

**EXPLORING THE DIMENSIONALITY OF SITUATIONAL JUDGMENT:
TASK AND CONTEXTUAL KNOWLEDGE**

By

Tammy L. Bess

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Morell E. Mullins, Jr. Chair
Robert J. Harvey
John Donovan

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Exploring the Dimensionality of Situational Judgment: Task and Contextual Knowledge

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(ABSTRACT)

This paper investigated the suggestion that situational judgment is a multidimensional evaluation methodology that assesses task and/or contextual job knowledge, and in any given situational judgment test (SJT), there may be items that better tap contextual knowledge while other items may better tap task knowledge. 233 undergraduate students completed questionnaires containing a situational judgment test, personality questionnaire, and cognitive ability test. Results supported the hypothesis that suggested personality significantly predicts contextual knowledge over and above cognitive ability, but did not support the prediction that cognitive ability significantly predicts task knowledge above and beyond personality. Preliminary results suggest that the lack of support for H2 may be due to the SJT utilized in this study, which appears to have tapped primarily contextual knowledge domains. Implications and directions for future research are suggested.

This thesis is dedicated to my fiancée, Lloyd Barnett. Aloha Au Ia 'Oe.

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Introduction

One of the most critical issues contributing to successful performance is selecting the best employees for the tasks required by the job. At the same time practitioners are increasing their demands for cost-effective measures that accurately forecast job performance while minimizing adverse impact. Situational judgement tests (SJTs) are one such tool, but they are still in their infancy and findings on their validity are inconsistent. To a considerable extent this is caused by the absence of conclusive data pinpointing the constructs underlying SJT performance. This study will investigate the constructs underlying these types of tests to: 1) increase the understanding of the construct validity and antecedents of SJTs, and 2) provide practitioners valid instruments which are time- and cost-efficient.

Situational judgment tests present the examinee with plausible scenarios focused on the tasks of the job for which he or she is applying. The underlying premise of these tests is that they will forecast the likely performance of the job applicants by asking for behavioral intentions. This is in contrast to determining which signs of possible performance more traditional selection tools measure (Weekley & Jones, 1999). While several forms of SJTs have existed for decades (Weekley & Jones, 1999), early research findings on their validity were inconsistent (e.g., Bruce & Lerner, 1958) and thus SJTs have not been as extensively utilized by practitioners or researchers as might otherwise have been the case. Recent research results are more promising. Motowidlo, Dunnette, and Carter's (1990) "low fidelity simulation" found concurrent validities ranging from .28 to .37 depending on the job criteria. Motowidlo and Tippins (1993) also found reasonable predictive validity. A meta-analysis conducted by McDaniel, Morgeson, Finnegan, Campion, and Braverman (in press) found the validity often depended on which situational judgment test was used, ranging from .17 to .41, with a mean validity of .36. Moreover, researchers found that situational judgment predicts

job performance above and beyond cognitive ability (McDaniel et al., in press; Weekley & Jones, 1997), as well as having incremental validity over conscientiousness, experience, and technical job knowledge (Clevenger, Pereira, Wiechmann, & Schmitt, unpublished manuscript). These all suggest that situational judgment tests measure different construct(s) than extant measures.

Renewed interest over the last several years has stemmed not only from these encouraging results, but also the potential gains in reducing adverse impact while maintaining comparable validity to traditional selection measures (Weekley & Jones, 1999). While SJTs have demonstrated a majority-minority difference in scoring, the difference is not as great as the typical one standard deviation (sd) difference between Whites and Blacks for cognitive ability tests (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Jensen, 1980). Motowidlo et al. (1990) found a .21 sd difference of Whites over Blacks for job incumbents and .38 sd for job applicants. Similarly, Pulakos & Schmitt (1996) developed a SJT and found the Black-White difference to be .41 sd favoring Whites.

The interest is furthered, especially for practitioners, by the fact that SJTs (in written format) often have lower development and implementation costs compared to other selection methods (Motowidlo et al., 1990). Comparable selection methods are often high-fidelity simulations that, unlike pencil-and-paper tests, incorporate physical simulations designed to replicate tasks found in an actual job situation. These tests are costly, both in developing and maintaining the simulations. Accordingly, the demand for less-costly alternatives among practitioners is substantial, and situational judgment tests are now seen as an alternative that produces comparable results.

Despite the interest and promising SJT findings, the discrepancies in research findings are pervasive. Theoretical and empirical explorations have suggested a myriad of

predictors of SJT performance, and a review of the situational judgment literature identifies the inconsistency of the research results. For example, Mullins and Schmitt (1998) found that cognitive ability did not correlate with SJT ($r = -.0167$). This is consistent with Pereira and Harvey's (1999) findings of weak correlations between cognitive ability and situational judgment (ranging from .07 to .18). However, these findings stand in opposition to Weekley and Jones' (1997) finding that cognitive ability is moderately correlated with SJTs (.33 in developmental sample and .22 in cross-validation samples). The McDaniel et al. (in press) meta-analysis found a mean correlation of .54 with general cognitive ability, though there was significant variability depending on the situational judgment test employed. Furthermore, Smith (1996) found correlations with personality ($r = .32$ for Conscientiousness; $r = .22$ for Emotional Stability) *as well as* general cognitive ability (mean $r = .22$). Smith's (1996) conclusion that SJTs are measuring multiple constructs thus seems to have substantial empirical support.

Another area of concern within the SJT literature is the construct validity. As Chan and Schmitt (1997) explain, most studies involving a search for alternative predictors to reduce the adverse impact associated with cognitive ability have focused on developing alternative selection methods without considering what constructs they were actually measuring. Situational judgment tests are no exception. Mullins and Schmitt (1998) point out the underlying constructs and predictors of SJTs have yet to be identified. Chan and Schmitt's (1997) suggestion that situational judgment is multidimensional in nature may help to explicate these mixed empirical findings as different predictors may be predicting different dimensions of situational judgment.

Situational judgment's multidimensionality could be the result of tapping facets of job knowledge needed for different aspects of job performance. Investigations by Clevenger,

et al. (unpublished manuscript) have found preliminary evidence that some SJTs may be measuring specific types of job knowledge that mediate relationships between personal characteristics and types of job performance. Specifically, they suggested that some situational judgment tests measure contextual job knowledge, an antecedent of contextual job performance. Contextual performance, as originally defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), is a separate facet of job performance from task performance, though the two together form the multidimensional construct of job performance. As originally identified in Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit's (1997) model and later empirically supported, there are different antecedents for each of the two facets of performance, including the immediate antecedent of contextual and task job performance being the associated job knowledge. In essence, task knowledge acts as a mediator between antecedents and task performance, while contextual knowledge acts as a mediator between its antecedents and contextual performance.

This study proposes that the conflicting findings of earlier situational judgment investigations are due to differing content across situational judgment tests, specifically the type of job knowledge made focal by the questions. Thus, those situational judgment questions (or tests) requiring contextual knowledge have different predictors than those questions (or tests) tapping task knowledge. The preliminary work by Clevenger et al. (unpublished manuscript) suggests that the task-contextual knowledge distinction may be a key to solving the mystery of the constructs underlying situational judgment.

Task Performance

Task performance refers to the role-prescribed functions specific to each job title. It encompasses the activities that help support an organization's technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), or the organization's system of transforming inputs to output (Hulin & Roznowski, 1985). There are two main classes of task behavior: (a) activities that directly transform raw materials into the goods and services that the organization provides, and (b) activities that support and maintain the technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Task performance involves all behaviors that are directly relevant to main job functions and, in short, is the proficiency of activities that formally are recognized as part of workers' "jobs" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Contextual Performance

In contrast to task performance, which utilizes knowledge about facts and principles related to an organization's technical core, contextual performance utilizes knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures, all of which relate to situations that call for helping and cooperating with others (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Contextual performance consists of organizational behaviors that, implicitly or explicitly, are important for organizational effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). This type of performance is often not written in a job description but is nonetheless considered to be an important component of job performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993, p. 73) list five categories that together combine to operationalize contextual performance: volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally a part of the job, persisting with extra enthusiasm or effort when necessary to complete own task activities successfully, helping and cooperating with others, following organizational rules and procedures even when personally inconvenient, and endorsing, supporting and defending organizational objectives.

