



MASTER THESIS

**Various employee-based factors associated with
job performance: Exploring the ABC-model of work
floor employee functioning**

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ABSTRACT

Individual job performance remains of high relevance for organizations. The most qualified way to examine work floor employee functioning, however, remains underexplored. This empirical field study introduces a triadic model which explains job performance based on the finding that most studied process variables can be structured into either affective, behavioral, or cognitive, constructs. Therefore, a) job satisfaction, b) relation-oriented behavior, and c) self-efficacy are introduced to jointly predict job performance. The explorative character of this study is underpinned by the extensive scope and a pioneering data collection method. In total 9678 minutes of actual team meetings were recorded to code and analyze interpersonal behaviors of 1601 employees. In addition, survey data for job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and job performance exist for the same sample. The results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed the model, as well as all three predictors, to be statistically highly significant. In the end, practical implications and the limitations of this study are discussed. The introduced model built of abc-type employee-based factors serves as a good starting point to sketch work floor functioning of the employee. Theories of motivation, social cognitive theory, as well as broaden-and-built theory are combined in the model. For future research it is recommended to use the model to examine mediating effects of the abc-factors in order to understand underlying processes of employee functioning. Examples are discussed in detail.

Key words: job satisfaction, relation-oriented behavior, self-efficacy, job performance, triadic model – abc-model, video-observation method

1 INTRODUCTION

‘Work to live’ instead of ‘live to work’ has become the dominant motto in Western Europe, which implies that the most determining factors for high job performance is to be found within the employee. In today’s competitive environment it is more than ever necessary to understand what drives the individuals on the work floor. How to influence job performance is one of the earliest concerns within the field of organizational research. Therefore, it is often seen as the most central construct in organizational psychology (Alessandri, Borgogni, & Latham, 2017; Timothy A Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001).

Job performance is an organizationally valuable behavior, executed by employees (Alessandri et al., 2017; Motowidlo & Kell, 2012; Murphy, 1989; Rotundo & Rotman, 2002). More precisely, job performance refers to “scalable actions, behavior, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals” (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000, p. 216). In light of the great complexity and impact of individual job performance to the aggregate organizational level, practitioners and scholars are still interested in gaining understanding of the antecedents of employees’ job performance. Selection, training programs, and motivational interventions rely on the findings of various studies elaborating the determinants of job performance and their relationships with more distal variables. Some scholars even stress the relation of individual job performance and how well people thrive at the societal level (Pandey Jatin, 2019; Rotundo & Rotman, 2002). Their argument is that teams, organization and societies exist in codependency with another. Societal resources aid employees to perform in their job and are therefore distal antecedents to job performance. None withstanding the importance of understanding job performance and its very early impetus for organizational research, empirical attempts to define the construct more precisely were made not until the last decades of the 20th century (Rotundo & Rotman, 2002). Then, many different approaches have been taken by various researchers to define job performance in order to get to know what should be actually measured. ‘Task performance’, ‘contextual performance’, ‘organizational citizenship behaviors’ and ‘counterproductivity’ are common broad dimensions found to build up job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Moreover, there have been numerous studies classifying the predictors of job performance (including, e.g. Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016; Frieder, Wang, & Oh, 2018; LePine, Zhang, Crawford, & Rich, 2016; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer III, & Roth, 1998). An overview of studied models where employee variables are causally linked to different aspects of performance dimensions is given by Viswesvaran and

Ones (2000) (p. 223). In summary, ability (in particular cognitive ability) and personality (in particular conscientiousness) have been empirically confirmed as gross categorizations to be promising antecedents of job performance. More importantly, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) also concluded that each performance dimension is complexly determined: “[..] that it is impossible to specify a sole cause or antecedent of a particular dimension of job performance”. In addition, Pandey Jatin (2019) criticizes the specificity and limitation of past studies, and states “there has not yet been a thorough review of literature which shows the factors affecting job performance holistically without bracketing concepts or contexts.”

Therefore, developing a framework with those predictors to model generic variables that affect job performance has not done before. Studying a correlation between single isolated predictor variables and job performance is a reduced model, which tend to lack good field replication. Hence, more realistic assumptions must be made in order to explain variance in employee performance.

In this thesis I stress the need of a model of determinants that more fully assesses employee functioning in order to understand what drives his/her performance on the job. In their systematic review of 205 articles within organizational research Fischer, Dietz, and Antonakis (2017) found that most studied process variables could be structured into either affective, behavioral, or cognitive constructs. In regard to that finding, a combination of affective, behavioral and cognitive (abc-) variables will serve in this study to introduce and test such a triadic model. The purpose of the present study is to show that three different domains of employee functioning should be considered in order to explain job performance. The study contributes to organizational psychology by its explorative character as a first empirical inquiry toward a triadic model that serves as a holistic framework with generic antecedents of job performance. Hence, this thesis addresses the following central research question:

“What abc-type employee-based factors are associated with job performance?”

This thesis is structured as follows. In the next chapter theoretical foundations are provided on the abc-predictor variables, which are job satisfaction, interpersonal behavior, and competence. Their relevance and implications for job performance will be explained. In this chapter I will elaborate on the nature of each variable and its position in regard to the other variables. In chapter 3 the methodology used in the present study is described, including its study design, sample, measures, and procedures. The data analysis and the results are presented in chapter 4. The fifth chapter provides a discussion of the results, which also holds practical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research. Finally, a conclusion is drawn in chapter 6.

2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In this study, we examine the abc's of employee-based factors influencing job performance. In particular the affective, behavioral and cognitive characteristics, as manifested in the variables of a) job satisfaction b) relation-oriented behavior, and c) self-efficacy are tested within a model, to jointly predict job performance.

In the following the predictors are addressed in chronological order. First, we start by addressing the performative importance of job satisfaction, being the affective employee-based factor, in paragraph 2.1. Then relation-oriented behavior and self-efficacy, as behavioral and cognitive job-based variable, are presented in paragraph 2.2 and paragraph 2.3, respectively. Within each paragraph the empirical background of the key construct and underlying theories to support the relationship of each employee characteristic with job performance are provided. In the end, the three hypotheses are presented.

2.1 Affect: Job satisfaction and job performance

Various studies stress the importance of positive emotions and indicate that theory and empirical evidence support the link between positive emotions and job outcomes. As an example, the job satisfaction-job performance relationship has a long history and has been studied exhaustively in industrial and organizational psychology (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Christen, Iyer, & Soberman, 2006; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Timothy A Judge et al., 2001). In an experiment Isen and Means (1983) showed that people, who were made happy, performed a complex task more efficiently than control subjects. Also, Staw and Barsade (1993) found that positive affect facilitates decision-making among managers.

