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An Investigation Into the Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in a Personal Selling Context

The authors report the results of two studies that attempt to model antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors in a personal selling context. They draw the antecedents from extant research and propose that the willingness to perform organizational citizenship behaviors is related to the job-related perceptions of the degree of organizational fit between the salesperson and his or her firm, level of leadership support, perceived fairness in reward allocation (i.e., distributive justice), and job satisfaction. They hypothesize and test direct and indirect relations with these constructs and organizational citizenship behaviors. Most of these relations were significant across the two studies.

A good deal of academic study is devoted to the construct of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). In the organizational behavior literature, numerous studies focus on the conceptualization and measurement of the construct, key antecedents and outcomes of the construct, and potential mediators of OCB predictors (Brief and Motowidlo 1986; Konovsky and Pugh 1994; Niehoff and Moorman 1993; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch 1994). In fact, a book reviewing the OCBs concept and its relation to job satisfaction and organizational fairness (Organ 1988) and two comprehensive review articles have appeared (Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui 1993). One of these articles, a quantitative meta-analysis, reviews 55 studies that examine just attitudinal and dispositional predictors of OCBs (Organ and Ryan 1995).

Organizational citizenship behaviors also should be of interest to sales managers. For example, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) find that various combinations of OCBs are more important than sales productivity in determining sales managers' ratings of salespeople. This finding is consistent across petrochemical, insurance, and pharmaceutical salespeople. Organizational citizenship behaviors also can have a positive effect on objective sales unit performance (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994) and can lead to

other important sales-related behaviors such as improved customer service (George 1991). These findings suggest that sales force management would be a more difficult task without salespeople engaging in OCBs. Furthermore, given that "nonsales" performance variables contribute to the overall success of sales organizations (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1993; Cravens et al. 1993), the managerial relevance of OCBs is evident.

Still, much remains unknown about factors affecting OCBs in personal selling. Several characteristics of selling jobs, as compared with other organizational behavior contexts, suggest the need to examine antecedents of OCBs. First, salespeople are often "boundary spanners" with multiple roles to fill. They are advocates of their employer, their clients, their fellow salespeople, and themselves (Dubinsky et al. 1986). These differing roles can affect the likelihood of OCBs. For example, in "team selling," in which cooperation is required from all team members to land or service an account, behaviors, such as taking time from a busy schedule to help another salesperson, make the team more efficient. Other OCB-like behaviors, such as informal mentoring and peer socialization of new or less experienced salespeople, positively affect overall team performance while reducing training costs (Pullins, Fine, and Warren 1996). In most cases, these behaviors are not formally prescribed or rewarded. However, when they are performed consistently, positive organizational outcomes accrue.

A second aspect of selling that could affect performance of OCBs differently from nonsales organizations is that salespeople are sometimes in direct competition with one another for sales volume-related rewards. That is, the characteristics of the sales job could differ with respect to sales force control and compensation systems (Oliver and Anderson 1994). Salespeople whose control system is tied heavily

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to "outcome-based" criteria (i.e., sales volume) might be less likely to engage in OCBs, whereas those salespeople closely aligned to a "behavior-based" system might be more apt to engage in OCBs.

Third, the selling situation itself could have an impact on relations between predictors and OCBs. The studies reported here represent two selling situations, one in which a lower-ticket item is sold on a transaction basis in a relatively short period of time (e.g., cellular phone services), and the other in which a high-ticket item is sold (e.g., real estate), in which a relationship can develop between buyer and seller over a longer period of time. Because the requirements (and compensation structures) of these situations differ, a stronger test of the linkages between OCBs and predictors can be offered. In summary, given these differing roles and situations, testing antecedents of OCBs in a sales setting seems needed.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Concept

Organizational citizenship behaviors are viewed widely as contributing to an organization's overall performance. For example, OCBs (1) provide a means of managing the interdependencies among members of a work unit, which increases the collective outcomes achieved; (2) reduce the need for an organization to devote scarce resources to simple maintenance functions, which frees up resources for productivity; and (3) improve the ability of others (i.e., coworkers and managers) to perform their jobs by freeing up time for more efficient planning, scheduling, problem solving, and so on (Organ 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994).

Organizational citizenship behaviors are defined in several ways, and it seems safe to say that the conceptual domain of this construct still is evolving. (Related behaviors are identified, such as Brief and Motowidlo's [1986] "prosocial" behaviors and Puffer's [1987] "noncompliant behaviors.") Still, many of the definitions share some key elements that indicate that OCBs (1) represent behaviors above and beyond those formally prescribed by an organizational role, (2) are discretionary in nature, (3) are not directly or explicitly rewarded within the context of the organization's formal reward structure, and (4) are important for the effective and successful functioning of an organization (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Personal Selling

In a personal selling context, OCBs are viewed as discretionary behaviors on the part of the salesperson that directly promote the effective functioning of an organization, without necessarily influencing a salesperson's objective sales productivity (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993, p. 172). Sales-related OCBs are categorized as encompassing four types: sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness,

and altruism (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). *Sportsmanship* is viewed as a "willingness on the part of the salesperson to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining ... railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes" (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993, p. 71; Organ 1988, p. 11). *Civic virtue* reflects behaviors in which a salesperson responsibly engages that show concern for the company and employee initiative in recommending how the firm can improve operations. *Conscientiousness* is viewed as behaviors above and beyond the role requirements of the organization—working long days, being prompt in returning calls, not bending company rules, and entertaining only when it is in the company's best interest. *Altruism* also is viewed as a discretionary behavior that involves helping others within the organization with company tasks (e.g., helping new salespeople get oriented and sharing selling strategies) (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993).

Several studies address OCBs or similar concepts in a sales setting (e.g., Avila, Fern, and Mann 1988; George 1991; George and Bettenhausen 1990; Jackson, Keith, and Schlacter 1983; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). Most of these studies look at the impact of manager perceptions of employee performance of OCBs (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994) or a few select antecedents of OCBs (George 1991; Puffer 1987). However, the predictors of OCBs that we examine—job satisfaction, perceived person–organization fit, perceived leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation—have yet to be tested collectively in a sales setting.