Contextual activities differ from task activities in four ways (as explained in Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 74). First, in contrast to task activities, contextual activities do not support the technical core, but instead the social and psychological environment surrounding the technical core. The emphasis here is not on proficiency, but instead on support and activities such as the initiative to volunteer. Second, in contrast to task activities, contextual activities are virtually the same in all jobs and in all organizations. Regardless of the specific position or company, volunteering, helping, or cooperating is still valued and can be done. Thus, whether someone is a student or a professor, both can help other people or volunteer to do extra work. Third, whereas variation in task performance is influenced by proficiency, volition and predisposition influence variation in contextual performance. Therefore, a secretary who may type slowly (low task performance) may still be high in contextual performance by often volunteering to help other secretaries if their workload suddenly increases. Fourth, in contrast to task behaviors, contextual activities are not role-prescribed. They are not formally recognized as part of the job.

Contextual performance overlaps several other constructs relating to extra-role behavior in organizations. As Borman and Motowidlo (1993) note, their construct of contextual performance draws on the research in organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Organ, 1988, 1997), prosocial organizational behavior (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), models of soldier effectiveness (e.g., Campbell, 1990), and models of management effectiveness (e.g., Borman & Brush, 1993). Regardless of the label, all organizational behavior that overlaps with contextual performance involves cooperation and helping others in the organization (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Additionally, they all assume that affective variables (e.g., job satisfaction, stress) can affect cooperation and helping behavior (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Motowidlo, 1984).

Despite consistencies and some overlap between constructs, there is one major distinction between other variables and contextual performance. Contextual performance is considered to be a necessary part of one's job, and something that is not optional. Unlike the other above-mentioned constructs, especially organizational citizenship behavior which is considered to be discretionary (Organ, 1988), contextual performance is a dimension of job performance. Thus, contextual performance is something that is part of the formal evaluation of effective job performance (and thus influences promotions, raises, and other organizational or supervisory rewards) (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000). An important consequence of this is contextual performance's inclusion in job analyses. Indeed, since it is a dimension of job performance, several researchers have suggested that contextual performance should be part of job analyses (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Hogan et al., 1998; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999).

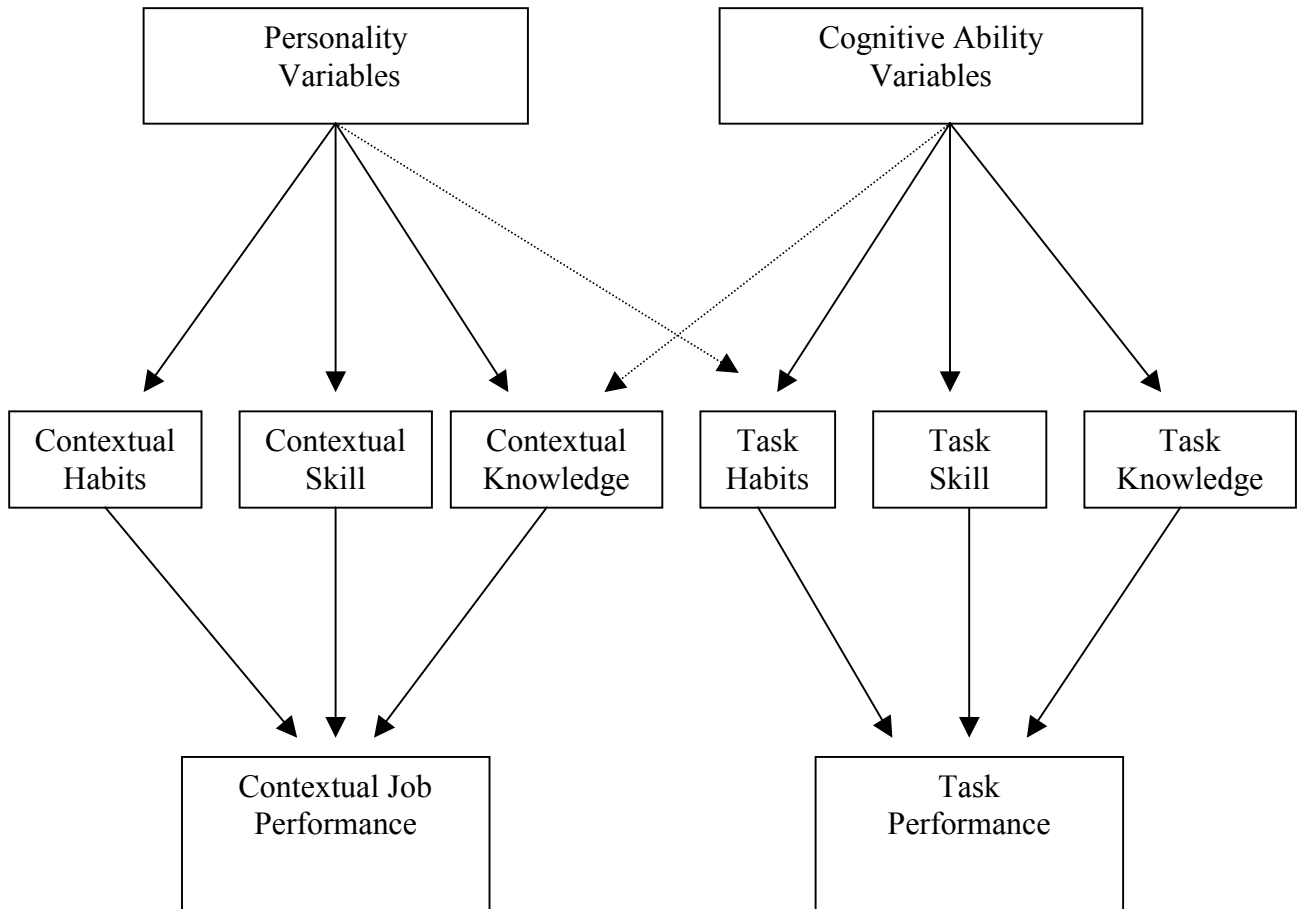
Empirical investigations of the task and contextual performance domains have supported the conceptual distinction. For example, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found that task performance and contextual performance independently contributed to overall performance ratings. As Borman and Motowidlo (1997) suggest, this distinction also indicates the potential for separate antecedents for each of the domains of job performance. Specifically, the differential predictors of personality and cognitive ability tend to better predict contextual performance and task performance, respectively. Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, and Borman (1998) examined the correlation between personality dimensions and dimensions of contextual performance, with results indicating that personality factors significantly predicted contextual performance for both entry-level jobs and jobs with opportunity for advancement. Additionally, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found that

experience was correlated with task performance, while personality traits were correlated with contextual performance.

The Motowidlo et al. (1997) model illustrates that personality acts on contextual performance through contextual knowledge, contextual habits, and contextual skills while cognitive ability act on task performance through task knowledge, task habits, and task skills (see Figure 1). Additionally, the model suggests a small crossover of cognitive ability since it influences the acquisition of contextual job knowledge insofar that memory, information processing, and decision making are important in determining the most effective interpersonal or social response (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Similarly, the model suggests a small crossover of personality affecting task habits through influencing characteristic responses and motivational levels of each individual (Motowidlo et al., 1997). However, there has been little empirical work done to date to investigate the mediating role of job knowledge (task and contextual) between the personal characteristics and the job performance facets as originally suggested by this model. The present study marks one of the first formal investigations of the job knowledge mediators, specifically examining the influence of personality and cognitive ability on the facets of job knowledge.

Figure 1

Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit's (1997) Model of Task and Contextual Performance.



Personality Traits

As noted above, one of the empirically validated predictors of contextual job performance is personality. For decades, the organizational psychology literature has been inundated with information concerning the role of personality traits in organizations, both in interpreting and understanding life at work. One area of empirical and theoretical focus has been the validity of personality traits to predict occupational success. However, skepticism that personality measures are easily faked, lack validity, and are generally not suitable for work-related outcomes has been noted throughout the academic community (Hogan, 1998). The past several years have seen reviews of empirical evidence that support the conclusion that personality traits are valid predictors of performance in a wide range of jobs (Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996). In fact, there is now an emerging consensus of the validity of personality in predicting performance (Caldwell & Burger, 1998).