At one point, due to the very influential meta-analysis of Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985), claiming the inexistence of a relationship, the amount of studies regarding the job satisfaction-job performance linkage declined. Timothy A Judge et al. (2001) found that one fourth fewer studies (with the key words 'job satisfaction' and 'job performance') were published in the 1990s compared to the 1980s.

Until today, findings regarding the job satisfaction-job performance linkage are ambiguous. As well as influential reviews falsify the linkage (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985), other influential meta-analysis do confirm the satisfaction-performance linkage (Bowling et al., 2010; Timothy A Judge et al., 2001).

Reason for the indecisive findings might be different approaches regarding the linkage. In their review, Timothy A Judge et al. (2001) gathered seven models that picture studies on

the various possibilities of linkages between job satisfaction and job performance. The first and at the same time oldest model, whereby job satisfaction has a (causal) effect on job performance, was well-founded in the human relations movement and the Hawthorne studies back in the 1930s (Timothy A Judge et al., 2001; Roethlisberger, 1941). A morale-productivity linkage was set that early, assuming a higher morale would lead to higher productivity (Timothy A Judge et al., 2001; Strauss, 1968). The underlying assumptions are subject matter in the attitude literature of social psychology. The rationale is, attitudes towards one's job predict behaviors on the job. In particular, as shown by various studies, in order for attitudes to predict behavior well, they need to be congruent regarding either generality or specificity (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Kraus, 1995).

“Attitudes refer to a positive, negative, or mixed reaction to a person, object, or idea” (Brehm, Kassin, & Fein, 2002). Historically seen, attitudes could hold aspects of affective, behavioral and cognitive reactions, which made the construct vague. Following Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) recommendation, that attitudes primarily reflect the affective component, organizational researchers defined job satisfaction as an affective state (Staw & Barsade, 1993). In general, job satisfaction is treated as an attitude, employees hold about their job. More precisely we examine *affective* job satisfaction, because of the affect-performance linkage. Affective job satisfaction is an “overall positive emotional” (Moorman, 1993) response to a job, a positive feeling about the job as a whole (Thompson & Phua, 2012).

Job satisfaction can also be conceptualized as a cognitive construct: cognitive job satisfaction “is based on a more logical and rational evaluation of [...] job conditions” (Moorman, 1993) and is therefore based on “evaluations of conditions, opportunities or outcomes”, such as pay, hours or promotion (Moorman, 1993; Thompson & Phua, 2012). Hence, the accuracy of conceptualization and operationalization of job satisfaction is important to the advancement of job satisfaction research, in matters of positive emotions on performance outcomes. To be specific, another reason for the indecisive findings on job satisfaction, as stated earlier, might be the finding that too often studies conceptualize affective job satisfaction, but operationalize cognitive job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Timothy A Judge et al., 2001; Thompson & Phua, 2012).

Long established theories of motivation, have been used to hypothesize how positive affect influences employee performance (George & Brief, 1996; Wright & Staw, 1999). According to goal-setting theory one could argue, that optimistic states let individuals aim for higher goals or more difficult tasks, which contributes to higher performance in the end (Locke & Latham, 1990). According to attribution theory individuals in high positive affect assign

causes of failure to external circumstances and are therefore persistent in the eye of setbacks or negative feedback (Forgas, 1992; Wright & Staw, 1999).

Positive psychology, a younger domain of psychology, also offers a model that is in favor of the positive emotion-performance linkage. The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001) states that positive emotions “broaden” individual’s repertoire of thoughts and behaviors in a way that the individual is likely to build more physical, intellectual, and social resources. Experiencing positive emotions enables people to use these emotions to shape their experiences into something bigger, such as building relationships or gaining skills. For example, in an experiment it could be shown that people who experienced positive emotions had a greater scope of attention performing a visual processing choice task afterwards (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Thus, positive affect of employees leads to benefits, which should be in favor of job performance.

Following the outline above, it can be argued, that overall positive feelings toward the job, thus affective job satisfaction, are related to general behaviors on the job, whereby job performance is the most prominent. Timothy A Judge et al. (2001) found only two studies which have examined the unidirectional effect of the satisfaction-performance linkage, and their findings are indecisive. Therefore, our study can help to gain more insight into the direct relationship from job satisfaction, operationalized as positive emotion, to job performance. We therefore can help to disprove the often prevalent view within organizational psychology, that the most focal attitude about the job (job satisfaction) is unrelated to the most focal behavior on the job (job performance). Furthermore, we do the call of reconceptualizing and correct operationalization of job satisfaction as positive emotion justice.

Hypothesis 1: Affective job satisfaction is positively related to job performance; the more satisfied the employee feels with his/her job, the better he/she performs at the job.

2.2 Behavior: Relation-oriented job behavior and job performance

As collaborations with colleagues become increasingly important to meet the requirements of modern jobs, coworker relationships need to be understood and managed effectively. A reason why a relationship-based behavior variable is included in our model, is the indicated context of how positive affect promotes interpersonal relationships (Brief & Weiss, 2002; George & Brief, 1996; Timothy A Judge et al., 2001; Matlay, 1999; Wright & Staw, 1999) and therefore jointly influence job performance. Most importantly, relationship-oriented behaviors have been positively related to performance measures, as well as to job satisfaction, which has been

numerously confirmed within transformational leadership research (B. M. Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; M. A. Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2019; Timothy A Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Relation-oriented behavior is one category of actual behaviors, which leaders and employees can adopt while working together. Research regarding actual behaviors is well-founded within the context of leadership research. The objective has been to determine which leader behaviors influence the performance of his/her followers, which is a rather leader-centric approach. The emerging philosophy, that employees are not passive recipients, is grounded in the younger followership movement (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). Nevertheless, employee behavior is still predominantly researched in the context of the leader, what the term ‘follower’ already indicates. Their behavior is seen to occur in hierarchical relationships with leaders and therefore directed at the leader, who receives and responds to the follower behavior (Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). Therefore, employees get attributed different behaviors than leaders. This study contributes to the field of followership research by showing that followers, employees respectively, may show the same behaviors, here relation-oriented behavior, as leaders. We thus apply the same behavioral dimensions, which originate from leadership behavior research. Another contribution will be the method of measuring behavior. The behavior will be objectively assessed by observing real behavior in the field, instead of subjective self-report surveys. Also, we combine different relation-oriented behavior dimensions, as contemplated by Piccolo et al. (2012). Finally, by showing the existence of the relation between employee relation-oriented behavior and job performance, we demonstrate that relation-oriented behavior, is not only beneficial to the recipient, but as well to the addressor.

