Perceived Accountability and Job-Related Factors as Alternative Sources for Contextual Performance: What Can Managers Do More to Encourage Contextual Performance?*

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This study was prepared to test a premise that job characteristics and managerial actions encourage employees to feel accountable for contextual performance (CP) behaviors and the perceived accountability for CP behaviors leads to the actual behaviors. Contextual performance (CP) refers to activities that differ from job-specific task performance but are still important for achieving organizational goals. Despite its importance, CP is not as clearly listed in a formal job description or explicitly included in promotion criteria as is task performance (Lepine & Dyne, 2001; Organ, 1988). And, it has been assumed to be exhibited as a matter of individual discretion (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). However, organizations cannot afford to depend on chance or employees' goodwill to provide the innovative and spontaneous activities they need (Kerr, 1975). So, the question that this study will address is, "What can managers do to encourage their subordinates to engage in CP?"

This study argues that physical, psychological, and social environments created by managers can make employees feel accountable for performing CP. Specifically, five job characteristics, including task significance, task identity, autonomy, supervisor feedback, and behavioral norms, were hypothesized to have indirect positive effects on CP behaviors through perceived accountability. Those hypothetic relationships were distilled from relevant literature. In their accountability model, Dose and Klimoski (1995) suggested that when individuals perceive their jobs or actions as important and have enough control over the situation to achieve tasks, they are likely to feel accountable for their behaviors. The job characteristics literature identified task autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) as the sources of felt responsibility, which is suggested as a core component of perceived accountability (Cummings & Anton, 1990; Daft, 2002; Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). Frink and Klimoski (1998b) suggested that accountability is subject not only to structural contingencies, such as evaluation systems, reward systems, and disciplinary procedures, but also to social contingencies, including organizational culture and behavioral norms. Finally, while both goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and control theory (Taylor, Fisher, & Ilgen, 1984) emphasize that performance improvement requires specific goals and feedback, some characteristics of the feedback process are determinants of perceived accountability for using the information obtained from feedback sources (London et al., 1997).

A data were collected from 344 supervisor-subordinate dyadic samples. A dyadic sample design was employed to minimize the effects of common method variance issue and social desirability. Since job characteristics,

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behavioral norms, and perceived accountability are within-person perceptions, it is inappropriate to collect the data from other sources. Therefore, the data for those variables collected from subordinates. In the case of CP, subordinates' responses on the variable are likely to be inflated because of social desirability, and therefore, the CP data were collected from the subordinates' supervisors.

A series of analyses on a data set of 344 dyadic sample rendered evidence supporting the premise. That is, all the job-related factors positively correlated with perceived accountability as expected and all the job-related factors except task significance explained unique variance in perceived accountability above and beyond those by other job-related factors. In turn, perceived accountability not only explained a significant amount of variance in job dedication even after the effects of individual difference variables were controlled, it also fully mediated the effects of autonomy and partially that of supervisor feedback on job dedication.

Such empirical corroboration provides some practical implications for HR managers. First, the significant relationship between perceived accountability and job dedication even after the effects of individual difference variables were controlled suggests that CP behaviors cannot be totally discretionary if they can be induced by managers through appropriate setup of social, organizational, and psychological environments. Second, the empirical corroboration of the relationship between perceived accountability and job dedication indicates that managers have alternative means for fostering such behaviors and do not need to depend solely on recruitment and selection. However, these alternative means require managers to exercise more effort for effective and efficient communication. That is, managers need to communicate clearly their expectations on the performance elements to the employees. Third, the results on the relationships between perceived accountability and job-related factors, combined with the finding on the perceived accountability - job dedication relationship, identify some places where managers can start to foster CP behaviors. Specifically by designing jobs in a way that employees can exercise their own discretion in carrying out tasks and providing subordinates with more feedback on their performance, managers are likely to be able to influence employees' perceived accountability for job dedication behaviors and encourage them to engage in more job dedication behaviors

Key words: Contextual performance, OCB, job characteristics, perceived accountability, performance

I. Introduction

While performance has been defined primarily in terms of task performance elements (Borman, 1991), researchers have recognized the importance of the non-traditional performance behaviors, described as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Contextual performance (CP) refers to activities that differ from job-specific task performance but are still important for achieving organizational goals. Some examples include volunteering to carry out difficult task activities, persisting with extra enthusiasm or effort

when necessary to complete one's own task activities successfully, and helping and cooperating with others (Borman et al., 1993: 73). Research has consistently shown that these behaviors contribute to organizational effectiveness in different ways from the way task performance does (Borman et al., 1993; Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Van Scotter, 2000). CP is important in achieving organizational goals, because innovative and spontaneous behaviors help organizations cope with volatile and dynamic business environments (Katz, 1964). In spite of its importance, CP is not as clearly listed in a formal job description or explicitly included in promotion criteria as is task performance (Lepine & Dyne, 2001; Organ, 1988). And, it has been assumed to be exhibited as a matter of individual discretion (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). However, organizations cannot afford to depend on chance or employees' goodwill to provide the innovative and spontaneous activities they need (Kerr, 1975). So, the question that this study will address is, "What can managers do to encourage their subordinates to engage in CP?"

This study argues that physical, psychological, and social environments created by managers can make employees feel accountable for performing CP. In particular, employees' CP behaviors are influenced by task-related or organizational environments that facilitate CP, communicate expectations about CP, and monitor employees' CP behaviors. The influence of job-related factors and work environment on people's behavior is not a new idea. Just as the literature on situational constraints (Peters & O'Connor, 1980) and job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) has consistently shown, it has been one of the central theme of organizational behavior and human resource management. However, job-related or work environmental factors have hardly been incorporated into the contextual performance literature, which has consequently put too much emphasis on individual difference variables, such as personality traits and moods.

Studies that examined the nature of non-traditional performance elements (Conway, 1999; Motowidlo et al., 1994) and their antecedents (Beaty, Cleveland, & Murphy, 2001; Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, & Borman, 1998; Motowidlo et al., 1994; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Organ et al., 1995; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) provide evidence that CP differs across personality traits. For example, people would work harder than necessary and persist to overcome work problems, because they are conscientious; people would help coworkers, because they are agreeable or extraverted (Organ et al., 1995; Van Scotter et al., 1996). Other researchers

(Carlson, Charlin, & Miller, 1988; George & Brief, 1992; Isen & Baron, 1991; Morris, 1989) supporting a mood state perspective suggest that people display good behaviors when they feel good. These findings suggest that organizations should recruit and select people who possess the relevant personalities to foster CP, and that employees' good moods should be maintained in some ways. However, organizations cannot obviously afford to fire all their existing employees and hire new ones who will perform more CP, nor can they rely on people's moods, because people's affective states fluctuate from day to day. Therefore, while this stream of research has broadened our understanding on why people display contextual performance, it still warrants another study that shows what general managers can do more to encourage CP behaviors at the work place.

By employing the concept of perceived accountability (London, Smither, & Adsit, 1997) to explain the relationship between job-related factors and CP behaviors, the current study will identify a new source of variance in CP that managers can exercise more influence.

II. a Research Framework

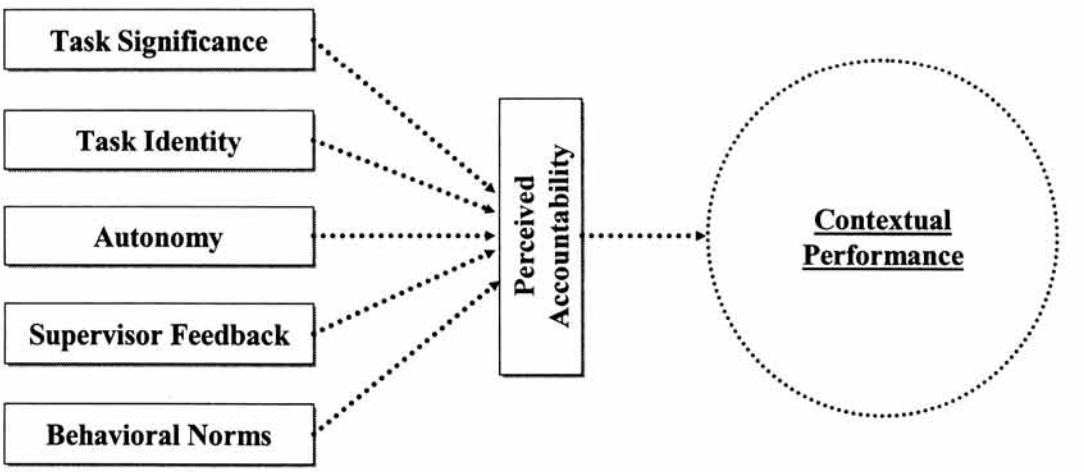
As mentioned earlier, the premise of this study is that some job-related factors may influence employees' perceptions of accountability for specific kinds of behavior and this perception leads to the actual behavior. Testing the premise of this study requires three groups of constructs: job-related factors, accountability, and performance behaviors. Figure 1 depicts the interrelationships among the variables.