This stems, at least in part, from the emergence of a conceptual structure of personality. The construction of this personality taxonomy is based on Cattell's (1946) original study of personality-descriptive terms, which underwent various orthogonal rotational methods and factor analyses (e.g., Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981). The final result was that, of the original dozen or more variables Cattell described, only five factors proved to be replicable (Fiske, 1949; Norman, 1963; Tupes & Christal, 1961). Studies based on other personality variables have shown a similar five-factor structure (Digman & Inouye, 1986; McCrae & Costa, 1985). Finally, Goldberg (1990) replicated Cattell's (1946) method of selecting an extraordinarily large number of traits and organizing them into orthogonal groups, once again finding the emergence of five factors.

Out of these factor analyses the five-factor model of personality was born (Digman, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1992). This model incorporates five distinct variables into a

conceptual taxonomy that describes broad personality characteristics suggested to represent enduring traits that are part of our cognitive system (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These traits have been shown to be robust and stable over time (Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1991) and can account for much of the information that is described in other personality models (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Although there are critics of the five factor model (e.g., Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1992), during the last decade there has been a steady accumulation of evidence and growing theoretical agreement that the five factor model accounts for the majority of variance in typical personality traits (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa, 1996). Thus, for the purposes of this study, it is suggested that these five factors represent the basic dimensions of personality (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992). Future studies may (and should) approach the questions addressed in this study using alternative theoretical frameworks.

Although the five factors of personality have been variously labeled, all five-factor typologies represent the same basic five dimensions (Costa, 1996; McCrae & John, 1992), with each dimension containing several subfacets. The five factors, as identified and described by Costa and McCrae (1985, 1992) are extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness. Extraversion refers to sociable people who are assertive, talkative and expressive. Neuroticism is described as being emotionally unstable, depressed, not content, and insecure. Agreeableness is characterized by being trusting, courteous, good natured, tolerant, cooperative, and forgiving. Conscientiousness is the trait typified by being dependable, organized, persevering, thorough, and achievement oriented. Finally, openness is characterized by being curious, imaginative, artistic, broad-minded, and playful.

Recent literature has demonstrated the usefulness of the five factor model in predicting organizational performance and success (Costa, 1996). It has been documented

that personality traits, as defined by the five factors, affect job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). Past research also investigated the differential prediction of each of the five dimensions of personality on job performance. Most studies have found the significant correlations between conscientiousness and job performance (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett et al., 1991). Piedmont and Weinstein (1994) found that conscientiousness significantly correlated with all aspects of supervisor ratings including interpersonal relations, task orientation, and adaptive capacity. Costa (1992) found the strongest correlations of job performance with conscientiousness including the amount, quality, and accuracy of work as well as judgements of competence. Moreover, as Hogan and Ones (1997) point out, empirical studies indicate that conscientious employees are good organizational citizens, while delinquent employees are not as productive and thus erode the economic health of an organization. Barrick and Mount (1991) as well as Hertz and Donovan (2000) found conscientiousness to have the highest validity of the Big Five for overall job performance.

Conscientiousness facets include competence (efficiency, self-confidence, thoroughness), order (organized, methodical, precise), dutifulness (not distractible, not careless, not defensive), achievement striving (ambitious, industrious, enterprising), self-discipline (organized, energetic, not absent-minded), and deliberation (patient, restrained, deliberate) (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Piedmont and Weinstein (1994) found that all individual facets of conscientiousness predict aspects of job performance.

A recent meta-analysis investigating the predictive validity of the Big Five helps to clarify the underlying value of using personality as a predictor of job performance. Hertz and Donovan (2000) obtained similar findings as the above-noted meta-analyses, with validities often significant but usually low to moderate in magnitude. They concluded that,

generally speaking, the Big Five add little practical utility when using the broad dimensions for predicting job performance across different domains. Their suggestion is not abandonment of personality as a predictor but instead increased attention to the narrower facets within each dimension to better tap the predictive utility of personality. Stewart's (1999) results foreshadowed Hurtz and Donovan's (2000) suggestion, finding that specific facets provide more information than the global dimensions when matched with the fitting performance stage. Similarly, Ashton (1998) found that narrower measures of personality correlated better with workplace delinquency (defined as low work performance) than the broad dimensions of personality. It should be noted that, as Hurtz and Donovan (2000) point out and Stewart's (1999) and Ashton's (1998) findings suggest, it is only with the appropriate alignment of facets and performance domains, specifically through theory, that personality's utility is fully recognized.

Cognitive Ability

Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) model, as well as other research, points to general cognitive ability (*g*) as another predictor of job knowledge, in addition to personality. However, the model shows *g* as a predictor for task performance through task knowledge, in contrast to personality as a predictor of contextual performance. This follows decades of research that has shown that *g* is a stable and enduring trait, and has provided evidence of general validity of cognitive ability tests for selection across different people and different jobs (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Hunter & Schmidt, 1983). Empirical investigations with large samples, including several large-scale military studies, have confirmed the overall predictive validity of cognitive ability tests (Wagner, 1997). Specifically, the corrected validity coefficient (when taking into account measurement error and restriction of range) between intelligence test scores and job performance was found in a meta-analysis to be about .50 (Hunter &

Hunter, 1984). However, it should be noted that this estimate may be inflated due to overestimation of unique contribution to job performance prediction (Wagner, 1994).

Often included in definitions of general cognitive ability are several basic cognitive processes including perception, learning, encoding, memory, and reasoning (Glynn, 1996). The use of these processes over time results in an accumulation of knowledge and expertise, which in turn is called upon to solve problems. The more a person solves problems, the more opportunities for manipulation of the knowledge, thus gaining flexibility of concept and ideas. Organizations often adapt this logic to personnel selection. Practitioners reason that the higher the score on a cognitive test, the better a person is able to use these basic cognitive processes. Thus, the better someone is at using the basic cognitive functions, the more adeptly the person amasses knowledge. The more knowledge a person has, the greater the possibility that knowledge will help them to solve problems and acquire new skills in a specific job setting. It is assumed that the test scores accurately reflect the degree to which a person has integrated these cognitive abilities into their daily functioning.

The empirical research supports these suppositions. Gottfredson (1986) found that intelligence was an important predictor of job performance in complex jobs within organizations. A longitudinal survey by O'Reilly and Chatman (1994) found that intelligence and perseverance together accounted for the majority of variance of both job performance and career success in 105 MBA graduates. Similarly, Kolz, McFarland, and Silverman (1998) found that cognitive ability significantly predicted job performance, and also the rate of job knowledge acquisition. Sternberg and Salter (1988) demonstrated that people who score higher on intelligence tests better meet task challenges and solve problems that are associated with daily work interactions. Ree, Carretta, and Teachout (1995) provided evidence that cognitive ability directly affects the acquisition of job knowledge, and

ultimately affects work performance. Finally, a meta-analysis conducted to investigate alternatives to cognitive ability tests for personnel selection found that at the time of the study there was no alternative test with validity equal to that of cognitive ability (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). G is now often considered the single most powerful and valid predictor of job performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1981; Hunter, 1986).

Despite these consistent findings, the use of general mental ability measures for job selection is controversial because of the differential hiring that result from their use. Mean differences of approximately one standard deviation in selection measure scores are frequently observed in comparisons of African-American and White populations (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Jensen, 1980). This does not allow organizations to build demographic diversity. Using only measures of cognitive ability results in adverse impact, and is therefore not a sound choice on which to solely base selection decisions.

Instead, many selection programs utilize a battery of tests consisting of several individual, unidimensional measures each testing a specific area (i.e., a cognitive ability measure, a measure of personality, etc.). This ideally allows two goals of selection to be met: maximizing the expected performance of employees (through using a combination of measures including cognitive ability), while concurrently developing a demographically diverse workforce (by using predictors such as personality that do not have high adverse impact) (Schmitt, Rogers, Chan, Sheppard, & Jennings, 1997).