A Proposed Model

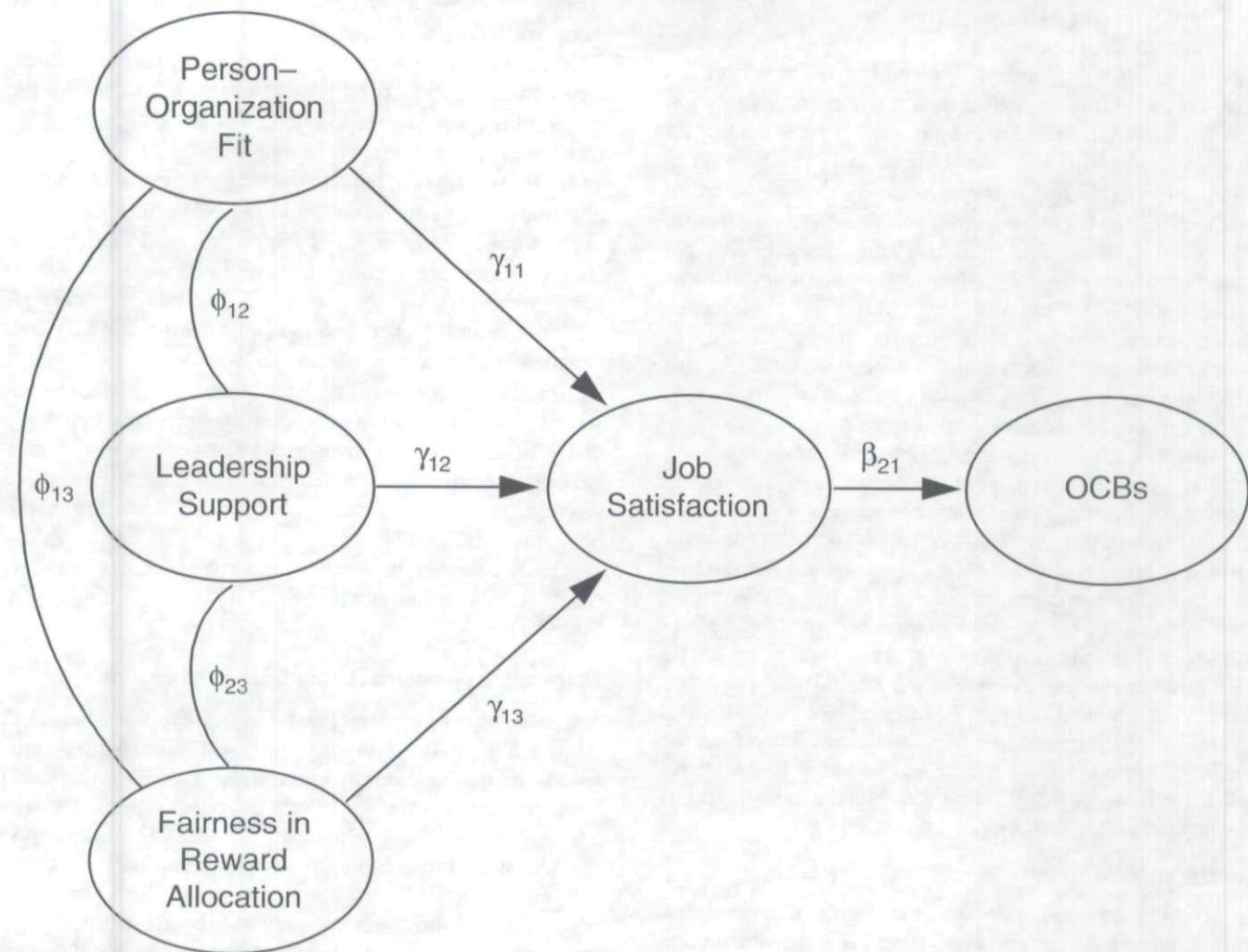
For the studies that follow, we propose one direct and several indirect potential antecedents of OCBs. In Figure 1 we show the original model to be tested. Perceived job satisfaction is proposed as a direct predictor of OCBs (β_{21} in Figure 1), and perceived level of person–organization fit, leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation are posited as indirect predictors through their effects on job satisfaction (γ_{11} , γ_{12} , and γ_{13} , respectively in Figure 1). Relationships among person–organization fit, leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation are represented by ϕ_{12} , ϕ_{13} , and ϕ_{23} , respectively. We now offer rationale for these constructs as well as the relationships among these constructs.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is conceptualized as both affect- and cognition-based, with definitions ranging from a "positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke 1976, p. 1300), to "all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment which [salespeople] find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying" (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974, p. 255). Here, we operationalize job satisfaction as an overall global state pertaining to the personal selling job.

A significant relationship is found between OCBs and job satisfaction. Moreover, the magnitude of this relation-

FIGURE 1
A Model of the Potential Antecedents of OCBs



ship has been highly consistent over various types and dimensions of OCBs (e.g., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, attendance, compliance) in numerous studies (Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1993; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch 1994). Several theoretical explanations are offered for this relationship, including social exchange theory (Konovsky and Pugh 1994) and psychological contract theory (Robinson and Morrison 1995). Central to most of the theories is the "norm of reciprocity": An employee satisfied with his or her job will engage in OCBs as reciprocation for those who have benefited him or her (Bateman and Organ 1983; Schnake 1991). Although it is currently open for debate whether job satisfaction leads to OCBs, OCBs lead to job satisfaction, or the relationship is mutually reinforcing, most theoretical and empirical support indicates that job satisfaction predicts OCBs (Niehoff and Moorman 1993; Organ 1988; Organ and Ryan 1995; Schnake 1991; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983). Others also

suggest examining job satisfaction as a potential antecedent of OCBs in a sales setting (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff et al. 1990). As such, we hypothesize a direct positive path from job satisfaction to the OCBs construct (β_{21} in Figure 1).

Although the job satisfaction to OCBs link is examined in the organizational behavior literature, to our knowledge, our studies represent a first attempt at assessing this relationship in two different sales settings. Because the nature of the sales situation can affect the strength of the relationship between predictor (job satisfaction) and performance (OCBs) (Churchill et al. 1985; Dubinsky et al. 1986), it is important to analyze the job satisfaction to OCBs path over multiple settings. Also, given the pivotal role of job satisfaction in maintaining sales force productivity, minimizing turnover (Brown and Peterson 1993), and contributing to overall effective organizational functioning (Dubinsky et al. 1986), the relation between job satisfaction and OCBs warrants further investigation in the sales literature.

Person–Organization Fit

Person–organization fit is defined as the congruence of the personality traits, beliefs, and values of individual persons with the culture, strategic needs, norms, and values of organizations (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell 1991). Person–organization fit theory advocates that shared values between individual persons and organizations lead to job satisfaction for the person and favorable outcomes toward achieving organizational goals (Chatman 1991). Support is found consistently in the organizational behavior literature for the effect of person–organization fit on job satisfaction (e.g., Kristof 1996). The sales literature also suggests that “value congruence” is antecedent to job satisfaction (Brown and Peterson 1993; Churchill et al. 1985). Sales force socialization theory suggests that internalization of organizational values has positive effects on job satisfaction, which in turn affects the performance of nonselling behaviors that benefit the organization (Dubinsky et al. 1986).

Although little research examines relationships among perceived person–organization fit, job attitudes, and OCBs simultaneously, the studies that have suggest that the effect person–organization fit has on OCBs is likely indirect through person–organization fit's effect on job satisfaction (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch 1994, p. 779). Williams and Anderson (1991) suggest that the effects of “internalization of/identification with organizational values” on OCBs are diminished in the presence of job satisfaction. They find that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of OCBs, but internalization of organizational values is not. Therefore, we predict that the effect of person–organization fit on OCBs will be indirect through the person–organization fit to job satisfaction path (γ_{11} in Figure 1).

