IMPROVING EMPLOYEES' GOAL COMMITMENT: THE CONTRIBUTION OF

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

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A Dissertation Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology

University of Houston

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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By

Dianhan Zheng

May, 2015

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Abstract

I carried out a study with 355 employees of a social welfare agency to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support (POS), involving employees' perceptions of positive valuation by the organization and goal commitment. I found that POS was positively related to employees' commitment to assigned work goals which, in turn, was associated with increased in-role and extra-role performance. The relationship between POS and goal commitment was mediated by organizational identification and self-efficacy. Moreover, the relationships between POS and both organizational identification and self-efficacy were enhanced when employees perceived that their organization was highly competent in fulfilling its objectives. Thus, POS may serve as an important contextual factor contributing to employees' commitment to a variety of work goals.

Keywords: perceived organizational support, goal commitment, organizational competence

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Employees' Goal Commitment: The Contribution of Perceived Organizational Support

A considerable body of evidence indicates that setting difficult specific goals generally enhances performance (Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke & Latham, 2002). The extent to which such goals energize behavior depends on individuals' goal commitment involving the enduring determination to pursue the goal (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; Locke, Latham, & Erez, 1988; Locke & Latham, 1990). Goal commitment most strongly influences performance when attaining the goal requires high effort or when the probability of success is low (Naylor & Ilgen, 1984; DeShon & Landis, 1997; Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999). Goal commitment has been linked to various work outcomes favorable to organizations and employees, including increased job performance (e.g., Klein & Kim, 1998; Klein et al., 1999; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Wright, 1989), decreased turnover intention (Whiteoak, 2007), and increased job satisfaction (e.g., Leung, Chong, Ng, & Cheung, 2004; Roberson, 1990). In view of the motivational importance of goal commitment, scholars have called for a fuller understanding of goal commitment's antecedents (Locke et al., 1988; Klein, Cooper, & Monahan, 2013).

Locke & Latham (2002) proposed that the major precursors of goal commitment act in one of two ways. First, goal commitment may enhance the importance individuals place on the goal. For example, publicizing a GPA goal increased undergraduate students' goal commitment (Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989). Second, self-efficacy may contribute to goal commitment. For instance, students' self-efficacy in a business simulation task was positively related to their commitment to an assigned learning goal (Seijts & Latham, 2011). However, little attention has been paid to contextual influences on goal commitment (Klein

& Kim, 1998). I suggest that perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger,

Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) may be an important source of goal commitment by

contributing to both goal importance and self-efficacy.

POS involves employees' perception that the organization values their contributions

and cares about their well-being. According to organizational support theory (Eisenberger et

al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), employees personify the organization,

viewing it as a powerful entity with human-like characteristics, including a favorable or

unfavorable orientation toward them. By fulfilling socio-emotional needs, POS has been

found to enhance organizational identification (e.g., Bell & Menguc, 2002; Edwards &

Peccei, 2010). In turn, organizational identification should increase employees' readiness to

commit strongly to a variety of work goals. Employees who identify highly with the

organization tend to view the organization's successes as their own (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Also, organizational identification may lead employees to internalize organizational values

and norms, further increasing employees' valuation of work goals (Ashforth & Mael, 1989;

Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Thus, by enhancing organizational identification, POS should

contribute to the value employees place on work goals.

Additionally, the organization's affirmation of employees' contributions to

organization's objectives, conveyed by POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), has been found to

increase generalized self-efficacy (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Self-efficacy, in turn, has been

found to lead to greater goal commitment (Locke & Latham, 2002). Therefore, by enhancing

self-efficacy, POS should contribute to goal commitment. Further, because POS conveys a

generalized acceptance of employees' contributions as valuable to the organization, POS

should contribute to self-efficacy associated with multiple objectives. In sum, as shown in Figure 1, organizational identification and self-efficacy may mediate the relationship between POS and commitment to various goals in the workplace.

This contribution of POS to employees' generalized readiness to commit to a variety of work goals may serve as a valuable tool for organizations to promote employee performance. However, the effectiveness of POS in promoting goal commitment via organizational identification and self-efficacy may be influenced by employees' beliefs concerning the organization's competence (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). POS from an organization perceived to be highly competent may be more likely to enhance self-esteem and therefore have a greater influence on organizational identification than would POS from an organization deemed to be less competent. Similarly, POS from a highly competent organization may be viewed as a more credible source of information regarding personal capability, than a less competent organization. Thus, POS may lead to greater self-efficacy when provided by an organization perceived to be more competent. Therefore, the mediational influences of organizational identification and self-efficacy on the relationship between POS and goal commitment may be moderated by perceived organizational competence.

I carried out a study on the influence of POS on goal commitment as mediated by organizational identification and self-efficacy and organizational deification as moderated by perceived organizational competence. I further examined how POS, operating through these mediating and moderating factors, influences in-role and extra-role performance. The findings have important implications for understanding the bases of goal commitment.

Previously, there has been little attention to the influence of employee-organization relationships on goal commitment. To the extent that POS contributes to goal commitment, such a result would suggest that the organizational context contributes to goal commitment. Moreover, the current study also sheds light on organizational support theory by investigating the mechanisms by which POS contributes to motivated actions.

POS and Goal Commitment: Mediation by Organizational Identification and Self-efficacy

POS may contribute to goal commitment, in part, by increasing organizational identification and, thereby, enhancing employees' valuation of work goals. According to organizational support theory (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), POS conveys the organization's caring and positive valuation of the employees, which enhances organizational identification through fulfillment of employees' socioemotional needs (e.g., esteem, approval and emotional support; Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Fulfilling the need for esteem may be especially important for developing organizational identification. Accordingly, POS has been found to be positively related to organizational identification and its consequences (e.g., Bell & Menguc, 2002; Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Marique, Stinglhamber, Caesens & De Zanet, .2013; Ngo, Loi, Foley, Zheng, & Zhang, 2012; Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008).

Organizational identification, in which employees link their self-concept to their membership and roles within the work organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Mael & Tetrick, 1992; Riketta, 2005), can be an important source of self-worth. Employees who find their organization attractive would be more likely to integrate

their organizational membership into their self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). In turn, organizational identification may lead employees to more strongly view attainment of work goals as furthering their own welfare and therefore value work goals more (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Additionally, organizational identification, resulting from POS, may lead employees to internalize organizational values and norms (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Thus, organizational identification may be linked to increased goal commitment. Given that POS leads to organizational identification and that organization identification may contribute to commitment to work goals, organizational identification may mediate a positive relationship between POS and work goal commitment.

POS may also increase goal commitment by contributing to self-efficacy. Employees' self-efficacy at work involves confidence in being able to execute responsibilities effectively (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1986) maintained that self-efficacy is more strongly predictive of specific behavioral domains than broader categories of activities. However, organizational researchers have found it useful to investigate self-efficacy regarding more general aspects of job performance (Chen, Goddard, & Casper, 2004; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Meta-analytic evidence has demonstrated that general job-related self-efficacy was positively related to work-related performance (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007).