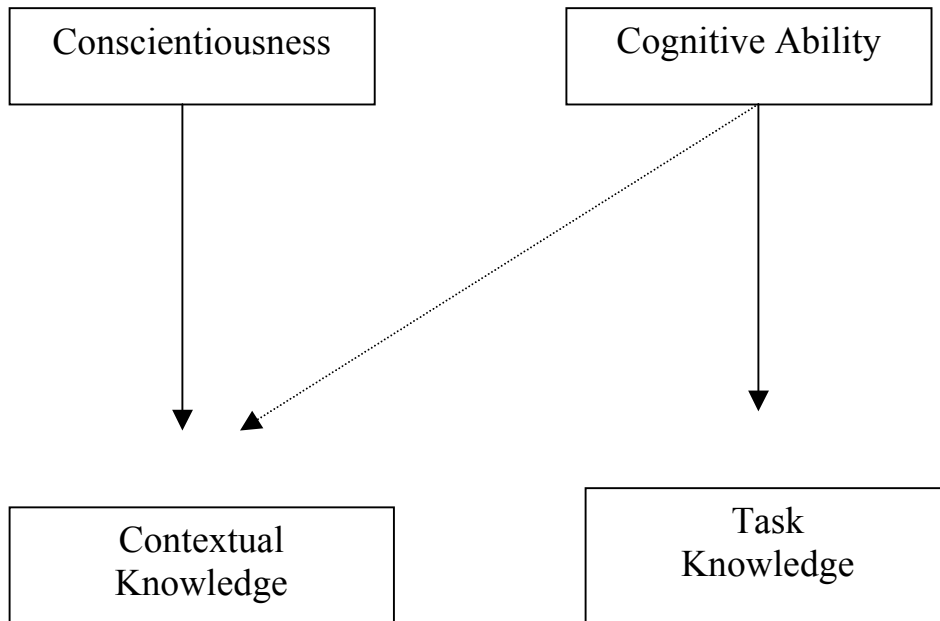
Present Study

SJTs are still in the infant stage. There are no empirically established frameworks to help organize and define the constructs underlying situational judgment tests, nor is there understanding of what SJTs are measuring. In an effort to boost the value of SJTs for researchers and practitioners, the present researcher investigated the constructs underlying

these tests using part of the model put forth by Motowidlo et al. (1997). The present research used the model to test the first step of the mediating effects of job knowledge on job performance (see Figure 2). It is presently suggested that situational judgment is a multidimensional evaluation methodology that assesses task and/or contextual job knowledge, and in any given situational judgment test, there may be items that better tap contextual knowledge while other items may better tap task knowledge. This may explain many of the observed inconsistencies in the SJT literature. Thus, following from the past research in job performance and Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) model, those situational judgment

Figure 2

The Model Tested in Present Study, Adapted From Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit's (1997) Model.



items that tap contextual knowledge will be predicted by certain personal characteristics (i.e., five factors of personality) while those situational judgment items that are measuring task knowledge will be predicted by separate personal characteristics (i.e., cognitive ability).

Specifically:

Hypothesis 1: Personality will better predict situational judgment items that tap contextual knowledge than cognitive ability.

Hypothesis 2: Cognitive ability will better predict situational judgment items that tap task knowledge than personality.

Methods

Participants

The first stage of research used a sample of undergraduate students ($n=26$) to determine the contextual and task performance items of the situational judgment test as well as the reliability of the measure.

The second stage of research used a sample of undergraduate students ($n=205$) who received extra credit in psychology classes for participating in this research. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 43, with a mean age of 19.5. The distribution of the year in school was relatively even (37.6% were freshman, 25.1% were sophomores, 19.6% were juniors, 17.3% were seniors). Of the people who reported their race, 65% of the participants were female, 5% were black, 8% were Asian, 81% were white, 2.5% were Hispanic. The number of respondents ($n>150$) provide sufficient power (.80, $p<.05$, $ES=.30$) to have confidence in the results (Cohen, 1992).

Measurement

The NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1985, 1989, 1992) was used to measure personality. This measure has been included in numerous studies that provide evidence of stability, test-retest reliability, as well as cross-observer validity (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Norman & Goldberg, 1996). In addition, the five factors show convergent validity across different personality measures and observers (Costa & McCrae, 1992). All sixty items of the short form were combined with forty-eight items from the long form. This allowed appropriate tapping of all five dimensions, along with all six conscientiousness dimensions. The internal consistency for the scales in the present study is shown in Table 2.

Cognitive ability was measured using the Wonderlic Personnel Test (1992). The Wonderlic is a timed (12-minute) test consisting of fifty questions. This measure has also

been well used, providing evidence of convergent validity across different measures, stability, and test-retest reliability. Validity coefficients for training have ranged from .71 to .51 across job titles, and .61 to .45 for performance across job titles (Hunter & Hunter, 1984 a, b; Pearlman, Schmidt, & Hunter, 1980; Nothrup, 1986).

The situational judgment test was developed specifically for this study (see Appendix A). There are a total of twelve task performance items and twelve contextual performance items. All items targeted student academic experiences to ensure appropriate match between subjects and performance domains. The material used to create the situational judgment test was extracted from readings and class experience from the University of Texas at Austin's Learning center. The class material was developed for the purpose of enhancing the academic success of students by educators and professionals (University of Texas at Austin, 2000). From this material, task and contextual performance activities of students were identified and matched against Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) performance definitions and examples (see Table 1). Each situation has four alternatives to choose from. One judgment needs to be made for each situation, asking the respondents which alternative would they choose.

In order to confirm that contextual knowledge is being tapped, two additional measures were included. First, a separate fifteen-item measure of contextual performance will be included (see Appendix B). This measure was adapted from Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994 for college students. Second, an aggression measure was used, the IAT Reasoning Test (James, 2001) was included. This measure was included for exploratory purposes to further understand the nomological network due to the similarity between conditional reasoning and some SJTs.

Table 1

Situational judgment items and corresponding knowledge dimension

Items	Dimension
Item 1	Task
Item 2	Task
Item 3	Contextual
Item 4	Task
Item 5	Contextual
Item 6	Contextual
Item 7	Task
Item 8	Task
Item 9	Contextual
Item 10	Task
Item 11	Contextual
Item 12	Task
Item 13	Contextual
Item 14	Task
Item 15	Contextual
Item 16	Task
Item 17	Task
Item 18	Contextual
Item 19	Contextual
Item 20	Task
Item 21	Contextual
Item 22	Task
Item 23	Contextual
Item 24	Contextual

Procedure

This research was broken down into two stages. In the first stage, undergraduates took the situational judgment test to assess the test-retest reliability of the measure ($r=.65$, $p<.01$). This was done because SJTs by definition are multidimensional and therefore internal consistency is not an appropriate measure of reliability. The correlations between Time 1 and Time 2 for each item were examined, and the twelve items (for each task and contextual knowledge) with highest correlations were kept for the final situational judgment test that was administered in the second stage of the study.

The second stage consisted of administering questionnaires to participants. The questionnaires contained (in order) the conditional reasoning measure, the cognitive ability measure, the situational judgment test, the personality measure, and the contextual performance measure. All questionnaires were administered in the same order because the conditional reasoning and the cognitive ability tests are timed. Administration was done in one session.

Results

A matrix of the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among variables is provided in Table 2. Task performance situational judgment items were moderately, but significantly, correlated with both the contextual performance situational judgment items ($r=.32$, $p<.01$) and the contextual performance measure ($r=.36$, $p<.01$). Additionally, cognitive ability was not significantly correlated with either task ($r= -.06$, ns) or contextual ($r=.05$, ns) performance SJT items. Similarly, experience, as defined by years in school, was not significantly related to task performance ($r=-.04$, ns). Conversely, the contextual performance items on the SJT were also significantly correlated with the separate contextual performance measure ($r=.27$, $p<.01$).

