Doctoral Program in Human Resources Psychology

Going Beyond In-role Performance: Antecedents and Dynamics of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Creative Performance

Doctoral Dissertation

Presented by:

Jorge Magdaleno Marco

Directed by:

Dra. Amparo Caballer Hernández

Dra. Isabel Rodríguez Molina

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A fantasy writer whom I admire recognized at the beginning of one of his books something like "this one was tough". I can relate to that assertion so unswervingly. However, the outcome of all this effort is the enormous satisfaction of completing a doctoral thesis like the one you are holding in your hands right now. Arguably, I can say that the hardships have been compensated.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Changes in the last decades have led to exploring and considering alternative conceptualizations for job performance that may be relevant in an organizational context that has distinctive characteristics. A series of economic crises and technological developments have led to an unstable and insecure work environment, which in turn has required greater adaptability not only for organizations but also for employees, who have seen how their work was no longer guaranteed for the rest of their lives like yesteryear (Walton, 2016). In search of greater employability and adaptability, employees have been forced to display performance that goes beyond basic job specifications.

In this context, the general objective of this doctoral dissertation is to study the antecedents and dynamics of organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance, two relevant dimensions of job performance that meet this requirement of going beyond the job description, commonly associated with in-role performance.

The first of the constructs that we analyze is organizational citizenship behavior. It is considered as discretionary individual behavior, not recognized directly or explicitly by the formal reward system that, taken together, promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). On the other hand, creative performance is "the production of useful and new ideas by an individual or small group of individuals working together (Amabile, 1988, p. 126)". To study both constructs, we start from a validation study (**Study 1**) that supports the notion that in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance are separate constructs and with sufficient identity in themselves but that at the same time are part of a second-order construct such as job performance. Later, **Study 2** analyzes the factors that promote organizational citizenship behavior and examine the processes that can lead to it, specifically the possible mechanism that operates between job autonomy and self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behavior through the four dimensions of job crafting ('increasing structural job resources', 'decreasing hindering job demands', 'increasing social job resources', and 'increasing challenging job demands'). **Study 3** examines the dynamic relationship that can exist between a classic indicator of well-being, such as job satisfaction, in its two facets of intrinsic and extrinsic, with creative performance; thus, the possible effect of job satisfaction on creative performance is considered, as well as the possible effect of creative performance on job satisfaction.

Last but not least, in order to begin to intuit more clearly the causal processes involved in the relationships studied, the studies have been carried out from a longitudinal perspective, thus gathering an increasingly strong demand in the scientific community. In our case, we are working with two (**Study 2**) and three (**Study 3**) sample collection times.

Next, let us see quickly what we ar going to cover in each chapter.

First and corresponding to **Chapter I**, we describe the fundamental aspects of job performance, such as its definition, dimensions, and measures.

In **Chapters II** and **III** we narrow down our focus, respectively, into organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance, addressing their definitions, antecedents, consequences, and dynamics, providing theories that can be relevant in each case.

In **Chapter IV**, we cover the methodology and the specific objectives of this doctoral dissertation. We describe the data collection procedure, the samples, the measures used, the designs, and the statistical analyses.

In **Chapter V**, we transcript our **Study 1**: "Development and validation of a short job performance measure in Spain". In it, a job performance scale is validated, comprising the dimensions of in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance.

In **Chapter VI**, we transcript our **Study 2**: “The effect of job autonomy and self-efficacy on organizational citizenship behavior and the mediating effect of job crafting: a longitudinal study". In it, we explore how the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior affect it with the mediator's possible mechanism of job crafting from a longitudinal perspective.

In **Chapter VII**, we transcript our **Study 3**: "Longitudinal relationships between job satisfaction and creative performance: a three-wave cross-lagged panel design". In it, we analyze reciprocal and longitudinal relationships between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction with creative performance.

Finally, in **Chapter VIII**, we present the conclusions of this doctoral dissertation. We establish a series of conclusions emanating from the studies as well as a general integration, to then proceed to describe the theoretical-practical implications and the limitations and recommendations for the future.

Additionally, we include an extended summary at the end of this thesis dissertation, in Spanish.

CHAPTER I. JOB PERFORMANCE

Job performance is one of the most important variables in the field of work, organizational, and personnel psychology. It has been a perennial concern of leaders since organizations exist, and systematically studied since Taylor's scientific management times. In this chapter, we expose its essential aspects, such as its definition, measure, or structure. We begin, however, referring briefly to the characteristics of the context in which organizations have to compete with each other today and encourage the performance of their employees.

The context of work

It is a trend in articles published nowadays in the field of work, organizational and personnel psychology to start by agreeing on the nature of the context in which organizations operate. This context is usually described as convulsive, changing, and unstable, whereas it forces organizations to be aggressively adaptative and offer their best to ensure organizational performance (Walton, 2016). They cannot provide their employees with the job security that was usual in previous decades.

This complex, dynamic, and stormy nature of the current socio-economic situation causes work patterns and employment structure to change rapidly. The expansion of new technologies, the growing multiplicity of consumer needs, the increase in the workforce qualification level, and the rising observance of the quality of life are some factors causing these circumstances. There is a demand for flexibility, adaptability, and uncertainty management. For employees, this means the need to obtain new skills and react appropriately to new tasks and opportunities for training (Boerlisjst & Meijboom, 1989).

All this scenery contrasts with classical approaches. In these, it was assumed that workers and jobs had permanent and identifiable characteristics, a notion that was congruent with a context characterized by being stable, certain, and predictable, in which a worker could develop their whole career in the same company. This was a deterministic and static conception of social reality, ruled by the concepts of predictability and certainty. Such an approach cannot be applied today because the assumptions on which it is based are not fulfilled. Incessant and active individual-work fit is the protagonist when facing the changing demands of the economic situation and the labor market (Walton, 2016).

However, despite this turbulent context, the focus must still be on employees' job performance. It is only through the performance of workers that organizational performance can be achieved (Kim & Ployhart, 2014), no matter whether it is based on the stability or the adaptability of the employees. Even when the characteristics of the production system have changed, its essentials remain the same, rooted in the necessity for productivity of workers' labor. Then, paying attention to people's behavior in the workplace is still the approach for companies to survive and thrive amongst the competition. In fact, the attention has been oriented into job performance with even more emphasis nowadays because employees have to walk the extra mile to remain in the organization, while organizations have to walk the extra mile among competitors in the market. Therefore, managers and researchers look at the facets of job performance usually considered external or complementary to strict plain duties of the worker. This implies going beyond what is supposed to be an adequate or just satisfactory performance concerning objectives' accomplishment. Employees are expected to go beyond the specifications of their job, thus ensuring that, if there was an option to make things better, it was taken every time.

This scenario is where aspects such as organizational citizenship behavior or creative performance, key variables for our thesis, become relevant. Nonetheless, let us not skip events and see first what job performance consists of.

What is job performance?

Definition of job performance

Campbell and Wiernik (2015) argue that there is an agreement in the literature about job performance to define it “as things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization’s goals (p. 48)”. As we can see, it is a sufficiently broad definition to cover those other aspects of job performance that are the focus of this thesis. Also, it is worth noting the behavioral component of the definition, based on what employees do at the workplace. However, it is not just about any behavior. The specific behavior that is important is the one that can provide value for the organization.

The issue of the definition of job performance connects with the problems pointed out in the previous section, related to the paradigm shift in the labor market (Frese, 2008). Job performance has traditionally been considered a reactive concept; the job was something stable to which employees had to adapt. The only thing that was required from the employees was to accomplish the tasks they were asked to do. This conception could be adequate at a time when the industry was dominated by the classic production model. Workers did not have to innovate or take the initiative but instead repeat the criteria and standards that others gave them. Today, however, for a company to be efficient, the opposite is required: faster adaptation to changes, less supervision, the use of technology, greater vertical integration, teamwork, and improved communication at the group level. Employees also need to take responsibility for the development of their own skills. Passive conceptions of performance do not take into account the changes that employees can make in their job, which are also important. It is in this context that we contemplate complementary aspects of job performance, such as organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance. They arise from this paradigm shift and the need to face organizational challenges proactively, as opposed to traditional use.

Relationships of job performance with other related concepts

In this definitional section, it is important to differentiate job performance from other related concepts. First, there is a distinction between behaviors, performance, and results (Motowidlo & Harrison, 2012). **Behavior** is what people do in any non-specific context (workplace or other). **Performance** is the expected behavior, valuable for the organization in which people work. And **results** are aspects of the organization that can be modified by what employees do in ways that contribute to or detract from organizational effectiveness. It is understandable the desirability of results for organizations to focus on since it is what helps or hinders an organization in reaching its objectives. However, the results are sometimes due to causes that are external to employees' will, so it would be unfair and ineffective to evaluate the contribution of these to the organization based on aspects over which they do not always have control. For example, the economic situation of a country could have an effect on the employees' sales volume in a sales company, without these employees having necessarily anything to do with that reduction in selling volume of that period. In addition, psychology today is a behavioral science (Motowidlo & Harrison, 2012); understanding job performance as a behavioral phenomenon helps us to understand the processes and mechanisms by which employees operate, and also to design the different human resources practices that are implemented in most companies today, such as personnel selection or performance evaluation. Finally, the behavioral definition of job performance helps to differentiate it from other variables of the individual that can also help achieve organizational objectives, but that do not do so as directly as behavior, such as knowledge, skills, or attitudes (Motowidlo et al., 1997).

Other concepts with which it is convenient to relate to and distinguish from job performance are organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Sinangil et al., 2001). The difference between **effectiveness** and performance is that the former is the result of performance behaviors or activities. In this sense, it is a concept similar to that of results, exposed in the previous paragraph. In the case of **efficiency**, it has not only to do with the behaviors, but with the resources used and costs associated with obtaining those behaviors. Therefore, an efficient process is one that achieves its objectives minimizing costs.

Levels of analysis for job performance

The concept of job performance can be applied at any level within an organization, that is, it can refer to the work that employees do, but also supervisors, managers, or even group entities such as teams, departments, or divisions. In all cases, it is a measurable aspect that should be considered within organizations for their proper functioning. However, in this thesis, our focus is on the employee's performance since it is the one considered the basis of organizational performance (Kim & Ployhart, 2014). Hence, the greatest emphasis will be perceived in this regard. We will refer to it just as job performance from now on.

Once discussed the definitional matters of job performance, let us review other aspects such as its measurement, structure, and other relevant issues in the next sections.

Job performance measurement

Origins of job performance measurement

Until the 1980s, there were practically no efforts to explain in a methodical manner the existence of job performance as a construct in organizational psychology, which does not mean that managers were not interested in their employees performing appropriately. Their concern instead, shared with researchers, lied in the “criterion problem” (Austin & Villanova, 1992). This criterion had the goal of discovering performance indicators that were capable of showing, in an incontrovertible manner, employees’ total contribution to organizations’ goals. Aspects like productivity indexes, absenteeism, turnover, salary, or promotion were examined. All those efforts were futile because such simple criterion just did not exist. The matter resulted to be much more complex than expected.

During the 1980s, there were movements to face this fact in a more realistic and integrative way. The Army Selection and Classification Project, in the United States, created more than 100 performance indicators and collected data on large samples at different points of their career (Campbell & Knapp, 2001). All this allowed them to develop a technique to produce better and more accurate selection procedures. These first attempts raised a consensus that job performance should be defined in a behavioral manner (as we exposed in the definition section), as things that people actually do or actions they take that help achieving the organization's goals. Researchers realized that those relevant behaviors that can help to achieve the organization's goals had to be measured and put into a scale. Thereafter, different performance evaluation methods were developed within a human resources strategy.

Job performance measurement in organizations

Today, management has added performance evaluation to existing human resources practices and has consolidated it as a formal system through which managers obtain information about the contribution of each employee to the objectives of the organization. The process aims to find out how well each employee performs with regards to their role requirements and compared to their peers in their workgroup or the organization in general.

The most common way to accumulate performance information still comes from managers' direct observation of employees at work (Avey & Murphy, 1998). Supervisors regularly note and informally judge the performance of their subordinates on a daily basis. However, these interpersonal evaluations can be biased in some ways: the halo and horn, primacy and recency effects, the fundamental attributional error, and the influence of stereotypes. Consequently, on occasions, ratings are affected by non-performance related factors. Job performance scales, as quantitative measures, have gained importance in this regard.

Behavior observation scales (BOS) consist of specific and relevant to the job behavior statements to which the respondent answers based on its degree of fulfillment. Many performance evaluations today are based on this modality: joint, debated and more or less consensual completion between employee and supervisor of a questionnaire in which the specific behaviors considered essential of the job are assessed. Subsequently, a general score is extracted, the achievement of the objectives of the past year or six months is reviewed and an objective to achieve in the coming year or six months is established. Previously, supervisors should be observing how well their employees are performing over the period of time under examination.

Other modality, similar to BOS, consists of the construction of behaviorally anchored rating scales (BARS). They are scales in which anchors describe specific behaviors, critical in establishing a particular level of job performance (Smith & Kendall, 1963). These methods produce results only slightly more accurate than well-constructed scales, so the question of whether they are worth it is still on the table (Arnold et al., 2005).

More recently has arisen the 360-degree feedback, which consists of the performance of an employee being evaluated anonymously by different stakeholders who are able to observe his or her performance: supervisor, work colleagues, subordinates, and sometimes clients. Joining feedback from distinct sources into a single evaluation report can provide a more accurate picture of an individual's performance (London & Smither, 1995). The questionnaire we develop in **Chapter 1** can serve this purpose.

Uses of job performance measures

Although job performance aims to help achieve the objectives of the organization, this can be carried out through different specific uses. Specifically, Cascio (1991) proposes three uses of performance evaluation, which are explained below.

- First, it can serve **administrative** purposes, because it is a supply of relevant information that can help managers to make decisions (Aguinis et al., 2001). For example, when comparing the performance assessment results with an organization's standard, managers can decide to undertake specific actions regarding training or supervision policies.

- Second, performance evaluations can have the use of returning valuable **feedback** to employees to make them conscious about their level of goal achievement, help them improve, and finding potential developmental needs (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).
- Finally, performance evaluation can pursue **investigation** purposes. Usually, this research is exerted by the organization itself to widen its know-how heritage, but it can also be conducted by external researchers as well for science production. Job performance is related to numerous other processes or mechanisms within the organization, hence its value for research.

Structure of job performance

Job performance is usually considered a multidimensional construct. However, the issue of its multidimensionality is to some degree to be developed as is illustrated by the fact that there are almost as many taxonomies as authors dedicate their effort to the study of the structure of job performance. Some of the classic classifications are described next:

- Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish between **task** and **contextual** performance. Task performance is defined as the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services. On the other hand, contextual performance contributes to organizational effectiveness by shaping the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes, and include volunteering to carry out activities that are not formally part of the job and helping and cooperating with others in the organization to get tasks done. Contextual performance is intimately related to our key variable of organizational citizenship performance; we will discuss its differentiation in **Chapter II.**

- After reviewing his own previous model (1990), Campbell (2012) proposed the following eight dimensions:

    1. **Technical performance**: technical requirements of the job, which can vary in nature and complexity.

    2. **Communication**: ability to transmit clear and understandable information.

    3. **Initiative, persistence, and effort**: It can be identified with the contextual performance or organizational citizenship behavior, and it includes working extra hours or going beyond prescribed responsibilities.

    4. **Counterproductive work behavior**: behaviors that have a negative effect on organizational goals.

    5. **Supervisory, managerial, executive leadership**: It refers to leadership performance in a hierarchical relationship.

6. **Hierarchical management performance**: those actions that deal with generating, preserving, and allocating the organization's resources to best achieve its goals.

7. **Peer/team member leadership performance**: leadership performance within peer or team member interrelationships.

8. **Peer/team member management performance**: management functions among work teams, such as planning and problem-solving.

- Bartram (2005), establishing a parallel with the previous taxonomy mentioned, distinguishes between the following eight dimensions: (1) **enterprising and performing**, (2) **interacting and presenting**, (3) **analyzing and reporting**, (4) **creating and conceptualizing**, (5) **adapting and coping**, (6) **supporting and cooperating**, (7) **leading and deciding**, and (8) **organizing and executing.**

- Koopmans et al. (2013), after testing their four-factor model, stay finally with three dimensions: **task performance**, **contextual**

performance, and **counterproductive work behavior** (the excluded factor was "adaptive performance"). The first two are identifiable with the ones by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). The last one refers to behaviors that harm the well-being of the organization (e.g., absenteeism, theft, or substance abuse).

- Besides these taxonomies, there are authors that in their articles consider a **creative performance** factor in their job performance measures or models. The meta-analysis by Harari et al. (2016) found that creativity and innovation is an important job performance factor to consider, different from task, citizen, and counterproductive behaviors. Fluegge-Woolf (2014) used a job performance indicator composed of task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance, when analyzing the effects of fun at work. Schepers (2003) found a 'creativity and resourcefulness' factor in his scale for managers and a 'creativity' factor in his scale for non-managers.

Despite the taxonomies and models of job performance we just examined, there are authors that defend a "g" factor of job performance. Viswesvaran et al. (2005) found 25 conceptually different categories of job performance but also a single underlying factor across them, which led them to propose that job performance could be explained as a single all-encompassing "g" factor.

The fact that there are so many different taxonomies whereas other authors propose a general factor illustrates the lack of completion with regard to the knowledge about the dimensionality of job performance. Therefore, in this doctoral dissertation, we focus on two specific factors or dimensions that are contained to a higher or lower degree in the cited taxonomies: organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance. We do so for two reasons. First, both factors imply going beyond in-role performance, especially organizational citizenship behavior. The case of creative performance can be more debatable since certain types of jobs may require creativity from the organizational members even in the very job description; however, in most jobs, creativity is not directly demandable. And second, both types of performance are to provide so much benefit in our twenty-first century turbulent working context, which we described in an earlier section of this chapter.

Self-reports in job performance measurement

In this doctoral dissertation, as we have said, we have a direct focus on the working individual for the reasons previously expressed. We also adopt a self-report approach for all measures. Although there are reasons that warn about the use of self-reports (which we comment in **Chapter VIII**), the following reasons led us to be confident in their use throughout the studies that comprise this doctoral dissertation.

For start, workers are more likely to be conscious of their own behaviors than a third person; this could place them in a better position to rate their own performance (Furnham & Stringfield, 1998). Superiors, peers, or others can be sometimes less exact and more vulnerable to biases than the very employees (Spector & Che, 2014). This could be explained by the observation opportunities bias (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988), that in this case would argue that employees have more opportunities to observe and therefore evaluate their own behavior. This does not contradict our previous assertion that the 360-degree evaluation may yield a more accurate assessment since the individual biases of each source can be mitigated in the joint assessment.

Self-reports can also reduce halo error (Dalal, 2005; Valle & Bozeman, 2002). This error consists of making evaluators keep a specific opinion about a facet of an evaluated that affects their performance ratings on other unrelated facets of the same evaluated (Thorndike, 1920); for example, to assume that an employee is effective in teamwork activities just because we have seen him or her being effective at customer service.

Specifically about creative performance, a key variable for our doctoral dissertation, self-evaluated creativity tests have proved to be more effective and predict better the creative performance and the further implementation of employee's innovative ideas than external observations (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). This has been seen, for example, with selection based on personality traits (Klijn & Tomic, 2010).

However, we still want to state that several authors set the accent on the "objective" assessment by an external judge, specifically the direct boss (Dunning et al., 2004; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009), and it is also debated that self-report instruments can suffer from some biases (Van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2003). This matter will be incorporated in the limitations section of this doctoral dissertation.

Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies

At this point, it is important to highlight the temporal nature of this doctoral dissertation. There is a habit in the literature on work, organizational, and personnel psychology towards pointing out in the limitations section of almost every article published that the work just exposed is cross-sectional and that future works should be longitudinal. However, most studies that are published today in the field continue to be cross-sectional.

Probably the fact that longitudinal designs can have the effect of weakening relationships that were found strong in cross-sectional literature (Taris & Kompier, 2014), jointly with the higher cost in money and time of longitudinal research, as well as the need for a larger sample in the prevention of a possible sample loss, lead authors to continue producing cross-sectional studies

However, cross-sectional designs generate serious problems of interpretation of results. In these designs, all measures are collected at a single point in time, thus it becomes hard to argue that causality in the relationships between variables goes in a specific direction and not in the opposite. Holding one position or another is exercised solely based on a solid and well-defined prior theory. In contrast, longitudinal designs allow us to speak more reliably of causality since they meet at least one of the requirements: the cause must occur earlier in the time than the effect.

Therefore, this is the design adopted in this doctoral thesis.

CHAPTER II. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

In the brief introduction and previous sections of **Chapter I**, we developed the logic of this thesis, explaining which of the job performance factors we examine and why. We also discussed the different taxonomies and factors that different authors had described in relation to job performance. Then we introduced a note on the two key variables of this thesis: organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance. In **Chapter II** we develop the main points of the first of them. We also elaborate on the possible mechanisms and dynamics that affect this variable and that are relevant to this doctoral dissertation.

What is organizational citizenship behavior?

Definition of organizational citizenship behavior

It was originally defined by Organ (1988) as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal rewards system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. “Discretionary” implies that the behavior is not a requirement contained in the job description, but a personal choice instead. Not engaging in this kind of behavior would not be punishable. Even when some researchers consider that on occasions some employees may assume organizational citizenship behavior as part of their in-role requirements (Morrison, 1994), it is widely accepted that it holds a unique entity outside this prescription.

To help distinguish this concept from contextual performance, Organ refined the construct (1997) into behaviors that contribute to the maintenance and enhancement of the social, and psychological context that supports task performance. It is worth noting the importance that this nuance has for our doctoral dissertation; organizational citizenship behavior encounters this social and psychological wrapping in **Study 2**.

In sum, organizational citizenship behaviors cover anything constructive and productive that workers do, of their own choice, that aims to support colleagues and the organization, and is not considered part of their job.

Relationships of organizational citizenship behavior with other related concepts

The first difference must be made with in-role or task performance. As said, organizational citizenship behavior is believed to be composed of discretionary behaviors, voluntarily displayed by the employee, that go beyond the job description (Organ, 1988). On the contrary, in-role performance does not comprise voluntary behaviors but those that are contained in the job description as part of the employees' duty.

There are other constructs in the field that are much closer to organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, it is necessary to differentiate it from them. On some occasions, their assimilation among them may be justified and acceptable; in fact, literature has done it frequently. However, it is advisable to be aware of the subtle differences that nuance their kinship. It is the case of extra-role behavior, contextual performance, and prosocial organizational behavior. Let us take a look at their differential aspects:

- **Extra-role behavior** is defined as behavior that benefits or is intended to benefit an organization (Van Dyne et al., 1995). It can take the form of promotive, prohibitive, affiliative, and challenging behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Therefore, extra-role behavior goes beyond organizational citizenship behavior by containing actions from the employee that can be challenging, harmful or prohibitive for the organization. An illustrative example of extra-role behavior can be whistleblowing; it pursues helping the organization but can eventually harm it.

- **Contextual performance**, although defined very similarly to organizational citizenship behavior, as volunteering to carry out tasks that are not formally part of the job and helping and cooperating with others in the organization to get tasks accomplished (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), it does not require the behavior to be discretionary and non-rewarded (Becton et al., 2008). For example, employees who volunteer to work extra hours in the face of increased work, hours that are paid later.

- **Prosocial organizational behavior** is defined as behavior intended to promote the welfare of individuals or groups in the organization

(Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Prosocial organizational behavior includes both in-role and extra-role as well as functional and dysfunctional behaviors for the organization. On the contrary, organizational citizenship behavior contemplates only extra-role and functional behaviors to the organization. An example of prosocial organizational behavior would be an employee who drives a sick colleague to the hospital, implying that both leave their job positions.

Structure of organizational citizenship behavior

As we discussed in the previous chapter, organizational citizenship behavior can be understood as a type of job performance; in turn, it can be considered multidimensional, or a general construct, which is the approach in this doctoral dissertation. However, the classical taxonomy by Organ (1988) helps us understand much better the construct. It is the following:

- **Altruism** consists of behaviors that have the purpose of helping a colleague with a task or issue that is relevant for the organization.
- **Conscientiousness** is composed of behaviors that give no immediate aid to any specific person but exhibit high standards

for attendance, promptness, conservation of organizational resources, and good use of time at work, all this beyond what is expected from the employee.

- **Civic virtue** is formed by behaviors that show the employee's concern and involvement in the organization’s life. It entails keeping up with what happens in the organization overall.
- **Courtesy** is the discretionary set of behaviors that pursue preventing work-related conflicts with others, like being polite and considerate to others.
- **Sportsmanship** is the employees’ willingness to tolerate not optimal conditions without complaining, even when they do not agree with them.

Although this structure has traditionally been proven as robust, LePine et al. (2002) found in their meta-analysis that these five dimensions are very highly correlated, which denotes some level of overlap. An alternative and more parsimonious distinction, also frequently used, consists of separating the behaviors of organizational citizenship that are directed **towards the individuals** within the organization (OCB-I) and those that are directed **towards the**

organization in general (OCB-O) (Williams, 1988). For example, helping a colleague to do a task would OCB-I, and defend the organization's point of view would be OCB-O. However, as we said, organizational citizenship behavior can also be studied as a general construct and that is the approach we take in this doctoral dissertation.