Individuals make efficacy judgments by evaluating the extent to which internal cues (e.g., familiarity with a task, positive/negative arousal when confronted with a task, etc.) and external cues (e.g., availability of resources, feedback information, etc.) indicate the capability for effective performance (Bandura, 1982; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). At work, criteria for successful performance are often partly defined by feedback from management.

Thus, the positive valuation of employees' contributions, conveyed by POS, may serve as an external cue for employees that they are generally effective at their jobs. Additionally, POS conveys willingness by the organization to aid employees when they face difficulties in their work tasks (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Such external aids contribute to self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Accordingly, POS has been found to be positively related to self-efficacy (e.g., Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Duffy & Lent, 2009; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brian, 2001; Lent et al., 2011).

Employees with high self-efficacy may be more willing to commit themselves to assigned goals because they are more assured of achieving them (Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke & Latham, 2002). Accordingly, meta-analytic evidence indicates a positive relationship between self-efficacy and employees' goal commitment (Wofford, Goodwin, & Premack, 1992). Given that POS may lead to enhanced organizational identification and self-efficacy, and that identification and self-efficacy enhance goal commitment, I hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 1: POS is positively related to work goal commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational identification and self-efficacy mediate a positive relationship between POS and work goal commitment.

POS and Goal Commitment: Moderating Influence of Perceived Organizational Competence

Recent meta-analytic evidence indicates that the majority of the variance in the relationships of POS with organizational identification and with self-self-efficacy remains unexplained (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Perceived organizational competence, referring to the

organization's apparent ability to meet its goals and objectives, may help explain this

variability. Two converging streams of research indicate the relevance of employees'

perceptions of organizational competence in organizational settings.

First, social perception theorists have provided a considerable body of evidence

suggesting that one of the primary dimensions of person perception involves

competence/effectiveness, as assessed by such trait adjectives as *efficiency, creativity*, and

capability (e.g., Bettelheim & Janowitz, 1950; Cuddy et al., 2009; Fiske, 1998; Fiske, Cuddy,

Glick, & Xu., 2002; Fiske et al., 2007; Yzerbyt, Kervyn, & Judd, 2008). Perceived

competence may serve the instrumental function of judging whether others can effectively

follow through on an inclination to provide favorable treatment or harm (Cuddy, Glick, &

Beninger, 2011). Preliminary evidence suggest that individuals form perceptions of

generalized competence about groups and organizations as well as individuals (Aaker,

Garbinsky, & Vohs, 2012; Aaker, Vohs, & Mogilner, 2010; Cuddy et al., 2009; Kervyn,

Fiske, & Malone, 2012; Yzerbyt et al., 2008). For example, Aaker et al. (2010) found that

individuals judged a fictional for-profit organization to be more competent than a non-profit

organization, as assessed by trait terms for competence, effectiveness, and efficiency. Further,

the participants expressed a greater willingness to buy an item from the for-profit

organization than from the non-profit because of its perceived high competence.

A second and converging line of line of evidence suggests that employees form

perceptions about organizational competence in order to determine whether they should trust

the organization (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999). According to Mayer et al.

(1995), the perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity of the organization, comprising its

trustworthiness, leads to trust, involving a willingness to place oneself at risk with the

expectation that the organization will look after one's welfare (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, &

Camerer, 1998). Ability is the most commonly studied of the attributes of trustworthiness

(Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007). In organizational settings, employees evaluate the

competence of important organizational actors and units, including supervisors (Colquitt &

Rodell, 2011; Lapierre, 2007), top management (Mayer & Davis, 1999), and the organization

itself (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Searle et al., 2011). Gillespie and Dietz (2009) defined

perceived organizational competence or ability as "the organization's collective

competencies and characteristics that enable it to function reliably and effectively to meet its

goals and responsibilities" (pp. 128), which is essentially the same conceptualization of

perceived organizational competence proposed by social perception theorists. Gillespie and

Dietz (2009) suggested that organizational system components, such as management practice,

strategy, and policies influence perceptions of the organization's ability. The perception of

organizational competence by individual employees may differ considerably, because their

differing abilities and responsibilities require varied resources which influence perceived

organizational competence and may not be optimally distributed. Further, employees have

differing and incomplete knowledge of organizational accomplishments.

Perceived organizational competence may enhance the relationship between POS and

organizational identification by meeting the need for esteem (cf. Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Being valued by a highly competent organization may better fulfill the need for esteem than

being valued by a less competent organization, leading to greater identification with the

organization. Additionally, Bandura (1977) suggested that feedback was more effective in

increasing self-efficacy when the source is deemed to have greater credibility. POS would be taken as a stronger indication of personal competence when employees view the organization as competent and effective. Thus, perceived organizational competence should enhance the relationships of POS with organizational identification and self-efficacy.

To sum up, POS should lead to work goal commitment by increasing organizational identification and self-efficacy. However, the relationships of POS with organizational identification and self-efficacy should be enhanced by perceived organizational competence. This is a case of first stage moderated mediation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007) in which the interactive effect of POS and perceived organizational competence carries through to work goal commitment via organizational identification and self-efficacy. Therefore, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 3: The indirect effects of POS on goal commitment via organizational identification (Hypothesis 3a) and self-efficacy (Hypothesis 3b) become stronger as perceived organizational competence increases.

POS, Goal Commitment and In-role and Extra-role Performance

To the extent that employees have the appropriate skills and knowledge, goal commitment should enhance performance of assigned goals through increased motivation (Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012; Locke et al., 1988). A meta-analysis confirmed this relationship when the range restriction produced by overly easy activities was eliminated (Klein et al., 1999). Thus, the positive relationship of POS on goal commitment, as mediated by self-efficacy and organizational identification and moderated by perceived organizational competence, should carry through to in-role performance.

Although in-role performance most directly contributes to goal attainment, kinds of performance beyond role expectations may also make a contribution (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). Klein et al. (2013) suggested that goal commitment should be positively related to extra-role behaviors when such behaviors are perceived by employees to aid goal attainment such as learning new skills and looking for ways to improve the effectiveness of work. Although Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) failed to confirm this predicted relationship, their measure of extra-role behavior included many items related to helping coworkers rather than more directly related to goal attainment. Therefore, I examined the relationship between goal commitment extra-role performance involving actions more supportive of goal attainment.

Hypothesis 4: Work goal commitment is positively related to both in-role and extra-role performance.

Given that organizational identification and self-efficacy should contribute to goal commitment, which relates to performance outcomes, I further hypothesized that self-efficacy and organizational identification influence employee performance as mediated by goal commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Work goal commitment mediates the (1) relationship of organizational identification with in-role and extra-role performance (Hypothesis 5a) and (2) the relationship of self-efficacy with in-role and extra-role performance (Hypothesis 5b).

In sum, the present study examined the mediated effects of POS on goal commitment via organizational identification and self-efficacy and the extent to which these effects are

conditional on perceived organizational competence, with consequences for in-role and extra-role performance.

Method

Sample and Procedure

I sent out email invitations for the electronic survey to 522 employees of a social welfare organization located in southwestern United States. Three hundred fifty-five employees (68%) completed the survey. Sixty-nine supervisors provided performance ratings. Of the respondents, 80.8% were female. All completed high school and 49.9% additionally completed college. Their average age was 47.3 years and their average organizational tenure was 8.0 years.

Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, all measures used a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

POS (α = .93). I used 10 highest-loading items taken from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Sample items are "The organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "The organizational fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (reverse-coded)". Prior research has consistently reported unidimensionality and high construct and predictive validity of versions of the survey of this length (Hellman, Fuqua, & Worley, 2006; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Perceived organizational competence (α = .97). I adapted Fiske et al.'s (2002) social perception scale which uses trait adjectives to assess perceived competence of target

individuals and groups. Employees indicated the extent to which each of 6 descriptive

adjectives (*competent, confident, capable, efficient, intelligent, and skillful*) applies to their

organization on a 5-point scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = Extremely).

Self-efficacy (α = .94). I used Schyns and Vo Collani's (2002) 8-item short form

occupational self-efficacy scale, which was found to be unidimensional and was positively

related to such constructs as self-esteem and job satisfaction. Perhaps because of the social

desirability and self-verification of providing positive responses to self-efficacy items, many

employees tend to respond with a substantial level of agreement to such scales, lessening the

scales sensitivity (e.g., Kirk & Brown, 2003; van den Berg & van der Velde, 2005). To

increase scale sensitivity, I stated the items in in the original scale in somewhat stronger

terms than the original. For example, I adapted the item "I feel prepared to meet most of the

demands in my job" to "I feel prepared to meet all of the demands in my job".

Organizational identification (α = .85). I used Mael & Ashforth's (1992) 6-item

organizational identification scale, which has been widely used and been shown to be reliable

(e.g., Hekman, Steensma, Bigley, & Hereford, 2009; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell,

2010). Meta-analytic evidence indicates the measures related to but distinct from other

constructs such as affective commitment and job satisfaction (Riketta, 2005). Sample items

include "The organization's successes are my successes" and "I am very interested in what

others think about my organization".

Goal commitment (α = .72). I asked respondents whether they are often assigned

work goals. If they answer "yes", they were directed to a 5-item scale, which is a subset of

Hollenbeck, Williams, and Klein's (1989) original 9-item goal commitment scale. A

measurement model meta-analysis found that this subset was unidimensional and reflected

the goal commitment construct more accurately than the 9-item scale (Klein, Wesson,

Hollenbeck, Wright, & DeShon, 2001). Sample items include "I am strongly committed to

pursuing the assigned work goals" and "It is hard to take the assigned work goals seriously

(reverse-coded)".

Performance. Supervisors responded to a questionnaire assessing in-role and extra-

role performance for each of their subordinates. They indicated the extent of their agreement

with each item on a 5-point scale (1 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). For in-role

performance, the five items with the highest factor loadings from Williams and Anderson's

(1991) in-role performance scales were used (α = .78). For extra-role performance, I used

Eisenberger et al.'s (2010) 8-item extra-role performance scale designed to assess voluntary

activities that contribute to organizational effectiveness (α = .78). Sample items of in-role

performance include "This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job

description" and "This employee completes tasks that are expected of him/her". Sample

items of extra-role performance include "This employee looks for ways to make the

organization more successful" and "This employee gains knowledge, skills and abilities that

will be of benefit to the organization".

Control variables. I included organizational tenure, age, educational level and goal

difficulty as control variables as they were found to be related to the dependent variables in

previous research (e.g., Klein et al., 1999; Lang, Zettler, Ewen, & Hülsheger, 2012; Ng &

Feldman, 2008; Morrison, 1994).

Results

Fifteen of the respondents indicated that they did not have assigned work goals and were therefore excluded from subsequent analyses.

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and intercorrelations are presented in Table 1. Supporting Hypothesis 1, POS was positively related to work goal commitment ($r = .28$, $p < .01$). POS was also positively related to organizational identification ($r = .55$, $p < .01$), and self-efficacy ($r = .31$, $p < .01$). There were significant positive relationships between (1) organizational identification and goal commitment ($r = .28$, $p < .01$); (2) self-efficacy and goal commitment ($r = .35$, $p < .01$); (3) goal commitment and in-role performance ($r = .18$, $p < .01$); and (4) goal commitment and extra-role performance ($r = .16$, $p < .01$).

Discriminant Validity

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test the distinctiveness of subordinates' self-report measures: POS, perceived organizational competence, self-efficacy, organizational identification, and goal commitment. The hypothesized five-factor model fit the data well ($CFI = .95$; $TLI = .94$; $RMSEA = .05$). Considering the positive views about the organization expressed by both POS and perceived organization competence, I compared the five-factor model to a four-factor model combining POS and perceived organization competence into one factor. I also examined a three-factor model that comprised the combination of POS, perceived organization competence, and organizational identification (Factor 1), self-efficacy (Factor 2), and work goal commitment (Factor 3). Next, I specified a two-factor that compared self-efficacy with a combination of the remaining measures. Finally, I examined a single-factor model that incorporated all five measures. As shown in Table 2,

only the five-factor model provided adequate fit; moreover, this model provided better fit,

based on Chi-square difference tests, than the remaining models.

Tests of Hypotheses

Because employees' supervisors evaluated multiple employees, I investigated the

influence of this dependency on the relationship among variables. I estimated separate null

random intercept models with no predictor using SAS Proc Mixed for organizational

identification, self-efficacy, goal commitment, in-role performance, and extra-role

performance (Snijders & Bosker, 2007). This provided estimates of between-group variance

(τ^2) and within-group variance (σ^2) in a given dependent variable. I found that organizational

identification ($\tau^2 = .11$, $p = 0.06$; *ICC(1)=.07*), self-efficacy ($\tau^2 = 0$, *ns; ICC(1)=0*), and goal

commitment ($\tau^2 = .04$, *ns; ICC(1)=.05*) did not significantly vary between groups. Therefore,

ordinary least square regression was used to test the hypotheses involving these dependent

variables. As in-role performance ($\tau^2 = .22$, $p < .01$; *ICC(1)=.44*) and extra-role performance

($\tau^2 = .38$, $p < .01$; *ICC(1)=.49*) did significantly vary between groups, I conducted

hierarchical linear modeling to test the hypotheses involving them.

To test Hypotheses 1 and 2 concerning the relationship between POS and goal

commitment, as mediated by organizational identification and self-efficacy, I used Hayes's

(2012) PROCESS macro for SPSS which generated bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence

intervals for the indirect effects. Predictors were mean-centered (Aiken & West, 1991). Table

3 presents the results of the mediation tests (PROCESS; Model 4). In accord with Hypothesis

1, the bootstrapped confidence interval for the total effect of POS on goal commitment did

not include zero (CI = (.12, 25)), indicating that POS was positively related to goal

commitment and supporting Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 concerns how organizational identification and self-efficacy mediate the

POS-goal commitment relationship. POS was positively related to both organizational

identification ($B = .47$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$) and self-efficacy ($B = .25$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$).

