



**THE PERSON-SITUATION DEBATE REVISITED: EFFECT OF
SITUATION STRENGTH AND TRAIT ACTIVATION ON THE
VALIDITY OF THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS IN
PREDICTING JOB PERFORMANCE**

Journal:	<i>Academy of Management Journal</i>
Manuscript ID:	AMJ-2010-0837.R2
Manuscript Type:	Revision
Keywords:	Personality and individual differences < Organizational Behavior < Topic Areas, Person-organization/person-environment fit < Organizational Behavior < Topic Areas, Selection, staffing, and recruiting < Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations < Topic Areas
Abstract:	<p>Derived from two theoretical concepts – situation strength and trait activation – we develop and test an interactionist model governing the degree to which five-factor model personality traits are related to job performance. One concept – situation strength – was hypothesized to predict the validities of all Big-Five traits, while the effects of the other – trait activation – were hypothesized to be specific to each trait. Based on this integrative model, personality–performance correlations were located in the literature, and occupationally homogeneous jobs were coded according to their theoretically-relevant contextual properties. Results revealed that all five traits were more predictive of performance for jobs in which the process by which the work was done represented weak situations (e.g., work was unstructured, employee had discretion to make decisions). Many of the traits also predicted performance in job contexts that activated specific traits (e.g., extraversion better predicted performance in jobs requiring social skills, agreeableness was less positively related to performance in competitive contexts, openness was more strongly related to performance in jobs with strong innovation/creativity requirements). Overall, the findings supported our interactionist model in which the situation exerts both general and specific effects on the degree to which personality predicts job performance.</p>

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

The Person-Situation Debate Revisited: Effect of Situation Strength and Trait Activation on the Validity of the Big Five Personality Traits in Predicting Job Performance

TIMOTHY A. JUDGE

Mendoza College of Business
Department of Management
University of Notre Dame
Notre Dame, Indiana 46556
Phone: (574) 631-4802
Fax: (574) 631-5255
E-mail: tjudge@nd.edu

CINDY P. ZAPATA

Mays Business School
Department of Management
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843
Phone: (979) 845-8581
Fax: (979) 845-9691
E-mail: czapata@mays.tamu.edu

53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Acknowledgement

The authors contributed equally to this article. The authors thank Ben Tepper and three anonymous reviewers for their developmental comments, and the 81 organizational behavior researchers who generously participated in the construct validity study.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12

**THE PERSON-SITUATION DEBATE REVISITED:
EFFECT OF SITUATION STRENGTH AND TRAIT ACTIVATION ON THE
VALIDITY OF THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS IN PREDICTING JOB
PERFORMANCE**

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Derived from two theoretical concepts – situation strength and trait activation – we develop and test an interactionist model governing the degree to which five-factor model personality traits are related to job performance. One concept – situation strength – was hypothesized to predict the validities of all Big-Five traits, while the effects of the other – trait activation – were hypothesized to be specific to each trait. Based on this integrative model, personality–performance correlations were located in the literature, and occupationally homogeneous jobs were coded according to their theoretically-relevant contextual properties. Results revealed that all five traits were more predictive of performance for jobs in which the process by which the work was done represented weak situations (e.g., work was unstructured, employee had discretion to make decisions). Many of the traits also predicted performance in job contexts that activated specific traits (e.g., extraversion better predicted performance in jobs requiring social skills, agreeableness was less positively related to performance in competitive contexts, openness was more strongly related to performance in jobs with strong innovation/creativity requirements). Overall, the findings supported our interactionist model in which the situation exerts both general and specific effects on the degree to which personality predicts job performance.

1
2
3 In both psychology and organizational behavior, the maxim that behavior is a function of
4 the person and the situation is nearly a truism, yet when one moves beyond the generality, it is an
5 area that continues to generate an exceptional level of controversy (Lucas & Donnellan, 2009).
6
7
8
9
10
11 Though the reasons for this discord are long-standing (Cronbach, 1957, 1975), the controversy
12 seems to rest on two often-repeated critiques of the person and situation perspectives: trait
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

In both psychology and organizational behavior, the maxim that behavior is a function of the person and the situation is nearly a truism, yet when one moves beyond the generality, it is an area that continues to generate an exceptional level of controversy (Lucas & Donnellan, 2009). Though the reasons for this discord are long-standing (Cronbach, 1957, 1975), the controversy seems to rest on two often-repeated critiques of the person and situation perspectives: trait measures have relatively meager effects on complex social behaviors (Bandura, 1999), and situational explanations lack adequate taxonomic progress (Funder, 2001, 2006). Dealing with the latter issue first, it does appear that research has made more progress in classifying and delineating personal rather than situational factors. Funder concluded, "The situational variables examined in published research are almost completely ad hoc" (2008: 571). Buss opined, "One of the key impediments is the nearly total lack of progress in conceptualizing situations in a non-arbitrary manner" (2009: 241). Even if situations are, *ex vi termini*, unique (Hogan, 2009), that does not mean that useful conceptual frameworks cannot be developed which include the situation or context as predictors of psychological (Mischel & Shoda, 1995) or organizational (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Trevino, 1986) behavior. However, even those sympathetic to the social context acknowledge the more limited progress in delineating and testing situational typologies or person \times situation interactions. Swann and Seyle, while speaking approvingly of the advances provided by the situational perspective, concluded that "the development of a comprehensive taxonomy of situations" has yielded "stunningly modest success" (2005: 162).

As for the former criticism, even when crediting personality research for its taxonomic progress (Goldberg, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1997), some question the value of these gains. In psychology, Haney and Zimbardo argued that individual differences, while real, represent a "modest point" (2009: 810) in explaining human behavior. In the organizational literature, critics

1
2
3 argue that personality measures “have very low validity for predicting overall job performance”
4
5 (Morgeson et al., 2007a: 1030). In comparing current estimates of personality trait validity to
6
7 those reviewed in earlier critiques (Guion & Gottier, 1965; Mischel, 1968), Murphy and
8
9 Dzielwczynski concluded, “In the 1950s and 1960s, one major concern was that the validity of
10
11 personality inventories as predictors of job performance and other organizationally relevant
12
13 criteria seemed generally low. An examination of the current literature suggests that this concern
14
15 is still a legitimate one” (2005: 345). To be sure, these critiques are critiqued themselves (Hogan,
16
17 2007; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, & Judge, 2007; Roberts, 2009). Still, even advocates
18
19 acknowledge that trait validities are “relatively low” and “somewhat disappointing” (Barrick,
20
21 Mount, & Judge, 2001: 22-23).
22
23
24
25
26

27 The purpose of the present study is to address both of these issues—the purportedly low
28
29 validity of personality traits and the lack of situational theoretical frameworks—by developing
30
31 and testing an integrative framework of personality – performance relationships, where the
32
33 model focuses on both general (representing situation strength) and specific (representing trait
34
35 activation) moderating situational influences. In so doing, we theoretically integrate two
36
37 situational/interactional models: Meyer et al.’s (2010) conceptualization of situation strength and
38
39 Tett and Burnett’s (2003) trait activation theory. Because these two theoretical statements have
40
41 neither been integrated nor compared in past research, we also evaluate the relative validity of
42
43 these frameworks. In the next sections of the paper, we advance these arguments further, but
44
45 begin by introducing our guiding conceptual model, and the theoretical arguments that support it.
46
47
48
49

50 **Theoretical Background and Conceptual Model**

51
52
53 The theoretical model appears in Figure 1. The “ribbon” at the top of the figure shows the
54
55 three central concepts: personality (Big Five traits), situation (job context), and behavior (job
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 performance). We focus on the Five-Factor Model (FFM), or “Big Five” because it is,
4
5 unquestionably, the most ubiquitous and widely-accepted trait framework in the history of
6
7 personality psychology (Funder, 2001). In formulating our classification of the situation, and our
8
9 general (situation strength) vs. specific (trait activation) distinction, we relied on two distinct
10
11 theoretical perspectives: situation strength (Mischel, 1977; Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010;
12
13 Weiss & Adler, 1984) and trait activation theory (TAT; Tett & Burnett, 2003). As shown in
14
15 Figure 1, our two situational concepts—situation strength and trait activation—differ in whether
16
17 they reflect general interactionism (so that they would moderate all trait validities) or specific
18
19 interactionism (so that they would moderate only certain trait validities). The section that follows
20
21 describes our theoretical arguments in detail.
22
23
24
25
26

27 -----
28
29 Insert Figure 1 about here
30
31 -----
32

33 **GENERAL INTERACTIONISM: SITUATION STRENGTH**

34
35 In a general sense, situation strength represents the degree to which situational constraints
36
37 are present in the environment (Caspi & Moffitt, 1993). Situations are strong to the extent that
38
39 rules, structures, and cues provide clear guidance as to the expected behavior (Meyer et al., 2010;
40
41 Mischel, 1977; Weiss & Adler, 1984). In contrast, weak situations comprise environments where
42
43 social roles are unstructured (Ickes, 1982), organizational structures are decentralized (Forehand
44
45 & von Haller Gilmer, 1964), and the job provides considerable discretion (Barrick & Mount,
46
47 1991) with limited external control over one’s behaviors (Peters, Fisher, & O’Connor, 1982).
48
49 Central to weak situations is that the context is “ambiguously structured” (Mischel, 1973: 276).
50
51
52

53
54 Although there are many theoretical discussions on situational strength, most are vague
55
56 when it comes to actually articulating the construct. In fact, there has been a plethora of
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 constructs couched in terms of situation strength, such as situational pressures (Monson, Hesley,
4 & Chernick, 1982), freedom to set goals (Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989), and autonomy
5 (Barrick & Mount, 1993). Recently, Meyer et al. (2010) brought some theoretical clarity to the
6 literature by proposing four aspects of situation strength: (1) clarity, the extent to which one's job
7 responsibilities are readily "available and easy to understand," (2) consistency, the degree to
8 which one's job responsibilities are compatible with one another, 3) constraints, the extent to
9 which one's job limits decision-making freedom or action, and 4) consequences, the extent to
10 which an employee's actions or decisions have significant implications for relevant stakeholders.
11 Thus, strong situations as embodied in work contexts are those that are structured (i.e., high
12 clarity), provide little day-to-day variety (i.e., high consistency), involve little unsupervised
13 freedom to make decisions (i.e., high constraints), and have strong penalties associated with
14 negative outcomes (i.e., high consequences).
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31
32 Strong situations such as these "likely place constraints on the expression of personality"
33 (Cooper & Withey, 2009: 62), and thus should demonstrate low variance in behavior across
34 various personality traits (Mischel, 1977), because there are strong demand characteristics and
35 most individuals agree on what constitutes an appropriate behavioral response. In other words,
36 strong situations provide very clear guidelines on what constitutes valued work behaviors, which
37 ultimately attenuate personality – performance validities. Weak situations, on the other hand,
38 provide few cues regarding expected behaviors, and thus should result in behavioral expressions
39 that are in line with one's basic personal tendencies (i.e., traits, McCrae & Costa, 1999). In the
40 case of the degree to which personality expresses itself in job performance, weak situations
41 amplify personality – performance validities.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 Despite compelling theoretical arguments for the idea that personality better predicts
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 performance in weak situations, the empirical evidence has been mixed, with some results more
4
5 positive than others. One challenge in making sense of this literature is the diversity of the ways
6
7 in which situation strength is studied – ranging from the degree to which behavioral expectations
8
9 are clearly specified (Withey, Gellatly, & Annett, 2005), to job autonomy (Barrick & Mount,
10
11 1993), to the degree to which employees agree on the elements comprising effective job
12
13 performance (Beaty, Cleveland & Murphy, 2001), to constraints on and consequences of
14
15 performance (Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009).
16
17
18
19

20 These mixed results are a logical function of the mixed ways in which situation strength
21
22 has been conceptualized and measured from study to study. Inconsistencies in the way situation
23
24 strength is treated across studies will produce inconsistencies in the results of those studies
25
26 (Buss, 2009; Funder, 2008). While it is difficult to know at which level of abstraction situation
27
28 strength should be conceptualized – ranging from a very broad, singular assessment of situation
29
30 strength to the four-dimensional approach developed by Meyer et al. (2010) to a study-by-study
31
32 assessment – one means of bringing theoretical and empirical clarity to the construct is to
33
34 consider the locus of analysis.
35
36
37
38

39 There are many contexts in which an actor behaves – the dyad, the team, the organization
40
41 (e.g., its structure, culture, and performance), or the nature of the work itself. While the overall
42
43 effect of strong situations is the same regardless of the milieu in which behavior occurs – “strong
44
45 situations lead people to interpret and construe events in the same way and convey uniform
46
47 expectancies regarding appropriate response patterns” (Withey et al., 2005: 1593) – the specific
48
49 nature of that context will obviously dictate how strong situations are conceptualized.
50
51
52

53 In the case of the nature of work as defined by occupation, we conceptualize situation
54
55 strength along two dimensions. First, work differs in the demands and constraints imposed by the
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 products of the work. Consequences and responsibilities related to the products (the outcomes) of
4
5 the work are likely to “induce uniform expectancies regarding the most appropriate response
6
7 pattern, provide adequate incentives for the performance of that response pattern, and instill the
8
9 skills necessary for its satisfactory construction and execution” (Mischel, 1973: 276). Thus, jobs
10
11 in which the outcomes are impactful “send strong signals about what strategic goals are most
12
13 important and what employee behaviors are expected” (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004: 207), mitigating
14
15 the degree to which performance differences will be influenced by personality.
16
17
18

19
20 Second, in addition to *what* is performed, work differs in *how* it is performed. Positions
21
22 that involve a narrow set of responsibilities, highly structured duties, and limited discretion in
23
24 how the work is done represent strong situations because they “restrict the range of plausible
25
26 behavioral responses to a given set of environmental cues and, in doing so, increase the
27
28 probability that an individual will exhibit a particular response or series of responses” (Withey et
29
30 al., 2005: 1593). Conversely, as noted by Snyder and Ickes, “Psychologically ‘weak’ situations
31
32 tend to be those that do not offer salient cues to guide behavior and are relatively unstructured
33
34 and ambiguous” (1985: 904). Work processes that fail to provide strong cues – such as when the
35
36 scope of the work is broad or the tasks are varied, when freedom exists in deciding how the work
37
38 is done, or when the worker determines tasks, priorities, and goals – therefore represent weak
39
40
41
42
43
44 situations.

45
46 Thus, both the outcomes of work, and the process by which these outcomes are achieved,
47
48 are elements of situation strength that, we hypothesize, limit or enhance the ability of personality
49
50 to be expressed in job performance.
51

52
53 *Hypothesis 1. The relationship of the Big Five traits (conscientiousness, emotional*
54
55 *stability, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness) with job performance will be*
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 *stronger (more positive) in occupations where situation strength – in terms of the*
4 *outcomes of what work is done (H-1a), and in terms of the process of how the work is*
5 *done (H-1b) – is low (i.e., weak situations).*
6
7
8
9

10 **SPECIFIC INTERACTIONISM: TRAIT ACTIVATION**

11

12 Tett and Burnett (2003) argued that the situation is central when it is *trait relevant*—the
13 degree to which trait-consistent behaviors are appropriate in a given situation (see also Tett &
14 Guterman, 2000). According to Tett and Burnett, “A situation is relevant to a trait if it is
15 thematically connected by the provision of cues, responses to which (or lack of responses to
16 which) indicate a person’s standing on the trait” (2003: 502). In other words, trait activation
17 theory argues in favor of situational specificity – whether a trait predicts performance depends on
18 the context, or, alternatively, whether a particular contextual feature is relevant depends on the
19 trait. Thus, the relevance of a trait and the relevance of the situation must correspond, such that
20 the individual must possess the trait that would enable them to respond appropriately according
21 to the cues of the situation. As stated by Tett and Burnett, “Trait activation is the process by
22 which individuals express their traits when presented with trait-relevant situational cues” (2003:
23 502).
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 There are several reasons to expect that trait-relevant situations result in better job
41 performance than situations that are trait-irrelevant. When individuals are in trait-relevant
42 situations, their characteristic adaptations (McCrae, 2001) – or their enduring habits, attitudes,
43 roles, interests, and values – should naturally translate into effective job performance. Consistent
44 with this line of thinking, if traits are thought of as resources, then job performance should be
45 enhanced when one’s resources exceed the demands of the environment (i.e., when one
46 possesses the traits necessary to behave in accordance with the environmental demands present).
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 In contrast, if the demands of the environment exceed one's available resources, then job
4 performance should be reduced (i.e., when one does not possess the traits necessary to behave in
5 accordance with the environmental demands present) (for similar arguments, see Hobfoll's
6 conservation of resources theory, 1989). In addition to enhancing the value of appropriate
7 abilities and resources, trait relevancy may confer motivational benefits that aid performance.
8 Specifically, individuals in trait-relevant situations likely realize that their innate tendencies are
9 beneficial (i.e., valued resources) given the demands of the situation, increasing both the intrinsic
10 and extrinsic motivation to perform. Finally, individuals whose traits are contextually-relevant
11 may find it more likely that their performance is recognized by others because they fit the
12 implicit theory of the situation. In the same way that implicit trait beliefs lead individuals to infer
13 traits from observation of behavior (Church et al., 2003), others may infer high performance
14 when the individuals' traits seem relevant to the environment.

