OCB

performance may be better rewarded than female OCB performance because citizenship behaviors may be less expected of males and better remembered when actually performed. Age was also a potential control as Waldman and Avolio (1986) provided meta-analytic evidence suggesting that while performance increases generally occurred at higher ages, supervisory ratings tended to slightly decrease for older employees.

Given the documented impact of experience on job performance (McDaniel, Schmidt, & Hunter, 1988), average number of hours worked per week, job tenure, unit tenure, part time or full-time employment, and hierarchical position were also included as potential controls of performance ratings. Unit size was also measured as it may affect member behavior and unit processes (Chen et al., 2007; Choi, Price, & Vinokur, 2003).

Job satisfaction was included as a control variable for the relationships between antecedents of taking charge and taking charge behavior. Individuals more satisfied with the way their unit works may be less likely to want to take charge by suggesting ways of organizational improvement as they are less inclined to see a need for change (Morrison and Phelps ,1999). Gerhart (2005) further supports this perspective by suggesting that dissatisfaction is a driver of change. Specifically, Zhou and George (2001) argued that in a context where change and innovation are especially needed, those who are not satisfied with their jobs may seek to come up with new and improved methods of working. Thus, low levels of job satisfaction may lead to enhanced innovation, thereby benefitting the organization. Previous studies have also controlled for the impact of job satisfaction on task performance and ERB (e.g., Iun and Huang, 2007).

The present study focused on satisfaction with the unit, as opposed to the job, as this is the referent most likely to impact taking charge behavior. The following three items were used: "In general, I like working at my unit," "All in all, I am satisfied with my unit," and "Overall, things are going well in my unit." These items were adapted from the 3-item scale used by Zhou and

George (2001) to measure job dissatisfaction, with the replacement of a negatively worded item ("I don't like my unit") with a positively worded item ("Overall, things are going well in my unit"). Cronbach's alpha for the job dissatisfaction scale was .86 (Zhou & George, 2001). Employees rated these items on a 5-point scale where "1" is "strongly disagree" and "5" is "strongly agree." The reliability for the employee unit satisfaction scale was $\alpha = 0.78$ in the current study.

<div align="center">Results</div>

*Preliminary Analyses*

*Scale Reliabilities.* Cronbach's alpha was calculated for all scales (resistance to change and its three separate dimensions (routine seeking, emotional reaction to change, cognitive rigidity), proactive personality, learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, political skill, manager supportiveness, climate for innovation, taking charge, interpersonal facilitation, perceived taking charge effectiveness, rated Time 1 task performance and rated Time 2 task performance (see Table 3).

The reliability for the complete 13-item resistance to change scale was $\alpha = 0.66$. Because removal of 1 item ("Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it") from the routine seeking dimension resulted in an alpha value of 0.71, a 12-item overall scale was utilized. Alpha values for the final routine seeking subscale (4 items), emotional reaction to change subscale (4 items) and the cognitive rigidity (4 items) subscales were 0.64, 0.76, and 0.34 respectively. The reliability for the 5-item manager supportiveness scale in the present study was $\alpha = 0.57$. The removal of 1 item ("I'm careful in taking responsibility because my manager is often critical of new ideas") raised the alpha value to 0.85. Therefore all subsequent analyses were performed on the 4-item scale. With these item adjustments, all reliabilities were at least 0.71 with the exception of the routine seeking dimension of resistance to change ($\alpha = 0.64$) and

the cognitive rigidity dimension of resistance to change ($\alpha = 0.34$). Based on these alpha values, all the scale dimensions were collapsed and treated as one dimension (12 items) in testing Hypotheses 1c for cognitive rigidity, while the emotional reaction to change subscale was used in testing Hypothesis 1b, and the routine seeking dimension subscale was used in testing Hypothesis 1a.

*Confirmatory Factor Analyses.* Three sets of confirmatory factor analyses were run to determine the factor structure of individual level measures and unit level measures. At the individual level, a confirmatory factor analysis was run on items from resistance to change, proactive personality, learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, and political skill. Using LISREL 8.8, the confirmatory factor analyses provided support that all individual level items loaded onto their appropriate latent factor (see Table 4). To constitute good fit, CFI should be at least .95, IFI should be a minimum of .90, and RMSEA should be no more than .06 (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1999)

The a-prior six-factor model presented good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) to the data with $\chi^2 =$ 1083.5 (df = 764), IFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.95, and RMSEA = .05. At the unit level, a separate confirmatory factor analysis was run on supportive management and climate for innovation items. With the exception of the RMSEA, fit indices of the a-priori two-factor indicated good fit to the data with $\chi^2 = 98.9$ (df = 26), IFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = .14. This a-priori two-factor fit was much better than an alternative one-factor fit where both climate dimensions were treated as one factor ($\chi^2 = 294.2$ (df = 27), IFI = 0.79, CFI = 0.78, and RMSEA = .26).

Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis on the outcome variables of taking charge, interpersonal facilitation, taking charge effectiveness, rated Time 1 task performance and rated Time 2 task performance. The a-priori five-factor model demonstrated good fit to the data with $\chi^2 = 524.7$ (df = 340), IFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98, and RMSEA = 0.06). However, a four-factor model

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where taking charge and taking charge effectiveness were treated as one factor offered a comparable fit, with $\chi^2 = 592.8$ (df = 344), IFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98, and RMSEA = 0.07). Given that the four-factor model offered a comparable fit that was more parsimonious in nature, in addition to the fact that taking charge and taking charge effectiveness correlated at .83 (p<.01), taking charge and taking charge effectiveness were collapsed and treated as one variable in the regression analyses dealing with outcomes.

*Justification for Aggregation.* The degree to which various units share similar perceptions of manager supportiveness and climate for innovation needs to be ascertained before mean aggregation to the unit level (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1982, 1993). To justify data aggregation, intraclass correlations (ICCs) for manager supportiveness and climate innovation were calculated. According to James (1982), intraclass correlations (ICC) are an indicator of interrater reliability or consistency of rater responses. ICCs assess the degree to which individual responses are affected by unit membership by comparing within group variance and between group variance. ICC(1) measures the proportion of variance in ratings due to unit membership and ICC(2) measures the reliability of unit mean differences (Bliese, 2000). Specifically, within-group reliability is indexed by ICC(1), while reliable group scores are indexed by the ICC(2) (Hofmann et al., 2003). Another measure of within-group agreement is the $r_{wg}$ (Bliese, 2000; James et al., 1982, 1993). However, because $r_{wgs}$ are often inflated (Bliese, 2000), only ICCS (1) and (2) were calculated to justify aggregation.

A one-way analysis of variance on manager supportiveness and climate for innovation was run to determine whether there was significantly greater variance between groups rather than within groups. Both the manager supportiveness (p<.05) and climate for innovation scales were significant (p<.01). The ICC(1) and ICC(2) values for manager supportiveness were 0.08 and

0.61 respectively. Climate for innovation had an ICC(1) value of 0.14 and an ICC(2) value of 0.54 respectively. All ICC values are reported in Table 3.

*Potential Control Variables.* As per the documented impact of experience on job performance (McDaniel et al., 1988), employee job tenure, employee unit tenure, and employee organizational tenure were controlled for when taking charge and interpersonal facilitation were entered as dependent variables in the regression analyses. Employee age was also controlled for as it correlated at $r = -.17$ ($p<.05$) with rated time 1 task performance for this study. Waldman and Avolio (1986) provided meta-analytic evidence suggesting that while performance increases generally occurred at higher ages, supervisory ratings tended to slightly decrease for older employees.

Employee unit satisfaction correlated at $r = .23$ ($p<.01$) with taking charge, and was included as a control variable for the relationships between antecedents of taking charge and taking charge behavior. Further, given the high correlation between interpersonal facilitation and rated time 1 task performance ($r = .51$, $p<.01$) and rated time 2 task performance ($r = .22$, $p<.01$), interpersonal facilitation was entered as a control variable when either rated time 1 task performance or rated time 2 task performance was entered as a dependent variable in the regression analyses. Rated time 1 task performance was controlled for when rated time 2 task performance was entered as the dependent variable as these two variables were strongly correlated ($r = .66$, $p<.01$). Employee job tenure, employee unit tenure, and employee organizational tenure were highly correlated, with correlations ranging from .76 to .83. Given such high multicollinearity, only employee job tenure was used as a control for regressions involving individual differences. Gender and the number of direct reports as indicted by an employee were not controlled for as they did not correlate with any study variable.

*Correlation Analysis*

Correlations were examined to understand basic relationships among variables. The intercorrelations between individual difference variables were in the moderate range (.18 to .57). Notably, proactive personality correlated strongly with political skill at r = .52 (p<.01) and with learning goal orientation at r = .57 (p<.01). Performance avoid goal orientation had a strong positive correlation with resistance to change (r = .50, p<.01). As expected, the full scale of resistance to change correlated strongly with the emotional reaction dimension of resistance to change (r = .86, p<.01). The routine seeking dimension of resistance to change had a strong inverse correlation with learning goal orientation (r = -.50, p<.01).

Examining the interrelationships between outcome variables, it is noteworthy that taking charge had an extremely high correlation with taking charge effectiveness (r = .83. p<.01). Taking charge also demonstrated strong positive correlations with rated time 1 task performance 1 (r = .64, p<.01), rated time 2 task performance (r = .54, p<.01) and interpersonal facilitation (r = .44, p<.01). Not surprisingly, taking charge effectiveness also had strong positive correlations with rated time 1 task performance (r = .71, p<.01), rated time 2 task performance (r = .64, p<.01) and interpersonal facilitation (r = .51, p<.01). Rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance were positively correlated (r = .66, p<.01). In addition, interpersonal facilitation correlated positively with both rated time 1 task performance (r = .51, p<.01) and rated time 2 task performance (r = .22, p<.01). Table 5.1 lists all correlations between substantive variables. As listed in Table 5.2, at the unit level, climate for innovation had a 0.57 (p<.01) correlation with manager supportiveness.

In examining the potential control variables, it had been expected that employees who were more satisfied with their unit would be less likely to take charge, but there is a positive correlation between unit satisfaction and taking charge (r = .23, p<.01). Older employees with greater job (r = -.22, p<.01), unit (r = -.22, p<.01), and organizational tenure (r = -.22, p<.01)

were less likely to take charge (r = -.18, p<.05) and have less political skill (r = -.17, p<.05). Employees who were more satisfied with their unit (r = .21, p<.01) and had a shorter job tenure (r = -.19, p<.01) were also more likely to demonstrate interpersonal facilitation.

Rated time 1 task performance correlated positively with employee unit satisfaction (r = .18, p<.05), manager unit tenure (r = .19, p<.05), and manager organizational tenure (r = .16, p<.05). Rated time 1 task performance correlated negatively with employee age (r = -.17, p<.05) and employee organizational tenure (-.17, p<.05). Rated time 2 task performance had positive correlations only with manager weekly work hours (r = .17, p<.05) and manager job tenure (r = .16, p<.05).

Interestingly, employee gender did not significantly correlate with any variable. Manager gender correlated significantly with rated task performance 1 (r = .22, p<.05), indicating that female managers gave higher ratings than male managers. The number of direct reports as indicated by employees also did not significantly correlate with taking charge. All correlations between substantive variables and control variables for employees and managers are shown in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 respectively.

*Test of Hypotheses*

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were tested with hierarchical regression analyses. Employee unit satisfaction, employee age, and employee job tenure were entered in step one of the regression. Given that the correlation between proactive personality and learning goal orientation was .57, including both variables in the regression equation would have caused multicollinearity problems. In addition, substantive correlations were also observed between learning goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation and resistance to change subscales (Table 5.1). Therefore, one regression included resistance to change (full scale, routine seeking subscale, and emotional

reaction subscale respectively) and proactive personality and the other included the three goal orientation individual differences.

Hypothesis 1a proposed that the routine seeking dimension of resistance to change would be negatively related to taking charge. As indicated on Table 6.2, the routine seeking subscale significantly predicted taking charge in a positive direction ($\beta$ = .190, p<.05). Hypothesis 1a was therefore not supported. Hypothesis 1b proposed that the emotional reaction dimension of resistance to change was negatively related to taking charge. As indicated on Table 6.3, the emotional reaction dimension of resistance to change was not significantly related to taking charge ($\beta$ = .151, p>.05). Hypotheses 1c proposed that the third dimension of resistance to change, cognitive rigidity, would also be negatively related to taking charge. Given the low reliability of this subscale, this hypothesis was tested with the 12 item resistance to change scale. As indicated on Table 6.1 resistance to change was not significantly related to taking charge ($\beta$ = .152, p>.05). Finally, as expected, resistance to change was not significantly related to interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = .096, p>.05). In summary, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2a proposed that proactive personality would be positively related to taking charge. Results indicated in Table 6.1 show that proactive personality was predictive of taking charge ($\beta$ = .202, p<.05) when the full scale of resistance to change was entered in the regression equation. As also indicated in Table 6.2 and Table 6.3 respectively, proactive personality was also predictive of taking charge when the routine seeking subscale ($\beta$ = .225, p<.05) and the emotional reaction subscale ($\beta$ = .196, p<.05) were entered in the regression equation. Hypothesis 2a was therefore supported.

According to Hypothesis 2b, proactive personality would be positively related to interpersonal facilitation. Proactive personality was not significantly related to interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = -.017, p>.05). Hypothesis 2c proposed that proactive personality would have a

stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation. Regression analyses indicated a significant relationship between proactive personality and taking charge ($\beta$ = .202, p<.05) but a non-significant relationship between proactive personality and interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = -.017, p>.05). In a direct test of effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), there was no evidence to support that proactive personality had a stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation (t(155) = 1.84, p>.05). Overall Hypotheses 2 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that learning goal orientation would be positively related to taking charge. As indicated in Table 6.4, learning goal orientation was not significantly related to taking charge ($\beta$ = .012, p>.05). Hypothesis 3b proposed that learning goal orientation would be positively related to interpersonal facilitation. Learning goal orientation was not significantly related to interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = -.075, p>.05). Hypothesis 3c proposed that learning goal orientation would have a stronger positive relationship to taking charge than interpersonal facilitation. Regression analyses indicated that learning goal orientation was not significantly related to either taking charge ($\beta$ = .012, p>.05) or interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = -.075, p>.05). In a direct test of effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), there was no evidence to support that learning goal orientation had a stronger positive relationship with taking charge than interpersonal facilitation (t(156) = 1.38, p>.05).