Leadership Support

Leadership support is defined as the degree of support and consideration a person perceives from his or her immediate supervisor. This definition is consistent with the path-goal theory view that a supportive leader provides guidance to his or her subordinates, treats them fairly, and considers their input valuable (House and Dessler 1974). Path-goal theory states that job satisfaction is a consequence of leadership support, and numerous empirical tests support this premise in both sales and nonsales settings (Brown and Peterson 1993; Podsakoff et al. 1993; Wofford and Liska 1993).

Recent literature also suggests a relationship between leadership support and the performance of OCBs. This relationship is somewhat unclear, as there seems to be grounds for both direct and indirect effects (Schnake 1991). According to path-goal theory, a leader attains performance from subordinates by making the path to their goals easier and increasing personal job satisfaction (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1993; House and Dessler 1974). This suggests a leadership support to job satisfaction to OCBs linkage. When estimated, direct effects of leadership support on OCBs have shown mixed results. For example, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) find that leader supportive behaviors' effect on the OCB dimension of altruism is best modeled as indirect through job satisfaction's effect on altruism. However, they also find a direct leadership support effect on

compliance. Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) examine aspects of “transformational leader behaviors” on dimensions of OCBs. One such aspect is “individualized leader support,” a construct closely related to leadership support. They do find a direct individualized leader support to job satisfaction path. However, they find no support for a direct effect from individualized leader support to OCBs, nor did they find the satisfaction to OCBs link to be significant. In fact, they find that the effect of individualized leader support on OCBs is mediated, but by “trust” in leader, not by job satisfaction. Podsakoff and colleagues (1993) examine the relations among leadership behaviors, job satisfaction, and OCBs. They report a correlation of .53 between supportive leader behaviors and job satisfaction, and average correlations of .35 and .31 between job satisfaction and OCBs and supportive leader behaviors and OCBs.

As previously stated, the sales literature reports a consistent relationship between leadership supportive behaviors and job satisfaction. Brown and Peterson (1993) report a strong correlation between leadership consideration and job satisfaction, whereas the correlation between leadership behavior and OCBs is less pronounced. As such, we hypothesize that the effect leadership supportive behaviors have on OCBs is indirect through its effect on job satisfaction (γ_{12} in Figure 1).

Fairness in Reward Allocation

The concept of organizational justice involves “fairness.” Although two forms of organizational justice are identified—distributive and procedural justice—Organ (1988) suggests that distributive justice is more important to the study of employment relationships than is procedural justice. As such, the present studies focus on distributive justice, and in particular, “fairness in rewards allocation”—the perception by employees that they have been rewarded fairly given their responsibilities, duties, performance, and so on.

Equity theory, social exchange theory, and the notion of reciprocity suggest relationships among fairness in reward allocation, job satisfaction, and OCBs (Organ 1988; Schnake 1991). When employees perceive fair treatment and job satisfaction, OCB is a likely avenue for employee reciprocation. It is argued that performance of OCBs can be increased by increasing job satisfaction, and a means of increasing job satisfaction is through the perception that salespeople have been rewarded fairly by their organization (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Organ 1988). This line of reasoning suggests an indirect effect of fairness in reward allocation to OCBs through job satisfaction. Empirical studies examining the relations among fairness in reward allocation, job satisfaction, and OCBs also suggest that fairness in reward allocation's effect on OCBs is likely indirect through its effect on job satisfaction. For example, Moorman (1991) finds that the distributive justice–job satisfaction correlation is more than twice as high as the average distributive justice–OCBs correlation. Tansky (1993) reports a “perceptions of fairness”–job satisfaction correlation of .45, whereas the “perceptions of fairness”–OCBs correlation is .19. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and George (1991) also

find no significant direct effects from distributive justice to OCBs.

In the personal selling literature, research suggests a direct effect of fairness in reward allocation on job satisfaction, and a potential indirect effect of fairness in reward allocation on OCBs through job satisfaction. Livingstone, Roberts, and Chonko (1995) find a strong effect of equity in reward perceptions on job satisfaction, and Dubinsky and Levy (1989) suggest that fairness perceptions affect job satisfaction, which in turn could affect nonsales performance-related variables. As such, we predict a positive direct path from fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction (γ_{13} in Figure 1).

In summary, the original model depicted in Figure 1 predicts that job satisfaction will be directly related to OCBs. The effects of person–organization fit, leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation on OCBs are indirect (i.e., mediated) through their influence on job satisfaction. We test these hypotheses in the studies that follow.

Study 1

Sample

One hundred fifteen salespeople from a cellular phone company selling messaging services to businesses and individual persons in the southeastern United States agreed to participate in Study 1. These salespeople were organized into sales teams in different locations and reported to first-line sales managers. The salespeople focused on face-to-face selling, and all sales were the result of their individual selling activities. Of the initial group, 91 totally completed the survey for an effective response rate of 79%. (The median age of respondents was 29 years; median income was in the \$20,000–\$29,999 range; 51 were female; 52 had a four-year college degree or more; the average amount of time with the organization was 1.89 years; compensation was composed of a small base salary plus commission.)

Measures

Organizational citizenship behaviors. We used self-report measures for all constructs. Although most studies utilize manager-ratings of OCBs (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Organ and Ryan 1995), self-report measures have been used in assessing sales-related performance and have been consistent with manager assessments (Churchill et al. 1985; Dubinsky et al. 1986; Oliver and Anderson 1994). Furthermore, self-rated OCBs could provide a richer perspective as to behaviors of which sales managers might be unaware (Organ 1988). We used the 12 items listed by MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993, p. 74) to measure OCBs. We used 3 items (each) to assess the dimensions of sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and altruism. The respondents evaluated each item on a seven-point scale ranging from "Never" to "As often as possible." We summed item scores within each dimension to form four indicators of a "global" OCBs construct.

We made the decision to model the summed-item OCB dimensions as manifest indicators of a global construct as follows. In our model, job satisfaction is posited as the direct

predictor of OCBs. As such, job satisfaction is hypothesized to have the same effect on altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. As previously stated, there is quite a bit of evidence that suggests the effects of job satisfaction on various dimensions of OCBs are similar. For example, Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analyses report sample-weighted mean correlations of .24, .23, .22, .20, .16, and .23 of job satisfaction with altruism, sportsmanship, compliance, courtesy, civic virtue, and single-factor composites of OCBs, respectively. Podsakoff and colleagues (1993) report correlations of .34, .38, and .33 of job satisfaction with altruism, attendance, and conscientiousness. Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) report correlations of .20, .20, .14, .22, and .20 of satisfaction with conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism. Others also report similar correlations between job satisfaction and OCB dimensions (Organ and Konovsky 1989; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983; Tansky 1993). As such, we use summed-item dimension scores of altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness as four indicators of a "global" OCBs construct.