Regarding the job-related factors, the current study will focus on four job characteristics, involving task significance, task identity, autonomy, supervisor feedback, and behavioral norms. These variables are selected based upon their *likely relatedness* to perceived accountability. In their accountability model, Dose and Klimoski (1995) suggested that when individuals perceive their jobs or actions as important and have enough control over the situation to achieve tasks, they are likely to feel accountable for their behaviors. The job characteristics literature identified task autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) as the sources of felt responsibility, which is suggested as a core component of perceived accountability (Cummings & Anton, 1990; Daft, 2002; Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). Frink and Klimoski (1998b) suggested that accountability is subject not only to structural contingencies, such as evaluation systems, reward systems, and disciplinary procedures, but also to social contingencies, such as organizational culture

and behavioral norms. Finally, while both goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and control theory (Taylor, Fisher, & Ilgen, 1984) emphasize that performance improvement requires specific goals and feedback, some characteristics of the feedback process are determinants of perceived accountability for using the information obtained from feedback sources (London et al., 1997).

Although accountability is often described in terms of requirements to report to a supervisor based upon a combination of authority and responsibility etched into a position (Daft, 2002), the current study employs a phenomenological approach (i.e., state of mind), which does not necessarily demand - yet still allows for the existence of formal reporting requirements and perceptual distortion (Carnevale, 1985; Frink, 1994). This approach is more appropriate for the current study than one that emphasizes a particular state of affairs faced by an individual for two reasons. First, the current study focuses on the relationship of accountability to CP. Because CP is not usually explicitly prescribed in a job description or contract, it is not directly subject to an official or organizationally imposed reporting obligation. Second, the extent to which individuals perceive themselves accountable for a specific behavior may vary even with the same organizational or job-related structure or features (Frink, 1994).

A phenomenological approach to the conceptualization of accountability requires that measures of accountability and performance behaviors be fairly specific, because people experience different levels of perceived accountability for different target behaviors to different target audience (London et al., 1997).



〈Figure 1〉 A Research Framework

With respect to this requirement, CP is too broad, because it spans a wide range of behaviors (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Therefore, it seems to be necessary discuss at least two issues related to CP to limit the boundary of the target behaviors. The first one is the labeling issue. Recognizing the importance of non-traditional performance behaviors, researchers have suggested various terms, such as contextual performance (Borman et al., 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1994), prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and organizational spontaneity (George et al., 1992), to capture the new performance domain. While each of these concepts has originated from different research traditions and evolved with slightly different perspectives (see Coleman et al., 2000), some researchers have argued that despite different research traditions, approaches, and objectives the labels all describe patterns of behaviors that have much in common (Borman et al., 1993; Kiker et al., 1999; Motowidlo, 2000; Organ, 1997; Organ et al., 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Van Scotter et al., 1996). For example, Podsakoff and others (2000) noted that the 'altruism' construct of OCB literature considerably overlaps the 'interpersonal facilitation' construct of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) CP typology, while the courtesy and conscientiousness dimensions of OCB are similar to the job dedication construct of CP. Kiker and Motowidlo (1999) also suggested that interpersonal facilitation is essentially the same dimension that Borman and Motowidlo (1993) referred to as helping and cooperating with others and that Organ (1997) referred to as altruism or helping. Drawing on this finding, Motowidlo (2000) concluded that the labeling issue is less important than careful definition and measurement of the behavioral dimensions that these terms embrace. Since the term, contextual performance subsumes most of the behavioral patterns described by other labels (Organ, 1997; Van Scotter et al., 1996), all of these behaviors are referred to as contextual performance throughout this paper.

The second issue is about the dimensionality of the CP domain. As the behaviors captured by CP have been brought into the performance domain, researchers have also attempted to delineate the structure of the new domain. The result of continuous research attention on the "true" structure of the domain is a wide variety of taxonomies and typologies, each of which identifies up to five sub-domains. For example, while Borman and Motowidlo (1993) coined the term contextual performance to refer to all the activities that do not fall under the category of task performance but are still important for organizational effectiveness, Van Dyne and others (1994) identified four dimensions:

social participation, loyalty, obedience, and functional participation. Organ's (1988) typology consists of five sub-dimensions including altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Observing these various classifications, Coleman and Borman (2000) argued that there is no one best way to partition the contextual performance domain, and suggested that the decision-making about including or excluding specific dimensions should depend on whether the pattern of theoretical and/or empirical relations is different or similar among the various dimensions.

The current paper employs Van Scotter and Motowidlo's typology (1996) because of the way of conceptualization of the CP elements. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) partitioned CP into two categories: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation refers to interpersonally oriented behaviors that involve the cooperative, considerate, and helpful acts that assist co-workers' performance. Job dedication refers to self-disciplined, motivated behaviors, such as working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives. One conceptual difference between these two elements is that while the former focuses on interpersonal relationships, the latter is primarily concerned with personal motivation to perform one's own job. Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) typology based on such distinction provides at least two advantages over other typologies in relation with the perceived accountability. First, job dedication is less likely to be influenced by other types of performance behaviors (Kim, 2003; Van Scotter, 1994), and therefore, an alternative explanation that displayed job dedication behaviors are the result of other types of contextual or task performance behaviors rather than of perceived accountability can be excluded. Second, the concept of perceived accountability is closely related to the job dedication concept by sharing motivation elements in common. While accountability can be thought of as a motivational state in which there is an increased sense of self-relevance for a certain situation (Klimoski, 1992; Schlenker et al., 1989), job dedication captures the motivational elements, which are in turn always the determinants of other performance-related behaviors (Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Therefore, all the discussion on the target behaviors of perceived accountability hereafter will be limited to job dedication.

Also, the target audience of accountability in this discussion will be limited to supervisors. It is primarily because they play an important role in shaping subordinates' accountability perceptions (Tetlock, Skitka, & Boettger, 1989) by exercising a significant amount of influence on subordinates' behaviors (Tetlock, 1985a). With the afore-

mentioned variables and boundary of discussion, the following section will discuss the concept of perceived accountability more in detail and develop hypotheses among the variables.

III. Hypotheses Development

3.1 Perceived Accountability

In this paper, perceived accountability refers to an individual's feeling of obligation and need to justify one's job dedication behaviors to supervisor (London et al., 1997; Tetlock, 1985b; Weigold & Schlenker, 1991). By employing a phenomenological (i.e., state of mind) approach (Frink & Klimoski, 1998b), this conceptualization differentiates the construct from other similar concepts, such as expectation and felt responsibility. Although expectation and perceived accountability appear to be similar, perceived accountability is not merely a set of external expectations that all individuals perceive in the same way (Erdogan, Sparrowe, Liden, & Dunegan, 2001). Not only is an individual's perceived accountability formed through more interactional process than expectation (Schlenker et al., 1989), it also involves a justification process by which reward and sanctions are implied (Tetlock, 1985b). Perceived accountability is related to, but still distinct from felt responsibility. Cummings and Anton (1990) posited that felt responsibility and accountability are distinct outcomes of responsibility by saying that felt responsibility is an internal path and accountability is an external social and public process. That is, felt responsibility refers to the personal acceptance of responsibility, which is in turn defined as the personal causal influence on an event, while accountability involves the evaluation of other people's expectations on an event and the consequences. Since felt responsibility is the result of personal or individualized process of accepting a responsibility, it does not directly take account of external factors (e.g., other people's evaluation of a behavior or an event and possible reward/sanction). In contrast, perceived accountability directly take account of both internal factors (e.g., value system incorporated in self-image; Schlenker et al., 1994) and external factors (e.g., formal evaluation systems, reward systems, disciplinary procedures, organizational culture, social norms, informal organizational network, and so forth; Frink et al., 1998b). This literature suggests that felt responsibility is a necessary condition for perceived accountability, not a sufficient condition.