Hypothesis 1, which proposed that personality would predict contextual knowledge items on the SJT above and beyond cognitive ability, was examined by regressing contextual knowledge on g and personality. This was done using a two-step hierarchical regression model, with g entered first, followed by the five personality factors. The results are summarized in Table 3. The first model containing only cognitive ability was not significant ($F=.56$, ns), while the second model containing g and personality was significant ($F=3.09$, $p<.01$). When looking at the individual personality factors, the results showed that agreeableness and conscientiousness were significant predictors ($t= 2.05$, $t= 2.19$ $p<.01$). The results showed incremental validity for personality, with a significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2=.10$, $\Delta F=4.56$, $p<.01$), thereby lending support for Hypothesis 1.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations, and Internal Consistency Reliability Estimates

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender	1.65	.48	(---)													
2. Race	2.16	.67	-.16*	(---)												
3. Age	19.48	2.10	-.06	.05	(---)											
4. Experience	2.18	1.14	.03	.01	.59**	(---)										
5. Cognitive Ability	24.25	4.46	.05	-.05	.07	.14*	(---)									
6. Neuroticism	35.00	5.67	.09	.10	-.11	-.13	-.12	(.84)								
7. Extraversion	42.32	4.73	.28**	-.13	-.02	-.01	-.07	-.29**	(.72)							
8. Openness	35.05	4.57	.10	.01	.14**	.12	.14**	-.09	.00	(.71)						
9. Agreeableness	39.25	6.13	.24**	-.10	.07	.08	.08	-.30**	.27**	.13	(.75)					
10. Conscientiousness	184.31	80.70	.09	-.17**	.08	.09	.10	-.34**	.28**	.01	.29**	(.88)				
11. Competence	25.22	3.23	.07	-.12	.08	.08	.20**	-.42**	.36**	.06	.29**	.75**	(.59)			
12. Order	27.89	15.87	.03	-.05	.06	.07	-.02	-.05	.17*	-.03	.12	.65**	.35**	(.76)		
13. Dutifulness	28.56	3.38	.02	-.07	.13	.09	.06	-.23**	.25**	-.03	.33**	.74**	.55**	.39**	(.57)	
14. Deliberation	25.66	4.00	.10	-.21**	.08	.15*	.02	-.21**	.08	.01	.29**	.71**	.44**	.36**	.45**	(.73)

(table continues) Note: ** p<.01, *p<.05

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15.Achievement-Striving	27.24	2.68	.08	-.17*	.01	-.01	.10	-.26**	.30**	.04	.12	.76**	.57**	.35**	.50**	.41**
17. Aggression	3.80	2.12	-.11	.14*	.06	.02	-.05	.04	.00	.06	.10	-.06	-.07	-.05	-.05	-.03**
18. SJT Task	4.35	2.41	.00	.05	.08	-.04	-.06	-.19**	.14*	.09	.12	.34**	.23**	.14*	.30**	.17*
19. SJT Contextual	3.53	1.58	.18**	-.04	.02	.00	.05	-.16**	.19**	.09	.24**	.25**	.14*	.05	.22**	.20**
20. Contextual Performance	59.79	8.36	.23**	-.05	.12	.11	.06	-.26**	.37**	.21**	.35**	.58**	.52**	.30**	.51**	.33**

(table continues)

	15	16	17	18	19	20
15.Achievement-Striving	(.77)					
16. Self Discipline	.56**	(.57)				
17. Aggression	-.04	-.08	(.38)			
18. SJT Task	.38**	.38**	.02	(---)		
19. SJT Contextual	.23**	.24**	.09	.36**	(---)	
20. Contextual Performance	.56**	.46**	-.12	.32**	.27**	(.89)

Note: ** p<.01, *p<.05

Table 3

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Contextual Knowledge (N = 234)

Variable	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	β
Step 1			
Cognitive Ability	.02	.03	.05
Step 2			
Cognitive Ability	.01	.03	.02
Neuroticism	.00	.02	-.02
Extraversion	.03	.02	.10
Openness	.02	.02	.07
Agreeableness	.04	.02	.15 *
Conscientiousness	.02	.00	.16 *

Note: $R^2 = .00$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .10$ for Step 2 ($p < .01$), * $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 2 suggests that cognitive ability will predict the task performance items on the SJT above and beyond personality. To examine this, task performance was hierarchically regressed on personality and cognitive ability, with personality entered in step one and *g* entered in the second step. As shown in Table 4, the change in *r* was non-significant, and moreover, cognitive ability did not contribute to the significance of the model ($t=-1.07$, ns). Thus, the second hypothesis was not supported.

To further examine the situational judgment measure used, the task and contextual performance items on the situational judgment measure were examined to determine the dimensionality of the measure. The results of two confirmatory factor analyses are presented in Table 5. The fit indices indicate that both models have satisfactorily fit the data. However, the oblique model, which allows the two factors (task and contextual) to covary, fits the data better than the orthogonal model, which assumes that the two factors are completely independent.

Finally, to explore the influence of the narrow-band facets of conscientiousness above and beyond the contribution of the broad-band personality factors, two final hierarchical regression models were tested. The first model entered agreeableness, neuroticism, extraversion, and openness in step one, and the conscientiousness factor in step two. The results are displayed in Table 6. This model explained ten percent of the variance of the contextual performance items in the SJT. This can be compared to the second model run, which entered agreeableness, neuroticism, extraversion, and openness in step one, and the six conscientiousness facets in step two (see Table 7). This model explained a total of fourteen percent of the variance.

Table 4

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Task Knowledge(N = 234)

Variable	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	β
Step 1			
Neuroticism	-.02	.02	-.07
Extraversion	.13	.03	.03
Openness	.32	.03	.08
Agreeableness	.00	.03	.00
Conscientiousness	.04	.01	.31 *
Step 2			
Neuroticism	-.03	.02	-.29
Extraversion	.01	.03	.08
Openness	.04	.03	.03
Agreeableness	.00	.03	-.02
Conscientiousness	.05	.01	.23 *
Cognitive Ability	-.06	.04	-.14

Note: $R^2 = .13$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .01$ for Step 2 (ns), * $p < .01$.

Table 5

Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Situational Judgment Test.

Fit Index	Orthogonal CFA	Oblique CFA
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	.9055	.9179
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	.8875	.9019
RMSEA Estimate	.0356	.0213
Bentler and Bonnett's NFI	.2122	.3343
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0696	.0565
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.4542	.8054

Table 6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Five Factors Predicting Contextual Knowledge SJT Items (N = 233)

Variable	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	β
Step 1			
Neuroticism	-.01	.02	-.07
Extraversion	.03	.02	.11
Openness	.02	.02	.06
Agreeableness	.04	.02	.16 *
Step 2			
Neuroticism	.00	.02	-.03
Extraversion	.02	.02	.08
Openness	.02	.02	.07
Agreeableness	.04	.06	.13 *
Conscientiousness	.02	.00	.18 *

Note: $R^2 = .07$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .03$ for Step 2 ($p < .05$), * $p < .01$.

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality Factors and FacetsPredicting Contextual Knowledge SJT Items (N = 233)

Variable	<u>B</u>	<u>SE B</u>	β
Step 1			
Neuroticism	-.01	.02	-.07
Extraversion	.03	.02	.11
Openness	.02	.02	.06
Agreeableness	.04	.02	.16 *
Step 2			
Neuroticism	-.01	.02	-.02
Extraversion	.04	.02	.11
Openness	.02	.02	.08
Agreeableness	.04	.02	.13 *
Competence	-.07	.05	-.15 *
Order	-.04	.03	-.10
Dutifulness	.04	.04	.10
Deliberation	.05	.03	.14 *
Achievement- Striving	.06	.03	.14 *
Self Discipline	.04	.04	.09

Note: $R^2 = .07$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .07$ for Step 2 ($p < .05$), * $p < .01$.

Discussion

The primary objective of this study was to reveal a dimensionality of situational judgment tests using Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) theoretical framework of task and contextual performance. By doing so, the construct validity of these tests may be better understood, and the mixed findings from past studies may be interpreted. It was suggested herein that situational judgment is a multidimensional evaluation methodology that assesses task and/or contextual job knowledge, and in any given situational judgment test, there may be items that better tap contextual knowledge while other items may better tap task knowledge. Following from the past research in job performance and Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) model, it was hypothesized that those situational judgment items that tap contextual knowledge would be predicted by different characteristics than those situational judgment items that measure task knowledge.

Hypothesis 1 suggested that personality, as defined by the five factors of personality, would better predict situational judgment items that tap contextual knowledge than cognitive ability. Results indicated that indeed, personality is a strong predictor of contextual SJT items. These results can be interpreted with some degree of confidence since two additional measures were included to assess construct validity of contextual performance. First, a separate contextual performance measure was used as a convergent validity measure, which showed substantial correlation with the contextual SJT items. Secondly, an aggression measure was used as a discriminant validity measure, which showed essentially no correlation with the contextual SJT items.