15
16 To be clear, trait activation theory does not assume that *poor* performance will result if
17 situations are not trait relevant. Rather, a lack of trait activation should weaken the trait –
18 performance relationship. Although one could easily compile a long list of trait-relevant
19 situational cues that, when present, should activate a particular trait, we rely predominantly on
20 Tett and Burnett's (2003) list of job demands. In particular, we focus on occupations that require
21 independence (i.e., little supervision or guidance when completing one's work), attention to
22 detail (i.e., thoroughness on work tasks), strong social skills (i.e., working with or
23 communicating with others), competition (i.e., presence of competitive pressures), innovation
24 (i.e., need for creative or alternative thinking), and occupations that require dealing with
25 unpleasant or angry people.

26
27 Turning to the specific FFM traits, one would expect an employee described as
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 responsible, reliable, and dependable to fare well in all kinds of occupations. However, meta-
4
5 analytic evidence reveals that the reason conscientiousness validities are generalizable has more
6
7 to do with the average validity than the variability in validities, which are either very similar to
8
9 (Barrick & Mount, 1991), or greater than (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), those of other Big Five
10
11 traits.
12
13

14
15 In particular, conscientious individuals should perform especially well in occupations
16
17 requiring independence, since conscientious individuals are often described as achievement
18
19 striving (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and ambitious (Goldberg, 1993). When describing the
20
21 achievement striving dimension of conscientiousness, Costa and McCrae noted that “individuals
22
23 who score high on this facet have high aspiration levels and work hard to achieve *their*
24
25 goals...Very high scorers, however, may invest too much in *their* careers and become
26
27 workaholics” (1992: 18, italics added). In other words, achievement striving individuals tend to
28
29 be self-focused and self-governing (Hmel & Pincus, 2002). Allowing these individuals to work
30
31 independently should strengthen the positive effect of conscientiousness on performance.
32
33
34

35
36 In addition to achievement-oriented, conscientiousness individuals are described as
37
38 responsible, reliable, and dependable (Costa & McCrae, 1992). As a result, conscientious
39
40 individuals should naturally behave in ways that are consistent with these tendencies (e.g., well-
41
42 organized, methodical). In a two-week daily behavioral study, Jackson et al. (2010) found that
43
44 conscientious students were more likely to report behaviors associated with organization, such as
45
46 using a filing system for important documents and systematically keeping track of important
47
48 work dates and daily activities, and less likely to report behaviors associated with
49
50 disorganization, such as forgetting appointments and meetings. Past research has also found that
51
52 conscientious employees are more likely to set specific work goals for themselves and
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 demonstrate more commitment towards those goals than individuals who are low on trait
4 conscientiousness (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993). Because occupations requiring attention to
5 detail demand behaviors that are consistent with trait conscientiousness, conscientious
6 employees in this kind of work environment should be more likely to demonstrate valued
7 behaviors (i.e., conscientious trait activation) and ultimately better job performance than
8 individuals low on conscientiousness.
9

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18 *Hypothesis 2. The conscientiousness – job performance relationship will be stronger*
19 *(more positive) in: (a) occupations requiring independence, and (b) occupations with*
20 *strong attention to detail requirements.*
21
22
23

24
25 Of the Big Five traits, emotional stability might have the most consistent relationships
26 with job performance, namely, relatively small, positive correlations (Barrick et al., 2001; Hertz
27 & Donovan, 2000). Although one might assume that this would not bode well for moderators of
28 the relationship, those few studies that have investigated moderators of the emotional stability –
29 job performance relationship have generally been supportive, with respect to either trait (Barrick,
30 Parks, & Mount, 2005) or contextual (Smillie, Yeo, Furnham, & Jackson, 2006) variables. In
31 particular, Mount, Barrick, and Stewart (1998) examined seven studies surveying jobs that
32 require dyadic interactions (e.g., counseling, resident advisor, and customer service). As
33 expected, they found a positive relationship between emotional stability and performance. This
34 result is not surprising given that neurotic individuals tend to report negative relationships with
35 others, as well as overall poor interpersonal relationship quality (e.g., Lopes, Salovey, & Straus,
36 2003). When compared with neurotic individuals, emotionally stable individuals are less
37 susceptible to negative affect, and should be better at demonstrating emotional control, a
38 particularly important component of social skills (Riggio, 1986).
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Emotional stability, or its parallel, neuroticism, is, at its core, an affective trait (Costa &
4 McCrae, 1980). In fact, some scholars use the terms ‘neuroticism’ and ‘negative affect’
5
6 interchangeably (Watson & Clark, 1984). Because emotionally stable individuals are less
7
8 susceptible to others’ emotions (Doherty, 1997), they should be better equipped to cope with
9
10 environments that require frequently dealing with unpleasant or angry individuals. In addition,
11
12 emotionally stable individuals are less likely to appraise stressful situations as threats (Gallagher,
13
14 1990), ultimately increasing the likelihood that they will respond appropriately in difficult social
15
16 situations. For example, a meta-analytic review found that neurotic individuals tend to rely on
17
18 less effective coping strategies, such as withdrawal and wishful thinking (Connor-Smith &
19
20 Flachsbart, 2007). Because emotional stability should be valued in occupations requiring strong
21
22 social skills, particularly those that require dealing with unpleasant or angry people, we argue
23
24 that emotionally stable individuals should perform well in occupations with a strong social
25
26 component as well as occupations that require dealing with unpleasant or angry people.
27
28
29
30
31
32

33
34 *Hypothesis 3. The emotional stability – job performance relationship will be stronger*
35
36 *(more positive) in: (a) occupations requiring strong social skills, and (b) occupations in*
37
38 *which one must frequently deal with unpleasant or angry people.*
39
40

41 Similar to the emotional stability – job performance relationship, extraverts will perform
42
43 well in jobs utilizing their strong social skills. Perhaps the most frequently noted feature of
44
45 extraversion is that of social attention (Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002). Indeed, several studies
46
47 using the lexical approach have demonstrated strong factor loadings for terms that describe
48
49 social behavior (Hofstee, de Raad, & Goldberg, 1992). According to Ashton et al. (2002),
50
51 extraverts are not only more likely to engage in social behavior (see also Argyle & Lu, 1990),
52
53 they are also more likely to enjoy social attention than their introverted counterparts. In addition,
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

extraverts may be particularly adept at social and emotional expressivity, social and emotional control, and emotional sensitivity (e.g., Riggio, 1986), all components of good social skills. As a result, extraverts should perform especially well in occupational contexts that require strong social skills.

In addition to social attention, extraverts are described as high energy, excitement-seekers (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990). Indeed, past research suggests that extraverted individuals enjoy (e.g., Graziano, Feldesman, & Rahe, 1985; Kirkcaldy & Furnham, 1991) and even excel in competitive (e.g., Bentea & Anghelache, 2012) environments. For example, in a laboratory study in which participants were randomly assigned to rate either a cooperative or a competitive game, the results demonstrated that, unlike introverts, extraverts rated the competitive game as more likeable and interesting than the cooperative game (Graziano et al., 1985). Results from a second study mirrored the first, namely that extraverts rated a competitive game as more friendly and enjoyable (Graziano et al., 1985). Perhaps as a result, extraverts perform better than introverts when in competitive groups (Bentea & Anghelache, 2012).

As with emotionally stable individuals, extraverts should be particularly skilled at handling problems requiring social interaction (Tett & Burnett, 2003), such as dealing with unpleasant or angry people. In fact, past research seems to support the idea that compared to introverts, extraverts should be better equipped to cope with stressful social situations since they view them as challenges with potential opportunities for reward (Gallagher, 1990). Extraverts also tend to expect social encounters to be more positive (Graziano et al., 1985) and perceive interpersonal disagreements as less aversive than their introverted counterparts. In sum, extraverted individuals are primed to exhibit valued work behaviors in occupations that require strong social skills, occupations that are competitive in nature, and occupations that require

1
2
3 dealing with unpleasant or angry people.
4

5 *Hypothesis 4. The extraversion – job performance relationship will be stronger (more*
6 *positive) in: (a) occupations requiring strong social skills, (b) occupations with a strong*
7 *level of competition requirement, and (c) occupations in which one must frequently deal*
8 *with unpleasant or angry people.*
9

10
11
12
13
14
15 Along with extraversion, agreeableness is an interpersonal trait (Graziano & Eisenberg,
16
17 1997). Given that most jobs have a social component, the average relationship of agreeableness
18 to performance is surprisingly low (Barrick et al., 2001). As Johnson (2003) noted, it may be that
19
20 agreeableness may aid performance in some jobs but be a limitation in others. Agreeable
21
22 individuals tend to be described with adjectives like warm, trusting, kind, cooperative, and
23
24 modest (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990), and evidence supports a link between
25
26 agreeableness and prosocial work behaviors (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011). Such a
27
28 link exists, at least in part, because agreeable individuals are motivated to maintain positive
29
30 interpersonal relationships with others (e.g., Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002). This is
31
32 particularly important when considering group activity. Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, and Hair
33
34 (1996) found that agreeable individuals reported higher levels of liking towards a randomly
35
36 assigned partner. Most relevant to the current study, Mount et al. (1998) found that agreeableness
37
38 was positively related to performance for service jobs requiring dyadic interactions.
39
40
41
42
43
44

45
46 However, some agreeableness characteristics, namely the eagerness to cooperate and
47
48 avoid conflict (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1990), suggests that agreeable individuals
49
50 might struggle in competitive environments. For example, recent research has demonstrated that
51
52 individuals high on agreeableness tend to perceive competitive situations as more problematic,
53
54 more difficult, and less rewarding than individuals low on trait agreeableness (Graziano, Hair, &
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Finch, 1997). Because trait agreeableness motivates individuals to behave in ways that promote
4 group belongingness (Wiggins, 1991), competitive environments should weaken the potentially
5 beneficial effects of agreeableness on performance.
6
7
8

9
10 Agreeableness is often associated with demonstrations of caring and concern for others
11 (Costa & McCrae, 1988) as well as a desire to maintain positive relationships with others
12 (Barrick et al., 2002). These qualities make high-agreeable individuals well-suited for
13 occupations that require effectively dealing with unpleasant, angry, or discourteous people.
14
15 Because agreeable individuals have a stronger desire to maintain positive relationships, they are
16 more likely to react to even hostile behaviors from others more positively than would individuals
17 low on agreeableness. As a result, agreeable individuals are more likely to respond to “conflict
18 with less negative affect, to select more constructive conflict tactics, and to generate a more
19 constructive pattern of oppositions during conflict than would a low-agreeable person” (Graziano
20 et al., 1996: 832). Overall, these results suggest that the characteristics associated with trait
21 agreeableness are helpful in contexts that require strong social skills, as well as in dealing with
22 unpleasant or angry individuals, and a hindrance in competitive environments.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38
39 *Hypothesis 5. The agreeableness – job performance relationship will be: (a) stronger*
40 *(more positive) in occupations requiring strong social skills, (b) weaker (less positive) in*
41 *occupations with strong level of competition requirement, and (c) stronger (more*
42 *positive) in occupations in which one must frequently deal with unpleasant or angry*
43 *people.*
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 Although overall openness bears a very small relationship with performance (Barrick et
52 al., 2001), it is likely that trait openness is beneficial for some occupations. For instance, one of
53 the hallmarks of openness is a preference for autonomy (Costa & McCrae, 1988), a characteristic
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 that should help open individuals perform well in occupations requiring independence. Hmel and
4
5 Pincus (2002) found that all facets of openness to experience were associated with a tendency to
6
7 self-govern. Similarly, Koestner and Losier (1996) found that individuals high on openness to
8
9 experience described themselves as autonomous on The Adjective Checklist, a measure that
10
11 O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) found predicts an aversion for jobs requiring teamwork.
12
13 In particular, openness is associated with reactive autonomy (i.e., "an orientation to act
14
15 independently of others" [Koestner and Losier, 1996: 465]).
16
17
18
19

20 Openness to experience has been described as the "catalyst that leads to creative
21
22 expression and exploration" (King, Walker, & Broyles, 1996: 190). Of all the FFM traits, it can
23
24 be argued that open individuals should be most likely to excel in occupations that require
25
26 creativity and innovation (e.g., King et al., 1996; McCrae, 1987; Raja & Johns, 2010). For
27
28 example, McCrae (1987) reported that all facets of openness to experience were positively
29
30 related to creativity and divergent thinking (see also Raja & Johns, 2010). In addition, King et al.
31
32 (1996) found that openness to experience was positively correlated with creative ability and
33
34 creative accomplishments. Even research in neuropsychology suggests that openness is linked to
35
36 the "the tendency to engage actively and flexibly with novelty" and "a more abstract, cognitive
37
38 exploratory tendency" (DeYoung, Peterson, & Higgins, 2005: 829). As noted by McCrae and
39
40 Costa(1997), open individuals are motivated to "enlarge" their experiences, including,
41
42 ostensibly, their work environment. Thus, past research suggests that open individuals will
43
44 perform well in occupations requiring independence, as well as in occupations with strong
45
46 demands for innovation.
47
48
49
50
51

52
53 *Hypothesis 6. The openness – job performance relationship will be stronger (more*
54
55 *positive) in: (a) occupations requiring independence, and (b) occupations with strong*
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 *innovation requirements.*

4 5 6 **METHODS**

7 8 **Literature Search**

9
10 We conducted a three-part search process in order to identify all possible studies
11 examining the relationship between the Big Five traits and job performance. First, we manually
12 searched through the reference sections of previously published articles that have meta-analyzed
13 the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and job performance (Barrick & Mount,
14 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). In addition, to
15 identify articles that were not included in the first meta-analyses published in 1991 (1989-2012),
16 we searched the PsycINFO database for studies that measured both personality and job
17 performance using the keywords *personality, neuroticism, emotional stability, extraversion,*
18 *openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and performance.* Finally, we conducted a reverse
19 citation search of previous meta-analyses (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000;
20 Salgado, 1997; Tett et al., 1991).
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 To narrow our focus further, we manually searched through each article to determine
37 whether it met the following criteria. First, the study had to use employees as participants.
38 Therefore, consistent with Barrick and Mount (1991), we excluded studies involving military or
39 laboratory participants. Second, the study had to include a measure of job performance, assessed
40 in a natural job setting. As a result, studies using training performance outcomes were excluded.
41 Third, only studies using personality traits that can be classified within the Big Five framework
42 were included (e.g., studies measuring locus of control and type A were excluded from our
43 analysis). Finally, the study had to focus on a single occupation to allow for the coding of job
44 discretion. This resulted in the exclusion of studies that lumped several occupations together, as
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 well as some studies using a single occupation (e.g., middle management) without specifying a
4 particular industry or application (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1993). These selection criteria resulted
5 in 125 codeable studies (several articles reported multiple studies). Several studies reported
6 performance validities for more than one trait. In total, we were able to code 114 studies for
7 conscientiousness (N = 19,607), 65 for emotional stability (N = 11,616), 74 for extraversion (N =
8 14,098), 66 for agreeableness (N = 12,747), and 65 for openness to experience (N = 11,369). We
9 coded studies that measured either task or overall job performance (41 and 84, respectively).

20 **Coding of Key Variables**

21
22 In order to examine the relationships of interest, the second author coded for personality
23 trait, sample size, validity coefficients, reliabilities for the predictor and focal criterion, and
24 occupation, while an independent coder coded a random subsample of approximately 26% of the
25 studies included in our analyses. Agreement was over 94% for the variables of interest. To
26 resolve disagreements, both coders referred back to the original article and made a consensus
27 decision. Although the main coder – the second author – was obviously aware of the hypotheses,
28 the second rater was not. In addition, personality and O*Net occupational coding were
29 performed separately by a third and fourth coder.