Hypothesis 3d stated that performance approach goal orientation would be positively related to taking charge. Regression analyses also indicated that performance approach goal orientation ($\beta$ = .188, p<.05) predicted taking charge (Table 6.4). As expected, performance approach goal orientation was not significantly related to interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = .127, p>.05). According to Hypothesis 3e, performance avoid goal orientation would be negatively related to taking charge. This hypothesis was not supported ($\beta$ = -.060, p>.05). Hypothesis 3f

indicated that performance avoid goal orientation would be negatively related to interpersonal facilitation. Again there was no evidence to support this hypothesis ($\beta$ = .056, p>.05). Finally, according to Hypothesis 3g, performance avoid goal orientation would be more strongly negatively related to taking charge than interpersonal facilitation. Regression analyses showed that performance goal orientation was neither related to taking charge ($\beta$ = -.060, p>.05) nor interpersonal facilitation ($\beta$ = .056, p>.05). A direct test of effects provided no evidence that performance avoid goal orientation was more strongly related to taking charge than interpersonal facilitation (t(156) = 1.61, p>.05). Overall Hypothesis 3 was only partially supported with performance approach goal orientation being predictive of taking charge (($\beta$ = .188, p<.05).

In light of the positive correlation between performance approach goal orientation and taking charge ( r = .26, p<.01), it was thought that a combination of individual differences that included only performance approach goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, learning goal orientation, and resistance to change would predict taking charge. Given that proactive personality might be occupying a similar conceptual space as performance approach goal orientation since both personality traits emphasize demonstrating competence and having an impact on the environment, it was thought that the inclusion of proactive personality in the regression analyses might be redundant.

Regression analyses as indicated in Table 6.5 showed that when a combination of performance approach goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, learning goal orientation, resistance to change (full scale) was entered as step 2 of the regressions analyses with employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, employee unit tenure, and employee organizational tenure controlled for, performance approach goal orientation was predictive of taking charge ($\beta$ = .195, p<.05). Table 6.6 and Table 6.7 respectively show performance approach goal orientation was still predictive of taking charge when the routine

seeking subscale ($\beta$ = .191, p<.05) and the emotional reaction subscale ($\beta$ = .185, p<.05) were entered instead of the full resistance to change scale

Hypotheses 4a to 4n proposed that the climate dimensions of manager supportiveness and climate for innovation would be moderators for the relationships between individual differences (resistance to change, proactive personality learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation) and taking charge. These hypotheses could not be tested due to the small sample size where only 19 organizational units had at least a 50% employee response rate. Further, as listed in Table 2, ICC(2) values for both manager supportiveness (ICC(2) = 0.61) and climate for innovation (ICC(2) = 0.54) were low, indicating poor reliability of group means (Bliese, 2000).

Given the high correlation between perceived taking charge effectiveness and taking charge (r = .83, p<.01), and the more parsimonious fit offered by the four-factor CFA model, perceived taking charge effectiveness and taking charge were combined into 1 variable. Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test the impact of the combined taking charge variable (perceived taking charge effectiveness and taking charge), and political skill on both rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance. The regression analyses were first performed with rated time 1 task performance as the outcome variable. Interpersonal facilitation, and employee unit satisfaction were entered in step one of the regression. The combined variable of taking charge / effectiveness and political skill were added in step 2 of the regression equation. The interaction between the combined variable of taking charge / effectiveness and political skill was added in the final step of the equation. The interaction term variables were mean centered to enhance interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). The results are listed in Table 7.

Hypothesis 5a had proposed that taking charge would be positively related to rated task performance while Hypothesis 5b had put forth that perceived taking charge effectiveness would be positively related to task performance. Results indicated that the combined taking charge variable comprising taking charge / effectiveness was positively related to rated time 1 task performance ($\beta = .592$, $p<.001$). According to Hypothesis 6a, political skill would be positively related to task performance. No support was provided for this hypothesis ($\beta = -.005$, $p>.05$). Finally, Hypothesis 6b proposed that the positive relationship between taking charge and task performance would be strengthened when political skill was high. Using the combined variable of taking charge / effectiveness, there was no support for this hypothesis ($\beta = .060$, $p>.05$).

The same set of regression analyses with an additional control variable of rated time 1 task performance was repeated using rated time 2 task performance as the outcome variable. Similar results were obtained. The combined variable comprising taking charge / effectiveness was positively related to rated time 2 task performance ($\beta = .341$, $p<.001$). Political skill was not found to be significantly related to rated time 2 task performance ($\beta = -.038$, $p>.05$). No support was found for the moderating role of political skill on the relationship between the combined variable taking charge / effectiveness on rated time 2 task performance ($\beta = -.004$, $p>.05$).

The impact of taking charge and political skill on perceived taking charge effectiveness could not be tested because of the high correlation between taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness. Hypothesis 6c proposed that political skill would be positively related to perceived taking charge effectiveness. A regression analysis was performed with the combined taking charge / effectiveness variable as the outcome variable. Interpersonal facilitation, and employee unit satisfaction were entered in step one of the regression. Political skill was added in step 2 of the regression equation. As listed on Table 8, results indicated that political skill was not significantly related to taking charge / taking charge effectiveness ($\beta = -.038$, $p>.05$).

Hypothesis 6d put forth that the positive relationship between taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness would be strengthened when political skill was high. This hypothesis could not be tested as taking charge and perceived taking charge were combined into one variable.

*Ancillary Analyses*

As political skill had not been found to moderate the relationship between taking charge and rated task performance, ancillary analyses were conducted to investigate whether it moderated the relationship between individual difference variables and taking charge. For example, political skill might weaken a negative relationship between resistance to change as well as performance avoid goal orientation and taking charge. Conversely, political skill might strengthen a positive relationship between taking charge and the remaining individual differences (e.g., proactive personality, learning goal orientation, and performance approach goal orientation).

In this hierarchical regression analyses, employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, employee unit tenure, and employee organizational tenure were entered in step one of the regression. Resistance to change, proactive personality, learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation and political skill were added in step 2 of the regression equation. The interaction terms with each of the individual differences were added in the final step of the regression equation. The interaction terms were mean centered to improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). As indicated in Table 9.1, none of the interaction terms between political skill and the individual differences were significant.

Further ancillary analyses examined the potential moderating impact of employee job, unit, and organizational tenure on the relationship between antecedents of taking charge and taking charge. The likelihood of an employee taking charge may be affected by the length of time

in a certain position, unit, or organization. For example, a proactive employee who has been with the organization for a long time may be less likely to take charge than a similar employee who is new to the organization. Employees newer to the job, unit or organization may feel the need to prove themselves to their managers.

To test the moderating role of employee job tenure, hierarchical regression analyses were performed. Employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee unit tenure, and employee organizational tenure were controlled for. Resistance to change, proactive personality, learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation were added in step 2 of the regression equation. The interaction terms with each of the individual differences were added in the final step of the regression equation. The interaction terms were mean centered to improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). As indicated in Table 9.2, none of the interaction terms between job tenure and the individual differences were significant.

To test the moderating role of employee unit tenure, the same sequence of steps were performed except that employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, and employee organizational tenure were entered in step one of the regression. As indicated in Table 9.3, none of the interaction terms between unit tenure and the individual differences were significant. Finally, to test the moderating role of organizational tenure, the same sequence of steps were performed as before except that employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, and employee unit tenure were entered as controls. As indicated in Table 9.4, none of the interaction terms between unit tenure and the individual differences were significant.

Employees might differ in their ability to take charge effectively depending on how long they have been performing the job, or how long they have been with a particular unit or the organization. Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to determine the potential moderating role of employee job tenure on the relationship between taking charge / effectiveness

and rated task performance. In this analyses, interpersonal facilitation, and job satisfaction were entered as control variables in step 1. Taking charge / effectiveness and employee job tenure were entered in step 2. The interaction term between taking charge / effectiveness and employee job tenure were entered in step 3. The interaction terms were mean centered to improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). As indicated in Table 10.1, the interaction term between taking charge effectiveness and employee job tenure was non-significant for both rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance.

To test the moderating role of unit tenure, the same sequence of steps were performed except that employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, and employee organizational tenure were entered in step one of the regression. Results listed in Table 10.2 show that the interaction term between unit tenure and taking charge / effectiveness was non-significant. Finally, to test the moderating role of organizational tenure, the same sequence of steps was performed as before except that employee unit satisfaction, employee age, employee job tenure, and employee unit tenure were entered in step one of the regression. Table 10.3 indicates that the interaction term between taking charge / effectiveness and organizational tenure was non-significant.

Further ancillary analyses examined the potential moderating impact of taking charge and rated time 1 task performance on rated time 2 task performance. Taking charge may be perceived differently depending on whether the employee taking charge is a good performer or a poor performer. In this analyses, interpersonal facilitation, and job satisfaction were entered as control variables in step 1. Taking charge and rated time 1 task performance were entered in step 2, and the interaction term comprised of taking charge and rated time 1 task performance was entered in step 3. The interaction terms were mean centered to improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). Results indicated in Table 11.1 show that taking charge did not have a significant

moderating impact on the relationship between rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance ($\beta$ = -.045, p>.05).

Ancillary analyses were also performed to examine the relationship between interpersonal facilitation and task performance. Similar to taking charge, interpersonal facilitation may be perceived differently depending on whether employee performance is poor or superior. In this analyses, taking charge / effectiveness, and job satisfaction were entered as control variables in step 1. Interpersonal facilitation and rated time 1 task performance were entered in step 2, and the interaction term comprised of interpersonal facilitation and rated time 1 task performance was entered in step 3. The interaction terms were mean centered to improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991). As depicted in Table 11.2, interpersonal facilitation did not have a significant moderating impact on the relationship between rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance ($\beta$ = -.047, p>.05).

Results for interpersonal facilitation are mixed in its relationship to rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance. As indicated in Table 7, Table 10.1, Table 10.2, and Table 10.3, interpersonal facilitation significantly predicts rated time 2 task performance in a negative direction but is positively related to rated time 1 task performance albeit non-significantly.

Unit level correlations between taking charge, taking charge effectiveness, manager supportiveness, climate for innovation, rated time 1 task performance, and rated time 2 task performance were also examined. As listed in Table 12, unit level taking charge was positively related to unit level taking charge effectiveness (r = .86, p<.01), manager supportiveness (r = .30, p<.01), climate for innovation (r = .26, p<.01), rated time 1 task performance (r = .69, p<.01), and rated time 2 task performance (r = .56, p<.01). Both unit level manager supportiveness (r = .45, p<.01) and climate for innovation (r = .40, p<.01) were positively related to unit level rated time

1 task performance. There were no significant correlations between unit manager supportiveness

(r = .05, p>.05) and climate for innovation (r = .06, p>.05) at unit level rated time 2 task

performance.

Edmondson and McManus (2007) argue that methodological fit is a highly valued quality of good field research. Methodological fit refers to internal consistency within a research project concerning its research question, prior research, research design and theoretical contribution. Edmondson and McManus (2007) note that there are specific conditions which render a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods most helpful. In outlining the archetypes of methodological fit in field research, they point out that the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data is most beneficial when prior theory and research is at an intermediate phase. An intermediate phase of research is characterized by the attempt to propose relationships between new and existing constructs and the effort to integrate previously separate collections of work through provisional theory. As part of this effort, there may be the use of new measures. Such qualities characterize the current state of taking charge literature as well as this present research effort. While taking charge has been recognized as an extra role behavior, there has thus far been no attempt to integrate this research into a broader nomological network regarding extra role behavior. Given that the current state of research on taking charge is in its infancy, it can benefit from qualitative analyses. As there is no existing research on taking charge and potential outcomes, exploratory research is warranted. The use of qualitative data in the present study of taking charge therefore has strong methodological fit with the research question, prior research, research design and theoretical contribution.

*Interview Administration*

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 25 of the 28 manager participants. The three managers who did not participate in the interviews were too time constrained. Each of the 25 managers was in charge of different units pertaining to property management, technology development and implementation, customer relations, contracts and development,

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communications, finance, training, and recruitment. Each interview was conducted by the researcher on organizational premises, and took place immediately after each manager had completed the first round of surveys. Confidentiality was guaranteed and all managers consented to have the interview taped. Interviews tended to last between 15 to 30 minutes. Each interview was tape recorded and fully transcribed by the researcher.

*Interview Development*

The semi-structured interview comprised a series of 5 questions (see Appendix M) and began with the interviewer specifically stating the definition of taking charge. Participants were asked their views on what they thought made taking charge effective or ineffective. They were then asked if they thought that there was such a thing as too much taking charge, and if they had examples of when employees had crossed their bounds in taking charge. The interviewer then specifically stated the definition of interpersonal facilitation, and asked participants if they thought if it was possible for employees to show too much interpersonal facilitation. Participants then responded to how much taking charge affected the performance ratings they gave their subordinates at the yearly performance appraisal exercise, and if they gave credit for taking charge behavior. Managers were asked if they would view the taking charge behavior of an employee who performed badly in the same way than if they had been performing well. Before closing the interview, managers were asked if they felt that their employees had the autonomy to take charge.