Job satisfaction. We measured job satisfaction with three items taken from various sources (e.g., Price and Mueller 1986). All three of the items were rated on seven-point scales. Two of the items were "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" scales, and the other item was a "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied" scale.

Person–organization fit. We developed the measure of person–organization fit specifically for this study. Four items asked the salespeople to assess the fit between their personal values and the organization's values. The items were evaluated on five-point scales ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Leadership support. We measured immediate leadership (supervisor) support with five items taken from measures of leadership support and consideration (House and Dessler 1974). These items assessed the degree to which salespeople perceived their immediate supervisor as providing guidance, support, and consideration of salesperson input into the selling and planning processes. All items were seven-point "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" scales.

Fairness in reward allocation. We adapted four items from Price and Mueller's (1986) Distributive Justice Index to assess salespeople's belief that they have been rewarded fairly. These five-point items ("very little" to "very much") asked salespeople to indicate the extent to which they have been rewarded fairly in view of their responsibilities, job effort, and performance. (Appendix A contains the measures for all constructs.)

Modeling Procedures and Results

Measurement model results. Consistent with the two-step approach advocated by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we estimated a measurement model prior to examining structural model relationships. We modeled the five constructs as five correlated first-order factors that corresponded to a four-item person–organization factor, a four-item fairness in reward allocation factor, a five-item leadership support fac-

tor, a three-item job satisfaction factor, and a four-indicator OCBs factor. We used LISREL VII (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1989), with covariances as input, to estimate the model.

In Table 1 we present the results for this measurement model. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the adjusted-goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) values were .81 and .75, respectively, which indicate marginal fit. Because it has been suggested that GFI and AGFI might suffer from inconsistencies due to sampling characteristics (e.g., Hoyle and Panter 1995), we also report two fit indices that have been viewed as robust to sampling characteristics: the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and Bentler's (1990) comparative fit index (CFI). Values in the .90 range have been noted as designating adequate fit for these indices. As we show in Table 1, the fit was adequate for these two indices.

Evidence of internal consistency is provided by composite reliability and coefficient alpha. Composite reliability is a LISREL-generated estimate of internal consistency analogous to coefficient alpha (Fornell and Larcker 1981). As Table 1 shows, these two estimates ranged from .69 to .94. Also included in Table 1 are the average variance extracted estimates, which assess the amount of variance captured by a construct's measure relative to measurement error, and the correlations (ϕ estimates) among the latent constructs in the model. Average variance extracted estimates of .50 or higher indicate validity for a construct's measure (Fornell and Larcker 1981). All but one estimate achieved this criterion (i.e., .39 for the four indicators of OCBs). Furthermore, all item (indicator)-loadings for each factor were significant ($p < .01$) and ranged from .63 to .89 for person-organization fit, .67 to .90 for leadership support, .87 to .90 for fairness in reward allocation, .85 to .89 for job satisfaction, and .32 to

.72 for OCBs. We performed one test of discriminant validity among factors. If the square of the parameter estimate between two constructs (ϕ^2) is less than the average variance extracted estimates of the two constructs, then discriminant validity is supported (Fornell and Larcker 1981). This criterion was met across all possible pairs of constructs.

Structural model results. In Table 2 we present the results for the structural model depicted in Figure 1 (i.e., Original Model). The overall fit of the structural model was adequate, and the completely standardized path estimates indicate significant relationships among the constructs. With the exception of the fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction path, all paths were statistically significant, and the model accounted for approximately 63% of the variance (i.e., R^2) in job satisfaction and 9% of the variance in OCBs.

Potential direct effects. As stated previously, in research settings other than personal selling, direct effects from such variables as distributive justice, transformational leadership behaviors, and internalization of organizational values to OCBs have been estimated. To investigate potential direct effects of our exogenous variables on OCBs, we estimated alternative models. First, we estimated a "Full Model" with paths from person-organization fit to OCBs (γ_{21}), leadership support to OCBs (γ_{22}), and fairness in reward allocation to OCBs (γ_{23}). As shown in Table 2, the person-organization fit to OCBs path was significant, did improve fit from that of our Original Model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 9.41$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 3$, $p < .05$), and the R^2 for OCBs went from .09 (Original Model) to .22 (Full Model). The leadership support to OCBs (γ_{22}) and fairness in reward allocation to OCBs (γ_{23}) paths did not improve model fit, and the effect of job satisfaction on OCBs became

TABLE 1
Measurement Model Results: Study 1

Measurement Model	Fit					
	χ^2	df	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI
Internal Consistency						
OCBs	.69		.69			.39
Correlations Among Latent Constructs						
	OCBs	Job Satisfaction	Person-Organization Fit	Leader Support	Fairness in Reward Allocation	Average Variance Extracted
OCBs	1.00					
Job satisfaction	.25	1.00				
Person-organization fit	.41	.77	1.00			
Leadership support	.38	.60	.58	1.00		
Fairness in reward allocation	.27	.58	.67	.46	1.00	

NOTE: The χ^2 statistic and all correlations are significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 2
Structural Model Results: Study 1

	Fit					
	χ^2	df	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI
Original Model	240.03	163	.80	.74	.92	.94
Full Model	230.62	160	.81	.75	.92	.94
Partially Mediated Model	233.60	162	.81	.75	.92	.94
Completely Standardized Path Estimates and (t-values)						
		Original Model	Full Model	Partially Mediated Model		
Person–organization fit → Job satisfaction: γ_{11}		.57 (4.29)	.58 (4.30)	.58 (4.27)		
Leadership support → Job satisfaction: γ_{12}		.23 (2.17)	.22 (2.09)	.21 (2.00)		
Fairness in reward allocation → Job satisfaction: γ_{13}		.09 (.83ns)	.09 (.79ns)	.09 (.82ns)		
Job satisfaction → OCBs: β_{21}		.29 (2.22)	-.27 (1.25ns)	-.17 (.80ns)		
Person–organization fit–Leadership support: ϕ_{12}		.58 (3.82)	.57 (3.83)	.57 (3.86)		
Person–organization fit–Fairness in reward allocation: ϕ_{13}		.67 (4.67)	.67 (4.68)	.67 (4.68)		
Leadership support–Fairness in reward allocation: ϕ_{23}		.46 (3.35)	.46 (3.35)	.46 (3.35)		
Person–organization fit → OCBs: γ_{21}		—	.47 (1.93)	.58 (2.46)		
Leadership support → OCBs: γ_{22}		—	.27 (1.67)	—		
Fairness in reward allocation → OCBs: γ_{23}		—	-.02 (.10ns)	—		
R ² – Job satisfaction		.63	.62	.62		
R ² – OCBs		.09	.22	.19		

NOTE: All χ^2 statistics were significant at the .01 level. Except where noted by "ns" (nonsignificant), t-values of 1.65 or greater are significant at the .05 level, and t-values of 1.96 or greater are significant at the .01 level.

nonsignificant by the addition of the paths. (Although the t-value for the leadership support to OCBs [γ_{21}] path was 1.67, the change in model fit by adding this path after the person–organization fit to OCBs path was not significant [$\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 2.90$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, ns]. Therefore, the leadership support to OCBs path was of little consequence to the model).