Within his taxonomy, Yukl (2012) introduced one of four meta-categories of behaviors, whereof one is relation-oriented behavior. The overall objective of relation-oriented behavior “is to increase the quality of human resources and relations” (Yukl, 2012). Also, Bass’ (1985) transformational leadership theory serves as taxonomy for relation-oriented behavior. Within that theory, the leader is seen to build follower “commitment to achieve goals and challenging/inspiring/motivating them to perform” (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Transformational behavior is directed to increase the engagement of the followers (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017). Transformational or relation-oriented behaviors help to form relationships by attending to follower needs, helping to reach followers potential, and to motivate followers to higher levels of performance (Piccolo et al., 2012). For the purpose of the present study, the content of the definitions above could be revised to addressor and recipient, instead of leader and follower, as the employee addresses the relation-oriented behavior to receptive coworkers.

In the present study we make use of the four relation-oriented behaviors of the transformational category: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. An employee uses individualized consideration, by showing support and attending to the colleagues' needs for growth and development (Bass, 1985; Bass & Bass, 2009; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), or intellectual stimulation, by activating and encouraging creativity regarding skill usage (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). By showing inspirational motivation, an employee articulates a vision that is appealing to colleagues and broadens their interests (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Piccolo et al., 2012). Last, through idealized influence behavior an employee behaves in charismatic ways that cause colleagues to identify with the employee and to switch from self-interest to focus on interests of the employee and of the group (Bass, 1985; Piccolo et al., 2012). In addition, not included in a broader theory, humor and personal information sharing are relation-oriented behaviors, because they foster human relations (Lehmann-Willenbrock & Allen, 2014; Yukl, 2012).

How employee's relation-oriented behavior leads to positive work outcome, might be explained by underlying forces of coworker relationships. It is found that coworker relationship is related to work outcome measures, e.g. job performance in particular (Li & Hung, 2009; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Seers, 1989). Based on social-exchange theory, built on the assumption of reciprocity, it is very likely that employees, who find themselves in high-quality coworker relationships, will behave in ways that is equal beneficial to their coworkers (Li & Hung, 2009). Employees are willing to assist others and share information, give emotional support and feedback, which in turn positively related to job satisfaction and job performance (Liden et al., 2000). Another underlying reason, why relation-oriented behavior is expected to be related to job performance, might be the subjective norm, described by Ajzen (Ajzen, 1991). Behavior is not only influenced by attitudes, such as job satisfaction, but by our beliefs about what others think we should do. Being in coworker relationships, might emphasize social pressure, which employees want to conform. The subjective norm might lead employees with social ties, as indicated by relation-oriented behavior, to perform well at their job.

Also, in favor of our affective predictor in our model, findings show that being in a positive mood encourages helping behavior (Brief & Weiss, 2002; George & Brief, 1996; Staw & Barsade, 1993). Individuals, with positive affect may be more successful, not only because of their work effort, but because they master in interpersonal aspects of their work life, thus function beyond work requirements. Relation-oriented behavior is behavior directed to positive social interaction and demonstrates one's willingness to work in cooperation with others (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). A person who has positive emotions

puts effort in social interactions and with the benefits of social interactions is therefore likely to function well.

Heaphy and Dutton (2008) argue that more positive social interactions in the workplace lead to higher levels of physical health for employees, since it is found that in general social relationships are a significant predictor of human health (Seeman & McEwen, 1996). Therefore, health might be another explanation for how relation-oriented behavior is a predictor of job performance.

Hypothesis 2: Relation-oriented behavior is positively related to job performance; the more relation-oriented behavior the employee displays, the better he/she performs at the job.

2.3 Cognition: Competence and job performance

Although the competence concept dominated the strategic management literature of the 1990s, the definition of the concept has been inconsistent (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005). In their review Le Deist and Winterton (2005) recap different approaches regarding the usage of the terms ‘competence’ and ‘competency’ and the different approaches of the underlying concepts. There are two ends of the alignment. One end defines *core competence* as aspects of the job, being critical success factors driving performance in organizations, where through organizational capabilities, knowledge and skills become a competitive advantage to the organization, thus a more strategic approach (Chen & Chang, 2011; Le Deist & Winterton, 2005; Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999; Woodruffe, 1991). The other end approaches *human competence* having behavioral and psychosocial characteristics in focus that lead to superior job performances, and being concerned with the extent to which individuals have these critical personal characteristics, thus a Human Resource Management (HRM) perspective (Chen & Chang, 2011; Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999; Mansfield, 2004; McClelland, 1998; Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999; Woodruffe, 1991). Models of competence try to link those individual capabilities of the employee, *human competence*, with the *core competence* of the organization (Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999). Chen and Chang (2011) take the interpretations of strategic management (SM) and HRM literature one step further by adopting the Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) perspective to redefine competence as organizational and individual capabilities that create organizational competitive advantage. However, the field of competencies was and is not neglectable, when it comes to predicting job performance. The influential advocate of competencies, McClelland (1973), gave notably distinction to the field of competence research. He stated that intelligence tests do not predict occupational success,

and that competencies would more successfully predict job performance, compared to traditional tests.

Despite the fact McClelland can be criticized for not defining the concept of competency and for lacking evidence regarding competency testing and the relationship to job performance (Barrett & Depinet, 1991), others followed his idea of the behavioral competency approach. Spencer and Spencer (1993) matured McClelland's work and defined competency as follows: "Competencies are underlying characteristics of people, and indicate ways of behaving or thinking, generalizing across situations and enduring for a reasonably long period of time." (p. 9). After investigations, they included motives, traits, self-concepts, cognitive or behavioral skills, as competencies, thus any characteristic that can be measured and that makes a difference between effective and ineffective employees (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Their work is in line with Dubois (1998), as he defines competencies as characteristics such as knowledge, skills, and thought patterns, that result singularly or in combination in successful performance.

In the light of the competence definition above, self-efficacy, a cognitive variable, will serve in our study as competence measurement. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief in one's ability to successfully perform a task. For that matter, one does not actually need to hold the skills, which are needed to perform the task. Even the belief in mastering the task will positively relate to job performance. A cognitive variable is included in our model, as cognitive processes are involved in learning and retaining behavior (Bandura, 1977), thus performance on the job is also consciously regulated. Moreover, another indication for the implicitness of self-efficacy as a competence measure is provided. Gist (1987) suggested perceived competency relates to self-efficacy, as he stated "perceived competency could be defined as generalized self-efficacy, the conviction that one can successfully carry out a range of actions." (p. 479).