Further, controlling for POS and regressing goal commitment on the two mediators (i.e.,

organizational identification and self-efficacy), both organizational identification ($B = .10$,

$SE = .05$, $p < .05$) and self-efficacy ($B = .20$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$) were positively related to

work goal commitment. As shown in Table 3, the bootstrapped confidence interval for the

indirect effect of POS on goal commitment via organizational identification did not include

zero (CI = (.01, .10)), indicating that organizational identification mediated a positive

relationship between POS and work goal commitment. Similarly, the indirect effect of POS

on goal commitment via self-efficacy was significant, as the bootstrapped confidence interval

did not include zero (.03, .08). These results support Hypothesis 2, holding that

organizational identification and self-efficacy mediate a positive relationship between POS

and goal commitment.

Hypothesis 3 holds that the indirect effects of POS on goal commitment via

organizational identification (Hypothesis 3a) and self-efficacy (Hypothesis 3b) become

stronger as perceived organizational competence increases. Using Edwards and Lambert's

(2007) terminology, this is a first-stage moderated mediation model, in which the moderation

occurs in the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator. I used Hayes's

(2010) PROCESS macro for SPSS (Model 7) to provide bootstrapped confidence intervals

for conditional indirect effects. Table 4 presents the results. The POS × perceived

organizational competence multiplicative term predicted both organizational identification (B

$= .06$, $SE = .03$, $p < .05$) and self-efficacy ($B = .16$. $SE = .03$, $p < .01$), suggesting that

perceived organizational competence strengthened the effects of POS on organizational

identification and self-efficacy. I present in Figure 2 and Figure 3 the forms of the

interactions. The POS-identification relationship was significant at both high perceived

organizational competence and low perceived organizational competence but was stronger at

high perceived organizational competence (High perceived organizational competence:

simple slope $= .43$, $t = 7.03$, $p < .01$; Low perceived organizational competence: simple slope

$= .27$, $t = 4.45$, $p < .01$). The relationship between POS and self-efficacy was significant

when perceived organizational competence was high (simple slope $= .32$, $t = 4.65$, $p < .01$)

and was not significant when perceived organizational competence was low (simple slope $= -$

$.10$, $t = -.15$, $p = .15$).

I further examined the indirect effects of POS on goal commitment at different levels

of perceived organizational competence, namely conditional indirect effects (Preacher,

Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). As shown in Table 5, the indirect effect of POS on goal

commitment via organizational identification was significant regardless of the levels of

perceived organizational competence, because the bootstrapped confidence intervals for such

conditional indirect effects did not include zero (CI = (.012, .093) when perceived

organizational competence was high; CI = (.003, .078) when perceived organizational

competence was low). Additionally, the indirect effect of POS on goal commitment via

organizational identification was larger when perceived organizational competence was high

(*Estimate* = .04, *SE* = .02) than when it was low (*Estimate* = .03, *SE* = .02). That is, as

perceived organizational competence increased, the extent to which POS related to goal

commitment through organizational identification increased, supporting Hypothesis 3a. The

indirect effect of POS on goal commitment through self-efficacy was stronger when

organizational competence was high (*Estimate* = .05, *SE* = .02, *CI*= (.028, .095)) than when it

was low (*Estimate* = -.02, *SE* = .02, *CI* = (-.072, .010)). That is, the extent to which POS

affected goal commitment through self-efficacy increased as perceived organizational

competence increased, supporting Hypothesis 3b.The conditional indirect effects of POS on

goal commitment through organizational identification and self-efficacy are presented in

Figure 4 and Figure 5.

　　　Hypothesis 4 proposed that goal commitment is positively related to both in-role and

extra-role performance. As in-role performance and extra-role performance significantly

varied between groups, hierarchical linear modeling using Proc Mixed in SAS was conducted

to test the effect of goal commitment on them. As shown in Table 6, goal commitment was

positively related to both in-role (*B* = .10, *SE* = .03, *p* < .01) and extra-role performance (*B*

= .10, *SE* = .04, *p* < .05), supporting Hypothesis 4. I next assessed Hypothesis 5 which holds

that work goal commitment mediates the relationships of organizational identification and

self-efficacy with in-role and extra-role performance. I further used Monte Carlo Method for

Assessing Mediation (MCMAC; Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006) to test the indirect effects of

organizational identification and self-efficacy on performance outcomes via goal

commitment. Consistent with Hypothesis 5a, I found that goal commitment mediated the

relationship between organizational identification and in-role performance (CI for indirect

effect = (.001, .029)), as well as the relationship between self-efficacy and in-role

performance (CI for indirect effect = (.001, .038)). Similarly, consistent with Hypothesis 5b,

goal commitment mediated the relationship between organizational identification and extra-

role performance (CI for indirect effect = (.001, .032)) and the relationship between self-

efficacy and extra-role performance (CI for indirect effect = (.002, .041)).

Supplementary Analyses

Although I hypothesized that POS affects goal commitment, the opposite relationship

is also possible. That is, support from the organization may be more salient to employees

who are committed to the work goals as a way to achieve those goals. To obtain better

evidence regarding the direction of causality concerning POS and goal commitment, I re-

sampled employees regarding POS and work goal commitment 24 months following the

completion of the first study, using the same procedure to distribute the survey. Among the

355 respondents, 250 remained in the organization and 181 of them (72%) responded after

two years. Nineteen out of these 181 employees were excluded from the analyses because

they reported that they did not have assigned work goals. I used a cross-lagged panel design

with which Time 2 goal commitment and POS were regressed on Time 1 goal commitment

and POS, while correlating Time 1 POS and goal commitment. Tests for measurement

invariance were conducted to examine whether the two scales showed identical psychometric

properties over time (Cheung & Rensvold, 1999). The results indicated that metric invariance

and configural invariance were met for both POS and goal commitment scales.

Controlling for tenure, age, educational level and goal difficulty, I conducted

structural equational modeling (SEM) to test the cross-lagged panel model. The model fit the

data well ($\chi2$ (91) = 121.54, $p < 0.05$; *CFI* = 0.97; *TLI* = 0.96; *RMSEA* = 0.05). POS at Time

1 significantly predicted goal commitment at Time 2 after controlling for goal commitment at

Time 1 (*B* = 0.19, $p < 0.05$). However, goal commitment at Time 1 was not significantly

related to POS at Time 2 after controlling for POS measured at Time 1 (*B* = 0.07, *ns*).

Therefore, the results provided stronger causal inferences suggesting that POS leads to goal

commitment and not simply the reverse.

Discussion

I found that POS was positively related to employees' commitment to assigned work

goals which, in turn, was associated with increased in-role and extra-role performance. The

relationship between POS and goal commitment was mediated by organizational

identification and self-efficacy. Moreover, employees' perception about the competence of

their organization moderated the relationships between POS and both organizational

identification and self-efficacy. Thus, POS may serve as an important contextual factor

contributing to employees' commitment to a variety of work goals.