The relevance of organizational citizenship behavior

The importance of studying organizational citizenship behavior for organizations is present from the early stages of its development as a concept. Already Katz and Kahn (1966) observed that sometimes the normal functioning of organizations depends on employee behaviors that cannot be prescribed or required in a job. In a performance appraisal context, it is taken into consideration by supervisors, which execute a whole consideration of all aspects relevant to performance, including beyond formal description of the job, like organizational citizenship behavior (Azmi et al., 2016). Bateman and Organ (1983) suggest that supervisors value those behaviors because they make their jobs easier and because they cannot ask their employees to commit to them since they are not explicitly required. Even in the early stages of a career in a specific company, such as personnel selection, candidates high in organizational citizenship behavior achieve higher scores than candidates lower in it; selection decisions are indeed sensitive to candidates who display low levels of this parameter (Podsakoff et al., 2011).

These reasons, together with others discussed above, make us understand that in the current context the organizational citizenship behavior enters an apparent paradox that makes its study more interesting. On the one hand, it is a discretionary behavior that employees voluntarily display. On the other hand, companies increasingly value this behavior, to the point that it affects the consideration that supervisors have of their employees. All in all, there is no doubt about the value of these behaviors.

Once we have reviewed the definitional matters of organizational citizenship behavior, as well as its dimensionality and importance in the organizational field, let us explore in the next section which are those factors that can promote it or have been traditionally been conceived as possible antecedents for the phenomenon.

Antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior

Although the present doctoral dissertation does not focus on all the antecedents of our key variables, we considered appropriate to review these antecedents in the literature (and also the outcomes, in the next section) to better understand our constructs. Later, we will focus on those pertinent for our studies. A broad categorization of the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior divides them into dispositions, attitudes, motivations, job characteristics, social relations, and leadership:

- **Dispositions**: Agreeableness and conscientiousness, over the other personality factors from the big five, seem to predict organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000). It is important not to confuse this "conscientiousness" with the dimension of organizational citizenship behavior also named "conscientiousness". This latter refers to behaviors characterized by attendance, promptness, and conservation of organizational resources, whereas the disposition is a personality trait consisting of being careful and diligent. Specifically, agreeableness seems to predict more strongly OCB-I, and conscientiousness OCB-O (Ilies et al., 2007). In addition, trait positive affectivity has been found to predict OCB-I, and negative affectivity, OCB-O (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Finally, psychological capital, a construct composed of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism (variables that are half-way between states and dispositions) seems to also predict organizational citizenship behavior (Pradhan et al., 2016).

- **Attitudes**: Job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies et al, 2007). Also, organizational commitment (Podsakoff et al., 2000), justice and fairness perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2001). Colquitt et al. (2001) studied the differential impact of some antecedents on OCB-O and OCB-I; they found that organizational commitment and procedural justice are more related to OCB-O, whereas interpersonal justice to OCB-I.

- **Motivations**: Organizational concern predicts OCB-O and, prosocial values, OCB-I (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Impression management, or the attempt to improve self-image to obtain rewards, seems to predict organizational citizenship behavior, especially when the latter is directed to members with influence within the organization (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Indifference to rewards is a negative predictor of organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- **Job characteristics**: As a whole, job characteristics seem to influence organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Going into detail, job autonomy (Farh et al., 1990), task feedback and intrinsically pleasing tasks enhance organizational citizenship behavior, whereas task routinization is detrimental to it (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Role ambiguity and role conflict seem to be negative predictors of altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship, whereas perceived organizational support predicts altruism (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- **Social relations**: Social relationships have been shown to predict organizational citizenship behavior (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Team member exchange (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007), the intensity of friendship (Bowler & Brass, 2006), interpersonal relationship quality (Andersen & Williams, 1996), and supportive group norms (Ng & Van Dyne, 2005) seem to have an effect on OCB-I. Group cohesiveness predicts organizational citizenship behavior in general (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- **Leadership**: Leader-member exchange appears to be a strong predictor of organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This can take the form of OCB-I oriented to the leader him or herself (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007). Transformational leadership clearly forecasts, in all its forms, organizational citizenship behavior, whereas transactional leadership predicts it weakly or even negatively (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Perceptions of leader supportiveness are also related to organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

As we have seen, job autonomy and self-efficacy are among the variables listed. They are the variables that we consider in **Study 2** as antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior. We refer the reader to **Chapter VI** to inquire further into the matter. Once we have listed the variables that have the potential to foster organizational citizenship behavior at work, let us explore in the next section those that can be in turn promoted by it, that is, its outcomes or consequences.

Outcomes of organizational citizenship behavior

The consequences of organizational citizenship behavior can be grouped into individual outcomes, organizational performance, and job performance evaluations:

- **Individual outcomes**: Organizational citizenship behavior seems to be a predictor for individual performance, job satisfaction, well-being, personal development, and physical and mental health (Aggarwal & Singh, 2016). In the case of job satisfaction, the literature shows that it acts both as an antecedent and as a result, which could suggest a reciprocal relationship. It can also have negative impacts as it is associated with work-family conflict and role overload (Aggarwal & Singh, 2016), due to the greater involvement with work that it implies.

- **Organizational performance**: Organizational citizenship behavior is associated with higher revenues, company quality, efficiency, customer satisfaction, and with fewer costs and customer complaints (Walz & Niehoff, 2000). It also lowers turnover rates (Azmi et al., 2016). Organizational citizenship behaviors are related to organizational effectiveness overall (Podsakoff et al., 1997).

- **Job performance evaluations**: Organizational citizenship behavior seems to predict performance evaluations at least as much as in-role performance does and seems to also influence reward decisions and promotion recommendations (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

After reviewing the main antecedents and consequences of organizational citizenship behavior, in the next section we intend to outline the dynamics that are relevant for its expression.

Theories and dynamics of organizational citizenship behavior

The dynamics we outline here have facilitated the conception of **Study 2**, in which we examined the role of job autonomy and self-efficacy as antecedents of organizational citizenship performance with the mediator mechanism of job crafting.

As we have previously suggested, organizational citizenship behavior has a social character that is included in the very definition; in this sense, the findings of our **Study 2** come to uphold this social conception. This issue is developed in **Chapter VI** and here we will limit ourselves to pointing out the organizational dynamics that orbit around this fact. First, we will talk about the social exchange theory as an explanation of the relationship that the organizational citizenship behavior can have with its antecedents; later we address the concept of job crafting, which in this doctoral dissertation we explore as a possible mediating mechanism in this relationship; we finally discuss the social character that organizational citizenship behavior seems to have, based on the preponderance that one of the dimensions of job crafting, 'increasing social job resources', seems to have in the mentioned mechanisms.

The social exchange theory

One of the theoretical backgrounds that can better explain the phenomenon of organizational citizenship behavior is **the social exchange theory**, although, to be precise, it is not really a theory but a frame of reference within which many theories can flourish (Emerson, 1976). All of them are founded on various assumptions about human relationships' nature, but a baseline is that all human relations are filtered by a cost-benefit analysis that includes a comparison with alternatives.

Emerson said that social exchange is an economic analysis of non-economic social situations (1976). In a social relationship, both parties have a responsibility to each other (Lavelle et al., 2007). At the same time, self-interest and interdependence rule the interaction (Lawler & Thye, 1999); in other words, the interaction pursues the accomplishment of self-interested goals by means of relating to others, who in turn operate in the same manner. Two or more actors have something of value to each other, and they have to decide what to exchange and in what quantities (Lawler, 2001). In this context, personal interest is not seen as a negative thing; on the contrary, when self-interest is acknowledged, it will work as the guide for the interaction in order to advance the self-interest of both parties (Roloff, 1981).

In the context of work, Saks (2006) argues that, when individuals obtain resources from their organization, they feel obliged to pay back the organization in some way. People can feel that a natural way to pay their organization is by increasing their level of participation and commitment; in this sense, organizational citizenship behavior is congruent with that idea. It implies an extra mile that employees are willing to run, and they will not be expecting a monetary payment since they have already been paid somehow in advance. When the organization does not provide enough resources to employees, these will likely stop from contributing as much, trimming down their roles or sticking to the baseline duties they have to perform.

The organizational resources referred to can be any aspect that the employee needs or desires and the company can provide. In this sense, in **Chapter VI** we explore how job autonomy is an organizational resource that employees can perceive as desirable and can make them act accordingly. The study examines other relationships; for example, how self-efficacy, as a personal resource. However, not all effects must occur through this social exchange; there can be additional dynamics that explain the effect of the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior and it, which can complement what we just exposed. In the next section, in fact, we are going to take a look to the construct and role of job crafting because it can act as a particular mechanism between organizational citizenship behavior and its antecedents.

Job crafting behaviors

Job crafting could have a positive impact on organizational citizenship behavior because it favors an adjustment in work that can be the base for employees to engage in complementary behaviors that usually benefit the organization. Job crafting is a concept derived from the job demands and resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and is defined as the changes that employees make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs (Tims et al., 2012). In other words, it is an active adjustment that employees make on their own initiative at work generally when they feel that the demands are excessive or that the resources are not sufficient.

This adjustment, according to Tims et al. (2012), can be executed by increasing the structural job resources, by reducing the hindering job demands, by increasing the social job resources or by increasing the challenging job demands. ‘Increasing structural job resources’ appears when employees obtain resources to do their jobs, like for example task variety or opportunities for development. ‘Decreasing hindering job demands’ refers to employees shrinking their job demands due to stress or work overload. ‘Increasing social job resources’ represents reinforcing the social facets of the job, such as support and interaction. Lastly, ‘increasing challenging job demands’ has to do with the adoption of new motivating tasks because their current job does not allow them to apply or develop their skills. At this point, we indicate the particularity of ‘reducing hindering job demands’ as a dimension of job crafting; it seems to work differently from the other factors and keep negative relations with organizational outcomes (Rudolph et al., 2017).Job crafting can be sometimes confused with our variable of interest in this chapter because both are employee-driven proactive behaviors: both could be on occasions suggested or promoted by the supervisor, but they are always initiated by the employee (Grant & Parker, 2009). However, here is where the resemblance stops. Job crafting is not a type of performance because it is not an end but rather a means to an end. It is an attempt from workers to *modify* their job, instead of *performing* in it. Its purpose is to have a better job-person fit, and it does not always have to be necessarily good for the organization, although it is always intended to be good for the employee (Dierdorff & Jensen, 2018). On the contrary, organizational citizenship behavior is always intended to be good for the organization, although sometimes it could be harmful to the employee (for example, in situations where employees ended up exhausted after volunteering for extra work). However, it is plausible that, in most cases, job crafting will be positive for organizations, since it searches a better fit between them and their employees. Due to this fit enhancement, it can have desirable effects on organizational citizenship behavior itself. Job crafting can be a facilitator for the emergence of citizenship behaviors because it establishes the appropriate ground for them to emerge. Employees are more adjusted to their job so they can think of contributing more to the organization. Therefore, job crafting can be a mediating mechanism between the most consolidated antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior and this type of performance. We explore this possibility in **Chapter VI**.

However, if we have to underscore a job crafting dimension that can play a role in facilitating organizational citizenship behavior, it is **increasing social job resources**. In relation to this we are going to see the socially embedded perspective, which highlights the importance of the social structure of jobs.

The socially embedded perspective

A stream of literature on the topic, as well as the findings of our **Study 2** (see **Chapter VI**), points out the relevance that social factors can have for organizational citizenship behavior. Grant (2007) explains that jobs have a relational architecture that makes the actions of employees have an influence on other people, although the nature and intensity of these architectures vary substantially depending on the job type. This relational architecture can take the form of communication with other people affected by the employee's work, or of impact on the lives of those other people. Beauregard (2012) explained that employees who engage in behaviors that enhance the social aspect of work tend to benefit the whole organization. Grant and Parker (2009) say that work is indissolubly tangled with interpersonal interactions and relationships, in which jobs, roles, and tasks that employees perform and enact are embedded. In this sense, the **socially embedded perspective** (Berg et al., 2010) understands work as a social structure. This vision contrasts with other more usual conceptions, in which the consideration of work as a composition of task characteristics prevails (e.g., Hackman & Oldham's classic job characteristics model).

Social perspectives began to fade to some degree in the '80s due to some weak findings and the shift to a more cognitive paradigm (Grant & Parker, 2009), but today there has been a rebirth in contemplating this social structure of jobs. The socially embedded perspective suggests that interpersonal relationships in the workplace are also important regarding job crafting and organizational citizenship behavior. Sekiguchi and colleagues (2017) highlighted the importance of the capacity to interact with others or having an influence on others as decisive in encouraging job crafting in a socially embedded workplace. Also, social job resources seem to work as unique facilitators of organizational citizenship behavior. In the section about antecedents, we saw that social relationships have been shown to predict it (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Increasing social job resources, a job crafting dimension, implies underpinning the social aspects of the job, like obtaining feedback and support, and regulating the desired levels of social interaction (Tims et al., 2012). Employees capable of shaping their jobs by gaining more social resources in this direction will be more prepared and willing to favor the social and psychological context of the job (which was, if we remember, the definition of organizational citizenship behavior). The rationale behind this fact is that both phenomena share the concern for the social wrapping of the job. This insight advances the findings described in **Chapter VI**, where we found that increasing social job resources was more important than the other job crafting dimensions as a mechanism between job autonomy and self-efficacy on the one hand, and organizational citizenship behavior on the other hand.

CHAPTER III. CREATIVE PERFORMANCE

After developing the first of the job performance factors object of this doctoral dissertation, organizational citizenship behavior, we turn to the second in this chapter: creative performance. In **Chapter III** we expose its definitional aspects, its antecedents, outcomes, and its possible mechanisms and dynamics, just like we did with our previous construct.

What is creative performance?

Definition of creative performance and differentiation with innovative behavior

If we recall the stage that we presented in **Chapter I**, referred to the context of work, creative performance has a lot to contribute when tackling it. The nature of most jobs nowadays compels employees to be as adaptive and flexible as they can (Walton, 2016), to a point where the creativity of the staff has come to be considered a true asset for organizations (Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

A classic definition of **creative performance** is the one by Oldham and Cummings (1996): “products, ideas, or procedures that satisfy two conditions: (1) they are novel or original and (2) they are potentially relevant for, or useful to, an organization” (p. 608). Therefore, the object of novelty must not only be new to the organization but also have some profitable use within that organization.

It is important to differentiate it at this early stage from another closely related organizational concept: **innovative behavior**. This can be defined as “… the intentional introduction and application within a role, group or organization of ideas, processes, products or procedures, new to the relevant unit of adoption, designed to significantly benefit the individual, the group, the organization or wider society (West & Farr, 1990, p. 9)". At first glance, both concepts seem the same or very similar, but the literature has made it clear that these are two different phenomena. The creative performance focuses on idea generation whereas innovative behavior on idea implementation (Amabile, 1996). The result of this is the common generalization of considering creative performance as the first step of innovation. Anderson and colleagues (2014) defend that the differentiation between both variables is not that clear and do an effort to propose the following integrative definition:

> *"Creativity and innovation at work are the process, outcomes, and products of attempts to develop and introduce new and improved ways of doing things. The creativity stage of this process refers to idea generation, and innovation refers to the subsequent stage of implementing ideas toward better procedures, practices, or products. Creativity and innovation can occur at the level of the individual, work team, organization, or at more than one of these levels combined but will invariably result in identifiable benefits at one or more of these levels of analysis" (p. 1298).*

However, even a definition as clear and comprehensive as this has received criticisms, mainly because of the fact, dragged from the beginning of the literature on the subject, that it focuses primarily on the results of the concepts to define them, instead of on the concepts themselves. Consequently, Hughes et al. (2018) propose the following definition:

> *"Workplace creativity concerns the cognitive and behavioral processes applied when attempting to generate novel ideas. Workplace innovation concerns the processes applied when attempting to implement new ideas. Specifically, innovation involves some combination of problem/opportunity identification, the introduction, adoption or modification of new ideas germane to organizational needs, the promotion of these ideas, and the practical implementation of these ideas" (p. 551).*

This definition also helps to glimpse that both concepts, although closely related, can walk in differentiated paths. The same authors expose that not all creative performance ends up in an innovative behavior and not all innovative behavior requires prior to that employees performing creatively. Therefore, both concepts are related but are not as deeply linked as traditionally considered.

Although both concepts are important, the preference for creative performance in this doctoral dissertation responds to our focus on the individual employee. In this sense, creative performance is directly under the control of the individual employee, whereas innovative behavior requires organizational support (Hughes et al., 2018). Additionally and despite what we said about them being two different concepts, most researchers save a central role for creative performance in their models because they believe that it provides the core ideas that stimulate innovative behaviors in organizations later on (Zhou & Hoever, 2014).

The relevance of creative performance

Once this necessary conceptual distinction is established, let us review why the study of creative performance is important. The value of creative performance for organizations is undeniable. One might think that creative performance is an asset for organizations and jobs of a very specific type, but creative performers are those who face problem-solving day to day or new designs, procedures, relations, etc., all of which can be applied in a wide variety of work settings (Florida, 2002). Therefore, creative performance shows up even if it is not strictly required in a formal job description (Binnewies et al., 2007). As it happens with organizational citizenship behavior, it implies going beyond the written requirements of the job on many occasions.

Creative performance has a lot to contribute in a turbulent context. Employees are required to be adaptive and flexible to the new jobs or the new nature of the existing jobs (Walton, 2016), creative performance helps them face these challenges. Organizations have come to identify creativity in their employees as an asset to survive and succeed in the long-term (Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

Having covered the definitional aspects of creative performance and understood the importance of its study, we turn to review its antecedents in the literature. As we did with organizational citizenship performance, it is important to know what factors may affect it to understand better our construct. We dedicate the following sections to this.

Antecedents of creative performance

The antecedents of creative performance that have been covered in the literature can be grouped here into intellectual abilities, affects and attitudes, and motivation:

- **Intellectual abilities**: Intelligence has been found to predict creative performance but weakly (Sternberg & O'Hara, 2000). Other cognitive abilities that predict creative performance better are fluency, originality, flexibility, imagination, field independence, knowledge of heuristics to generate new ideas, domain-specific knowledge, and expertise (as cited in Woodman et al., 1993).

- **Affects and attitudes**: Some authors (Amabile et al., 2005) find a positive relationship between positive affect and creative performance, others a negative one (George & Zhou, 2002), and others a curvilinear or U-shaped one (James et al., 2004). Therefore, the link is still unclear. A broader concept, job satisfaction, is found to have an impact on creative performance

(Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Spanjol et al., 2015); we develop this relationship in **Chapter VII.**

- **Motivation**: intrinsic motivation is regarded as conducive to creativity, while extrinsic motivation is almost always detrimental (Amabile, 1983a). In fact, it is not conclusive, some studies focused on the use of reward find a negative relationship (Hennessey, 2000), others find a positive one (Amabile et al., 1986).

Outcomes of creative performance

As we did with our previous key concept, also on this occasion we briefly review the consequences of creative performance that appear in the literature to better understand this construct. Later we will focus on that relevant for our doctoral dissertation. The organizational outcomes of creative performance have not been as explored as to its antecedents (Zhou & Hoever, 2014); nevertheless, in this section, we will mention the already discussed phenomenon of innovative behavior as the outcome of creative performance, and other organizational and individual outcomes:

- **Innovative behavior**: as discussed earlier, some creativity and innovation theorists consider the former as the previous step for the latter (Anderson et al., 2014), even when others consider them as separate processes (Hughes et al., 2018). Employees high in self-evaluated creative performance tend to engage in innovative behavior more frequently (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). In general, we can argue that the levels of creative performance predict to a certain degree the levels of innovative behavior in organizations.

- **Other organizational outcomes**: creative performance predicts organizational performance when riskiness orientation is low, realized absorptive capacity is high, and the company is small (Gong et al., 2013). It also predicts employee sales and supervisor-rated job performance (Gong et al., 2009), and is widely considered as a source of growth and development for firms (Zhou & Hoever, 2014).

- **Individual outcomes**: creative performance also seems to affect personal aspects such as job satisfaction (we explore this relationship in **Chapter VII**) (Mishra & Shukla, 2012; Tongchaiprasita & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Also, Wang and Netemeyer (2004), when analyzing the nomological network of creative performance, found that it kept relations with adaptive selling, work effort, learning effort, self-efficacy, trait competitiveness, job satisfaction, customer demandingness, and sales performance.

As we have seen in this section and the previous one, job satisfaction appears both as an antecedent and as a consequence of creative performance. In **Study 3**

(**Chapter VII**), we study the possible reciprocal and over time relationship between both constructs.

Theories and dynamics of creative performance

Once the definitional aspects of creative performance have been reviewed, as well as the predictor and predicted variables, we direct our attention towards the dynamic features of creative performance functioning in organizations, emphasizing those processes that may be relevant to the studies of our doctoral dissertation and bringing the theories and models that may help to understand these processes.

At this point, we must analyze whether creative performance, as a component of job performance beyond in-role, can contribute with some valuable insight into the questions that have traditionally been formulated in relation to job performance. One of the most classic issues derived from the study of job performance is to what extent it is affected by workers' well-being. It has been assumed since Hawthorne studies in the 20's that happy employees are productive employees, turning into a mantra that has attracted both scientists and practitioners (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This statement is explored within **the happy and productive worker theory** (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), which we discuss next.

The happy and productive worker theory

This theory argues that satisfied workers perform better than unsatisfied ones. This idea is consistent with many empirical findings. For example, happy workers are sensitive to opportunities, helpful to co-workers, and confident, as opposed to despondent workers, who are likely to display little energy, and, thus, have a poor rate of accomplishment at work (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001).

However, the matter should not be simplified, because being unhappy, unsatisfied, or having a bad mood can have particular consequences which can be adaptive in some circumstances. For example, the negative mood seems to make people focus on details rather than on global aspects (Gasper & Clore 2002); we can understand that this particularity can be functional when the task requires careful attention. Also, proving that the issue is more complex than previous literature thought, Peiró et al. (2019) explained that there can be more patterns beyond the "happy-productive" and the "unhappy-unproductive" that were theorized initially; in fact, over half of their sample was "unhappy-productive" or "happy-unproductive".

These findings exemplify the lack of forcefulness with which current authors should pronounce the basic assumption of the happy and productive worker theory. In fact, meta-analyses on the topic are far from conclusive. Bowling

(2007) observes a spurious relationship between both. Judge et al. (2001) find a moderate correlation of .30 between job satisfaction and job performance; they propose that the relationship between well-being and job performance could take other forms. For example, job performance could have an influence on well-being, or both variables could influence each other.

In this scenario, the case could not be different for creative performance. As a type of job performance, it can be integrated into the happy and productive worker thesis. We saw in the antecedents and outcomes sections of this chapter that the literature contemplates that job satisfaction influences creative performance (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Cekmecelioglu, 2006; Spanjol et al., 2015) and that creative performance influences job satisfaction (Mishra & Shukla, 2012; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley & Gilson, 2004; Tongchaiprasita & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016; Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). However, one of the limitations that we find in this literature is its cross-sectional nature, which impedes us to suggest a causal and directional link between both variables. We try to respond to that issue in **Chapter VII**, in where we test a model in which job satisfaction and creative performance influence each other over time.

In a previous section, we argued how difficult it is to draw conclusions from cross-sectional studies. In the context of the happy and productive worker thesis, this matter is especially relevant: managers want to know what comes first: job satisfaction or creative performance (or job performance in general). It is not of great use for them to know that they correlate at a specific point in time.

And, as if that were not enough, there are some authors who contribute nuances to the relationship between well-being and creative performance, meaning that it could even be negative or more complex than what literature normally considers. For example, Zhou and George (2001) defend that it is not job satisfaction but dissatisfaction that leads to creative performance, but only under the following circumstances: when employees see a high cost in leaving the organization and when they get useful feedback, help, and support from coworkers, or organizational support. To et al. (2015) argue that negative mood leads to creative processes for employees high in trait learning goal orientation and perception of empowerment. Also, Bledow et al. (2013) defend that creative performance is influenced by the interplay of positive and negative affect, an interesting process named “affective shift”. In it, an episode of negative affect followed by a decrease in negative affect and an increase in positive affect would be a favorable ground for creative performance to grow. We add to all this all the dynamics that affect general job performance, since we are considering creative performance as a type of job performance. In this sense, the previously mentioned contributions of Peiró et al. (2019), according to which only a part of the employees fall in the "happy-productive" and "unhappy-unproductive" quadrants, helps us see that this is a complex topic that requires detailed attention in the frame of a longitudinal paradigm. Therefore, in **Study 3** (**Chapter VII**) we try to shed a little light on the relationship between well-being and creative performance, analyzing the possible reciprocal and longitudinal relationship that both constructs may have. However, to conceive this reciprocal relationship in a complete way, first we need to understand how the consequence (creative performance) can also be the antecedent, which we see in the next section.

Self-determination theory

As we have suggested, inquiring into the relationship between job satisfaction and creative performance includes exploring whether the latter can also have an impact on the former. In fact, it could be thought that both variables are periodically related and reinforce each other over time in a loop, but this matter will be addressed in **Chapter VII**, as we said above. Here we limit ourselves to trying to provide theoretical support to a relationship that has not been much explored yet, the one in which creative performance affects job satisfaction.