Perceived accountability - Job Dedication

Perceived accountability is expected to be positively associated with the job dedication.

More specifically, the more an individual feels accountable for job-dedicated behaviors to his or her supervisor, the more likely he or she displays these behaviors. This expectation is based on the premise of accountability theory: accountability has an influence on people's decision-making by affecting both what people think and how they think (Frink et al., 1998b; Klimoski & Inks, 1990; London & Smither, 1995; Tetlock, 1985b). It has been suggested and found that when people feel obligated to explain their decision to other people (i.e., audience), their perceived accountability increases (Klimoski et al., 1990). Furthermore, individuals understand the prevalence and viability of accountability for behaviors and put themselves into positions where the defense for their behaviors is most likely to be successful to build and maintain social acceptance and approval (Tetlock, 1985b). In doing so, people may either conform to other people's expectations, try to generate high-quality and justifiable decisions (Tetlock & Kim, 1987), or simply defend their existing opinions (Tetlock et al., 1989).

In the organizational context, individuals would likely choose to conform to other people's expectations rather than attempt to develop alternative justifiable decisions or defend their opinions, especially when the expectation of the audience is well known (Tetlock & Boettger, 1989; Tetlock et al., 1987). Since people are generally cognitive misers (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Tetlock, 1992), the latter two strategies that require more resources than simply complying with other people's expectations would be less attractive than the former one. The idea that people frequently choose the most clearly defensible action open to them has been supported by some experimental studies on negotiation behavior. For example, Klimoski (1971) found that negotiators who did not have to justify bargaining outcomes to the groups they represented more easily arrived at mutually compromising agreements than their counterparts under the justification pressure. Negotiators under the justification pressure responded by employing more competitive bargaining tactics, which are perceived as socially desirable or required by the audience to protect their image in the eyes of the audience (Carnevale, 1985).

This finding would particularly be the case in high accountability situations where a formal authority exists between the audience and the focal person as in a supervisor - subordinate relationship. Supervisors usually exercise a significant amount of influence on employees as the agents of an organization. Also, supervisors' expectations and criteria for rewards or sanctions for specific behaviors are usually well known to employees (Frink & Ferris, 1998a). These conditions would induce (Jones & Wortman, 1973; Tetlock,

1985a; Tetlock et al., 1989) subordinates to perceive higher accountability to their supervisors than to other audiences. Therefore, when an individual perceives high accountability for job-dedicated behaviors to his or her supervisor, he or she is more likely to display such behaviors.

Hypothesis 1: As subordinates' perceived accountability for job-dedicated behaviors to their supervisors increases, job dedication will increase.

3.3 Job Characteristics/Behavioral Norms - Perceived Accountability

3.3.1 Accountability Model

The current study focuses on five job-related factors (i.e., task significance, task identity, autonomy, supervisor feedback, and behavioral norms) as the antecedents of perceived accountability. The mechanism that explains how each of these antecedents affects the perceived accountability level is drawn from an accountability model proposed by Schlenker and his colleagues (Schlenker et al., 1989; Schlenker et al., 1994).

Their model consists of three elements: event, identity, and prescriptions. Event is the unit of action or its consequences that the audience regards as a unified segment for an evaluation purpose. It includes individuals' behavior or performance. Identity refers to a component of one's self-concept. According to identity theory (Stryker, 1980), identities constitute self-concepts with values. They locate the self in socially recognizable categories. While identities consist of various values, roles, and qualities, only those relevant to specific events and prescriptions are salient in the accountability process (Schlenker et al., 1989). For example, a person is not accountable for parental behaviors to supervisors; he or she is accountable to supervisors only in respect of an identity as an employee. A prescription represents a set of rules for what should be done and how things should occur. It serves as codes or rules for conduct by explicitly or implicitly providing information about the goals and standards for performance and the appropriate ways of reaching those goals.

Schlenker and his colleagues (Schlenker et al., 1989; Schlenker et al., 1994) suggested that the linkages among these three elements would determine the degree to which an individual feels accountable for a certain type of behaviors. The stronger the linkages are, the higher level of accountability an individual perceives. The identity-event linkage refers to the extent to which an individual is seen as having responsibility for the event. This linkage is strong, primarily when an individual is seen to have control over the event. The identity-prescription

linkage indicates the extent to which an individual is bound or committed to the rules or standards associated with the event. This would be affected by the extent to which an individual is socialized to hold the same rules by an organization (Dose & Klimoski, 1995). The prescription-event linkage represents the extent to which there are clear rules or standards for behaviors in the situation. All these linkages suggest that an individual would perceive a high level of accountability when he or she feels identified with an event, when there are clear standards for good or poor performance, and when the standards are seen to be applied to him or her (Klimoski, 1992).

Drawing on this model, the current paper proposes that some job characteristics (i.e., task identity, task significance, autonomy, and supervisor feedback) and behavioral norms would affect the degree to which an individual perceives accountability for job dedicated behaviors either by strengthening or by weakening at least one of these linkages. More specific mechanisms in which each of the antecedents would affect perceived accountability are discussed below in detail.

3.3.2 Task Significance

Task significance refers to the degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment (Hackman et al., 1976). It is expected that when task significance is high, people would perceive higher accountability for job dedication. High task significance, by definition, means that the outcome of the job incumbent's task has significant impact on others' well-being or job performance. As the significance of the task outcomes increases, it is likely that standards, rules, and procedures are readily available and applied in strict ways in evaluating outcomes of tasks. For example, flying a commercial airplane requires much more strict rules than delivering a pizza; a pilot's mistake is more strictly scrutinized than a pizza delivery person's mistake because of the significance of a mistake. This means that high task significance would lead to a strengthened event-prescription linkage. Also, when a task is important to other people, particularly to supervisors (i.e., audience), a job incumbent's performance may constantly be monitored by other people. This increases the visibility of a job incumbent's performance. Combined with the heightened event-prescription linkage, increased visibility of a job incumbent's performance is likely to induce an individual to develop a coping strategy to handle possible undesirable situations, where his or her identity can be impaired. That is, a job incumbent needs to justify his or her

actions that may produce unsatisfying work outcomes. One likely way of doing so is to bind him/herself to available standards, rules, and procedures in carrying out the task (i.e., a strengthened identity-prescription linkage), because it is much easier for the job incumbent to defend him/herself against possible criticism of poor performance than to generate his or her own justifiable decisions (Tetlock et al., 1987). As the identity-prescription linkage is strengthened, an individual may need to increase effort and persistence toward goals by following the supervisor's instructions, avoiding shortcuts when work is overdue, and overcoming obstacles to complete a task (Schlenker et al., 1989; Schlenker et al., 1994). In this way, the job incumbent may develop an expectation that if he or she exerted much more effort than required, then his or her performance would more favorably be evaluated regardless of the actual work outcome (Simonson & Staw, 1992).

An empirical study by McAllister and others (McAllister, Mitchell, & Beach, 1979) provides indirect evidence for this reasoning. They proposed a contingency model for the selection of decision strategies, in which the significance of decision making and accountability imposed by the decision environment were hypothesized to increase the perceived pressure for choosing a decision strategy that would increase the perceived benefits of a decision. Three independent experiments supported these hypotheses. When decisions were significant and when the accountability condition was imposed, the subjects chose a decision strategy that resulted in a greater investment of time and effort than when the opposite conditions were given.

From the reasoning and evidence above, it is likely that task significance is positively related to the level of perceived accountability.

Hypothesis 2: As task significance increases, subordinates' perceived accountability for job dedication to their supervisors will increase.

3.3.3 Task Identity and Autonomy

Task identity is defined as the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work; that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. Autonomy refers to the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out (Hackman et al., 1976). These two job characteristics are discussed together here, because the same reasoning can be applied to both of them in relation to the perceived accountability for job dedication.