Despite the fact that four of the five personality factors were correlated with contextual performance (openness to experience was not significantly correlated), only two were significant predictors of the contextual items when regressed on contextual SJT

items: agreeableness and conscientiousness. Previous studies have not often found agreeableness to be a predictor of situational judgment performance. However, the contextual performance literature shows support for agreeableness predicting contextual performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Therefore, it could be the case that the present SJT tapped different facets of contextual knowledge than previous SJTs have focused on.

An alternative explanation could be that the relationship between personality and contextual knowledge is moderated by job type. The present study's SJT was specifically designed for a student population, which is unlike the majority of previous SJTs that have targeted specific organizational populations. It could be that across different job types, certain personality characteristics are more salient predictors of contextual knowledge. This is also supported in the Big Five literature, where Tett et al. (1991) found that job type did moderate personality factors and job performance.

A third possibility may be that the relationship between personality and contextual knowledge is moderated by job level. In jobs, such as being a student, that are relatively basic, different personality factors may be more valued (such as agreeableness). These stand in contrast to more complex jobs where other factors, such as neuroticism, may be more valued. Certainly, this is direction for future research to consider.

While the agreeableness factor is a unique finding, both Smith (1996) and Mullins and Schmitt (1998) found strong correlations with conscientiousness. This is consistent with the literature on task and contextual performance as well, with the prediction of conscientiousness to contextual performance well documented (e.g., Hattrup, O'Connell, & Wingate, 1998; Hogan et al., 1998a). It should be noted that despite the fact that organizational citizenship behavior has a dimension labeled conscientiousness, contextual

performance is a distinct construct from OCBs (see above for an in-depth comparison of organizational citizenship behavior and contextual performance). Thus, these findings have distinct value, both in uncovering the dimensionality of SJTs and in identifying the predictors of SJT performance success.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that cognitive ability would better predict situational judgment items that tap task knowledge than personality. Contrary to what was expected based on Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) model, cognitive ability was not found to predict the task situational judgment items. Moderate correlations between task knowledge items and the contextual SJT items as well as the contextual performance measure indicate that task knowledge may not have been captured by the SJT items. Moreover, the pattern of correlations with personality factors of the task items is strikingly similar to the pattern found with contextual items. Finally, the factor analyses performed on the situational judgment test showed that when task and contextual performance were allowed to covary, the model fit the data better. Therefore, it may be the case that instead of tapping both contextual and task knowledge in the present study, only contextual knowledge was effectively measured.

One explanation for these results is that the scope of task performance for a student is very limited. Students have very few requirements for performing, and essentially the only task requirements are getting grades and those activities directly related to grade-getting (i.e., class requirements set forth by the professor). Everything outside that realm is contextual performance. Therefore, tapping task performance with enough items to have confidence in the results becomes challenging (because of redundancy). Certainly, this points to the above-mentioned potential of job complexity as a moderator and warrants future investigation of this possibility.

Implications

One implication of the present study is despite the probability that task performance was not captured, these results still lend insight as to the dimensionality of situational judgment tests, as well as why past studies of SJTs have found contradictory results regarding the constructs that were tapped in the measure. Following from the present study that did not tap task knowledge, it is possible that those past SJTs that did not show cognitive ability or experience to be a predictor of SJT performance did not tap task knowledge in the SJT. Similarly, those SJTs that tapped contextual knowledge would find personality as an important predictor of SJT performance, while those that did not tap contextual knowledge would not. Thus, it is a worthwhile endeavor to continue the investigation of the task-contextual knowledge distinction in SJTs.

A second implication of the present study concerns broad-band personality factors. Previous researchers (e.g., Hurtz & Donovan, 2000) have suggested that narrow-band personality facets may be one avenue to better delineate performance dimensions. Indeed, the results showed that when the addition of the facets is compared to the addition of conscientiousness in the second step of the regression models, they accounted for more variance in contextual knowledge. However, not all of the facets were significant: competence, deliberation and achievement-striving were significant of the six conscientiousness facets. Competence refers to capability, sensibility, and effectiveness; deliberation refers to thinking things through before acting; and achievement-striving refers to the level of aspiration and how hard someone works towards their goals (Costa & McCrae, 1991). Thus, it seems that these may be important to the job of a student, perhaps because they focus on capability and motivation. This is in contrast to some of the other facets that focus on neatness or ethics that may not be as important for

excellence as a student. It could be that for jobs that lack complexity, motivation and capability are more important. Regardless, despite the encouraging first stages of incorporating narrower personality facets into research models, theoretical frameworks need to be developed to better understand why some facets may be more important in certain circumstances.

A third implication deals with the validity of situational judgment tests as selection measures. If future research confirms the dimensionality that has been suggested in the present study, then the use of situational judgment tests will need to become more tailored. Specifically, users of SJTs will need to better identify what constructs they are interested in obtaining information about, now that information about what constructs SJTs are tapping is better understood. As Chan and Schmitt (1997) point out, alternative selection measures often are utilized to lower adverse impact without particular regard to the constructs that they are tapping. The present study points to the possibility that these constructs can be identified with better precision than previously known, using the task-contextual knowledge dimensional structure, and thus allows for a better specified nomological network from the outset in future research.

Future Research Directions

One explanation for the results is that the SJT did not adequately tap task knowledge. Despite efforts to tap both contextual and task knowledge, the exploratory factor analysis reveals that only one factor is present. Taken together with previous task-contextual performance research that has shown contextual performance correlating with personality and not correlating with g or experience, it may be presumed that all the items herein are tapping contextual knowledge. This points out the importance of ensuring the measures created are valid, and that the items constructed are more distinct

from each other. Two directions are therefore needed in future research. First, better definitions of task and contextual performance are needed across job domains. Guidelines that are more specific than what Borman and Motowidlo asserted need to be created to ensure conceptually distinct performance and knowledge domains. Second, task performance measures that are unique to task performance (i.e., measures that do not incorporate contextual performance such as supervisors' ratings) need to be developed. Once developed, construct validation of task performance items in SJTs will be easier to accomplish.

Additionally, this study did not try to differentiate between facets of contextual performance. Two facets of contextual performance have been identified (job dedication and interpersonal facilitation), with research showing that job type may moderate the relationship between personality and contextual performance facets. For example, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) showed that only interpersonal facilitation was predicted by personality for mechanics, yet Conway (1999) found that personality predicted both facets for managerial jobs. Thus, different facets of contextual performance could be important for different jobs. If SJT items can be written to tap both of these facets, it is possible that more variance may be accounted for.

Moreover, the unique finding within the SJT literature of agreeableness predicting performance may be able to be better understood when all facets of contextual performance are identified and tapped. As stated earlier, agreeableness' prediction of SJT performance may have been significant in this study because the present study's SJT may have tapped different facets of contextual performance than previous SJTs. With all facets included, differential prediction within the personality factors may be better understood. Thus, it is worthwhile for future research to include facet-specific items in

situational judgment tests to test the usefulness of including more specific aspects of contextual performance.

A final research avenue concerns the expansion of the nomological network. Two examples of clarifications arising directly from the current study include the role of conditional reasoning in the nomological net, and potential demographic (i.e., gender) effects on SJT performance. In the present study, a conditional reasoning measure was included in the study to better understand its relationship with situational judgment. However, it was found to have no meaningful relationships with other constructs, likely due in part to the fact that psychometrically the conditional reasoning items did not hold together. Nonetheless, continued exploration of the nomological network is needed. Indeed, establishing a stronger basis for situational judgment tests, both theoretically by expanding the nomological network and practically by tying them more directly to job analysis, can only lead to heightened understanding of the most constructive ways to utilize SJTs.