The findings have basic implications for understanding how employee-organization

relationships influence goal commitment. Most research on antecedents of goal commitment

involves ways of enhancing the value of rewards for achieving the goal or using skill training

to increase self-efficacy (Locke & Latham, 2002). POS contributed to goal commitment in

both ways– by enhancing goal importance and increasing self-efficacy. With regard to goal

importance, POS lead to goal commitment via organizational identification. Organizational

support theory holds that POS contributes to organizational identification by fulfilling socio-

emotional needs, especially the need for esteem (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger &

Stinglhamber, 2011). I found that, consistent with prior findings, employees with high POS

identified more with their organization (e.g., Bell & Menguc, 2002; Edwards & Peccei, 2010;

Marique et al., 2013). In accord with the views that employees with high organizational

identification view favorable organizational outcomes as personal success and internalize

organizational values and norms (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992),

organizational identification was positively related to goal commitment.

The findings also suggest that POS contributes to goal commitment by enhancing

self-efficacy. Organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) holds that

POS should increase generalized self-efficacy by providing feedback concerning employees'

contributions to organizational objectives. I replicated previous findings that POS was related

to self-efficacy (e.g., Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Duffy & Lent, 2009). Further, I found

that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between POS and goal commitment. However,

consistent with meta-analytic findings (Kurtessis et al., 2015), POS had a stronger

relationship with organizational identification than with self-efficacy. POS may play a

stronger role in fulfilling socio-emotional needs, leading to identification with the

organization, than serving as a signal for self-efficacy. POS may be less important than direct

feedback regarding competence involving the specific tasks required to achieve a goal

(Bandura, 1986). POS may have a stronger influence on self-efficacy when specific sources

of feedback regarding task performance are limited.

The findings of the current study have implications for organizational support theory

(Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Kurtessis et al., 2015).

Although a substantial amount of empirical research has examined the relationships of POS

with employees' favorable attitudes toward the organization, the contribution of POS to motivated action has not previously been examined. Goal setting is a fundamental determinant of the durability and intensity of employee performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). The present research suggests that, through increased goal commitment, employees will show more sustained and vigorous performance on behalf of the organization.

The association between POS and organizational identification was stronger when employees perceived their organization as highly competent. One major motive underlying organizational identification is the need for esteem (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Being positively valued may be taken a more accurate evaluation, leading to greater self-esteem, in the case of an organization perceived to be highly competent, as opposed to an organization viewed as less competent. Additionally, according to person perception and organizational trust theorists (Cuddy et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999), when perceived organizational competence is high, employees have greater confidence in the ability of organizations to carry out good intentions directed toward them.

The relationship between POS and self-efficacy was statistically significant when perceived organizational competence was high and was not significant when perceived competence was low. This finding is consistent with the view that individuals evaluate the credibility of feedback information when using it as a cue to form efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977). When employees perceive the organization as highly competent, POS may be viewed a more credible indication of self-efficacy.

Consistent with previous research, I found that goal commitment was positively related to in-role performance (Klein et al., 1999). Employees with high goal commitment

should be more motivated to achieve the goal through standard job activities (Locke et al., 1988, Klein et al., 2012). In accord with Piccolo & Colquitt's (2006) argument that goal commitment also promotes goal-oriented behaviors that go beyond standard job activities, I found that goal commitment was associated with increased extra-role performance. Piccolo & Colquitt (2006) previously failed to find a positive relationship between goal commitment and extra-role performance. A possible explanation for the difference in findings may involve the items used to assess extra-role behavior. Piccolo & Colquitt (2006) focused on organizational citizenship behaviors involving general helpfulness to the organizations and coworkers (Lee & Allen, 2002). In contrast, the operationalization of extra-role performance used in the present study involved such behaviors as learning new skills and looking for new ways to increase effectiveness at work, which may be viewed by employees as more instrumental to achieving work goals. Goal commitment may promote extra-role behaviors perceived by employees to clearly further specific work goals (Klein et al., 2013).

The present findings on the role of POS in goal commitment are consistent with the prior finding that the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) was positively related to goal commitment (Klein & Kim, 1998). POS provides an important addition to LMX for promoting goal commitment. According to LMX theory, because leaders have limited time and resources, they focus on developing high-quality LMX relationships with valued subordinates (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Bolino & Turnley (2009) suggested that the remaining employees treated as out-group members by their supervisors (i.e., low-quality LMX relationships) tend to experience relative deprivation when comparing themselves to high-LMX counterparts, which can be particularly detrimental to a variety of work outcomes.

Goal commitment may suffer for employees experiencing low-quality LMX. Because

organization-wide policies (e.g., HR benefits, fairness) can enhance POS without relegating

some employees to invidious comparisons, POS can be used to enhance goal commitment for

employees regardless of whether they are in low-quality or high-quality relationships with

supervisors. Thus, policies and procedures that promote POS may be a useful supplement to

LMX in contributing to goal commitment.

Methodological Advantages and Limitations

The use of a cross-sectional design for the main study left the direction of causality

between POS and goal commitment uncertain. However, the supplemental study provided

evidence that POS was related to change over time in goal commitment. Because POS was

more stable than goal commitment, further research should be carried out to consider whether

goal commitment also contributes to POS. While moderator effects, such as the enhanced

relationship between POS and both organizational identification and self-efficacy among

employees with greater perceived organizational competence, are not easily explained by

common method variance (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010), attention needs to be paid in

this regard to the mediational effects of organizational identification and self-efficacy on the

relationship between POS and goal commitment. Although Spector (2006) noted that

common method bias occurs less frequently than is often supposed, it would be helpful to

replicate the mediational results in a longitudinal design.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research could examine the additional contributions of POS to the goal setting

process. POS might enhance not only goal commitment but also increase employees' choice

of a high level of difficulty in self-set goals (Locke & Latham, 2006), which would raise the level of performance. Further, because POS conveys the organization's positive valuation and caring about employees, employees with high POS are more likely to trust the organization to understand that they may sometimes face unexpected difficulties when trying to achieve work goals, resulting in failure not of their own making (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014). Therefore, POS may make employees more willing to commit to goals that have a high potential payoff but a high risk of failure.

POS may also moderate the influence of stressors on goal commitment. Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau (2000) argued that some work-related demands, although stressful, have associated positive consequences for employees. Examples of these "challenge stressors" include time pressure and increased scope of responsibilities. Other work-related demands, or "hindrance stressors," were argued to have little-or-no perceived benefit for employees (e.g., red tape, role ambiguity). Cavanaugh reported that hindrance-related stress was negatively related to job satisfaction whereas challenge-related stress showed a slight positive relationship with job satisfaction. Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch (2009) found that challenge-based stress was positively related to performance and that this relationship was enhanced by POS. By increasing self-efficacy and the organization's willingness to provide help when needed, POS might increase employees' commitment to goals under conditions of high challenge- and hindrance- related stress.

The current research suggests the relevance of organizational competence. Future research could examine whether another dimension of organizational trustworthiness also moderates the effect of POS. Integrity of the organization refers to organizational actions that

consistently adhere to moral principles (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995). When

employees perceive the organization as low on integrity, the positive effects of POS might be

limited because employees may respect such an organization less.