The relationship between self-efficacy and job performance is widely acknowledged. In an extensive literature review on self-efficacy, Bandura and Locke (2003) concluded that self-efficacy is a powerful determinant of job performance. Self-efficacy even explains with how much effort the behavior in question will be shown and how likely obstacles will diminish that behavior (Bandura, 1977). The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, or one's belief of mastery, the more effort people put in that behavior. Also, Spreitzer (1995) suggested with the development of a psychological empowerment measure, that empowerment, whereof self-efficacy is one dimension, results in positive work outcomes.

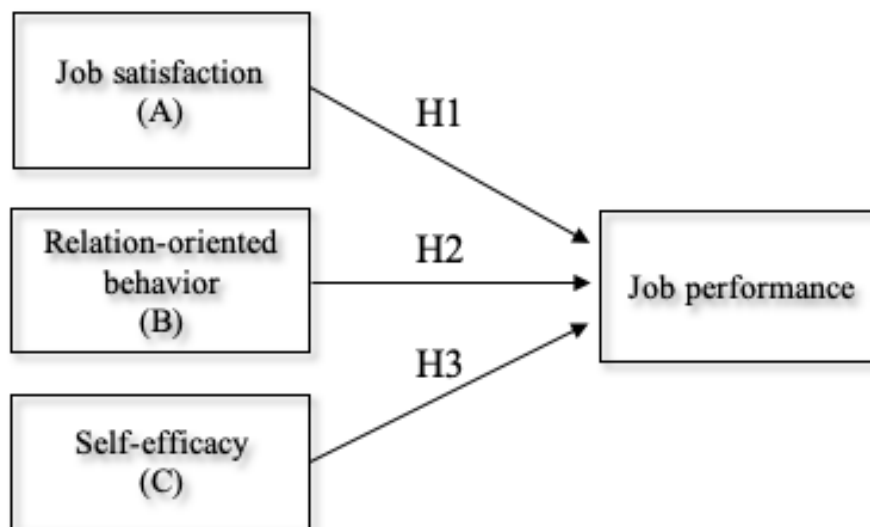
In the present study, we will assess in how far competency-based self-efficacy perceptions can predict job performance within our model.

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy is positively related to job performance; the more self-efficacy the employee holds, the better he/she performs at the job.

2.4 The comprehensiveness of the abc-model

Based on the outline above self-efficacy is a strong variable in respect of job satisfaction and relation-oriented behavior and a worthwhile completion of our model.

Figure 1 Hypothetical abc-model



Self-efficacy, as the chosen cognitive variable, fits our model well, as it has a social component, which reflects our model. One source of self-efficacy is *vicarious experience* (Bandura, 1977; Lunenburg, 2011). Seeing someone who one identifies with mastering a specific task will lead to higher self-efficacy regarding that task (Lunenburg, 2011). In the light of being a team member exposed to employee behavior (also a variable in our model), self-efficacy complements our model.

Regarding the first variable in our model, McDonald and Siegall (1992) examined the impact of self-efficacy on job satisfaction, amongst other variables. They found that self-efficacy regarding a specific task was positively related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, a relationship is found between self-efficacy and job satisfaction by Saks (1995). New employees, whose sources of self-efficacy were elevated through training, showed higher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Forgas, Bower, and Moylan (1990) found in their experiments, that affective state has powerful consequences for achievement attributions. Subjects being in a happy mood, attributed their performance internally.

According to Ajzen (1991) attitudes, which in our case job satisfaction, induce behavior only when one perceives the behavior, here performance on the job, to be within ones control. When one lacks confidence in the ability to show a particular behavior, one is unlikely to form an intention to do so and therefore to engage in that behavior. That process advocates for our model, to include self-efficacy as cognitive variable, which empowers the employee to perform on the job.

Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory might explain why self-efficacy and job satisfaction are well integrated in our model to explain job performance. The self-consistency theory suggests, individuals will be most satisfied when they behave in ways that are consistent with their self-image. Thus, the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance should depend on self-efficacy, because performance is satisfying for individuals with high self-efficacy, only. Reversely, high job performance would not be related to satisfaction for individuals with low self-efficacy, because that would trigger self-perceived inadequacy.

3 METHODS

3.1 Study design and sample

In order to answer the research question a quantitative mixed-method study was chosen. The collected data was obtained through 1) a systematic observation, whereby regularly held team meetings were video-recorded, and observed behaviors were meticulously coded in a lab, and 2) a survey, which was distributed to followers and leaders right after the team meeting.

A large Dutch public sector organization divided into three divisions served as a pool for stratified random sampling. The organization operates throughout the whole Netherlands and data could be obtained from 112 genuine teams out of the three divisions.

The sample consisted of 113 team leaders and 1601 followers, with an average team size of $M=14.29$ persons ($SD = 5.98$; $min = 5$; $max = 34$). One team was excluded from further data analysis, as two leaders were present at the time of the video-recordings.

The sample's demographics were: 35.8 % female; an average age of 49.1 years ($SD = 10.70$); an average job tenure of 24.1 years ($SD = 13.77$); an average department tenure of 10.6 years ($SD = 6.10$); an average team tenure of 3.9 years ($SD = 5.16$); 49.9 % had attained a degree in higher education, while the rest had accomplished an education at a lower level.

3.2 Procedure and measures

Team meetings took place at the normal working place of each team. Three small video cameras were openly placed at fixed positions prior to the meeting. Every person present was fully captured by one of the cameras. No technician or other observer was present during the meetings to keep possible distractions at a minimum level. Besides numerous proposed advantages of conducting video research (Edwards & Westgate, 2005; Smith, 1981), it is also found that the presence of a camera can provoke nervousness and distraction (Borgida, DeBono, & Buckman, 1990). To control for any reactions to the cameras three items were included in the survey, which was administered directly after the recordings. Followers were asked to rate the meeting's representativeness compared to their unrecorded meetings on a scale from 1 'not representative' to 7 'highly representative'. The findings show ($M = 5.16$; $SD = 0.78$) that the recorded meetings were not perceived as different from other team meetings.