Race and gender effects should also be examined to expand the nomological network. While the present study did not have a large enough sample to test for race effects, there were significant differences between men and women on the SJT. Specifically, women scored significantly higher on the contextual knowledge items. There has been little research on gender effects on contextual performance or situational judgment, but certainly future research should explore the reasons for the difference between the genders. This includes investigating the relationship between gender, personality, and contextual knowledge. Research on personality has shown that women typically score higher on agreeableness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Due to the relationship between contextual knowledge and agreeableness in the present study, one explanation of

the gender effect is that personality may act as a moderator between the relationship of gender and contextual knowledge.

It is worth noting that it is unlikely that a single nomological network accurately describes all SJTs. While the task-contextual knowledge distinction may explain some of the variance of SJT performance, variance is still left unaccounted for. Alternative theoretical frameworks are therefore still needed to understand the complex dimensionality of situational judgment.

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Appendix A

SITUATIONAL JUDGMENT:

This section contains descriptions of 25 problem situations.

Each problem situation has four to five alternative actions that might be taken to deal with the problem. You are to make a judgment for each problem: decide which alternative you would most likely choose in response to the problem. This should be the alternative that comes the closest to what you would actually do in the situation. Record your answers on the answer sheet by blackening the appropriate letter in the column with the corresponding number.

As you are taking the test, please do not write in the test booklet. All of your responses should be recorded on the separate opscan sheet. Be sure to fill in the ovals you select completely with dark black marks.

Here is an example:

You are shopping when you notice a man robbing the store. What do you do?

- a. Leave the store as quickly as possible and call the police.
- b. Try to apprehend the robber yourself.
- c. Follow the man and call the police as soon as he appears settled somewhere.
- d. Nothing, as you do not wish to get involved in this matter.

S1. What would you do?



In the example above, the respondent thought that alternative A was the action that she would most likely take in the situation and thus, blackened the A (or 1) for item S1.

Fill in only one response for each statement.
Respond to all statements, making sure that you fill in the correct response.

An exam is approaching in one of your classes. The class has been difficult but interesting for you so far. In studying for your exam, you:

- a. carry books with you to various places and try to study in-between other obligations
- b. find that often times there are too many interruptions to study consistently before an exam
- c. want to start studying early but find that other things end up getting done instead
- d. schedule blocks of time to study in one location a week or two before the exam

1. What would you do?

When studying for an exam, do you find that you reach best results when:

- a. you start planning and setting aside time in advance
- b. work in a clean environment, even if it means taking time away from studying
- c. wait for inspirations before becoming involved in most important study tasks
- d. wait until the last day or so to study, knowing that you HAVE to get it done now

2. What would you do?

Your professor announces in class that undergraduate students are needed to help run subjects for his upcoming study. While you would not receive any formal sort of extra credit, the professor would appreciate any volunteers. Given the following choices, which option would you choose?

- a. Examine your schedule and offer to volunteer a couple hours a week when it is personally convenient.
- b. Examine your schedule and offer to volunteer as many hours as you can.
- c. Realize that you would have to give up some of your free time and choose not to volunteer.
- d. Offer to run subjects only if you are paid.

3. What would you do?

When studying for an exam that will cover both lecture notes and the assigned readings from a textbook, do you find that you reach best results when:

- a. break studying into sections and test yourself as you go through the material
- b. review all the material then test yourself
- c. review your lecture notes and then review your notes taken from the textbook
- d. read the chapters throughout the semester but focus on the lecture notes for the exams

4. What would you do?

You are a member of a team that has completed a class project. The professor hands back the grade and feedback on the project. In professor's comments was a pointed attack on the group for plagiarizing and half a letter grade was deducted from the project's final grade. You know that the student honor code requires you to report whomever has plagiarized. However, the plagiarizing was not related to the portion of the project that you were personally responsible for. What do you do?

- a. Discuss the situation with the group and come up with a decision what to do, or not to do, together.
- b. Tell the person responsible for the error that he should contact the team leader.
- c. Tell the professor who was responsible for the plagiarism.
- d. Accept the grade, learning from the experience and vowing never to let it happen again.

5. What would you do?

You have so many assignments to complete and so much studying to accomplish, you feel you will never get caught up or accomplish anything. You are truly overwhelmed. What do you do?

- a. Prioritize your activities, enumerate the steps to be accomplished for each activity, and systematically go through your work.
- b. Decide what you can accomplish reasonably and focus on getting that work done, and let the rest of the work go unfinished.
- c. Talk to your professors, explaining your situation, and ask for extensions on the due dates.
- d. Take a break for a day and go out with your friends, then go back to working hard again.

6. What would you do?

When studying for an exam that will cover both the readings you have been assigned as well as lecture notes, do you:

- a. read the text book at least once and read through the lecture notes
- b. attend class and read the book, then the night before the exam spend time reviewing the material
- c. take notes during lecture and from the text book and review just the notes before the exam
- d. integrate the notes you have taken in class and from the text book into a study guide to study from

7. What would you do?

When taking a multiple-choice exam, do you:

- a. start working on the easy questions first then come back to the more difficult questions
- b. start working on the first question and continue working on the questions in order
- c. randomly work on questions until all are answered
- d. start working on the most difficult questions first, then come back and fill in the answers to the easy ones

8. What would you do?

You are working on a class project, and realize that the project requires more time than you have budgeted for. You have requested and your professor has refused an extension on the project. Recognizing that this class project determines a large portion of your grade, what would you do?

- a. Determine alternative methods of doing the project that require less time, even though it means sacrificing some of the quality of the project.
- b. Seek input from others who have experienced similar problems on how to best handle matters.
- c. Discuss with your professor the importance of and progress made on the project, exactly why you need more time, and how the lack of time will impact your work. Try to persuade the professor to give you what you need.
- d. Put in the additional hours needed so the project is completed, even if it means sacrificing sleep or free time.

9. What would you do?

When taking an essay exam, do you:

- a. write a rough draft and then a final draft for each essay
- b. create a written outline for each essay before writing it out
- c. write out thesis first, then start writing the rest of the essay
- d. start writing an essay knowing that you can go back and reorganize it if needed

10. What would you do?

You are a student in a class. Another student comes to you and asks to borrow your class notes as he was not able to come to class. You give the notes to him. Later that month, the same thing happens, and again you give your notes to the student. This situation continues and you finally get upset since your classmate should be doing his own work and coming to class, not relying on you taking notes for him. How do you proceed?

- a. Explain to the student that you do not understand what the problem is with coming to class, but you have helped as much as you can.
- b. Continue to lend your class notes to him.
- c. Inform the student that you will give him your notes one more time, but warn him that it will be the last time.
- d. Sit down with the student and find out why he is not coming to class so that you can figure out the best way to deal with the situation from here on.

11. What would you do?

When you receive your exam back, do you:

- a. look at the grade you received then put the test away
- b. look through the exam briefly to see which questions you answered incorrectly
- c. look through the exam and examine why you answered the question incorrectly
- d. do not look at the exam at all

12. What would you do?

You are working with a very good student who has recently experienced some personal difficulties on a group project. He has confided these problems only to you. You have experienced an increased workload because of his problems. You have talked to him about your concerns, and empathetically requested that he resume full duties as soon as possible. A month passes and you are still doing too much of his work. Realizing that his work is taking up most of your free time, what would you do?

- a. Inform your teammate that you understand his problems, but are no longer able to perform his work for him.
- b. Ask your teammate if he would rather you look for another partner.
- c. Continue to inform your teammate of your concerns until he resumes his full duties.
- d. Talk to your professor about the situation.

13. What would you do?

You are given an assignment that is due the same day as a really difficult exam in another class. Do you:

- a. consult with the professor that gave the assignment and ask for an extension
- b. accept the penalty and turn in the assignment late
- c. complete the assignment the night before, sacrificing some of the quality but nonetheless getting it in on time
- d. complete the assignment ahead of time so that you can spend the time the night before study for your exam

14. What would you do?

You are having problems in one of your classes. The second exam is quickly approaching, and you want to do well on it, especially considering the poor grade you received on the first exam. You have worked hard so far in college to maintain a good GPA and don't want to sacrifice it. What do you do?

- a. Continue to study and not give up even when you encounter difficult concepts.
- b. Make an appointment and consult the professor for advice on studying and how to approach the material.
- c. Set aside more time to study than you did studying for the previous exam.
- d. Accept that you cannot always get great grades and focus your time and energy on other classes that you are doing well in.