At first, one might think that employees who have been creative in their work will feel good after that delivering that performance. This intuitive idea finds its support in the **self-determination theory** of Ryan and Deci (2002). It is a theory of human motivation and personality that tries to explain the intrinsic development needs of people and examines to what degree they are self-motivated. This need for growth is characterized by persistent positive attributes, such as effort, agency, and commitment. The theory compared intrinsic and extrinsic motives of people and reached a point in which saw the preponderance of the role of intrinsic motivation embedded in and driving human behavior. There are three psychological needs that drive people to initiate behavior and are essential for promoting and safeguarding their well-being: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. These needs are understood as universal, innate, and psychological. Although they are innate, people have to cultivate them with inputs from the social environment. Their satisfaction is vital for individuals to attain psychological growth, internalization, and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In this sense, the need for competence specifically defends that people need to control the outcomes of their behavior and gain mastery in their performance to experience these positive aspects. The well-being achieved is experienced as intrinsic rather than extrinsic (this fact has implications for our **Study 3**, where we study job satisfaction in both its facets of intrinsic and extrinsic). The need for competence is especially important in the field of work and this relationship, in particular, is for the complementary models we mentioned about the happy and productive worker theory; that is, in those that consider that performance can be an antecedent of satisfaction. Creative performance, as a type of performance, could be participating in this dynamic, in the sense that creative employees might feel good when contemplating the results of their performance. This would be a positive way to fulfill their need for competence.

In conclusion, job satisfaction can affect creative performance and vice versa, and we address this issue in our **Study 3** (**Chapter VII**), where we try to give some answer to the relationship between both variables.

In summary, in the theoretical part of this doctoral dissertation, we have analyzed the variables of interest for this doctoral dissertation, based on their definitions, antecedents, outcomes, and dynamics. In the next chapter, we describe our objectives and general methodological aspects.

CHAPTER IV. OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

Objectives

Our general objective in this doctoral dissertation is to study the antecedents and dynamics of organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance, two of the most relevant facets of job performance nowadays, and which go beyond the strict and plain description of the job. Specifically, we examine the role of job autonomy and self-efficacy as antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior, with the possible mediator mechanism of job crafting; also, we analyze the possible reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and creative performance using a longitudinal perspective, a constant recommendation in the literature of the field.

This general objective is divided into three specific subgoals, that have a parallel in each of the three studies that form this doctoral dissertation. They are the following:

- **Subgoal 1**: To develop and validate a self-report instrument to measure job performance in Spain that contains the dimensions of in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance, giving support this way to these three dimensions as components of a second-order construct of job performance.

- **Subgoal 2**: To better understand the factors that promote organizational citizenship behavior and examine the dynamics that can lead to it, specifically the possible mechanism operating between job autonomy and self-efficacy with organizational citizenship behavior through job crafting. A longitudinal design is implemented by measuring organizational citizenship behavior in a second time of data collection.

- **Subgoal 3**: To better understand the dynamic relationship that can exist between a classic well-being indicator, job satisfaction, in both its facets of intrinsic and extrinsic, with creative performance, throughout three points in time of data collection. A longitudinal cross-lagged design is implemented by contemplating three times of data collection to test whether the variables influence each other.

In this manner, in this doctoral dissertation, we intend to humbly contribute to the knowledge of what can be done at work to increase the performance of workers, first designing a questionnaire that can provide a quick view on that performance, and then exploring how those aspects of job performance that are so valuable today (precisely because they go beyond the mere job description) can be promoted, such as organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance. The use of a longitudinal design allows us to be more confident about our results and aims to act as a recommendation to generalize the publication of studies that consider the temporal perspective.

Data collection procedure

The three studies comprised in this doctoral dissertation are part of a larger research project. This project had three times of data collection.

In the first time of data collection, research team members contacted several organizations, inviting them to participate in the project. Although a convenience sampling was used, the team ensured a heterogeneous sample with organizations from different sectors and different regions in Spain. The first contact was made with the general manager or with the human resources manager. In a first meeting, researchers explained their project, objectives, time required, and procedure. Then, if the contact person agreed, the full staff was invited to participate by filling in the project questionnaire, in a voluntary and confidential manner.

Two types of questionnaires were administered in the three times of data collection. The first one collected information on employees' perceptions of various aspects related to job characteristics and work experience. The second one was answered by those responsible for each work unit. In this doctoral dissertation, we make use of some variables from the first one. The questionnaires were administered through three alternative ways: on paper, on a touch tablet, or on-line, and always during working hours. The same companies were contacted between nine months and one year later (T2) to participate again in the project. They were subsequently contacted one more time, again between nine months and one year after the second data collection (T3). The same workers were asked to answer the questionnaires. The linkage of the data between the workers and their direct supervisors, as well as for the same worker throughout the three times of data collection, was implemented using codes, which also allowed to safeguard their anonymity.

Samples

In this section, we will describe the sample of each of the studies. First, we do a brief description of each sample and then we expose the detailed information in **Table 1**.

In **Study 1**, 1647 workers from 41 Spanish companies participated (T1).

Study 2 has a longitudinal sample of 593 workers who answered in two points in time (T1 and T2). Answers were extracted from 24 of the 41 organizations of T1, those that participated both in T1 and T2. T1 corresponds to the part of the sample of **Study 1** that participated again in T2. The individuals of both times were linked using internal and confidential codes. In total, 36% of T1 respondents participated again, and that was the sample for **Study 2**.

Study 3 has a longitudinal sample of 209 workers who answered in three points in time (T1, T2, and T3). Employees belong to nine of the organizations from previous studies. T1 and T2 correspond to the part of the samples of **Studies 1** and **2** that participated again in T3. All three samples were linked using internal and confidential codes to ensure that the responses of the three times were combined for the same subjects. In total, 36% of T1 respondents participated again in T2; 35% of T2 respondents participated again in T3, and that is the sample we use in **Study 3**.

See **Table 1** for detailed information for each of the studies and samples. It should be noted that **Studies 2** and **3** show slight differences between the times in some demographic variables. This is due to two reasons. First, the participants did not always answer all the demographic questions and therefore there are missing data (therefore the sums do not reach 100%). And second, there are demographic changes due to the passing of time, such as the age distribution or seniority in the organization.

Table 1. Description of studies' samples

		Study 1 (n=1647)	Study 2 (n=593)		Study 3 (n=209)		
		T1	T1	T2	T1	T2	T3
Sector	Service	81.3	69.3	69.3	80.4	80.4	80.4
	Secondary	18.7	30.7	30.7	19.6	19.6	19.6
Gender	Women	52.0	52.8	53.5	60.8	60.8	60.8
	Men	43.4	43.3	45.0	39.2	39.2	39.2
Age	<35	26.2	25.6	20.9	38.3	33.5	23.4
	35-50	55.3	60.4	60.4	56.5	58.4	63.2
	>50	15.7	10.8	13.5	5.3	6.7	10.5
Seniority in years	<1	8.0	4.2	0.3	7.7	1.0	1.0
	1-5	16.2	12.1	12.8	19.6	22.0	17.2
	>5	68.2	76.4	79.6	67.9	72.7	77.5
Type of contract	Part-time	13.5	15.3	16.2	18.7	19.6	16.3
	Full-time	83.4	81.6	82.1	79.9	78.9	80.9
Professional category	Non-qualified	9.7	7.3	6.1	1.0	1.0	1.9
	Administrative or auxiliary	16.3	11.3	12.0	11.5	10.5	8.6
	Mid-level technicians	29.9	31.4	31.2	38.8	37.3	34.0
	Highly qualified	24.0	29.0	32.9	31.1	36.4	35.9
	Managers	4.8	8.8	9.1	12.9	12.4	13.9

Note: data are displayed in percentages.

Measures

Next, the measures used throughout the three studies that form this doctoral dissertation are described. First, we list the main variables, which are the following:

- **In-role performance**: This scale is formed of three items based on Williams and Anderson (1991). Although these authors do not give information about their response scale, they created their in-role scale based on a previous self-report-based one by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), in which respondents were asked to answer how frequently, on a 5-point scale from "never" (1) to "always" (5), they engaged in prescribed or in-role behaviors. Williams and Anderson (1991) made a more comprehensive scale adding new items and getting a Cronbach alpha of .91. From the seven items of their in-role behavior subscale, we took the three of them that loaded higher and converted them into a 7-point scale to match the other two of our measure. Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with each assertion, on a 7-point scale from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). An example of an item would be: *"I adequately complete assigned duties"*. In **Study**

1, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .79 in sample 1 and .76 in sample 2 (as we explain in the next section, in this study we split our sample into two equivalent halves).

- **Organizational citizenship behavior**: This scale is formed of three items based on MacKenzie et al. (2011), which had originally two factors: challenge-oriented and affiliative-oriented. It is a 7-point scale from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7) in which managers had to rate their workgroups. The authors based their challenge-oriented scale (5 items, Cronbach alpha of .91) on the voice scale by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), and their affiliation-oriented OCB scale (6 items, Cronbach alpha of .87) on Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) and Van Dyne and LePine (1998) helping behavior scale. We extracted one item from the challenge-oriented and the other two from the affiliation-oriented scale, basing our decision again on choosing items that loaded higher, and we converted them into self-reports. An example of an item would be: *"I willingly share expertise, knowledge, and information to help improve the effectiveness of others in my work group"*. In **Study 1**, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .65 in sample 1 and

.68 in sample 2. In **Study 2**, we got a coefficient of .66 in T1 and .75 in T2.

- **Creative performance**: This scale is formed of three items based on Oldham and Cummings (1996). They developed a three-item scale (Cronbach alpha of .90), asking supervisors to rate the extent to which their employees produced work that was novel and useful to the organization, on a 7-point scale. The anchors were not specified in their paper. We took the original number of items and converted them into self-reports. An example of an item would be: *"How creative is my work?"*. In **Study 1**, we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .87 in both samples 1 and 2. In **Study 3**, we got coefficients of .82 (T1), .82 (T2) and .87 (T3).

- **Job autonomy**: It was measured using three items of the Spanish version (Bayona et al., 2015) of the Work Design Questionnaire (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), referred to as the job autonomy dimension of job characteristics. It scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("totally disagree") to 5 ("totally agree"). A sample item would be *"My job allows me to make a lot of decisions by myself"*. In **Study 2**, we got a Cronbach's alpha of .75.

- **Self-efficacy**: It was measured with three items of an adaptation by Djourova et al. (2019) of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire by Luthans et al. (2007). It had a 6-point Likert scale response, where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 6 is "strongly agree". A sample item would be: *"I think I would represent my group well in meetings with management"*. In **Study 2**, it had a Cronbach's alpha of .80.

- **Job crafting**: It was measured using the 12 items with the highest loadings from the Job Crafting Scale developed by Tims et al. (2012). There are three items for each of the four composing dimensions, and a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("never") to 5 ("always"). A sample item is: *"I try to develop myself professionally"*. In **Study 2**, its Cronbach's alpha, split by dimensions, is .72 (increasing structural job resources), .56 (decreasing hindering job demands), .77 (increasing social job resources), and .73 (increasing challenging job demands).

- **Intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction**: They were measured with a short version of the job satisfaction scale from Warr et al. (1979). Five items belong to the intrinsic scale and four to the extrinsic.

Respondents had to answer according to how satisfied they are with specific aspects of their job, ranging from 1 ("very unsatisfied") to 7 ("very satisfied"). An example of intrinsic job satisfaction is *"The freedom to choose my own working method"*, and, for extrinsic job satisfaction, *"Working physical conditions"*. In **Study 3**, we got Cronbach's alphas of .86 (T1), .88. (T2) and .88 (T3) for intrinsic job satisfaction and of .53 (T1), .58 (T2) and .54 (T3) for extrinsic job satisfaction.

Finally, we list down below the variables we have used for construct validity purposes in **Study 1**:

- **General job satisfaction**: It was measured with the single-item general job satisfaction from Warr et al. (1979), with a Likert scale ranging from 1 ("very unsatisfied") to 7 ("very satisfied"). The item is *"What is my level of satisfaction with my work as a whole?".*

- **Satisfaction with life**: It was measured with an adaptation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), with a Likert scale ranging from 1 ("totally disagree") to 7 ("totally agree"). An example of an item is *"In most ways my life is close to my ideal".* Cronbach's alpha was .82.

- **Self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism**: They were measured with a 12-item adaptation by Djourova et al. (2019) of the PsyCap Questionnaire (Luthans et al., 2007), with Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 6 ("strongly agree"). Each of the components had three items. An example of an item (self-efficacy) is *"I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy".* Cronbach's alphas were .84 (self-efficacy), .78 (hope), .71 (resilience), and .84 (optimism).

Although, as has been seen, some Cronbach indices are somewhat low, in the specific studies we provide additional reliability indicators to defend the use of the instruments, which will be introduced in the next section and the corresponding section of each study. We also address the issue of the low alphas in the "limitations" section of **Chapter VIII**.

Designs and statistical analyses

The designs and statistical analyses conducted in this doctoral dissertation are different in the three studies; therefore, in this section, we draw a summary for each of them:

- **Study 1**: Preliminary analyses (mean, standard deviations, and correlations) were made. We conducted an exploratory (SPSS 21.0) and confirmatory factor analysis (structural equation modeling in AMOS 20.0). For that, we divided the original sample into two halves, in which equivalence was ensured by means of ANOVA. Then, one half was used for the exploratory factor analysis and the other half for the confirmatory. The reliability of measures was examined by means of Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability coefficient, inter-item, and inter-scale correlations. The risk of common method bias of self-reports was examined with Harman's single factor test. Convergent validity was tested by means of Average Variance Extracted (AVE); discriminant validity, by means of the square root of AVE. Construct validity was tested by correlating our composite variable with other variables considered as closely related to job performance.

- **Study 2**: We computed preliminary analyses (mean, standard deviations, and correlations). The reliability of the measures was examined with Cronbach's alpha, inter-item, and item-scale correlations. The design was a mediation with two independent variables, four mediators, and a dependent variable in the second time of measurement (T2). The dependent variable was controlled by introducing the same variable at T1. We applied structural equation modeling with AMOS 21.0.0. The mediation effects were tested with MacKinnon's procedure.

- **Study 3**: We conducted preliminary analyses (mean, standard deviations and correlations). Reliabilities were tested with Cronbach's alpha, inter-item, and item-scale correlations. The design was two cross-lagged panels with three points of data collection. It was run with structural equation modeling (Mplus).

Here ends the chapter about objectives and methodological aspects. The next three chapters, the **V**, **VI**, and **VII**, respectively present the body of **Studies 1**, **2**, and **3**.

CHAPTER V. DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A SHORT JOB PERFORMANCE MEASURE IN SPAIN

Introduction

Job performance is essential for the survival of organizations (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015); especially in today's context, characterized by globalization, high competitiveness, and technological development, where organizations are forced to have their human resources performing appropriately (Daud et al., 2010).

In this sense, Brewer and Selden (2000) analyze what are the factors that lead to the overall performance of organizations. To do this, they distinguish between the factors attributable to the organization itself and the factors attributable to the people who work in that organization. They argue that the latter have the greatest impact on organizational performance than the former. Therefore, when trying to understand what leads to the organizational performance, we should look at the individual performance (JP) first because without it there is no team performance nor organizational performance (Kim & Ployhart, 2014). Consequently, it is important to have instruments that capture the essence of what should be currently assessed about JP.

A literature review shows that to date there are no available JP measures validated in Spain. There are instruments validated in other Spanish speaking countries, such as Argentina (Gabini & Salessi, 2016), Mexico (Horsten et al., 2013) or Chile (Chiang Vega & San Martín Neira, 2015), but they establish JP dimensions different from the ones we consider basic in a short and parsimonious JP measure. In this study, we pursue to develop and validate a short, reliable, and valid JP instrument that can be applied among Spanish workers, containing the dimensions of in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance.

Theoretical background

Campbell and Wiernik (2015) expose that there is a consensus in the literature about JP to define it "as things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals (p. 48)". Since the '80s, different structures for the construct were proposed. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) made a classical distinction: task and contextual performance. Whereas task performance implies the work activities that contribute to an organization's technical core, focusing then on performing role-prescribed activities, contextual performance involves the activities that contribute to the social and psychological core of the organization, accounting for all helping and productive behaviors different from task performance.

Different constructs existing in the literature are similar to those dimensions. Task performance is similar to in-role performance (IR), which are behaviors that are required or expected as part of the execution of the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role (Van Dyne et al., 1995), that is, the technical core pointed out by Borman and Motowidlo. In relation to contextual performance, one of the key variables is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In fact, both are very similar, as their sub-dimensions overlap considerably (Motowidlo, 2000; Zedeck, 2011). OCB is defined as contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ, 1997). This kind of JP is considered as important as task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). When supervisors evaluate their employees, they do not just assess the in-role aspects of performance, but they rather do a holistic consideration of employee's performance, including all those extra behaviors that are not in the job description but promote the effective functioning of the organization (Johnson, 2001). In this study, we use the conceptualizations of IR and OCB.

Although these are the most established dimensions in JP literature, new dimensions are considered in the last decades. One that we consider critical is creative performance (CP). The nature of several jobs has suffered deep changes, requiring an adaptation and flexibility from the holders of those jobs (Walton, 2016; Boerlisjst & Meijboom, 1989; Dachler, 1989), and therefore forcing them to perform creatively to tackle daily challenges. Organizations have also started to value creativity in their employees if they want to achieve adaptive levels of organizational performance, and succeed in the long-term (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Anderson et al., 2014).

CP can be defined as: “products, ideas, or procedures that satisfy two conditions: (1) they are novel or original and (2) they are potentially relevant for, or useful to, an organization” (Oldham & Cummings, 1996, p. 608). It is seen as a source of growth, innovation, and development (Zhou & Hoever, 2014). The continuous processes and product improvement is done through the task force’s creativity. CP does not only belong to brilliant minds that do big contributions in a field (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). On the contrary, creative workers are those who tackle problem-solving or undertake new designs on a daily basis (Florida, 2002). Moreover, CP also appears in workers for which it is not strictly required, but they use creativity to face specific situations (Binnewies et al., 2007). There is an agreement that creativity, and the innovation triggered by it (which is the implementation of creative ideas), is a source of distinct competitive advantage (Anderson et al., 2004; West, 2002; Zhou & Shalley, 2003).

There are authors currently that include creativity or some creativity-related factor in their JP measures or models. For example, when exploring the effects of fun at work, Fluegge-Woolf (2014) uses a JP outcome composed of task performance, OCB, and CP. Schepers (2003) found a ‘creativity and resourcefulness’ factor in his measure for managers and a ‘creativity’ factor in his measure for non-managers. Bartram (2005) has a ‘creating and conceptualizing’ factor in his eight competencies model for JP. A meta-analysis by Harari et al. (2016) indicates that creativity and innovation is an important JP factor to consider, different from other JP factors. Taking all these aspects into account, we consider that, to assess JP, it is necessary to include a factor that captures the creativity of employees.

In short, we aim to test a parsimonious three-factor JP measure with IR, OCB, and CP, and we need it to be short to give an answer to the following issues that affect long questionnaires. First, long questionnaires are associated with low response rates. Second, answering long questionnaires might affect the normal functioning of the organization making workers leave their workplace for long periods of time. Finally, they can find the resistance of employers to use them, damaging, in turn, the usefulness of their responses (Heberlein & Baumgartner, 1978; Yammarino et al., 1991).

One way to reduce that resistance may be also the use of self-reports. The issue of who is the person evaluating is a relevant matter on debate. Although there are authors that set the emphasis on the “objective” evaluation by a third person, namely the immediate supervisor (Dunning et al., 2004; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009), and it is also argued that self-report measures can suffer from some biases (Van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2003), there are arguments in favor of the use of self-report measures. Employees are more likely to be aware of their own behaviors than an external observer, therefore being in a position to rate more accurately their performance (Furnham & Stringfield, 1998); supervisors and other raters can be less accurate and more subject to biases than employees themselves (Spector & Che, 2014), for example, due to the observation opportunities bias (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). Self-reports can also help to reduce the halo error (Dalal, 2005; Valle & Bozeman, 2002), common in performance appraisals, consisting of making raters hold a particular impression of a ratee that influences their performance ratings similarly across dimensions (Thorndike, 1920). Nevertheless, in some cases a self-report measure like the one we propose can be complemented with supervisory ratings (Campbell & Lee, 1988) or other.

As far as we know, there are no instruments like the one we propose, available in our context. JP is mostly assessed by internal methods developed by organizations' HR departments different than self-reports (Ramos & Gracia, 2009). There are measures similar to ours developed in Spanish, but they have taken place in different countries and include different JP factors. For example, Gabini and

Salessi (2016) validated a 13-item self-reported instrument in Argentina, based on Koopmans et al. (2013), with three factors: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behavior. Horsten and colleagues (2013) validated a measure in Mexico, resulting in a 6-item scale evaluated by the supervisor, each of them conforming a dimension: knowledge of work, work quality, responsibility, productivity, abilities and skills, and attitude toward the organization. Chiang Vega and San Martín Neira (2015) validated a satisfaction and performance measure in Chile; the performance section resulted in a 21-item self-reported scale with the dimensions of job knowledge, role performance, institution knowledge, proactivity and innovation, interpersonal relations and productivity.

The underlying problem with these measures is that they reflect the parallel disagreement that exists in the theoretical literature about what the dimensions of job performance should be. JP studies have a long history, but there is still questioning about its final structure. For example, despite the robustness of OCB and the recognition of its importance as a dimension of JP, not all measures include it and this is also the case of these validations in Spanish (with the exception of 'contextual performance', which is similar to OCB, in the Argentinian measure). In addition, meta-analyses like the one by Harari et al. (2016) show that new dimensions like creativity and innovation play a critical role in today's society but have not yet been integrated into JP models. Therefore, we think it would be convenient to accommodate these dimensions together with IR in a parsimonious model. Moreover, there is nothing in the reviewed instruments that ensures their generalizability to the Spanish context. These measures are in Spanish but have not been validated in our context. Any proposed instrument must possess a cultural fit, that is, a preparation and adaptation for its use in its specific context (Borsa et al., 2013). All these reasons bring to the table questions like what is the definitive structure of JP, or even more, can we say that there is a definitive structure, or it depends on the context? Therefore, it is important to develop and validate a measure with a local sample.

In sum, to achieve our goal of validating a self-reported measure of JP with the dimensions of IR, OCB, and CP, and to ensure the highest scientific guarantees of the instrument, we conducted two studies. In study 1a, we ran an exploratory factor analysis; in study 1b, a confirmatory factor analysis. Details are described next.

Method

Participants and Procedure

The sample of this study is constituted of 1647 employees of 22 Spanish organizations. They show different occupational categories: non-qualified manual workers (9.7%; n=159), administrative or auxiliary workers (17%; n=268), middle technicians (29.9%; n=493), high qualified professionals (24%; n=396), managers (4.8%; n=79) and others (11.3%; n=186). The gender was quite equally distributed (52% female, n=856; 43.4% male, n=714). Regarding sector, they mainly belonged to the service sector (81.3%; n=1339), and the rest to the industry sector (18.7%; n=308). In relation to age, the majority of respondents were between 35 to 50 years old (55.3%; n=910), followed by workers under 35 years (26.2%; n=432) and by those over 50 (15.7%; n=259). In relation to educational level, almost half of the participants (45.7%; n=753) had a bachelor's degree, and the rest of the participants had a high school degree (20.2%; n=333), professional training (16.6%; n=274), mandatory school degree (12.8%; n=211) and no formal education (1.2%; n=20). In terms of job tenure, participants' distribution was: over 5 years (53.4%; n=879), between 1 and 5 years (25%; n=411) and under 1 year (14.6%; n=241). This sample was split into two equivalent halves to perform the two studies, as we explain in the analyses section.

To gather the sample, the members of the research team contacted several organizations, inviting them to participate in the project. Although convenience sampling was used, the team secured a heterogeneous sample with organizations from different sectors and from different cities. The first contact was made with the CEO or with the HR manager. In a first meeting, the researchers explained their project, objectives, time required, and procedure. The full staff was invited to participate by filling in the questionnaire, in a voluntary and confidential manner. The questionnaires were administered through three alternative ways: on paper, on tablet or on-line, and always during working hours.

Measures

We based our scales on existing ones due to having good psychometric properties regarding reliability and validity. Because we aimed for a brief resulting questionnaire, we shortened two of the three original scales, so that each of the three scales had only three items.

In-role (IR). This scale is formed of three items based on Williams and Anderson (1991). They created their in-role scale based on a previous self-report-based one by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), in which respondents were asked to answer how frequently, on a 5-point scale from *never* (1) to *always* (5), they engaged in prescribed or in-role behaviors. Williams and Anderson (1991) made a more comprehensive scale adding new items, getting a reliability index of .91 (Cronbach alpha). From the seven items of their in-role behavior subscale, we took the three with the highest factorial loads and converted them into a 7-point scale to match the other two of our measure. Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with each assertion, on a 7-point scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). We obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .79 in study 1a and .76 in study 1b. An example of an item would be: *"I fulfill the tasks that are expected of me".*

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). This scale is formed of three items based on MacKenzie et al. (2011), in which managers had to rate their workgroups on a 7-point scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7), and had two factors: challenge-oriented OCB and affiliative-oriented OCB. In our study, one item was extracted from the challenge-oriented OCB and the other two from the affiliation-oriented OCB scale, basing our decision again on choosing items with the highest loads. We converted the scale into a self-report and asked our respondents to rate to what extent they agreed with each assertion, with the same anchors as the original. We obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .65 in study 1a and .68 in study 1b. An example of an item would be: *"I am good at resolving interpersonal conflicts between workers".*

Creative performance (CP). This scale is formed of three items based on Oldham and Cummings (1996). They developed a three-item scale (reliability of .90), asking supervisors to rate the extent to which their employees produced work that was novel and useful to the organization from 1 to 7. We kept the original number of items, converted them into self-reports and asked respondents to reflect on the creativity of their job from 1 (*nothing*) to 7 (*a lot*). We obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .87 in both studies 1a and 1b. An example of an item would be: *"I am creative at work and develop original ideas for my organization".*

Additionally, to provide support for external construct validity of our measure (composed of the three factors just described) we correlated it to other variables that are considered related with JP:

General job satisfaction. It was measured with the single-item general job satisfaction from Warr et al. (1979), with a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very unsatisfied*) to 7 (*very satisfied*). The item is *"What is my level of satisfaction with my work as a whole?".*

Satisfaction with life. It was measured with a 5-item adaptation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), with a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). An example of an item is *"In most ways, my life is close to my ideal".* Cronbach's alpha was .82.

