

INTRAORGANIZATIONAL EMPLOYEE NAVIGATION AND SOCIALLY DERIVED OUTCOMES: CONCEPTUALIZATION, VALIDATION, AND EFFECTS ON OVERALL PERFORMANCE

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Intraorganizational employee navigation (IEN) is conceptualized as a means of better understanding how the organizational actor proactively works across their firm's internal environment in the execution of their jobs. Navigation is argued to be a precursor to the employee's overall performance through a class of mediating variables labeled "socially derived outcomes," which are variables inside the organization that are bestowed upon the employee as a result of them first engaging in proactive behavior (e.g., IEN). Two studies are reported. Study I sees IEN psychometrically validated versus a range of existing proactive behaviors and individual traits (discriminant, nomological, and criterion-related validity) with a heterogeneous sample of 704 employees. Study II then tests a model relating IEN to performance through six mediating "socially derived outcomes" by leveraging data from 2 *Fortune* 500 firms. The results of Study II show that IEN significantly impacts multiple measures of the employee's overall performance through mediating effects brought about by key socially derived outcomes, such as the employee's "manager alignment." The contributions, broader implications, and limitations of the research are then put into context.

The employee's internal work environment has become much more complex in recent years (e.g., Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 1995; Langfred, 2000, 2004; Stewart, 2006). In an effort to explain how employees manage and cope with this, the proactive workplace behaviors stream of research has emerged (e.g., Parker & Collins, 2010; Seibert, Kraimer, &

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Crant, 2001; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This work builds within this rich and emerging literature yet augments it by making two contributions.

Over and beyond the existing array of constructs within the proactivity literature (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010), the current research identifies a gap concerning one proactive behavior that is germane to virtually all job types—a construct labeled “*intraorganizational employee navigation*” (IEN). Although probably important to most organizational actors, this article argues that navigation is particularly crucial for boundary spanners (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981) and those in “enriched jobs” (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010, p. 844)—or those whose work roles are characterized by high degrees of complexity, autonomy, and organizational responsibility.

IEN is a specific proactive behavior that sees the employee weaving across and cutting through their internal work environment in the day-to-day execution of their jobs. Defined shortly, navigation implies the discovery and harnessing of other employees, resources, and the broader competencies of the entire organization itself as it pertains to the requirements of specific jobs. The article’s first contribution is thus to show that IEN is a distinct, valid proactivity construct that taps into the specific actions and interventions employees take in navigating their own organizations (Study I).

The article’s second contribution is to test the salience of IEN as a predictor of overall performance (Study II). The relationship of navigation to performance is explored through a set of specific and novel mediating mechanisms inside the employee’s own organization. These mediators are labeled “*socially derived outcomes*” (SDOs), which are defined as organizational outcomes such as the garnering of tangible or intangible resources, job-related assistance, preferential treatment, and/or favors and concessions by the employee as a result of their proactive interactions across the organization with other individuals, work groups, functional areas, and/or business units. SDOs are thus positioned to offer preliminary insights into a still unresolved question in the proactivity literature, that being, what does engaging in a proactive behavior, such as navigation, actually “buy” the individual employee (see for example Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 20; Parker et al., 2010, p. 830)? The specification of such mediating mechanisms between proactive behaviors (such as IEN) and key outcomes (such as performance) have been highlighted as pressing areas for new empirical work and further theoretical refinement (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010).

Literature Review

This review of the literature begins by explicating the nature of workplace performance, which is of interest in this article. Next, the proactive

workplace behaviors literature is briefly summarized, which serves to underscore and frame how IEN is unique within it.

Proactive Behaviors and Performance

With a myriad of potential meanings, definitions, and operationalizations, the manner in which performance is positioned within a study is critical. The specific conceptualization of workplace performance that is of interest in this article is “overall performance” (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). IEN is linked in this research to the employee’s overall performance for several reasons.

First, if IEN is to be found to be a distinct and valid construct worthy of inclusion within the rubric of existing proactive workplace behaviors, then presumably, its impact on the employee’s performance should be demonstrated, and overall performance is theoretically consistent with this (see Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 7; Grant et al., 2009).

Second, as Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (1993) note, just three of the eight dimensions of job performance within their taxonomy—including overall performance—are argued to be vital components of performance for virtually all job types. Hence, if IEN truly belongs within the proactive workplace behaviors domain, prior research suggests that it should lead to overall performance gains as a sign of its nomological validity (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009; Griffin et al., 2007).