In total 9678 minutes of team meetings were recorded for this research. The shortest meeting was held for 49 minutes and the longest for 212 minutes. Every video was systematically and meticulously analyzed by two independent coders. The coders were extensively trained to use a special video-observation software (“The Observer XT” from Noldus Information Technologies, (Noldus, Trienes, Hendriksen, Jansen, & Jansen, 2000)). Besides, the coders were trained to use a behavioral coding scheme (Van der Weide, 2007) with 19 mutually exclusive behaviors. That predeveloped codebook held detailed information on each behavior to ensure reliable and systematic coding (Luff & Heath, 2012; Van der Weide, 2007), and was refined by Hoogeboom and Wilderom (2015). Overall, procedures for video-based behavior coding were based on a study by Hoogeboom, Saeed, Noordzij, and Wilderom (2021). For this study only six relation-oriented behaviors were used for further analysis.

3.2.1 Relation-oriented behavior

The shown relation-oriented behaviors by each individual were coded in the form of frequencies. Due to differences in length of all meetings, frequencies were converted into percentages. After coding, inter-rater reliability analysis was run by the software to show the level of agreement between pairs of data coders, to control for subjective bias of the coders. The sequences in which coders significantly disagreed were highlighted. Those sequences were analyzed and discussed by both coders thoroughly again. In the end, the obtained inter-rater reliability, using a 2-second time interval for agreement, was 82.3 %. For further analysis frequencies were exported into a Microsoft Excel document.

Examples of coded relation-oriented behaviors are ‘agreeing’, ‘intellectual stimulation’, and ‘positive feedback’. For all coded behaviors a behavioral coding scheme is enclosed in the Appendix.

3.2.2 Affective job satisfaction

The remaining constructs were measured by a survey, right after the team meetings. Four items for the self-report measure of job satisfaction were retrieved from Thompson and Phua (2012). They developed the Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction (BIAJS), which serves our requirement for job satisfaction being an affective variable. It is superior to other affective job satisfaction measures, as it is overtly affective with items related to emotions instead of cognitions regarding the job (e.g. hours, conditions, salary). Besides, the scale is systematically validated through qualitative (total N = 28) and quantitative (total N = 901) studies (Thompson & Phua, 2012). It is found to be invariant across different populations and time.

The items are operationalized at the individual-level. To give one example of the four items: “I find real enjoyment in my work”. The response scale ranged from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). Higher scores indicate higher levels of affective job satisfaction. Internal consistency at individual-level was excellent ($\alpha = .91$) (Bühner, 2011).

3.2.3 *Self-efficacy*

The self-efficacy items for our self-report measure originated from Spreitzer (1995) multidimensional measure of psychological empowerment. The empowerment construct holds four cognitions, whereof one is competence or self-efficacy “an individual’s belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill” (Spreitzer, 1995). The three items for self-efficacy focus on efficacy regarding an employee’s work role (Spreitzer, 1995). They are operationalized at the individual-level, e.g. “I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities” or “I have mastered the skills necessary for my job”. The Likert scale for the three items ranged from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 10 (“strongly agree”). Higher scores indicate higher levels of self-efficacy. Internal consistency at individual-level was good ($\alpha = .88$) (Bühner, 2011). Internal consistency at individual-level was good ($\alpha = .88$) (Bühner, 2011).

3.2.4 *Job performance*

All employees were rated by their team leader on the effectiveness of their overall performance. The construct was measured by four performance indicators, retrieved from Gibson and Cooper (2009). Since the items were used at team-level, the items for this study were reworded to fit the individual-level. For example, “This team delivers work of high quality” became “This employee delivers work of high quality”. The other three items were “This employee is effective”, “This employee makes few mistakes”, and “This employee does high quality work”. Team leaders were asked to assess the team member’s effectiveness to avoid a social desirability bias (Krumpal, 2013), when employees would have to rate themselves. The Likert scale for the items ranged from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 10 (“strongly agree”). Higher scores indicate higher levels of job performance. Internal consistency at individual level was excellent ($\alpha = .94$) (Bühner, 2011).

3.3 **Data Analysis**

Since data was provided at individual level, employees’ self-evaluations of job satisfaction and self-efficacy, team leader ratings of employees’ job performance, as well as observed

employees' relation-oriented behaviors could be merged into one data set of a software for statistical analysis. IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 25) was used for all data analysis.

First, a principal component analysis was performed to look into whether the study's variables were stochastically independent, and that no item information was lost by reducing the used items into four principal components, respectively to identify our key constructs while using the least possible items. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .831, representing a relatively good factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .000$), indicating that correlations between items were sufficiently large for performing a principal component analysis (Guttman, 1954; Kaiser, 1960). Only factors with eigenvalues ≥ 1 were considered. Examination of Kaiser's criteria and the scree-plot yielded empirical justification for retaining four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1. The four factors accounted for 68.23 percent of the total variance. The varimax-rotated four-factor solution yielded the most interpretable solution, and all items loaded highly on only one of the four factors. For details see table in Appendix. Thereafter, variable scores for each individual were received by computing the mean of each variable's items.

Next, Pearson correlation coefficients of all variables were computed to preclude multicollinearity, respectively to examine the relationship of job performance with all predicting variables. See Table 1 for descriptive statistics and all correlations. As expected, all predicting variables correlate significantly with job performance. Furthermore, all significant correlations ($p > .001$) are of a positive direction. In detail, job satisfaction correlates positively to job performance ($r = .240, p < .001$), relation-oriented behavior correlates positively to job performance ($r = .181, p < .001$), and self-efficacy correlates positively to job performance ($r = .203, p < .001$). None of the predictor variables of our model correlates greater than .7 means we can exclude multicollinearity between the predictors.

Table 1 Means, standard deviations, and correlations among all variables (N= 941)

	Scale	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Tenure	metric	23.96	13.79					
2. Age	metric	49.06	10.72	.79***				
3. Job performance	1-10	7.06	1.21	-.02	-.06			
4. Job satisfaction	1-7	5.50	1.03	-.04	-.05	.24***		
5. Relation-oriented behavior	freq.	0.24	0.32	.02	.03	.18**	.13**	
6. Self-efficacy	1-7	5.85	0.75	-.03	.01	.20**	.34**	.10**

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$

4 RESULTS

To approach the research question, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of job performance from job satisfaction, relation-oriented behavior, and self-efficacy. For the first block the control variables age and tenure were analyzed. The results revealed a model not to be statistically significant ($p = .09$). Additionally, the R^2 value of .006 of this model suggests that age and tenure account for only 0.6 percent of the variation in job performance.