Self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. They were measured with a 12-item adaptation by Djourova et al. (2019) of the PsyCap Questionnaire (Luthans et al., 2007), with Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Each of the components had 3 items. An example of an item (self-efficacy) is *"I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy".* Cronbach's alphas were .84 (self-efficacy), .78 (hope), .71 (resilience) and .84 (optimism).

Translation

All the items were translated from English to Spanish following the translation and back-translation procedure recommended by Brislin (1980). Members of the research team translated the items from English to Spanish and afterward a bilingual professional translator back-translated the Spanish version into English. Then the research team compared the original questionnaire to the back-translated English version and differences were discussed with the professional translator. An initial version of the questionnaire was administered within the research team, to identify problems with the language expressions or wording.

Analyses

As we said earlier, we randomly split our sample into two halves to perform two different analyses: an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which formed study 1a of our paper, and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), for study 1b. Each of the two resulting samples had approximately 50% of the subjects of the original sample and was randomly generated with SPSS 21.0 software. To check that they were equivalent we conducted an ANOVA comparing them in terms of basic demographics: gender, age, sector, educational level, and professional category, as well as our variables of interest. We found no differences (see **Table 2**).

Table 2. ANOVA test for comparison of sample 1 and 2

	F	Sig.
Gender	.360	.55
Age	1.38	.24
Sector	.520	.47
Educational level	1.38	.24
Professional category	2.11	.15
IR	1.42	.23
OCB	3.30	.07
CP	.068	.79

With regards to the reliability of the measures, we computed Cronbach's alpha and we complemented it with inter-item, inter-scale correlations the Composite Reliability coefficient. To have good reliability, Cronbach's index and

Composite Reliability should be over .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), inter-item correlations between .15 and .50 (Clark & Watson, 1995), and inter-scale correlations above .20 (Streiner & Norman, 1995).

With sample 1 (study 1a) we conducted a maximum likelihood oblique-rotated exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with SPSS 21.0 software to let items freely show us which structure they naturally yield. For that, we did not force any specific number of factors; we used the Kaiser-Guttman rule of retaining eigenvalues larger than 1.

With sample 2 (study 1b) we conducted a maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by means of structural equation modeling (SEM) with AMOS 20.0 software to check whether the data fit a three-factor model consistent with the structure of our questionnaire.

Due to the self-reported nature of our scale, a risk of common-method bias was present. To check for this possibility, Harman's single factor test was run (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In this test, all items are forced to a one-factor unrotated solution. If less than 50% of the variance is explained, the lack of common method bias is assumed.

We tested convergent validity by means of Average Variance Extracted (AVE), which should be over .50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). For discriminant validity, we used the square root of AVE: for each factor, it should have a greater value than the correlations between the factors (Alarcón et al., 2015).

Finally, as we said earlier, to provide support for the external construct validity of our measure, we correlated it to other variables, already described in the “measures” section.

Results

Study 1a: Exploratory Factor Analysis

In **Table 3** means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis of the nine items are displayed for sample 1. Skewness values under |3| and kurtosis under |10| are usually accepted as normally distributed (Kline, 2005). All items of our questionnaire are below those values. Only the kurtosis of one item is on the limit (K_{IR3} = 10.60), but the overextension is not large. In meeting this normality assumption, we applied the maximum likelihood extraction method.

Table 3. Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, and inter-item and item-scale correlations of items in study 1a.

Items	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	IR1	IR2	IR3	OCB1	OCB2	OCB3	CP1	CP2	CP3	TOTAL SCALE
IR1	6.28	.85	−1.59	4.23	—									.86
IR2	6.39	.76	−1.46	3.15	.61	—								.84
IR3	6.48	.79	−2.46	10.60	.52	.53	—							.81
OCB1	5.54	1.34	−1.08	1.15				—						.78
OCB2	4.93	1.29	−.53	.40				.38	—					.79
OCB3	6.01	1.04	−1.28	2.35				.37	.43	—				.74
CP1	5.19	1.26	−.87	.88							—			.89
CP2	5.31	1.19	−.10	1.40							.70	—		.89
CP3	4.87	1.33	−.53	.03							.67	.69	—	.89

Note: all correlations were significant at $p < .001$.

Before proceeding with the EFA, we checked the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test (Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's sphericity test (Bartlett, 1950). Regarding the first one, it was in the acceptable range (*KMO* = .788). In relation to the second, the test showed that the data do not form an identity matrix ($p < .001$).

In **Table 4** we can see the structure matrix of results of the EFA. As opposed to a pattern matrix, a structure matrix offers the factor loadings without partialling out the effect of the other items on each item. Even so, three factors naturally emerged, that were identified as IR, OCB, and CP. Specifically, in all cases, the items had their highest loading on the appropriate factor and low loadings on the others. The three factors had eigenvalues of 3.36 (CP), 1.73 (OCB), and 1.20 (IR), accounting for a total of 55.1% of the variance. The AVE shows us (Table 4) that convergent validity is acceptable, although it is again slightly lower for OCB. The discriminant validity is shown by the square root of AVE, which is greater than the correlation between the factors. These results, taken together, indicate that the three JP variables differ from each other and at the same time are sufficiently related to form a superior construct.

Table 4. Structure matrix of factor loadings for items in sample 1 – Oblique rotation (*n* = 793)

Item[1]	CP	IR	OCB
1. Cumplo con las tareas que se esperan de mí. *I fulfill the tasks that are expected of me.*	.189	.762*	.280
2. Finalizo adecuadamente las tareas que se me asignan. *I properly complete the tasks assigned to me.*	.244	.801*	.352
3. Cumplo con las responsabilidades especificadas para mi puesto de trabajo. *I fulfill the responsibilities specified for my job.*	.175	.669*	.266
4. Cuestiono las opiniones de los demás si creo que perjudican a la empresa. *I challenge the opinions of others if I think they harm the company.*	.275	.264	.568*
5. Se me da bien resolver conflictos interpersonales entre los trabajadores. *I am good at resolving interpersonal conflicts between workers.*	.327	.166	.670*
6. Comparto mi experiencia y conocimientos para mejorar el trabajo de mis compañeros. *I share my experience and knowledge to improve the work of my colleagues.*	.298	.344	.652*
7. Soy práctico en mi trabajo y planteo ideas útiles para mi organización. *I am practical at work and raise useful ideas for my organization.*	.822*	.244	.393
8. Soy flexible en mi trabajo y adapto de forma creativa los recursos disponibles en mi organización. *I am flexible at work and I creatively adapt the resources available in my organization.*	.855*	.222	.382
9. Soy creativo en mi trabajo y desarrollo ideas originales para mi organización. *I am creative at work and develop original ideas for my organization.*	.812*	.185	.396
Eigenvalue (unrotated)	3.36	1.73	1.20
Extraction percent variance explained	31.9%	15.4%	7.8%
Extraction cumulative percent variance explained	31.9%	47.3%	55.1%

Notes: *Indicates the loading that should be the highest for each item according to the dimensions.

[1]Only the Spanish version was validated in this paper. Items in English are italicized.

In **Table 5** we can also see that reliability indexes obtained were acceptable for all dimensions. Even though it is slightly lower for OCB (α = .65; *CR* = .66), the index for general performance is acceptable (α = .78; *CR* = .91). Additionally, Clark and Watson (1995) argue that it is not rare for researchers to consider reliabilities in the .60s and .70s as good or adequate. However, inter-item all correlations for OCB are in the range between .15 and .50 recommended by Clark and Watson (1995) (see **Table 3**). Also, item-scale correlations for OCB are over the .20 cutoff value indicated by Streiner and Norman (1995). In short, the internal consistency of the different scales can be considered sufficient.

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations between variables in study 1a.

	Mean	SD	α[1]	CR[2]	AVE[3]	√AVE[4]	1	2	3
1. IR	6.38	.67	.79	.79	.56	.75	__		
2. OCB	5.49	.94	.65	.66	.40	.63	.30**	__	
3. CP	5.12	1.12	.87	.87	.69	.83	.23**	.36**	__

Notes: ** p<0.01

[1] Cronbach alpha.

[2] Composite reliability.

[3] Average Variance Extracted.

[4] Square root of AVE.

Study 1b: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted in sample 2 (N = 854). In **Table 6** means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis of the 9 items are displayed for sample 2. Skewness and kurtosis are once again within the usually accepted range (Kline, 2005).

Table 6. Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, inter-item, and item scale correlations in study 1b.

Items	*M*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*	IR1	IR2	IR3	OCB1	OCB2	OCB3	CP1	CP2	CP3	TOTAL SCALE
IR1	6.23	.84	−1.55	4.29	—									.85
IR2	6.36	.85	−1.94	5.98	.61	—								.84
IR3	6.45	.78	−2.02	7.07	.48	.45	—							.77
OCB1	5.40	1.39	−1.11	1.41				—						.80
OCB2	4.88	1.36	−.53	.29				.45	—					.82
OCB3	5.93	1.09	−1.18	1.78				.38	.45	—				.74
CP1	5.21	1.22	−.79	.57							—			.88
CP2	5.29	1.16	−1.06	1.76							.65	—		.88
CP3	4.91	1.29	−.63	.42							.70	.70	—	.91

Note: all correlations were significant at $p < .001$.

In **Table 7** we can see that we achieve acceptable reliability indexes, although it is again lower for OCB than for the other two dimensions ($\alpha = .68$; *CR* = .69). Inter-item is again between .15 and .50, and item-scale correlations over the .20 cutoff value (see **Table 6**). Minimums for consistency are achieved.

Table 7. Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations between variables in study 1b.

	Mean	SD	α[1]	CR[2]	AVE[3]	√AVE[4]	1	2	3
1. IR	6.35	.68	.76	.77	.53	.73	__		
2. OCB	5.41	1.01	.68	.69	.43	.66	.32**	__	
3. CP	5.14	1.10	.87	.87	.69	.83	.30**	.42**	__

Notes: ** p<0.01
[1] Cronbach alpha.
[2] Composite Reliability.
[3] Average Variance Extracted.[4] Square root of AVE.

The CFA was conducted applying the maximum likelihood estimation method. Three models were tested. First, we tested Model 1, a one-factor model for which we allowed all items to load on one general JP factor. Secondly, we tested Model 2, a model of three factors in which the items were forced to load on their respective theorized factors. Finally, we tested Model 3, in which items were forced to load in the three expected factors, and these to a second-order general JP factor.

To assess the model fit, several fit indexes were used (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Chi-square test (χ^2) is normally reported, although it is very sensitive to sample size; values close to 0 indicate a good fit. Related to it, the quotient between chi-square and degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) should be under .5. Acceptable fit is also tested with the following indicators, which range from 0 to 1 and the desired value is shown between parentheses: root-mean-square error of approximation (*RMSEA* < .06), standardized root mean square residual (*SRMR* < .10), normed fit index (*NFI* > .95), comparative fit index (*CFI* > .95) and the Tucker-Lewis index (*TLI* > .95). Akaike Information Criterion (*AIC*) and Consistent Akaike Information Criterion (*CAIC*) were also examined to compare models (Akaike, 1974); the model that has smaller indexes is preferable in a comparative way.

Results (see **Table 8**) showed that only the Model 3 achieved acceptable model fit levels. No modification indexes needed to be considered either and no additional relations were suggested.

Table 8. Structural equation model fit indices for the proposed models in study 1b.

	χ^2	*df*	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI	TLI	AIC	CAIC
Model 1	943.272	27	34.936	.199	.135	.657	.663	.550	979.27	1082.77
Model 2	413.257	27	15.306	.130	.194	.850	.858	.810	449.26	552.76
Model 3	114.328	24	4.764	.066	.036	.958	.967	.950	156.33	277.08

In **Figure 1** we can see the Model 3. Factor loadings ranged from .59 to .81 (IR), from .62 to .69 (OCB) and from .81 to .86 (CP). IR loaded .56 on the general JP construct, OCB loaded .83 and CP .65. All the item and factor loadings were found to be statistically significant (p < .001). The AVE shows us (**Table 7**) that convergent validity is acceptable, although it is lower for OCB. Regarding the discriminant validity, it is acceptable because it is greater than the correlation between the factors. Our findings suggest that IR, OCB, and CP form a second-order factor of JP. Having done an exploratory factor analysis without any constraint, prior to testing our proposed model, gives us more confidence in stating that there is a general construct of job performance resting on an underlying three-factor structure with the dimensions under examination in this study.

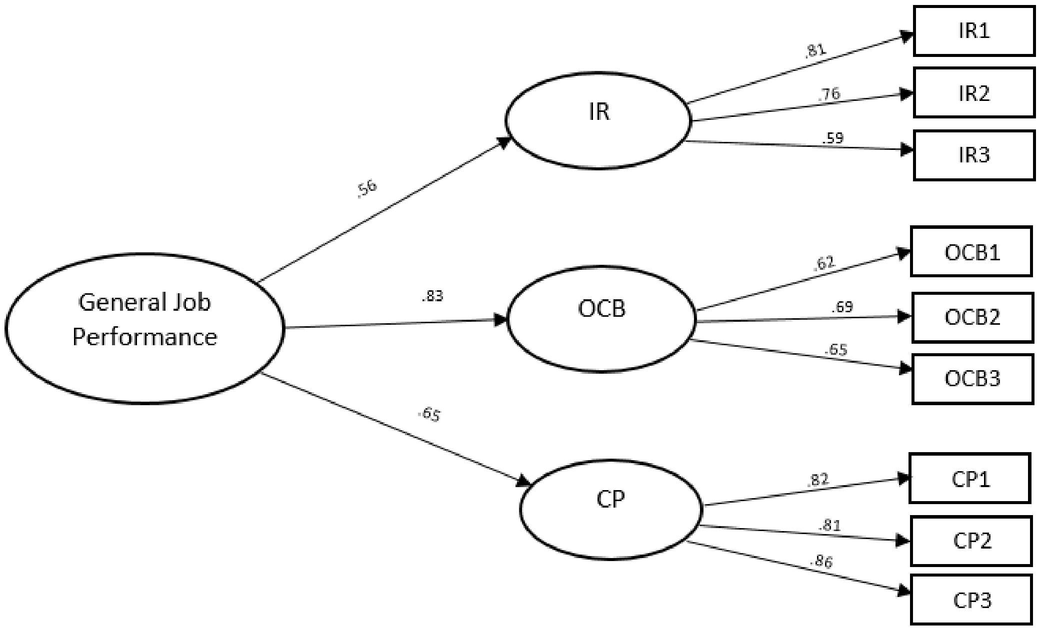

Figure 1. Resulting model for JP with standardized estimates (n = 854).

Finally, Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) showed that a forced single factor explained less than 50% of the variance (S^2 = 39.79), from which we can assume that common method bias might not be present to a relevant degree in our study.

Evidence of Construct Validity

To test evidence of construct validity of the measure based on relationships with other variables, we correlated the second-order JP construct with other variables that have links with performance, specifically job satisfaction (Yang & Hwang, 2014), satisfaction with life (Jones, 2006) and the four components of psychological capital: self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism (Luthans et al., 2007). For this step, we merged back samples 1 and 2. As we can see in **Table 9**, all variables had correlations between 0.3 and 0.7. with our JP construct ($p<.01$). This range is considered moderate according to Ratner's ranges (2009), which suggests that our construct is not identifiable with those other variables and at the same time is not unrelated to them. This gives support to the JP construct validity.

Table 9. Evidence of validity based on relationships of second-order JP to other variables (*n*=1647).

	Mean	SD	α[1]	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. JP	5.65	.69	.79						
2. General job satisfaction[2]	5.45	1.12	-	.32**					
3. Satisfaction with life	5.14	1.03	.82	.39**	.37**				
4. Self-efficacy	4.57	.95	.84	.57**	.21**	.25**			
5. Hope	4.56	.83	.78	.57**	.43**	.38**	.55**		
6. Resilience	4.85	.82	.71	.43**	.26**	.21**	.39**	.47**	
7. Optimism	4.65	.91	.84	.41**	.50**	.38**	.33**	.56**	.53**

Notes: ** $p<0.01$
[1] Cronbach alpha.
[2] General job satisfaction has not reliability coefficients because it was measured with a single-item scale.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a versatile instrument to measure JP in Spain. We aimed at capturing the essence of JP by incorporating three factors that are relevant in the current organizational context: IR, OCB, and CP. Results suggested a second-order model of JP, formed of these three dimensions.

The resulting questionnaire is a reliable and valid short test with nine items and a Cronbach alpha of .80. Only the dimension of OCB shows an alpha (α = .68) slightly lower than the commonly accepted cut-off point. However, in our case dimensions' reliabilities do not hinder the overall test's consistency.

It is also a versatile instrument, as we expose in brief in relation to its possible uses. Managers will have the final choice of what specific use they want to give it. However, we want to highlight its value when used in conjunction with other types of ratings (Farh et al., 1988), especially with supervisors' ratings to get closer to the 360° performance appraisal ideal (Smither et al., 2005). The questionnaire can be applied without using long work time and can be administered and answered massively.

The mentioned versatility of our measure is reflected in the three main uses for performance measurements that Cascio (1991) mentions: administrative, feedback, and academic and organizational research.

In relation to administrative use, it can provide relevant information to base informed decision-making in the organization (Aguinis et al., 2001) at different levels: individual, group or organizational. At the individual level, our instrument can be used in conjunction with other tools, like the usual performance appraisal done by the supervisor. It can also be a step more towards the 360° performance appraisal (Smither et al., 2005), giving voice to the evaluated about their own performance and giving that rating a specific weight in the total. It responds this way to the perception that the traditional use of taking only into account the supervisor's point of view might seem questionable when deciding about employee's performance. The participation of the evaluated in the performance appraisal process is one of the most important aspects for them to perceive fairness (Evans & McShane, 1988). In fact, the meta-analysis by Cawley et al. (1998) shows that participation is highly correlated with employee reactions, and how important justice perceptions are in this process. One way to stimulate participation and fairness is by giving the ratees the opportunity to rate themselves. At the group and organizational level, the data can be aggregated and give valuable information about JP grouped at different levels, to base managerial decisions. For example, after comparing the means obtained with a pursued standard, strategic decisions about deployment, training, communication, or others can be made.

Regarding the feedback use, the information gathered can also be treated at different levels. At the individual level, the results of the questionnaire can be the topic of a meeting with the supervisor with the purpose of helping employees reflect on their performance and help them improve (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). It can also help to identify individual training needs and carrying career plannings and mentorship programs. At the group and organizational level, it can serve to return the staff information about their performance as a team or as an organization (making them aware of the degree of alignment with goals) and to identify collective training needs.

Finally, in relation to the research use, it can stimulate the production of science, whether it is carried out by the organization itself or by external researchers. JP is widely related to other relevant variables in organizations, and our instrument is a quick way to gather information about JP while gathering about other job variables. Of course, the data can also be treated at different levels of analysis, depending on the focus of the research.

Limitations and Recommendations for the Future

As we stated earlier, although this questionnaire has diverse uses, it does not aim to completely substitute the usual performance appraisal practiced in many organizations and carried by the immediate superior of the evaluated when it comes to individual administrative decisions. It rather seeks to be a complement to it or a tool for other purposes. We advanced that it could serve the purpose of the 360° performance appraisal by giving employees the opportunity to evaluate their own performance. A further adaptation of this questionnaire could extend that idea even more and give voice to other relevant stakeholders of the performance appraisal, like the peers, clients, providers, etc., by changing the wording and point of view of the items.

The validation of this scale in a different country from where the original dimensions were designed and tested gives proof of the strength of those dimensions and of the proposed structure. However, there needs to be more evidence that the structure we propose is held across cultures and countries. For example, the organizational environment can differ from country to country in terms of stability and complexity (Emery & Trist, 1965), making it more or less reasonable to keep the creativity dimension of JP. The level of a country's economic development can also influence how JP should be measured in this sense. There need to be more JP measure validations to test these issues and cross-cultural validations to compare the structure of the construct in different settings.

CHAPTER VI. THE EFFECT OF JOB AUTONOMY AND SELF-EFFICACY ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF JOB CRAFTING: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

Introduction

The relevance of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is growing in today's work context, due to a highly competitive environment where task performance is no longer sufficient to ensure organizational performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). OCB denotes a set of behaviors that go beyond task performance and benefit the organization. More specifically, it refers to "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91), representing a step beyond mere task performance. OCBs are voluntary and not rewarded behaviors—rather than responsibilities or duties—that support colleagues and benefit the organization overall (Sharma, 2016). Although they are employee-initiated behaviors, OCBs can be encouraged through an adequate organization of work that allows and helps their emergence (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Moreover, OCB is a key to organizational effectiveness because it has been shown to have a direct effect on other organizational outcomes, such as production quantity, production quality, benefits, efficiency, customer satisfaction, and performance quality (Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Therefore, learning how to increase OCBs in organizations is crucial to organizations' competitiveness and survival.

Two main antecedents of OCB are job autonomy (Krishnan, Ismail, Samuel, & Kanchymalay, 2013; Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2016) and self-efficacy (Chen & Kao, 2011; Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). Job autonomy implies that employees have freedom, independence, and discretion to make decisions at work; being granted these options by the organization will make employees inclined to respond with positive behaviors (Krishnan et al., 2013). Self-efficacy enables employees to know which citizenship behaviors are appropriate in specific situations and how to perform these behaviors (Beauregard, 2012). Existing empirical evidence tends to confirm these relationships, although some studies show nonsignificant or even negative relationships between job autonomy, self-efficacy, and OCB (e.g., Chiu & Chen, 2005; D'Amato & Zijlstra, 2008). These incongruent results could be due to the intervention of additional variables. We contend that job crafting (JC) could be a potential mediator of these relationships. Job crafting (JC), understood as an employee-initiated behavior in the workplace, is emerging in the literature as a promising mediator (Li, 2015; Miraglia, Cenciotti, Alessandri, & Borgogni, 2017). Crafting a job allows employees to achieve a better fit with their job (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This process leads them to display their best abilities in performing their overall job (Irvin, 2017) and invest in their job by going beyond the formal job description (Theeuwes, 2016).

Theoretical and empirical support has been found for job autonomy and self-efficacy as antecedents of JC (Miraglia et al., 2017; Vanbelle, Van Den Broeck, & De Witte, 2017). Additionally, there is support for JC as a predictor of OCB (Geng & Wei, 2016). However, empirical evidence in this field is mainly cross-sectional and, therefore, unable to empirically approach the possible causal mechanisms underlying these relations (Taris & Kompier, 2014). As Tims and Bakker (2010) argue, JC's consequences take time to develop, and so the use of longitudinal designs in JC studies is appropriate.

In summary, our study aims to better understand the determinant factors that promote OCB and examine the sequential process from job autonomy and self-efficacy to OCB through JC. To do so, we use a longitudinal design to advance the current research.

Antecedents of OCB: Job Autonomy, Self-efficacy, and Job Crafting

Job autonomy. It is one of the most widely studied job characteristics and often considered a central element in work design models (Campion, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Job autonomy is defined as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162). The reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960), often integrated into the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), helps to explain how job autonomy can influence OCB. According to this norm, individuals usually feel inclined to respond to a positive action with another positive action in all social contexts. Thus, employees who are granted freedom, independence, and discretion to make decisions at work are expected to feel obliged to respond with some kind of positive behavior in the workplace (Krishnan et al., 2013). This positive behavior is excellently represented by OCB, which involves performing the job beyond what is expected and carrying out extra-role behaviors such as helping others, staying late, or defending the organization from criticism (Sharma, 2016).

With some exceptions, the literature has confirmed the existence of this relationship. Some studies find direct effects of job autonomy on OCB (Chen & Chiu, 2009; Krishnan et al., 2013), whereas other studies find a direct effect on one dimension of OCB (civic virtue), but not the other (altruism) (Pohl, Dal Santo, & Battistelli, 2012). Some studies consider job autonomy to be a partial mediator of OCB, with the leader-member exchange as the predictor (Peng, 2013). Finally, some authors (Chiu & Chen, 2005) do not find a relationship between job autonomy and OCB at all. Based on the aforementioned cross-sectional evidence, we propose the following hypothesis to longitudinally test the relationship between job autonomy and OCB:

Hypothesis 1: Job autonomy positively predicts OCB.