30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41 As is often the case, some studies failed to report reliabilities. Rather than replacing
42 missing reliabilities with mean reliabilities, which can lead to significantly higher imputed
43 reliability estimates and can artificially reduce variance, we utilized a distributional approach
44 (Newman, 2009). Specifically, we used the studies that reported reliabilities to calculate the
45 mean and standard deviation of reliabilities (personality, $M = .7933$, $SD = .0681$; performance,
46 $M = .8457$, $SD = .0647$), which were then used to construct a sampling distribution of reliability
47 estimates. The missing values were then replaced with values generated according to the
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 distribution. For single-item measures of performance, we followed Wanous and Hudy's (2001)
4 recommendation and used a reliability of .70, with the sampling distribution around this mean
5
6 being produced using the same variability estimate as before (SD = .0647).
7
8

9
10 *Personality.* For studies that did not use direct measures of the Big Five, the third coder
11 classified each measure according to the procedure used by Barrick and Mount (1991). For
12 example, experts classified the Imaginative and Abstract-thinking scales from the 16 PF (Cattell,
13 Eber, & Tatsuoka, 1970) as measures of openness, and the Dominance and Social Presence
14 scales from the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1988) as measures of extraversion.
15
16

17
18 *Occupation context.* Occupational data provided by O*Net (Campion, Morgeson, &
19 Mayfield, 1999; Peterson et al., 2001) were used to code for the six situation strength facets, as
20 well as the six factors that should activate some of the Big Five traits (for examples, see Table 1).
21 The O*Net rating scale for each of these factors ranges from 0-100. In order to categorize
22 occupational characteristics into situation strength or trait activation, the authors independently
23 examined the available O*Net codes and categorized them according to our theoretical
24 framework. Only variables on which both authors agreed were included in our analyses.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 Both of our broad concepts—situation strength and trait activation—are aggregate
40 constructs (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). The particular components of situation strength and
41 trait activation are not reflections of these concepts, nor are they interchangeable—as would be
42 the case under a latent construct. Rather, the twelve specific occupational context variables
43 define or form the two broader constructs. Because of this, we do not assume that the
44 occupational context variables are positively correlated, as would be necessary under a latent
45 model (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). In conceptual terms, the twelve occupational
46 context variables are what form, or cause, the two broader concepts. Moreover, though beyond
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the purpose of this study, the causes of the six occupational context variables might be quite
4
5 different (MacKenzie et al., 2005)—what causes a job to be highly structured might be quite
6
7 different from what causes it to be competitive.
8
9

10 There were six situation strength facets; the first three (1–3) represent outcomes and the
11
12 second three (4–6) represent process. The six were: (1) **Impact of decisions on**
13
14 **coworkers/results**, or “whether the decisions an employee makes impact the results of
15
16 coworkers, clients or the company” (low scores indicate low impact; high scores reflect high
17
18 impact); (2) **Consequences of error**, or “how serious the results would be if the worker made a
19
20 mistake that was not readily correctable” (low scores indicate mild consequences; high scores
21
22 reflect serious consequences); (3) **Responsibility for health/safety of others**, or “the degree to
23
24 which the employee is responsible for the health and safety of others” (low scores indicate little
25
26 responsibility; high scores reflect significant responsibility); (4) **Unstructured (vs. structured)**
27
28 **work**, or “the extent to which the job allows the worker to determine tasks, priorities, and goals”
29
30 (unstructured work) versus “the degree to which the job is structured for the worker” (structured
31
32 work) (low scores reflect highly structured work; high scores reflect unstructured work); (5)
33
34 **Freedom to make decisions**, defined as “the degree to which the job offers considerable
35
36 decision making freedom, without supervision” (low scores reflect little freedom; high scores
37
38 reflect significant freedom); and (6) **Variety**, which refers to “the extent to which the job
39
40 requires the employee to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents”
41
42 (low scores reflect little variety; high scores reflect significant variety).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 The six trait activation theory variables were: (1) **Independence in completing work**,
51
52 where “the job requires developing one's own ways of doing things, guiding oneself with little or
53
54 no supervision, and depending on oneself to get things done,” as opposed to working under a
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 predetermined set of rules, under close supervision, or in dependency on others for guidance
4
5 (low scores reflect little independence; high scores reflect significant independence); (2)
6
7

8 **Attention to detail requirement**, or “the extent to which the job requires being careful about
9
10 detail and thoroughness in completing work tasks” (low scores indicate a low level of attention
11
12 to detail requirement; high scores indicate a high level of attention to detail requirement); (3)
13
14

15 **Social skills requirement**, defined as “the degree to which an occupation frequently involves
16
17 working with, communicating with, and teaching people” (low scores reflect a low degree of
18
19 social skills are required; high scores reflect a high degree of social skills are required); (4) **Level**
20
21 **of competition requirement**, referring to “the extent to which the job requires the worker to
22
23 compete or to be aware of competitive pressures” (low scores indicate a low level of competition
24
25 is required; high scores indicate a high level of competition is required); (5)
26
27
28

29 **Innovation/creativity requirement**, which is “the extent to which the job requires creativity and
30
31 alternative thinking to develop new ideas for and answers to work-related problems” (low scores
32
33 indicate a low requirement for innovation/creativity; high scores indicate a high requirement for
34
35 innovation/creativity); and (6) **Dealing with unpleasant or angry people**, or “how frequently
36
37 employees have to deal with unpleasant, angry, or discourteous individuals” (low scores reflect a
38
39 low level of interface with unpleasant or angry people; high scores reflect a high level of
40
41 interface with unpleasant or angry people).
42
43
44

45
46 -----
47
48 Insert Table 1 about here
49
50 -----

51 RESULTS

52 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations, and Reliability of Job Context Variables

53
54
55 Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables are provided in Table 2.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Because the job context variables were measured with individual variables for each occupation,
4 as reported in the O*Net database, we sought to investigate their reliability (i.e., how well each
5 variable is measured). Accordingly, we constructed eight surveys, administered using an online
6 professional survey website, to a sample of 96 organizational behavior researchers, all of whom
7 have their PhD in organizational behavior or psychology, and each of whom has published at
8 least one article in a refereed journal. To avoiding priming effects or demand characteristics,
9 participants were not informed of the purpose of the study, and did not have knowledge of or
10 experience with the study. Which individual received which survey was determined randomly.
11 Each participant received a survey link, along with instructions for completing the survey.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 -----
26 Insert Tables 2 and 3 about here
27 -----
28

29
30 For each of the four sets, participants were presented with 12 job titles (e.g.,
31 farmer/rancher, flight attendant, machinist, nursing aide, accountant) with corresponding job
32 descriptions. These occupations were chosen based on three criteria: (1) variation in job
33 complexity; (2) variation in prevailing wage rates; and (3) availability of O*Net ratings on all
34 criteria. For each of these occupations, participants evaluated the degree to which each of the 12
35 job context variables was present (the six trait activation theory variables and the six facets of
36 situation strength), using the same 0-100 scale as the O*Net database, and with the job context
37 definitions previously provided. We purposely did not choose experts in job design or job
38 analysis as we felt their intimate familiarity with the O*Net database and their knowledge of the
39 jobs, job attributes, or ratings contained in it, might contaminate their evaluations (thus upwardly
40 biasing reliability estimates).
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55
56 Eighty-one individuals spanning different universities and faculty appointments
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 responded to the survey, for a response rate of 84.4%. Based on these responses, we calculated
4
5 both single rater reliability—ICC-1 (reliability of an individual rating)—and average rater
6
7 reliability—ICC-2 (reliability of the average rating) (Bliese, 2000). These two forms of
8
9 reliability were analyzed among the raters (how well the raters agreed among themselves), and
10
11 between the average rater (by averaging across the participant ratings) and the O*Net score for
12
13 each job context variable. These four ICCs were computed for each of the four sets of job titles,
14
15 and then these ICCs were averaged over the four sets of ratings.
16
17
18
19

20 The results of this reliability analysis are provided in Table 3. As the table shows, there
21
22 was some variation in reliabilities of the 12 job context variables, though not strongly so. The
23
24 higher increase from ICC-1 to ICC-2 for reliability among raters than from reliability between
25
26 raters and O*Net is a function of the number of ratings. In the former case, there were 12 ratings
27
28 used for each job context variable. In the latter case, the number of ratings was two: the average
29
30 of the participant ratings and the O*Net rating. Overall, both ICC-1 and ICC-2's are relatively
31
32 high, and compare favorably to other ICC-1 and ICC-2 estimates reported in the literature (e.g.,
33
34 Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004). Thus, with the exception of the two situation strength
35
36 composites, we used a single O*Net rating to assess each of the job context variables; the
37
38 foregoing analysis indicates that these ratings are reliable.
39
40
41
42

43 Hypothesis Test Analyses

44
45 *Situation strength composite variables.* Because the two situation strength constructs
46
47 were conceptualized and assessed as composite variables, each comprised of three facets, it is
48
49 important to determine whether the constructs are comprised of these facets as assumed. When
50
51 the six situation strength variables were factor analyzed, using principal components analysis
52
53 (because principal components are not latent variables [Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, &
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Strahan, 1999], it is more appropriate for formative models), two factors emerged with
4
5 Eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The first factor explained 47.32% of the variance in the facets
6
7 whereas the second factor explained 28.70% of the variance.
8
9

10 The first factor can be interpreted as Situation Strength: Process since the three strongest
11 loadings were unstructured (vs. structured) work, freedom to make decisions, and variety. The
12 average factor loading was $\bar{\lambda} = .85$. The second factor can be interpreted as Situation Strength:
13 Outcomes since the three strongest loadings were impact of decisions on coworkers/results,
14 consequences of error, and responsibility for health/safety of others. The average factor loading
15 was $\bar{\lambda} = .79$. There was one anomaly in the results – the loading of impact of decisions on
16 coworkers/results for the Situation Strength: Process factor ($\lambda = .61$) was about the same as the
17 expected loading on the Situation Strength: Outcomes factor ($\lambda = .58$). In retrospect, this may
18 have been observed because the impact variable includes both impact on one's coworkers and
19 "results." Since the former is more process- and the latter outcome-oriented, this is not
20 surprising. However, since in all other respects the factor analysis results were as expected, and
21 cumulatively the two factors explained 76.0% of the variance in the items, we formed the
22 situation strength composites, each comprised of three facets.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 ***Situation strength interpretation.*** In H-1, we predicted that the relationship between all
42 Big Five traits and job performance would be stronger in weak situations than in strong
43 situations. As noted previously, we conceptualized and assessed two aspects of Situation
44 Strength: Outcomes (the degree to which the products of one's work present strong demands)
45 and process (the degree to which the work provides freedom or latitude in how the work is
46 performed). Since we do not expect these to operate differently, we did not offer separate
47 hypotheses about each. Each is, however, analyzed and reported upon separately. We should
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 note that the meaning of high scores differs between the two composite variables: High scores on
4
5 outcomes mean that the occupation presents strong demands that constrain variability permitted
6
7 in performance. Thus, high scores for this variable represent strong situations. Because high
8
9 scores on process mean that the occupation provides ample discretion and freedom, high scores
10
11 on this variable represent weak situations. Thus, we would expect that Situation Strength:
12
13 Outcomes negatively predicts personality – job performance validities, whereas Situation
14
15 Strength: Process should positively predict validities.
16
17
18
19

20 *Regression analyses.* Our study does not involve meta-analyses in the sense that we do
21
22 not provide estimates of population-level correlations (i.e., mean correlations, and variability
23
24 around those correlations). Thus, meta-analyses do not underlie our results. However, our study
25
26 is very much like a moderator analysis often performed based on meta-analytic data.
27
28 Specifically, we sought to predict the correlation between personality and job performance in
29
30 each study (after first correcting the correlation for unreliability, as noted earlier) with the levels
31
32 of the job context variables for the occupation in that study.
33
34
35

36 We adopted a regression-based approach for several reasons. First, because jobs differ in
37
38 their overall complexity, the presence of one job context variable is likely to be correlated with
39
40 the presence of another in general (i.e., a job that has one demand is more likely to have other
41
42 demands as well). Moreover, many of the specific job attributes would be expected to co-occur.
43
44 For example, a job that is social is more likely to also be a job that requires dealing with
45
46 unpleasant or angry people. Indeed, when moderator variables are correlated, subgroup or other
47
48 single-variable approaches are problematic. Viswesvaran and Sanchez note, “The fact that
49
50 moderators are seldom orthogonal poses a problem in their interpretation” (1998: 80). Lipsey
51
52 argues that considering single variables in isolation makes the results of such analyses
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 “vulnerable to misinterpretation” (2003: 80). Because of these problems, when explanatory
4 variables are correlated, Hunter and Schmidt (1990) recommend considering the variables’
5 influences simultaneously, as is done with multiple regression analysis. Although regression
6 analysis addresses these concerns, some argue that regression weights underestimate variable
7 importance (LeBreton & Tonidandel, 2008). This represents an advantage of dominance
8 (Budescu, 1993) or relative weight (Johnson & LeBreton, 2004) analyses, which we discuss
9 shortly.

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20 Consistent with the recommendations of Steel and Kammeyer-Mueller (2002), to account
21 for heteroscedasticity in error variance over the range of effect sizes (i.e., to eliminate the
22 possible biasing effects due to error variances being correlated with correlation values or, in this
23 case, with the job variables), we used bootstrapped estimates (Efron, 1987), wherein the original
24 sample of studies was used to generate additional bootstrap samples. The advantages of
25 bootstrapping are twofold. First, bootstrapping eliminates the aforementioned heteroscedasticity
26 problem (Chernick, 2008). Second, bootstrapped standard errors are often “very accurate” in
27 validity generalization studies (Switzer, Paese, & Drasgow, 1992: 125). In our bootstrapping
28 analysis, conducted with the SPSS CNLR procedure, 1,000 regressions were estimated for each
29 of the five specifications (i.e., the eight job context variables predicting the personality –
30 performance validity coefficients, for each of the five traits). From these 1,000 regressions, the
31 average regression coefficient (\hat{B}) is reported, along with its standard error ($SE_{\hat{B}}$).

32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 **Hypothesis Test Results**

49
50
51 As shown in the Situation Strength Theory portion of Table 4, for the relationship of
52 conscientiousness to job performance, Situation Strength: Outcomes did not predict the size of
53 the validity coefficients, whereas Situation Strength: Process did ($\hat{B} = .02$ and $\hat{B} = .30$ ($p < .05$),
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 respectively). For the relationship of emotional stability to job performance, Situation Strength:
4 Outcomes did not predict ($\hat{B} = -.00$) and Situation Strength: Process did ($\hat{B} = .29, p < .05$). The
5
6 results for the other three Big Five traits are provided in the Situation Strength Theory portion of
7
8 Table 5. As with the other traits, Situation Strength: Process positively predicts the relationship
9
10 of extraversion ($\hat{B} = .35, p < .01$), agreeableness ($\hat{B} = .42, p < .01$), and openness ($\hat{B} = .20, p <$
11
12 $.05$) with job performance. Moreover, Situation Strength: Outcomes did negatively predict the
13
14 relationship of agreeableness ($\hat{B} = -.32, p < .05$) and openness ($\hat{B} = -.23, p < .01$) to job
15
16 performance, as predicted. Thus, H-1 was supported for all five traits with respect to Situation
17
18 Strength: Process but for only two of the five traits for Situation Strength: Outcomes.
19
20
21
22
23

24
25 -----
26 Insert Tables 4 and 5 about here
27
28 -----
29

30
31 Unlike the hypotheses for situation strength theory, hypotheses for trait activation theory
32 varied by job characteristic, and thus were subject to separate hypotheses, organized by trait. H-2
33 predicted that the positive relationship of conscientiousness to job performance would be
34
35 stronger in occupations requiring independence (H-2a), and jobs with strong attention to detail
36
37 requirements (H-2b). As can be seen in Table 4, H-2a was supported in that the independence
38
39 requirement predicted the conscientiousness – job performance relationship ($\hat{B} = .23, p < .01$). H-
40
41 2b was not supported in that the attention to detail requirement negatively predicted this
42
43 relationship ($\hat{B} = -.19, p < .05$). Hypothesis test results for emotional stability are also provided
44
45 in Table 4. As the table indicates, H-3 was supported as both job requirements – social skills (H-
46
47 3a), and dealing with unpleasant or angry people (H-3b) – positively predicted the relationship
48
49 between emotional stability and job performance ($\hat{B} = .23 [p < .01]$ and $\hat{B} = .22 [p < .05]$,
50
51 respectively).
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

Results pertaining to trait activation theory for extraversion, agreeableness, and openness are provided in Table 5. H-4 was supported in that the extraversion – job performance correlation was more positive in jobs with requirements for social skills (H-4a; $\hat{B} = .24$ [$p < .05$]), level of competition (H-4b; $\hat{B} = .25$ [$p < .01$]), and dealing with unpleasant or angry people (H-4c; $\hat{B} = .31$ [$p < .01$]). In regard to H-5, the agreeableness – job performance correlation was stronger in jobs requiring social skills ($\hat{B} = .26$ [$p < .05$]) and jobs which involved dealing with unpleasant or angry people ($\hat{B} = .25$ [$p < .05$]), supporting H-5a and H-5c, respectively. H-5b also was supported in that the agreeableness – performance correlation was weaker in jobs that had a strong level of competition requirement ($\hat{B} = -.40$ [$p < .05$]). Finally, Table 5 also provides results for openness. Consistent with H-6, the openness – job performance correlation was more positive for jobs which emphasized independence in completing work ($\hat{B} = .20$ [$p < .05$]), and which had strong innovation/creativity requirements ($\hat{B} = .33$ [$p < .01$]). Thus, H-6a and H-6b were supported.