Like the task significance, task identity

and autonomy are also expected to have a positive influence on a job incumbent's perceived accountability for job dedication yet in a slightly different way. With high task identity, a job incumbent may exercise a significant amount of control over the task performance. This increases the visibility of the job incumbent's identity with respect to the work outcome. In other words, since the work outcome of a task with high task identity is primarily function of the job incumbent's ability and qualities, this visibility is likely to strengthen the identity - event linkage (Dose et al., 1995; Schlenker et al., 1994). Similarly, the high level of autonomy on the task allows the job incumbent to exercise a substantial amount of freedom and discretion in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used (Hackman et al., 1976). Since more freedom and discretion on a task provide the job incumbent with more control over the work process as well as the means, it is less likely that poor performance on the task can be ascribed to something else beyond the worker's control (Schlenker et al., 1994). This may also strengthen the extent to which the job incumbent is seen as having responsibility for the work outcome, that is, a strong identity-event linkage.

As the identity-event linkage is strengthened, the job incumbent is likely to experience a high level of accountability for the work outcome. Since the evaluation of the event (i.e., work outcome) will directly lead to the categorization of the identity of the job incumbent in terms of the ability and qualities (Schlenker et al., 1994), poor performance would lead to criticism on the job incumbent's identity. Because people's identity constitutes their self-concept and because people are motivated to maintain and enhance their self-concept (Shamir, 1991), the job incumbent working on easily identifiable tasks may feel a need to exert an appropriate level of effort and persistence on the job to prevent such criticism. As discussed earlier in respect of task significance, one possible and most likely way of doing this is to cling to available standards, rules, and procedures in carrying out the task (i.e., strengthened identity-prescription linkage). Not only would this way be more defensible for the job incumbent than generating his or her own justifiable decisions (Tetlock et al., 1987), it may also lead him or her to develop a socially acceptable excuse, like "I did my best."

One study by Findley and others (2000) seems to provide indirect evidence for this expectation. They examined the relationship between performance appraisal facets and CP behaviors and found that the more supervisors clarified future goals and improvement, the less contextual performance was exhibited ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$). This finding

suggests that managers' interventions or planning activities might reduce employees' perceived accountability for job dedication behaviors through decreased autonomy and lowered task-identity, because they were told by the supervisors what they needed to do. If this were the case, the subordinates would feel accountable only for what they were told to do by their supervisors, not for job-dedicated behaviors, because the supervisors' order could be used as an excuse for possible undesirable work outcomes. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3: As task identity increases, subordinates' perceived accountability for job dedication to their supervisors will increase.

Hypothesis 4: As autonomy increases, subordinates' perceived accountability for job dedication to their supervisors will increase.

3.3.4 Supervisor Feedback

Feedback can be defined as "actions taken by (an) external agent(s) to provide information regarding some aspects(s) of one's task performance" (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996: 235). Feedback from supervisors is likely to create perceptions of accountability for job dedication, because it is likely to strengthen prescription - event linkage by providing information about both an event (i.e., actual performance) and corresponding standards. Feedback is basically information about the appropriateness of a job incumbent's behavior, which must be judged against standards or rules corresponding to the behavior. The control theory on feedback process proposes that without a standard serving as a reference point for comparison, a recipient is likely to view feedback as "noise," information containing no particular meaning or value (Taylor et al., 1984). With a strong prescription-event linkage, the desirable outcome and the procedure to achieve the outcome are likely to be clearer and perceived uncertainty would be reduced (Schlenker et al., 1994). In this case, the individual would get some ideas from supervisor feedback about what should be done and how it should be done for better future performance.

While supervisor feedback articulates what the job incumbent is supposed to do for better future performance, it can increase the salience of the individual's subsequent performance for supervisors. Since feedback, especially information about poor performance, is usually given with the intention of improving future performance, the supervisor would monitor the job incumbent's performance to make sure that his or her feedback was in effect (Larson, 1984). In this monitoring process, the supervisor may assume that the job incumbent would get some ideas about what to do from the feedback and expect the job incumbent to

reflect them into an appropriate level of effort. A supervisor's such expectation is likely to be acknowledged by the job incumbent throughout continuous role negotiation process between the supervisor and the subordinate (Frink et al., 1998b; Tetlock, 1985a; Tetlock et al., 1989). As Tetlock and others (1989) suggested, this known expectation of an audience (i.e., the supervisor) who has power over the job incumbent would increase the job incumbent's perceived accountability for job-dedicated behaviors to the audience.

Therefore,

Hypothesis 5: As the extent to which supervisors provide feedback to subordinates increases, subordinates' perceived accountability for job dedication to their supervisors will increase.

3.3.5 Behavioral Norms

To influence individuals' perceived accountability and eventually induce some desirable behaviors, organizations also use less formal and explicit than job design yet quite effective means, such as behavioral norms (Cabrera & Bonache, 1999). Defined as expectations regarding which behaviors are appropriate and which behaviors are not (McGrath, 1984), behavioral norms are expected to be positively related to individuals' perceived accountability for job dedication by strengthening the prescription-event linkage.

While behavioral norms are rules for appropriate behavior rooted in expectations (McGrath, 1984), their development standardizes some behavioral sequences that have been found valuable in a specific context. For example, in some organizations people share their opinions with other people, while in others people would never express their disagreement with their colleagues. Likewise, in some organizations a good worker would be a person who is willing to help other people, while in others an employee who is quite efficient on his or her own work would be perceived as a good worker.

These behaviors displayed by other people in an organization may send a strong cue to an individual regarding what kind of behaviors would be desirable in a particular situation. The literature on social information processing theory suggests that cues from other people (e.g., co-worker, supervisors, customers, etc.) have a powerful effect on individuals' perceptions and cognitions with respect to their roles in an organization and eventually shape their behaviors in a manner consistent with the cues that they receive from others (Thomas & Griffin, 1983). Trevino and Victor (1992) found that individuals feel more responsible for reporting unethical behavior and are more likely to do so when such reporting is supported by group norms. Morrison (1994) also found

evidence that to the extent that employees are exposed to similar social cues from co-workers and supervisors, the employees are likely to define their roles on the jobs in a similar way. In this way, behavioral norms are likely to serve as the prescriptions for what is expected, who should do it, and when (Cook & Szumal, 1993; Frink et al., 1998b).

In turn, these prescriptions for a specific context are likely to strengthen the prescription-event linkage. When strong behavioral norms for job-dedicated behaviors are present in the work place, deviation from the norms may draw other people's attention and evoke an evaluation process of the deviant behaviors. In this process, the deviant may be expected to come up with an acceptable excuse for why he or she does not follow the generally accepted standards (i.e., behavioral norms). Not only is generating such rationales difficult, there is also a risk that the presented justification would be perceived as unacceptable, because it can shake the other people's fundamental belief systems. Recognition of such risk would motivate people to comply with other people's expectation. Therefore, when behavioral norms for job-dedicated behaviors are shared by people, an individual is likely to perceive higher accountability for such behaviors.

Hypothesis 6: As the extent to which behavioral norms for job dedicated behaviors are shared by people increases, subordinates' perceived accountability for the behaviors to their supervisors will increase.

These hypotheses taken altogether imply that perceived accountability for job dedication would mediate the effects of job characteristics and behavioral norms on job dedication. The expected mediation effect of perceived accountability is similar to that of felt responsibility on autonomy to work outcomes as shown in the job characteristics model (JCM; Hackman et al., 1976). Even though felt responsibility and perceived accountability are different concepts in a sense that while the former focuses on an employee's personal acceptance of responsibility, the latter not only addresses the acceptance of the responsibility but also identifies external factors as the source of the responsibility (Cummings et al., 1990; London et al., 1997), they still share personal feeling of accountability in common. In defining the responsibility for the work outcome, Hackman & Oldham (1976) stated that felt responsibility involves personal feeling of accountability. Therefore, it is reasonable to say that the logic employed in the JCM is also applicable to the current model. The JCM model postulates that an individual would be motivated to try to perform well to keep up with the felt responsibility increased by

the given autonomy in carrying out tasks. The current model suggests that an individual would display more job-dedicated behaviors to cope with the perceived accountability level, which could be heightened by the job-related factors considered here.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived accountability for job dedication will mediate the effects of task significance on job dedication.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived accountability for job dedication will mediate the effects of task identity on job dedication.