A different outcome was found in the second block. The predictor variables job satisfaction, relation-oriented behavior, and self-efficacy were added in the second block of analysis. The results revealed the model to be statistically significant ($p < .001$). Additionally, the R^2 value of .116 suggests that the added predictors account for 11.6 percent of the variation in job performance. According to Cohen (1988) p. 412 ff an R^2 of .116 for the overall model is indicative for a moderate goodness-of-fit. Finally, the increase in R^2 was computed to determine the relative contributions of our predictors.

For all details and standardized coefficients, which show the relative importance of each variable of the model, see Table 2.

Table 2 Predictors of job performance: Hierarchical multiple regression

Predictors	Step 1	Step 2
Age	.091**	.109
Tenure	-.130	-.145
Job satisfaction		.181***
Relation-oriented behavior		.151***
Self-efficacy		.158***
R^2	.006 ($p = .09$)	.116 ($p < .000$)
ΔR^2		.11

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$

5 DISCUSSION

In an effort to show the value of an integrative model to predict an employee's performance on the job, it was tested in how far abc-type variables can predict job performance. The introduced triadic model was a first and therefore explorative attempt to test the joint influence of affective, behavioral and cognitive variables on job performance. Therefore, a pioneering and in social sciences yet rarely used measuring method was applied. Field video-observations of actual employee behavior during staff meetings were meticulously coded and analyzed. In particular, the importance of job satisfaction, interpersonal behavior, and self-efficacy were introduced due to their relevant interconnections as predictors of job performance. Thereby, three of the theoretically and practically probably most useful concepts in organizational research have been combined. All three hypotheses regarding the influence of the variables on job performance were supported. In detail, job satisfaction, relation-oriented behavior, and competence were found to be positively related to job performance. Thus, affect, behavior, and cognitions jointly predict job performance. Based on our findings, we can state, that our triadic model holds an important set of psychological aspects, which are adequate conditions to explain job performance at the individual level. The analysis also supports the theoretical background, that positive affect relates to positive interpersonal behaviors and to positive cognitions.

The findings of this study support the assumptions of the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, as all three hypotheses are highly significant and the predictor variables show correlations, even though weak. Positive emotions are expected to broaden other resources of the employee, which are then also in favor of high job performance. It seems that indeed positive emotions, here job satisfaction, have impact on social and intellectual resources of the employee. The employee feels good and has therefore more capacities to engage in social ties and to embrace his/her competence. It was found that high scores on job satisfaction come along with high scores on interpersonal behaviors and competence, which in turn have positive effects on job performance.

By implementing job satisfaction, interpersonal behavior, and self-efficacy as predictors in one model, this study combines motivation theoretical concepts and social cognitive theoretical concepts in one model. Thereby, the research' model has a holistic underlying theoretical rationale. The influence of job satisfaction as positive affect on job performance is explained by theories of motivation, such as goal setting theory. People in a positive state are more likely to set themselves higher goals and are therefore more likely to achieve more. Then, social cognitive theory can explain how high interpersonal behavior and high self-efficacy lead

to high job performance. The belief in one's own abilities is a strong predictor of achieving a task. The belief in one's own mastery, in turn, is related to a social environment where one builds his/her self-efficacy through e.g. vicarious learning and verbal persuasion.

An additional contribution of this study is the finding that relation-oriented behaviors do not only influence job performance, when being recipient of those behaviors. There is also a relationship between performing relation-oriented behaviors and job performance. Employees can show the same micro-behavioral repertoire as effective leaders do, which is in line with various findings (e.g. Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2016; Hoogeboom & Wilderom 2020; Drogulski 2016). The observed interpersonal behaviors in this study originate from leadership research. In particular, behaviors which are associated with transformational leadership theory were measured. In this leader-centric approach, employees are assumed to be passive recipients of such behaviors. Although, the emerging field of followership research extended the leader-centric view by a follower-centric view and a relational approach (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe & Carsten, 2014). This study goes one step further and suggests that the employee behaviors should be totally dissociated from leadership and team aspects. Actual shown employee micro-behaviors should be observed to investigate in how far they elicit inner processes of the employee when performed.

The current study is in support of previous findings of an existing affect-performance relationship (Judge et al., 2001). Thereby, the very influential and often cited review by Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) could be impaired. For many decades it shaped the view of a missing appreciable relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Since job satisfaction showed the highest beta weights in our regression equation, we highlight the importance of the affect-performance linkage. Furthermore, we did respond to the call for investigating the mechanism underlying the affect-performance linkage (Wright & Staw, 1999). We extended the scope of such prior research by extending the linkage through both, a behavioral and cognitive variable. As stipulated, we could indicate that interpersonal behavior and aspects related to a task, here competence, are jointly responsible for the success of job satisfied people. First of all, our model rules out that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is spurious. In addition, our model also hands both theoretically underpinned variables as well as tested variables as a starting point for underlying mechanisms.

In line with the ideas of Li and Hung (2009) and Wright and Staw (1999) we curbed same-source bias by using different rating sources. Employee's performance measures were provided by a superior, since an employee's overall positive disposition may influence the judgement of his/her own performance. Furthermore, relation-oriented behavior measures were

objectively taken through video coding. Yet job satisfaction and competence data were provided by the employees themselves.

5.1 Practical Implications

The tested abc-model contributes to a realistic picture of employee functioning within organizations. Studies testing isolated correlations of single variables cannot do fully justice to the complexity of an employee. Knowing as much determinants as possible that jointly explain job performance, brings scholars and organizations closer to predicting job performance. In the end, specifically tailored programs that improve job performance can contribute in the field on different levels.

In detail, this study shows the additional value of work relationships and one's belief in competence in regard of high job performance. A general feeling of job satisfaction as stand-alone predictor does not explain high job performance sufficiently. Social ties seem to be important for an employee, as he/she performs better the more relation-oriented behavior he/she shows. Therefore, fostering work relationships should be part of an organization's employee relationship management strategy. Organizations should not only adopt practices on regulating relations between organizations and staff, but also adopt practices on regulating relationships between coworkers. Recommended examples of improving peer relationships are connecting employees early during onboarding, conducting team building activities and equipping staff with good communication tools. That way humor, personal informing, agreeing and positive feedback, which are measured relation-oriented behaviors in this study, can be exchanged.