35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Because some question the reasonableness of inferences made from corrected correlations in the personality – performance literature (Morgeson et al., 2007), we note that very similar results were obtained when analyzing either uncorrected correlations, or correlations corrected for skew using Fisher's r-to-Z transformation. Specifically, the regression coefficients of the six job context variables predicting the personality – performance correlations for each of the Big Five traits were only trivially stronger when predicting the corrected correlations versus predicting r-to-Z transformed correlations (average difference: $\Delta\hat{B} = .001$; largest difference, $\Delta\hat{B} = -.023$). Similarly, comparing the analysis of corrected versus uncorrected correlations, there were no differences in the overall results (average difference: $\Delta\hat{B} = .000$; largest difference, $\Delta\hat{B} = -.012$). Thus, the results in Tables 4-5 do not depend on whether, or in what manner, the validity

1
2
3 coefficients were corrected or transformed.
4

5 **Control Variables and Non-Hypothesized Results** 6 7

8 Though not reported in Tables 4-5, we explored whether including several study-level
9 controls in the regression equations would alter the results. Specifically, we controlled for design
10 of the study (predictive vs. concurrent), nature of the job performance measure (subjective or
11 objective), purpose of the study (research or administrative), and type of performance measured
12 (task vs. overall or other job performance) using dummy codes. The control variables exerted
13 some consistent and expected effects. For example, in general, predictive (vs. concurrent)
14 designs, objective (vs. subjective) performance measures, and task (vs. overall) types of
15 performance negatively predicted personality – job performance validities. However, including
16 the controls had only trivial effects on the hypothesized relationships. Therefore, for parsimony,
17 the results are not reported but are available upon request.
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 Turning to the non-hypothesized results for the job context variables, there were some
32 findings of note. (Here, we pay more attention, for reasons we note later, to larger effect sizes [\hat{B}
33 $> .20$].) Jobs which had strong innovation/creativity requirements ($\hat{B} = .22$ [$p < .05$]) and which
34 involved dealing with unpleasant or angry people ($\hat{B} = .25$ [$p < .05$]) positively predicted the
35 conscientiousness – job performance correlation. Attention to detail requirements negatively
36 predicted the extraversion – job performance correlation ($\hat{B} = -.34$, $p < .01$) and positively
37 predicted the agreeableness – job performance correlation ($\hat{B} = .41$, $p < .05$), meaning that
38 extraversion was less positively, and agreeableness more positively, related to job performance
39 in jobs requiring attention to detail. Finally, independence in completing work positively
40 predicted ($\hat{B} = .31$, $p < .05$) the agreeableness – job performance correlation. We consider these
41 findings further in the discussion.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Decomposing Situation Strength Composite

Because we viewed situation strength as a formative or composite variable, reliability of the composite variable is not relevant (MacKenzie et al., 2005). However, because the dimensions or facets of a formative construct exist independently of one another (i.e., their covariance does not indicate a common construct, and indeed they may not covary at all [Bollen & Lennox, 1991]), it is relevant to ascertain the unique contribution of each facet. Because the facets are part of each composite, to place the facets and composites in the same regression would lead to a part-whole problem as well as multicollinearity. Accordingly, we used the principal components to represent the two situation strength constructs, and specified regressions in which each situation strength facet was added to a regression that includes the two components. This resulted in 30 (5×6) three independent-variable regression equations, five equations (one equation for each of the five personality – job performance correlations) for each of the six individual situation strength facets. To determine the relative explanatory power of each situation strength facet over the principal components, we used rescaled dominance weights (Azen & Budescu, 2003; Budescu, 1993). Dominance weights analysis assesses variable importance by calculating the contribution of each variable (or sets of variables) to variance explained, across all possible combinations of predictor variables. Thus, one variable “dominates” another when it contributes more unique variance across the specifications.

The results of the dominance analyses are provided in Table 6. Across the 30 regressions, the results suggest that in only a relatively small number (6 of 30, or 20%) of cases did the dominance weight for the facet exceed that of both situation strength composites. In a higher number of cases the dominance weight of the facet exceeded that of the corresponding principal component. Specifically, for Situation Strength: Outcomes, the individual facet exceeded that of

1
2
3 the principle component in five of 15 cases (33%). This was especially true with respect to
4
5 impact of decisions on coworkers/results, where the dominance weight exceeded the Situation
6
7 Strength: Outcomes dominance weight in three of the five regressions. For Situation Strength:
8
9 Process, the results were the same – in five of the 15 regressions, the dominance weight for a
10
11 facet exceeded that of the corresponding principal component. This was especially so with
12
13 unstructured work, where the facet had a higher dominance weight than the Situation Strength:
14
15 Process principal component in three of the five cases. Though the results suggest that the
16
17 importance of the individual situation strength facet varied, and is not trivial overall, in most
18
19 cases it did not exceed that of the more general construct to which it belonged.
20
21
22
23

24
25 -----
26 Insert Table 6 about here
27
28 -----
29

30 **Relative Importance of Situation Strength vs. Trait Activation**

31
32 As we noted in the introduction, in theoretically integrating the two frameworks—
33
34 situation strength and trait activation—we also wish to compare their relative validity. To
35
36 conduct this comparison, we first relied on dominance weights (Azen & Budescu, 2003;
37
38 Budescu, 1993), in both raw (average variance contributed across all possible independent
39
40 variable combinations) and rescaled (average variance contributed as a proportion of the total
41
42 explained variance) form. Once the dominance weights were computed—raw and rescaled—we
43
44 added these weights together, grouping the individual variables according to which two
45
46 frameworks they belonged (for situation strength: the two composite variables; for trait
47
48 activation: the six individual elements).
49
50
51
52

53
54 The results of these analyses appear in the top half of Table 7. As the table shows, the
55
56 relative importance of each framework varied somewhat by trait. In all five cases, however, the
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 dominance weights for Trait Activation were higher than for Situation Strength, in most cases
4
5 substantially so. The Trait Activation variables particularly dominated the Situation Strength
6
7 composite variables for extraversion. They were closest for openness, but even here, Trait
8
9 Activation had the dominance weight that was 50% higher than that for Situation Strength.
10
11

12
13 -----
14 Insert Table 7 about here
15
16 -----
17

18 The analysis above could be argued to be biased against Situation Strength because the
19
20 two composites rely on an equally weighted combination of the six individual Situation Strength
21
22 facets, whereas for Trait Activation, the individual variables are optimally weighted.
23
24 Accordingly, we also performed a relative importance analysis with the six individual Situation
25
26 Strength facets (along with, of course, the six Trait Activation variables). However, because the
27
28 number of all possible regressions becomes quite large with 12 independent variables, for this
29
30 analysis, as recommended by other researchers (e.g., LeBreton, Ployhart, & Ladd, 2004; Johnson
31
32 & LeBreton, 2004; Tonidandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009), we relied on Johnson's (2000,
33
34 2004) relative weight index. To compute Johnson's relative weight index, we used the program
35
36 developed by Lorenzo-Seva, Ferrando, and Chico (2010).
37
38
39
40
41

42 The relative weights for these 12-variable regressions (six individual Situation Strength
43
44 facets and six individual Trait Activation variables) are provided in the bottom half of Table 7.
45
46 The Situation Strength facets alter some aspects of the picture from before. In particular,
47
48 Situation Strength becomes more important than Trait Activation for openness. Moreover, the
49
50 relative differences in importance become narrower in this analysis. On the other hand, Trait
51
52 Activation is more important than Situation Strength in explaining personality – performance
53
54 relationships for four of the five Big Five traits, and in these cases, the Trait Activation relative
55
56
57
58
59
60

weights are nearly double the Situation Strength weights.

Representativeness of Dataset

The generalizability of the focal theoretical framework depends on the generalizability of what the framework predicts: personality – job performance validities. Because the studies included in our analyses are restricted in some significant ways (only direct measures of the Big Five traits, or indirect measures as classified by Barrick and Mount [1991] were included; and because our framework was based on job-level characteristics, only studies with homogeneous occupations could be included), it was important to ascertain whether the validities obtained from the included studies were representative of prior meta-analytic estimates. Accordingly, we performed meta-analyses, following Hunter and Schmidt's (1990) methodology, of the correlations of each of the Big Five traits with job performance. For each trait (the number of studies [k] and cumulative sample size [N] are in parentheses), the meta-analytic results for the estimated uncorrected correlation (\bar{r}), the estimated corrected correlation ($\hat{\rho}$), and the upper and lower limits of a 95% confidence interval around the corrected correlation ($CI_{\hat{\rho}}$) were as follows:

Conscientiousness ($k = 105$; $N = 17,101$): $\bar{r} = .16$; $\hat{\rho} = .21$; 95% $CI_{\hat{\rho}} = (.18, .23)$.

Emotional Stability ($k = 65$; $N = 11,967$): $\bar{r} = .09$; $\hat{\rho} = .12$; 95% $CI_{\hat{\rho}} = (.09, .14)$.

Extraversion ($k = 69$; $N = 11,304$): $\bar{r} = .09$; $\hat{\rho} = .11$; 95% $CI_{\hat{\rho}} = (.07, .15)$.

Agreeableness ($k = 63$; $N = 11,835$): $\bar{r} = .05$; $\hat{\rho} = .06$; 95% $CI_{\hat{\rho}} = (.02, .10)$.

Openness ($k = 55$; $N = 9,568$): $\bar{r} = .03$; $\hat{\rho} = .04$; 95% $CI_{\hat{\rho}} = (.00, .07)$.

To ascertain the generalizability of these results, we compared them to the most comprehensive meta-analysis of Big Five validities to date: Barrick et al.'s (2001) second-order meta-analysis. The above confidence intervals around the corrected correlations overlapped with Barrick et al.'s for each of the Big Five traits. The average difference (\bar{d}_r) in correlations was

1
2
3 small: $\bar{d}_r = .012$. The confidence intervals also overlapped among the uncorrected correlations.
4
5
6 The difference in correlations again was small: $\bar{d}_r = .010$. Thus, it appears that the dataset used
7
8 in this study is representative of the larger population of studies.
9

10 DISCUSSION

11
12 Implicit, explicit, dispositional, situational, and interactional perspectives on
13
14 organizational behavior have always existed, and perhaps will always exist. While most
15
16 organizational behavior researchers would probably consider themselves interactionists at some
17
18 level, theory and research on what is arguably the most focal criterion in organizational
19
20 behavior—job performance—has not necessarily followed suit. To be sure, ample research
21
22 suggests that the degree to which personality predicts job performance depends on contextual
23
24 variables (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1993), and quantitative reviews of the personality – job
25
26 performance literature have included moderator analyses (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991). Yet we
27
28 believe that some of the extant criticisms of personality validities in organizational literature
29
30 (Morgeson et al., 2007; Murphy & Dzieweczynski, 2005), like some of the criticisms of
31
32 personality validities in the personality literature that precede them (Mischel, 1968), are best
33
34 addressed by further theoretical and empirical work on interactional models.
35
36
37
38
39

40
41 The model developed and tested in this study—which integrated two theoretical
42
43 perspectives on person – situation interactionism—received general support. Specifically, the job
44
45 contexts derived from situation strength theory and trait activation theory significantly explained
46
47 why personality validities vary. While we believe this study successfully integrated these two
48
49 perspectives, we also explicitly compared their predictive validity (i.e., the degree to which each
50
51 framework, controlling for the influence of the other, predicted personality – job performance
52
53 relationships). A direct comparison of the variables comprising these theoretical explanations
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 suggested that trait activation theory may be relatively more important than situation strength
4 theory in explaining when and how personality is more predictive of job performance. The
5
6 variance attributable to situation strength, however, was far from trivial.
7
8

9
10 For all five traits, the Situation Strength: Process composite significantly predicted the
11 personality validity coefficients, showing that weak situations in terms of how the work is
12 performed produce significantly higher validities for personality traits in predicting job
13 performance. The Situation Strength: Outcomes composite predicted the validity of two traits:
14 agreeableness and openness. For these two traits, weak situations – in terms of fewer demands
15 for the outcomes of one’s work – produced higher validities.
16
17

18 The results were much the same for the trait activation theory variables.
19
20 Conscientiousness and openness were more important to job performance for jobs that afforded
21 independence in completing work, whereas emotional stability, agreeableness, and extraversion
22 were more predictive of job performance in jobs with strong social skills requirements.
23
24 Agreeableness was more negatively, and extraversion was more positively, related to job
25 performance in jobs with high levels of competition. Openness was more predictive of job
26 performance in jobs with strong innovation/creativity requirements. Extraversion, agreeableness,
27 and emotional stability were more predictive of job performance where jobs involved dealing
28 with unpleasant or angry people. Thus, there certainly seem to be both general and specific
29 situational conditions that facilitate the relevance of personality to job performance.
30
31

32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314
315
316
317
318
319
320
321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385
386
387
388
389
390
391
392
393
394
395
396
397
398
399
400
401
402
403
404
405
406
407
408
409
410
411
412
413
414
415
416
417
418
419
420
421
422
423
424
425
426
427
428
429
430
431
432
433
434
435
436
437
438
439
440
441
442
443
444
445
446
447
448
449
450
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469
470
471
472
473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537
538
539
540
541
542
543
544
545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770
771
772
773
774
775
776
777
778
779
780
781
782
783
784
785
786
787
788
789
790
791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807
808
809
810
811
812
813
814
815
816
817
818
819
820
821
822
823
824
825
826
827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917
918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946
947
948
949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958
959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Though most hypotheses derived from the theoretical model were supported, the results also contained some surprises. First, one link – the effect of attention to detail requirements on the link between conscientiousness and job performance – was actually significant in the opposite direction. The results suggest that conscientiousness is *less* predictive of job

1
2
3 performance in jobs that require attention to detail. One possible explanation for this surprising
4
5 result is that there are offsetting effects at the facet level. Specifically, if the two primary facets
6
7 of conscientiousness are responsibility-dutifulness and achievement-orientation (Mount &
8
9 Barrick, 1995) (or, according to DeYoung et al.'s [2005] typology, order and industriousness), it
10
11 seems logical that the responsibility-dutifulness aspect of conscientiousness is more relevant to
12
13 fulfilling detail requirements than the achievement aspect of conscientiousness. Indeed, jobs with
14
15 strong attention to detail requirements – such as clerks, secretaries, inspectors, and technicians –
16
17 might frustrate achievement-oriented individuals. Supporting this idea, Hough (1992) found that
18
19 whereas striving for achievement positively predicted performance for managers/executives, it
20
21 negatively predicted performance for health care workers. Moon, Livne, and Marinova (2013)
22
23 found that achievement-orientation predicted attraction toward organizational cultures that were
24
25 outcome-based, aggressive, and rewards-oriented.
26
27
28
29
30

31
32 To investigate this explanation in more detail, we identified studies in our dataset that
33
34 assessed either achievement or dutifulness/order. We then meta-analyzed the relationships of
35
36 these facets with job performance, and used the attention to detail job requirement to predict this
37
38 correlation. The results indicated that for studies that reported on the validity of
39
40 dutifulness/order, the attention to detail requirement positively and significantly predicted this
41
42 correlation ($\hat{B} = .293$ [$p < .05$]). Conversely, for studies on the correlation between achievement
43
44 and job performance, the attention to detail requirement negatively predicted the correlation ($\hat{B} =$
45
46 $-.212$ [$p < .05$]). We should note that the reason the overall result in Table 4 was negative is
47
48 because there were more studies that assessed achievement-orientation than those which assessed
49
50 dutifulness/order. Thus, it appears that the unexpectedly negative effect of attention to detail
51
52 requirements on the validity of conscientiousness is due to opposite effects at the facet level,
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 with the facet with the negative effect – achievement-orientation – being more common in our
4
5 dataset than the facet with the positive effect – dutifulness/order.
6
7

8 A second unexpected result was the presence of some non-hypothesized significant links.
9
10 Specifically, conscientiousness was a more positive predictor of job performance in jobs with
11
12 strong innovation/creativity requirements and which involved dealing with unpleasant or angry
13
14 people, extraversion was a negative predictor of job performance in jobs with strong attention to
15
16 detail requirements, and agreeableness more positively predicted job performance in jobs
17
18 requiring attention to detail and involving independence in completing work.
19
20
21

22 Though conscientiousness has not often been linked to creativity in past research, most
23
24 focal studies suggest that the relationship is a complex one (King, Walker, & Broyles, 1996). As
25
26 suggested by Feist (1998), it may be that innovation creativity requirements differ by job or
27
28 industry: How conscientiousness affects creativity is different for scientists than for artists.
29
30 Regarding the finding that conscientiousness was more predictive of performance in jobs that
31
32 involved dealing with unpleasant or angry people, conscientiousness is negatively related to
33
34 anger (Jensen-Campbell, Knack, Waldrip, & Campbell, 2007), suggesting that conscientious
35
36 people may respond to difficult situations in a more constructive manner. Future research should
37
38 investigate these possible mechanisms further.
39
40
41
42