Hypothesis 9: Perceived accountability for job dedication will mediate the effects of autonomy on job dedication.

Hypothesis 10: Perceived accountability for job dedication will mediate the effects of supervisor feedback on job dedication.

Hypothesis 11: Perceived accountability for job dedication will mediate the effects of behavioral norms on job dedication.

Ⅳ. Methods

4.1 Data Collection Design

To collect data, a field study design was employed, in part because it is quite difficult to manipulate all aforementioned job-related characteristics and behavioral norms in an experimental setting. Moreover, it would be desirable to measure perceived accountability in a realistic situation, because subjects are not likely to experience the same level of perceived accountability in an experimental setting as in an actual situation (Erdogan et al., 2001; Frink, 1994; Frink et al., 1998a; Frink et al., 1998b; Weigold et al., 1991). Also, the data were collected from employees working for various companies located in the southeastern United States to secure enough variance in the perceived accountability, since accountability researchers noted that accountability conditions are likely to be very similar for most people within the same specific social context (Frink, 1994; Frink et al., 1998b).

Finally, the data were collected from supervisor-subordinate dyadic samples. There are basically two reasons to employ a dyadic sample design. First, all the constructs incorporated in the hypotheses have typically been measured based on respondents' perceptions. This raises questions about the issue of common method variance. When all the data for the constructs under consideration are collected from the same source, especially when a self-report method is employed, common method variance is likely to inflate the strength of relationships among the investigated variables (Roberts & Glick, 1981), threatening the internal validity of a study. Since job characteristics, behavioral

norms, and perceived accountability are within-person perceptions, it is inappropriate to collect the data from other sources. However, it seems desirable to collect job dedication data from respondents' supervisors. It is because supervisors are likely to be in the best position to evaluate the job dedication level of his/her subordinates (Borman, White, Pulakos, & Oppler, 1991). Also, the use of supervisors' ratings is more consistent with the notion of accountability to supervisors employed in this study.

4.2 Procedure & Sample

Supervisor - subordinate dyadic data were collected from people working for various companies in terms of the size and industry located in the southeastern United States. Voluntary participants were recruited from undergraduate and graduate classes of a university located in the southeastern United States. With a brief explanation about the purpose of the study and instructions on the questionnaire, the questionnaires for subordinates were administered in classes and collected right away. The questionnaires for supervisors were delivered to supervisors through the subordinates with a detailed instruction package which explained the study purpose and participation process. Supervisors were instructed to mail their responses directly back to the researcher by using an enclosed envelop. Once both supervisors' and subordinates' responses were collected, they were combined into one data set by using identification numbers, which were labeled on each questionnaire and the envelope.

710 dyadic questionnaires were administered through the process described above. While 409 dyadic data (subordinate return rate: 76.7%; supervisor return rate: 57.6%) were collected, only 344 records were utilized for analyses after 65 records that involved too many missing values were screened out. The demographic characteristics of the participants are as follow. The subordinates were typically white (55.4%) males (48.1%) and 24.3% of the total sample was African-American (34%) female (51.9%). Other ethnic groups including Asian-American, Hispanic, and multi-ethnic people accounted for 10.6%. In the case of supervisors, the participants were white (54.6%) males (52.9%) and 19.9% of the total sample was African-American (35.5%) female (47.1%). Other ethnic groups including Asian-American, Hispanic, and multi-ethnic people accounted for 9.9%. The average ages of subordinates and supervisors were 25 (SD = 6.35) and 40 (SD = 11.52) respectively. Subordinates' and supervisors' job experience measured in tenure on the current position were about 3 years (SD = 4.28) and 9 years (SD = 8.01) respectively, the average supervisory time was about 2

years (SD = 2.71).

4.3 Measures

4.3.1 Job Characteristics

Task significance, autonomy, and task identity were measured by using Job Diagnostic Survey scale (Hackman et al., 1975). While the internal consistency of JDS has been shown as "acceptable" (Aldag, Barr, & Brief, 1981), a meta-analysis by Taber and Taylor (1990) revealed moderate levels of internal consistency (autonomy: α = .69, N = 9,873; task identity: α = .68, N= 8,742; task significance: α = .65, N = 9,013). They suggested that the internal consistency could be improved by lengthening the scales. This suggestion was echoed by other researchers. Kulik and others (1988) tried to augment the original scale by adding some parallel items and obtained better internal consistency. Idaszak and others (1988) also recommended lengthening the JDS scale in order to improve factorial stability. Their suggestion was based on the findings of the Idaszak and Drasgow's (1987) study, which showed that reverse-scored items lowered the internal consistency and disordered the factor structure. Following these suggestions, the current study revised the original JDS scale for the job characteristics by replacing the original reverse-scored items with Idaszak and Drasgow's (1987) revised items, which do not have to be reverse scored, and by adding a few items from the Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976). Through this modification, 11 items, including three task identity items, four task significance items, and four autonomy items, were prepared in a standard 7-point Likert style format with the anchors used by Hackman & Oldham (1975). The subjects were asked to respond to each item by rating between 1 ("very inaccurate") and 7 ("very accurate.")

Supervisor feedback was measured by using the Castaneda and others' (1999) three item measure. The measurement includes: "My supervisor has made it perfectly clear to me how well he/she thinks I am doing on my job," "My supervisor is up-front with me about how well he/she thinks I am doing my job," and "My supervisor consistently provides me with information about my job performance." These items used a standard 7-point Likert scale format with the same anchors used for other job-related characteristics.

4.3.2 Behavioral Norms and Perceived Accountability

In this paper, behavioral norms were measured by using 14 7-point Likert-type question items, which were developed by combining the content of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's

(1996) job dedication scale with an approach that has been adopted by the literature on theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and theory of planned behaviors (Ajzen, 1985). In this literature behavioral norms are treated as one of the elements determining actual behaviors or behavioral intention and typically measured by using some Likert-type question items, like "Most people who are important to me think that I should do (a certain type of behaviors)." This approach seems to be more appropriate than another approach, in which behavioral norms are conceptualized as an element of a broader concept, such as organizational culture, because the behavioral norms should be specific as the antecedent of perceived accountability.

By the very same reason, 14 7-point Likert-type items for measuring the perceived accountability were newly developed drawing on the content of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) job dedication scale. Although some measures were available from the literature, they were too general to tap the extent to which the subjects feel accountable to their supervisors specifically for the job dedication behaviors. Those newly developed items include: "I feel accountable to my supervisor for working hard," "I feel accountable to my supervisor for persisting to overcome obstacles to complete a task," "I feel accountable to my supervisor for avoiding shortcuts," and so on (see table 2 for all the items.)

4.3.3 Job Dedication

Job dedication behaviors were measured by using Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) scale. The supervisors were asked to indicate the extent to which the employee who passed the questionnaire to them would likely display each of the performance behaviors by marking between 1 ("not at all") and 7 ("extremely likely").

4.3.4 Control Variables

The performance literature (Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter et al., 1996) shows that contextual performance behaviors are significantly related to some individual difference variables, such as personality traits and job experience (Organ et al., 1995). If the effects of these variables are not controlled, an alternative explanation that the variance in job-dedicated behaviors explained by the perceived accountability derived from job-related factors is actually the same variance explained by the individual variables cannot be excluded. So, these personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness) were measured by using Goldberg's (1999) scales. Job experience was measured in terms of subordinates' tenure on the current position (Quinones, Ford, & Teachout,

1995) by asking how long they had worked on the current position in years and months, which were later on recalculated into months. Also, Ferris and others (1997) reported a significant correlation (r =.18, p < .05) between hierarchical organizational level and accountability. To control for the effect of the hierarchical organizational level on subordinates' perceived accountability level, subordinates' organizational level information was obtained from supervisors by asking the supervisors to indicate the organizational level of their subordinates on the continuum scale of 10 (1: low → 5~6: middle → 10: high). While such information does not reveal the subordinates' actual organizational level, it still allows the examination of its relative influence on other variables.