Self-efficacy. It "is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Self-efficacious employees will make an effort that will probably lead them to successful outcomes, as opposed to those with low self-efficacy, who are more likely to invest little effort and be less successful (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacious employees are likely to know what citizenship behaviors are appropriate in specific situations and how to perform these behaviors (Beauregard, 2012). This author provides the example of an employee high in self-efficacy who "may be more likely to volunteer to help co-workers with work-related problems or to attend voluntary meetings, because s/he is better able to proactively plan for these activities and organize the workday to accommodate them" (p. 594). Additionally, self-efficacious individuals seek experiences that enhance their self-perception (Bandura, 1993), such as engaging in extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCB) (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

The literature also tends to support this positive relationship, although with limitations. Some studies have found a direct effect of self-efficacy on OCB

(Bogler & Somech, 2004; Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). Self-efficacy has also been found to be a moderator of OCB, with authentic leadership as the predictor (Jin & Hahm, 2017), or a mediator of OCB, with knowledge characteristics as the predictor (Chen & Kao, 2011). However, Beauregard (2012) found that self-efficacy influences OCB, but only in men; women engage in OCB regardless of their self-efficacy levels. Finally, some authors reported a negative relationship between self-efficacy and OCB (D'Amato & Zijlstra, 2008). As in the case of job autonomy, the empirical evidence is cross-sectional, and there is a need to advance the knowledge from a longitudinal perspective. The majority of the evidence reviewed supports the theory and points to a positive relationship between self-efficacy and OCB; therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Self-efficacy positively predicts OCB.

Job crafting. It is a type of proactive behavior and a multi-dimensional construct, defined by Tims, Bakker and Derks (2012) as "the changes that employees make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs" (p. 174). The majority of JC studies in the past decade have approached it as a four-dimensional construct (Bakker, Ficapal-Cusí, Torrent-Sellens, Boada-Grau, & Hontangas-Beltrán, 2018; Ficapal-Cusí, Torrent, Boada-Grau, & Hontangas-Beltrán, 2014; Sora, Caballer, & García-Buades, 2018;

Tims et al., 2012). Based on Tims et al. (2012), increasing structural job resources refers to employees gaining resources to do their jobs, such as resource variety, responsibility, and opportunities for development. Decreasing hindering job demands represents employees proactively lowering their job demands when they perceive that they are overwhelming and cause them stress or work overload. Increasing social job resources consists of reinforcing the social aspects of the job, such as asking for feedback, support, and regulating interaction levels. Finally, increasing challenging job demands involves taking on new challenging and motivating tasks, in addition to those employees already do, when they feel that their job is not offering them opportunities to use all their skills.

The relationship between JC and OCB has also been studied. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argue that successfully crafting a job can lead employees to positive organizational outcomes because JC improves job-person fit (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017). Employees who craft their jobs to fit themselves personally can use their best skills to perform their overall job (Irvin, 2017). Those who attain challenges and resources at work are better prepared to invest in their job, which makes them more likely to show behaviors not included in the formal job description and engage in OCB (Theeuwes, 2016).

The literature seems to support this positive relationship overall. Some authors find a direct and positive relationship between JC and OCB, more specifically, the dimensions of increasing structural and social job resources and increasing challenging job demands (Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016; Rudolph et al., 2017). However, we can also identify serious gaps in the literature. First, most of these studies have cross-sectional designs, making it impossible to establish causal relations over time. Second, although these theoretical explanations and empirical evidence seem to fit three of the JC dimensions—increasing structural and social job resources and challenging job demands—, the situation can be different for decreasing hindering job demands. Some authors suggest that this dimension functions differently in a variety of contexts (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015). For example, it could be negatively related to OCB because it might be seen by others as a slacking behavior and generate negative feedback, thus hampering different kinds of performance, such as OCB (Gordon, Demerouti, Le Blanc, & Bipp, 2015). The peculiarity of this dimension is suggested by previous literature. For example, reducing demands—a factor that can be identified with decreasing hindering job demands in other JC conceptualizations (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012)—was found to maintain negative direct relations with contextual performance (Gordon et al., 2015). These findings contrast with those for the other dimensions. Seeking resources—similar to increasing structural and social job resources (Petrou et al., 2012)—seems to be positively related to contextual performance through work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2015; Theeuwes, 2016). Seeking challenges—similar to increasing challenging job demands—seems to be directly related to OCB (Theeuwes, 2016). Task and relational crafting—similar to increasing structural and social job resources, respectively (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001)—appear to positively predict OCB (Shusha, 2014). All these arguments lead us to formulate the following set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Increasing structural job resources positively predicts OCB.

Hypothesis 3b: Decreasing hindering job demands negatively predicts OCB.

Hypothesis 3c: Increasing social job resources positively predicts OCB.

Hypothesis 3d: Increasing challenging job demands positively predicts OCB.

Mediator Effect of Job Crafting

The literature shows a direct relationship between job autonomy, self-efficacy, and OCB. However, previous empirical evidence is contradictory, and several studies suggest that this relationship can be mediated by third variables (e.g., Chen & Chiu, 2009; Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). Building on previous research, we propose that JC may play this mediating role.

First, the literature suggests that job autonomy and self-efficacy are related to JC. In the case of job autonomy, the sense of freedom, control, and responsibility it provides makes employees strive for more control and adjust their roles to their personal preferences (Sekiguchi, Li, & Hosomi, 2017; Vanbelle et al., 2017). In this vein, Ghitulescu (2006) states that discretion about their work allows employees to adjust job aspects to their abilities and preferences. As a corollary, the opportunity to decide what and how to do the job (i.e., job autonomy) may even be a precondition for JC (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). As Tims and Bakker (2010) explain, an important condition for JC is that employees have sufficient control over their work to perceive that they have the opportunity to fulfill their ideas or desires.

In general terms, empirical evidence indicates that job autonomy predicts JC. Some authors indicate a positive direct effect of job autonomy on JC (Sekiguchi et al., 2017), whereas others do not find this relationship (Kanten, 2014). In the following studies, job autonomy has been shown to be a positive antecedent of JC. One study found that employees working in active jobs, characterized by job autonomy and workload, exhibit more JC behaviors as an antecedent to maintaining their willingness to continue working (Vanbelle et al., 2017). Job autonomy showed a direct and indirect positive effect on this relationship. Another study found that JC partially mediated the relationship between perceived competence and job autonomy and subjective happiness (Li, 2015). Job autonomy has also been shown to act as a mediator in the relationship between organizational rank and three JC dimensions: increasing structural and social job demands and seeking challenges (Roczniewska & Puchalska-Kamińska, 2017).

Regarding self-efficacy, several studies have shown that it predicts proactive behaviors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Speier & Frese, 1997; Salanova, Grau, & Martínez, 2006; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014). JC is considered a proactive behavior (Grant & Parker, 2009); therefore, it is plausible that self-efficacy could act as its antecedent. Miraglia and colleagues (2017) argue that self-efficacy is a promising antecedent of JC. In their words, when "… people believe themselves to be able to successfully master the multiple aspects of their job and work environment, they are more likely to redefine and remold work tasks, activities, and social relationships by mobilizing their job demands and resources" (p. 256).

Consequently, self-efficacious workers are believed to be able to craft their jobs more than non-self-efficacious workers.

Empirical evidence supports this relationship. Kanten (2014) found a positive and direct effect between self-efficacy and JC. Miraglia and colleagues (2017) found that the relationship between self-efficacy and job performance was fully mediated by JC. In another study, employees who felt more self-efficacious were more likely to initiate JC behaviors, and JC was, in turn, indirectly associated with performance (Tims et al., 2014).

In these relationships, decreasing hindering job demands obtains peculiar results compared to the other JC dimensions. Rudolph and colleagues (2017) showed a negative relationship between both job autonomy and self-efficacy and decreasing hindering job demands in their meta-analysis. In the case of job autonomy, these authors recognize the need for more research to understand why this occurs, but they suggest that decreasing hindering job demands may signal a withdrawal from work. In other words, the motivational drive provided by job autonomy is usually contrary to withdrawal processes. Employees with high job autonomy will feel reluctant to distance themselves from work and, thus, to reduce their job demands. The authors find a positive relationship between decreasing hindering job demands and turnover intentions. Regarding self-efficacy, they argue that self-efficacious employees may direct their attention to "growth-oriented" JC dimensions, rather than focusing on diminishing behaviors such as the ones depicted by decreasing hindering job demands. Being self-efficacious directs the energy towards aspects of the job that employees can take on and perform, rather than toward things they can stop doing.

In sum, JC may act as a mediator in the relationship between job autonomy, self-efficacy, and OCB. We consider that job autonomy and self-efficacy foster OCB because they enable employees to craft their jobs based on their needs and expectations, and this adjustment drives them to give their best performance. In the first phase, employees' autonomy over their work stimulates them to engage in JC (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Moreover, self-efficacy makes them believe they are capable of effectively performing the different aspects of their job and even modifying these aspects (Miraglia et al., 2017). In a later phase, job crafters are allowed to use their best skills (Irvin, 2017), and they are more willing to invest in their job and go beyond the formal job description (Theeuwes, 2016). This reasoning can be applied to the dimensions of increasing structural and social job resources and increasing challenging job demands. However, job crafters who reduce their job demands may be seen by others as slackers (Gordon et al., 2015), and they may be involved in a withdrawal process (Rudolph et al., 2017). Thus, we formulate our mediation hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: Job autonomy positively predicts OCB through increasing structural job resources.

Hypothesis 4b: Job autonomy negatively predicts OCB through decreasing hindering job demands.

Hypothesis 4c: Job autonomy positively predicts OCB through increasing social job resources.

Hypothesis 4d: Job autonomy positively predicts OCB through increasing challenging job demands.

Hypothesis 4e: Self-efficacy positively predicts OCB through increasing structural job resources.

Hypothesis 4f: Self-efficacy negatively predicts OCB through decreasing hindering job demands.

Hypothesis 4g: Self-efficacy positively predicts OCB through increasing social job resources.

Hypothesis 4h: Self-efficacy positively predicts OCB through increasing challenging job demands.

Method

Participants and Procedure

The members of the research team contacted several organizations and invited them to participate in the project. Although convenience sampling was used, the team ensured a heterogeneous sample by using organizations from different sectors and locations. The initial contact was the CEO or the human resources manager. In the first meeting, the research team explained the project, objectives, time required, and procedure. Then, the organization's staff was invited to participate by filling in the questionnaire voluntarily and confidentially (T1). The questionnaires were administered in three alternative ways: on paper, on a tablet, or on-line, and always during working hours. The same companies were contacted between 9 months and one year later (T2) to participate in the project again. The specific workers who participated in T1 were asked to do so again in T2. Codes were used to ensure anonymity and the data matching of the workers' answers between the two data collection times.

The initial sample was composed of 1647 subjects. Of them, 593 answered again in T2. This latter group constitutes the set of subjects used in this study. They belonged to 24 different organizations in Spain, primarily from the services sector (69.3%), with the rest (30.7%) coming from the secondary sector. Small differences between the two data collection times were due to missing values or changes over time. In T1, 52.8% of the participants were female and 43.3% male; in T2, 53.5% were female and 45% male. In T1, 25.6% of the respondents were under 35, 60.4% between 35 and 50, and 10.8% over 50; in T2, 20.9% were under 35, 60.4% between 35 and 50, and 13.5% over 50. In T1, the majority of the participants (63.6%) had a bachelor's degree or professional training (13.3%), with similar percentages for T2 (65.3% had bachelor's degrees, 14.2% had professional training). Most of the participants were mid-level technicians (31.4% in T1, 31.2% in T2), highly qualified professionals (29% in T1, 32.9% in T2), administrative or auxiliary workers (11.3% in T1, 12% in T2), or managers (8.8% in T1, 9.1% in T2).

Measures

All the variables were collected in T1, except for our dependent variable, OCB, which was collected both in T1, as a control variable, and in T2.

Job autonomy was measured using three items from the Spanish version (Bayona, Caballer, & Peiró, 2015) of the Work Design Questionnaire (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), referred to as the job autonomy dimension of job characteristics. The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item would be: "My job allows me to make a lot of decisions by myself".

Self-efficacy was measured with three items from an adaptation by Djourova, Rodríguez, and Lorente-Prieto (2019) of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007). The items were rated on a 6-point Likert response scale, where 1 is *strongly disagree* and 6 is *strongly agree*. A sample item would be: "I think I would represent my group well in meetings with management".

Job crafting was measured using the 12 items with the highest loadings from the Job Crafting Scale developed by Tims and colleagues (2012). Three items were used for each of the four dimensions. The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). A sample item would be: "I try to develop professionally".

OCB was assessed using three items from MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff (2011). The items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). A sample item would be: "I willingly share my experience, knowledge, and information to improve the effectiveness of my colleagues".

Analysis

First, we performed a preliminary analysis (e.g. means, standard deviations, and correlations). To assess the reliability of the measures, we computed Cronbach's alpha, complemented by inter-item and item-scale correlations. In order to have good reliability, Cronbach's alpha index should be above .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), inter-item correlations between .15 and .50 (Clark & Watson, 1995), and item-scale correlations above .20 (Streiner & Norman, 1995).

Second, we applied a structural equation modeling technique with AMOS 21.0.0 software. Individual items were introduced as observed variables. Job autonomy, self-efficacy, JC dimensions, and OCB were introduced as latent variables. In this way, we are improving the model fit and the accuracy of the results by contemplating both the measurement model and the structural model (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2010).

To test for the mediation effects, we applied MacKinnon's procedure (MacKinnon et al., 2002). This technique supports mediation when three steps are satisfied. First, the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator variable (α) has to be significant. Second, the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable (β), after controlling for the effect of the independent variable, has to be significant. Third, the $\alpha\beta$ product has to be significant. The latter can be tested using a critical value; as a reference, if the $\alpha\beta$ product is $>|2,18|$, then it is significant.

Results

Table 10 shows the means, standard deviations, Cronbach reliabilities, and correlations among the variables. Most of the variables are significantly interrelated. The highest correlation is between OCB in T1 and OCB in T2 (r = .63). It is noteworthy that decreasing hindering job demands shows a tendency toward negative relationships with the other variables.

Table 10. Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of all study variables.

	M	SD	Job autonomy	Self-efficacy	IStR	DHD	ISoR	IChD	OCB-T1	OCB-T2
Job autonomy	4.17	.85	*.75*							
Self-efficacy	4.74	.82	.25**	*.80*						
IStR	4.54	.53	.30**	.36**	*.72*					
DHD	2.58	.74	-.03	-.04	-.07	*.56*				
ISoR	3.07	.92	.12**	.11**	.26**	.12**	*.77*			
IChD	3.76	.77	.29**	.43**	.56**	-.08*	.32**	*.73*		
OCB-T1	5.63	.90	.19**	.53**	.37**	-.05	.18**	.39**	*.66*	
OCB-T2	5.60	.99	.18**	.45**	.38**	-.11**	.27**	.41**	.63**	*.75*

Notes: IStR = Increasing structural job resources, DHD = Decreasing hindering job demands, ISoR = Increasing social job resources, IChD = Increasing challenging job demands, OCB-T1 = Organizational citizenship behavior in T1, OCB-T2 = Organizational citizenship behavior in T2. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are displayed on the diagonal.
*p < .05, **p < .01

With regard to reliability measured by Cronbach's alpha, although decreasing hindering job demands and OCB in T1 are under the cutoff point suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the rest of the alphas are acceptable. In the case of OCB in T2, the index is higher. Clark and Watson (1995) argue that it is not rare for researchers to consider reliabilities in the .60s and .70s to be good or adequate. However, inter-item correlations for increasing hindering job demands and OCB in T1 are in the .15 to .50 range recommended by Clark and Watson (1995) (see **Table 11**). Item-scale correlations for these same variables are above the .20 cutoff value indicated by Streiner and Norman (1995). In sum, the internal consistency of the different scales can be considered appropriate.

Table 11. Inter-item and item-scale correlations.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	TOTAL SCALE
Job autonomy																									
Item 1	—																								.80
Item 2	0.50	—																							.84
Item 3	0.45	0.57	—																						.83
Self-efficacy																									
Item 4				—																					.88
Item 5				0.60	—																				.82
Item 6				0.59	0.52	—																			.84
Increasing structural job resources																									
Item 7							—																		.74
Item 8							0.44	—																	.84
Item 9							0.39	0.53	—																.81
Decreasing hindering job demands																									
Item 10										—															.77
Item 11										0.41	—														.74
Item 12										0.27	0.21	—													.68
Increasing social job resources																									
Item 13													—												.86
Item 14													0.52	—											.78
Item 15													0.63	0.43	—										.85
Increasing challenging job demands																									
Item 16																—									.82
Item 17																0.51	—								.81
Item 18																0.47	0.46	—							.81
Organizational citizenship behavior T1																									
Item 19																			—						.79
Item 20																			0.44	—					.82
Item 21																			0.36	0.38	—				.70
Organizational citizenship behavior T2																									
Item 22																						—			.83
Item 23																						0.51	—		.83
Item 24																						0.52	0.47	—	.79

Notes: Items' numbering is only for display purposes. All correlations were significant at $p < .001$

To assess the model fit, several fit indexes were used (Hu & Bentler, 1999) because no specific fit index can evaluate the different aspects of goodness of fit in an integrative way. The Chi-square test (χ^2) is normally reported, although has been considered very sensitive to sample size; values close to 0 indicate a good fit. Related to this, the quotient between the chi-square and degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) should be under .5. Acceptable fit is also tested with the following indicators, which range from 0 to 1, with the desired value shown in parentheses: root-mean-square error of approximation (*RMSEA* < .06), standardized root mean square residual (*SRMR* < .80), comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI). These last five indexes should be > .90. The model fit was excellent, as follows: RMSEA = 0.047, SRMR = .599, CFI = .934, TLI = .921, GFI = .931, AGFI = .909. Four modification indexes were implemented: The first one showed covariance between increasing structural job resources and increasing challenging job demands variable errors. This might be due to similarity in the content of the items in these two factors (Peral & Geldenhuys, 2016; Sora et al., 2018). The other three modifications made were covarying the errors of the pairs of the same items across the two times in OCB. These modifications were supported by psychometric theory (Landis, Edwards, & Cortina, 2009).

Figure 2 displays the model results, including the standardized coefficients and their significance level. First, we found that, contrary to our expectations, neither job autonomy nor self-efficacy predicted OCB (Hypotheses 1 and 2 rejected). Hypothesis 3 was partially supported. Increasing social job resources was positively related to OCB (Hypothesis 3c) and decreasing hindering job demands was negatively related to OCB (Hypothesis 3b). Increasing structural job resources (Hypothesis 3a) and increasing challenging job demands (Hypothesis 3d) did not seem to influence OCB.

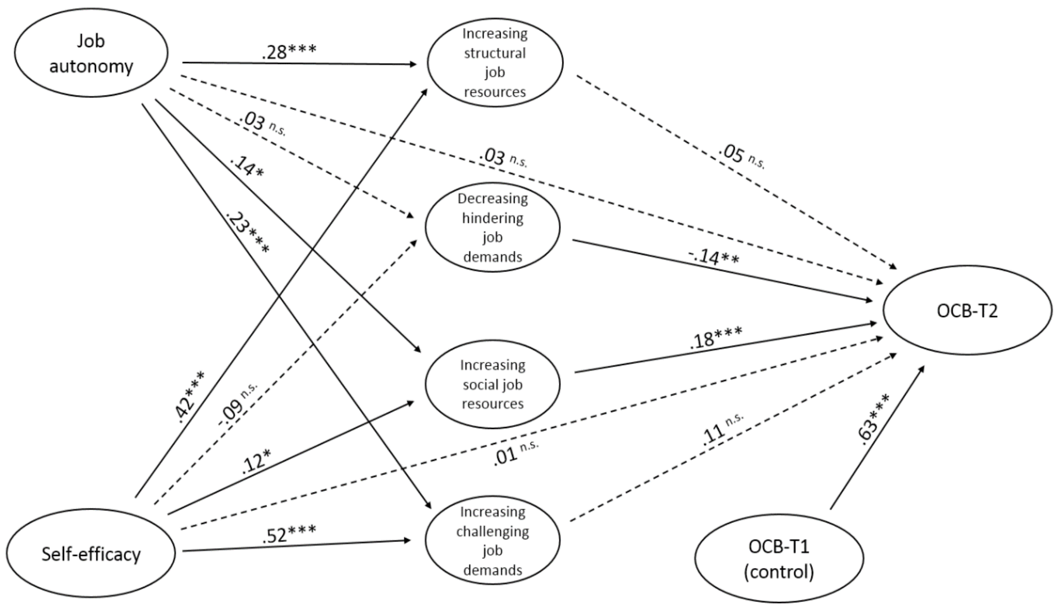

Figure 2. Results of the model. Coefficients are standardized. All variables are measured in T1, except OCB-T2. OCB-T1 was introduced as a control variable. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

Regarding mediation by JC, we found a positive indirect effect of both job autonomy and self-efficacy on OCB only through increasing social job resources (Hypotheses 4c and 4g). MacKinnon's procedure (MacKinnon et al., 2002) showed that the mediated effect was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for both job autonomy and self-efficacy. The mediation effect with job autonomy is $P = 11.33$, and with self-efficacy $P = 10.26$, both above the cutoff point of $|2.18|$ for $p < .05$. Because there are no direct effects of job autonomy and self-efficacy on OCB, we can conclude that there is support for full mediation.

In contrast, the results did not reveal a mediator effect of the other three dimensions of JC (Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4d, 4e, 4f, and 4h were rejected). Both job autonomy and self-efficacy predicted both increasing structural job resources and increasing challenging job demands, but neither of the latter two, in turn, predicted OCB. Decreasing hindering job demands was not predicted by any antecedent, but it negatively predicted OCB.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to better understand the antecedents and sequential processes that affect OCB. The literature shows that job autonomy and self-efficacy influence OCB, but we proposed that this relationship might be partially mediated by JC. Three main findings stem from our results: (1) Job autonomy and self-efficacy do not predict OCB directly (Hypotheses 1 and 2); (2) only the dimensions of decreasing hindering job demands and increasing social job resources have an impact on OCB (Hypothesis 3); (3) increasing social job resources mediates the indirect relationships between job autonomy and self-efficacy and OCB (Hypothesis 4).

According to our first hypothesis, we expected to find a direct and positive relationship between job autonomy and OCB. In contrast with the literature, we did not find support for this hypothesis. Job autonomy appears to be related to OCB in most of the previous studies (e.g., Krishnan et al., 2013; Pohl et al., 2012), with the exception of Chiu and Chen (2005). When examining the effect of job characteristics on OCB in a sample of employees in electronic companies, these authors found that variety and significance predicted OCB, but identity, autonomy, feedback, and interdependence did not. They explain that, “when employees’ job autonomy is high, it reduces their requirements and opportunities for depending on the help of others and, thus, in return, they are less likely to display OCB to others" (p. 535). This effect seems to be the opposite of the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) we used to defend a potentially positive relationship. We argued that employees who receive job autonomy from the organization would feel inclined to give something in return, such as OCB. However, Chiu and Chen (2005) emphasize reciprocal relations with coworkers—instead of the organization—as an important factor. In any case, we cannot argue that the relationship between job autonomy and OCB is non-existent, but rather it is mediated, as we will discuss below.

Our second hypothesis proposed a direct and positive relationship between self-efficacy and OCB. We did not find support for this hypothesis, although the literature generally agrees on this relationship (e.g., Bogler & Somech, 2004; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000), with some exceptions. Beauregard (2012) found self-efficacy to be relevant only for men when predicting OCB among public employees. D'Amato and Zijlstra (2008) even indicated a negative relationship between self-efficacy and OCB in hospital employees. They argue that self-efficacy is an individual-oriented value, whereas OCB can be considered more team-oriented. This explanation could help to understand Beauregard's results. Overall, these mixed findings suggest the need for more research in the area to clarify the conditions under which self-efficacy influences OCB. In any case, as in the case of job autonomy, our study does not find that this relationship is non-existent, but rather that it is mediated.

Based on our third hypothesis, we expected to find positive relationships between all the JC dimensions and OCB, except for decreasing hindering job demands, which should be negative. Our expectations about increasing social job resources and decreasing hindering job demands were fulfilled. However, the effects of increasing structural job resources and challenging job demands were non-significant. We will comment on the apparent prominence of increasing social job resources in the discussion of our fourth hypothesis. With regard to decreasing hindering job demands, the finding is consistent with the argument that decreasing hindering job demands could be seen as a slacking behavior (Gordon et al., 2015). Additionally, it should be kept in mind that, although JC can be considered good for employees, it is not necessarily good for the organization (Dierdorff & Jensen, 2018; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). A possible explanation for the nonsignificant relationships would be that specific JC dimensions elicit different types of performance. For example, the meta-analysis by Rudolph and colleagues (2017) suggests that all the JC dimensions, except increasing social job resources, are related to self-rated job performance (decreasing hindering job demands negatively). Van Wingerden, Derks and Bakker (2017) find support for a positive association between increasing structural job resources and work engagement, and a negative association between decreasing hindering job demands and in-role performance. Gordon and colleagues (2015) found that reducing demands was negatively related to task and contextual performance, whereas seeking resources exhibited a positive relationship with task and creative performance.

Finally, our fourth hypothesis proposed a positive and indirect effect of job autonomy and self-efficacy on OCB through all the JC dimensions. However, we only found this to be true for increasing social job resources, which leads us to conclude that this JC dimension is the only mediator. Increasing social job resources is defined as converting the social interactions at work into a resource that can be used by the employee, and it involves asking for feedback, advice, and support from supervisors and peers. Focusing on Organ's definition of OCB (1997), which refers to OCB as behaviors that contribute to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance, we observe that both concepts introduce the social factor. Additionally, as Smith, Organ and Near (1983) state, OCB is thought to "lubricate the social machinery of the organization" (p. 654). Thus, the literature indicates that social factors are important for OCB. Employees who have been able to modify their jobs in terms of their social boundaries, promoting feedback and support, will be more prepared to work toward enhancing the social and psychological context of the job.