15. What would you do?

On the first day of class, your professor indicates that the class will meet three times a week. The format of the class will consist of a lecture for the first half followed by a discussion/answering questions on the topics. For each lecture there is also a corresponding chapter assigned in your textbook. Do you:

- a. attend lecture and then before the exams read the chapters assigned from the text book
- b. read the assigned chapter before each class
- c. read the assigned chapter after each lecture
- d. don't bother reading the text book at all

16. What would you do?

You are taking five classes this semester, which is a normal courseload for you. All classes have some exams, homework assignments, and an essay or two. Throughout the semester, do you:

- a. wait until the day before something is due and then work on it until completion
- b. spend some time studying everyday so the work doesn't build up
- c. a couple days before an assignment is due then begin to work on it a bit each day
- d. don't worry about it and take things one day at a time

17. What would you do?

You are working on a project that involves doing some research and a lot of reading with another student. You take a break and come back to find that your desk is filled with more research articles. The student you are working with re-arranged everything on your desk and now you can't tell what you have already read and what you still need to read. You are angry. What would you do?

- a. Take a few minutes to cool down and then ask the student to tell you how she rearranged your desk.
- b. Realize it is your fault for leaving the files unattended on your desk.
- c. Inform the student that you are angry for what she has done and tell her that in the future you do not want her to touch your desk.
- d. Assume that the student had no bad intentions, and try to re-sort the piles.
- e. Ask the student if she knew where you had left off since the papers are all shifted now.

18. What would you do?

Your roommate is having problems studying for an exam in a class that happens to be your major. You have finished your assignments for the night and were planning on going out to dinner with a couple of friends. However, you recognize that your roommate has helped you previously on some of your assignments. Your roommate asks you for help in studying for exam. What do you do?

- a. Explain that you already made plans, but that when you get home from dinner you can review some material with her.
- b. Call your friends and cancel dinner, staying home to help your roommate and have dinner with her instead.
- c. Delay your dinner plans for an hour, spending the time helping your roommate, then go out to dinner.
- d. Explain that you would have liked to help her, but you already have plans that cannot be broken.

19. What would you do?

You are assigned a final paper due at the end of the semester. Your professor gives you a suggested timeline to follow throughout the semester, with periodic submissions of different sections of the paper for review by the professor. However, the final draft is the only part of the project you will be graded on. Do you:

- a. wait until the end of the semester to write the paper
- b. stick to the professor's suggested timeline
- c. work on the paper periodically throughout the semester, but do not necessarily follow the professor's timeline
- d. write the paper in the first month of classes to get it out of the way

20. What would you do?

You are assigned to write a research report for a project that was conducted in class. You don't know how to prepare parts of the report. As the first step in figuring out how to prepare the report, what do you do?

- a. Ask your professor.
- b. Just write out it out to the best of your ability.
- c. Review relevant documentation and previous example reports to determine how to write yours.
- d. Find out if students that have had this class before had to write a report and ask them what to do.

21. What would you do?

The first day of class your professor goes over the syllabus with the class and notes that there will be four exams in the class. Your professor discusses in class what the exam will cover, and notes that almost all of the exams will be taken primarily from the lecture notes. Do you:

- a. skim each chapter throughout the semester, but study exclusively from the lecture notes
- b. read and review each chapter as well as study from lecture notes for the exam
- c. use only the lecture notes in studying for the exam
- d. focus on the chapters, trusting that the professor is using the book material as the basis for the lectures

22. What would you do?

You are assigned to work on a group project with three other people. It is the night before the project is due, and the four of you are still working on tying up the loose ends. People are getting grumpy and tired, yet there is a full hour of work before you are done. Moreover, you realize that this grade may make the difference between an A- and a B+ for you in the class. What do you do?

- a. Point out to the group that everybody is tired so let's just try to get the job done as quickly as possible.
- b. Stay quiet and focus on your tasks at hand, letting the others to quarrel if they so desire.
- c. Offer to take over the last of the duties so that the others can go home.
- d. Decide that the grade isn't that important and decide to go home.

23. What would you do?

At the beginning of the semester, your professor asks for a volunteer to type out the lecture notes after each lecture for a hearing-impaired student. The task would require you to type out the lecture notes and e-mail them to the student before the following class. The position is not paid. What would you do?

- a. Volunteer to type the notes.
- b. Volunteer at the beginning of the semester, but half-way through the semester realize you don't want to do it anymore and quit.
- c. Realize that it will take up too much time so you don't volunteer.
- d. Volunteer to type half the notes if the professor can find someone to share the duty with you, but if the professor can't find anyone else you wouldn't be able to do it.

24. What would you do?

Appendix B

CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE TEST

This section asks you to indicate how likely is it that you, as a student, would do the following 16 statements.

Write only where indicated. Carefully read all instructions before beginning. The following are 16 statements. Read each statement carefully. At the end of each statement, fill in the response that best represents your opinion. Make sure that your answer is on the correct line and in the correct bubble on your opscan sheet.

Fill in only one response for each statement. Respond to all statements, making sure that you fill in the correct response.

1. Comply with instructions even when you are not being graded or evaluated
2. Cooperate with other students in class
3. Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete an assignment
4. Display appropriate student appearance and protocol
5. Volunteer for additional scholastic work
6. Follow proper procedures and avoid unauthorized shortcuts for studying and assignments

7. Look for a challenging scholastic assignment
8. Offer to help other students accomplish their work
9. Pay close attention to important details
10. Defend professors' decisions
11. Render proper courtesy to other students

12. Support and encourage another student that has a problem
13. Take the initiative to solve a school-related problem
14. Exercise personal discipline and self-control
15. Tackle a difficult homework or classwork assignment enthusiastically
16. Voluntarily do more than you have to for a class project to help others or contribute

Tammy L. Bess

1003 University City Blvd ~ Blacksburg, Virginia 24060 ~ E-mail: tbess@vt.edu

- June, 2000-present Consultant, Center for Organizational Research
 - Conducted exit interviews of all organizational levels for large organization
 - Analyzed turnover data for large organization
 - Provided reorganization assessment to increase productivity and satisfaction
 - Participated in writing final reports and presentations to top management
- June, 1999 – June, 2000 Intern, United States Coast Guard
Regional Strategic Assessment Operations Division Coordinator
 - Facilitated implementation of strategic goal-setting and management program
 - Communicated concerns and efforts between field units and top management
 - Briefed top management of status and future directions needed
 - Delegated responsibility and duties to project managers
- Telecommuting Manager for Atlantic Area and District Five
 - Worked with Chief of Staff to determine telework policy
 - Wrote telecommuting policy for Atlantic Area and District Five
 - Implemented policy and pilot program
 - Facilitated telecommuting employee-supervisor arrangements
- May, 1998-August, 1998 Labor Relations Intern, Norfolk Southern Corp.
 - Researched past claims for defense of national agreements
 - Participated in analysis and correspondence for national merger
 - Provided statistical analysis of Conrail, Inc. for workforce allocation
 - Assisted with presentation of manpower estimations to Payroll

EDUCATIONAL WORK EXPERIENCES

- Spring, 2001 Social Psychology Instructor
- Fall, 2000, Summer 2000 Psychological Testing and Measurement Instructor
- Fall, 2000 Graduate Research Methods Teaching Assistant
- Summer, 2000 Social Psychology Lab Instructor
- Fall 1999, Spring 2000 Introduction to Psychology Recitation Instructor
and Assistant Coordinator

EDUCATION

- Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Virginia Tech, expected graduation May, 2002
 MS in Psychology, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 2001
 BA in Psychology and Communication, University of Colorado, Boulder, 1996
 Leadership Development Program at USCG, 1999

AWARDS RECEIVED AND PUBLICATIONS

- December, 1998. Received Society of Human Resource Management Foundation Grant “Adapting to the Changing Workforce Through Use of Telework” by Donald D. Davis and Tammy L. Bess (\$27,850.00)
- June, 1998. Received Best Student Paper Award from Virginia Academy of Science
- Bess, T.L. & Harvey, R. J. Bimodal Score Distributions and the MBTI: Fact or Artifact? *Journal of Personality Assessment*. (in press).
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PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

- Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology
- Academy of Management
- American Psychological Association