Practical Implications

Our findings suggest that by enhancing POS organizations can increase employees'

commitment to diverse work goals. For example, favorable HR practices show a strong

relationship with POS (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore,

organizations may enhance goal commitment by providing a variety of favorable HR

practices appealing to various constituencies in their workforce (e.g., developmental

opportunities, good working conditions). The association between favorableness of HR

practices and POS was found to be six times greater when employees viewed the practices as

resulting from voluntary actions as opposed to external constraints such as government

regulations or contractual obligations (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Therefore, organizations

should take care to effectively communicate the voluntary nature and helpful intent behind

favorable HR practices. Fair treatment is also strongly related to POS probably because such

procedures are viewed as largely volitional on the part of the organization and have

implications for the long-term welfare of employees (Shore & Shore, 1995).

However, perceived organizational competence moderated the relationships of POS

with organizational identification and self-efficacy, with consequences for goal commitment.

This suggests that organizations should effectively communicate information regarding its

achievements to employees, such as improving the quality of internal services and carefully

considering the competence of candidates for supervisory positions. Further, organizations

would do well to enhance its real and communicated competence by making its bureaucracy

responsive to the needs employees and eliminating red tape as employees work toward goals

meet their goals.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present findings suggest that perceived organizational support is an

important driver of employee goal commitment which, in turn, contributes to job

performance. POS was found to influence goal commitment through enhanced organizational

identification and self-efficacy, as moderated by perceived organizational competence. By

strengthening the employee-organization relationship, the enhancement of POS may serve as

a useful adjunct to more traditional procedures for enhancing goal commitment.

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Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations and Reliability Estimates

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Tenure	96.28	98.32											
2. Goal difficulty	3.56	1.16	.09										
3. Education	4.30	.78	-.06	.25**									
4. Age	47.35	12.94	.49**	.09	-.04								
5. POS	4.73	1.42	-.02	-.02	.06	.11*	(.93)						
6. POC	5.85	1.31	.04	-.08	-.03	.03	.63**	(.97)					
7. Identification	5.26	1.24	.11*	.02	.03	.12*	.55**	.51**	(.85)				
8. Self-efficacy	5.31	1.21	.07	-.14*	.08	.04	.31**	.36**	.25**	(.94)			
9. Goal commitment	6.28	.92	.05	-.04	.08	.06	.28**	.31**	.28**	.35**	(.72)		
10. In-role performance	4.67	.70	.14**	.05	.20**	.07	.19**	.13*	.15**	.09	.18**	(.88)	
11. Extra-role performance	3.91	.91	.18**	.15**	.23**	.06	.16**	.12*	.18**	.06	.16**	.78**	(.96)

Note. POC = Perceived organizational competence. "Education" reflects categories of educational level (1 = "Completed grade school", 2 = "Some high school" 3 = "Completed high school" 4 = "Some college" 5 = "Completed college"). Values on the diagonal represent Cronbach's alpha (α). $N = 355$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 2.

Results for Confirmatory Factor Analyses

	$\chi 2$	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi 2$	Δdf
5-factor model	1018.16	550	.95	.94	.049	.068	-	-
4-factor model	2226.97	554	.81	.80	.092	.095	1208.81**	4
3-factor model	2636.78	557	.77	.75	.103	.097	409.81**	3
2-factor model	2930.10	558	.74	.72	.109	.097	293.32**	1
1-factor model	4753.89	560	.53	.50	.145	.141	1823.79**	2

Note. $N = 355$. *df* = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index. $^*p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 3

Regression Results for Mediation Tests

Predictor	Identification		Self-efficacy		Goal Commitment	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Intercept	2.87**	.42	4.19**	.48	4.09**	.40
Tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Goal Difficulty	.03	.05	-.16	.06	-.01	.04
Age	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
Education	-.02	.08	.10	.08	.03	.06
POS	.47**	.04	.25**	.04	.09*	.04
Identification					.10*	.05
Self-efficacy					.20**	.04

Direct and Indirect Effect				
	Effect	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Total effect of POS on goal commitment	.18	.03	.12	.25
Direct effect of POS on goal commitment	.09	.04	.01	.17
Indirect effect of POS on goal commitment through identification	.05	.02	.01	.10
Indirect effect of POS on goal commitment through self-efficacy	.05	.01	.03	.08

Note. $^*p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 4

Regression Results for Moderated Mediation Tests

Predictor	Organizational Identification		Self-efficacy		Goal Commitment	
	B	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Intercept	4.86**	.18	5.03**	.42	4.51**	.44
Tenure	.00**	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Goal Difficulty	.05	.05	-.14*	.05	-.01	.04
Age	.00	.01	-.00	.00	.00	.00
Education	.01	.07	.13	.08	.03	.06
POS	.34**	.05	.10	.05	.09*	.04
POC	.29**	.06	.40**	.07		
POS × POC	.06*	.03	.16**	.03		
Organizational Identification					.11*	.05
Self-efficacy					.20**	.04

Note. POC = perceived organizational competence. $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 5.

Bootstrapped Results for Conditional Indirect Effects

Mediator = Organizational Identification				
POC	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
-1 SD (-1.25)	.03	.02	.003	.078
M (0)	.04	.02	.007	.081
+1 SD (1.25)	.04	.02	.012	.093

Mediator = Self-efficacy				
POC	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
-1 SD (-1.25)	-.02	.02	-.072	.010
M (0)	.02	.01	-.004	.046
+1 SD (1.25)	.05	.02	.028	.095

Note. POC = perceived organizational competence.

Table 6.

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results for Performance Outcomes