Moreover, some ideas highlight the importance of increasing social job resources as a JC dimension and can help us to interpret our unique results. The socially embedded perspective (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009) argues that jobs, roles, and tasks are embedded in a social structure in the workplace. This perspective suggests that interpersonal relationships in the workplace are critical for JC. Sekiguchi and colleagues (2017) defend the relevance of the ability to interact with others or influence others as critical in promoting JC in a socially embedded workplace. Beauregard (2012) defends the importance of the social factor by proposing that employees who engage in behaviors that improve the social aspect of work benefit the organization overall. It would be interesting for further studies to examine whether this JC dimension is more prominent than the others in the factorial structure and outcomes, as this perspective seems to suggest.

Regarding the other JC dimensions, contrary to our expectations, increasing structural job resources, decreasing hindering job demands, and increasing challenging job demands did not mediate the relationships between job autonomy and self-efficacy and OCB. Congruent with our argumentation about the possible differential effects of JC dimensions on job performance indicators, the hypothetical mediation of the other dimensions might be true for other types of performance.

Two additional arguments can help to better understand the nonsignificant results in all four study hypotheses. First, our design was longitudinal, and any cross-sectional relationships are attenuated or disappear when they become longitudinal (Taris & Kompier, 2014). Second, we introduced OCB in time 1 as a control variable. Everything explained by OCB in time 1 was not explained by the rest of the variables. These two points convince us that the significant results found in our study were especially robust.

Implications for Practice and Research

When supervisors evaluate their employees, they holistically consider all the aspects of employee performance, including those that are not specifically part of the job description (Johnson, 2001; Azmi, Kavitha, & Kalpana, 2016), in other words, OCB. In this paper, we provide some insights into how to foster this aspect, which is highly valued by management. It is important for organizations that want to develop more OCB to know that they can provide job autonomy at the workplace and motivate employees to enhance their self-efficacy. More job autonomy can be achieved through job redesign (Leverhulme & Riggar, 2017), and self-efficacy can be gained through training programs (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008) or a transformational leadership style (Pillai & Williams, 2004).

Regarding the theoretical implications, our main contribution lies in knowing more about the possible sequential linkages and mechanisms involved in the effects of job autonomy and self-efficacy on OCB. Even though we did not confirm most of our hypotheses, we opened up a path for research by pointing out that JC only works as a mediator through increasing social job resources. This finding reveals the importance of considering the four JC dimensions separately when trying to predict organizational outcomes. Each dimension seems to have different relationships with these outcomes, but some recent studies still measure them as a composite (e.g., Dierdorff & Jensen, 2018, Shin, Hur, Kim, & Cheol Gang, 2018; Shenavar, 2017). Among the relationships between the four JC dimensions and OCB, one was positive, another was negative, and two were nonexistent. JC's scope is broad because it encompasses changes employees can make in any sphere of their job. Therefore, changing one aspect of the job does not compel them to necessarily change other aspects.

We would like to emphasize the need for more longitudinal research in the field of organizational psychology. Despite constant agreement about the need for longitudinal studies, cross-sectional data continue to prevail in organizational research (Kelloway & Francis, 2013). Cross-sectional investigation raises questions about the directionality of the results. In contrast, longitudinal research not only alleviates this problem, but it can also reduce the influence of third variables, such as leniency bias and the effect of transitory affects (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). Moreover, as a threat to consolidated paradigms in the field, Taris and Kompier (2014) explain that longitudinal studies sometimes do not replicate associations that have been previously established cross-sectionally. Our results also show the need to adopt longitudinal designs in research. The fact that our study is longitudinal could also explain our contradictory results compared to previous literature. For all these reasons, we believe that longitudinal designs must guide further research.

Limitations and Recommendations for the Future

We can highlight three limitations of this study. First, we use self-report measures for all our variables. In doing so, we run the risk of common method biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). It would be advisable to have additional measures from the supervisor or other relevant informers. However, we must nuance this limitation. There are some strengths in using self-reports, such as the one pointed out by Furnham and Stringfield (1998): Employees are more likely to be aware of their behaviors than an external observer and more accurately rate their own performance. In the specific case of JC, it is difficult for others to observe how employees craft their jobs (Sekiguchi et al., 2017).

Second, we did not consider other OCB-related concepts as additional outcomes, such as prosocial behavior, voice, or the more generic outcome of contextual performance. It would be interesting to examine whether the social aspects of JC are also important in these outcomes. This approach would show to what extent the social factor is exclusively relevant for OCB.

Third, there can be other relevant variables that function as mediators in the relationship between job autonomy and self-efficacy and OCB that we do not contemplate in this study. The model under examination can become more complex by adding improvements to the proposed mechanisms. For example, Tims and colleagues (2015) propose a model in which work engagement mediates the relationship between JC and the organizational outcomes of in-role performance and OCB towards individuals. They also take into account the intention to perform JC as an antecedent of JC. There is a need for integrative future studies to more accurately visualize the way OCB is fostered in organizations.

CHAPTER VII. LONGITUDINAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND CREATIVE PERFORMANCE: A THREE WAVE CROSS-LAGGED PANEL DESIGN

Introduction

The relationship between wellbeing and job performance is a concern that has captured the interest of practitioners and academics from the early XX century. Subsumed in the HPWT (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), the general idea is that satisfied workers perform better than unsatisfied ones. However, although the idea seems intuitive and has spread in the managerial field like a mantra, research shows that the matter is still unclear with non-conclusive results. For example, the meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2001) sets the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance in around .30, and the one by Bowling (2007) concludes that the relationship is spurious. The fact that some of the studied papers find a positive association between wellbeing and performance, whereas others do not, compels us to consider other perspectives when studying the HPWT. In fact, the theory is not without criticisms that may guide us into how to approach the topic. Here we highlight four of those limitations, from which derive the design of our study: 1) the different constructs used to operationalize employees' wellbeing, 2) the different constructs used to operationalize job performance, 3) the scarcity of studies of other types of relationships other than wellbeing on performance (e.g., reciprocal relationships), and 4) the scarcity of longitudinal studies on this topic.

First, wellbeing at work has usually been conceptualized as job satisfaction (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge et al., 2001), which refers to the overall evaluative judgment one has about one's job (Weiss, 2002). However, the broadness of the concept can cause a diversity of results. To analyze more in depth the effect of job satisfaction on performance, it could be useful to look at its dimensionality. A traditional distinction has been between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (IJS and EJS, respectively). Hirschfield (2000) said that "intrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, whereas extrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself" (p. 256). Intrinsically satisfied employees will display positive attitudes towards job facets like job autonomy, recognition, responsibilities, opportunities for skill development, or task variety, whereas extrinsically satisfied will do towards working conditions, peers, salary, or schedules (Warr et al., 1979). The theoretical definition alone of both types of job satisfaction indicates that they refer to different types of variables (Calvo-Salguero et al., 2011), and literature on the topic has shown that the distinction between IJS and EJS is both relevant and useful (Brough & Frame, 2004; Saari & Judge, 2004). It helps us unveil a broad distinction between two factors of different natures that can relate differently to other variables or processes (Spector, 1997). For example, there are individual differences based on the relative importance assigned to IJS and EJS (De Vaus & McAllister, 1991).

General job satisfaction measures drive us to assume that two workers who obtain equivalent scores in them are satisfied to the same degree with the different facets of their job (Boles et al., 2003). In reality, employees have different priorities and one facet may be important for a given employee but not for another; additionally, the pattern of satisfaction with facets of the job may differ even with an identic general score (Spector, 1997). Organizations have shown a preference to use job satisfaction measures that contemplate job facets to a minimum degree (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). The interest in considering the IJS–EJS distinction is even more encouraged by the extended finding that IJS seems to have more weight in explaining general job satisfaction than EJS (De Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Decker et al., 2009; Randolph & Johnson, 2005; Rothausen, 1994; Saari & Judge, 2004). But not only IJS seems to be a stronger predictor for general job satisfaction itself, but also other organizational outcomes (Blau & Gibson, 2011; Hirschfeld, 2000; Randolph & Johnson, 2005; Tang et al., 2000), including job performance (Chandrasekara, 2019; Cheng-Liang & Hwang, 2014). Therefore, it is important to consider IJS and EJS separately.

As noted above, the second limitation of the HPWT is related to the operationalization of performance. Although happy workers are assumed to "perform" better, there is no general agreement regarding its operationalization, similar to what happens to wellbeing (Peiró et al., 2019). In this case, there is more variety and disagreement about its operationalization or dimensionality. Many structures for job performance have been proposed, for example, the task-contextual performance distinction by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) or the comprehensive taxonomy by Bartram (2005) with eight factors. The emergence of different structures and conceptualizations of job performance may be attributable to the broadness of its definition: "things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals" (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p. 48). This breadth makes it difficult to accumulate precise and consistent results concerning the forecasted relationships in the HPWT. A promising and relevant type of performance in the current context is creative performance; thus, we narrow down our focus to this specific performance in the present study. Creative performance is being included more and more in different performance taxonomies (Bartram, 2005; Fluegge-Woolf, 2014; Schepers, 2003). Creative performance can be defined as "products, ideas, or procedures that satisfy two conditions: (1) they are novel or original and (2) they are potentially relevant for, or useful to, an organization" (Oldham & Cummings, 1996, p. 608). Creative performance has great importance in the current turbulent context (Walton, 2016), in which the organizational processes of continuous improvement and the achievement of competitive advantage are achieved through the creativity of the staff (West, 2002; Zhou & Hoever, 2014; Zhou & Shalley, 2003). It plays a crucial role in tackling problem-solving situations or new environments, but also the routine tasks that employees need to face daily (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Florida, 2002). The in-role performance continues to be the main interest of managers, but the arguments just presented make creative performance worthy of being studied in depth. However, despite its importance, only a few studies have analyzed the creative performance within the HPWT, finding a positive relationship (Akgunduz et al., 2018; Kato-Nitta & Maeda, 2013; Spanjol et al., 2015). To our knowledge, only the study by Akgunduz et al. (2018) explored the relation of IJS and EJS separately on creative performance. They found, in a sample of exhibition workers in Turkey, that IJS, but not EJS, had an effect. However, a single study is not sufficient to analyze these relationships since, as their authors point out, the results are not generalizable. Therefore, it is important to continue analyzing the role that both types of job satisfaction separately can be playing on creative performance.

A third limitation is that most of the literature has considered the effects of wellbeing on performance whereas other kinds of relationships have been neglected (Peiró et al., 2019). In the aforementioned meta-analysis, Judge et al.

(2001) suggested different ‘models’ in which the relationship between wellbeing and performance can take place; for example, job performance could be impacting wellbeing or both variables impacting each other. There is some evidence supporting the effect of creative performance on job satisfaction (Mishra & Shukla, 2012; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley & Gilson, 2004; Tongchaiprasita & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016; Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). For example, Wang and Netemeyer (2004) argue, based on intrinsic motivation theory and job enrichment models, that “a job that allows and encourages more creative performance inherently increases the job occupant’s intrinsic satisfaction” (p. 809). The effect of job satisfaction on creative performance has also been examined in some studies (Akgunduz et al., 2018; Kato-Nitta & Maeda, 2013; Spanjol et al., 2015). However, as far as we know, there are no attempts to testing both directionalities in a single design. The exploration of this possibility is important because it would shed some light on the essence of the HPWT: elucidating what type of relationship satisfaction and performance keep.

The fourth limitation is related to the preference for cross-sectional designs in research, despite repeated calls for longitudinal studies. This is a problem for the HPWT because its interest is on the causality of the relations, and one of the conditions for causality is that the cause must be temporarily before its effect. The predominance of cross-sectional designs hinders the interpretation of results because any conclusion regarding the directionality of the relations between variables or processes can be based only on theory and not on empiric results (Kearney, 2017). Although some longitudinal studies that relate job satisfaction and general job performance are beginning to appear (Alessandri et al., 2017; Koys, 2001), the case is different for creative performance, for which there are no previous studies as far as we know.

Based on the four limitations of the HPWT highlighted, in this study we aim to expand the knowledge about the HPWT, exploring the longitudinal and reciprocal relationships over time between job satisfaction, in both its facets of intrinsic and extrinsic, with creative performance. For this purpose, we will conduct two separate cross-lagged panel designs models, one relating IJS with creative performance and the other EJS with creative performance, as shown in **Figure 3**.

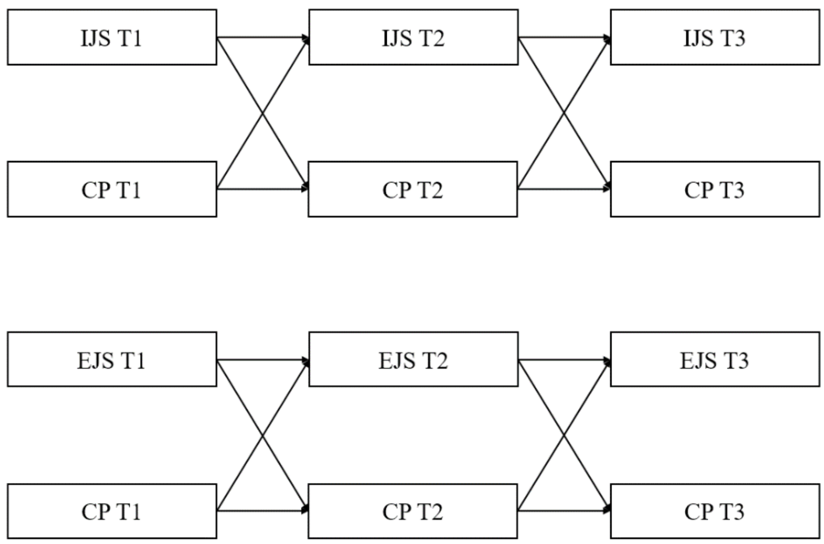

Figure 3. Proposed exploratory cross-lagged panel model of the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction (IJS, upper panel) and extrinsic job satisfaction (EJS, lower panel) with creative performance (CP) through three times of data collection.

Methodology

Participants and Procedure

The members of the research team contacted several organizations, inviting them to participate in the project. Although a convenience sampling was used, the team secured a heterogeneous sample with organizations from different sectors and different locations in Spain. The first contact was made with the CEO or the HR manager. In a first meeting, researchers explained the project, objectives, time required, and procedure. Then, if the organization agreed to participate, all the workers of the organizations were invited to fill the questionnaire voluntarily. The questionnaires were administered using three alternative ways: paper, tablet, or online. Answering during working hours was facilitated. The same companies were contacted between nine months and one year later (T2) to participate again in the project. They were contacted once again (T3), between nine months and one year after the second time of data collection. The same workers were asked to answer the questionnaires. The linkage of the data between the same workers throughout the three times of data collection was implemented using codes to ensure confidentiality.

In total, at T2, 36% of the original sample of 1647 subjects responded, resulting in 593 subjects. At T3, 35% of this second sample answered, resulting in our final sample of 209 employees from nine organizations. Therefore, the sample of this study is composed of 209 employees. Most of the workers were from the tertiary or service sector (N = 168; 80.4%) and the rest (N = 41; 19.6%) from the secondary sector, especially from the manufacturing industry. Slightly more than half were women (N = 127; 60.8%). At T3, the average age was 40.33 years old (SD = 7.87). The majority of workers (N = 162; 77.5%) had more than five years working in the same organization; the rest were between one and five years (N = 32; 17.2%), and less than one year (N = 2; 1%). Finally, the majority of workers had a full-time job (N = 169; 80.9%), and the rest (N = 34; 16.3%) part-time jobs. In these two latter variables, the lacking percentage is due to missing data.

Measures

Intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction was measured with a short version of the job satisfaction scale by Warr et al. (1979). Five items belong to the intrinsic scale and four to the extrinsic. Respondents had to answer according to how satisfied they are with specific aspects of their job, ranging from 1 (very unsatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied). An example of IJS is “The freedom to choose my own working method”, and, for EJS, “Working physical conditions”.

The creative performance was measured with a 7-point scale based on Oldham and Cummings (1996). Respondents had to answer according to the degree they agreed with the items, ranging from 1 (nothing) to 7 (a lot). The scale is composed of 3 items. An example of an item is "I am creative at work and I develop original ideas for my organization".

Analysis

First, we conducted descriptive analyses (mean, standard deviations, and correlations). For reliability of the measures, we computed Cronbach's alpha and we complemented it with inter-item and item-scale correlations. In order to have a good reliability, Cronbach's index should be over .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), inter-item correlations between .15 and .50 (Clark & Watson, 1995), and item-scale correlations above .20 (Streiner & Norman, 1995).

Then, we conducted a structural equation modeling (SEM) in a cross-lagged panel design with three waves of data collection in the software Mplus. Cross-lagged designs allow us to test for reciprocal relations between variables throughout different points in time, as well as controlling for the effects of the same variables across time (Reinders, 2006). We ran two SEM models, one for IJS and another one for EJS, and tested their fit utilizing different indexes (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). The desired value is shown between parentheses: root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA $<$ .08), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR $<$ .10), comparative fit index (CFI $>$ .90) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI $>$ .90).

Results

In **Table 12** descriptive analyses and reliability indexes are displayed. As a general pattern, IJS keeps stronger relations with creative performance than EJS. The reliability indexes are good for IJS and creative performance, and lower for EJS. As already mentioned, we have conducted additional reliability analyses, which are presented in **Table 13**. Focusing on EJS—the scale with lower Cronbach's alpha—, all inter-item correlations are in the range between .15 and .50 recommended by Clark and Watson (1995), except the correlation between items 19 and 20 (r = .12). Item-scale correlations for EJS at T1, T2, and T3 are over the .20 cutoff value indicated by Streiner and Norman (1995). These results, taken together, support the use of the EJS scale in our study.

Table 12. Correlations between study variables and reliability indexes.

	M	SD	IJS T1	IJS T2	IJS T3	EJS T1	EJS T2	EJS T3	CP T1	CP T2	CP T3
IJS T1	5.5	.99	.86								
IJS T2	5.4	1.0	.54***	.88							
IJS T3	5.5	.95	.42***	.60***	.88						
EJS T1	5.3	.90	.56***	.36***	.30***	.53					
EJS T2	5.2	.94	.40***	.51***	.29***	.64***	.58				
EJS T3	5.3	.87	.35***	.44***	.60***	.53***	.62***	.54			
CP T1	5.3	.94	.41***	.20**	.19**	.23**	.13	.11	.82		
CP T2	5.3	.86	.26***	.33***	.23**	.13	.20**	.18*	.64***	.82	
CP T3	5.4	.96	.25***	.26***	.32***	.24**	.22**	.28***	.55***	.62***	.87

Notes: Reliability indexes are computed by Cronbach alpha and are displayed in the diagonal. IJS = Intrinsic job satisfaction, EJS = Extrinsic job satisfaction, CP = Creative performance.
*** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Table 13. Inter-item and item-scale correlations.

	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	SCALE
Intrinsic satisfaction T1																																					
Item 1																																					0.76
Item 2	0.49																																				0.77
Item 3	0.51	0.57																																			0.86
Item 4	0.56	0.52	0.76																																		0.87
Item 5	0.51	0.43	0.70	0.74																																	0.82
Extrinsic satisfaction T1																																					
Item 6																																					0.63
Item 7						0.26																															0.58
Item 8						0.32	0.22																														0.72
Item 9						0.17	0.26	0.20																													0.66
Creative performance T1																																					
Item 10																																					0.85
Item 11										0.60																											0.85
Item 12										0.64	0.62																										0.90
Intrinsic satisfaction T2																																					
Item 13																																					0.75
Item 14													0.50																								0.76
Item 15													0.47	0.56																							0.85
Item 16													0.62	0.52	0.76																						0.90
Item 17													0.51	0.48	0.70	0.78																					0.84
Extrinsic satisfaction T2																																					
Item 18																																					0.67
Item 19																		0.40																			0.54
Item 20																		0.32	0.12																		0.74
Item 21																		0.20	0.17	0.37																	0.70
Creative performance T2																																					
Item 22																																					0.85
Item 23																						0.64															0.86
Item 24																						0.57	0.63														0.87
Intrinsic satisfaction T3																																					
Item 25																																					0.81
Item 26																									0.56												0.76
Item 27																									0.60	0.54											0.87
Item 28																									0.66	0.49	0.77										0.87
Item 29																									0.53	0.45	0.67	0.69									0.81
Extrinsic satisfaction T2																																					
Item 30																																					0.65
Item 31																														0.21							0.54
Item 32																														0.28	0.15						0.71
Item 33																														0.23	0.26	0.25					0.69
Creative performance T3																																					
Item 34																																					0.90
Item 35																																		0.69			0.87
Item 36																																		0.73	0.69		0.92

Notes: items numbering has only displaying purposes. All correlations were significant at $p < .001$ except for the one between items 19 and 20.

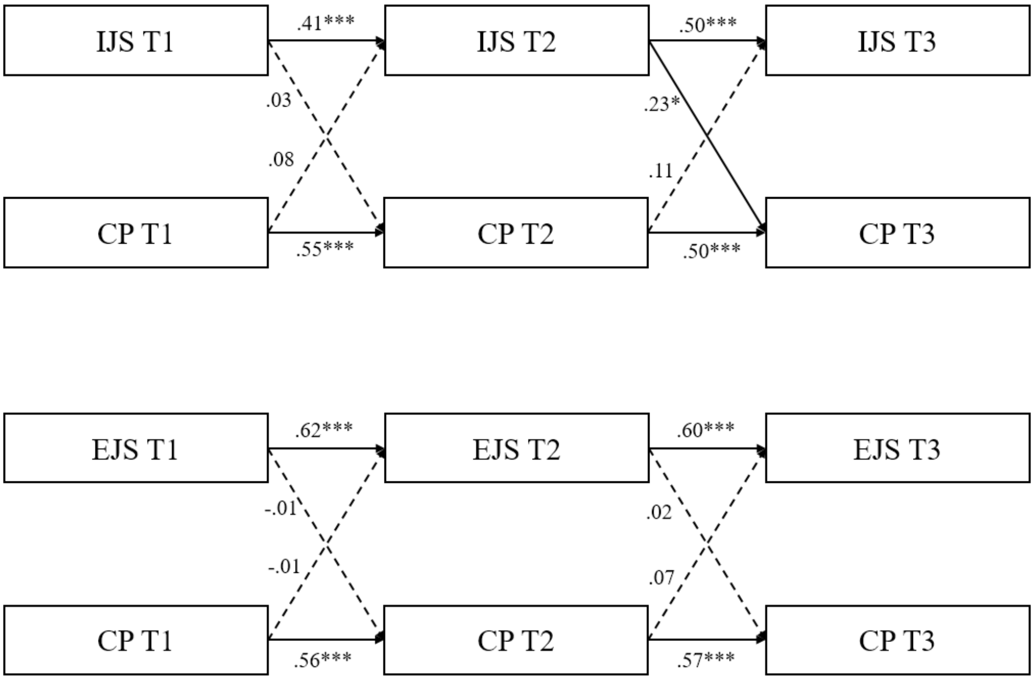

Figure 4. Cross-lagged panel model of intrinsic job satisfaction (IJS, upper panel) and extrinsic job satisfaction (EJS, lower panel) with creative performance (CP) through three times of data collection. Nonsignificant paths are dotted. * $p<.05$, *** $p<.001$.

The two models contrasted in our study are displayed in **Figure 4**. The model fit indexes for the IJS model (*RMSEA* = .063; *SRMR* = .040; *CFI* = .981; *TLI* = .955) and the EJS model (*RMSEA* = .088; *SRMR* = .041; *CFI* = .972; *TLI* = .935) are over the usual cut-off points (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). The only exception is the RMSEA for EJS model, but the overextension is not large and the rest of indicators is acceptable. Therefore, we can conclude that the model fit in both cases is acceptable.

The results show a similar pattern in both models. In general, there is no effect of satisfaction on performance, nor of performance on satisfaction. There are no reciprocal relationships between the constructs.

There is only one positive significant relationship between the variables: IJS at T2 predicts creative performance at T3 (Est. = .23, $p < 0.05$).

Discussion and Conclusions

The goal of this study was to explore the longitudinal and reciprocal relations over time between job satisfaction and creative performance, subsumed in the broader objective of expanding the knowledge about the HPWT. Starting from the limitations found in the literature, our particular contributions whilst pursuing this goal were four. First, the consideration of the two facets of job satisfaction: IJS and EJS. Second, the utilization of a relevant conceptualization of job performance nowadays such as creative performance. Third, the analysis of reciprocal relationships between job satisfaction and creative performance. Finally, the adoption of a longitudinal design. The results showed that IJS predicted creative performance in one of the two-time intervals, whereas the rest of the relationships explored were inexistent. From these findings, we would like to discuss three main aspects.