The five interview questions were partly developed in response to calls for further research within the existing literature. Morrison and Phelps (1999) specifically point out that taking charge, while intended to lead to positive outcomes from the perspective of one party, may actually be viewed as having a negative outcome by another party. This is likely given the pursuit of multiple goals in organizations. Morrison and Phelps (1999) also acknowledge that there may

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be excessive amounts of taking charge which may lead to poor organizational outcomes. The qualitative component of the current study was therefore undertaken to develop a more nuanced view of taking charge.

*Transcript Analyses*

Template analysis (Crabtree & Miller, 1999; King, 1998) was used in the coding of the 25 interviews. Template analysis requires the development of a coding template that organizes themes from the interview transcriptions (King, Carroll, Newton, & Dornan, 2002). A hierarchy of codes is constructed such that the highest level codes represent the broadest themes within the text, with each lower level focusing on a more specific theme. As highlighted by King and colleagues (2002), template coding surfaces all themes that emerge from all transcripts, and not only the predominant themes in the text. King (1998, p.118) notes that template analysis occupies "a position between content analysis where codes are all predetermined…and grounded theory where there is no a priori definition of codes." Pre-existing codes may be expanded as further themes emerge from the transcripts (Crabtree & Miller, 1992; Randall, Cox, & Griffiths, 2007).

Template analysis was viewed as an appropriate method of analysis given that a limited amount of research on taking charge is available (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Extant research suggests that individual characteristics and contextual factors may be part of an a priori coding scheme to be expanded upon. Yet, there is still much to understand regarding taking charge behavior in terms of how a specific behavior intended for good can lead to dysfunctional outcomes (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). This suggests that any a priori coding scheme based on existing taking charge literature may be limited and should therefore not be a constraint.

All 25 interview texts were coded by the researcher to produce a hierarchically-ordered template with two levels of codes (see Table 13). The three first level codes (context, job

competence, individual qualities) were broad organizing themes of the second-level codes, and will be further discussed according to the order of questions presented to each participant.

*In your view, what makes taking charge effective or ineffective?*

*Contextual Features.* Climate factors were often mentioned by participants as a potent ingredient in rendering taking charge effective. Mentioned by three managers, the aspect of climate that seemed to surface most frequently was that there should be an open-mindedness and receptivity towards suggestions:

> *"What makes taking charge effective is a constructive environment where opinions and creative ideas can be openly discussed, debated, modified, and just open communication channels up and down the line to rank ideas…"*

> *"...if someone feels that any action or suggestions that they have would be listed to or followed up on."*

As an example, one of these managers explained it as follows:

> *"A good example would be…when someone below is proposing an idea, and have that idea be not looked at as criticism as someone else, but rather 'how can we do that? Who are the managers that are doing that? What else can we do' Taking it as an idea, and then running with it, without shutting it down, without looking at it as a criticism instead of an idea."*

Autonomy was also raised as an aspect of facilitating taking charge behavior. One manager indicated that it was important to allow "folks to work independently, giving them guidance and instruction, and then allowing them to go out and make decisions that will overall affect the betterment of the department." Another manager noted that it was necessary to "empower your staff to do the right thing, everyone at work is an adult so they don't need to be baby sat." As an example of taking charge behavior that was effective and which was based on employee autonomy, a manager had this example to add:

> *"So she had a suggestion, in an effort to collect rent, she thought we should switch out managers, and that, we do that, we switch managers to go to each other's sites and kind of see a new face, maybe, as opposed to staying in our department ...she suggested that we take some _____ managers who*

*have strong personalities and put them in harder to collect _____ areas…
in an effort to try to collect more. So I thought that was a pretty good idea."*

Besides autonomy, the sense that failure was acceptable was also another feature of the

organizational climate that managers thought would make taking charge effective:

> *"But then if you allow them to fail, and have room for that, and factor that into
> the equation, you get a more dedicated and participatory type of employee who
> will want to step out of the box and take on the challenge and realize that with
> new initiatives there is a likelihood that the expected outcomes may not occur, but
> you know the old saying, you try, try again till you get it right."*

As noted by another manager:

> *"So you know usually that type of dynamic [taking charge] develops in
> organizations where leadership is supportive, and also when leadership is very
> inclined to accept mistakes in response to increased creativity."*

Organizational climates characterized by creativity and recognition of such creativity was

mentioned by one manager who argued that taking charge "happens most frequently in

organizations that nurture creativity, that nurture above and beyond…call of duty type drive, and

that is rewarded not necessarily financially but culturally." He then went on to explain cultural

rewards as "peer acceptance" or being "rewarded just publicly before their peers, or by their

supervisors."

In terms of what made taking charge ineffective, managers focused on a lack of employee

autonomy and supportive leadership towards new suggestions. Specifically, "not listening

to…subordinates, not taking a little bit of their suggestion and blending it into organizational

objectives." In terms of a lack of supportive leadership, one manager noted the need to have a

leadership that is "open to challenge from below."

*Job Competence*. Job knowledge was recognized explicitly as a basic factor in taking

charge. One manager highlighted that a factor that made employee taking charge effective was

"to know the parameters of that with which you can operate. Being a federally funded program

we have federal regulations that we have to adhere to." Lack of job knowledge was a strong

impediment to effective taking charge. One manager phrased it succinctly:

> *"...if you just have staff who want to work on something and are not necessarily qualified to take on that type of responsibility, and therefore you know, it's just, almost like wasted time."*

As noted by another manager, lack of appropriate job knowledge in taking charge could

lead to much organizational chaos:

> *"...when you're doing something that is clearly against company policy, when it creates, causes havoc or is disruptive, the outcome is disruptive and it's disorganized, it's not clearly thought out...[have] people feeling alienated or have no sense of direction, you haven't solved anything, it's the same confusion."*

Besides the need to observe federal regulations, part of being competent in the job while

taking charge was being aware of organizational objectives. One manager phrased this particular

sentiment as follows:

> *"...actually being knowledgeable enough to take the appropriate and correct initiative. Something that actually matters to the organization as relevant, not taking charge of some insignificant item that may or may not have an important impact for the organization."*

Thus it was important to be strategic in employee taking charge efforts to ensure

maximum organizational benefit. This sentiment was echoed by up to 8 managers, with the

following sampling of viewpoints:

> *"...it would have to be like seeing the outcome, following through and making sure that the goals you set for yourself and department are achieved."*
>
> *"First is to look at what the goal is that we're going to take charge to be effective, so we need to look at the big picture with where we're trying to go to and how we're going to get there."*
>
> *"When someone looks at the entire picture and not just a small part of it..."*
>
> *"A good example of that is moving forward to formalize the way we put _____ together, and actually sharing how we put _____ together with everyone in the entire organization so that maybe how we do it can maybe help another unit get it done."*

There was therefore a very strong sense that taking charge behavior needed to be strategic. Employees needed to have a clear sense of organizational direction to suggest changes that were of interest and utility to the organization.

An inherent aspect of job competence in taking charge was being able to stay within the limits of one's authority.

> *"...but sometimes when they're going above and beyond what they're expected to do, they sometimes go above and beyond what they're responsibility is, and so when someone does that effectively, they do it within the definition of their work responsibility and authority, even though it may not be in their particular job description, but they don't exceed the authority that they have."*

> *"If you're acting on your own and taking initiative, that's good, but if you're doing it in a way that might require someone else's approval or prior knowledge, and if you don't get that, then that can become more of a problem."*

As an illustration, one manager provided the following example as a problem where an employee's effort to take charge adversely affected operations for up to four other units:

> *"...we have this _____ module, and within this _____ module, you know, one side thought 'oh if we make this one change, it'll make our lives so much easier.' But they didn't realize that that one change affected the reporting...it affected the _____ and how they look at things. So we had, our reporting was not correct, we had our clients coming up, our tenants 'what are you talking about, I don't understand this... the way they had one little change really threw everything off. So it you know once we got down to 'okay who made this change?' you know well when we talked to him he said 'oh you know I thought that if I just did it, it would really make everything so much better for everyone.' But that was just one person thinking that and he didn't communicate with like four different key areas involved, and so he needed to bring it up and go through and get the proper approvals. He just made that change."*

It was important to whom employees articulated their suggestions to and the manner in which they did so, thereby adhering to the chain of command:

> *"When they write an email saying 'these are some of the thoughts that I have been reviewing or some of the work that I have been doing, I've come up with these ideas, I'm just throwing it out there, could you look at it and let me know what you think.' That would be an effective way of doing it versus 'we should re-define the guidelines this way, and I'm going to go ahead and do it this way*

*because this way is better' and taking action to ensure the proper protocol. Basically like following the chain of command is the most effective way to do it, putting their suggestions for improving the procedure and organization."*

*Individual Qualities.* Managers also mentioned specific individual qualities they thought would render taking charge behavior effective. Specifically, individual initiative and motivation were noted, as were being flexible and open minded. Up to four managers noted that employee taking charge behavior was most valuable to them when "when someone who has taken charge, is executing the objective, whatever the objective is, and some one who does not need to be micro managed." Effective taking charge was when an employee demonstrated initiative in all phases of the taking charge effort. One manager specifically highlighted personal benefit in having employees engage in taking charge behavior:

> *"That's better for me, that saves me a little time. It saves us… the organization a little time in the long run because we'll have more accurate information and use it for more things."*

Finally, in order to make change-oriented suggestions, one manager noted that there had to be "willingness to be open to suggestions and to look around in the world that is going on around you, not just being in your particular industry."

To some degree, political skill was regarded as a necessary ingredient for effective taking charge. The lack of such organizational savvy would result in poor taking charge outcomes, as noted by one manager:

> *"If you're going to take charge and you get a negative response you have to understand that, alright, maybe its not the right time, it's not the right moment, maybe I approached this situation badly, maybe I do need support, now I go to my boss and say 'look this is what happened."*

Overall, climate factors such as employee autonomy, organizational receptivity towards new ideas and the mere acceptance of failure as part of the change process were mentioned as key contextual factors that would affect the effectiveness of taking charge behavior. Other factors

included employee job knowledge and knowledge of the organization's strategic goals. Being able to observe the chain of command, and staying within one's limits of authority seemed to be integral in effective taking charge behavior. In addition, individual qualities such as employee initiative, open-mindedness and political skill were mentioned as factors that would affect the perceived effectiveness of taking charge behavior.

*Do you think there is such a thing as too much taking charge behavior?*

*Contextual Features.* Only two managers were unequivocal in their view that there could never be such as thing as excessive taking charge behavior, and their reasons stemmed from an attitude of supportiveness towards their subordinates:

> *"No, you can never minimize a person's suggestion or not have the person have the freedom to make a suggestion, so there's never too much."*

> *"No, here's why: I think you should empower your employees to whatever their abilities are and if there's ever a point you think that they're taking too much charge then I think you're being insecure as a person. You know, I truly believe that. You know, as much as you hate to have turnover, you hate to hold back your employee and if you think they're stepping on your toes by taking too much charge then you have to rethink your job it's like 'well, how am I handling these people and what should I be doing?'"*

*Job Competence.* The majority of managers thought that there could indeed be excessive taking charge behavior, and that the primary indicator of too much taking charge would be when an employee's task performance fell. As noted by one manager:

> *"...depending on who's acknowledging or letting you take on those initiative that are not necessarily [what] you're expected to do, people get caught up in doing more and more and more, and other things that are more important tend to suffer."*

> *"...the flip side to that what really needs to be taken care of is suffering."*

Conditionally, a manager noted that there could not be too much taking charge as long as the employee had the requisite skills and job knowledge for continual organizational

improvement, then "there's no boundaries for company's improvement, as long we're in compliance, as long we we're not doing anything we're not supposed to do."

It was also noted that excessive taking charge was tantamount to stepping into a manager's authority, and not staying within their own employee limits of authority.

> "...your supervisor could look on you negatively 'this person doesn't have patience' [unclear] people like to, 'I'm your supervisor, don't try to step on my toes, basically let me do my job so you can do your job, don't try to do your and my job' that could be understood as too much taking charge."

This was an idea that was echoed, with one manager noting that overstepping of one's authority could backfire:

> "...but they don't know the whole underlying reasons why something is taking so long, or the necessary protocol or approval that is necessary...sometimes I've actually found someone going ahead and making a decision, and that decision actually back firing because they didn't have the proper patience for everything to be approved to move forward, so that's too much taking charge."

Excessive taking charge could be interpreted as turf protection:

> "...even though we have other meetings for him to debrief us and all that, I guess, in a way he only tells us what he thinks we should know as opposed to everything, so when other managers contact us about issues, we don't know really the whole story of what's going on..."

Low strategic awareness of organizational goals might also result in excessive taking charge, leading to poor organizational outcomes, such as developing products that were not compliant with federal regulations:

> "...sometimes you push it too hard without understanding needs of the other department or the other division...and you provide a product and service that is useless, or is not compliant, or could become a big problem in the long run..."

Interestingly, one manager spoke about the need to protect employees in their taking charge behaviors, especially when excessive:

> "At the same time, I want to make sure that they don't get themselves into trouble because what happens is they will feel out how far they can go because they really don't know, and their inexperience can be a problem for them due to their

*fearlessness if it's not managed or if they're not protected. So yeah it can be overdone."*

*Individual Qualities.* The individual quality mentioned by two managers as indicating excessive taking charge was the lack of flexibility and open-mindedness to the suggestions of others:

> *"...too much could be someone's who's opinionated, someone who thinks that their ideas are always the way things should be done, just someone who is opinionated, who may have good ideas sometimes, but other times may not, and never backs down or agrees to others…"*

Overall, only two managers indicated that there could never be excessive taking charge, and this seemed to stem from a very supportive orientation. The majority of managers regarded excessive taking charge as occurring when basic task performance slipped, when employees overstepped their authority, and when there seemed to be turf protection by their employees. Only one manager mentioned the need to protect employees who were testing the boundaries in their take charge efforts. Employees who were opinionated in expressing their ideas might seem to be excessively taking charge.