Next to job satisfaction and interpersonal relationships the employee's belief in his/her competences needs to be addressed by organizations in order to achieve high job performance. It showed, the more an employee believes in his/her abilities to perform at the job, the better he/she performs at the job. Ways to foster an employee's self-efficacy hold a social component which is a win-win situation regarding the promotion of social ties. Organizations should provide opportunities for employees to talk to coworkers about their accomplishments at work, who they can either relate to, or are role models. Their success stories will motivate employees to belief in their own future accomplishments. Another way to foster self-efficacy involves the subordinate to manage expectations about success and the acceptance of failure. A leader's impact on social learning was shown in an abductive field study by van Dun and Wilderom (in press). They observed a social environment where 'coactive vicarious learning-by-doing' was indirectly associated with performance. Higher-level leaders, leaders and their teams were antagonists in a vicarious learning situation. Leaders and their team leveled in behaviors and

values due to the leaders' ongoing presence on the work floor. Therefore, both parties benefitted from each other.

5.2 Strengths and Limitations

The mixed-method approach is one of the methodological strengths of this study. A multimethod design with three different sources of data was used. Self-report surveys of employees, as well as more objective superior ratings, and video-observed behavior coding were adopted. Thereby, we could curb the common method variance and the specific case of single source bias, which is seen as a potential threat in behavioral research and might lead to hypothesis rejection due to measurement error (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Podsakoff, 2003).

Despite the strengths of this study, limitations can also be stated. First, a potential weakness of this study might be the generalizability of the findings across different organizations and countries. Data collection was carried out within the public service sector in the Netherlands. Cultural differences might crystallize on different levels (Hofstede & Fink, 2007) and might influence this study's findings. As organizational practices and national values differ across different cultural backgrounds, different sectors in different countries might lead to different results conducting the same study. Therefore, more comparative studies are needed. The same analysis should be repeated with data from different organizational sectors and in different countries in order to verify the findings of the model across different cultural backgrounds.

Second, the actual shown relational behaviors were captured and observed during regular held staff meetings, which is a special form of teamwork and an employee's work in general. Staff meetings are designed to share information and have a collective agenda (Romano & Nunamaker, 2001). Various studies show that more task-related behaviors, rather than relation-oriented behaviors, are shown in staff meetings (Hooigeboom & Wilderom, 2015; Miller, 1994). As we found a significant, but rather low effect of relation-oriented behavior on job performance (see Table 2), we assume the relationship would be even stronger when relation-oriented behaviors would have been operationalized in other work situations of these employees.

A third limitation to the results of this study is that not all assumptions for multiple regression analysis have been checked for before running the analysis. Although multicollinearity could be excluded since correlation values between the predictors were no greater than .7, a linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variable was

not checked for. Also, no procedures to detect outliers have been performed. Outliers are of severe influence to regression coefficients and the goodness-of-fit of the model. It can be expected that the calculated R^2 of this study's hierarchical multiple regression analysis might have explained more than 11.6 % of the variance in job performance, if outliers would have been detected and excluded from the analysis. Furthermore, the distribution of the residuals should have been evaluated before the multiple regression analysis. If the residuals of our predictor variables are not normally distributed the model can still be tested, but single predictor hypotheses might not be significant anymore.

Fourth, although some biases could be impeded due to the study's design, a halo effect by the superior still holds the possibility for a measurement error. Comparing job performance measures of different rating sources, e.g. from supervisor and coworkers, and then computing the mean would yield the most objective job performance appraisal scores.

Fifth, in order to understand the underlying mechanisms and to compare findings of the satisfaction-performance linkage a finetuned conceptualization of both constructs needs to be applied (Timothy A Judge et al., 2001; Staw & Barsade, 1993). In this study we met this demand by applying job satisfaction specifically as an affective variable and thus conceptually distinct from cognitive job satisfaction. This reconceptualization of job satisfaction adds up. According to several motivational theories employees with positive emotions may be more motivated, which in turn leads to higher performance (George & Brief, 1996; Wright & Staw, 1999). However, to capture an employee's job performance a rather overall performance indicator was applied. In future research, the performance measure should thoroughly be chosen to be able to draw finetuned conclusions on implications of job satisfaction on job performance. In light of our model, the performance measure could be broadened by including citizenship behavior, as suggested by Motowildo, Borman, and Schmit (1997). Then items as 'helping others with their jobs', 'volunteering for additional work', and 'supporting organizational objectives' would be included in the performance measure. Those behaviors shape the social and psychological context in which performance takes place, which supports our model.

5.3 Future Research

In addition to the strengths and shortcomings as noted in the above, there are more points of interest for future research. The study had an explorative character to introduce a triadic model to explain employee functioning vis-à-vis job performance. A pioneering video observation technique of actual employee behavior was used as measuring method. Main effects of the abc-

factors, job satisfaction, relation-oriented behavior, and competence were examined and supported.

Next, investigations are necessary on the means by which underlying mechanisms or paths the three determinants predict job performance. In the following different proposals for model testing will be given. Note, the possible combinations of variables and their interaction effects are numerous due to their well-established selection based on theoretical relations. Therefore, the proposals serve as orientation, only. First the self-evident three-path mediational model according to the abc-structure is sketched:



Figure 2 Three path-mediation model

The model (Figure 2) explains the mediating roles of relation-oriented behavior and self-efficacy in the satisfaction-performance linkage, where this study started off. The assumption is that job satisfaction is positively related to relation-oriented behavior. That interpersonal behavior is positively associated with self-efficacy which, in turn, is positively linked to job performance.

In the three-path mediational model relation-oriented behavior (M1) and self-efficacy (M2), mediate in a series between job satisfaction (X) and job performance (Y). In terms of theoretical underpinnings, being in a positive mood encourages interpersonal behavior (Brief & Weiss, 2002; George & Brief, 1996; Staw & Barsade, 1993). Interpersonal behavior enhances self-efficacy through vicarious learning and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977; Lunenburg, 2011). Last, self-efficacy relates to job performance as it explains how much effort employees put in the behavior, that they believe they are able to master (Bandura, 1977).