First, our pattern of results, with only one significant relationship, is a caveat we cannot ignore when extracting conclusions. Being cautious and based on our results, we cannot state that there is a clear relationship between job satisfaction and creative performance. To help us elucidate what kind of relationship they are keeping, we can look at the models described by Judge et al (2001). These authors contemplated alternative types of relationship between satisfaction and performance, within the HPWT, beyond the classic 'satisfaction causes performance'. The models are the following: job satisfaction causes job performance (model 1), job performance causes job satisfaction (2), job satisfaction and job performance are reciprocally related (3), the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is spurious (4), the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by other variables (5), there is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (6), and alternative conceptualizations of job satisfaction and/or job performance (7). The exploratory design we proposed could be identified with model 3 (job satisfaction and job performance are reciprocally related). However, the results do not support this for either IJS or EJS. For EJS, the results would support the model 6 (there is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance). In addition, the fact that there is only one significant relationship in the case of IJS and in only one of the time intervals suggests that this relationship could be spurious (model 4). In other words, the relationship between the two variables could due to a third, unmeasured variable (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). This unknown variable might have been absent in one-time interval, and present in the other one. Judge et al. (2001) number a series of variables that, when controlled, have incidentally made the relationship between satisfaction and performance disappear in previous studies: role ambiguity (Brown & Peterson, 1993), organization-based self-esteem

(Gardner & Pierce, 1998), job involvement and organizational commitment (Keller, 1997), trust in management (Rich, 1997), and participation in decision-making (Abdel-Halim, 1983). Taking the example of organization-based self-esteem, Gardner and Pierce (1998) found that job satisfaction and job performance were significantly related (r = .27, p < .01), but once this variable was introduced to influence both, the relationship disappeared. Employees high in organization-based self-esteem perceive themselves as important, meaningful, and worthwhile in their organization. The authors suggest that workers with this quality are good performers and display positive work-related attitudes. Performance and satisfaction, in turn, could reinforce organization-based self-esteem and corroborate the observation that performance is associated with satisfaction. Organization-based self-esteem might have been mutating throughout time in our sample, and that would explain why we got a significant relationship in only one of the time intervals. T1 and T2 data were collected during 2014 and 2015 when Spain was still recovering from a devastating economic crisis. It is plausible that organization-based self-esteem was not present during that harsh period to the same degree as later on, when the economic situation improved. Many employees could have felt that they were no longer important and indispensable for their organizations. A similar case could have happened with the other possible third variables mentioned, such as job involvement and organizational commitment, which might also have been sensitive to the economic circumstances. However, more research is needed to discover which of these specific variables, or other, could be playing a role in the relationship between IJS and creative performance.

Second, and with all the cautions exposed in the previous point, we observed that the type of wellbeing indicator could be relevant when tackling the relationship between wellbeing and performance. In this sense, IJS seems to be related to creative performance to some extent while EJS does not. Literature usually considers IJS and EJS jointly and implicitly within the general job satisfaction construct. However, as we noted in the introduction, the studies that make the differentiation find IJS to be more salient than EJS to organizational outcomes (e.g., Blau & Gibson, 2011) and job performance (e.g., Chandrasekara, 2019). Our results align with this idea. Within the HPWT, the question should not be simplified anymore into “are happy workers better workers?”. As Judge et al. (2001) point out, adjusting our focus on specific conceptualizations of job satisfaction and/or job performance can lead us to a better understanding of the topic. The general construct of job satisfaction is apparently too broad to answer the HPWT question accurately.

Third, as pointed out above, we found that creative performance does not seem to influence job satisfaction. This fact contradicts the literature reviewed (e.g., Tongchaiprasita & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). However, we indicated that the evidence was not sufficient since there were no studies that integrated both directionalities of the relationship over time in a single design. Once we do so, we found that relationships disappear. In any case, it is necessary to continue analyzing these relationships, given the complex and contradictory results, to provide more evidence and be able to suggest the causal links between variables.

Finally, we would like to underscore the need for conducting more longitudinal research in the field of organizational psychology. Despite the consensus on this need, cross-sectional data continues to prevail (Kelloway & Francis, 2013). As it is widely accepted, cross-sectional research posits an issue concerning the directionality of results. In addition, as stated earlier, the antecedent-consequence aspect is central to HPWT. What is probably more serious is that in some cases it may be offering false positives, that is, establishing the existence of relationships that cannot be found when examined from a longitudinal perspective (Taris & Kompier, 2014). In fact, we can see in **Table 12** that most of the correlations among the study variables are significant. However, these relationships are not significant anymore in the cross-lagged SEM, where we controlled for the effect of each variable on itself over time, which removes much of the variance.

Implications for practice and research

This study has implications for organizations, but they have to be taken with the cautions expressed in previous parts. In addition, our findings will be more valid for organizations in which creative performance is a substantial part of their culture. In those, our results suggest that it would be more important to have a staff intrinsically satisfied rather than extrinsically, which can be done by providing members with job autonomy, recognition, responsibilities, opportunities for skill development, or task variety (Warr et al., 1979). These characteristics largely converge with the components of the job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1975) and can be enhanced through job redesign (1976).

Regarding the theoretical implications, our main contribution lies in knowing more about the possible sequential linkages between job satisfaction and creative performance. We open a path for research indicating that IJS seems to work as a predictor of creative performance in some situations, whereas creative performance, in turn, does not work as a predictor of IJS in any case.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

This study is not without limitations. First, we operationalize wellbeing at work only as job satisfaction. Although this is the main tendency, some voices suggest other conceptualizations, like emotions, affects, moods, etc. This study has suggested the importance of discriminating between different types of wellbeing. Wellbeing or satisfaction constructs are too broad; specific distinctions lead to differential results. To build a more accurate HPWT, more comprehensive models are required to integrate all modalities of understanding wellbeing at work when relating it to distinct types of job performance.

Another limitation is the inconsistency in finding a stable relationship between IJS and creative performance. As we have warned throughout the paper, this fact encourages us to take the conclusions of this study with caution. However, it opens the door to interesting possibilities as there could be other variables involved in the relationship between IJS and creative performance, suitable for further study. We suggest, based on previous literature, that role ambiguity, self-esteem, job involvement, organizational commitment, trust in management, and participation in decision-making could be contaminating that relationship. More research is required to deepen in these possibilities.

CHAPTER VIII. GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

General conclusions

This doctoral thesis has been about job performance. Job performance is a central topic in personnel psychology, due to the enormous interest that it has for organizations (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Managers who neglect the monitoring of their employees' performance are condemned to depend on environmental and circumstantial conditions that they do not control. For this reason, science has been interested in its study since the early stages of industrial psychology, concerned about how to measure and predict it, what types of performance there are and what are the phenomena that affect it. The aim was to have the greatest possible control over this variable because it influences the overall performance of companies as such (Kim & Ployhart, 2014). Fortunately, the accumulation of this knowledge has gone hand in hand with the evolution in a dignified treatment of the employee (Peiró et al., 2014). As concerns about learning more about an employee's performance grew, so did concerns about their well-being. However, the last significant contributions are taking place in the expansion of the **happy and productive worker theory**, going beyond the simplistic happy-productive and unhappy-unproductive dichotomy (Peiró et al., 2019).

This diversification of interests has led, in recent decades, to explore and consider alternative conceptualizations for job performance that may be relevant in an organizational context that revealed itself with distinctive characteristics. A series of economic crises and technological developments have led to an unstable and insecure work environment, which in turn has required greater adaptability not only for organizations but also for employees, who have seen how their work was no longer guaranteed for the rest of their lives as before (Walton, 2016). In pursuit of greater employability and adaptability, employees have been forced to deliver performance that went beyond initial job specifications. Employers sometimes expect more from employees than they report in selection processes or assess in performance evaluations.

Two of the assets that have been revealed to be relevant beyond mere task performance are organizational citizenship behaviors and creative performance. The former has been studied for a long time and has received various names, as we have reviewed in the corresponding section of **Chapter II**, based on differentiating nuances (Bambale et al., 2012). The study of the latter is more recent, which, although it was always important, emerged strongly within the unstoppable technological advance (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Employees performing creatively can make a difference for many organizations.

These reasons led to design the objective of this doctoral dissertation as follows: to study the antecedents and dynamics of organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance. Derived from the pursuit of this global objective, we established three subgoals that correspond to each of the studies: To validate an instrument to measure job performance with the dimensions of in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance (**Study 1**); to examine the possible mediator role of job crafting between job autonomy and self-efficacy with organizational citizenship behavior (**Study 2**); and to analyze the reciprocal relationship over time between job satisfaction and creative performance (**Study 3**). We extract the main conclusions of this doctoral dissertation in parallel with these three subgoals in the following three sub-sections, and afterward we elaborate on integration and formulation of general conclusions in the fourth.

Job performance factors

In **Study 1** we aimed at developing and validating a short job performance scale with the dimensions of in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance, as a previous step to support the existence and use of the job performance dimensions, complementary to in-role performance, that we examine in this doctoral dissertation.

We found that in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and creative performance form, as expected, a second-order construct of general job performance. Leaving aside the uses of the versatile tool that we developed and validated, which are already discussed in **Chapter V**, we highlight here the theoretical value of equating the three factors at the same level and forming a superior construct, but at the same time preserving their identity as separate variables of job performance. In other words, they are related to each other but not so much as to imply an overlap that makes their distinction irrelevant. This paves the way for separately exploring the phenomena that surround organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance, such as their antecedents, dynamics, and mechanisms, as we do in **Chapters VI** and **VII**.

The social character of organizational citizenship behavior

Even before Organ's reformulation (1997) of the definition of organizational citizenship behavior that incorporated that social character we mentioned in previous parts of this doctoral dissertation, Smith et al. (1983) stated that this type of performance lubricates the social machinery of the organization. Perhaps, based on our findings from **Study 2**, we may not be able to fully subscribe to this statement, but we do find evidence that points in its direction. In any case, stressing that social character seems, therefore, to be a trend in the field, like it is exerted by Beauregard (2012), who, referring to organizational citizenship behavior, argued that employees engaging in constructive social behaviors at work benefit the organization overall.

Our aim in **Study 2** was to better understand the antecedents and mechanisms that stimulate and lead to this performance factor. We found that job autonomy and self-efficacy had a positive effect on it through a job crafting dimension: increasing social job resources. It is precisely this component of job crafting, differentially with respect to the others, that channels the effects of job autonomy, and self-efficacy on organizational citizenship behavior. This fact is coherent with the definition of 'increasing social job resources': converting the social interactions at work into a resource that can be used by the employee (Tims et al., 2012). It implies asking for feedback, advice, and support from supervisors and peers. The fact that it is this social dimension, as opposed to the other job crafting dimensions, that has an effect on organizational citizenship behavior, which also harbors a social component, indicates that researchers may be correct in suggesting that at least some of the beneficial behaviors at work beyond in-role performance might have to do with improving the social climate and social relationships. In other words, the social and psychological context of the job is enhanced by employees who regulate the social boundaries of their job and obtain convenient feedback and support, as opposed to what would happen with other non-social job-shaping strategies (the other job crafting dimensions, that is).

Nuances to the 'happy and productive worker thesis'

In **Study 3**, we aimed at better understanding the relationship between job satisfaction, in both its facets of intrinsic and extrinsic, with creative performance. We believed that it could be a dynamic reciprocal relationship throughout time, therefore we applied a longitudinal cross-lagged design, appropriate for that purpose. We largely grounded our idea in the **happy and productive worker thesis**. This theory has been partly supported and partly reviled before, a fact that made it necessary to investigate more in its processes. We materialized this deepening by introducing alternative or complementary conceptualizations of performance and well-being to those usually used, and we believe that we have modestly advanced our knowledge about the processes of the mentioned theory.

First, intrinsic, rather than extrinsic, job satisfaction seems to positively influence creative performance in some cases. More research is needed in this regard, however, to uncover the possible intervening variables that could be affecting this relationship. And second, creative performance does not seem to influence job satisfaction whatsoever. Thus, it seems that being satisfied or not at work does not depend on whether we have been able to produce creatively or not. This finding clashes with the logic we exhibited when discussing self-determination theory in **Chapter III**. Apparently, not all types of 'competence' are effective in eliciting that theory-predicted satisfaction.

The relationship between well-being at work and performance is of the utmost importance in the organizational context but has been producing inconclusive results for decades, forcing experts to explore alternative possibilities. In organizational psychology, the chapter on the relationship between well-being and job performance is far from being closed and we have only taken a small step in this direction here. A much larger volume of longitudinal research is needed to begin to glimpse firmer results.

Integration and general conclusions

Once one finishes observing the findings of the efforts made when studying the issue of job performance within this doctoral dissertation, the first thing to do is to conclude something obvious: we are still far from knowing everything about job performance.

Not only is the subject complex, since it includes numerous aspects related to the behavior of workers, with their motivations, their circumstances, the pressures of the companies in which they work, and many other conditions that alter their daily work, but the general context of work has changed and continues to change rapidly in our times. This condemns us, the scholars on the subject, to be aware that any contribution we make can be more provisional than in other more stable disciplines.

The first issue one sees when starting to study the topic is that, even when there is some consensus about what job performance is, there is not with respect to its components, as we observed in **Chapter I**. A multitude of taxonomies have emerged and there is no clear preponderance of any over the others. The diversity of extant jobs prevents this. One option is to design parsimonious methodologies that contemplate types of performance considered basic across the professions.

After fulfilling this first purpose, our logic adopted the purpose of better understanding those performance factors that consist of going beyond the basic prescriptions of the jobs and that add value in the organizations that characterize the business fabric of our current times in the western societies. We understood that organizational citizenship behavior and creative performance fit such purposes because they complement in-role requirements in a desirable way for employers, so we set out to explore what factors might be able to influence them and what mechanisms or dynamics could be altering them.

Organizational citizenship behavior is highly desired by the managers of practically any company since it assumes that its employees are offering their organization an extra effort that is not required, is succinctly required or that cannot be required directly; therefore, its value and benefit to organizations is incalculable. On the other hand, creative performance implied that employees reflected on how to improve the results of their work through new ideas, products or procedures that also added value to the productive future of organizations without managers having to implement a conscious innovation plan; it is also, therefore, an invaluable asset that most organizations would welcome.

Studying these two valuable performance variables has led us to a better understanding of their place in work settings. On the one hand, the social character that emerges from our inquiries about the organizational citizenship behavior opens the door to consider, as we have indicated, the possible preponderance of perspectives that conceive social relations as a key aspect of the proper functioning of organizations. An example of this would be **the socially embedded perspective** (Berg et al., 2010), as we have commented in previous chapters. Organizational citizenship behavior is highly valued by management and, although it may not be formally required, it can make a difference about which employees are the ones who stay or get promotions. The really interesting aspect of the matter is that knowing better how to foster citizenship behaviors can lead to a whole set of positive consequences for both the individual and the organization. Previous literature says that it could lead, for example, as we saw in **Chapter II** when reviewing its outcomes, to job satisfaction, personal development, employee cooperation, customer satisfaction, and higher revenues for the company. All this explains the importance of elucidating the character of this performance dimension.

On the other hand, the uniqueness of how creative performance behaves in terms of its relations with well-being emphasizes prudence when considering that not all performance dimensions can act in the same way, not only in the theoretical level but also in the methodological one; cross-sectional relationships can fade when contrasted longitudinally. The relationship between well-being and performance has long interested for good reason. Most employers want to achieve high levels of performance from their workers while safeguarding their well-being, either for ethical reasons or for economic sustainability. In the scientific literature, while continuing to examine how satisfied and dissatisfied employees differentially perform, it was necessary to integrate new conceptualizations of job performance that undoubtedly have importance in the current context, such as creative performance. Discovering that this performance factor has weak or non-existent relations with well-being supposes an advance in the knowledge on the subject (in short, we will defend the obtaining of nonsignificant results in psychology as in other sciences). On the one hand, if we know that intrinsic job satisfaction only occasionally elicits creative performance, we may want to explore what third variables are affecting this relationship, or maybe even discard this variable of well-being as an antecedent to it and explore what other conditions or work factors may promote it more consistently. On the other hand, if we know that creative performance does not elicit any type of job satisfaction, we will aim to promote job satisfaction in alternative ways within organizations.

In short, it has been a doctoral dissertation that has contributed to the advancement of the science of work, organizational and personnel psychology, and it has done so in three main ways: 1) validating in instrument of job performance, 2) providing insights on the nature of organizational citizenship behaviors and how to promote them, and 3) generating knowledge about the relationship between well-being and satisfaction with alternative conceptualizations.

Implications

In this section, we distinguish the implications in implications for practice and implications for research. We will limit ourselves to a brief summary since the implications of each study have already been described in detail in **Chapters V**, **VI** and **VII**.

Implications for practice

In **Study 1**, we developed a short and versatile job performance instrument that can have diverse uses in organizations: administrative, feedback, and academic and organizational research (Cascio, 1991). It can also aid in achieving the 360° performance appraisal ideal (Smither et al., 2005).

In **Study 2**, we commented on the possible ways to foster organizational citizenship behavior, based on our results. We found that job autonomy and self-efficacy had a positive effect on this type of performance through increasing social job resources. Job redesign programs can enhance job autonomy (Leverhulme & Riggar, 2017), whereas training programs (Luthans et al., 2008) and transformational leadership styles (Pillai & Williams, 2004) can cause the self-efficacy of the employees to grow.

In **Study 3**, we formulated cautious implications due to the inconclusive results. An intrinsically satisfied staff can be developed, however, by providing organizational members with job characteristics such as autonomy, recognition, responsibilities, opportunities for skill development, or task variety (Warr et al., 1979), which can in turn enhance creative performance.

Implications for research

In the case of the theoretical implications, we can delve a little deeper than in the practical implications, as they may have something more scope than these in this doctoral dissertation. Therefore, we will not resort so strictly to what we said in the corresponding sections of the studies, but we will make a greater abstraction and integration of them.

The theoretical implications identified have to do with the importance of considering job performance variables that go beyond task or in-role performance, with the implementation of longitudinal designs, and with the advancement of science with nonsignificant results:

- **The consideration of performance dimensions that go beyond in-role performance**: One of the basic approaches of this doctoral dissertation has been that nowadays in-role performance is not enough. A separate question would be to debate whether this should be so or not, but the fact is that with the system and circumstances that we have today it is this way. Precisely, the effort exerted by numerous researchers who have established taxonomies for job performance (e.g., Bartram, 2005; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 2012) was motivated by this attempt to see what was beyond in-role performance and that contributed significantly to the overall performance of organizations. This can give us an idea that this endeavor has been running around sometime during the past century. However, the changing circumstances of the context of work (which we discussed in the corresponding section of **Chapter I**) cause this endeavor to hardly find a definitive conclusion. Any finding or advance must be framed within an environment that can modify its structures and dynamics quickly and make any knowledge on the topic to be obsolete. In-role performance is still important and its central role in job performance is unquestionable, as evidenced by its place in performance assessments and in personnel selection processes (whose ultimate objective is above all to try, respectively, to analyze and predict this performance), but behaviors that go further are an added value that companies cannot always directly demand from their employees and that can give them a competitive advantage in a certain niche market. In this doctoral dissertation, these factors that go beyond the basic job prescription have been translated into the organizational citizenship behaviors and creative performance. The importance of these performance factors has been reflected above all in **Study 1** (**Chapter V**), in which we have found a job performance structure that integrates in-role performance together with the other two dimensions.

- **Longitudinal designs**: There are already several occasions throughout this doctoral dissertation where we have highlighted the importance of conducting longitudinal studies, as a complement to cross-sectional works. First, we have to say that we are aware of the benefits of cross-sectional studies. They are less expensive as they require less time of involvement in a project. Besides, there is usually a solid theoretical body on which to base their found findings. Longitudinal studies, by contrast, require a greater commitment not only from the researchers but also from the participating subjects or companies. However, this increased effort pays off in usually encountering stronger findings. As previously stated, cross-sectionally consolidated relationships may not be corroborated when placed on a longitudinal design (Taris & Kompier, 2014). By being more conservative, longitudinal relationships, when confirmed, can be considered more robust. In some cases, cross-sectional research may be even offering false positives, that is, claiming the existence of relationships that are not there in reality. Also, it generates a problem when trying to understand the directionality of results, an effort that must be made only based on theory. All this is closely related to one of the fundamental laws of causality: the cause must temporarily precede the effect. Cross-sectional studies cannot respect this law except by chance (cause and effect measurements are collected at the same time, but their exact occurrence in time may have been slightly different). Longitudinal studies, despite raising the question of what is the amount of time that we must allow to pass between cause and effect for this latter to elicit, at least show more consistency in the observance of the mentioned causality law. Being more specific, more longitudinal research is needed in our field of organizational psychology

(Kelloway & Francis, 2013), where there are important theories, such as the **'happy and productive worker thesis'** (Judge et al., 2001), in which the interest lies precisely in knowing what comes first and what second: wellbeing or performance. Our particular contributions within this doctoral dissertation regarding the longitudinal perspective are reflected in a commitment to designs with two (**Study 2**) and three points in time (**Study 3**). An effect of this has led to a lower occurrence, as we have noted before, of significant results than in other doctoral dissertations based on cross-sectional studies. However, we note that, as in other sciences, this must also be an advance in science, as we defend in the next point.

- **Advancement of science with nonsignificant results**: In medicine, nobody would think that it is reasonable to dismiss the publication of an article that reported on the ineffectiveness of a specific medication to treat a certain disease. We think that the same logic should apply in work, organizational and personnel psychology (and in psychology in general). To start, finding nonsignificant results in an investigation can save time, money, and efforts to other researchers who, observing a gap in the literature, have launched a research to cover it, when in fact previous scholars did it before but did not publish their results because these were nonsignificant. Also, the non-confirmation of hypotheses is an advance in knowledge as well, despite the discouragement of those who formulated those hypotheses and expected to confirm them. In the building of research, opening doors is as useful as closing doors that do not lead to our goals. For example, if it is found that the creative performance of workers does not lead to greater job satisfaction (as shown in our **Study 3**), this is a valuable insight for managers who want to promote a satisfied staff: if they have the belief that this was so, they will desist from it and look for other ways to achieve the mentioned purpose. All in all, this theoretical implication was important to point out in this doctoral dissertation since in two of our three studies we have found a majority of nonsignificant results (**Studies 2** and **3**). However, as we defend here, this does not entail a lesser contribution to the body of science in our discipline; on the contrary, it provides interesting inputs to consider lines of investigation in future studies. In any case, we elaborate on the considerations for the future in the next and last section of this doctoral dissertation.

Limitations and future research recommendations

In this section, we will make a general comment on the most relevant limitations of this doctoral dissertation, as well as the recommendations for future projects and studies derived from them. To do this, we extract the most important or reiterated aspects throughout our three studies. These are the lack of consideration of additional variables, the biases associated with self-reported instruments, and the reliability issues of some measures:

- **The lack of consideration of additional variables**: To a greater extent than in other topics, the variables examined in this doctoral dissertation are closely related to other variables in their respective semantic fields. For example, organizational citizenship behavior keeps intimate connections, as we have exposed in **Chapter II**, with prosocial behavior, extra-role performance, and contextual performance, to the point that they are sometimes interchangeable. Additionally, it keeps points in common with other phenomena, such as job crafting, engagement, or proactive behaviors. In such a context, it is common to see the question arise of why a specific variable has been chosen over another. To carry out scientific studies, researchers have to opt for those variables that they consider of greatest interest or that best represent those aspects they pretend to investigate. In the case of organizational citizenship behaviors, following the example, we chose this variable because its non-remunerative nature makes clear that component of voluntariness that comes from the employee. We thought of this performance factor as a good representative of those beneficial behaviors beyond the job description that cannot be demanded by the employer. In any case, this kind of decisions is always questionable, and it is possible to expand with future studies the theoretical models that are forged because of the body of studies about a topic. Therefore, a first recommendation derived from this doctoral dissertation is to complete the analysis of the relationships studied by including variables from the semantic fields of our variables of interest. This would help to make finer distinctions about the relationships under review and thus better understand the mechanisms and dynamics at work.

- **Biases associated with self-reports**: We are aware that we have defended the use of self-reports in previous sections of this doctoral dissertation. However, we include this point here also because there are still authors who consider their use a weakness (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003; Van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009). Therefore, here we leave on a side the advantages that using self-reports can have (like the fact that workers are more likely to be conscious of their own behaviors than a third person, or the fact that self-reports help reduce the halo error) and we will mention a couple of the limitations of their use, so we achieve a more complete and honest picture on the matter. Dunning et al. (2004) argue that employees' self-views hold modest relationships with their actual behavior because they tend to overestimate their performance. Suspecting that the results of the performance appraisal may have an impact on their continuity in the job or on an upcoming promotion, they could have an interest in obtaining favorable scores. Some authors defend that it is better to rely on an assessment by an external judge, who most of the time will be the direct supervisor, because this is a more "objective" assessment in this sense (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). Dunning et al. (2004) also say that the views of other people, such as subordinates, colleagues, and supervisors, agree with each other to a higher degree than with self-reports. In this doctoral dissertation, we have used self-reports throughout their three studies. Despite the fact that, as we indicated in the corresponding sections, its use seemed pertinent and justified, the fact that there are authors who advise the use of other sources leads us to recommend that future projects and studies take into account alternative points of view in conjunction with that of the employee, such as the immediate boss.

- **Reliability issues**: Finally, we did not want to ignore the fact that the reliability of some of the measures used in this doctoral dissertation is somewhat improvable. That is the reason that in some sections we have complemented the reliability analyses with additional indexes to defend the use of these measures. The effort to design short scales so as not to disturb the normal functioning of organizations when we go to them to collect sample has sometimes the consequence that reliability may be slightly affected. In any case, scientific researchers must always try to achieve the maximum scientific guarantees of the instruments they use, finding a balance between reliability and comfort that allows them to carry out research with guarantees.