43 As for agreeableness and jobs with attention to detail requirements, agreeable individuals
44
45 are compliant (Costa & McCrae, 1992), and it may be that their compliance is particularly
46
47 evident in detail-oriented work. Put differently, compliance with rules, standards, and procedures
48
49 may be particularly important in detail-oriented work (e.g., accounting), and agreeable
50
51 individuals may thus better meet work expectations in such jobs. On the other hand, given that
52
53 extraverts are more prone to sensation-seeking (Zuckerman, 1996), this may inhibit close
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 observance to rules and standards in detail-oriented work. Alternatively, extraverted employees
4 may find detail-oriented work less motivating (Judge & Cable, 1997). Finally, it is perhaps
5
6 hardest to explain why agreeableness is more predictive of performance in jobs emphasizing
7
8 independence, especially since such jobs, presumably, would emphasize teamwork less. Perhaps
9
10 overall performance of such jobs depends on discretionary “citizenship” behavior, which is
11
12 correlated with agreeableness (Chiaburu et al., 2011). As with conscientiousness, future research
13
14 should investigate these relationships further.
15
16
17
18
19

20 Although the individual links between the job context variables and their relevance to
21
22 personality – job performance relationships are important and meaningful in their own right,
23
24 arguably the results of most import are those that pertain to the heart of the theoretical
25
26 development – namely, the integrative test of the two guiding theoretical frameworks. Both
27
28 situation strength theory and trait activation theory have benefitted greatly from recent efforts at
29
30 further theoretical development of the constructs (Meyer et al., 2009, 2010; Tett & Burnett,
31
32 2003). Despite implicit and explicit acknowledgments of overlap among the frameworks, the
33
34 most recent theoretical efforts have been distinct. This distinction is warranted in that situation
35
36 strength is a general explanation for the degree to which personality predicts behavior, whereas
37
38 trait activation represents a more specific explanation. However, because both frameworks
39
40 explicitly address the question: “In what situations or contexts is personality best reflected in
41
42 behavior?”, it is important to better understand their similarities and differences. Tett and Burnett
43
44 note, “Trait relevance and situation strength are distinct situational characteristics, and both are
45
46 required for a full appreciation of situational factors involved in personality expression” (2003:
47
48 502). This study represents the first effort to integrate the two theoretical frameworks
49
50 conceptually; it also represents the first study to compare the two frameworks explicitly.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Overall, our results suggest that both a general theoretical construct—the variables
4 reflecting situation strength—and a specific theoretical construct—the variables reflecting trait
5 activation—explain to a significant degree the validity of the Big Five traits in predicting job
6 performance. Though researchers will differ in their judgments as to what constitutes meaningful
7 validity for personality variables (Roberts & Caspi, 2001), the results suggest that in the “right”
8 situations—namely, situations that are “weak” and where the trait is theoretically relevant—
9 personality validities are far from trivial. For example, whereas the average predictive validity of
10 some traits – especially extraversion ($\rho = .12$), agreeableness ($\rho = .11$) and openness ($\rho = .08$) –
11 is relatively weak, our results show that the theoretical context deeply affects the meaningfulness
12 of these variables. Specifically, the predicted validities of extraversion, agreeableness, and
13 openness in the weakest situations are $\hat{r} = .29$, $\hat{r} = .31$, $\hat{r} = .16$, respectively. Thus, when the
14 context is theoretically most appropriate (a weak situation and a context in which a trait is
15 activated), the validities of personality are often double what they are in the typical context.
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33

34 This has important implications for both future theoretical development—which we
35 discuss shortly—and for practice. As for practice, while some have questioned the practical
36 relevance of personality variables for human resource selection decisions (Morgeson et al., 2007;
37 Murphy & Dzieweczynski, 2005), our results show that when there is reason to believe that the
38 trait is relevant to the job context, the validities cannot be characterized as “disappointingly low”
39 (Schmitt, 2004: 348) to any but the most captious observer. In responding to Morgeson et al.’s
40 (2007) critique of the personality – performance literature, Tett and Christiansen commented,
41 “The ideal situation for any worker is one providing opportunities to express his or her
42 traits...such that trait expression is valued positively by others (bosses, peers, subordinates,
43 customers)” (2007: 977). Our results show that this ideal situation produces validities for
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 personality traits that are, while not strong, neither trivial in magnitude.
4

5 6 **Limitations, Contributions, and Future Research** 7

8 Our study has some limitations that require discussion. First, our study does not exhaust
9 the list of trait-relevant cues that might moderate personality – job performance relationships. In
10 this study we focused on job- or task-based cues, but there are other cues that may be relevant,
11 such as social factors (Tett & Burnett, 2003), human resource systems (Toh, Morgeson, &
12 Campion, 2008), and organizational culture (Judge & Cable, 1997). Future research might study
13 those variables as situational moderators as well.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 Second, we have grounded our model in the degree to which personality traits express
23 themselves in job performance. This is a bit removed from the degree to which personality
24 expresses itself, and the degree to which it expresses itself in behavior. While this is appropriate
25 given the goals of our study, it is important for future research to link how situations impede or
26 activate the expression of traits, and how these traits are manifest in specific job behaviors that,
27 in turn, lead to performance. There are situations, for example, that influence the degree to which
28 an extravert feels like or behaves like an extravert, just as there are situations that an extravert
29 may find more motivating, or more likely to produce assertive behaviors, than others. These sorts
30 of expressions are distinct from (but often related to) performance, and the situational features
31 that lead to these kinds of expressions may be different from those which lead to performance.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 This brings us to a third, related issue, which is a measurement consideration that is
46 intimately bound to a theoretical consideration. Specifically, what is the best way to
47 conceptualize and measure situational differences in the nature of a job? The term *job* actually
48 conflates three sources of variation in situational characteristics: (1) occupation; (2) organization;
49 and (3) nature of the work itself. In comparing occupation and organization, the job Cashier in
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 one organization may be quite different from the job Cashier in another. In comparing
4
5 organization and the nature of the work itself, two Cashiers employed by the same organization
6
7 might perform very different work on a day-to-day basis if they work for two different
8
9 supervisors, if they have coworkers of differing motivations and abilities, or if they work
10
11 different schedules. There are idiosyncrasies in the job performed by every individual employee.
12
13 One might argue that a situationalist approach is best revealed at the highest level of specificity
14
15 possible. However, so doing presents both conceptual and generalizability (the more specifically
16
17 one delineates a situation in which personality predicts job performance, the more difficult it is to
18
19 know whether that specific context works in different but similar contexts) limitations of its own.
20
21
22
23

24
25 Fourth, of Murray's (1938) two situational concepts, we studied only alpha press (here,
26
27 objective characteristics of an occupation). Beta press (in this case, job conditions as uniquely
28
29 perceived by an individual) as a moderator has, of course, been studied (Barrick & Mount,
30
31 1993). Each press has arguments in its favor. Alpha press is better suited to analysis at the
32
33 occupation level and it is, arguably, more methodologically rigorous in that it relies on
34
35 independent expert analysis. On the other hand, because the motivational aspects of a situation
36
37 matter most as they have psychological meaning to an individual (Cattell, 1963), beta press may
38
39 be more relevant to study with respect to motivational aspects of job performance. Because most
40
41 foundational scholars in interactional psychology emphasized both the objective and subjective
42
43 environment (Lewin, 1936; Murray, 1938), it would be worthwhile to determine whether similar
44
45 moderation works with beta press as was found in this study with respect to alpha press.
46
47
48
49

50
51 Finally, whilst our model is interactionist, that does not mean it "fits" with all
52
53 interactionist perspectives. Specifically, by relying on "unconditional and uncontextualized"
54
55 (Mischel, 2009: 287) conceptualizations of traits, we do not consider the kind of "behavioral
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 signatures” advocated by Mischel (see Mischel & Shoda, 1995), or the conditional measures
4
5 similarly advanced by Bandura (1999). Nor do we consider the ways in which traits and
6
7 situations may affect one another: Situations may be a function of personality (Bowers, 1973;
8
9 Diener, Larsen, & Emmons, 1984; Schneider, 1987), or personality may change over time in
10
11 response to the situation (Caspi, Roberts, & Shiner, 2005). As noted by Ekehammar (1974) a
12
13 generation ago, interactionism can mean many things to many people, and thus it is important to
14
15 articulate both what our model is, and what it is not. We certainly do not believe our study to be
16
17 the last word on person \times situation interactions in organizational behavior.
18
19
20
21

22 These limitations notwithstanding, the present study contributes to the personality,
23
24 situational, and interactional literature in three ways. First, most other “situational moderator”
25
26 studies are at the individual level (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1993). In these cases, personality and
27
28 situation were measured by the same source. Though this makes sense for reasons noted earlier,
29
30 we believe a more objective assessment of the job context, specifically at the job level, makes a
31
32 unique contribution as well. Second, most other meta-analytic research of the Big Five traits has
33
34 tested methodological moderators (e.g., study-level characteristics such as criterion measures), or
35
36 has grouped occupations into typological categories (sales, managerial, clerical). Though we did
37
38 control for some salient methodological variables in this study, our focus was on the theoretical
39
40 moderators. Third, research that has tested theoretical moderators either has not used the entire
41
42 Big Five framework (Meyer et al., 2009), or has investigated a single moderator category (e.g.,
43
44 Mount et al., 1998; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, & Roth, 1998).
45
46
47
48
49
50

51 As for this latter issue, Hogan flatly stated: “After 40 years, there is little agreement about
52
53 how to define situations, there is no widely accepted taxonomy of situations, and social
54
55 psychologists have no idea how to measure them in a standardized manner” (2009: 249). Though
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 we do not profess to have solved all the dilemmas and difficulties in classifying and measuring
4
5 work situations—no single study ever will—we do think we have provided both a conceptual
6
7 and methodological framework that is useful for improving the validity of personality traits in
8
9 predicting behavior, and in revealing how, and how much, the context matters to these validities.
10
11 We hope that by including both general (situation strength) and specific (trait activation)
12
13 contextual elements, our model, and the results testing it, provides conceptual and empirical
14
15 support for interactional organizational behavior.
16
17
18
19

20 Another advantage of the framework developed in this study is that it can be adapted to
21
22 study other traits, other situations (i.e., other job context variables), and other behaviors and
23
24 attitudes. As noted by Lucas and Donnellan, a problem with situationalist explanations is “this
25
26 research is often so bound by the particulars of a given situation that it is unclear how strongly
27
28 findings generalize to other settings and even other individuals” (2009: 147). However, we think
29
30 the theoretical framework we have developed and tested here can be adapted to other settings,
31
32 though we realize care must be taken in the development of specific job context variables within
33
34 this framework.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

REFERENCES

(References marked with an asterisk [*] indicate studies included in the analyses.)

- * Alessandri, G. & Vecchione, M. (2012). The higher-order factors of the big five as predictors of job performance. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 53: 779-784.
- * Ali, O. E. A., Garner, I., Magadaley, W. (2012). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance in police organizations. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 27: 1-8.
- * Alker, H. A., Straub, W. F., & Leary, J. 1973. Achieving consistency: A study of basketball officiating. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 3: 335-343.
- Argyle, M., & Lu, L. 1990. Happiness and social skills. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 11: 1255-1261.
- Ashton, M. C., Lee, K., & Paunonen, S. V. 2002. What is the central feature of extraversion?: Social attention versus reward sensitivity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83: 245-251.
- Azen, R., & Budescu, D. V. 2003. The dominance analysis approach for comparing predictors in multiple regression. *Psychological Methods*, 8: 129-148.
- * Bagozzi, R. P. 1978. Salesforce performance and satisfaction as a function of individual difference, interpersonal, and situational factors. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15: 517-531.
- Bandura, A. 1999. Social cognitive theory of personality. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, 2nd ed.: 154-196. New York: Guilford Press.
- * Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & Cheung, D. 1996. Time management and achievement striving interact to predict car sales performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 821-826.

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. 1991. The Big-Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44: 1-26.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. 1993. Autonomy as a moderator of the relationships between the big five personality dimensions and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 111-118.
- * Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. 1996. Effects of impression management and self-deception on the predictive validity of personality constructs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 261-272.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. 2001. Personality and job performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9: 9-30.
- * Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Strauss, J. P. 1993. Conscientiousness and performance of sales representatives: Test of the mediating effects of goal setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 715.
- * Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Strauss, J. P. 1994. Antecedents of involuntary turnover due to a reduction in force. *Personnel Psychology*, 47: 515-535.
- Barrick, M. R., Parks, L., & Mount, M. K. 2005. Self-monitoring as a moderator of the relationships between personality traits and performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 58: 745-767.
- * Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., & Piotrowski, M. 2002. Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 43-51.
- * Bauer, T. N., Erdogan, B., Liden, R. C., & Wayne, S. J. 2006. A longitudinal study of the

1
2
3 moderating role of extraversion: Leader-member exchange, performance, and turnover
4 during new executive development. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 298-310.
5
6

7
8 Beaty, J. C., Jr., Cleveland, J. N., & Murphy, K. R. 2001. The relation between personality and
9 contextual performance in "strong" versus "weak" situations. *Human Performance*, 14:
10 125-148.
11
12

13
14
15 * Bennett, M. 1977. Testing management theories cross-culturally. *Journal of Applied*
16 *Psychology*, 62: 578-581.
17
18

19
20 Bentea, C. C. & Anghelache, V. 2012. Comparative aspects concerning the effects of
21 extraversion on performance in a cognitive task in competitive and cooperative
22 environments. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 33: 558-562.
23
24

25
26
27 * Bergman, M. E., Donovan, M. A., Drasgow, F., Overton, R. C., & Henning, J. B. 2008. Test of
28 Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) theory of individual differences in task and contextual
29 performance. *Human Performance*, 21: 227-253.
30
31

32
33
34 * Berry, C. M., Page, R. C., & Sackett, P. R. 2007. Effects of self-deceptive enhancement on
35 personality-job performance relationships. *International Journal of Selection and*
36 *Assessment*, 15: 94-109.
37
38

39
40
41 * Bluen, S. D., Barling, J., & Burns, W. 1990. Predicting sales performance, job satisfaction, and
42 depression by using the achievement strivings and impatience-irritability dimensions of
43 type A behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75: 212-216.
44
45

46
47
48 Bollen, K., & Lennox, R. 1991. Conventional wisdom on measurement: A structural equation
49 perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, 110: 305-314.
50
51

52
53 Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. 2004. Understanding HRM-firm performance linkages: The role of
54 the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, 29: 203-221.
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Bowers, K. S. 1973. Situationism in psychology: An analysis and a critique. *Psychological*
4
5 *Review*, 80: 307-336.
6
7
- 8 * Brown, T. J., Mowen, J. C., Donovan, D. T., & Licata, J. W. 2002. The customer orientation of
9
10 service workers: Personality trait effects on self- and supervisor performance ratings.
11
12 *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39: 110-119.
13
14
- 15 Budescu, D. V. 1993. Dominance analysis: A new approach to the problem of relative
16
17 importance of predictors in multiple regression. *Psychological Bulletin*, 114: 542-551.
18
19
- 20 * Burke, L. A., & Witt, L. A. 2002. Moderators of openness to experience-performance
21
22 relationship. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17: 712-721.
23
24
- 25 Buss, D. M. 2009. An evolutionary formulation of person-situation interactions. *Journal of*
26
27 *Research in Personality*, 43: 241-242.
28
29
- 30 Caldwell, S. D., Herold, D. M., & Fedor, D. B. 2004. Toward an understanding of the
31
32 relationships among organizational change, individual differences, and changes in
33
34 person-environment fit: A cross-level study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89: 868–
35
36 882.
37
38
- 39 Campion, M. A., Morgeson, F. P., & Mayfield, M. S. 1999. O*NET's theoretical contributions to
40
41 job analysis research. In N. G. Peterson, M. D. Mumford, W. C. Borman, P. R. Jeanneret,
42
43 & E. A. Fleishman (Eds.), *An occupational information system for the 21st century:*
44
45 *The development of O*NET*: 297–304. Washington, DC: American Psychological
46
47 Association.
48
49
- 50 Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. 1993. When do individual differences matter? A paradoxical theory
51
52 of personality coherence. *Psychological Inquiry*, 4: 247-271.
53
54
- 55 Caspi, A., Roberts, B. W., & Shiner, R. L. 2005. Personality development: Stability and change.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56: 453-484.

4
5
6 Cattell, R. B. 1963. Personality, role, mood, and situation perception: A unifying theory of
7
8 modulators. *Psychological Review*, 70: 1-18.

9
10
11 Cattell, R. B., Eber, H. W., & Tatsuoka, M. M. 1970. *Handbook for the sixteen personality*
12
13 *factor questionnaire (16 PF)*. Champaign, IL: Institute for Personality and Ability
14
15 Testing.

16
17
18 * Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., & Hickmann, M. 2012. Effects of leader intelligence, personality
19
20 * and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance.

21
22 *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23: 443-455.

23
24
25 * Chan, D., & Schmitt, N. 2002. Situational judgment and job performance. *Human*
26
27 *Performance*, 15: 233-254.

28
29
30 Chernick, M. R. 2008. *Bootstrap methods: A guide for practitioners and researchers*. Hoboken,
31
32 NJ: Sage.