On the basis of these results, we added just the person–organization fit to OCBs path (γ_{21}) to the Original Model, forming a "Partially Mediated Model." The addition of this path did improve model fit over that of the Original Model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 6.43$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, $p < .05$), and the R² for OCBs went from .09 (Original Model) to .19 (Partially Mediated Model). Again though, the effect of job satisfaction on OCBs became nonsignificant. Given the direct effect of person–organization fit and the nonsignificant effect of job satisfaction on OCBs, partial mediation was not supported totally.

In summary, though we found general support for the model depicted in Figure 1, the direct path from person–organization fit to OCBs suggests that further investigation is needed. This path could be specific to the sales situation. In their meta-analysis, Churchill and colleagues (1985) find that type of selling situation moderated the relationships between predictor variables and aspects of sales performance. As such, we undertook another study using a different sales setting and a larger sample.

Study 2

Sample

In Study 2 we surveyed real estate salespeople in a large southeastern city. We compiled a mailing list of real estate

salespeople and mailed 700 questionnaires with postage-paid return envelopes. A cover letter assured the salespeople of the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses. Of the 700 mailed, 186 were completed. Because of some item nonresponse, 182 were used in all analyses for an effective response rate of 26%. (The median age of respondents was 48 years; median income was in the \$30,000–\$39,999 range; 142 were female; 86 had a four-year college degree or more; the average amount of time with the organization was 8.41 years; compensation was based solely on commission.) Study 2 measures were identical to those of Study 1.

Modeling Procedures and Results

Measurement model results. In Table 3 we present the measurement model results for Study 2. An adequate level of fit was found, and with the exception of the OCBs construct, the internal consistency and variance extracted estimates offer support for the measures. (The rather low internal consistency estimates for the OCBs construct is troublesome. We expand on this issue subsequently.) All item (indicator)-loadings for each factor were significant ($p < .01$) and ranged from .72 to .87 for person–organization fit, .69 to .88 for leadership support, .80 to .92 for fairness in reward allocation, .90 to .94 for job satisfaction, and .36 to .59 for OCBs. Using the correlations among the latent constructs (ϕ estimates) and the average variance extracted estimates, we repeated the test of discriminant validity among factors used in Study 1 here. We found support for the discriminant validity across all possible combinations of factors.

Structural model results. In Table 4 we present the structural model results for the model depicted in Figure 1 (Original Model). The overall fit of the structural model was ade-

TABLE 3
Measurement Model Results: Study 2

Measurement Model	Fit					
	χ^2	df	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI
Internal Consistency						
			Composite Reliability	Coefficient Alpha		Average Variance Extracted
OCBs .55 .54 .25 Job satisfaction .94 .94 .83 Person-organization fit .86 .85 .64 Leadership support .89 .89 .62 Fairness in reward allocation .92 .92 .75						
Correlations Among Latent Constructs						
	OCBs	Job Satisfaction	Person- Organization Fit	Leader Support	Fairness in Reward Allocation	
OCBs	1.00					
Job satisfaction	.46	1.00				
Person-organization fit	.29	.50	1.00			
Leadership support	.20	.37	.56	1.00		
Fairness in reward allocation	.39	.49	.55	.53	1.00	

NOTE: The χ^2 statistic and all correlations are significant at the .01 level.

quate, and with the exception of the leadership support to job satisfaction path, all paths were statistically significant ($p < .05$ or better). Furthermore, the model accounted for 32% of the variance in job satisfaction and 22% of the variance in OCBs.

Potential direct effects. We also estimated potential direct effects from the exogenous variables to OCBs. For a "Full Model" with paths from person-organization fit to OCBs (γ_{21}), leadership support to OCBs (γ_{22}), and fairness in reward allocation to OCBs (γ_{23}), we found no improvement in fit over that of the Original Model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 4.06$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 3$, ns), and the R^2 for OCBs went from .22 (Original Model) to .25. However, the fairness in reward allocation to OCBs path (γ_{23}) did indicate a significant t-value. Therefore, a "Partially Mediated Model" with just this path was estimated. Model fit did not improve significantly from that of the Original Model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 3.73$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, ns), and the R^2 for OCBs went from .22 (Original Model) to .25 (Partially Mediated Model). In summary, from estimating the "Full" and "Partially Mediated" models for Study 2, we detected no improvement in model fit, which suggests that for real estate salespeople, the Original Model is supported.

Discussion

Summary and Implications

We propose and test a model of potential predictors of OCBs in a sales setting. For the original model estimated, both samples demonstrated support for the role of job satisfaction as a predictor of OCBs. However, for Study 1, when we added a direct person-organization fit to OCBs path to the model, the job satisfaction to OCBs path became nonsignificant. Both

samples, though, provided support for the role of person-organization fit as a predictor of job satisfaction. The strength of this relationship is consistent with that found in previous research (Brown and Peterson 1993; O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell 1991) and indicates the importance of careful employee selection and socialization processes. In particular, it is important that organizations provide potential employees with a realistic appraisal of their value systems and workplace environments. At the same time, managers, particularly those whose firms employ at the entry-level position, will need to pay close attention in the hiring process. Interviews using questions that assess person-organization fit and the willingness to perform OCBs could be of interest.

There was less consistent support for the roles of leadership support and fairness in reward allocation as predictors of job satisfaction. Results from one study upheld leadership support, but not reward allocation, as a predictor of job satisfaction. Results from the other study upheld reward allocation, but not leadership support, as a predictor of job satisfaction. A potential explanation for both differences might be found in the relative maturity level of the two samples. The average age of Study 1 participants was 29 years, versus an average age of 48 years for Study 2 participants. Similarly, the Study 1 sample had been members of their organizations an average of 1.9 years, versus 8.4 years for Study 2 respondents. Therefore, the more experienced real estate sales force might have a lower need for supervisory leadership, diminishing the supervisory leadership-job satisfaction link that exists for the less experienced Study 1 participants. This explanation is consistent with the "substitutes for leadership" theory, in which characteristics of the task, organization, or person neutralize the effects of leadership variables on criterion variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, and per-

formance (Podsakoff et al. 1993). The age, higher level of experience with the task, greater autonomy, and commission basis of compensation of Study 2 respondents could have served to attenuate the leadership support to job satisfaction path, and the younger, lower level of experience, and salary and commission basis of compensation for Study 1 respondents could have served to strengthen this path.