Third and at a more micro, pragmatic level, a strength of the design of the two studies reported in this article is that each’s dependent variables are ultimately measures of overall performance. However, the specific operationalizations of overall performance within each study are uniquely germane to each sample and empirical context (e.g., employee type). Ultimately then, the goal of both reported studies is to investigate IEN’s ability to predict the employee’s overall performance and yet do so in a manner that matches appropriate measures of overall performance given the idiosyncrasies associated with each study’s empirical context (e.g., a sample of heterogeneous employees are reported for Study I, whereas a single, homogenous employee type is examined in Study II).

The Proactivity Literature: Contributions and Knowledge Gaps

Parker and Collins (2010) recently published a large-scale, comparative study of many proactive constructs, concluding that the vast range of proactive behaviors they examined were both theoretically and empirically distinct from one other. Although this work explicitly provides important support for the conceptual distinctiveness of existing proactive workplace behaviors, it also implicitly suggests that perhaps there are additional

proactive behaviors that have yet to be specified. Consistent with this, this article argues that there is a gap that persists related to a type of behavior that falls under the proactivity rubric. That gap pertains to navigating—the behavior of actually working across and cutting through—one’s own intraorganizational work environment given the needs associated with specific work roles.

Grant and Ashford’s (2008) comprehensive review of this research stream posited that the foci of proactive behavior could be of one of three types: (a) proorganizational (directed at the organization itself), (b) prosocial (directed at one’s workgroup or colleagues), and (c) proself (directed at one’s own job-related tasks and responsibilities and/or personal or career objectives). Although this threefold theoretical distinction has now started to receive some traction in the literature (e.g., Parker & Collins, 2010), there is still a significant gap pertaining to one of these three categories of directional foci. Belschak and Den Hartog (2010, p. 478) note that “So far, prominent conceptualizations and measures of proactive behavior. . . mostly focus on proorganizational behavior, while still excluding behaviors focusing on benefiting only the self or even harming the organization.”

Based on the conceptualization recently suggested by Parker et al. (2010, p. 831), IEN is best categorized within the “proactive person-environment fit behavior” (PE-fit) category, “which encompasses proactive goals to achieve a better fit between one’s own attributes and those of the internal environment.” IEN has its primary motivational goal the changing of oneself. Building from this, and as both theory (Caplan, 1987; Kurchner-Hawkins & Miller, 2006) and past empirical work (Crant, 2000; Thompson, 2005) frame it, IEN is positioned as a proactive behavior that sees the individual seek to close gaps that might exist between the job-related attributes and knowledge they possess versus what success in their work role ultimately requires (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). IEN is therefore a behavior that benefits the individual; it involves outreach within the organization and the building of partnerships and needed relationships across the enterprise. Thus, IEN represents an intriguing and unexplored behavior that could potentially augment the proactivity literature.

Intraorganizational Employee Navigation

IEN occurs because it “changes oneself” in ways that are beneficial to the individual in question (see Parker et al., 2010, pp. 828–829). As such, employee navigation is an agentic form of individually situated behavior (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005). It is a behavior that is invoked by employees in the mapping of the organization’s informal structure (Carroll & Teo, 1996; McGregor, 2006; Morrison, 2002)

and sociopolitical landscape (Kurchner-Hawkins & Miller, 2006), all in the name of enhancing the performance of the individual employee, as opposed to the immediate work group or even the organization at large.

Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) identified two themes that help define the conceptual boundaries of IEN as a proactive behavior. First, individual employees often view proactivity as a necessary component to explaining the successes they have at achieving their role- or task-based responsibilities, goals, and objectives (see also Parker, 2000). In this regard, IEN is consistent with the notion of “crafting” one’s job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and more specifically, the behaviors associated with changing the interactions employees have with others in order to garner what they need to be successful. The second theme is that engaging in a proactive behavior involves a deliberate decision in which the individual assesses the current situation and deems that the proactive behavior (such as IEN) is likely to achieve some desired outcome(s). In addition, the benefits of seeking such desired outcomes should outweigh the risks, costs, or effort involved. This underscores that being proactive is not simply a nebulous psychological state—it implies deliberate behavior on the part of the individual employee.