33
34
35 Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. 2011. The five-factor model of
36
37 personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal Of*
38
39 *Applied Psychology*, 96: 1140-1166.

40
41
42 Church, A. T., Ortiz, F. A., Katigbak, M. S., Avdeyeva, T. V., Emerson, A. M., Flores, J., &
43
44 Reyes, J. I. 2003. Measuring individual and cultural differences in implicit trait theories.
45
46 *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85: 332-347.

47
48
49 Connor-Smith, J. K., & Flachsbart, C. 2007. Relations between personality and coping: a meta-
50
51 analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93: 1080-1107.

52
53
54 * Conte, J. M., & Gintoft, J. N. 2005. Polychronicity, big five personality dimensions, and sales
55
56 performance. *Human Performance*, 18: 427-444.

- 1
2
3 * Conte, J. M., & Jacobs, R. R. 2003. Validity evidence linking polychronicity and big five
4 personality dimensions to absence, lateness, and supervisory performance ratings.
5
6 *Human Performance*, 16: 107-129.
7
8
9
10 Cooper, W. H., & Withey, M. J. 2009. The strong situation hypothesis. *Personality and Social*
11
12 *Psychology Review*, 13: 62-72.
13
14
15 Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. 1980. Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective
16
17 well-being: Happy and unhappy people. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,
18
19 38: 668-678.
20
21
22 Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. 1988. From catalog to classification: Murray's needs and the
23
24 five-factor model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55: 258-265.
25
26
27 Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. 1992. *The NEOPI-R: Revised NEO personality inventory and*
28
29 *NEO five-factor inventory*. Lutz, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
30
31
32 * Crant, J. M. 1995. The proactive personality scale and objective job performance among real
33
34 estate agents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80: 532-537.
35
36
37 Cronbach, L. J. 1957. The two disciplines of psychology. *American Psychologist*, 12: 671-684.
38
39
40 Cronbach, L. J. 1975. Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American*
41
42 *Psychologist*, 30: 116-127.
43
44 * Crook, A. E., Beier, M. E., Cox, C. B., Kell, H. J., Hanks, A. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. 2011.
45
46 Measuring relationships between personality, knowledge, and performance using single-
47
48 response situational judgment tests. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*,
49
50 19: 363-373.
51
52
53 * Day, D. V., & Silverman, S. B. 1989. Personality and job performance: Evidence of
54
55 incremental validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 42: 25-36.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 * DeGroot, T., & Kluemper, D. 2007. Evidence of predictive and incremental validity of
4
5 personality factors, vocal attractiveness and the situational interview. *International*
6
7 *Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15: 30-39.
8
9
10 DeYoung, C. G., Peterson, J. B., & Higgins, D. M. 2005. Sources of openness/intellect:
11
12 Cognitive and neuropsychological correlates of the fifth factor of personality. *Journal of*
13
14 *Personality*, 73: 825-858.
15
16
17 Diener, E., Larsen, R. J., & Emmons, R. A. 1984. Person \times situation interactions: Choice of
18
19 situations and congruence response models. *Journal of Personality and Social*
20
21 *Psychology*, 47: 580-592.
22
23
24 Doherty, R. W. 1997. The emotional contagion scale: A measure of individual differences.
25
26
27 *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 21: 131-154.
28
29
30 * Downey, L. A., Lee, B., & Stough, C. 2011. Recruitment Consultant Revenue: Relationships
31
32 * with IQ, personality, and emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and*
33
34 *Assessment*, 19: 280-286.
35
36
37 * Dubinsky, A. J., & Hartley, S. W. 1986. Antecedents of retail salesperson performance: A path-
38
39 analytic perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 14: 253-268.
40
41
42 * Dudley, N. M., McFarland, L. A., Goodman, S. A., Hunt, S. T., & Sydell, E. J. 2005. Racial
43
44 differences in socially desirable responding in selection contexts. *Journal of Personality*
45
46 *Assessment*, 85: 50-64.
47
48
49 Efron, B. 1987. Better bootstrap confidence intervals. *Journal of the American Statistical*
50
51 *Association*, 82: 171-185.
52
53
54 Ekehammar, B. 1974. Interactionism in personality from a historical perspective. *Psychological*
55
56 *Bulletin*, 81: 1026-1048.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 * Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. 2001. Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal-setting, motivation,
4 and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 1270-1290.
5
6
7
8 Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. 1999. Evaluating the use of
9 exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4: 272-
10 299.
11
12
13 * Fallon, J. D., Avis, J. M., Kudisch, J. D., Gornet, T. P., & Frost, A. 2000. Conscientiousness as
14 a predictor of productive and counterproductive behaviors. *Journal of Business and*
15 *Psychology*, 15: 339-349.
16
17
18 * Fannin, N., & Dabbs, J. M. 2003. Testosterone and the work of firefighters: Fighting fires and
19 delivering medical care. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 37: 107-115.
20
21
22 Feist, G. J. 1998. A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. *Personality*
23 *and Social Psychology Review*, 2: 290-309.
24
25
26 * Ferris, G. R., Witt, L. A., & Hochwarter, W. A. 2001. Interaction of social skill and general
27 mental ability on job performance and salary. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 1075-
28 1082.
29
30
31 * Fine, S. 2006. Relationships between personality measures and job performance ratings among
32 far eastern couriers. *Applied H.R.M. Research*, 11: 69-72.
33
34
35 Forehand, G. A., & von Haller Gilmer, B. 1964. Environmental variation in studies of
36 organizational behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 62: 361-382.
37
38
39 Funder, D. C. 2001. Personality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52: 197-221.
40
41
42 Funder, D. C. 2006. Towards a resolution of the personality triad: Persons, situations, and
43 behaviors. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40: 21-34.
44
45
46 Funder, D. C. 2008. Persons, situations, and person–situation interactions. In O. P. John, R. W.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Robbins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, 3rd ed.:
4
5 568-580. New York: Guilford Press.
6

7
8 * Furnham, A., Jackson, C. J., & Miller, T. 1999. Personality, learning style, and work
9
10 performance. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 27: 1113-1122.
11

12
13 Gallagher, D. J. 1990. Extraversion, neuroticism and appraisal of stressful academic
14
15 events. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 11: 1053-1057.
16

17
18 Goldberg, L. R. 1990. An alternative description of personality – the big-5 factor structure.
19
20 *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59: 1216-1229.
21

22
23 Goldberg, L. R. 1993. The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48:
24
25 26-34.
26

27
28 Gough, H. G. 1988. *Manual for the California Psychological Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA:
29
30 Consulting Psychologists Press.
31

32
33 * Graham, W. K., & Calendo, J. T. 1969. Personality correlates of supervisory ratings. *Personnel*
34
35 *Psychology*, 22: 483-487.
36

37
38 Graziano, W. G., & Eisenberg, N. 1997. Agreeableness: A dimension of personality. In R.
39
40 Hogan, J. A. Johnson, & S. R. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology*: 795–
41
42 824. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
43

44
45 Graziano, W. G., Feldesman, A. B., & Rahe, D. F. 1985. Extraversion, social cognition, and the
46
47 salience of aversiveness in social encounters. *Journal of Personality and Social*
48
49 *Psychology*, 49: 971-980.
50

51
52 Graziano, W. G., Hair, E. C., & Finch, J. F. 1997. Competitiveness mediates the link between
53
54 personality and group performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73:
55
56 1394-1408.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
- Graziano, W. G., Jensen-Campbell, L. A., & Hair, E. C. 1996. Perceiving interpersonal conflict and reacting to it: The case for agreeableness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70: 820-835.
- Guion, R. M., & Gottier, R. F. 1965. Validity of personality measures in personnel selection. *Personnel Psychology*, 18: 135-164.
- Haney, C., & Zimbardo, P. G. 2009. Persistent dispositionalism in interactionist clothing: Fundamental attribution error in explaining prison abuse. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35: 807-814.
- * Harrison, S. H., Sluss, D. M., & Ashforth, B. E. 2011. Curiosity adapted the cat: the role of trait curiosity in newcomer adaptation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96: 211.
- * Hattrup, K., O'Connell, M. S., & Wingate, P. H. 1998. Prediction of multi-dimensional criteria: Distinguishing task and contextual performance. *Human Performance*, 11: 305-319.
- * Hayes, T. L., Roehm, H. A., & Castellano, J. P. 1994. Personality correlates of success in total quality manufacturing. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 8: 397-411.
- * Helmreich, R. L., Sawin, L. L., & Carsrud, A. L. 1986. The honeymoon effect in job performance: Temporal increases in the predictive power of achievement motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71: 185-188.
- Hmel, B. A., & Pincus, A. L. 2002. The meaning of autonomy: On and beyond the interpersonal circumplex. *Journal of Personality*, 70: 277-310.
- Hobfoll, S. E. 1989. Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44: 513.
- * Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewé, P. L., Ferris, G. R., & Brymer, R. A. 1999. Job satisfaction and performance: The moderating effects of value attainment and affective disposition.

1
2
3 *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54: 296-313.

4
5
6 Hofstee, W. K. B., de Raad, B., & Goldberg, L. R. 1992. Integration of the Big Five and
7
8 circumplex approaches to trait structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,
9
10 63: 146-163.

11
12 * Hogan, R. 1971. Personality characteristics of highly rated policemen. *Personnel Psychology*,
13
14 24: 679-686.

15
16
17 Hogan, R. 2007. *Personality and the fate of organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
18
19 Associates.

20
21
22 Hogan, R. 2009. Much ado about nothing: The person-situation debate. *Journal of Research in*
23
24 *Personality*, 43: 249.

25
26
27 * Hogan, J., Rybicki, S. L., Motowidlo, S. J., & Borman, W. C. 1998. Relations between
28
29 contextual performance, personality, and occupational advancement. *Human*
30
31 *Performance*, 11: 189-207.

32
33
34 Hollenbeck, J. R., Williams, C. R., & Klein, H. J. 1989. An empirical examination of the
35
36 antecedents of commitment to difficult goals. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 74: 18-23.

37
38
39 Hough, L. M. 1992. The "Big Five" personality variables—construct confusion: Description
40
41 versus prediction. *Human Performance*, 5: 139-155.

42
43
44 Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. 1990. *Methods of meta-analysis: Correcting error and bias in*
45
46 *research findings*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

47
48 * Hunthausen, J. M., Truxillo, D. M., Bauer, T. N., & Hammer, L. B. 2003. A field study of
49
50 frame-of-reference effects on personality test validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*,
51
52 88: 545-551.

53
54
55 Hurtz, G. M. & Donovan, J. J. 2000. Personality and job performance: The Big Five revisited.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Journal of Applied Psychology, 85: 869-879.

Ickes, W. 1982. A basic paradigm for the study of personality, roles, and social behavior. In W. Ickes & E. Knowles (Eds.), *Personality, roles, and social behavior*: 305-341. New York: Springer.

Jackson, J. J., Wood, D., Bogg, T., Walton, K. E., Harms, P. D., & Roberts, B. W. 2010. What do conscientious people do? Development and validation of the Behavioral Indicators of Conscientiousness (BIC). *Journal of Research in Personality*, 44: 501-511.

* Jacobs, R. R., Conte, J. M., Day, D. V., Silva, J. M., & Harris, R. 1996. Selecting bus drivers: Multiple predictors, multiple perspectives on validity, and multiple estimates of utility. *Human Performance*, 9: 199-217.

* Jenkins, M. & Griffith, R. 2004. Using personality constructs to predict performance: Narrow or broad bandwidth. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19: 255-269.

Jensen-Campbell, L. A., Knack, J. M., Waldrip, A. M., & Campbell, S. D. 2007. Do personality traits associated with self-control influence the regulation of anger and aggression?. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 41: 403 - 424.

Johnson, J. W. 2000. A heuristic method for estimating the relative weight of predictor variables in multiple regression. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 35: 1-19.

Johnson, J. W. 2003. Toward a better understanding of the relationship between personality and individual job performance. In M. R. Barrick & A. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Personality and work*: 83–120. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Johnson, J. W. 2004. Factors affecting relative weights: The influence of sampling and measurement error. *Organizational Research Methods*, 7: 283-299.

Johnson, J. W., & LeBreton, J. M. 2004. History and use of relative importance indices in

- 1
2
3 organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 7: 238-257.
- 4
5 * Johnson, M. K., Rowatt, W. C., & Petrini, L. 2011. A new trait on the market: Honesty–
6
7 humility as a unique predictor of job performance ratings. *Personality and Individual*
8
9 *Differences*, 50: 857-862.
- 10
11 Joshi, A., & Roh, H. 2009. The role of context in work team diversity research: A meta-analytic
12
13 review. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52: 599-627.
- 14
15 * Joyce, W., Slocum, J. W., & Von Glinow, M. A. 1982. Person-situation interaction: Competing
16
17 models of fit. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 3: 265-280.
- 18
19 Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. 1997. Applicant personality, organizational culture, and
20
21 organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology*, 50: 359-394.
- 22
23 * Judge, T. A., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. 2006. Loving yourself abundantly: relationship of the
24
25 narcissistic personality to self- and other perceptions of workplace deviance, leadership,
26
27 and task and contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 762-776.
- 28
29 King, L. A., Walker, L. M., & Broyles, S. J. 1996. Creativity and the five-factor model. *Journal*
30
31 *of Research in Personality*, 30: 189-203.
- 32
33 Kirkcaldy, B., & Furnham, A. 1991. Extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and recreational
34
35 choice. *Personality and individual Differences*, 12: 737-745.
- 36
37 Koestner, R., & Losier, G. F. 1996. Distinguishing reactive versus reflective autonomy. *Journal*
38
39 *of Personality*, 64: 465-494.
- 40
41 * Ksionzky, S., & Mehrabian, A. 1986. Temperament characteristics of successful police
42
43 dispatchers: Work settings requiring continuous rapid judgments and responses to
44
45 complex information. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 14: 45-48.
- 46
47 * LaHuis, D. M., Martin, N. R., & Avis, J. M. 2005. Investigating nonlinear conscientiousness-
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 job performance relations for clerical employees. *Human Performance*, 18: 199-212.

4
5 Law, K. S., Wong, C., & Mobley, W. H. 1998. Toward a taxonomy of multidimensional
6
7 constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 23: 741-755.

8
9
10 * Lawrence, A. D. 2004. Screening for person-job fit: Incremental validity of a congruence based
11
12 approach to assessment. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Akron). *Dissertation*
13
14 *Abstracts International*, 65: 1060.

15
16
17 LeBreton, J. M., Ployhart, R. E., & Ladd, R. T. 2004. A Monte Carlo comparison of relative
18
19 importance methodologies. *Organizational Research Methods*, 7: 258-282.

20
21
22 LeBreton, J. M., & Tonidandel, S. 2008. Multivariate relative importance: Extending relative
23
24 weight analysis to multivariate criterion spaces. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93: 329-
25
26 345.

27
28
29 Lewin, K. 1936. *Principles of topological psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

30
31
32 Lipsey, M. W. 2003. Those confounded moderators in meta-analysis: Good, bad, and ugly.
33
34 *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 587: 69-81.

35
36
37 Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., & Straus, R. 2003. Emotional intelligence, personality, and the
38
39 perceived quality of social relationships. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35:
40
41 641-658.

42
43
44 Lorenzo-Seva, U., Ferrando, P. J., & Chico, E. 2010. Two SPSS programs for interpreting
45
46 multiple regression results. *Behavior Research Methods*, 42: 29-35.

47
48 * Loveland, J. M., Gibson, L. W., Lounsbury, J. W., & Huffstetler, B. C. 2005. Broad and narrow
49
50 personality traits in relation to the job performance of camp counselors. *Child and Youth*
51
52 *Care Forum*, 34: 241-255.