Conversely, the lack of significance of the path between fairness of reward allocation and job satisfaction in Study 1 could relate to the role of experience in the formation of equity judgments. The relative inexperience of the first study sample might have widened the latitude of acceptance of this group in their formulation of equity judgments; that is, they might not have formed precise views about what constitutes an equitable reward. In this situation, wider variances in rewards could have had little effect on job satisfaction. The more experienced participants in Study 2 could have formed relatively precise equity perceptions that would tend to influence their feelings of job satisfaction. This finding suggests that managers must be certain that new hires clearly understand what constitutes good performance relative to reward allocation. This process can involve discussing specific aspects of the job and explaining precisely how each component of the sales task influences reward outcomes. By clearly understanding how various tasks and behaviors are related to the compensation system, a new salesperson is more likely to view the allocation of rewards as fair and equitable.

Another viable explanation for the results between leadership support and job satisfaction and fairness in reward allocation and job satisfaction is "common-method variance." Because our data were collected cross-sectionally using self-report measures, the potential for common-meth-

ods variance to affect relations among constructs exists. As noted by Cote and Buckley (1987), common-method variance can inflate or deflate the relationship between two variables. For both studies, we estimated a model that takes into account the effects of common method-variance with the following results: In Study 1, the leadership support to job satisfaction path was not significant and the fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction path was significant; and in Study 2, the fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction path was attenuated but not to the point of nonsignificance. As such, it is possible that fairness in reward allocation is an important predictor of job satisfaction, but leadership support might not be. (We detail these procedures in Appendix B.)

Also of interest are the findings related to the estimation of direct paths from our exogenous variables to OCBs. Only the person-organization fit to OCBs path of Study 1 was of consequence. Not only was this path significant, it resulted in a nonsignificant job satisfaction to OCBs path. A potential explanation for this result again lies in the amount of time the two samples spent with their respective companies. It is possible that judgments of job satisfaction were not made as firmly for Study 1 participants because of the shorter period of time spent at their jobs. And, because judgments of "value congruence" (person-organization fit) often are made early in the recruitment and socialization processes (Chatman 1991; Dubinsky et al. 1986), estimates of person-organization fit might have been stronger, affecting a significant person-organization fit to OCBs path.

It is also possible that direct effects of other variables on OCBs are sales situation specific and that other mediators exist. Given the results of other researchers, this explanation seems tenable. Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) find that job satisfaction did not mediate the effect of individualized

TABLE 4
Structural Model Results: Study 2

	Fit					
	χ^2	df	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI
Original Model	282.20	163	.87	.84	.94	.95
Full Model	278.14	160	.87	.83	.94	.95
Partially Mediated Model	278.47	162	.87	.83	.93	.94
Completely Standardized Path Estimates and (t-values)						
	Original Model		Full Model		Partially Mediated Model	
Person-organization fit → Job satisfaction: γ_{11}	.32 (3.30)		.32 (3.29)		.32 (3.29)	
Leadership support → Job satisfaction: γ_{12}	.04 (.40ns)		.04 (.42ns)		.04 (.41ns)	
Fairness in reward allocation → Job satisfaction: γ_{13}	.30 (3.29)		.29 (3.24)		.23 (3.25)	
Job satisfaction → OCBs: β_{21}	.45 (4.01)		.36 (2.88)		.36 (3.01)	
Person-organization fit-Leadership support: ϕ_{12}	.56 (5.26)		.55 (5.26)		.55 (5.26)	
Person-organization fit-Fairness in reward allocation: ϕ_{13}	.55 (5.68)		.55 (5.69)		.55 (5.69)	
Leadership support-Fairness in reward allocation: ϕ_{23}	.53 (5.25)		.53 (5.25)		.53 (5.25)	
Person-organization fit → OCBs: γ_{21}	—		.02 (.12ns)		—	
Leadership support → OCBs: γ_{22}	—		-.07 (.58ns)		—	
Fairness in reward allocation → OCBs: γ_{23}	—		.24 (1.90)		.22 (2.00)	
R ² – Job satisfaction	.32		.32		.32	
R ² – OCBs	.22		.25		.25	

NOTE: All χ^2 statistics are significant at the .01 level. Except where noted by "ns" (nonsignificant), t-values of 1.65 or greater are significant at the .05 level, and t-values of 1.96 or greater are significant at the .01 level.

leader support on OCBs, nor did satisfaction have a direct effect on OCBs. They did find that "trust" in leader mediated the effect of leader support on OCBs. In a nonsales setting, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) also find "trust" in leadership to be a mediator. Therefore, the results of finding a mediated effect of job satisfaction in Study 2, but not in Study 1, raises the possibility that satisfaction is a mediator of only certain variables on OCBs in certain sales situations (e.g., type of good sold, tenure of salesperson in current job), and that mediators of OCBs in a sales setting other than job satisfaction exist.

What is also interesting are those things less likely to account for the differences in findings between ours and Podsakoff and colleagues' (1990) results—the use of self-report OCBs and modeling the OCB dimensions as indicators of a global construct. Although self-reports can inflate correlations between predictors and criteria, this problem has not been as serious as once thought in sales research (Churchill et al. 1985; Organ and Ryan 1995). And, although we did find some effects of "common-method" variance, the effects were related more to the predictors of job satisfaction than to the job satisfaction-OCBs link. Therefore, it is less likely that common-method variance generated from self-reports accounts for the differences between what we found and what Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) find (see Appendix B). We also estimated models in which each OCB dimension was treated as a separate endogenous variable, and the path estimates from job satisfaction to each OCB were similar (see Appendix C). Therefore, it also is less likely that a global OCBs construct as opposed to separate dimensions of OCBs (what Podsakoff et al. used) accounts for differences in the results between the studies.

Most important though, the results of our studies support the view that administrative mechanisms can affect OCBs through their effect on job satisfaction. As a predictor of OCBs, job satisfaction could be of even more importance in modern sales organizations than is currently recognized. For example, an outside salesperson often needs assistance or guidance in dealing with a customer. Yet, his or her manager might not be available to provide advice or assistance on handling a specific customer-related problem. In this type of situation, coworkers can be of help. This can make a difference in providing customer satisfaction and building customer relations—even though it might not be recognized by the sales manager, who is unaware of this coworker assistance. A salesperson who consistently performs OCBs (e.g., giving advice, helping design a presentation, sending a fax for another salesperson, dropping off some information for another salesperson to a prospective or current buyer) contributes to an organization's long-term well-being by helping other salespeople make sales, retain customers, and/or increase customer satisfaction through superior service.

Other implications for sales force management also are apparent. Recent research suggests that sales force control systems can range on a continuum from "outcome based" (i.e., objective performance evaluations like "sales volume") to "behavior based" (i.e., subjective evaluations such as salesperson input in promoting a "team concept"). Some evidence suggests that the latter type has greater positive

effects on salesperson behaviors and performance and contributes to the more efficient functioning of the overall organization than does the former type (Cravens et al. 1993; Oliver and Anderson 1994). Because OCBs are more akin to behavior-based than outcome-based systems, sales managers are in a position to send powerful signals to salespeople to behave in a manner that affects the overall efficiency of the firm and successful achievement of agency goals. Therefore, it is critical that sales managers make salespeople aware that OCBs are important in the control and evaluation of salespeople. By doing so, sales managers can affect performance of their overall sales organization.