RESUMEN

Planteamiento y objetivos

Visión general

Los cambios en las últimas décadas han llevado a explorar y considerar conceptualizaciones alternativas para el desempeño laboral que pueden ser relevantes en un contexto organizacional que tiene características distintivas. Una serie de crisis económicas y desarrollos tecnológicos han desembocado en un entorno de trabajo inestable e inseguro, que a su vez ha requerido una mayor adaptabilidad no solo para las organizaciones sino también para los empleados, que han visto cómo su trabajo ya no estaba garantizado por el resto de sus vidas como antaño (Walton, 2016). En busca de una mayor empleabilidad y adaptabilidad, los empleados se han visto obligados a desplegar un desempeño que vaya más allá de las especificaciones básicas del puesto de trabajo.

En este contexto, el objetivo general de esta tesis doctoral consiste en estudiar los antecedentes y las dinámicas de la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y del desempeño creativo, dos dimensiones relevantes del desempeño laboral que cumplen ese requisito de ir más allá de la descripción del puesto, comúnmente asociada al desempeño intra-rol.

El primero de los constructos que analizamos es la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional. Es considerada como un comportamiento individual discrecional, no reconocido directa o explícitamente por el sistema formal de recompensas y que, en conjunto, promueve el funcionamiento efectivo de la organización (Organ, 1988). No obstante, para diferenciarlo del desempeño contextual, concepciones posteriores lo consideran como conductas que contribuyen al mantenimiento y mejora del contexto social y psicológico que sostiene al desempeño de tarea (Organ, 1997), poniendo un nuevo acento sobre las implicaciones relacionales del constructo. Se diferencia de otros conceptos relacionados, como conductas organizacionales prosociales, desempeño contextual y desempeño extra-rol, en que la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional incluye solo comportamientos que no son recompensados (Bambale et al., 2012).

Es crucial saber más sobre la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional. Los evaluadores le dan importancia en las evaluaciones de desempeño, más allá del desempeño intra-rol. De hecho, cuando los supervisores evalúan a sus empleados, hacen una consideración global de todos los aspectos de su rendimiento, incluyendo aquellos que no están específicamente descritos o requeridos por el puesto (Johnson, 2001; Azmi et al., 2016). Además, hay literatura en selección de personal que muestra que los candidatos altos en puntuaciones de conducta de ciudadanía organizacional reciben mejores evaluaciones que los candidatos bajos en ella, y que las decisiones de selección son especialmente sensibles a los candidatos que puntúan bajo en conducta de ciudadanía (Podsakoff et al., 2011). Además, se trata de una variable con efectos en diversos resultados: por ejemplo, cantidad y calidad de la producción, beneficios empresariales, eficiencia, satisfacción del cliente y calidad del desempeño (Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Estos hallazgos muestran la importancia para las organizaciones de examinar cuáles son los antecedentes de la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y los mecanismos que operan en esas relaciones de manera que se pueda entender mejor cómo fomentar estas conductas positivas.

Por su parte, el desempeño creativo es "la producción de ideas útiles y nuevas por un individuo o pequeño grupo de individuos trabajando juntos (Amabile, 1988, p. 126)". Es vista como una fuente de crecimiento, innovación y desarrollo (Zhou & Hoever, 2014). Se trata de una actividad clave para las organizaciones en el contexto de nuestro moderno mercado actual, cambiante y competitivo (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). La mejora continua de procesos y productos se desarrolla a través de la creatividad de la fuerza laboral. El rendimiento creativo no corresponde únicamente a mentes brillantes que realizan grandes y sonadas aportaciones en un ámbito (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). Por contra, los trabajadores creativos son aquellos que diariamente se enfrentan a resoluciones de problemas o realizaciones de diseños nuevos (Florida, 2002). Pero el desempeño creativo se da también en aquellos trabajadores para los que no se requiere de manera explícita, sino que deben en ocasiones, de manera extraordinaria, emplear su creatividad para lidiar con alguna situación específica (Binnewies et al., 2007).

Sin embargo, pese a la importancia de la creatividad en el puesto de trabajo, muchos altos cargos han reportado bajo nivel o falta de la misma en sus organizaciones (Barsh et al., 2008). De ahí la importancia de su estudio y el reciente aumento del interés por examinar los antecedentes y causas del desempeño creativo (Hennessey et al., 2010). Por otro lado, en años recientes se han ido matizando las consecuencias de la creatividad y hallando sus complejos mecanismos (Gong et al., 2013).

Para estudiar ambos constructos, la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y el desempeño creativo, y alcanzar los objetivos expuestos al inicio, partimos de un primer estudio de validación (**Estudio 1**) que dé soporte a la noción de que desempeño intra-rol, conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y desempeño creativo son constructos separados y con identidad suficiente en sí mismos pero que al mismo tiempo forman parte de un constructo de segundo orden como es el desempeño laboral. Dentro del estudio del desempeño laboral cabe y se exige ir más allá del desempeño intra-rol, como decimos, y abordar otros tipos de desempeño que son tan relevantes y en ocasiones incluso más que el desempeño intra-rol, como es el caso de la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y el desempeño creativo. Para abordar esta exigencia, por tanto, en el **Estudio 2** se analizan los mecanismos que conducen a la conducta de ciudadanía en las organizaciones con un papel preponderante de los procesos de *job crafting* y en el **Estudio 3** se examinan las dinámicas a través de tres tiempos de recogida de datos entre la satisfacción laboral y el desempeño creativo.

Por último, mas no menos importante, para poder comenzar a intuir con mayor claridad los procesos causales implicados en las relaciones estudiadas, los estudios se han realizado desde una perspectiva longitudinal, recogiendo así una demanda cada vez más fuerte en la comunidad científica. En nuestro caso se está trabajando con dos (**Estudio 2**) y tres (**Estudio 3**) tiempos de recogida de muestra.

En resumen, con el presente proyecto se pretende entender mejor dos elementos cruciales en el desarrollo tanto de los trabajadores como de las organizaciones, como son la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y el desempeño creativo. Tratamos de comprender cuáles son los elementos que contribuyen a potenciarlos.

Objetivos específicos

Tras delimitar los objetivos generales, detallamos los objetivos específicos de cada uno de los estudios que componen esta tesis doctoral:

- **Estudio 1**: Desarrollar y validar un instrumento de autoinforme para medir el desempeño laboral en España con las dimensiones de desempeño intra-rol, comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional y desempeño creativo, dando apoyo de esta manera a estas tres dimensiones como componentes de un constructo de segundo orden de desempeño laboral.

- **Estudio 2**: comprender mejor los factores que promueven el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional y examinar los procesos que pueden conducir a él, específicamente el posible mecanismo que opera entre la autonomía laboral y la autoeficacia y el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional a través de las cuatro dimensiones de *job crafting* ('incremento de recursos laborales estructurales', 'reducción de demandas laborales molestas', 'incremento de recursos laborales sociales', e 'incremento de demandas laborales retadoras'). Se implementa un diseño longitudinal midiendo el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional en una segunda oleada de recogida de datos.

- **Estudio 3**: comprender mejor la relación dinámica que puede existir entre un indicador clásico de bienestar, como es la satisfacción laboral, en sus dos facetas de intrínseca y extrínseca, con el desempeño creativo. Se implementa un diseño longitudinal *cross-lagged* con tres momentos de recogida de datos. Así, se contempla el posible efecto de la satisfacción laboral sobre el desempeño creativo, así como el posible efecto del desempeño creativo sobre la satisfacción laboral.

Metodología

La metodología utilizada en cada uno de los estudios realizados es la siguiente:

- **Estudio 1**: La muestra consistió en 1647 empleados de cuarenta y una organizaciones de diferentes sectores. 52% mujeres, 43% hombres. 55% de personas entre treinta y cinco y cincuenta años, 26% por debajo de treinta y cinco años, y 16% por encima de cincuenta. Los análisis realizados consistieron en extraer los estadísticos descriptivos, la correlaciones entre las variables, el coeficiente de fiabilidad con alfa de Cronbach; también se extrajeron el Índice de Fiabilidad Compuesto (CR) y la Varianza Media Extraída (AVE). La muestra descrita se dividió aleatoriamente en dos mitades para el efectuar un Análisis Factorial Exploratorio en una y un Análisis Factorial Confirmatorio en la otra. Para asegurar que no caíamos en un sesgo de método común, realizamos la prueba de Factor Único de Harman. Comprobamos la validez de constructo por relación con otras variables. Se emplearon los paquetes estadísticos SPSS y AMOS.

- **Estudio 2**: La muestra estuvo formada por 593 empleados de veinticuatro organizaciones de diversos sectores, formando una base de datos longitudinal con dos tiempos de recogida de datos. 54% mujeres, 45% hombres. 60% de personas entre treinta y cinco y cincuenta años, 21% por debajo de treinta y cinco años, y 14% por encima de cincuenta. Los análisis estadísticos consistieron en extraer estadísticos descriptivos, correlaciones entre las variables, análisis de fiabilidad con alfa de Cronbach, entre-ítems e ítem-escala, así como una regresión lineal mediada, puesta a prueba con un Modelo de Ecuaciones Estructurales (SEM) con el paquete estadístico AMOS. Con el procedimiento de MacKinnon (MacKinnon et al., 2002), comprobamos si existía mediación.

- **Estudio 3**: La muestra estuvo compuesta por 209 empleados de nueve organizaciones de diversos sectores, conformando una base de datos longitudinal con tres tiempos de recogida de datos. 61% mujeres, 39% hombres. 63% de personas entre treinta y cinco y cincuenta años, 23% por debajo de treinta y cinco años, y 11% por encima de cincuenta. Los análisis estadísticos fueron los siguientes: descriptivos, tabla de correlaciones, análisis de fiabilidad con alfa de Cronbach, entre-ítems e ítem-escala, y un modelo *cross-lagged* realizado mediante un Modelo de Ecuaciones Estructurales con el paquete estadístico Mplus.

El procedimiento de recogida de muestra fue el mismo para los tres estudios. Los miembros del equipo de investigación contactaron diversas organizaciones, asegurando una muestra heterogénea de organizaciones. El primer contacto se realizó con el director general o con el director de recursos humanos. Se les explicaba el proyecto, los objetivos, el tiempo requerido y el procedimiento del mismo. Se invitaba a los trabajadores a participar rellenando el cuestionario del proyecto de manera voluntaria y confidencial, mediante tres vías alternativas: en papel, en tableta táctil, o de manera on-line, en horario laboral. Las mismas empresas fueron contactadas entre nueve meses y un año después (T2) para volver a participar en el proyecto. Posteriormente se las volvió a contactar, otra vez entre nueve meses y un año después de la segunda recogida de datos (T3). Se pidió a los mismos trabajadores que respondieran los cuestionarios. Para la unión de los datos de un mismo trabajador entre los tres tiempos de recogida de datos, se usaron códigos que permitían guardar el anonimato de los mismos.

Las medidas que se han utilizado en esta tesis son las siguientes:

- **Desempeño intra-rol**: tres ítems basados en Williams y Anderson (1991). Escala de 7 puntos desde “totalmente en desacuerdo” (1) a “totalmente de acuerdo” (7). Ejemplo: "Completo adecuadamente las tareas asignadas". Alfa de Cronbach: .76 - .79.

- **Comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional**: tres ítems basados en MacKenzie et al. (2011). Escala de 7 puntos desde "totalmente en desacuerdo" (1) hasta "totalmente de acuerdo" (7). Ejemplo: "Estoy dispuesto a compartir experiencia, conocimiento e información para ayudar a mejorar la efectividad de otros en mi grupo de trabajo". Alfa de Cronbach: .65 - .75.

- **Desempeño creativo**: tres ítems basados en Oldham y Cummings (1996). Escala de 7 puntos desde “nada” (1) a “muchísimo” (7). Ejemplo: "Soy creativo en mi trabajo". Alfa de Cronbach: .82 - .87.

- **Autonomía laboral**: tres ítems de la versión en español (Bayona et al., 2015) del Cuestionario de diseño de trabajo (Morgeson y Humphrey, 2006). Escala de 5 puntos desde "totalmente en desacuerdo" (1) a "totalmente de acuerdo" (5). Ejemplo: "Mi trabajo me permite tomar muchas decisiones por mí mismo". Alfa de Cronbach: .75.

- **Autoeficacia**: tres ítems de una adaptación de Djourova et al. (2019) del Cuestionario de Capital Psicológico de Luthans et al. (2007). Escala de 6 puntos, desde "totalmente en desacuerdo" (1) a "totalmente de acuerdo" (6). Ejemplo: "Creo que representaría bien a mi grupo en las reuniones con la gerencia". Alfa de Cronbach: .80.

- ***Job crafting:*** 12 ítems basados en Tims et al. (2012). Hay tres ítems para cada dimensión. Escala de 5 puntos desde "nunca" (1) a "siempre" (5). Ejemplo: "Intento desarrollarme profesionalmente". Alfa de Cronbach: .72 ('incremento de los recursos laborales estructurales'), .56 ('disminución de las demandas laborales molestas'), .77 ('incremento de los recursos laborales sociales') y .73 ('incremento de las demandas laborales retadoras').

- **Satisfacción laboral intrínseca y extrínseca**: nueve ítems basados en Warr et al. (1979), donde cinco pertenecen a la escala intrínseca y cuatro a la extrínseca. Va desde "muy insatisfecho" (1) a "muy satisfecho" (7). Ejemplo: "La libertad de elegir mi propio método de trabajo". Alfa de Cronbach: .86 - .88 (intrínseca) y .53 - .58 (extrínseca).

Aunque algunos índices de Cronbach son bajos, en los estudios proporcionamos indicadores de fiabilidad adicionales para defender el uso de los instrumentos.

Resultados

A continuación, se muestran los hallazgos de cada uno de los estudios:

- **Estudio 1**: El análisis factorial exploratorio sugirió la estructura tridimensional hipotetizada, con desempeño intra-rol, la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y el desempeño creativo como componentes. El análisis factorial confirmatorio produjo un modelo de segundo orden con mejor ajuste que un modelo de tres factores (*RMSEA* = .066; *CFI* = .967) y un modelo de un factor. El índice de fiabilidad para la medida fue aceptable (alfa de Cronbach = 0,80). En concordancia con lo que se esperaba, se obtuvo un modelo de desempeño en el trabajo comprendido por las tres dimensiones subyacentes.

- **Estudio 2**: Los resultados mostraron que autonomía y auto-eficacia predicen positivamente la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional a través de una de las dimensiones de *job crafting*: aumento de recursos sociales ($\chi 2/df$ = 2.306; *RMSEA* = .047; *CFI* = .934). El procedimiento de MacKinnon nos permitió saber que existía mediación.

- **Estudio 3**: Los resultados del modelo de ecuaciones estructurales (*RMSEA* = 0.063, *CFI* = 0.981, *SRMR* = 0.040 para intrínseca; *RMSEA* = 0.088; *CFI* = 0.972; *SRMR* = 0.041 para extrínseca) indicaron que la satisfacción laboral intrínseca de T2 predice el desempeño creativo de T3 (no sucede con la satisfacción laboral intrínseca de T1 sobre desempeño creativo de T2). No parece existir relación entre la satisfacción laboral extrínseca y el desempeño creativo. En la dirección contraria, el desempeño creativo no parece ejercer influencia sobre ningún tipo de satisfacción laboral.

Conclusiones

Finalmente, realizaremos en este apartado un breve bosquejo de las principales conclusiones, implicaciones y limitaciones de esta tesis doctoral.

Todavía estamos lejos de saber todo sobre el desempeño laboral. El primer problema que se aprecia al abordar el tema es que, incluso cuando hay un cierto consenso sobre la definición del desempeño laboral, no lo existe con respecto a sus componentes. Hay multitud de taxonomías y no predomina claramente ninguna sobre las demás. No obstante, esta tesis doctoral ha contribuido a su manera al avance del conocimiento sobre el desempeño laboral por las siguientes razones: 1) ha proporcionado un instrumento de desempeño laboral, 2) ha proporcionado información sobre la naturaleza de los comportamientos de ciudadanía organizacional y cómo promoverlos, y 3) ha generado conocimiento sobre la relación entre el bienestar y la satisfacción con conceptualizaciones alternativas. Veamos algunas de las contribuciones específicas de cada estudio:

- En el **Estudio 1**, destacamos el valor en el plano teórico de igualar los tres factores, desempeño intra-rol, conducta de ciudadanía organizacional y desempeño creativo, en el mismo nivel y formar un constructo superior, pero al mismo tiempo preservar su identidad como variables separadas del desempeño laboral. Por tanto, son constructos relacionados entre sí, pero no tanto como para superponerse y que su distinción sea irrelevante. Esto allana el camino para explorar por separado los fenómenos que rodean el comportamiento de la ciudadanía organizacional y el desempeño creativo, como sus antecedentes, dinámicas y mecanismos.

- En el **Estudio 2**, descubrimos que la autonomía laboral y la autoeficacia tenían un efecto positivo en la conducta de ciudadanía a través de una dimensión de *job crafting*: 'incremento de recursos laborales sociales'. Es este componente de *job crafting* el que canaliza los efectos de la autonomía laboral y la autoeficacia en el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional. Este hecho es coherente con la definición de 'incremento de recursos laborales sociales': convertir las interacciones sociales en el trabajo en un recurso que pueda ser utilizado por el empleado (Tims et al., 2012). Implica pedir retroalimentación, consejos y apoyo de los supervisores y compañeros. El hecho de que sea esta dimensión social la que tiene un efecto en el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional, que también alberga un componente social, indica que los investigadores pueden estar en lo correcto al sugerir que, al menos algunos de los comportamientos beneficiosos en el trabajo más allá del desempeño en el puesto, podrían tener que ver con mejorar el clima social y las relaciones sociales. El contexto social y psicológico del trabajo se ve reforzado por los empleados que regulan los límites sociales de su trabajo y obtienen retroalimentación y apoyo convenientes, a diferencia de lo que sucedería con otras estrategias no sociales de formación del trabajo (las otras dimensiones de *job crafting*).

- En el **Estudio 3**, encontramos que la satisfacción laboral intrínseca, más que la extrínseca, parece influir positivamente en el desempeño creativo en algunos casos. Sin embargo, se necesita más investigación a este respecto para descubrir terceras posibles variables intervinientes que podrían estar afectando a esta relación. Por otro lado, el desempeño creativo no parece tener ningún efecto en la satisfacción laboral. Parece que estar satisfechos o no en el trabajo no depende de si hemos podido producir creativamente o no. Este hallazgo choca con la lógica de la teoría de la autodeterminación. Aparentemente, no todos los tipos de "competencia" son efectivos para obtener esa satisfacción predicha por la teoría. La relación entre el bienestar y el desempeño laboral está lejos de estar esclarecida y aquí solo hemos dado un pequeño paso en esta dirección. Se necesita un volumen mucho mayor de investigación longitudinal para comenzar a vislumbrar resultados más sólidos.

Esta tesis tiene algunas implicaciones prácticas. Del **Estudio 1** se desprende la recomendación de emplear una medida flexible corta como la hallada, de tres ítems para cada factor, para evaluar el desempeño de los empleados con fines administrativos, de retroalimentación y de investigación (Cascio, 1991), coadyuvando a lograr la evaluación del desempeño de 360 grados (Smither et al., 2005). En el **Estudio 2**, encontramos que la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional podía ser fortalecida por la autonomía laboral y la autoeficacia; en este sentido, los programas de rediseño laboral pueden mejorar la autonomía (Leverhulme y Riggar, 2017), mientras que los programas de capacitación (Luthans et al., 2008) y los estilos de liderazgo transformacional (Pillai y Williams, 2004) pueden hacer que aumente la autoeficacia de los empleados. Y en el **Estudio 3**, apuntamos que se puede desarrollar un personal intrínsecamente satisfecho al proporcionar a los miembros de la organización características del trabajo tales como autonomía, reconocimiento, responsabilidades, oportunidades para el desarrollo de habilidades o variedad de tareas (Warr et al., 1979), lo cual podría conducir a un mayor desempeño creativo.

En cuanto al plano teórico, se pueden extraer de esta tesis implicaciones más generales. En primer lugar, se pone el acento sobre la consideración de dimensiones de desempeño que van más allá del desempeño intra-rol, hoy en día, este no es suficiente. El desempeño intra-rol sigue siendo importante y su papel central en el desempeño laboral es incuestionable, como lo demuestra su lugar en las evaluaciones de desempeño y en los procesos de selección de personal, pero los comportamientos que van más allá son un valor agregado que las empresas no siempre pueden exigir directamente a sus empleados y que les puede dar una ventaja competitiva en cierto nicho de mercado.

En segundo lugar, recalcamos la importancia de establecer diseños longitudinales. Aunque los trabajos transversales son menos costosos y los longitudinales requieren de mayor compromiso y esfuerzo por conseguir muestras más grandes, vale la pena reforzar la producción de estos pues se encuentran hallazgos más sólidos. Alivian el problema relativo a la direccionalidad de los resultados.

En tercer lugar, defendemos el avance de la ciencia con resultados no significativos. Encontrar resultados no significativos puede ahorrar tiempo, dinero y esfuerzos a otros investigadores. También, la no confirmación de hipótesis es también un avance en el conocimiento; abrir puertas es tan útil como cerrar puertas que no conducen a nuestros objetivos. Y en ocasiones, la confirmación o no confirmación de hipótesis a veces puede verse como únicamente dependiente de cómo se formuló la pregunta de investigación. Los resultados no significativos también proporcionan aportes interesantes para considerar líneas de investigación en futuros estudios.

Para terminar, mencionaremos tres limitaciones de nuestra tesis doctoral. En primer lugar, no consideramos variables adicionales de los campos semánticos de nuestras variables de interés, como el comportamiento prosocial, el desempeño extra-rol y el desempeño contextual para la conducta de ciudadanía organizacional. Es común ver surgir en el ámbito investigador la pregunta de por qué se ha elegido una variable específica sobre otra. Para llevar a cabo estudios científicos, los investigadores deben optar por aquellas variables que consideran de mayor interés o que representan mejor los aspectos que pretenden examinar. En cualquier caso, este tipo de decisiones siempre es cuestionable y es posible ampliar con futuros estudios los modelos teóricos que se forjan como resultado del conjunto de estudios sobre un tema. Por lo tanto, una primera recomendación derivada de este trabajo de tesis es completar el análisis de las relaciones estudiadas al incluir variables pertenecientes a los campos semánticos de nuestras variables de interés.

En segundo lugar, hay autores que arguyen que hay sesgos asociados con las medidas de autoinforme (por ejemplo, Podsakoff et al., 2003; Van Woerkom & de Reuver, 2009). Dunning y col. (2004) sostienen que las opiniones propias de los empleados mantienen relaciones modestas con su comportamiento real porque tienden a sobreestimar su desempeño. Sospechando que los resultados de la evaluación del desempeño pueden tener un impacto en su continuidad en el trabajo o en una próxima promoción, podrían tener interés en obtener puntuaciones altas. Algunos autores defienden que es mejor confiar en una evaluación realizada por un observador externo, que la mayoría de las veces será el supervisor directo, porque esta es una evaluación más "objetiva" en este sentido (Heidemeier y Moser, 2009). Estudios futuros deberían tener en cuenta puntos de vista alternativos junto con la del empleado, como el del jefe inmediato.

En tercer lugar, algunas de las medidas utilizadas en este trabajo de tesis han obtenido puntuaciones de fiabilidad bajos. Por ello, en algunas secciones hemos complementado los análisis de fiabilidad con índices adicionales para defender el uso de estas medidas. El esfuerzo por diseñar escalas cortas para no perturbar el funcionamiento normal de las organizaciones a veces tiene la consecuencia de que la fiabilidad puede verse ligeramente afectada. En cualquier caso, los investigadores científicos siempre deben tratar de alcanzar las máximas garantías científicas de los instrumentos que utilizan, encontrando un equilibrio entre fiabilidad y comodidad que permita realizar investigaciones con garantías.

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ANNEX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE VALIDATED IN STUDY 1

(CHAPTER V)

In-role. Por favor, indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con cada afirmación. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala de respuesta: 1-Totalmente en desacuerdo, 2-Moderadamente en desacuerdo, 3-Algo en desacuerdo, 4-Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo, 5-Algo de acuerdo, 6-Moderadamente de acuerdo, 7-Totalmente de acuerdo:

1. Cumplo con las tareas que se esperan de mí.

2. Finalizo adecuadamente las tareas que se me asignan.

3. Cumplo con las responsabilidades especificadas para mi puesto de trabajo.

Organizational citizenship behavior. Por favor, indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con cada afirmación. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala de respuesta: 1-Totalmente en desacuerdo, 2-Moderadamente en desacuerdo, 3-Algo en desacuerdo, 4-Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo, 5-Algo de acuerdo, 6-Moderadamente de acuerdo, 7-Totalmente de acuerdo:

1. Cuestiono las opiniones de los demás si creo que perjudican a la empresa.

2. Se me da bien resolver conflictos interpersonales entre los trabajadores.

3. Comparto mi experiencia y conocimientos para mejorar el trabajo de mis compañeros.

Creative performance. Por favor, describa cómo se definiría en su trabajo, atendiendo a las siguientes cuestiones. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala de respuesta: 1-Nada, 2-Poco, 3-Algo, 4-Medio, 5-Bastante, 6-Mucho, 7-Muchísimo.

1. **Soy práctico en mi trabajo** y planteo ideas útiles para mi organización.

2. **Soy flexible en mi trabajo** y adapto de forma creativa los recursos disponibles en mi organización.

3. **Soy creativo en mi trabajo** y desarrollo ideas originales para mi organización.