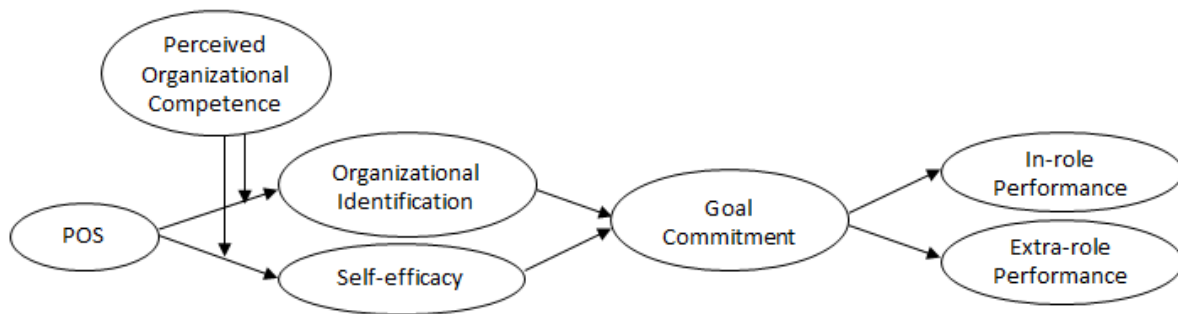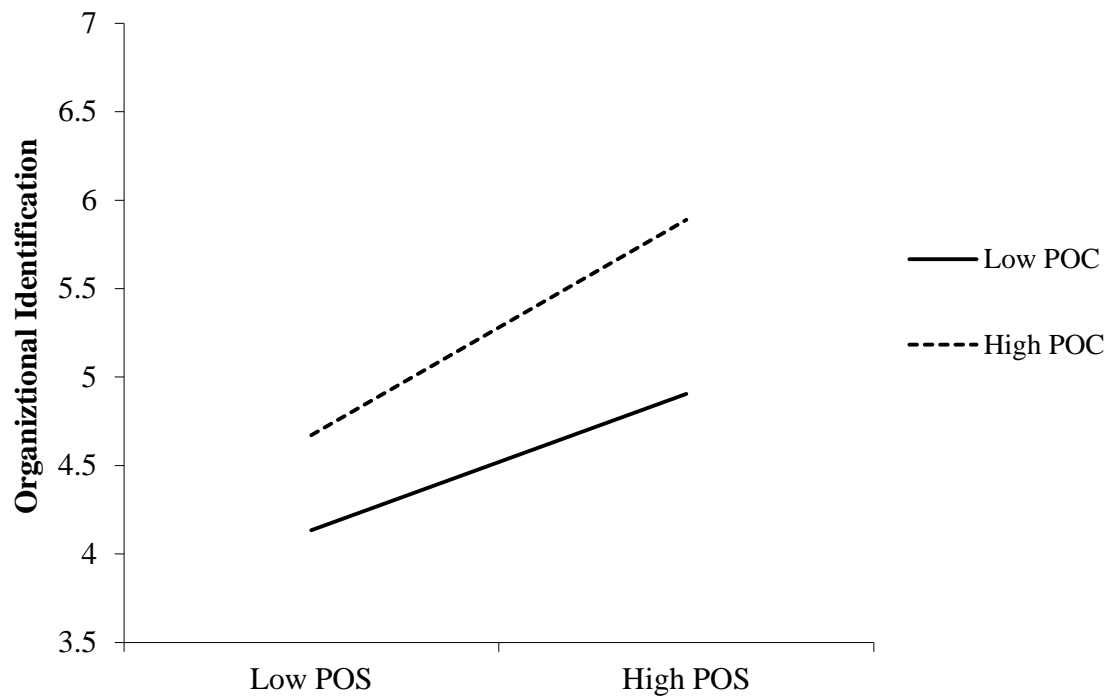|	In-role Performance				Extra-role Performance			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
Intercept	4.70**	.06	4.70**	.06	3.96**	.08	3.96**	.08
Tenure	.00	.00	.00*	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Age	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Education	.09	.05	.10	.05	.07	.06	.08	.06
Identification			.04	.02			.04	.03
Self-efficacy			.00	.02			-.01	.03
Goal Commitment	.10**	.03	.08*	.04	.10*	.04	.09*	.04

Note. *p* < .05, **p* < .01.
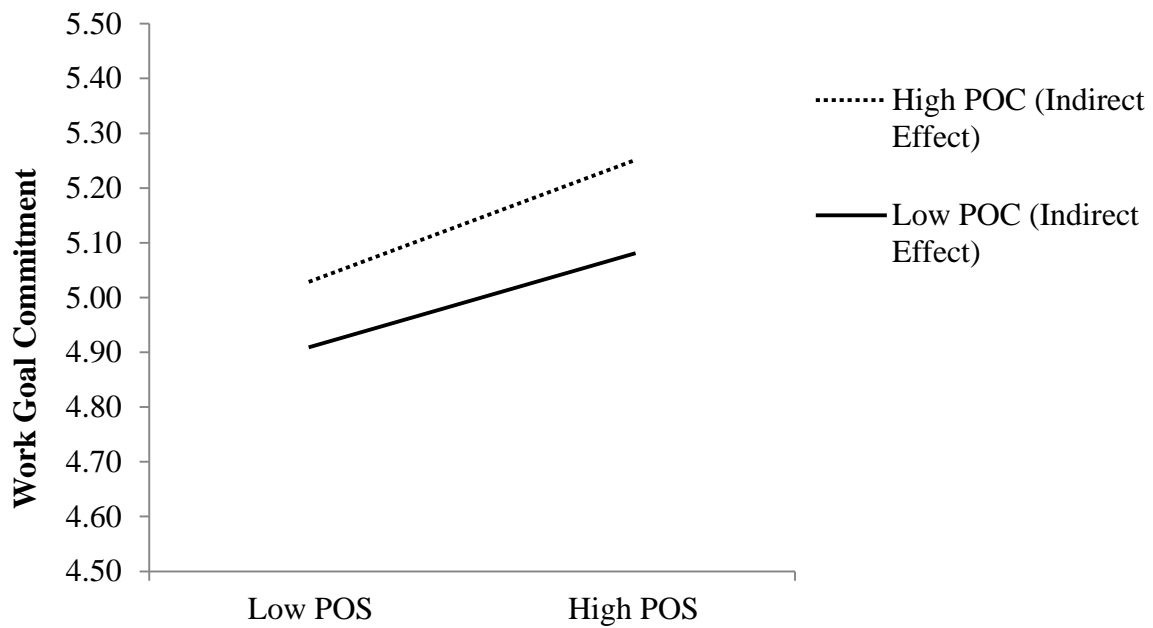
Figure 1. Conceptual Model

Figure 2. The interactive effect between POS and perceived organizational competence (POC) on organizational identification
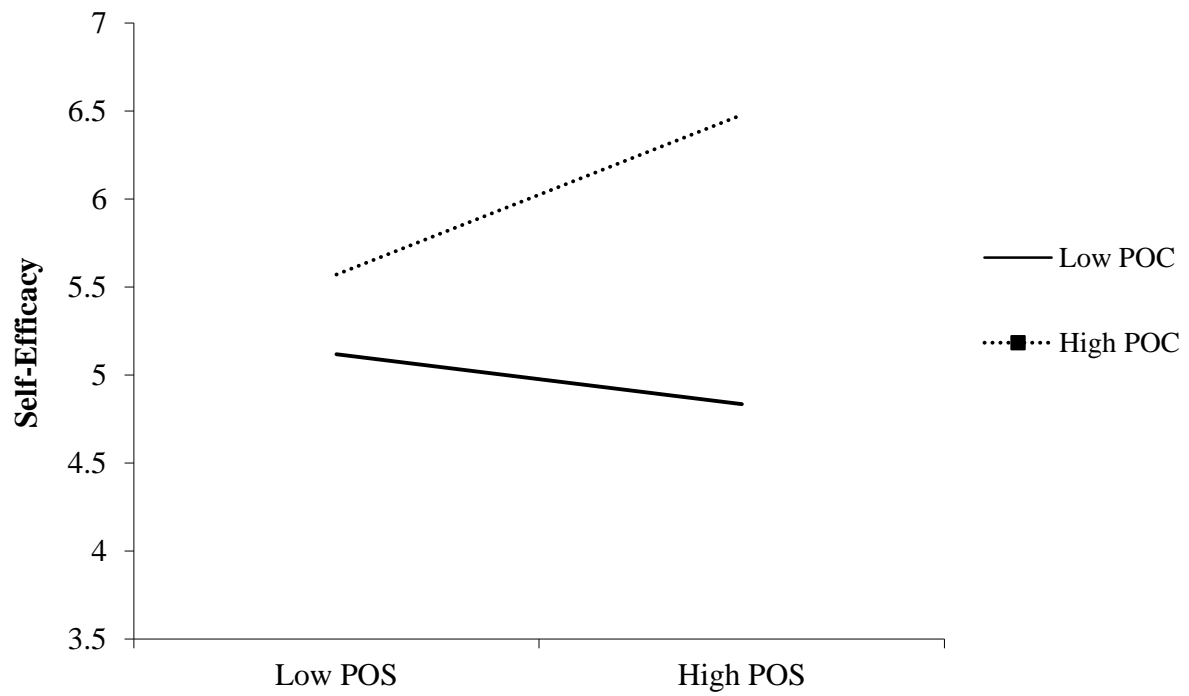
Figure 3. The interactive effect between POS and perceived organizational competence (POC) on self-efficacy