V. Analyses & Results

All the aforementioned measures were subject to factor analyses (i.e., maximum likelihood method for factor extraction with varimax rotation) and Cronbach's alpha reliability test to obtain an interpretable factor structure and an acceptable level of internal consistency. Question items that were either loaded on an unexpected factor or loaded on an expected factor with too low factor loadings (i.e., $|\lambda| < .30$) were dropped one by one to get a clearer factor structure. Then, the remaining measurement items were put into another factor analysis and examined through the same process. This process was repeated until an acceptable factor structure was obtained (factor structure table provided upon request by the first author). Throughout this process, two items, one for task identity and another one for autonomy, out of 14 items for measuring job characteristics and supervisor feedback were dropped (see table 1.)

The measures for behavioral norms and perceived accountability were finalized by analyzing the factor structure with the job dedication scale, since they were developed based on job dedication scale. As shown in table 2, while all the items for job dedication survived throughout the iterative process, four items for perceived accountability and 10 items for behavioral norms were dropped. In the case of behavioral norms, the initial factor analysis revealed two-factor structure. The review of the question items suggests that the items loaded on the first factor seem to reflect "consequence of individual interpretation," while the items loaded on the second factor seem to reflect "behavioral norms presented to the subjects." Since the meaning of presented behavioral norms appear to be closer to the definition of behavioral norms used in this study (i.e., "expectations regarding which behaviors are

appropriate and which behaviors are inappropriate"), only the second factor were utilized subsequent hypothesis testing. Also, the initial factor analysis of the perceived accountability items also revealed two-factor structure. However, the items loaded on the second factor were not interpretable because of their equivalent loadings on the first factor. Therefore, only the first factor was utilized for the hypotheses testing.

In the case of the personality traits (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness), the initial factor analysis rendered five-factor structure. The examination of the question items revealed that some extraversion and agreeableness items that

〈Table 1〉 Factor Structure of Supervisory Feedback, Task significance, Autonomy, and Task Identity

Items	SFB	TS	AT	TI
My supervisor has made it perfectly clear to me how well he/she thinks I am doing on my job.	**.93**	.15	.09	.04
My supervisor is up-front with me about how well he/she thinks I am doing my job.	**.93**	.17	.08	.09
My supervisor consistently provides me with information about my job performance.	**.88**	.13	.05	.07
In general, to what extent do the outcomes of your work likely to affect significantly the lives or well-being of other people?	.09	**.86**	.13	.09
This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	.11	**.79**	- .06	.14
The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.	.17	**.77**	.24	.03
The outcome of my job is important to other people's well-being or jobs.	.17	**.68**	.27	.18
The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	.02	.04	**.83**	.04
The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	.12	.13	**.78**	.18
I am left pretty much on my own to do my job.	.06	.22	**.70**	.05
The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	.08	.10	.16	**.88**
The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.	.09	.18	.07	**.86**
Percentage of variance explained	21.74	21.67	16.51	13.49

Note: n = 409, Maximum Likelihood extraction and Varimax rotation. Total variance explained: 73.43%
SFB: Supervisor's Feedback; TS: Task Significance; AT: Autonomy; TI: Task Identity

〈Table 2〉 Factor Structure of job dedication, perceived accountability, and behavioral norms

Items	JD	PAJD	BNJD
While performing his or her job, how likely is it that this person would…			
Work hard.	**.82**	.11	.08
Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	**.80**	.09	- .05
Display proper appearance and bearing.	**.79**	.03	- .02
Put in extra hours to get work done on time.	**.79**	.09	.04
Avoid shortcuts.	**.78**	.07	- .01
Ask for a challenging work assignment.	**.75**	.05	.08
Pay close attention to important details.	**.72**	.08	.05
Defend the supervisor's decisions.	**.69**	.13	.03
Follow the supervisor's instructions.	**.68**	.04	.04
Take the initiative to solve a work problem.	**.67**	.12	.09
Exercise personal discipline and self-control.	**.66**	.07	.07
Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	**.61**	.14	- .04
I feel accountable to my supervisory for…			
Working hard.	.13	**.77**	.08
Persisting to overcome obstacles to complete a task.	.09	**.76**	.14
Tackling a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	.06	**.68**	.24
Putting in extra hours to get work done on time.	.05	**.68**	.21
Avoiding shortcuts.	.09	**.64**	.04
Asking for a challenging work assignment.	.04	**.62**	.09
Paying close attention to important details.	.12	**.61**	.09
Defending the supervisor's decisions.	.08	**.61**	.05
Following the supervisor's instructions.	.10	**.56**	.11
Taking the initiative to solve a work problem.	.09	**.55**	.10
In my company…			
My coworkers work hard.	- .02	.13	**.89**
My coworkers persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	.01	.12	**.89**
My coworkers follow the supervisor's instructions.	.09	.12	**.56**
My coworkers defend the supervisor's decisions.	.05	.21	**.36**
Percentage of variance explained	24.96	17.08	8.54

Note: n = 409, Maximum Likelihood extraction and Varimax rotation, Total variance explained: 53.29%
JD: Job Dedication; PAJD: Perceived Accountability for Job Dedication; BNJD: Behavioral Norms for Job Dedication

were negatively stated were loaded on the fourth and the fifth factor. Eliminating these items generated three factors with .50 or higher factor loadings.

The final set of measurement items from the process was rechecked for internal consistency. The alpha coefficients of all the final set of the measures were acceptable (see table 4).

Since all of the hypotheses developed in

〈Table 3〉 Factor Structure of Personality Traits: Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness

Items	EXT	AGREE	CON
I am the life of the party.	**.73**	.13	.08
I don't talk a lot.	**.72**	.10	.07
I feel comfortable around people.	**.72**	.26	.19
I keep in the background.	**.71**	-.11	-.05
I start conversations.	**.69**	.10	-.03
I have little to say.	**.69**	.18	.10
I talk to a lot of different people at parties.	**.68**	-.13	.21
I don't like to draw attention to myself.	**.64**	-.04	-.02
I don't mind being the center of attention.	**.63**	-.01	.07
I am quiet around strangers.	**.56**	.37	.29
I sympathize with others' feelings.	-.02	**.76**	.12
I am not interested in other people's problems.	.00	**.73**	.10
I have a soft heart.	.09	**.71**	.03
I am not really interested in others.	.09	**.67**	.29
I take time out for others.	.12	**.65**	.03
I feel others' emotions.	.25	**.63**	.20
I make people feel at ease.	.14	**.58**	.44
I am interested in people.	-.11	**.57**	.12
I am exacting in my work.	.02	.07	**.73**
I am always prepared.	.07	.06	**.70**
I like order.	.00	.20	**.67**
I pay attention to details.	.03	.16	**.65**
I follow a schedule.	.12	.13	**.64**
I get chores done right away.	.18	.15	**.58**
Percentage of variance explained	20.00	16.42	13.25

Note: n = 409, Maximum Likelihood extraction and Varimax rotation, Total variance explained: 49.67%
EXT: Extraversion; AGREE: Agreeableness; CON: Conscientiousness

this study are stated in the form of a correlation between two variables, correlation analysis provides a piece of evidence supporting or rejecting those hypotheses. As shown in the Table 1, all the job-related factors except subordinates' organizational level and job experience significantly correlated with the perceived accountability. Although all the same factors except task identity and behavioral norms also significantly correlated with job dedication, their coefficients are much smaller than those with perceived accountability.

Although the correlation analysis rendered supporting evidence for the hypothesis 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, correlation coefficients do not exclude the influence of potential covariates on each of the bivariate relationships. Therefore, five hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to exclude an alternative explanation that the variance in job dedicated behaviors explained by the perceived accountability derived from job-related factors is actually the same variance due to the individual variables. In each of the analyses, individual difference variables (i.e., three personality traits, organizational level, and job experience) were entered first. Then, each of the job-related variables was entered at the second step.