53
54
55 * Lucas, G. H. 1985. The relationship between job attitudes, personal characteristics, and job
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 outcomes: A study of retail store managers. *Journal of Retailing*, 61: 35-62.
4
5
6 Lucas, R. E., & Donnellan, M. B. 2009. If the person–situation debate is really over, why does it
7
8 still generate so much negative affect? *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43: 146–149.
9
10 * Lusch, R. F., & Serpkenci, R. R. 1990. Personal differences, job tension, job outcomes, and
11
12 store performance: A study of retail store managers. *Journal of Marketing*, 54: 85-101.
13
14 MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Jarvis, C. B. 2005. The problem of measurement model
15
16 misspecification in behavioral and organizational research and some recommended
17
18 solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90: 710-730.
19
20
21 * Maxham, J. G., Netemeyer, R. G., & Lichtenstein, D. R. 2008. The retail value chain: Linking
22
23 employee perceptions to employee performance, customer evaluations, and store
24
25 performance. *Marketing Science*, 27: 147-167.
26
27
28 McCrae, R.R. 1987. Creativity, divergent thinking, and openness to experience. *Journal of*
29
30 *Personality and Social Psychology*, 52: 1258-1265.
31
32
33 McCrae, R. R. 2001. 5 Years of Progress: A Reply to Block. *Journal of Research in*
34
35 *Personality*, 35: 108–113.
36
37
38 McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. 1997. Personality trait structure as a human universal.
39
40 *American Psychologist*, 52: 509-516.
41
42
43 McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. 1999. A five-factor theory of personality. In L. A. Pervin & O.
44
45 P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, 2nd ed: 139–153. New
46
47 York: Guilford Press.
48
49
50 * McManus, M. A., & Kelly, M. L. 1999. Personality measures and biodata: Evidence regarding
51
52 their incremental predictive value in the life insurance industry. *Personnel Psychology*,
53
54 52: 137-148.
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Meyer, R. D., Dalal, R. S., & Bonaccio, S. 2009. A meta-analytic investigation into the
4 moderating effects of situational strength on the conscientiousness-performance
5 relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30: 1077-1102.
6
7
8
9
10 Meyer, R. D., Dalal, R. S., & Hermida, R. 2010. A review and synthesis of situational strength in
11 the organizational sciences. *Journal of Management*, 36: 121-140.
12
13
14
15 * Mills, C. J., & Bohannon, W. E. 1980. Personality characteristics of effective state police
16 officers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 44: 703-742.
17
18
19
20 Mischel, W. 1968. *Personality and assessment*. New York: Wiley.
21
22 Mischel, W. 1973. Toward a cognitive social learning reconceptualization of personality.
23
24 *Psychological Review*, 80: 252-283.
25
26
27 Mischel, W. 1977. The interaction of person and situation. In D. Magnusson & N. S. Endler
28 (Eds.), *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology*: 333-
29 352. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
30
31
32
33
34 Mischel, W. 2009. From Personality and Assessment (1968) to personality science. *Journal of*
35 *Research in Personality*, 43: 282-290.
36
37
38
39 Mischel, W., & Shoda, Y. 1995. A cognitive-affective system theory of personality:
40 Reconceptualizing situations, dispositions, dynamics, and invariance in personality
41 structure. *Psychological Review*, 102: 246-268.
42
43
44
45
46 Monson, T. C., Hesley, J. W., & Chernick, L. 1982. Specifying when personality traits can and
47 cannot predict behavior: An alternative to abandoning the attempt to predict single-act
48 criteria. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology*, 43: 385-399.
49
50
51
52
53 Moon, H. K., Livne, E., & Marinova, S. V. 2013. Understanding the independent influence of
54 duty and achievement-striving when predicting the relationship between
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 conscientiousness and organizational cultural profiles and helping behaviors. *Journal of*
4
5
6 *Personality Assessment*, 95: 225-232.

7
8 Morgeson, F. P., Campion, M. A., Dipboye, R. L., Hollenbeck, J. R., Murphy, K., & Schmitt, N.
9
10 2007. Reconsidering the use of personality tests in personnel selection contexts.
11
12 *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 3: 683-729.

13
14
15 * Motowidlo, S. J., Brownlee, A. L., & Schmit, M. J. 2008. Effects of personality characteristics
16
17 on knowledge, skill, and performance in servicing retail customers. *International*
18
19 *Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 16: 272-281.

20
21
22 Mount, M. K., & Barrick, M. R. 1995. The Big Five personality dimensions: Implications for
23
24 research and practice in human resource management. *Research in Personnel and*
25
26 *Human Resources Management*, 13: 153-200.

27
28
29 Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Stewart, G. L. 1998. Five-factor model of personality and
30
31 performance in jobs involving interpersonal interactions. *Human Performance*, 11: 145-
32
33 165.

34
35
36 * Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Strauss, J. P. 1994. Validity of observer ratings of the big five
37
38 personality factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79: 272-280.

39
40
41 * Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Strauss, J. P. 1999. The joint relationship of conscientiousness
42
43 and ability with performance: Test of the interaction hypothesis. *Journal of*
44
45 *Management*, 25: 707-721.

46
47
48 * Mount, M. K., Oh, I. S., & Burns, M. 2008. Incremental validity of perceptual speed and
49
50 accuracy over general mental ability. *Personnel Psychology*, 61: 113-139.

51
52
53 * Mount, M. K., Witt, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. 2000. Incremental validity of empirically keyed
54
55 biodata scales over GMA and the five factor personality constructs. *Personnel*
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Psychology, 53: 299-323.

Murphy, K. R., & Dzieweczynski, J. L. 2005. Why don't measures of broad dimensions of personality perform better as predictors of job performance? *Human Performance*, 18: 343-357.

Murray, H. A. 1938. *Explorations in personality*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Newman, D. A. 2009. Missing data techniques and low response rates. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends*: 7-36. London: Routledge.

* Norris, G. W. 2002. Using measures of personality and self-efficacy to predict work performance. (Doctoral Dissertation, The Ohio State University). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 63: 2098.

* O'Connell, M. S., Hattrup, K., Doverspike, D., & Cober, A. 2002. The validity of the mini simulations for Mexican retail salespeople. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 16: 593-599.

Ones, D. S., Dilchert, S., Viswesvaran, C., & Judge, T. A. 2007. In support of personality assessment in organizational settings. *Personnel Psychology*, 60: 995-1027.

* Ono, M., Sachau, D. A., Deal, W. P., Englert, D. R., & Taylor, M. D. 2011. Cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, and the big five personality dimensions as predictors of criminal investigator performance. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 38: 471-491.

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. 1991. People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34: 487-516.

* Orpen, C. 1985. The effects of need for achievement and need for independence on the

1
2
3 relationship between perceived job attributes and managerial satisfaction and
4 performance. *International Journal of Psychology*, 20: 207-219.

5
6
7
8 Peters, L. H., Fisher, C. D., & O'Connor, E. J. 1982. The moderating effect of situational control
9 of performance variance on the relationship between individual differences and
10 performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 35: 609-621.

11
12
13
14
15 Peterson, N. G., Mumford, M. D., Borman, W. C., Jeanneret, P. R., Fleishman, E. A., Levin, K.
16 Y., Champion, M. A., Mayfield, M. S., Morgeson, F. P., Pearlman, K., Gowing, M. K.,
17 Lancaster, A. R., Silver, M. B., & Dye, D. M. 2001. Understanding work using the
18 Occupational Information Network (O*Net). *Personnel Psychology*, 54: 451-492.

19
20
21
22
23
24
25 * Puffer, S. M. 1987. Pro-social behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among
26 commission salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72: 615-621.

27
28
29
30
31
32 * Pugh, G. 1985. California psychological inventory and police selection. *Journal of Police
33 Science and Administration*, 13: 172-177.

34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42 * Quick, B. G. 2003. The demand-control/support model of job strain, neuroticism, and
43 conscientiousness as predictors of job outcomes in juvenile correctional officers.
44 (Doctoral Dissertation, Virginia Commonwealth University). *Dissertation Abstracts
45 International*, 64: 2935.

46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314
315
316
317
318
319
320
321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385
386
387
388
389
390
391
392
393
394
395
396
397
398
399
400
401
402
403
404
405
406
407
408
409
410
411
412
413
414
415
416
417
418
419
420
421
422
423
424
425
426
427
428
429
430
431
432
433
434
435
436
437
438
439
440
441
442
443
444
445
446
447
448
449
450
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469
470
471
472
473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537
538
539
540
541
542
543
544
545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770
771
772
773
774
775
776
777
778
779
780
781
782
783
784
785
786
787
788
789
790
791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807
808
809
810
811
812
813
814
815
816
817
818
819
820
821
822
823
824
825
826
827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917
918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946
947
948
949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958
959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000

Raja, U., & Johns, G. 2010. The joint effects of personality and job scope on in-role
performance, citizenship behavior and creativity, *Human Relations*, 20: 1-25.

Riggio, R. E. 1986. Assessment of basic social skills. *Journal of Personality and Social
Psychology*, 51: 649-660.

Roberts, B. W. 2009. Back to the future: Personality and assessment and personality
development. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43: 137-145.

- 1
2
3 Roberts, B. W., & Caspi, A. 2001. Personality development and the person-situation debate: It's
4 déjà vu all over again. *Psychological Inquiry*, 12: 104-109.
- 5
6
7
8 * Robertson, I. T., Baron, H., Gibbons, P., MacIver, R., & NyField, G. 2000. Conscientiousness
9 and managerial performance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*,
10 73: 171-180.
- 11
12
13 * Robie, C., & Ryan, R. A. 1999. Effects of nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity on the validity of
14 conscientiousness in predicting overall job performance. *International Journal of*
15 *Selection and Assessment*, 7: 157-170.
- 16
17
18 * Sackett, P. R., Gruys, M. L., & Ellingson, J. E. 1998. Ability-personality interactions when
19 predicting job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 545-556.
- 20
21
22 Salgado, J. F. 1997. The five factor model of personality and job performance in the European
23 Community. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82: 30-43.
- 24
25
26 * Salgado, J. F., & Rumbo, A. 1997. Personality and job performance in financial service
27 managers. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 13: 261-273.
- 28
29
30 * Savoy, P. J. 2004. Development and validation of a measure of self-directed learning
31 competency. (Doctoral Dissertation, Kent State University). *Dissertation Abstracts*
32 *International*, 65: 2670.
- 33
34
35 Schmitt, N. 2004. Beyond the Big Five: Increases in understanding and practical utility. *Human*
36 *Performance*, 17: 347-357.
- 37
38
39 Schneider, B. 1987. The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40: 437-453.
- 40
41
42 * Schneider, B. M. 2002. Using the big five personality factors in the Minnesota Multiphasic
43 Personality Inventory, California Psychological Inventory, and Inwald Personality
44 Inventory to predict police performance. (Doctoral Dissertation, Florida International
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 University). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 63: 2098.
4
5
6 * Schuerger, J. M., Kochevar, K. F., & Reinwald, J. E. 1982. Male and female correction
7
8 officers: Personality and rated performance. *Psychological Reports*, 51: 223-228.
9
10 * Slocum, J. W., & Hand, H. H. 1971. Prediction of job success and employee satisfaction for
11
12 executives and foremen. *Training and Development Journal*, 25: 28-36.
13
14 * Slocum, J. W., Miller, J., & Misshauk, M. 1970. Needs, environmental work satisfaction, and
15
16 job performance. *Training and Development Journal*, 24: 12-15.
17
18 * Small, R. J., & Rosenberg, L. J. 1977. Determining job performance in the industrial sales
19
20 force. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 6: 99-102.
21
22
23
24
25 Smillie, L. D., Yeo, G. B., Furnham, A. F., & Jackson, C. J. 2006. Benefits of all work and no
26
27 play: The relationship between neuroticism and performance as a function of resource
28
29 allocation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 139-155.
30
31
32 Snyder, M., & Ickes, W. 1985. Personality and social behavior. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson
33
34 (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology*, 3rd ed., vol. 2: 883-947. New York: Random
35
36 House.
37
38
39 Steel, P. D., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. 2002. Comparing meta-analytic moderator estimation
40
41 techniques under realistic conditions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 96-111.
42
43 * Steers, R. M. 1975. Effects of need for achievement on the job performance-job attitude
44
45 relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60: 678-682.
46
47
48 * Steers, R. M., & Spencer, D. G. 1977. The role of achievement motivation in job design.
49
50 *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62: 472-479.
51
52
53 * Stewart, G. L. 1996. Reward structure as a moderator of the relationship between extraversion
54
55 and sales performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 619-627.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 * Stewart, G. L. 1999. Trait bandwidth and stages of job performance: Assessing differential
4 effects for conscientiousness and its subtraits. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84: 959-
5 968.
6
7
8
9
10 * Stewart, G. L., & Nandkeolyar, A. K. 2006. Adaptation and intraindividual variation in sales
11 outcomes: Exploring the interactive effects of personality and environmental opportunity.
12 *Personnel Psychology*, 59: 307-332.
13
14
15 * Strauss, J. P., Barrick, M. R., & Connerley, M. L. 2001. An investigation of personality
16 similarity effects (relational and perceived) on peer and supervisor ratings and the role of
17 familiarity and liking. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74:
18 637-657.
19
20 * Sutherland, R., De Bruins, G. P., & Crous, F. 2007. The relation between conscientiousness,
21 empowerment, and performance. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5: 60-67.
22
23 Swann, W. B., Jr., & Seyle, C. 2005. Personality psychology's comeback and its emerging
24 symbiosis with social psychology. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31: 155-
25 165.
26
27 Switzer, F. S., Paese, P. W., & Drasgow, F. 1992. Bootstrap estimates of standard errors in
28 validity generalization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77: 123-129.
29
30 * Taylor, P. J., Pajo, K., Cheung, G. W., & Stringfield, P. 2004. Dimensionality and validity of a
31 structured telephone reference check procedure. *Personnel Psychology*, 57: 745-772.
32
33 Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. D. 2003. A personality trait-based interactionist model of job
34 performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 500-517.
35
36 Tett, R. P., & Christiansen, N. D. 2007. Personality tests at the crossroads: A response to
37 Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, and Schmitt (2007). *Personnel*
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 **Psychology**, 60: 967-993.
4
5
6 Tett, R.P., & Guterman, H. A. 2008. Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross
7
8 situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait activation. **Journal of Research in**
9
10 **Personality**, 34: 397-423.
11
12 Tett, R. P., Jackson, D. N., & Rothstein, M. 1991. Personality measures as predictors of job
13
14 performance: A meta-analytic review. **Personnel Psychology**, 44: 703-742.
15
16 * Thoresen, C. J., Bradley, J. C., Bliese, P. D., & Thoresen, J. D. 2004. The big five personality
17
18 traits and individual job performance growth trajectories in maintenance and transitional
19
20 job states. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 89: 835-853.
21
22
23
24 Toh, S. M., Morgeson, F. P., & Campion, M. A. 2008. Human resource configurations:
25
26 Investigating fit with the organizational context. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 93:
27
28 864-882.
29
30
31 * Toole, D. L., Gavin, J. F., Murdy, L. B., & Sells, S. B. 1972. The differential validity of
32
33 personality, personal history, and aptitude data for minority and nonminority employees.
34
35 **Personnel Psychology**, 25: 661-673.
36
37
38
39 Tonidandel, S., LeBreton, J. M., & Johnson, J. W. 2009. Determining the statistical significance
40
41 of relative weights. **Psychological Methods**, 14: 387-399.
42
43
44 Trevino, L. K. 1986. Ethical decision making in organizations: A person–situation interactionist
45
46 model. **Academy of Management Review**, 11: 601-617.
47
48 * Van Scooter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. 1996. Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as
49
50 separate facets of contextual performance. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 81: 525-531.
51
52
53 Vinchur, A. J., Schippmann, J. S., Switzer, F. S., & Roth, P. L. 1998. A meta-analytic review of
54
55 predictors of job performance for salespeople. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 83: 586-
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 597.
4

5
6 Viswesvaran, C., & Sanchez, J. I. 1998. Moderator search in meta-analysis: A review and
7
8 cautionary note on existing approaches. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*,
9
10 58: 77-87.
11

12
13 * Wallace, C., & Chen, G. 2006. A multilevel integration of personality, climate, self-regulation,
14
15 and performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 59: 529-557.
16

17
18 Wanous, J. P., & Hudy, M. J. 2001. Single-item reliability: A replication and extension.
19
20 *Organizational Research Methods*, 4: 361-37.
21

22
23 * Warr, P., Bartram, D., & Martin, T. 2005. Personality and sales performance: Situational
24
25 variation and interactions between traits. *International Journal of Selection and*
26
27 *Assessment*, 13: 87-91.
28

29
30 Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. 1984. Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive
31
32 emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin*, 96: 465-490.
33

34
35 * Weekes, E. M. 1994. The influence of personality dimensions and physical abilities on a pistol
36
37 shooting task. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Houston). *Dissertation Abstracts*
38
39 *International*, 55: 3447.
40

41
42 Weiss, H. M., & Adler, S. 1984. Personality and organizational behavior. *Research in*
43
44 *Organizational Behavior*, 6: 1-50.
45

46
47 Wiggins, J. S. 1991. Agency and communion as conceptual coordinates for the understanding
48
49 and measurement of interpersonal behavior. In W. M. Grove & D. Cicchetti (Eds.),
50
51 *Thinking clearly about psychology: Personality and psychopathology*, vol. 2: 89-113.
52
53 Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
54

55
56 Withey, M. J., Gellatly, I. R., & Annett, M. 2005. The moderating effect of situation strength on
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the relationship between personality and provision of effort. *Journal of Applied Social*
4
5
6 *Psychology*, 35: 1587-1608.

7
8 * Witt, L. A. 2002. The interactive effects of extraversion and conscientiousness on performance.

9
10
11 *Journal of Management*, 28: 835-851.

12
13 * Witt, L. A., Andrews, M. C., & Carlson, D. S. 2004. When conscientiousness isn't enough:

14
15 Emotional exhaustion and performance among call center customer service

16
17 representatives. *Journal of Management*, 30: 149-160.