*Do you have examples of when employees overstepped their bounds?*

> *Job Competence.* There were four main themes that surfaced in the examples provided by the managers: lack of procedural compliance, disrespecting lines of communication, pushing ahead with changes without due approvals, and managing from outside. Employees overstepped their bounds in lack of procedural compliance in areas where there was no room for procedural change due to federal regulations:

> *"I think employees overstep their bounds when they do what they want to do, when they don't follow procedures…I'll ask 'at what point did you make a decision to not follow the procedures…"*

A second theme was when an employee disrespected lines of communication, and approached another manager directly with an idea for change, instead of their own manager:

> *"...especially with an organization that has a lot of hierarchy and procedures like _____ , I think when an employee goes around to someone else to see if something's done, again, I think they're not respecting the communication channel, so if that employee goes to a department with an idea, wanting to do something, it's still within the roles and responsibilities, but it's something different to go above their manager to my manager, or they'll go to another senior level manager, and the problem with that is that they may have a great idea, it's just that the communication channel is important not to hinder the person but for them to get support."*

A third theme concerned overstepping of authority in pushing ahead with changes without the necessary approvals:

> *"... we had one employee here who I had work with one of our _____ to perfect a _____ template, and they created a very good and what they considered perfect _____ template and then released to all the other _____ without proper review from leadership or making sure that other people in other departments knew that they were making this change, and it had a very profound effect outside the department because it made it seem that there was a lack of control within the department...but that's a very good example of overstepping your boundaries. Yes it was great that he or she had worked very hard to perfect the template but completely inappropriate for use within the organization without formal approvals."*

Finally, a fourth theme was managing from outside. This may be viewed as a case of overstepping one's authority, but is more applicable to managers, rather than subordinates:

> *"...it's overstepping the bound if it skips that level of management, you know, if someone above me or someone above me above me comes and directly talks to the people who works for me, I feel like that's overstepping their bounds in taking charge in a way where you know they don't come straight to me, they just go directly to the employee, and tell them what they feel is right or wrong, but then in the same time, it's not their unit. So that's why overstepping bound to me is someone managing from the outside... So they think of what's best for the unit but they don't know what the unit really does, then I think that's overstepping their bounds..."*

*Individual Qualities.* In terms of individual qualities, employees were seen as overstepping their bounds if they communicated ideas in a way that was disrespectful, suggesting a lack of political skill:

> *"We had a guy, pretty knowledgeable guy… very abrasive and he basically wound up isolating himself…the projects were not moving forward because he was creating, you know, tension."*

From the managerial viewpoint, when employees overstep their bounds in taking charge, they may not be adhering to procedural regulation that is non-negotiable; they may not be adhering to the chain of command and overstepping their authority. Other managers may be overstepping their bounds by managing from outside. Individuals with low political skill may be readily seen as overstepping their bounds.

*Do you think it is possible for an employee to show too much interpersonal facilitation?*

*Job Competence.* With the exception of three managers, the overwhelming majority of managers thought that it was indeed possible to show too much interpersonal facilitation. Excessive levels of interpersonal facilitation were costly to the organization in terms of reduced task performance. One manager summed up this perception as follows:

> *"Yes, if it's interfering with your work performance, if your interpersonal contacts and relationships are taking up too much of your time, hanging around the hallways, talking to folks when you should be focusing on the actual work…"*

Interestingly, one manager thought that excessive interpersonal facilitation could be a sign that an employee was disinterested in his own work assignments, that "maybe it happens because they weren't happy with the work they were having and they liked the other person's, whatever, but yeah that could happen." Two managers gave specific examples of what they perceived as excessive interpersonal facilitation. The first example pertained to excessive managerial interpersonal facilitation:

> *"I can remember seeing where… one of the supervisors was so involved with the staff themselves that she didn't pay a lot of attention to the quality of the work that was being produced…her case load was always behind, we spoke with her about it…her suggestions were 'maybe if we did this, maybe if we did that' but what she was not talking about was the work, she kept telling about the people's personal lives"*

The second example pertained to excessive subordinate interpersonal facilitation:

> *"Yes, I have one particular subordinate who works for me and he shows too much, to the point that he gets so engaged in trying to assist other people that he loses track of his own responsibilities…if a co-worker comes in and is having a bad day, he'll try his best to please that person, cater and even as it relates to his job…"*

Notably, one manager mentioned that interpersonal facilitation was an essential aspect of teamwork and that employees needed to be sensitive in drawing the line between being a good team player and being taken advantage of by another member of the team:

> *"Some of the potential negative outcomes is if you have your own deadlines you have to meet, and you see another colleague having problems, and you lose track of what your own obligations are assisting this colleague, oftentimes the colleague may need assistance but they start to take advantage of your kindness so while you are neglecting your own responsibilities to provide assistance when you're most of the time being used…the flip side is that you can look at it as team work, I guess you have to learn how to draw the line."*

Finally, a manager mentioned that excessive interpersonal facilitation could lead coworkers to always provide only positive feedback to another coworker, leading to a misleading picture of work performance:

> *"Yes, when people tend to believe that positive support and feedback is always the way to go and sometimes it gives others the false impression that they are doing a little bit better than they are, and a lot of times maybe it's the person who is sharing their opinion doesn't want to hurt their feeling because they like them and so on, but they're really not doing that other person any service…"*

Excessive interpersonal facilitation on the part of the manager could also be viewed as favoritism, and this was to be guarded against as such perceptions would compromise managerial effectiveness:

> *"…there gives the perception that you're showing favoritism to someone even though that may not be the case, but because of the interpersonal skills that you have with the individual with that group, they may not take you as seriously as they should, so that's an area that you always have to be mindful of, you really do."*

Interestingly, one manager specifically pointed out that excessive interpersonal facilitation might even hinder effective taking charge:

> "I don't think it hinders taking charge, I think it hinders effective taking charge. I think taking charge of an idea requires discussion and dialogue, sometimes it helps for someone to say to you 'did you think about that? That's a major issue' or someone being honest with you about potential pitfalls, somewhere down the line the pitfall will actually happen and it will come back to hurt the person…it's important to have that sounding block and to have that feedback, not to hinder the situation but to be honest about potential issues that are there, so I think, sometimes being too nice, yes."

*Individual Qualities.* A manager acknowledged the role of individual differences in determining whether or not there could be such a thing as excessive interpersonal facilitation:

> "…sometimes if an employee, maybe, a person's innermost nature also that how he is, everybody is a bit different, everybody behaves differently, it may appear to be too much interpersonal from somebody else's perspective depending on which shade of glass you are looking through, but it may not be the same if the same person genuinely has likings or feelings or shows his empathy, sympathy for others, and the way you're built, it may appear to be too much into my space from somebody's perspective, so I think it is all relative and depending on who is looking."

Overall, the most critical sign of excessive interpersonal facilitation was when task performance decreased. At the same time, the idea of compromising managerial effectiveness as a result of excessive interpersonal facilitation was also raised. One manager noted how excessive interpersonal facilitation from others might impede taking charge efforts.

*At the yearly performance appraisal, how much does taking charge affect the performance ratings that you give your subordinates? Do you give credit for taking charge behavior?*

*Contextual Features.* Time was an element mentioned by one manager in the degree to which he gave credit for taking charge behavior.

> "I don't think that you have to do that all the time, as in recognize the taking charge, I think you will over time get to know who's going to step up in front of the rest, depending on the circumstances…over time, you will know of those who

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*really stand out, and then those who are just there to do what they need to do, because they need to work.”*

*Job Competence.* Taking charge was largely recognized as a domain that managers should bear in mind. One manager indicated that he "would indicate it in the comments that the person has offered to assist with other projects, offer suggestions…" Another manager pointed out that credit for taking charge would be given if it furthered the strategic direction of the organization:

> *"It would affect the evaluation, the way the evaluation is done here in _____, I don't know if there are specific questions to that, so it's just something as a manager we have to keep in the back of our minds when we do overall evaluations in terms of departmental goals, and what their contribution has been to make sure the department as a whole has achieved what they set out to do, for that year."*

One manager recognized leadership as an integral aspect of taking charge, highlighting that "there is a category called leadership that we [they] do the evaluation on and I [he] would certainly say that plays a factor in the taking charge demonstrated." Managers also acknowledged the value of employee taking charge behavior to them personally:

> *"I would say it affects it [performance appraisal evaluation] a lot. Something that is really important to me, and we're torn in so many different directions, I don't have to time to micro manage; taking initiative, taking charge is something that I really value in an employee; so the more initiative I see an employee take, the less I have to manage them, I think, the better employee and the better contribution they make to the _____ department, and also _____"*

One manager recognized that taking charge might be an effective strategy for promotion both for himself and the employee taking charge:

> *"…because it will release me to take charge, take care of some other thing. If he [manager's supervisor] puts me in charge of _____, I have 1 or 2 employees who can do this business and also take care of everybody else, I can focus on something else, that's my prospects or my responsibilities get broader…so when I get the chance to move, and they're asking 'who's next' I can tell them 'he's next' like when there's an opening up in our department, you talk about your staff saying 'he worked for me for 6 months or 12 months, I think he's a good fit…"*

Taking charge might also be necessary for strong task performance. One manager noted that taking charge performance might be in-role behavior for employees within her department:

> "I think that my department is a department where you have to take charge, like the way my department is, [it] is not a detailed list of 'okay, these are the list of ten things that you have to do'… It changes regularly, so I think in general you need someone who is more, you think of things and you do it, and not wait for me, I can give you the bigger picture, this is the problem, and now I need you to figure out ways to fix it, not me saying 'first you have to do this, and then you have to do this…'"

However, not all managers were inclined to place such heavy emphasis on taking charge behavior in their performance appraisals:

> "It will affect it in some way, I won't say that's a major component…that's not only one component, it's not about taking charge it's also about being part of team…responsibility and accountability for action, so I wouldn't say that's a major component when it comes to the annual performance evaluation, that is something that should be considered but I wouldn't say that's the major component."

Another manager noted that he would not give credit for taking charge behavior if it did not contribute to positive outcomes, regardless of the effort that had been put in.

> "It doesn't have a direct effect because I tend to rate my performance on results, not necessarily the means. You know, taking charge is, or going above and beyond, is a means to an end, it doesn't necessarily guarantee a successful end. I can take charge all the time and continually fail, or I can always be coming up with a creative idea and it might not always be the best one. As a matter of fact you'll see that in some of the ratings here I have said 'yes this person is often striving to provide you know improvement for the department' but then if you look at the next section I have rated them very poorly in the net effect because although they're always giving recommendations, they're not good."

Taking charge efforts that did not advance the organization might not be recognized. At the same time, taking charge efforts should not just be constructive, but also practical. It was not necessarily practical to seek perfection in work processes. As noted by the same manager:

> "Sure, we have one or two persons in this department who are constantly critiquing and recommending improvements to the process or to the system, and they just move onto the next critique and process without ever doing any of the work that would be necessary to implement, so it becomes more of a constructive

*critique without effect…in order to get something higher on the priority list it is often necessary not just to identify a problem but also to provide a solution."*

Interestingly, another manager noted that taking charge efforts that did not go well might lead to costs that outweighed potential benefits in terms of performance evaluation given the additional effort required to address excessive taking charge efforts that led to poor outcomes.

> *"It affects it [performance evaluation] 25% but [if] it's too much taking charge it can grow to 50% because it starts boiling over into other areas of their performance. Like if its offering suggestions on how to improve a particular procedure or how to eliminate waste, how to improve communication, then it will be in the 25% range but if it's going above in trying to do too much in which it affects your relationship with other coworkers, your relationship with your supervisor, then that can affect evaluation to 50% because it goes over into the relationships, communicate back and forth with employees or coworker, how well they complete their tasks. One experience I've encountered is because they try to do too much, they want to do it fast, they have to go back and redo that particular task."*

From this manager's perspective, taking charge efforts would be rewarded. However, excessive taking charge that led to poor outcomes would be even more strongly penalized. A similar perspective was echoed by another manager who noted that the way in which an employee had taken charge was critical in whether the acknowledgement of such efforts was positive or negative:

> *"I would give credit if it's done properly through open communication channels, I would actually encourage it or reward it if it's been, if someone's been using the proper communication channel and trying to think, you know, use the resources and the communications of peers and myself, properly, I would like to acknowledge that, if someone takes charge without that representation I would definitely acknowledge it in a negative way."*

*Individual Qualities.* Assertiveness was most often identified as a quality associated with taking charge.

> *"I think that I like assertiveness, I like some aggressiveness, I like a person who's able to think on their feet, who's able to you know make a decision, I like that in a person I think it goes a long ways in my evaluating a person."*

> *"I give credit where credit is due. If someone is assertive and takes charge, I can respect that, that [taking charge] helps me out in the long run that I know that you're capable of doing it."*

Stewardship was also recognized as an appropriate motivation for taking charge behavior.

> *"...by stewardship I mean taking ownership, so when you say take charge, I think of someone saying 'well this project, I'm going to treat it like it's mine, I own it, I'm not going to let anything fall through the cracks', even if it's my position or I have to be on someone else, I have to make sure I take stewardship of it, so ownership, taking charge."*

Overall, most managers acknowledged that employee taking charge efforts were important to the performance evaluation ratings they gave. Taking charge that benefitted both the organization and manager were noted. Taking charge efforts were not always done well, and neither did they always lead to good outcomes. Such efforts would be acknowledged as well, albeit negatively. Notably, taking charge was closely associated with an employee being assertive.