Table 5 summarizes the results of five hierarchical regression analyses in terms of

〈Table 4〉 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics[a]

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Job Dedication	5.81	.86	(.93)[b]											
2. Perceived Account.	5.66	.93	.23**	(.88)										
3. Task Significance	5.13	1.40	.14**	.30**	(.82)									
4. Autonomy	5.33	1.28	.18**	.32**	.35**	(.70)								
5. Task Identity	5.10	1.55	.05	.25**	.32**	.25**	(.78)							
6. Supervisor Feedback	5.22	1.54	.25**	.40**	.35**	.19**	.20**	(.92)						
7. Behavioral Norms	4.82	1.14	.08	.34**	.22**	.17**	.26**	.25**	(.79)					
8. Org'al level	5.67	2.65	.27**	.08	.18**	.13*	-.01	.13*	-.01	(-)				
9. Job Experience	3.14	4.81	.18**	-.03	.15**	.07	.01	.03	-.06	.19**	(-)			
10. Conscientiousness	5.46	.94	.16**	.42**	.21**	.16**	.15**	.34**	.19**	.07	.02	(.77)		
11. Extraversion	4.66	1.20	.04	.20**	.05	.07	.05	.14**	-.06	.06	-.04	.26**	(.88)	
12. Agreeableness	5.42	.92	.04	.34**	.20**	.15**	.06	.15**	.11*	.01	.05	.42**	.24**	(.84)

Note: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

a. $n = 344$. b. The figures in parentheses on the diagonal are Cronbach's α.

〈Table 5〉 Summary of Regression Analyses on Perceived Accountability

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	ΔR^2	Total Adj. R^2
Step1					
Conscientiousness	.34	.05	.35**	.04**	.24**
Agreeableness	.17	.05	.18**	.05**	
Extraversion	.06	.04	.08	.04	
Subordinates' Organizational Level	.02	.02	.05	.06	
Subordinates' Job Experience	.00	.01	.01	.08	
Step2[a]					
Task Significance	.13	.03	.21**	.04**	.26**
Task Identity	.13	.03	.21**	.05**	.28**
Autonomy	.15	.04	.21**	.04**	.27**
Supervisor Feedback	.15	.03	.26**	.06**	.28**
Behavioral Norms	.23	.04	.29**	.08**	.31**

Note: n = 344: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

a. Results from five separate hierarchical regression analyses in which the effects of individual difference variables are controlled at step 1

〈Table 6〉 Unique Contribution of Each Situational Factor on Perceived Accountability

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1				.24**
Conscientiousness	.35	.05	.36**	
Extraversion	.17	.05	.17**	
Agreeableness	.06	.04	.08	
Subordinates' Organizational Level	.01	.02	.04	
Subordinates' Job Experience	.03	.01	.02	
Step 2				.14**
Task Significance	.03	.03	.05	
Autonomy	.09	.04	.12**	
Task Identity	.07	.03	.11*	
Supervisor Feedback	.09	.03	.16**	
Behavioral Norms	.15	.04	.20**	

Note: n = 344: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$: Total R^2 = .38

the statistics of the focal job-related factor at the second step. As shown in table 5, all the job-related factors explained variance in perceived accountability above and beyond those explained by the individual factors. Meantime, when all the job-related factors were simultaneously regressed to examine their relative importance in accounting for the variance in perceived accountability, behavioral norms were shown most important, followed by supervisor feedback, autonomy, and task identity (see table 6.) However, task significance that was significant table 5 became insignificant. This means that the variance in perceived accountability accounted for by task significance might also be explained by other variables. Therefore, the current data seem to support Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, and 6, but not the Hypotheses 2.

In turn, perceived accountability significantly correlated with job dedication. Even though all the individual difference variables, except extraversion and agreeableness, were significantly correlated with job dedication as expected, the relationship between perceived accountability and job dedication was still shown significant in a hierarchical regression analysis in which the influence of the individual difference variables on job dedication was controlled (see table7). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported.

To test the hypotheses on the mediation

〈Table 7〉 A Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Perceived Accountability on Job Dedication

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	ΔR^2
Step 1				.11**
Conscientiousness	.15	.05	.16**	
Agreeableness	-.03	.06	-.03	
Extraversion	-.01	.04	-.01	
Subordinates' Organizational Level	.08	.02	.24**	
Job Experience	.02	.01	.13*	
Step 2				.04**
Conscientiousness	.08	.06	.09	
Agreeableness	-.07	.06	-.07	
Extraversion	-.02	.04	-.03	
Subordinates' Organizational Level	.08	.02	.22**	
Subordinates' Job Experience	.02	.01	.12*	
Perceived Accountability for Job Dedication	**.21**	**.06**	**.22****	

Note: n = 344; * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$; Total R^2 = .15

effects of perceived accountability, a series of regression analyses was conducted to examine four conditions of causal step method suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Judd and Kenny (1981). They suggested that a mediation relationship among variable X, Y, and Z exists (i.e., X → Y → Z) if four conditions are met: 1) the path from variable X to variable Y must be significant; 2) the path from variable Y to variable Z must be significant; 3) the path from variable X to variable Z should be significant; 4) the coefficient of variable X on Z should be no longer significant in a regression model that

〈Table 8〉 Mediation Effect of Perceived Accountability on Job-related Factors - Job Dedication[a]

Models	Situational Factors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
1	Task Significance → Perceived Accountability	.13	.03	.21**
2	Task Significance → Job Dedication	.03	.03	.05
3	Task Significance → Job Dedication	.00	.03	.01
	Perceived Accountability → Job Dedication	.21	.06	.22**
1	Task Identity → Perceived Accountability	.13	.03	.21**
2	Task Identity → Job Dedication	.01	.03	.02
3	Task Identity → Job Dedication	.01	.03	.03
	Perceived Accountability → Job Dedication	.22	.06	.22**
1	Autonomy → Perceived Accountability	.15	.04	.21**
2	Autonomy → Job Dedication	.09	.03	.14**
3	Autonomy → Job Dedication	.06	.04	.09
	Perceived Accountability → Job Dedication	.19	.06	.19**
1	Supervisor Feedback → Perceived Accountability	.15	.03	.26**
2	Supervisor Feedback → Job Dedication	.11	.03	.20**
3	Supervisor Feedback → Job Dedication	.09	.03	.16**
	Perceived Accountability → Job Dedication	.17	.06	.17**
1	Behavioral Norms → Perceived Accountability	.23	.04	.29**
2	Behavioral Norms → Job Dedication	.05	.04	.07
3	Behavioral Norms → Job Dedication	.01	.04	.01
	Perceived Accountability → Job Dedication	.20	.06	.21**

Note: a. Summarized results of 15 separate hierarchical regression analysis, in which the effects of individual difference variables are controlled at the first step in all the models.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

includes variable Y. While the first two conditions are always required, a less stringent variation of the causal step method does not require latter two conditions (1981). When variable Y completely mediates the effect of variable X on variable Z, the direct relationship between X and Z may not be significant. Also, when the coefficient of variable X in a model including variable Y is not zero, mediation is regarded as partial.

In the table 8, the first model was to check the first condition, that is, a significant relationship between job-related factors and perceived accountability. The second model was to examine the third condition, that is, a relationship between job-related factors and job dedication. In the third model, job dedication was regressed both on job-related factors and perceived accountability to check the second condition and the fourth condition.

Table 8 summarizes 15 separate hierarchical regression analyses, in which the effects of individual difference variables were controlled at the first step. Perceived accountability fully mediated the effects of autonomy on job dedication. That is, the effect of autonomy on job dedication became no longer significant when regressed with perceived accountability. In contrast, supervisors' feedback was still shown to have direct effect on job dedication, while their indirect effects through perceived accountability were significant (β = .16, p < .01). In the case of task significance, task identity, and behavioral norms were shown to have neither direct effect nor indirect effect through perceived accountability on job dedication both in model 2 and model 3. These results indicate that only hypothesis 9 and 10 are supported by the current data set, but not hypothesis 7, 8, and 11.