In defining IEN, we begin by leveraging Parker and her colleagues recent work (2010, pp. 842–843; 2010, p. 634), which suggests that IEN is anticipatory as well as both future- and change-oriented in nature. To be clear, IEN is a behavior that is focused on creating change that benefits the individual as opposed to reacting to change (Griffin et al., 2007). It is also a behavior that in most cases is selfish in its orientation (Belschak & Hartog, 2010). Bolino’s (1999) work on organizational citizenship behaviors notes that the impetus for such behaviors may not, in fact, be to better the organization (the “good soldier”), but rather be to better the individual (the “good actor”). IEN similarly implies a “me-focused” employee orientation and underlying motivation. IEN is therefore the deliberate and calculated maneuvering that enacts the notion of being proactive in relation to a specific job, task(s), and/or responsibilities. Intraorganizational employee navigation is thus defined as:

Self-initiated behavior the employee engages in to identify salient resources germane to their work, key personnel who can assist them with job-related tasks and responsibilities, and/or the alignment of other needed organizational processes, inputs, or policies in their favor.

Resonant throughout the definition of IEN is a clear theme of being proactive for one’s own benefit, versus being proactive for the immediate workgroup, the division, or even the broader organization itself. This important distinction has origins in self-adaptation theory (Tsui & Ashford, 1994). Here employees are seen as rational, focused

entities who are goal-driven, introspective, and into pursuing their own agendas—not necessarily at the expense of the organization or its goals (though this is possible), but certainly with individual self-interest driving much in terms of resultant behavior (Porath & Bateman, 2006).

Given the preceding, it is plausible that IEN, as a proactive behavior, could have negative consequences depending upon the stakeholder constituency and/or organizational level being considered (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Based on recent developments in the literature (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008, pp. 24–25), there is little work that explores proactive behaviors, which might be beneficial for the individual actor yet be counterproductive or perhaps even destructive to the organization at large (see Belschak & Hartog, 2010). For now, we mention this as an intriguing—and potentially paradoxical (Lewis, 2000)—aspect of IEN, which we revisit in the article’s conclusion.

Study I: Intraorganizational Employee Navigation—Construct Validation

Hypotheses Development

Here we examine the discriminant, convergent, nomological, and criterion-related validity of IEN by contrasting it with existing proactive behaviors and also by exploring its linkage with potential antecedents and outcomes. In so doing, we develop a set of hypotheses that are primarily based on the comprehensive frameworks of Parker and her colleagues (see Parker et al., 2010, p. 830; Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 652) as well as related literature (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008). The overriding objective is to demonstrate that IEN is a valid and psychometrically distinct construct from other proactive behaviors.

Discriminant and Convergent Validity

We first seek to compare IEN with specific behaviors within the proactive PE-fit category (as per Parker & Collins, 2010) in order to demonstrate its discriminant validity. We focus on a comparison of IEN with proactive behaviors belonging only to the PE-fit category, in contrast to the two other higher-order categories identified by Parker and Collins (2010), or “proactive work behaviors” and “proactive strategic behaviors,” respectively. The behaviors comprised in the proactive PE-fit category are better bases for comparison because of their stronger focus on changing oneself (Parker et al., 2010), which is consistent with IEN. In short, by contrasting IEN with behaviors that are conceptually closer to it, we offer a more rigorous test of its discriminant validity.

In this spirit, we identified three established proactive behaviors—(a) network ability, (b) propolitical workplace behavior, and (c) social

astuteness—that each represent relevant comparables because of their conceptual proximity to IEN. Indeed, these behaviors appear similar to IEN in many ways; they involve significant social and political activities and aim to improve oneself. However, IEN is also different from these behaviors.

Network ability (e.g., Ferris et al., 2005; Morrison, 2002) is the process by which the employee constructs an internal network across his or her own organization. IEN differs from network ability in at least two key ways. First, IEN does not always involve networking efforts. For example, an employee could identify useful internal resources through other means than social interactions (although we agree that the social interactions are probably a component of IEN in many instances). Second, the purpose of these two behaviors can also be different. The purpose of networking is often social in its orientation (e.g., Morrison, 2002), where employees may interact with each other about issues that are not always work related. On the other hand, IEN is more instrumental in its orientation—here employees actively seek information and/or other needed inputs that help them perform their jobs or achieve other valued objectives.

A second behavior comparable to IEN is propolitical workplace behavior (Hochwarter, 2003), which is defined as actions taken by the employee that are directed toward furthering their own interests inside the organization and not necessarily the interests of others. Propolitical behavior and IEN are both self-interested; each aims to advance one's own agenda, perhaps to the detriment of others and/or the organization itself. However, the orientation of each is somewhat different. Propolitical behavior captures broad power and influence dynamics within the organization. IEN, in contrast, principally relates to the employee getting additional resources or other needed organizational inputs so they are advantaged in doing their jobs. In other words, IEN has no clear association with politics at work; it is a proactive workplace behavior that could be performed quite discretely, with limited knowledge of others.