*If an employee tended to perform badly, would you view their taking charge behavior the same way than if they had been performing well?*

*Job Competence*. Up to 16 managers were unequivocal in stating that taking charge behavior from poor performers would not be regarded in the same way than if they had been good performers. The basic issue was one of fairness:

> *"No, probably not because it would just not be fair with, when rating everybody else, I just don't see how it would be fair...it wouldn't be fair…"*

Further, one manager expressed strong discomfort with an employee who was not meeting basic performance expectations and who still wanted to engage in taking charge behavior:

> *"No, I don't trust that at all, I think, I would have a problem with that, I would pull that person in and I would probably reprimand them. A. you're out of line,*

*it's not your role, it's not your job, I don't trust your decision-making, I would probably be very blunt with that person."*

In fact, such employees were seen as potentially damaging to overall unit and organizational performance as they created more chaos with their lack of job knowledge. As noted by one manager, "if someone isn't doing their job well, and their going and beyond that, but they're sort of exponentially and negatively creating circumstances." Such employees were seen as needing more managerial attention:

> *"...you'd have to coach possibly the one who's not performing to see what's preventing them from getting where they need to be so they can ultimately get at the same level that you want them to be."*

However, as noted by two managers, even though the same taking charge behavior might be regarded differently from poor performers compared to good performers, there was still a sense that taking charge behavior would be noted, regardless of basic task performance:

> *"...someone who is not meeting the goals, I would indicate that they are not meeting the goals yet they are willing to do additional work in other areas."*

> *"Yes, if a person is proposing a lot of good ideas and going through the proper channels but their core work is not being done, I would acknowledge those taking charge [efforts] but I would also knowledge their performance is not there either."*

A manager noted that individuals who were performing less well would be less likely to take charge.

> *"...in my opinion if the job they were performing wasn't up to par, then they wouldn't have that taking charge attitude because they would be self conscious of what they're doing, and they wouldn't be trying to suggest to others how to do this or that task."*

There were four managers who indicated that they would regard an employee's taking charge behavior the same way regardless of basic task performance. One manager mentioned that they would use the opportunity to help develop the employee.

*"Yeah, the employee that was performing badly I would take that into consideration and use that as a tool into how they could improve to show that it is one of their strengths and then maybe try to carry over into what they weren't doing so well, and point out to them how they could improve."*

One manager indicated confidence that she would be able to separate taking charge behavior from basic task performance, and thus give credit for taking charge efforts.

*"I see it more as separate components. They may be bad at performing what they do but when it comes down to specifically looking at them taking charge, it doesn't necessarily relate to how they perform at their jobs because taking charge could be someone who thinks outside of the box as opposed to them being a bad performer..."*

Finally, two managers indicated that whether the taking charge behavior was viewed the same way regardless of task performance depended on the outcomes of the extra role behavior as well as how well they had taken charge:

*"Again it's the net result. You can perform very badly; if you come up with a good idea and develop it and bring it forward, it helps the department. Each activity is encapsulated within itself. You know, it may not improve your overall work, but you have helped the department...You know, building the team and improving the team can come from anywhere, it comes from the good employees, it comes from the bad employees, the resources of a team are in everyone, you can't dismiss someone on their overall performance or your personal likes or dislikes in the way that they work. You have to look at each thing."*

*"Yes, because the next time it happens it might not be the right decision, and so that person needs to understand how the process works. Also it affects me because ultimately I'm the one responsible for the decisions that are made, and so if I'm not involved in making them, it's a little bit more difficult for me to defend and understand them."*

*Individual Qualities.* Two managers who indicated that they would not consider basic task performance in evaluating taking charge behavior also mentioned that taking charge behavior was most likely accompanied by a positive attitude:

*"I would still rate it the same, yeah, because it's an attitude, to me it's an attitude towards anything. when people take charge in the workplace, they usually take charge outside of work too, it's their attitude toward things."*

Overall, the majority of managers would not view taking charge behavior in the same way when it was demonstrated by an employee who was not performing well than if they had been performing well. The main reason was out of fairness to other employees who were performing well in their basic job duties, possible  indicating a greater value placed on strong task performance than taking charge behavior.

Given that the majority of ERB research has focused on OCBs, taking charge has been neglected in the literature despite being an important ERB to investigate (Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Only a limited number of studies have examined this construct to date (Chiaburu, & Baker, 2006; Grant et al., 2009; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). A primary contribution of the present research was the development of a theoretical model of taking charge that included antecedents (resistance to change, proactive personality, learning goal orientation, performance approach goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation), consequences (perceived taking charge effectiveness and rated task performance) and moderators (manager supportiveness climate, climate for innovation, and political skill) within the same study, thereby responding to calls in the literature to develop the nomological network of taking charge. By examining the differential impact of various predictors on the newer concept of taking charge and the older concept of interpersonal facilitation, the present research contributed to ERB research by assessing the degree to which "nomological networks of various extra role behavior constructs are convergent or discriminable" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p.416). Although a low unit sample size did not allow for a full investigation in the current study, an effort was also made to contribute to the body of multilevel research in ERB by considering the potential impact of unit climate dimensions (manager supportiveness and climate for innovation) on taking charge behavior.

Regression analysis indicated that proactive personality and performance approach goal orientation positively predicted taking charge behavior. The routine seeking dimension of resistance to change was also found to positively predict taking charge behavior, when a negative relationship had been expected. The taking charge / effectiveness variable was positively related

to rated time 1 task performance and time 2 task performance. Interpersonal facilitation positively predicted performance at time 1 but was negatively related to performance at time 2.

The present study did identify interesting correlates of taking charge were found. Specifically, employees who were more satisfied with their unit were more likely to take charge. This is contrary to initial expectation that employees less satisfied with their unit would be more likely to take charge. Older employees with greater job, unit, and organizational tenure were also less likely to take charge and have less political skill. This paints an interesting picture of the employee who is potentially more likely to take charge. Specifically, employees who are newer to the organization and may feel the need to prove themselves, and who are more satisfied with their unit are more likely to take charge. Unit level taking charge was also significantly related to unit level manager supportiveness ($r = .30$, $p<.01$), and climate for innovation ($r = .26$, $p<.01$).

A limited unit sample size rendered any test of the moderating impact of manager supportiveness and climate for innovation on the relationship between antecedent variables and taking charge exploratory. Political skill was not found to have a direct relationship with rated task performance and the combined taking charge / effectiveness variable. Political skill also did not have a moderating impact on the relationship between taking charge and rated task performance.

A close examination of descriptive data and correlations suggest that measurement limitations may not have been the main reason why expected relationships were not supported. With the exception of low reliabilities of the individual subscales of routine seeking (.64) and cognitive rigidity (.34) and some range restriction for learning goal orientation (3-5 range), the data exhibited good psychometric properties.

Furthermore, the relationships among antecedent variables were in the expected directions. Specifically, as listed in Table 5.1, resistance to change was inversely related to

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proactive personality (r = -.44, p<.01) and learning goal orientation (r = -.48, p<.01). As

expected, individuals who were more resistant to change were also less likely to exert influence

on the environment and to approach work tasks as an opportunity to learn. Further, proactive

personality correlated positively with learning goal orientation (r = .57, p<.01). Individuals who

were more likely to impact the environment were also more willing to view the work as

opportunities for self-development. The pattern of correlations also suggests that respondents

properly filled in the survey and took data collection seriously. Rather than measurement

limitations, a primary explanation for the lack of expected results is the poor fit between the

research site and the taking charge construct because the organization was strongly procedurally

regulated. The nature of the context may have muted the impact of individual differences in this

organization. Specifically, the study organization offered a strong context (Mischel, 1968) that

constrained the expression of the tested taking charge antecedents. The remainder of the

discussion integrates evidence from the managerial interviews to argue that the organizational

context is a critical ingredient of taking charge, and that in this particular organization, the

particular context might not have been conducive to taking charge. Findings are discussed with a

specific focus on taking charge antecedents, taking charge outcomes, and tested moderators of

taking charge.

*Antecedents of Taking Charge*

Several of the hypothesized antecedents (resistance to change full scale, learning goal

orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation) were not found to predict taking charge

behavior. In examining the coding template across interview questions as indicated in Table 13,

the individual qualities needed for effective taking charge were much less developed as a theme

than either contextual features and job competence. Proactive personality and performance

approach goal orientation positively predicted taking charge while the routine seeking dimension of resistance to change predicted taking charge in an unexpected negative direction.

For this particular sample, what constituted effective taking charge was not so much dependent on individual qualities as it was on contextual features and job competence. Specifically, contextual features included organizational open-mindedness and receptivity toward new ideas. The extent to which the organization was willing to explore new ideas, specifically, a "constructive environment where opinions and creative ideas can be openly discussed, debated, modified, and just open communication channels up and down the line to rank ideas" was highlighted by one manager as being a critical ingredient to effective taking charge. However, as noted by another manager, employees in this organization might not "want to upset the apple cart, they just want to stay under the radar, do their job…" Further, employees were seen as overstepping their bounds if they communicated ideas in a way that was disrespectful, suggesting that there may be norms regarding taking charge. In light of this organizational context, employees may have been more concerned about meeting more immediate job demands rather than focusing on longer-term organizational change.

Informal observations during the data collection process suggested that certain units might not have perceived that the unit climate was amenable towards taking charge. For example, there was variability in how different units responded to the survey administration. While most units expressed a willingness to participate in the survey, a minority of units sought clarification on how participants for the survey had been selected as they were under the impression that only a few units were the focus of the study. These observations suggest that different units experience very different climates with regards to extra role behaviors. The results of the one-way analysis of variance on manager supportiveness and climate for innovation indicated significant variability of

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climate dimensions across units. These results support informal observations that units varied with respect to their climates.

In the managerial interview, experienced autonomy to perform one's job was also a theme that surfaced as a contextual feature in affecting taking charge effectiveness. The degree to which the organization accepted failure as a necessary process of taking charge, and the extent to which creativity was valued might also influence perceived taking charge effectiveness. These findings are in line with Morrison and Phelps (1999) who argued that an individual's taking charge behavior is influenced by the likelihood of its success and the consequences of taking charge. Specifically, taking charge is the result of a decision making process in which individuals are more likely to challenge current organizational practice when they perceive that the suggested change can and will be implemented. Employees within this organization may view contextual features as cues that help them decide if their taking charge behaviors will be more or less likely to be successful. These findings are also aligned with earlier research highlighting the importance of taking charge contextual predictors (McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

A significant emphasis within the job competence theme was the extent to which employees were able to observe the chain of command and operate under authority while taking charge. While all managers indicated that employees did have autonomy to take charge, four managers gave a qualified response. One manager noted that employees could take charge only on their location operational site while three managers highlighted that employees were in a position to provide suggestions but not make the decision to implement these suggestions without prior approval from management. At the same time, taking charge efforts should move the organization closer towards achieving its goals, and thus have strategic import. These findings regarding job competence suggest that, in this particular organization, procedural adherence was

critical towards taking charge effectiveness. There was a *right way* to take charge and a *wrong way* to take charge. Individual qualities such as having initiative, being open-minded to the suggestions and feedback of others, and political skill were emphasized much less strongly in impacting taking charge and its effectiveness.

Overall, these findings suggest that the current study was a conservative test of taking charge. Taking charge was studied in an organization that was highly regulated and procedural. Interestingly, in bureaucratic organizations, employee taking charge may be perceived as implicit criticism of the manager who is not taking a strong enough role in directing the unit towards organizational improvement. On the other hand, in organizations that value innovation and creativity, employee taking charge may be viewed as more in-role behavior that is expected and less likely to be viewed as indicative of managerial shortcoming.

*Antecedents of Interpersonal Facilitation*

None of the antecedent variables were significantly related to interpersonal facilitation. While resistance to change and performance approach goal orientation were not expected to predict interpersonal facilitation, proactive personality, learning goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation were expected to significantly relate to interpersonal facilitation.

Apart from the possibility that range restriction might have attenuated potential relationships between learning goal orientation and interpersonal facilitation, interpersonal facilitation might have been more strongly related to contextual factors and job competence rather than individual qualities for this particular organization. With its emphasis on procedural adherence, more emphasis was placed on employees completing job requirements correctly. In addition, qualitative analyses revealed that managers were concerned about excessive interpersonal facilitation. For example, one manager thought that excessive interpersonal

facilitation could be a sign that an employee was disinterested in his own work assignments, such that "maybe it happens because they weren't happy with the work they were having and they liked the other person's." An important indicator of excessive interpersonal facilitation was when employees seemed to be spending too much time accommodating the needs of their coworkers rather than addressing the demands of the job. Specifically, one manager addressed this issue in terms of resource allocation, noting that "if your interpersonal contacts and relationships are taking up too much of your time, hanging around the hallways, talking to folks when you should be focusing on the actual work" then it was excessive interpersonal facilitation. This lends credence to Bergeron (2007) who discussed the costs to OCB through a resource allocation theoretical framework, proposing that individuals who allocated more time to the performance of OCBs would have less time for task performance.

Interestingly, with specific regard to taking charge, excessive interpersonal facilitation might hinder effective taking charge, as expressed by one manager. Given the need for feedback for any taking charge effort, being too courteous or considerate might discourage coworkers from giving feedback necessary for effective taking charge ("I don't think it hinders taking charge, I think it hinders effective taking charge. I think of taking charge of an idea requires discussion and dialogue, sometimes it helps for someone to say to you 'did you think about that?'"). Overall, individual qualities were much less emphasized in their relationship to interpersonal facilitation than were job competence and contextual features.

*Taking Charge Outcomes*

Taking charge / effectiveness was significantly related to both rated time 1 task performance and rated time 2 task performance in the regression analyses. In addition, there were significant positive correlations between taking charge and rated time 1 task performance ($r = .64$, $p<.01$) and rated time 2 task performance ($r = .54$, $p<.01$). Employees who take charge more

often were given higher task performance ratings. Notably, this was a strong theme that managers mentioned during the interview. Managers noted that the more initiative an employee took, the less they needed to be managed. Managers also felt that such employee initiative freed up their own time to take care of other tasks. Further, another manager mentioned that he "would indicate it in the comments that the person has offered to assist with other projects, offer suggestions…" Another manager pointed out that credit for taking charge would be given if it furthered the strategic direction of the organization. Not surprisingly, a manager who noted that employees were able to take charge effectively had stronger promotion prospects:

> "…I have 1 or 2 employees who can do this business and also take care of everybody else, I can focus on something else, that's my prospects or my responsibilities get broader…so when I get the chance to move, and they're asking 'who's next' I can tell them 'he's next' like when there's an opening up in our department, you talk about your staff saying 'he worked for me for 6 months or 12 months, I think he's a good fit…"

Interview findings suggested that taking charge efforts that were perceived to be ineffective would be detrimental towards rated task performance in that taking charge efforts that did not go well might lead to costs that outweighed potential benefits.