The movement toward project-focused work teams (e.g., national account teams) also could increase the importance of OCBs. Researchers note that the potential for social obstacles to performance substantially increases in work teams (Brown and Mitchell 1993). Work teams call for employees to step beyond their traditional work roles and departmental boundaries. To be effective, they must meet new work role demands and the need for higher levels of cooperation in the work team. The willingness to perform OCBs would seem important to the success of the work-team format and raises the corresponding issue of the influence of group-level OCBs as a predictor of individual performance as well as group performance (Gladstein 1984). With young salespeople, like those of Study 1, the "work team"-OCBs connection could be even more important to sales managers in stating how rewards are earned and allocated. In "team selling" to national accounts, the separation between individual tasks and rewards the team receives versus what the person receives might not be clearly evident. For example, a young salesperson could perceive his or her financial reward or personal recognition as diminished by serving on a team, rather than getting credit for making the sale individually. Without clarity in reward allocation, top salespeople can become dissatisfied, be less willing to stay a "team player," and be less likely to perform OCBs, which detract from the performance of the team.

Interestingly, however, it is in these team-sales settings and environments with long sales cycles where OCBs could be the most important for the firm. These types of sales situations involve ongoing interactions with the customer and could require salespeople *and* other members of the organization to go "the extra mile" without extra compensation. This means that managers must stress continually that long-term success comes from everyone working as a team, which will on occasion require helping other members of the organization. Sales settings in which follow-up service is required can benefit from direct salespeople and employees facilitating the sales and service processes who are encouraged to be good citizens to help ensure the smooth functioning of the sales process. Maintaining business ties could require many members of the firm that directly or indirectly influence the selling process to "pitch in and help," even if the efforts are not tied to the formal reward structure.

Many sales organizations also look to their present sales force as a prime source for sales management candidates. In a recent study, Ingram, Lee, and Lucas (1991) find that salespeople classified as "corporate citizens" are highly valued employees, expend great amounts of effort toward the

company, and have low turnover rates. In organizations that stress behavior-based control systems, salespeople who have been good corporate citizens appear to be strong candidates for sales management positions. Because they are responsible for socializing and mentoring new salespeople, they are in a position to stress the value of performing OCBs to incoming salespeople (LIMRA 1994; Pullins, Fine, and Warren 1996). Even formal, required, mentoring relationships might be ineffective without the mentor being willing to go beyond "in-role" mentoring activities and provide additional help and guidance to the less experienced salesperson. Therefore, identifying those salespeople who rate themselves highly on OCBs may be a source of future managers who not only will stress the importance of OCBs, but will perform OCBs themselves as they move up the organization hierarchy.

Our findings also have potential implications from performance and strategic perspectives. Ostroff (1992) suggests that the relation between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance is important and could be mediated by OCBs. She suggests that the internal adaptability of an organization could be a precursor to adapting to external environmental change. Organizational citizenship behaviors represent a logical internal adaptation mechanism in that employees who engage in OCBs go above and beyond the job requirements and thus help the organization to adapt to changing circumstances in the marketplace. As the external environment changes (e.g., imposing new customer demands, technology changes, a greater emphasis on service), organizations must adapt, requiring employees to engage in behaviors beyond their formal job descriptions. Organizations with internal environments that foster OCBs might be able to adapt to external environmental changes more fluidly. This line of reasoning is supported by Brown and Mitchell (1993), who examine organizational obstacles to performance in the services industry. Organizational obstacles can be technical (e.g., computer malfunction) or social (e.g., lack of cooperation from coworkers/employees). They find that the social obstacles were more apt to influence customer satisfaction negatively and suggest that the removal of these obstacles is an important managerial role. By extension, providing an atmosphere that fosters OCBs would be an equally important managerial role.

Limitations and Further Research

The results of the two studies are tempered with certain limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of the data preclude any causal statements. All we can conclude is that OCBs, job satisfaction, person-organization fit, leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation were related at one point in time. Clearly, experimental research is required to make definitive statements about causal relationships between OCBs and the variables examined here.

Second, though evidence suggests that the risk of inflated correlations between predictor and criterion due to common-methods variance could be overstated in a sales setting (Churchill et al. 1985; Oliver and Anderson 1994; Organ and Ryan 1995), further studies assessing self-, supervisor-, and coworker-rated OCBs would provide for a

much needed examination of similarities and differences due to these three sources. Further sales-oriented OCBs research also should consider several mediators simultaneously to determine which ones have stronger effects. The results of our studies, combined with the results that others report (Konovsky and Pugh 1994; Podsakoff et al. 1990), suggest that job satisfaction might mediate the effect of other variables on OCBs only in certain selling situations.

Third, the generalizability of our results to industrialized sales or business-to-business contexts, where buyer-seller relationships are developed over time, is not known. Although the importance of OCBs and their relation to behavior-based systems are intuitively appealing to such settings, our results shed no light on these potential relationships. These relationships also seem to be an area worthy of further research. Finally, the low internal consistency estimates of the OCB dimensions as indicators in Study 2 suggest that more work is needed on the conceptualization and measurement of OCBs. The low reliability of the OCBs construct could have biased the path estimate between job satisfaction and OCBs. Although several OCB measures have been advanced, the "domain" of OCBs seems an issue open for debate. Studies examining the domain of this construct and measurement refinement from both the salesperson and sales manager perspectives could be of interest.

Appendix A Measures of Constructs

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Items

Sportsmanship:

1. Consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
2. Tend to make "mountains out of molehills" (make problems bigger than they are).
3. Always focus on what's wrong with my situation, rather than the positive side of it.

Civic Virtue:

4. "Keep up" with developments in the company.
5. Attend functions that are not required, but that help the company image.
6. Risk disapproval in order to express my beliefs about what's best for the company.

Conscientiousness:

7. Conscientiously follow company regulations and procedures.
8. Turn in budgets, sales projections, expense reports, etc. earlier than is required.
9. Return phone calls and respond to other messages and requests for information promptly.

Altruism:

10. Help orient new agents even though it is not required.
11. Always ready to help or lend a helping hand to those around me.
12. Willingly give of my time to others.

Job Satisfaction Items

1. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present line of work.
2. I feel a great sense of satisfaction from my line of work.
3. All things considered (i.e., pay, promotion, supervisors, co-workers, etc.), how satisfied are you with your present line of work?

Person–Organization Fit Items

1. I feel that my personal values are a good fit with this organization.
2. This organization has the same values as I do with regard to concern for others.
3. This organization has the same values as I do with regard to honesty.
4. This organization has the same values as I do with regard to fairness.

Leadership Support Items

1. My supervisor asks salespeople for their suggestions on what assignments should be made.
2. My supervisor gives advance notice of changes.
3. My supervisor treats all the salespeople s/he supervises as his/her equal.
4. My supervisor is friendly and approachable.
5. My supervisor asks salespeople for their suggestions concerning how to carry out assignments.