The third considered behavior is social astuteness (Ferris et al., 2005), which is defined as an ingenious manner in both reading and interacting with others in ways that are beneficial to the individual employee. Social astuteness and IEN are again both self-interested, as both aim to benefit the individual. However, their purpose is different. As a proactive behavior (Ferris et al., 2007), social astuteness can be useful for reasons other than getting additional resources or inputs germane to one's job or work role (e.g., getting a pay raise). For example, the behavior of navigating, in and of itself, might lead to the individual employee's garnering of resources, with social astuteness potentially having nothing to do with this outcome. Thus, the locus of social astuteness is on being proactive in broad, context-unspecific terms; IEN, on the other hand, is a proactive behavior germane to the workplace and specific work roles and jobs.

Based on these explanations, we posit that IEN is conceptually distinct from these three proactive behaviors. However, given the underlying similarities, IEN should also be moderately correlated with these constructs. Formally:

Hypothesis 1: Intraorganizational employee navigation is expected to be conceptually distinct (discriminant validity) but also moderately related (convergent validity) with the following proactive behaviors: network ability, propolitical behavior, and social astuteness.

Nomological Validity

We next provide evidence of the nomological validity of IEN by demonstrating its linkages with five key antecedents identified in the literature. Specifically, we identify three personality traits—(a) Emotional Stability, (b) Conscientiousness, and (c) competitiveness—and two individual difference variables—(d) educational attainment and (e) work experience—that each should lead to IEN. By showing that these individual differences predict IEN, we intend to demonstrate that IEN is more correctly conceptualized as an outcome than as an antecedent, which is consistent with the extant view of most proactive behaviors (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010).

First, Conscientiousness—defined as being industrious, hardworking, and resourceful as well as dependable and thorough—has been found to be a robust predictor of many proactive PE-fit behaviors (see Parker & Collins, 2010). Conscientious employees are more likely to desire to perform their job well while also being concerned about achieving the right fit with their organization. Based on this logic, we expect that Conscientiousness should have a similar impact on IEN. Indeed, IEN implies that the employee goes beyond the basic duties and tasks inherent in their jobs, and conscientious employees are probably more inclined to invest significant time and energy into their own intraorganizational navigation.

Emotional Stability is proposed as a second potential antecedent to IEN, as it has been identified as a high-level personality trait leading to proactive behaviors in general (Parker et al., 2010). As conceptualized within the Big Five personality inventory (Goldberg, 1992), Emotional Stability is a generalized tendency to be confident, secure, and steady. When employees try to obtain needed workplace inputs germane to their jobs, they are likely to encounter some resistance, which may, in turn, lead to frustration and negative affect. We posit that employees who are better predisposed to cope with these occasional failures, through their Emotional Stability, are more likely to persevere and engage in IEN.

We also include the personality trait of competitiveness as an additional antecedent of IEN. This construct refers to the concept of intentional competitiveness proposed by Kohn (1992) and is generally defined as a predisposition to be “number one” at most, if not all, tasks and activities in which the individual engages. If an employee is high in competitiveness, then he or she may be compelled to seek out the new and unfamiliar within their own organization in order to gain valued work-related inputs or other advantages. In other words, competitive employees probably seek out needed or valued work-related inputs by navigating.

With a review of these three personality traits complete, we now examine the influence of two other antecedents that belong within the category of “knowledge, skills, and abilities” as identified by Parker et al. (2010). Educational attainment is positioned as a fourth possible antecedent of IEN because it has been shown to predict other proactive behaviors (e.g., job-searching, see Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001). Highly educated individuals may be more likely to have the impetus and wherewithal to see the value in navigation and to be more flexible in the execution of this behavior. In addition, highly educated employees probably have more confidence in their cognitive abilities, and hence, they may be more likely to seek out needed resources or other workplace inputs that are germane to their work.

We finally argue that work experience is a relevant proxy that captures “domain-relevant knowledge” (as per Parker et al., 2010, p. 843), a fifth potential antecedent that should relate to IEN. The experience accumulated by employees, through their successes and failures over time, should give them a better understanding of not only the broader organization within which they work but also an enhanced sense of how and where to navigate in order to garner what is required to succeed given their specific work roles. From their experience, employees should derive important firm-specific knowledge that will help them secure key work-related inputs. Based on these explanations, we formally suggest:

Hypothesis 2: As a test of nomological validity, Conscientiousness (a), Emotional Stability (b), trait competitiveness (c), educational attainment (d), and work experience (e) will all be positively related to intraorganizational employee navigation.