> "It affects it [performance evaluation] 25% but [if] it's too much taking charge it can grow to 50% because it starts boiling over into other areas of their performance… if it's going above in trying to do too much in which it affects your relationship with other coworkers, your relationship with your supervisor, then that can affect evaluation to 50% because it goes over into the relationships, communicate back and forth with employees or coworker, how well they complete their tasks."

Excessive taking charge that led to poor outcomes would be penalized.

Overall, managers tended to agree that they would give credit for taking charge. However, certain managers noted certain qualifications for the positive acknowledgement of taking charge behavior, including the quality of taking charge outcomes and whether outcomes advanced

organizational goals. Whether an employee had properly communicated with his or her manager during the taking charge effort could also affect the credit given for taking charge.

Excessive taking charge may also be interpreted as ineffective taking charge when it has spillover effects. When it came to what was perceived as excessive taking charge, managers emphasized that a tell-tale sign was a drop in overall job competence, specifically, a drop in basic task performance. In going beyond the basic job role to make constructive efforts towards change for organizational benefit, as expressed by one manager "the flip side to that is what really needs to be taken care of is suffering." In addition, another sign of excessive taking charge was overstepping boundaries to upset the relationship that the employee had with their manager. Managers might feel that their authority had been encroached upon with adverse consequences. Specifically, a manger noted that impatience with the status quo could lead to the need for re-work, with a decision actually back firing because they "didn't have the proper patience for everything to be approved to move forward, so that's too much taking charge." Another sign of excessive taking charge was turf protection, such that a manager might receive only partial updates of an employee's taking charge efforts. As noted by one manager, "in a way he only tells us what he thinks we should know as opposed to everything, so when other managers contact us about issues, we don't know really the whole story of what's going on…" Not surprisingly, the examples that managers gave of employees overstepping their bounds tended to relate strongly to a lack of procedural compliance, not working within the chain of command and stepping outside of one's authority. Interestingly, other managers might also encroach onto their fellow managers' authority by managing from outside. In this specific case, external managers may issue directives to unit's employees without communicating to the unit's designated manager.

Overall, these findings suggest that there are boundary conditions for taking charge. Taking charge may be regarded as more effective by organizations that are less governed by

procedural regulations. While taking charge may be viewed as desirable, proactive employee behavior in organizations that encourage innovation, it may also be regarded as undesirable, counterproductive behavior when there is a high degree of organizational formalization and centralization. Taking charge may be an instance of norm violation for highly bureaucratic organizations, as it is an implicit criticism of the way things are presently done.

*The Role of Political Skill*

Political skill did not play a moderating role in the hypothesized relationships between taking charge and rated task performance. In ancillary analyses, political skill was also not found to be a moderator in the relationship between individual differences and taking charge.

Insight into the lack of relationship between political skill, perceived taking charge / effectiveness and rated task performance may be obtained from the managerial interviews. When asked what made taking charge either effective or ineffective, only one manager specifically raised the importance of political skill or organizational savvy. This manager noted that employees who were going to take charge needed to be able to evaluate why the response to their effort to take charge had not been positive, that "maybe its not the right time, it's not the right moment." At the same time, the employee should also recognize that perhaps he or she had "approached this situation badly" and that further support from their manager was needed. The fact that only one manager specifically alluded to the need for political skill in making taking charge effective or ineffective is revealing. It suggests that in this particular organization, political skill may not be a prized asset in taking charge. In comparison, contextual factors such as employee autonomy, organizational receptivity towards new ideas and the mere acceptance of failure as part of the change process were mentioned by the majority of managers as key contextual factors that would affect the effectiveness of taking charge behavior. Other factors included employee job knowledge and knowledge of the organization's strategic goals. Being

able to observe the chain of command, and staying within the limits of one's authority seemed to be integral in effective taking charge behavior. The research site for this study was a public agency that is federally regulated, and adherence to regulations in attaining strategic organizational goals was a critical factor as to whether an employee's taking charge efforts are perceived as effective or not.

*Limitations and Future Research*

Participants worked for a public agency whose mission centered on public housing. It is unclear the extent to which study findings may generalize to other industry settings. Only 19 units out of 40 units had more than 50%, of which is a lower than desired response rate for conducting unit-level analyses. Therefore, the potential moderating impact of manager supportiveness and climate for innovation on antecedents of taking charge and taking charge could only be tested in an exploratory manner. Given that unit-level taking charge was positively related to unit level manager supportiveness ($r = .30$, $p<.01$), and climate for innovation ($r = .26$, $p<.01$), future research should examine unit-level taking charge and its relationship to unit-level climates.

In addition, there was only a 3-week time separation between the administration of the first survey to managers and the second survey to managers. Future research should allow for a longer time separation between multiple survey measurements.

The manager supportiveness measure used in the present was limited to the degree of flexibility in task accomplishment (Brown & Leigh, 1996). This is a restrictive definition that fails to take into account the manager's reaction to taking charge on the part of the employee. A broader conceptualization of manager supportiveness would entail a consideration of manager receptivity to criticism of the status quo. Perhaps an alternative measure that may be considered in future taking charge research is the measurement of leader-member exchange which focuses on the quality of exchange that leaders develop and sustain with employees within their work units

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(Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High quality exchanges between leaders and subordinates are usually denoted by mutual trust and respect (Dansereau et al., 1975). Employees who enjoy a high quality exchange with their managers are more likely to be allowed more latitude in their decision making and are more likely to be consulted before a decision is undertaken (Yukl & Fu, 1999). Meta-analytic evidence suggests that LMX has a comparable effect on task performance as on OCBs (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Illies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). It would therefore be meaningful to assess the moderating impact of LMX on taking charge behavior, as individuals who enjoyed high quality relationships with their manager might be given more encouragement to voice their criticism of the status quo. Managers who have high quality relationships with their subordinates might be more receptive to employee taking charge behavior.

The present study focused on managerial perceptions of taking charge and taking charge effectiveness. However, it would also be important to consider the impact taking charge has on coworkers. Specifically, an employee who takes charge may create more work for his or her work unit if a manager decides that such taking charge efforts are too large for an individual to manage alone. Hence, it would be interesting to compare what was effective and ineffective taking charge behavior from a coworker perspective and contrast that to the managerial perspective.

The positive correlation between taking charge and employee satisfaction with their unit suggests that further research may be conducted into the motivation behind taking charge. While it was expected that less satisfied employees would want to take charge to improve the way their unit functions, the current evidence suggests that employees who are more satisfied are more likely to invest their time and energy towards improving the organization. The reasons why an employee would want to take charge or withhold their taking charge efforts should be further explored. In light of the managerial emphasis on motivational factors in taking charge as well as

the finding that duty, the other-oriented facet of conscientiousness, positively predicts taking charge (Moon et al., 2008), prosocial motivation may an appropriate antecedent of taking charge to be further investigated. Prosocial motivation is the desire to engage in efforts that benefit others (Bateson, 1987). Finally, the positive relationship between the routine seeking dimension of resistance to change and taking charge suggests that future research should delve further into understanding this counterintuitive relationship.

*Conclusion*

The present study was the first effort to simultaneously study antecedents, moderators and consequences of taking charge, an ERB that has been neglected in the literature (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Proactive personality and performance approach goal orientation positively predicted taking charge. The routine seeking dimension of resistance to change positively predicted taking charge. Political skill did not impact rated task performance or a combined variable comprising taking charge and perceived taking charge effectiveness. However, the combined taking charge / effectiveness variable was positively related to task performance. Qualitative findings suggested that contextual features and job competence were more dominant themes than individual qualities in understanding taking charge effectiveness. These findings suggest important boundary conditions for taking charge behavior.

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Please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about yourself.

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

Routine Seeking

1. I generally consider changes to be a negative thing.
2. I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.
3. I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones.
4. Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it.
5. I'd rather be bored than surprised.

Emotional Reaction to Imposed Change
6. If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed.
7. When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.
8. When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out.
9. If my boss changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work.

Cognitive Rigidity
10. I often change my mind.
11. Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.
12. I don't change my mind easily.
13. My views are very consistent over time.

Please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about yourself.

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others opposition.
7. I excel at identifying opportunities.
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

## APPENDIX C: LEARNING GOAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about yourself.

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.

## APPENDIX D: PERFORMANCE APPROACH GOAL ORIENTATION SCALE

Please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about yourself.

        1= "strongly disagree"
        2= "disagree"
        3= "neither agree or disagree"
        4= "agree"
        5= "strongly agree"

1. I like to show that I can perform better than my coworkers.
2. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
3. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.
4. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.

Please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about yourself.

        1= "strongly disagree"
        2= "disagree"
        3= "neither agree or disagree"
        4= "agree"
        5= "strongly agree"

1. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.
2. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
3. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.
4. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.

## APPENDIX F: SUPPORTIVE MANAGEMENT SCALE

Using the following 5-point scale, please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about your manager:

        1= "strongly disagree"
        2= "disagree"
        3= "neither agree or disagree"
        4= "agree"
        5= "strongly agree"

1. My manager is flexible about how I accomplish my job objectives.
2. My manager is supportive of my ideas and ways of getting things done.
3. My manager gives me the authority to do my job as I see fit.
4. I'm careful in taking responsibility because my manager is often critical of new ideas.
5. I can trust my manager to back me up on decisions I make in the field.

Using the following 5-point scale, please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about <u>your unit</u> (the individuals with whom you work on a regular basis):

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. Creativity is encouraged here.
2. Our ability to function creatively is respected by the leadership.
3. Around here, people are allowed to try to solve the same problems in different ways.
4. My work unit can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change.
5. This unit is open and responsive to change.

Using the following 5-point scale, please circle or mark your response to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement about <u>your unit</u> (the individuals with whom you work on a regular basis):

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.
2. I am good at getting others to respond positively to me.
3. I find it easy to envision myself in the position of others.
4. I understand people well.
5. I usually try to find common ground with others.
6. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.

With reference to this particular employee, please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items listed below. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, so please state your opinion as honestly as possible. Your responses and unit membership will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Only aggregate data that does not identify unit membership will be reported.

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. This person often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job.
2. This person often tries to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective.
3. This person often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.
4. This person often tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.
5. This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.*
6. This person often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.
7. This person often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice.*
8. This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.*
9. This person often tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.
10. This person often tries to introduce new structures or approaches to improve efficiency.+

** Not included in present study due to the participating organization's need to adhere to federally stipulated procedures
+ Reworded from the original item

With reference to this particular employee, please indicate your responses to each of the following items below:

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. This employee is effective in adopting improved procedures for doing his or her job.
2. This employee increases organizational effectiveness when suggesting improved procedures for the work unit or department.
3. By making constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization, this employee helps the organization achieve its goals.

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements with regard to this particular employee:

> 1= "strongly disagree"
> 2= "disagree"
> 3= "neither agree or disagree"
> 4= "agree"
> 5= "strongly agree"

1. This employee adequately completes assigned duties.
2. This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description.
3. This employee performs tasks that are expected of him / her.
4. This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job.
5. This employee engages in activities that will directly affect his / her performance evaluation.

Please indicate how likely this particular employee would be to engage in the behaviors listed here while performing his or her job:

> 1= "not at all likely"
> 2= "slightly likely"
> 3= "somewhat likely"
> 4= "very likely"
> 5= "extremely likely"

1. Praise co-workers when they are successful.
2. Support or encourage a co-worker with a personal problem.
3. Talk to others workers before taking actions that might affect them.
4. Say things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.
5. Encourage others to overcome their differences and get along.
6. Treat others fairly.
7. Help someone without being asked.

Taking charge occurs when employees go over and above what is expected of them in their job roles to offer constructive suggestions for change that benefit the organization.

1. In your view, what makes taking charge effective or ineffective?
2. Do you think there is such a thing as too much taking charge?
   a. How much is too much?
   b. Do you have examples of when employees overstepped their bounds?

Interpersonal facilitation is the cooperation and consideration that colleagues afford to one another to facilitate coworker performance.

3. Do you think it is possible for an employee to show too much interpersonal facilitation?
4. At the yearly performance appraisal exercise, how much does taking charge affect the performance ratings that you give your subordinates?
   a. Do you give credit for taking charge behavior?
5. If an employee tended to perform badly, would you view their taking charge behavior the same way than if they had been performing well?