Fairness in Reward Allocation Items

1. To what extent are you fairly rewarded considering the responsibilities you have?
2. To what extent are you fairly rewarded for the amount of effort you put forth?
3. To what extent are you fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of your job?
4. To what extent are you fairly rewarded for the work you have done well?

Appendix B Procedures and Results of a Common-Methods Model

To investigate the effects of common-method variance, we reestimated the original model in Figure 1 by adding a “same-source” factor to the indicators of all model constructs (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; Williams and Anderson 1994). We compared two models: a model in which the same-source factor loadings are constrained to zero (i.e., “constrained model”) and a model in which the same source-factor loadings are estimated freely (i.e., “unconstrained model”). The unconstrained model represents the same-source factor, and the difference between the constrained and unconstrained models represents a significance test of the effects of a same-source factor.

For Study 1, the fit indices for the constrained model were $\chi^2 = 245.38$, $df = 166$, $p < .01$; $GFI = .80$; $AGFI = .74$. The path estimates were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .60; leadership support to job satisfaction = .21; fairness of reward allocation to job satisfaction = .07ns; job satisfaction to OCBs = .29; person–organization fit–leadership support = .57; person–organization fit–fairness in reward allocation = .69; and leadership support–fairness in reward allocation = .47. The fit indices for the unconstrained model were $\chi^2 = 190.19$, $df = 147$, $p < .01$; $GFI = .84$; $AGFI = .77$. The difference in fit between these two models was significant ($\chi^2_{diff} = 55.19$, $df_{diff} = 19$, $p < .01$), which suggests that a same-source factor is evident. Also, 9 of the 20 loadings on the same-source factor were significant, but the indicator loadings to their theoretical factors all remained significant with little attenuation. The path estimates from the unconstrained model were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .60; leadership support to job satisfaction = .14ns; fairness of reward allocation to job satisfaction = .23; job satisfaction to OCBs = .33; person–organization fit–leadership support = .57; person–organization fit–fairness in reward allocation = .69; and leadership support–fairness in reward allocation = .49. Therefore, the leadership support to job satisfaction path was attenuated to the point of nonsignificance, but the fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction path became significant when common-method variance was accounted for.

For Study 2, the constrained model fit indices were $\chi^2 = 316.57$, $df = 166$, $p < .01$; $GFI = .86$; $AGFI = .82$. The path estimates were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .37; leadership support to job satisfaction = .04ns; fairness of reward allocation to job satisfaction = .33; job satisfaction to OCBs = .48; person–organizational fit–leadership support = .60; person–organization fit–fairness in reward allocation = .64; and leadership support–fairness in reward allocation = .58. The unconstrained model fit indices were $\chi^2 = 278.98$, $df = 147$, $p < .01$; $GFI = .87$; $AGFI = .82$. The difference in fit between these two models was significant ($\chi^2_{diff} = 37.59$, $df_{diff} = 19$, $p < .01$), 16 of the 20 loadings on the same-source factor were significant, and the loading of sportsmanship to the OCBs factor became nonsignificant. The path estimates were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .36; leadership support to job satisfaction = .04ns; fairness of reward allocation to job satisfaction = .23; job satisfaction to OCBs = .30; person–organizational fit–leadership support = .60; person–organization fit–fairness in reward allocation = .64; and leadership support–fairness in reward allocation = .58. Therefore, two paths were attenuated when accounting for the effects of common-method variance, the job satisfaction to OCBs path and the fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction path. However, neither were attenuated to the point of nonsignificance.

In summary, there was some effect of common-methods variance. More important, these effects showed that in our studies, leadership support did not affect job satisfaction when accounting for common-method variance and that fairness in reward allocation does affect job satisfaction consistently in the presence of common-method variance.

Appendix C Models With Each OCB Dimension as a Separate Construct

We specified a model in which each OCB dimension was treated as a separate three-item construct and "freely" estimated paths from job satisfaction to each OCB dimension.

For Study 1, the fit of the model was marginal, ($\chi^2 = 489.33$, $df = 334$, $p < .01$; GFI = .74, AGFI = .68, TLI = .89, CFI = .90). Completely standardized path estimates were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .58; leadership support to job satisfaction = .22; fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction = .09ns; job satisfaction to civic virtue = .22; job satisfaction to sportsmanship = .28; job satisfaction to altruism = .17ns; job satisfaction to conscientiousness = .44. Explained variance estimates in civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism, and conscientiousness were .05, .08, .03, and .20, respectively.

To demonstrate further that the effects of job satisfaction on the four OCB dimensions are similar, we estimated a model that constrained the four paths from job satisfaction to be equal to one another and compared this constrained model with the model estimated previously (i.e., the freely estimated model). The fit of the constrained model was $\chi^2 = 494.87$, $df = 337$, $p < .01$; GFI = .74, AGFI = .68, TLI = .89, CFI = .90. The difference in fit between the constrained and freely estimated model was not significant ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 5.94$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 3$, $p > .05$), which suggests that the paths from job satisfaction to civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism, and conscientiousness were equal. Last, we estimated direct effects from the exogenous constructs to each OCB dimension. For Study 1, we detected no significant direct paths from any exogenous variable to any OCB dimension.

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For Study 2 the fit of the model in which all paths from job satisfaction to separate OCB dimensions were freely estimated was adequate ($\chi^2 = 531.67$, $df = 334$, $p < .01$; GFI = .84, AGFI = .80, TLI = .93, CFI = .95). Path estimates were person–organization fit to job satisfaction = .32; leadership support to job satisfaction = .04ns; fairness in reward allocation to job satisfaction = .30; job satisfaction to civic virtue = .34; job satisfaction to sportsmanship = .30; job satisfaction to altruism = .15; job satisfaction to conscientiousness = .37. Explained variance estimates in civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism, and conscientiousness were .12, .09, .02, and .14, respectively. We also estimated the constrained model and compared it to the freely estimated model. The fit of the constrained model was $\chi^2 = 434.80$, $df = 337$, $p < .01$; GFI = .84, AGFI = .80, TLI = .93, CFI = .95. The difference in fit between the constrained and freely estimated models was not significant ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 3.13$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 3$, $p > .05$).

We also estimated direct effects from the exogenous constructs to each OCB for Study 2 and found two significant direct paths. Because the fairness in reward to sportsmanship path exhibited the highest modification index, we estimated it first. This path did improve model fit ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 7.82$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, $p < .05$) and increased the variance explained in sportsmanship from .10 to .14. (All job satisfaction to OCB dimension paths remained significant.) We then estimated the fairness in reward to civic virtue path. This path improved model fit ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 5.27$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, $p < .05$) and increased the variance explained in civic virtue from .12 to .16. (All other paths remained significant.) Therefore, only 2 of 24 paths from exogenous variables to the OCB dimensions were significant across studies.

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