Figure 4. Conditional indirect effect of POS on goal commitment through organizational identification
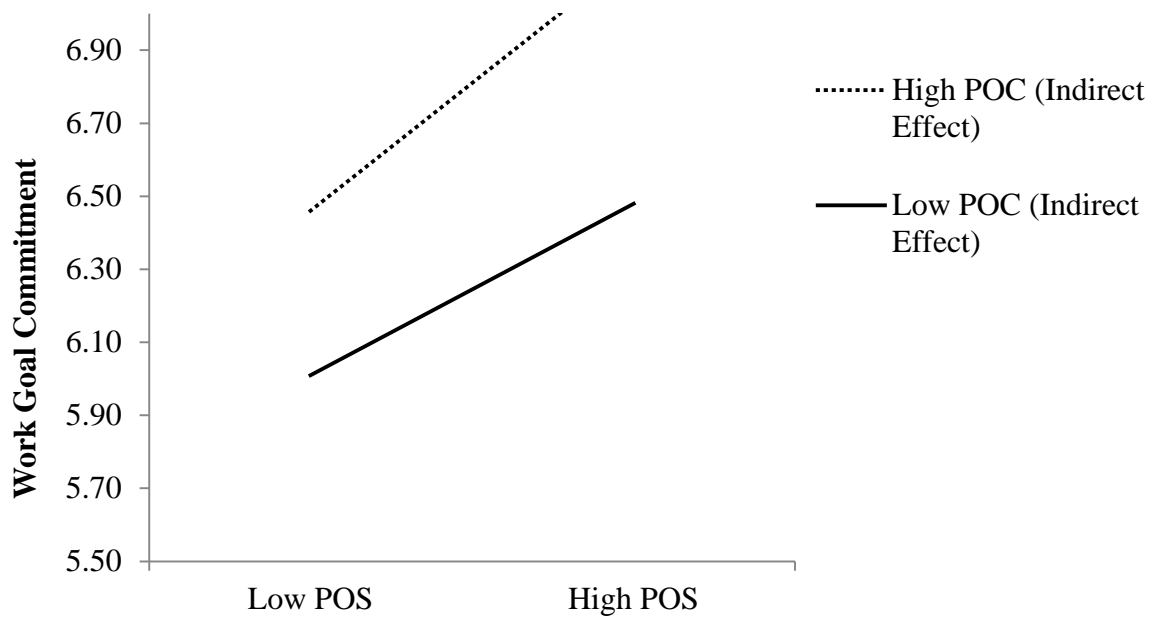
Figure 5. Conditional indirect Effect of POS on goal commitment through self-efficacy

Appendix

List of Scales

Employee Questionnaire

      A. Perceived Organizational Support
      B. Perceived Organizational Competence
      C. Organizational Identification
      D. Self-efficacy
      E. Work Goal Commitment

Supervisor Questionnaires

      F. In-role Performance
      G. Extra-role Performance

Employee Questionnaire

A. Perceived Organizational Support. (Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 500-507. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Texana values my contribution to its well-being.
2. Texana fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
3. Texana would ignore any complaint from me.
4. Texana really cares about my well-being.
5. Texana shows very little concern for me.
6. Texana takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
7. Even if I did the best job possible, Texana would fail to notice.
8. Texana cares about my general satisfaction at work.
9. Texana tries to make my job as interesting as possible.
10. Texana would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.

B. Perceived Organizational Competence. Adapted from Fiske, Cuddy, Glick and Xu's (2002) social perception scale. (Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*, 878–902.)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
Strongly	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree	Does not

Disagree			Disagree				Apply

1. Texana is competent.
2. Texana is confident.
3. Texana is capable.
4. Texana is efficient.
5. Texana is intelligent.
6. Texana is skillful.

C. Organizational Identification. (Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 103-123. doi:10.1002/job.4030130202)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. When someone criticizes Texana, it feels like a personal insult.
2. I am very interested in what others think about Texana.
3. When I talk about Texana, I usually say "we" rather than "they".
4. Texana's successes are my successes.
5. When someone praises Texana, it feels like a personal compliment.
6. If a story in the media criticized Texana, I would feel embarrassed.

D. Self-efficacy. Adapted from Schyns and Von Collani's (2002) occupational self-efficacy scale. (Schyns, B., & von Collani, G. (2002). A new occupational self-efficacy scale and its relation to personality constructs and organizational variables. *European Journal of Work And Organizational Psychology, 11,* 219-241. doi:10.1080/13594320244000148)

Please indicate your opinion for the following statements by circling the appropriate option.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Disagree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. Thanks to my abilities, I almost always know how to handle unforeseen situations in my job.
2. My past experiences in my job have completely prepared me for my future at work.
3. I can remain completely calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.
4. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can definitely find several solutions.
5. No matter what comes my way in my job, I'm able to handle it.
6. When confronted with a serious problem at my work, I can almost always think of something effective to do.
7. I feel prepared to meet all of the demands in my job.
8. I am sure that I could deal efficiently with any unexpected events in my job.

E. Work Goal Commitment. (Klein, H. J., Wesson, M. J., Hollenbeck, J. R., Wright, P. M., & DeShon, R. P. (2001). The assessment of goal commitment: A measurement model meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 85*, 32-55. doi:10.1006/obhd.2000.2931)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. It's hard to take the assigned work goals seriously.
2. Quite frankly, I don't care if I achieve the assigned work goals or not.
3. I am strongly committed to pursuing the assigned work goals.
4. It would take much to make me to abandon the assigned work goals.
5. I think the assigned work goals are good to shoot for.

Supervisor Questionnaire

F. In-role Performance. Five items with the highest factor loadings from Williams and Anderson's (1991) in-role performance scale. (Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*, 601-617. doi:10.1177/014920639101700305)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. This employee completes tasks that are expected of him/her.
2. This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job description.
3. This employee neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.
4. This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job.
5. This employee adequately completes assigned duties.

G. Extra-role Performance. (Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. E., Gonzalez-Morales, M., & Steiger-Mueller, M.(2010). Leader–member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 1085–1103. doi: 10.1037/a0020858)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the choices below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. This employee keeps well-informed where his/her knowledge might benefit Texana.
2. This employee gains knowledge, skills, and abilities that will be of benefit to Texana.
3. This employee looks for ways to make Texana more successful.
4. This employee makes suggestions to help Texana.

5. This employee takes action to protect Texana from potential problems.
6. This employee speaks favorably of Texana to other employees.
7. This employee encourages coworkers to try new and more effective ways of doing their job.
8. This employee always looks for new ways to improve effectiveness of his/her work.