Table 1. *Extent of Employee Response Rate*

| Minimal Extent of Coverage | Total Number of Units |
|---|---|
| 25% | 22 units |
| 50% | 19 units |
| 75% | 13 units |
| 100% | 11 units |

Table 2. *Data Collection Schedule*

| Month / Year | Oct 2008 | Nov 2008 | Dec 2008 | Jan 2009 | Feb 2009 | Mar 2009 | April 2009 | May 2009 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee | Training Day Survey Administration | Unit Appointment Survey only | Unit Appointment Survey only | Unit Appointment Survey only | Unit Appointment Survey only | | | |
| Manager | | | | | | Individual Appointment Survey and Interview | Individual Appointment Survey and Interview | Individual Appointment Survey and Interview |

Table 3. *Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and ICC values for Study Variables*

| Scale | Mean | Std. Dev. | Reliability | ICC(1) | ICC(2) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Control Variables** | | | | | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | 3.26 | 0.74 | 0.78 | | |
| Employee Age | 39.76 | 14.37 | | | |
| Employee Average Weekly Work Hours | 43.1 | | | | |
| Employee Job Tenure | 5.67 years | 6.14 years | | | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | 5.21 years | 5.85 years | | | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | 8.17 years | 8.02 years | | | |
| Employee Direct Reports | 1.95 | 4.18 | | | |
| Manager Age | 40.65 | 8.89 | | | |
| Manager Average Weekly Work Hours | 50.68 | 7.54 | | | |
| Manager Job Tenure | 2.40 years | 3.12 years | | | |
| Manager Unit Tenure | 6.07 years | 5.82 years | | | |
| Manager Organizational Tenure | 9.315 | 7.37 years | | | |

Table 3. *Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and ICC values for Study Variables Continued*

| Scale | Mean | Std. Dev. | Reliability | ICC(1) | ICC(2) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Individual Differences** | | | | | |
| Resistance to Change (RTC Full Scale) | 2.57 | 0.45 | 0.71 | | |
| RTC Emotional Reaction Subscale | 2.57 | 0.75 | 0.76 | | |
| RTC Routine Seeking Subscale | 2.10 | 0.61 | 0.64 | | |
| RTC Cognitive Rigidity Subscale | 3.04 | 0.52 | 0.34 | | |
| Proactive Personality | 3.85 | 0.51 | 0.86 | | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | 4.13 | 0.506 | 0.85 | | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | 3.37 | 0.80 | 0.87 | | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | 2.37 | 0.77 | 0.83 | | |
| Political Skill | 4.04 | 0.52 | 0.81 | | |
| **Individual Differences** | | | | | |
| Taking Charge | 3.42 | 0.79 | 0.92 | | |
| Taking Charge Effectiveness | 3.30 | 0.84 | 0.93 | | |
| Task Performance 1 | 3.82 | 0.85 | 0.94 | | |
| Task Performance 2 | 3.86 | 0.71 | 0.91 | | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | 3.44 | 0.90 | 0.90 | | |

Table 3. *Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and ICC values for Study Variables Continued*

| Scale | Mean | Std. Dev. | Reliability | ICC(1) | ICC(2) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Climate** | | | | | |
| Manager Supportiveness | 3.73 | 0.80 | 0.85 | 0.08 | 0.61 |
| Climate for Innovation | 3.42 | 0.83 | 0.86 | 0.14 | 0.54 |

Table 4. *CFA Model Fit*

| Model | Description | CFI | IFI | RMSEA | $X^2$ | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A-priori 6-factor individual differences model | Resistance to Change, Proactive Personality, Learning GO, Performance Approach GO, Performance Avoid GO, Political Skill | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.05 | 1083.5 | 764 |
| A-priori 2-factor unit level climate model | Supportive Management, Climate for Innovation | 0.94 | 0.94 | 0.14 | 98.9 | 26 |
| 1-factor unit level climate model | Supportive Management and Climate for Innovation treated as 1 factor | 0.78 | 0.79 | 0.26 | 294.2 | 27 |
| A-priori 5-factor outcome variables model | Taking Charge, Taking Charge Effectiveness, Interpersonal Facilitation, Time 1 Rated Task Performance, Time 2 Rated Task Performance | 0.98 | 0.98 | 0.06 | 524.7 | 340 |
| 4-factor outcome variables model | Taking Charge and Taking Charge Effectiveness treated as 1 factor, Interpersonal Facilitation, Time 1 Rated Task Performance, Time 2 Rated Task Performance | 0.98 | 0.98 | 0.07 | 592.83 | 344 |

Table 5.1 *Individual Level Correlation Table for Substantive Variables*

| | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. | 15. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Control Variable** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Employee Unit Satisfaction | .78 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Individual Differences** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Resistance to Change (RTC) | -.15 | .71 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. RTC_Routine Seeking Subscale | -.18* | .72** | .64 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. RTC_Emotional Reaction Subscale | -.11 | .86** | .48** | .76 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. RTC_Cognitive Rigidity Subscale | -.01 | .50** | .01 | .21** | .34 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Proactive Personality | .05 | -.44** | .47** | -.45** | .12 | .86 | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Learning GO | .14 | -.48** | -.50** | -.40** | -.02 | .57** | .85 | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Performance Approach GO | .17* | .09 | .05 | .00 | .20* | .22** | .18* | .87 | | | | | | | |
| 9. Performance Avoid GO | -.02 | .50** | .44** | .42** | .17* | -.29** | -.40** | .08 | .83 | | | | | | |
| 10. Political Skill | .18* | -.34** | -.34** | -.39** | .09 | .52** | .38** | .10 | -.21** | .81 | | | | | |
| **Outcome Variables** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Taking Charge | .23** | .05 | .01 | .06 | -.02 | .15 | .07 | .26** | -.02 | -.02 | .92 | | | | |
| 12. Perceived TC Effectiveness | .30** | .03 | -.04 | .09 | -.02 | .09 | .12 | .22** | -.03 | -.04 | .83** | .93 | | | |
| 13. Time 1 Task Performance | .18* | -.00 | .02 | .07 | -.14 | -.02 | -.02 | .19* | .01 | -.03 | .64** | .71** | .94 | | |
| 14. Time 2 Task Performance | .11 | .05 | .07 | .08 | -.08 | -.01 | .06 | .15 | -.02 | -.05 | .54** | .64** | .66** | .91 | |
| 15. Interpersonal Facilitation | .21** | .05 | .01 | .12 | -.04 | -.01 | -.04 | .14 | .12 | -.04 | .44** | .51** | .51** | .22** | .90 |

Note: $*p<.05$, $**p<.01$, $***p<.001$ RTC = Resistance to Change GO = Goal Orientation TC = Taking Charge

Table 5.2 *Unit Level Correlation Table for Manager Supportiveness and Climate for Innovation*

|  | Manager Supportiveness | Climate for Innovation |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Manager Supportiveness | *.85* | |
| 2. Climate for Innovation | .57** | *.86* |

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 5.3 *List of Correlations Between Substantive Variables and Control Variables for Employees*

| | Employee Unit Satisfaction | Employee Age | Employee Gender | Employee Hours | Employee Job Tenure | Employee Unit Tenure | Employee Organizational Tenure | Number of Employee Direct Reports |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Resistance to Change (RTC) | -.15 | -.02 | -.09 | -.03 | .17* | .09 | .07 | -.04 |
| 2. RTC_Routine Seeking Subscale | -.18* | -.01 | -.10 | .02 | .22** | .19* | .12 | .03 |
| 3. RTC_Emotional Reaction Subscale | -.11 | .01 | -.06 | -.13 | .09 | .05 | -.00 | -.12 |
| 4. RTC_Cognitive Rigidity Subscale | -.01 | -.07 | -.02 | -.04 | .01 | -.05 | .01 | .05 |
| 5. Proactive Personality | .05 | -.18* | -.00 | .03 | -.24** | -.19* | -.14 | .05 |
| 6. Learning GO | .14 | -.14 | .02 | -.12 | -.14 | -.14 | -.20* | -.09 |
| 7. Performance Approach GO | .17* | -.33* | -.15 | -.05 | -.25** | -.31* | -.30** | -.-6 |
| 8. Performance Avoid GO | -.02 | .01 | -.10 | -.12 | .05 | .06 | .06 | -.13 |
| 9. Political Skill | .18* | -.17* | -.01 | .00 | -.17* | -.16* | -.04 | -.08 |
| 10. TC and TC Effectiveness Combined | .27** | -.16* | -.09 | .06 | -.21** | -.20* | -.22** | .11 |
| 11. Time 1 Task Performance | .18* | -.17* | -.02 | .07 | -.16 | -.09 | -.17* | .13 |
| 12. Time 2 Task Performance | .11 | -.11 | .06 | .00 | -.04 | -.02 | -.12 | .08 |
| 13. Interpersonal Facilitation | .21** | -.02 | -.14 | -.07 | -.19* | -.11 | -.10 | -.04 |

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 RTC = Resistance to Change GO = Goal Orientation TC = Taking Charge

Table 5.4 *List of Correlations Between Substantive Variables and Control Variables for Managers*

| | Manager Age | Manager Gender | Manager Hours | Manager Job Tenure | Manager Unit Tenure | Manager Organizational Tenure |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Resistance to Change (RTC) | .13 | -.19 | -.02 | .10 | -.-6 | -.02 |
| 2. RTC_Routine Seeking Subscale | .11 | -.10 | -.03 | .08 | -.07 | .00 |
| 3. RTC_Emotional Reaction Subscale | .04 | -.15 | -.06 | .10 | -.09 | -.08 |
| 4. RTC_Cognitive Rigidity Subscale | .11 | -.01 | .07 | .12 | .09 | .07 |
| 5. Proactive Personality | -.11 | .15 | .11 | -.07 | .14 | .14 |
| 6. Learning GO | -.13 | .01 | .18* | -.14 | .02 | -.03 |
| 7. Performance Approach GO | -.18* | .13 | .04 | -.05 | .08 | .07 |
| 8. Performance Avoid GO | .01 | -.18* | -.03 | .02 | -.08 | .00 |
| 9. Political Skill | -.20* | .00 | -.04 | -.19* | -.04 | -.05 |
| 10. TC and TC Effectiveness Combined | -.15 | .13 | -.02 | .08 | .12 | .06 |
| 11. Time 1 Task Performance | -.18 | .22* | -.14 | .12 | .19* | .16* |
| 12. Time 2 Task Performance | -.10 | .15 | .17* | .16* | .05 | .09 |
| 13. Interpersonal Facilitation | -.14 | .03 | .05 | .03 | .14 | .06 |

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 RTC = Resistance to Change GO = Goal Orientation TC = Taking Charge

Table 6.1. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between Proactive Personality, Resistance to Change (Full Scale) and Taking Charge*

|  | Taking Charge | | Interpersonal Facilitation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .249** | | .199* | |
| Employee Age | -.114 | | .085 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.135 | | -.220* | |
| Model $R^2$ | .116 | 5.983** | .087 | 4.341** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Full Scale_Resistance to Change | .152 | | .096 | |
| Proactive Personality | .202* | | -.017 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .150 | 4.774*** | .097 | 2.901* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .034 | | .010 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.2. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between Proactive Personality, Resistance to Change (Routine Seeking Subscale) and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | | Interpersonal Facilitation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .246** | | .196* | |
| Employee Age | -.111 | | .089 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.135 | | -.209* | |
| Model $R^2$ | .112 | 5.864** | .080 | 4.054** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Routine Seeking Subscale_Resistance to Change | .190* | | .055 | |
| Proactive Personality | .225* | | -.036 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .154 | 4.999*** | .086 | 2.580* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .042 | | .006 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.3. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between Proactive Personality, Resistance to Change (Emotional Reaction Subscale) and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | | Interpersonal Facilitation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .246** | | .195* | |
| Employee Age | -.114 | | .088 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.129 | | -.224* | |
| Model $R^2$ | .112 | 5.829** | .086 | 4.369** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Emotional Reaction_Resistance to Change | .151 | | .125 | |
| Proactive Personality | .196* | | .004 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .144 | 4.618** | .101 | 3.078* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .032 | | .015 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.4. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between 3 Goal Orientation Dimensions and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | | Interpersonal Facilitation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .232** | | .192* | |
| Employee Age | -.103 | | .093 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.145 | | -.214* | |
| Model $R^2$ | .108 | 5.649** | .081 | 4.099** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | .012 | | -.075 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .188* | | .127 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.044 | | .056 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .139 | 3.695** | .106 | 2.707* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .031 | | .031 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.5. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between 4 Individual Difference Variables and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .235** | |
| Employee Age | -.101 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.158 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .116 | 5.930** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Full Scale_Resistance to Change | .129 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | .089 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .195* | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.053 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .166 | 3.767** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .050 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.6. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between 4 Individual Difference Variables (Routine Seeking Subscale of Resistance to Change) and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .233** | |
| Employee Age | -.097 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.156 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .112 | 5.800** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Routine Seeking Subscale_Resistance to Change | .154 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | .107 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .191* | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.053 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .165 | 3.782** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .053 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.7. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Relationship between 4 Individual Difference Variables (Emotional Reaction Subscale of Resistance to Change) and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .233** | |
| Employee Age | -.101 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.152 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .111 | 5.765** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Emotional Reaction Subscale_Resistance to Change | .116 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | .044 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .185* | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.076 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .153 | 3.452** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .042 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 7. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The effect of Taking Charge, Taking Charge Effectiveness and Political Skill on Rated Time 1 Task Performance and Rated Time 2 Task Performance*

| | Rated Task Performance 1 | | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Rated Time1 Task Performance | | | .728*** | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .492*** | | -.125 | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | .077 | | -.066 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .265 | 27.356*** | .454 | 41.658*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness | .592*** | | .341*** | |
| Political Skill | -.003 | | -.038 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .528 | 41.939*** | .513 | 31.207*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .263*** | | .059*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness * Political Skill | .060 | | -.044 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .532 | 33.814*** | .515 | 26.032*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .004 | | .002 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 8. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The effect of Political Skill on Combined Taking Charge (Taking Charge and Perceived Taking Charge Effectiveness)

| | Combined Taking Charge (Taking Charge and Perceived Taking Charge Effectiveness) | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .432*** | |
| Job Satisfaction | .173* | |
| Model $R^2$ | .249 | 25.135*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Political Skill | -.038 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .250 | 16.772*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .001 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9.1. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Political Skill on the relationship between 5 Individual Difference Variables and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .235** | |
| Employee Age | -.101 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.158 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .112 | 5.800** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Resistance to Change | .154 | |
| Proactive Personality | .223 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | .028 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .176 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.056 | |
| Political Skill | -.166 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .199 | 3.653*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .087 | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Resistance to change*Political Skill | -.089 | |
| Proactive Personality*Political Skill | -.016 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation*Political Skill | -.053 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation*Political Skill | -.040 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation*Political Skill | -.049 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .206 | 2.359** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .007 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9.2. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Employee Job Tenure on the relationship between 5 Individual Difference Variables and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .230** | |
| Employee Age | -.047 | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | -.050 | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.192 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .130 | 4.979** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Resistance to Change | .157 | |
| Proactive Personality | .171 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | -.009 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .162 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.053 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.062 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .188 | 2.949** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .058 | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Resistance to change*Employee Job Tenure | -.030 | |
| Proactive Personality*Employee Job Tenure | .008 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation*Employee Job Tenure | .034 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation*Employee Job Tenure | -.035 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation*Employee Job Tenure | -.036 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .197 | 1.995* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .009 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9.3. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Employee Unit Tenure on the relationship between 5 Individual Difference Variables and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .231** | |
| Employee Age | -.048 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.036 | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.200 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .130 | 4.952** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Resistance to Change | .157 | |
| Proactive Personality | .171 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | -.009 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .162 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.053 | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | .012 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .188 | 2.949** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .058 | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Resistance to change*Employee Unit Tenure | -.079 | |
| Proactive Personality*Employee Unit Tenure | .057 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation*Employee Unit Tenure | -.098 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation*Employee Unit Tenure | -.022 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation*Employee Unit Tenure | -.089 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .205 | 2.098* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .017 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9.4. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Employee Organizational Tenure on the relationship between 5 Individual Difference Variables and Taking Charge*