Ⅵ. Discussion & Conclusion

Inspired by a research question: "What can managers do to encourage their subordinates to engage in CP?" this study was conducted to establish a theoretical linkage between job-related factors and contextual performance by employing perceived accountability as a potential mediator. It was suggested that managers may be able to encourage employees to display CP behaviors by influencing their perceptions of accountability for job dedication, and that the higher level of accountability people experience, the more likely they display job dedication behaviors. Drawing on relevant literature and theories, it was hypothesized that people would experience higher perceived accountability for job dedication behaviors, (1) when they think that their tasks are important, (2) when they perform a complete task from the be-

ginning to the end, (3) when they have enough autonomy in carrying out tasks, (4) when their supervisors provide appropriate performance feedback, and (5) when they perceive clear behavioral norms shared by people.

A series of analyses on a data set of 344 dyadic sample rendered evidence supporting the general premise of the current study. That is, all the job-related factors positively correlated with perceived accountability as expected and all the job-related factors except task significance explained unique variance in perceived accountability above and beyond those by other job-related factors. In turn, perceived accountability not only explained a significant amount of variance in job dedication even after the effects of individual difference variables were controlled, it also fully mediated the effects of autonomy and partially that of supervisor feedback on job dedication. Contrary to the hypotheses, the effects of task identity, task significance, and behavioral norms on job dedication were not mediated by perceived accountability.

Although not all the hypotheses were supported, the current data seems to support the premise that managers would be able to induce people's CP behaviors through heightened perceived accountability by arranging some job-related factors. And, such empirical corroboration will extend our knowledge about people's contextual performance through both theoretical contribution to the current literature and provision of practical implications for HR managers. First, the significant relationship between perceived accountability and job dedication even after the effects of individual difference variables were controlled suggests that CP behaviors cannot be totally discretionary if they can be induced by managers through appropriate setup of social, organizational, and psychological environments. While contextual performance has been assumed to be exhibited as a matter of individual discretion (Motowidlo et al., 1997) and less constrained by work characteristics than task performance (Borman et al., 1993; Neal & Griffin, 1999), the current finding suggests that contextual performance, like task performance, can be induced from their members by arranging job-related factors such as autonomy and supervisors' feedback.

Second, the empirical corroboration of the relationship between perceived accountability and job dedication also has a practical implication for managers. When CP behaviors can be induced through perceived accountability for the behaviors, managers have alternative means for fostering such behaviors and do not need to depend solely on recruitment and selection. However, these alternative means require managers to exercise more effort for effective and efficient communication. That is, managers need to communicate clearly their expectations on the

performance elements to the employees. As Cumming and Anton (1990) implied, what managers think about the accountability level of their subordinates does not automatically induce CP behaviors. It should be effectively and efficiently communicated to and acknowledged by the subordinates, because subordinates' perception does matter.

Third, the results on the relationships between perceived accountability and job-related factors, combined with the finding on the perceived accountability - job dedication relationship, identify some places where managers can start to foster CP behaviors. Specifically by designing jobs in a way that employees can exercise their own discretion in carrying out tasks and providing subordinates with more feedback on their performance, managers are likely to be able to influence employees' perceived accountability for job dedication behaviors and encourage them to engage in more job dedication behaviors. This also implies that organizational effort to encourage CP behaviors through the recruitment and selection of people who possess the personalities relevant to the behaviors would be much more enhanced, when subsequent HR activities such as job design and supervising are well aligned in a way that managers' expectations on the CP behaviors are effectively communicated to employees (O'Reilly, 1989).

This paper attempted to incorporate several heretofore unexplored but important variables into the current contextual performance literature. However, the current findings should be interpreted with caution because of a couple of limitations. First, the current study is cross-sectional in nature. Although all the hypotheses were developed based upon relevant theories and some indirect evidence shown in the literature, the lack of a longitudinal design precludes asserting causal relationships among the variables. Therefore, the results reported here should not be taken as evidence for causal relationships, because all the figures from the analyses reflect only covariance between the variables at a single point in time.

Another limitation of the current study was entailed by the data collection design. To minimize the negative impact of common method variance, the current study utilized a dyadic sampling procedure. That is, voluntary participants were recruited and asked to pass the supervisor's questionnaire to their supervisors. In this process, two possible cases could not be controlled. First, if someone was not in a good relationship with his/her supervisor, s/he was less likely to participate. Second, even when a person decided to participate, s/he was likely to ask his/her favorite supervisors to fill in the supervisor's questionnaire. These possibilities might have distorted the pattern of the variance shown in the current data. Future

study should take those into account in designing the sampling procedure.

In addition to the limitations due to the sampling procedure, a couple of conceptual aspects should be further considered in future studies on this avenue. Since the current study is an exploratory step, it is obvious that a more comprehensive model incorporating other job-related or work environmental factors that managers can use to facilitate CP behaviors is desirable. Some job characteristics, such as task difficulty, role conflict and ambiguity, and leadership style, seem promising as potential antecedents of perceived accountability. For example, employees may feel less accountable for job dedication when they experience high role conflict and ambiguity than in an opposite case because of a possibly weakened identity - prescription linkage. Also, supervisors' leadership styles and group cohesion seem to deserve future research attention. Subordinates whose supervisors exercise a directive or autocratic leadership style may experience a lower level of perceived accountability for job dedication behaviors than those whose supervisors exercise a democratic or consultative leadership style because of a possibly weakened identity - event linkage due to the direction from the supervisors.

In addition, the current paper limited, for reasons of parsimony, the target audience and target behaviors of perceived accountability to immediate supervisors and job dedication behaviors. However, other types of audiences (i.e., coworkers and clients) can be perceived as an important audience in some situations. For example, people who serve customers at restaurants are likely to perceive as high accountability to customers as to their hall managers for displaying CP behaviors, because their tips are primarily subject to customers' satisfaction. Likewise, the target behaviors of perceived accountability, which were limited to job dedication behaviors in this study, can be extended to other performance elements. Future research efforts that examine perceived accountability for different target audience and target behaviors at the same time would bring considerable insight on how to facilitate people's CP behaviors.

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맥락성과 유인 요인으로서의 해명의무감과 직무특성: 조직구성원의 맥락성과를 추동하기 위해 관리자가 할 수 있는 일은 무엇인가?

김승용*

요 약

본 논문은 조직의 생존과 성장에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 알려진 조직구성원의 맥락성과행위(Contextual Performance)를 단순한 구성원의 자발적인 참여에 의존하기보다는 보다 적극적인 관리적 경영활동을 통해 유인할 수 있기 위해 관리자 혹은 경영자가 무엇을 할 수 있을 것인지에 대한 시사점을 도출하기 위해 준비되었다. 이러한 시사점 도출을 위해 본 논문은 관리자가 구성원들의 물리적, 심리적 및 사회/조직적 직무환경들을 적절히 조정/관리함으로써 맥락성과행위에 대해 구성원들이 느끼는 해명의무감을 제고할 수 있으며, 이렇게 제고된 해명의무감은 궁극적으로 구성원들의 실제 맥락행위를 수반할 것이라는 기본가설을 설정하였다. 이러한 기본 가설은 과업중요도(task significance), 과업피드백(task feedback), 기능의 다양성(skill variety), 과업정체성(task identity), 과업자율성(autonomy), 그리고 직무규범(behavioral norms)와 같은 직무환경변수들과 맥락성과(contextual performance)간에 해명의무감(perceived accountability)을 매개변수로 설정한 연구모형으로 구체화되었다. 344개 상사-부하 매칭 데이터에 대한 일련의 다중회귀분석 결과는 상기한 기본가설을 전체적으로 지지하는 것으로 나타났다. 즉, 대부분의 직무관련 요인들은 구성원들의 해명의무감에 긍정적 영향을 미쳤으며, 해명의무감은 직무헌신(job dedication)으로 측정된 맥락성과에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 이 과정에서 자율성과 과업피드백이 맥락성과에 미치는 영향은 해명의무감에 의해 각각 전체 및 부분 매개되는 것으로 나타났다. 이러한 결과는 조사대상자의 성격요인과 직무경험을 통제한 상태에서 얻어진 결과로서, 맥락성과행위는 기본적으로 구성원의 개인의 성격이나 가치에 의해서 도출된다는 그 동안의 연구결과에 더하여 관리자가 맥락성과행위를 추동하기 위해 어떠한 추가적인 관리활동 해야 할 것인지에 대한 시사점을 제시하고 있다.

주제어: 직무특성요인, 조직시민행동, 맥락성과, 해명의무감

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