Second, a model which is also plausible to test is presented below:

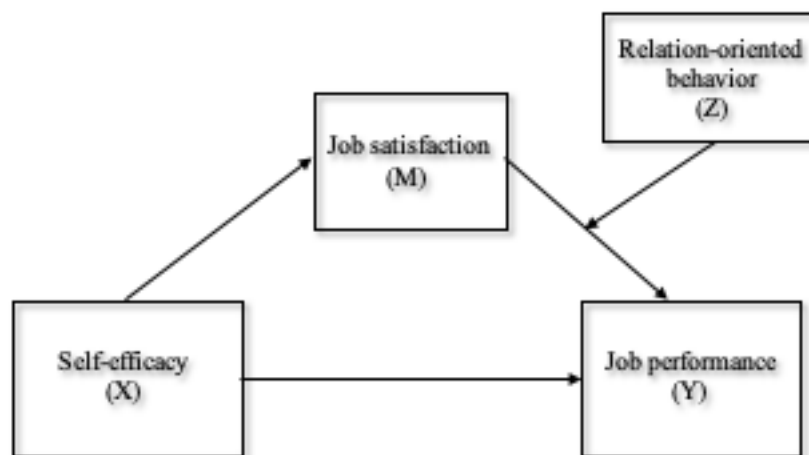


Figure 3 Moderated mediation model

The model involves the study of the process through which self-efficacy (X) has an effect on job satisfaction (M), which in turn affects job performance (Y). However, the link between job satisfaction (M) and job performance (Y) is supposed to be moderated by relation-oriented behavior (Z).

It is found in various studies that self-efficacy and job satisfaction are positively related (e.g. Judge & Bono, 2001; McDonald & Siegall, 1992; Reilly, Dhingra, & Boduszek, 2014). It is argued that self-efficacy affects job satisfaction through practical success on the job (Timothy A. Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Thereby, employees with high self-efficacy deal more effectively with obstacles and persist even in the face of failure. That in turn leads to success and therefore employees derive satisfaction from their jobs. Therefore, the argumentation is that the relationship between self-efficacy and job performance is mediated by job satisfaction. Only if people with high self-efficacy perceive job satisfaction, they perform high at their job. Then it is argued, that relation-oriented behavior moderates the strength of the indirect relationship between self-efficacy and job performance via job satisfaction in such a way that the mediated relationship is weaker (or stronger) when the employee shows lower (or higher) relation-oriented behavior. According to the social interaction perspective (Cote & Morgan, 2002), job satisfaction is amplified through enhancement of personal interactions. Showing emotions to co-workers might release responses from others that impact an employee's own job satisfaction.

Furthermore, we focused explicitly on positive relation-oriented behavior at work. It is worthwhile to investigate the influence of negative relation-oriented behavior, as the absence

of positive relation-oriented behavior does not equal negative interaction. Positive and negative social interactions function through different underlying mechanisms and outcomes (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). As counterproductive or negative relation-oriented behaviors are most likely to take place between employees, the expected negative influence on job performance and interactions with self-efficacy and job satisfaction are important to discover.

Also, longitudinal research is of great concern in testing the theoretical foundations of our model when it comes to mediator analysis and the direction of causal effects. Especially suitable for one of our variables, as Fischer et al. (2017) found, behavioral effects take longer to unfold compared to cognitive and emotional effects. Understanding how affects, behaviors, and cognitions develop over time is fundamental for more precisely defining theoretical mechanisms with practical relevance. In this study, job satisfaction, interpersonal behaviors, and competence were tested predictors of job performance in a cross-sectional design. Thus, all measures are taken at the same point in time. Longitudinal research can assess whether predictors, or possible mediators and moderators, as well as outcome measures are stable and whether relationships among them do not vary over time.

Especially the findings by Fischer et al. (2017), that most proximal factors to an outcome variable in organizational research could be grouped into affective, behavioral, and cognitive constructs, and the call for multiprocess models yielded the introduction of our model. To foster the additional value of the abc-taxonomy in our model, a set of other abc-type variables should be tested. For instance, to test whether the underlying assumptions are repeatable in order for our triadic taxonomy to be a more complete representation of employee functioning compared to single correlation studies.

6 CONCLUSION

In order to provide a new approach in predicting job performance, this explorative study introduced and tested a triadic model. Based on a quantitative analysis it can be concluded that an affective, a behavioral, and a cognitive variable are adequate employee-based factors to be jointly associated with job performance. In particular, this study contributes to the research field of the satisfaction-performance linkage. Job satisfaction was reconceptualized and used as an affective variable and interpersonal behavior as well as competence complemented into a triadic abc-model to explain job performance. While isolated variables are a weak replication of the field, the introduced triadic structure of affective, behavioral and cognitive variables can serve as a more complete framework of the employee functioning. Another interesting finding was that employees showed behaviors, which originated from leadership research, and are therefore initially attributed to leaders. Thereby, this study broadens the followership theory. Based on the conclusions above practitioners should consider not to rely on single strong predictors of job performance. A lot is gained by assessing employee's functioning in a comprehensive way. Programs and trainings should therefore be jointly directed at job satisfaction, interpersonal behavior, and competence, rather than approaching one aspect unidirectional. It is recommended, that future research elaborates in what ways the abc-factors relate to each other in explaining job performance. Further contributions can be made by exploring in how far the abc-structure holds up for other affective, behavioral, and cognitive factors.

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APPENDIX

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Deze medewerker maakt weinig fouten	<u>.95</u>	.08	.02	.05
Deze medewerker presteert continu op hoog niveau	<u>.92</u>	.13	.05	.09
Deze medewerker levert werk van hoge kwaliteit	<u>.92</u>	.10	.05	.06
Deze medewerker is effectief	<u>.87</u>	.07	.04	.06
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	.12	<u>.91</u>	.10	.11
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	.08	<u>.91</u>	.07	.11
I find real enjoyment in my work	.12	<u>.91</u>	.03	.14
I like my job better than the average person	.07	<u>.77</u>	.11	.13
Agreeing	.87	.03	<u>.80</u>	.07
Intellectual stimulation	-.01	.00	<u>.77</u>	.00
Positive attention	.03	.06	<u>.72</u>	.04
Positive feedback	-.06	.08	<u>.62</u>	.07
Humor	.09	.05	<u>.52</u>	.01
Personal informing	.01	.04	<u>.43</u>	-.02
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	.07	.17	.05	<u>.88</u>
I am confident about my ability to do my job	.06	.16	.08	<u>.87</u>
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	.01	.01	.01	<u>.86</u>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Behavioral coding scheme

Category	Behavior	Definition	Example
Relation-oriented	1. Agreeing	Saying someone is right, liking an idea, showing compliant behavior	"You are right." "I agree with you."
	2. Intellectual stimulation	Asking for ideas, inviting people to think along or come up with own ideas, brainstorming	"What do you think is the best way to...?" "What is your opinion about...?"
	3. Positive attention	Encouraging, being friendly, showing empathy	"Welcome." "How are you?"
	4. Positive feedback	Rewarding, complimenting	"Well done" "You did a great job"
	5. Humor	Making people laugh, saying something with a funny meaning	Laughing, making jokes
	6. Personally informing	Giving non-factual, private information	"Last weekend, my wife..."