| | Taking Charge | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Job Satisfaction | .229** | |
| Employee Age | -.094 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.082 | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | -.096 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .118 | 4.431** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Resistance to change | .157 | |
| Proactive Personality | .171 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation | -.009 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation | .162 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation | -.053 | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.167 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .188 | 2.949** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .007 | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Resistance to change*Employee Organizational Tenure | -.087 | |
| Proactive Personality*Employee Organizational Tenure | .077 | |
| Learning Goal Orientation*Employee Organizational Tenure | -.031 | |
| Performance Approach Goal Orientation*Employee Organizational Tenure | -.008 | |
| Performance Avoid Goal Orientation*Employee Organizational Tenure | .021 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .200 | 2.028* |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .012 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 10.1. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The effect of Taking Charge / Effectiveness and Employee Job Tenure on Rated Time 1 Task Performance and Rated Time 2 Task Performance*

| | Rated Task Performance 1 | | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Rated Time1 Task Performance | | | .736*** | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .497*** | | -.114 | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | .072 | | .008 | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | .125 | | .101 | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.199* | | -.080 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .291 | 14.986*** | .483 | 26.918*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness | .598*** | | .342*** | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.071 | | .083 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .542 | 28.412*** | .540 | 23.858*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .251*** | | .057*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness * Employee Job Tenure | .060 | | .083 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .545 | 24.482*** | .546 | 21.210*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .003 | | .006 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 10.2. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The effect of Taking Charge / Effectiveness and Employee Unit Tenure on Rated Time 1 Task Performance and Rated Time 2 Task Performance*

| | Rated Task Performance 1 | | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Rated Time1 Task Performance | | | .737*** | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .501*** | | -.103 | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | .070 | | .009 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | .087 | | .145 | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.176 | | -.117 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .286 | 14.654*** | .487 | 27.296*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness | .598*** | | .342*** | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | .176 | | .085 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .542 | 28.412*** | .540 | 23.858*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .256*** | | .053*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness * Employee Unit Tenure | .100 | | .672 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .550 | 24.999*** | .542 | 20.851*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .008 | | .002 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 10.3. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The effect of Taking Charge / Effectiveness and Employee Organizational Tenure on Rated Time 1 Task Performance and Rated Time 2 Task Performance*

| | Rated Task Performance 1 | | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F | β | F |
| Rated Time1 Task Performance | | | .749*** | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .489*** | | -.115 | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | .070 | | .008 | |
| Employee Job Tenure | -.112 | | .056 | |
| Employee Unit Tenure | .076 | | .000 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .275 | 13.864*** | .481 | 26.688*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness | .598*** | | .342*** | |
| Employee Organizational Tenure | -.078 | | -.094 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .542 | 28.412*** | .540 | 23.858*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .267*** | | .059*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | | | |
| Combined Taking Charge / Effectiveness * Employee Organizational Tenure | .056 | | .115 | |
| Model R$^2$ | .545 | 24.453*** | .552 | 21.723*** |
| △ in Model R$^2$ | .003 | | .012 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 11.1 *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Role of Rated Task Performance 1 on the Relationship between Taking Charge and Task Performance 2*

| | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | .223** | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | .063 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .060 | 4.862** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Taking Charge | .245** | |
| Rated Task Performance 1 | .592*** | |
| Model $R^2$ | .489 | 35.906*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .429*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Taking Charge* Rated Task Performance 1 | -.045 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .491 | 28.735*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .002 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 11.2 *Hierarchical Regression Analysis: The Moderating Role of Rated Task Performance 1 on the Relationship between Interpersonal Facilitation and Task Performance 2*

| | Rated Task Performance 2 | |
|---|---|---|
| **Step 1: Controls** | β | F |
| Taking Charge / Effectiveness | .629*** | |
| Employee Unit Satisfaction | -.060 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .379 | 46.395*** |
| **Step 2: Main Effects** | | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation | -.171* | |
| Rated Task Performance 1 | .522*** | |
| Model $R^2$ | .512 | 39.316*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .133*** | |
| **Step 3: Interaction Effects** | | |
| Interpersonal Facilitation* Rated Task Performance 1 | -.047 | |
| Model $R^2$ | .514 | 31.497*** |
| △ in Model $R^2$ | .002 | |

Note: All β values are standardized, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 12. *Unit Level Correlation Table for Taking Charge, Taking Charge Effectiveness, Manager Supportiveness, Climate for Innovation, Rated Time 1 Task Performance, and Rated Time 2 Task Performance*

| | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Taking Charge | | | | | |
| 2. Taking Charge Effectiveness | .86** | | | | |
| 3. Manager Supportiveness | .30** | .38** | | | |
| 4. Climate for Innovation | .26** | .39** | .57** | | |
| 5. Rated Time 1 Task Performance | .69** | .76** | .45** | .40** | |
| 6. Rated Time 2 Task Performance | .56** | .65** | .05 | .06 | .70** |

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 13. *Interview Coding Template*

*What makes taking charge effective or ineffective?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Contextual Features | Open-mindedness |
| | Receptivity towards new suggestions |
| | Autonomy |
| | Accepting failure |
| | Creativity |
| Job Competence | Job knowledge |
| | Strategic knowledge |
| | Chain of command |
| | Limits of authority |
| Individual Qualities | Initiative and motivation |
| | Open mindedness and flexibility |
| | Political skill |

*Do you think there is such a thing as too much taking charge?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Contextual Features | Manager supportiveness |
| Job Competence | Reduced task performance |
| | Job knowledge |
| | Limits of authority |
| | Turf protection |
| | Strategic knowledge |
| | Limits testing |
| Individual Qualities | (Lack of) Open mindedness and flexibility |

*Do you have examples of when employees overstepped their bounds?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Job Competence | Procedural compliance |
| | Chain of command |
| | Limits of authority |
| | Managing from outside |
| Individual Qualities | Political skill |

Table 13. *Interview Coding Template continued*

*Do you think it is possible for an employee to show too much interpersonal facilitation?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Job Competence | Task performance |
| | Perceptions of favoritism |
| | Hinders taking charge |
| Individual Qualities | Empathy |

*At the yearly performance appraisal exercise, how much does taking charge affect the performance ratings that you give your subordinates? Do you give credit for taking charge behavior?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Contextual Features | Time |
| Job Competence | Organizational advancement |
| | Managerial benefit |
| | Task performance |
| Individual Qualities | Assertiveness |
| | Stewardship |

*If an employee tended to perform badly, would you view their taking charge behavior the same way than if they had been performing well?*

| First Order Code | Second Order Code |
|---|---|
| Job Competence | Fairness perceptions |
| | Task performance |
| | Performance components |
| | Developmental opportunity |
| Individual Qualities | Positive attitude |

Figure 1: A Typology of Extra Role Behavior (adapted from Van Dyne et al., 1995)

| | Affiliative | Challenging |
|---|---|---|
| Promotive | <ul><li>Acts of help and cooperation</li><li>Non-controversial</li><li>Example: OCB</li></ul> | <ul><li>Constructive expression of challenge</li><li>Change-oriented</li><li>Example: Taking charge</li></ul> |
| Prohibitive | <ul><li>Intervention to prevent harm</li><li>Relationship preservation</li><li>Example: Stewardship</li></ul> | <ul><li>Exposure or removal of negative practices</li><li>Controversial</li><li>Example: Whistle blowing</li></ul> |

Figure 2: Conceptual Model
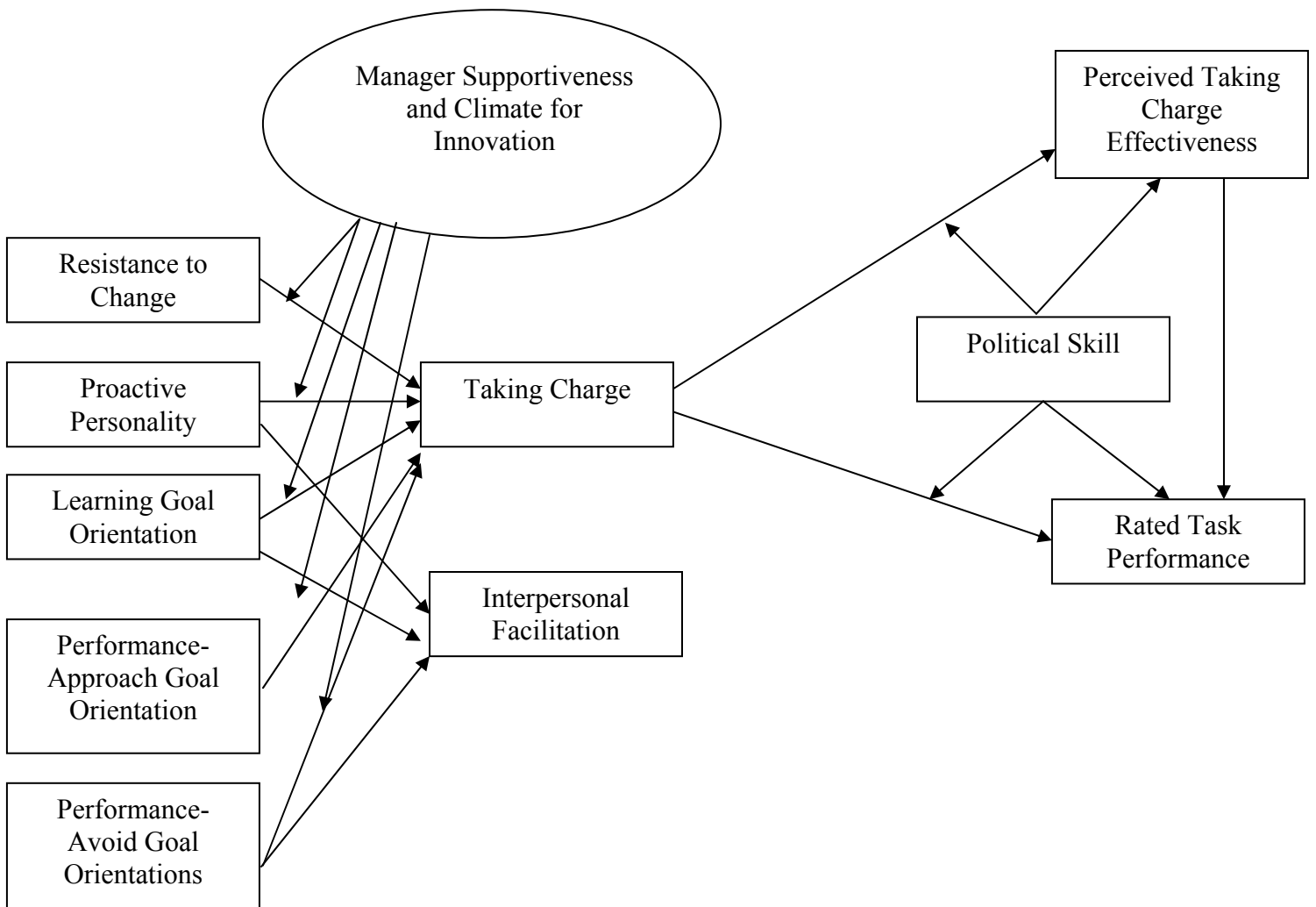
Vita

## SUAT HUI A. LIM

**PUBLICATIONS**

Chiaburu, D. S., & **Lim, A. S.** (2008). Manager trustworthiness or interactional justice? Predicting organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 83,* 453-467.

Chiaburu, D. S., Marinova, S. V., & **Lim, A. S.** (2007). Helping and proactive extra-role behaviors: The influence of motives, goal orientation, and social context. *Personality and Individual Differences, 43,* 2282-2293.

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**SELECTED CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS**

**Lim, A.**, Igwe, C. F., & Dzieweczynski, J. L. (2008). Counterproductive behavior in virtual teams: A grounded theory approach. Paper presented at the 2008 Pennsylvania State University, IST Graduate Symposium. (Best Poster Award)

**Lim, A.**, & Hamilton, K. L. (2007, August). Peeling away the onion: An analysis and development of racial identity models. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Mohammed, S., **Lim, A.**, Hamilton, K., Zhang, Y., & Kim, S. (2007, April). Individual differences in decision making: The measurement of decision styles. Paper presented at the 22$^{nd}$ annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New York, New York.

**Lim, A.**, Farr, J. L., & Randall, R. (2006, April). Exploring the processes of self-awareness. Paper presented at the 21$^{sh}$ annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Dallas, Texas.

**SELECTED AWARDS & HONORS**

Recipient of Pennsylvania State University 2008 Dissertation Support Award.

Recipient of Pennsylvania State University 2008 Dissertation Enhancement Award.

Recipient of Best Poster Award at the 2008 Pennsylvania State University IST Graduate Symposium. Poster title: **Lim, A.**, Igwe, C. F., & Dzieweczynski, J. L. (2008). Counterproductive behavior in virtual teams: A grounded theory approach.