18
19
20 * Witt, L. A., Burke, L. A., Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. 2002. The interactive effects of

21
22 conscientiousness and agreeableness on job performance. *Journal of Applied*

23
24
25 *Psychology*, 87: 164-169.

26
27 * Witt, L. A., & Ferris, G. R. 2003. Social skill as a moderator of the conscientiousness-

28
29 performance relationship: Convergent results across studies. *Journal of Applied*

30
31
32 *Psychology*, 88: 809-821.

33
34 * Wright, P. M., Kacmar, K. M., MacMahan, G. C., & Deleeuw, K. 1995. P=f(MxA): Cognitive

35
36 ability as a moderator of the relationship between personality and job performance.

37
38
39 *Journal of Management*, 21: 1129-1139.

40
41 * Yang, B., Kim, Y., & McFarland, R. G. 2011. Individual differences and sales performance: A

42
43 distal-proximal mediation model of self-efficacy, conscientiousness, and extraversion.

44
45
46 *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 31: 371-382.

47
48 Zuckerman, M. 1996. The psychobiological model for impulsive unsocialized sensation seeking:

49
50 A comparative approach. *Neuropsychobiology*, 34:125-129.

TABLE 1
Sample Jobs for Situation Strength and Trait Activation Variables

	Low scores	High scores
<i>Impact of decisions on coworkers/results</i>	Nursery worker Costume attendant Astronomer	Aviation inspector Police dispatcher Education administrator
<i>Consequences of error</i>	Library assistant Foreign language teacher Usher	Surgeon Ship captain Acute care nurse
<i>Responsibility for health/safety of others</i>	Proofreader Graphic designer Economist	Dentist Hoist/wench operator Ambulance driver
<i>Unstructured (vs. structured) work</i>	Forging machine tender Licensing examiner Railroad conductor	Recreational therapist Poet, creative writer Skin care specialist
<i>Freedom to make decisions</i>	Dancer Tire builder Ticket agent	Judge Hairdresser Chief executive officer
<i>Variety</i>	Assembler Rock splitter Meat packer	Nanny Zoologist Healthcare social worker
<i>Independence in completing work</i>	Database administrator Waiter / waitress Gaming cage worker	Anthropologist Taxi driver Marketing manager
<i>Attention to detail requirement</i>	Forester Massage therapist Model	Air traffic controller Accountant / auditor Legal secretary
<i>Social skills requirement</i>	Software engineer Pump operator Broadcast technician	Clergy Counseling psychologist Concierge
<i>Level of competition requirement</i>	Postal service clerk Nuclear reactor operator Historian	Coach / scout Financial manager Advertising sales manager
<i>Innovation/creativity requirement</i>	Archivist Court reporter Medical technician	Actor Systems analyst Materials scientist
<i>Dealing with unpleasant or angry people</i>	Composer Molecular biologist Craft artist	Correctional officer Telemarketer Flight attendant

TABLE 2

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) of, and Intercorrelations Among, Situation Strength and Trait Activation Variables^a

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Impact of decisions on coworkers/results	71.43	11.23	---												
2. Consequences of error	45.27	16.37	.39	---											
3. Responsibility for health/safety of others	46.58	21.88	.49	.67	---										
4. Situation Strength: Outcomes composite	54.43	13.91	.68	.85	.92	---									
5. Unstructured (vs. structured) work	77.61	12.20	.35	-.07	-.10	.01	---								
6. Freedom to make decisions	78.47	11.29	.55	.13	.19	.30	.74	---							
7. Variety	53.93	12.10	.45	.11	.20	.27	.58	.50	---						
8. Situation Strength: Process composite	70.01	10.19	.52	.07	.11	.22	.90	.86	.81	---					
9. Independence in completing work	49.22	13.26	-.28	-.32	-.49	-.46	-.04	-.10	-.43	-.22	---				
10. Attention to detail requirement	83.14	9.16	.28	.37	.23	.34	.27	.23	.27	.30	-.41	---			
11. Social skills requirement	50.05	20.05	.38	.03	.22	.23	.19	.28	.46	.36	-.25	-.03	---		
12. Level of competition requirement	54.40	19.56	.28	-.40	-.28	-.23	.30	.38	.37	.41	.02	.03	.32	---	
13. Innovation/creativity requirement	61.08	10.38	.35	.07	.08	.16	.57	.44	.62	.63	-.36	.50	.19	.36	---
14. Dealing with unpleasant or angry people	62.44	16.38	.13	.28	.31	.31	-.39	-.22	-.07	-.26	-.19	-.06	.34	-.07	-.33

^a $N = 562$. For $|r| \geq .08$, $p < .05$. For $|r| \geq .10$, $p < .01$. The two situation strength composites were formed from a unit-weighted average of the three corresponding facets preceding the composites. For Situation Strength: Outcomes, high scores indicate strong situations. For Situation Strength: Process, high scores indicate weak situations.

TABLE 3
Reliability of Situation Strength and Trait Activation Variables^{ab}

Variable	Reliability Among Study Raters		Reliability Between Study Raters and O*Net ^c	
	ICC-1	ICC-2	ICC-1	ICC-2
<i>Situation Strength: Outcomes</i>				
Impact of decisions on coworkers/results	.81	.98	.68	.79
Consequences of error	.76	.96	.84	.91
Responsibility for health/safety of others	.70	.95	.63	.77
<i>Situation Strength: Process</i>				
Unstructured (vs. structured) work	.30	.82	.60	.74
Freedom to make decisions	.65	.94	.64	.77
Variety	.67	.94	.81	.90
<i>Trait Activation Theory</i>				
Independence in completing work	.60	.96	.59	.71
Attention to detail requirement	.37	.89	.54	.68
Social skills requirement	.65	.96	.63	.77
Level of competition requirement	.59	.94	.61	.76
Innovation/creativity requirement	.50	.93	.57	.69
Dealing with unpleasant or angry people	.60	.91	.71	.82
Average	.60	.93	.65	.78

^a Study raters were 81 organizational behavior researchers.

^b ICC-1 = Intraclass correlation (reliability) for single rating. ICC-2 = Intraclass correlation (reliability) for mean rating.

^c For *Reliability Between Study Raters and O*Net*, we used: (1) average rating across study raters and (2) score in O*Net database.

TABLE 4
**Situation Strength and Trait Activation as Predictors of the Personality – Job Performance Relationship:
 Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability^a**

Situation Strength / Trait Activation Variable	Conscientiousness – Job Performance Relationship		Emotional Stability – Job Performance Relationship	
	\hat{B}	(SE \hat{B})	\hat{B}	(SE \hat{B})
<i>Situation Strength Theory</i>				
Situation Strength: Outcomes	.022	.109	-.004	.106
Situation Strength: Process	.295*	.124	.286*	.132
<i>Trait Activation Theory</i>				
Independence in completing work	.233**	.089	.062	.093
Attention to detail requirement	-.193*	.090	.083	.101
Social skills requirement	-.146	.086	.234**	.090
Level of competition requirement	-.071	.094	-.018	.100
Innovation/creativity requirement	.218*	.094	-.139	.131
Dealing with unpleasant or angry people	.249*	.106	.220*	.094
<i>Overall Variance Explained</i>				
R ²	.201**		.251**	

^a \hat{B} = Average bootstrapped regression coefficient, SE \hat{B} = bootstrapped standard error of \hat{B} . * p < .05 (two-tailed). ** p < .01 (two-tailed). For Situation Strength: Outcomes, high scores indicate strong situations. For Situation Strength: Process, high scores indicate weak situations.

TABLE 5
**Situation Strength and Trait Activation as Predictors of the Personality – Job Performance Relationship:
 Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness^a**

Situation Strength / Trait Activation Variable	Extraversion – Job Performance Correlation		Agreeableness – Job Performance Correlation		Openness – Job Performance Correlation	
	\hat{B}	(SE $_{\hat{B}}$)	\hat{B}	(SE $_{\hat{B}}$)	\hat{B}	(SE $_{\hat{B}}$)
<i>Situation Strength Theory</i>						
Situation strength: Outcomes	.021	.106	-.324*	.131	-.233**	.085
Situation strength: Process	.345**	.116	.424**	.163	.199*	.087
<i>Trait Activation Theory</i>						
Independence in completing work	-.177	.107	.305*	.143	.202*	.103
Attention to detail requirement	-.342**	.105	.411*	.175	.013	.102
Social skills requirement	.243*	.120	.259*	.122	.101	.112
Level of competition requirement	.252**	.093	-.400*	.169	-.115	.108
Innovation/creativity requirement	-.014	.130	-.099	.088	.332**	.124
Dealing with unpleasant or angry people	.314**	.122	.251*	.124	.023	.099
<i>Overall Variance Explained</i>						
R ²	.502**		.299**		.205**	

^a \hat{B} = Average bootstrapped regression coefficient, SE $_{\hat{B}}$ = bootstrapped standard error of \hat{B} . * p < .05 (two-tailed). ** p < .01 (two-tailed). For Situation Strength: Outcomes, high scores indicate strong situations. For Situation Strength: Process, high scores indicate weak situations.

TABLE 6
Dominance Analyses of Contribution of Individual Situation Strength Facets Beyond Situation Strength Principal Components^a

	C – JP Correlation	ES – JP Correlation	E – JP Correlation	A – JP Correlation	O – JP Correlation
<i>Impact of decisions on coworkers/results</i>					
Component 1: Process	79.63	45.24	40.97	48.61	51.05
Component 2: Outcomes	7.41	23.81	5.85	43.06	35.90
Impact of decisions on coworkers/results	12.96	30.95	53.17	8.33	13.05
<i>Consequences of Error</i>					
Component 1: Process	83.33	64.46	59.30	56.94	48.48
Component 2: Outcomes	10.92	21.60	22.65	25.00	26.52
Consequence of Error	5.75	13.95	18.04	18.06	25.00
<i>Responsibility for health/safety of others</i>					
Component 1: Process	93.21	61.93	90.98	49.58	39.77
Component 2: Outcomes	2.47	16.34	4.51	35.83	40.76
Responsibility for health/safety of others	4.32	21.73	4.51	14.58	19.47
<i>Unstructured (vs. Structured) Work</i>					
Component 1: Process	44.05	31.33	64.37	23.77	22.71
Component 2: Outcomes	2.98	39.20	3.88	14.75	31.50
Unstructured (vs. Structured) Work	52.98	29.48	31.75	61.48	45.79
<i>Freedom to Make Decisions</i>					
Component 1: Process	60.90	49.15	65.90	30.26	24.38
Component 2: Outcomes	7.05	32.48	7.68	43.42	53.52
Freedom to Make Decisions	32.05	18.38	26.43	26.32	22.10
<i>Variety</i>					
Component 1: Process	68.59	34.67	27.70	56.51	45.76
Component 2: Outcomes	7.05	28.67	2.37	19.01	42.66
Variety	24.36	36.67	69.93	24.48	11.58

^a Table entries are rescaled dominance weights. C = Conscientiousness; ES = Emotional stability; A = Agreeableness; E = Extraversion; O = Openness; JP = Performance. Totals for each three-variable set do not always equal 100.00% due to rounding error.

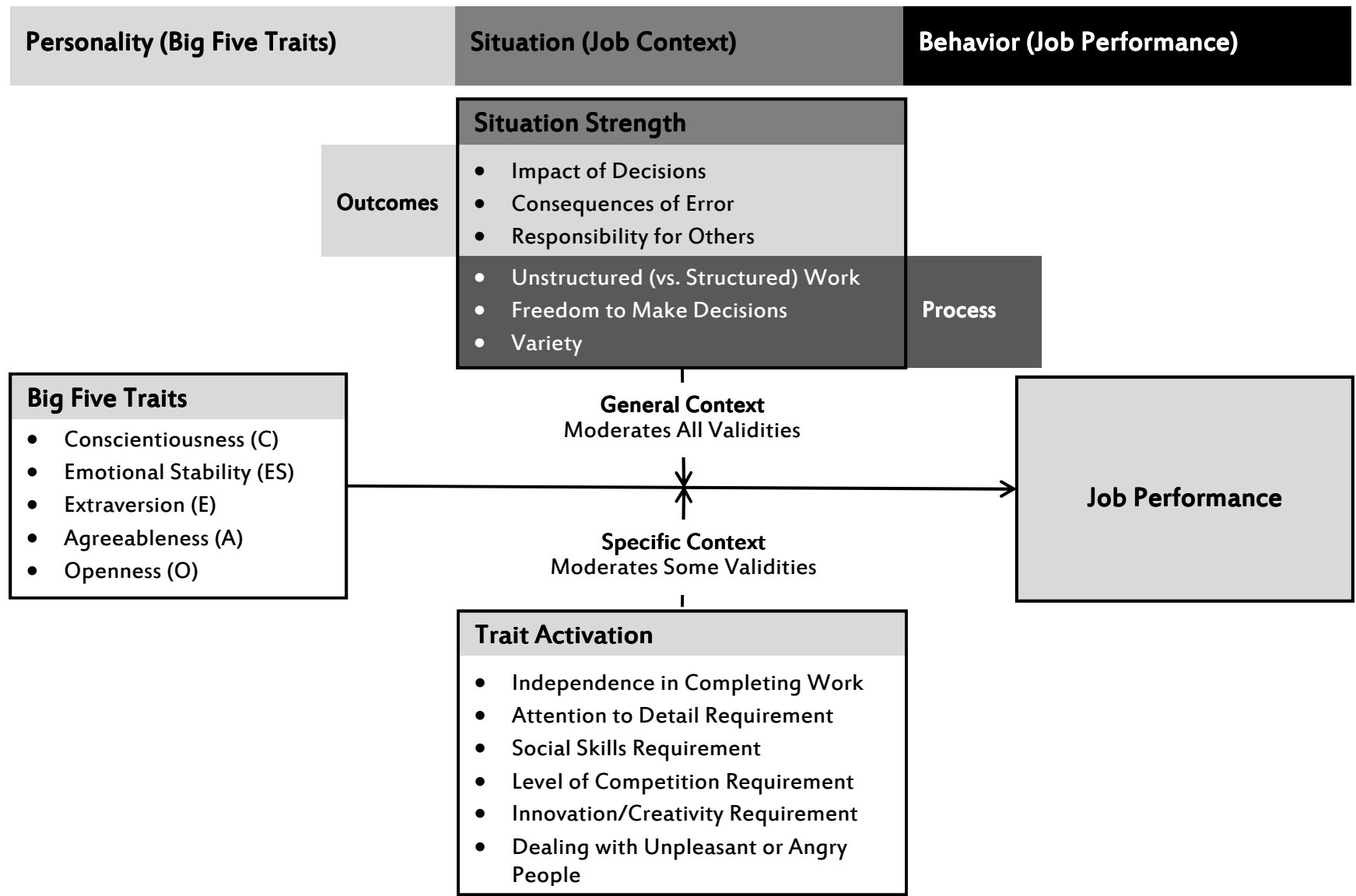
TABLE 7

Comparative Analysis of Two Theoretical Explanations of Personality – Performance Relationships^a

	Conscientiousness		Emotional Stability		Extraversion		Agreeableness		Openness	
	Trait	Situation	Trait	Situation	Trait	Situation	Trait	Situation	Trait	Situation
	Activation	Strength	Activation	Strength	Activation	Strength	Activation	Strength	Activation	Strength
<i>Two Situation Strength Composites and Six Trait Activation Variables</i>										
Dominance (Raw)	15.43	4.69	17.57	7.52	41.39	8.84	22.98	6.93	12.19	8.31
Dominance (Rescaled)	76.69	23.31	70.03	29.97	82.40	17.60	76.83	23.17	59.46	40.54
<i>Six Situation Strength Facets and Six Trait Activation Variables</i>										
Relative (Raw)	13.00	6.01	18.00	11.08	31.90	18.53	31.98	13.61	17.74	24.38
Relative (Rescaled)	68.40	31.60	61.90	38.10	63.26	36.74	70.16	29.84	42.12	57.88

^a Raw dominance weights are summed ΔR^2 values across “all subsets” regressions. Relative weights are summed relative weight indexes, computing using Lorenzo-Seva, Ferrando, and Chico’s (2010) program. Rescaled dominance and relative weights express R^2 values as a percent of explained variance.

Figure 1
Personality – Situation Interactional Theoretical Model^a



^a Impact of Decisions = Impact of Decisions on Coworkers/Results. Responsibility for Others = Responsibility for Health/Safety of Others

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES

Timothy A. Judge (tjudge@nd.edu) is the Franklin D. Schurz Professor of Management in the Mendoza College of Business at the University of Notre Dame and Visiting Professor, Division of Psychology & Language Sciences, Faculty of Brain Sciences, University College London. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. His research interests include personality and individual differences, job attitudes, moods/emotions, and leadership.

Cindy P. Zapata (czapata@mays.tamu.edu) is an associate professor of organizational behavior in the Mays Business School at Texas A&M University. She received her Ph.D. from the University of Florida. Her research interests include justice, trust, individual differences, and leadership.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60