We acknowledge that some of these antecedents could be more influential than others in predicting IEN. However, given the early stage of development of the IEN construct, specific differentiated effects would be difficult to predict; as such, they are addressed in the discussion.

Criterion-Related Validity

We expect IEN to exhibit criterion-related validity and to be a predictor of two key job-related outcomes: job satisfaction and overall performance at work. We posit that IEN will explain both a substantive and unique portion of the variance of these two outcomes, even after controlling for the effects of the other proactive behaviors inherent in Hypothesis 1.

Job satisfaction is broadly defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the self-appraisal of one's job experience (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). We posit that the process of navigating within the organization can be enjoyable in and of itself. IEN may incorporate many activities—such as learning about different facets of the organization, meeting with colleagues from other departments, or consulting different information sources—that may be intrinsically pleasant and satisfying. For these reasons, IEN should lead to a generalized positive affect about the firm and, thus, increased job satisfaction.

For overall performance, we examine the impact of IEN on a salient operationalization of this dependent outcome. In this regard, the objective is to establish key forms of validity relative to IEN and to do so in a broad-based, robust manner. As such and as is detailed shortly, the design of this study will ultimately yield a heterogeneous sample of employees from a wide array of industries, job types, and organizational contexts. Thus, in this case, an appropriate measure of overall performance will be one that is maximally germane and salient to a heterogeneous sample of employees. For this reason, here we utilize “job-specific task proficiency” as the operationalization of the overall performance dependent variable (as per Campbell et al., 1993; Griffin et al., 2007). Job-specific task proficiency assesses the extent to which the employee finds resourceful solutions to everyday work tasks, problems, and challenges, and is otherwise both skillful and successful at work (see Williams & Anderson, 1991). Given this, it is suggested that IEN should substantially enhance this operationalization of overall performance, given IEN's work-focused and task-specific orientation. Formally, we therefore suggest:

Hypothesis 3: In comparison to the other considered proactive PE-fit behaviors, intraorganizational employee navigation will explain both a substantive and unique portion of the variance of two key job-related outcomes: (a) job satisfaction and (b) overall performance.

Method

Data collection here was divided into two phases: (a) initial development and pretest of the IEN scale, followed by (b) a formal data collection

phase to aggregate a dataset suitable for assessing the requisite facets of the new construct's validity.

Pretest

The prescriptions offered for the development and operationalization of new constructs were heeded in creating IEN (as per DeVellis, 1991; Nunnally, 1978). Scale development began with extensive fieldwork and qualitative interviews (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) to further specify the construct's conceptual domain.¹ As the literature suggests (DeVellis, 1991), a pool of potential measurement items that emerged from the qualitative fieldwork was created. Because of its behavioral nature, IEN is measured with five point frequency-based behavioral scaling (Spector, 1992).

To refine the initial IEN measures, a heterogeneous pilot sample of professional salespeople were recruited on a snowball basis (Bienrnacki & Waldorf, 1981), with the resultant sample containing nearly two dozen distinct industry contexts and a final, usable $n = 88$. Next, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted such that each retained measurement item loaded on the underlying IEN construct at a value $\geq .60$ (as per Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). One item was dropped because of its weak loading, thus the final 5-item IEN scale had a preliminary Cronbach's alpha value of .74, which exceeded the recommended level for new constructs ($\geq .60$ as per DeVellis, 1991; Nunnally, 1978).

Formal Data Collection Procedure

178 students enrolled in a business course at a large American university were offered course credit for helping recruit suitable candidates. Each student was asked to recruit up to five employees at any organization who were engaged in white-collar jobs and with at least 2 years of experience. The theoretical development of IEN offered earlier led us to believe that it is probably more pervasive in white-collar organizational environments. We also felt that employees with at least 2 years of work experience would be in an enhanced position to report on their navigational activity.

A questionnaire containing the measures needed for Study I was created using an online survey hosting service. Overall, 704 surveys were completed, which constitutes an average of 3.96 responses per student. The achieved sample showed wide heterogeneity, including a gender mix of 49% of men versus 51% of women; a high level of educational attainment with just under 70% of the sample possessing a 4-year college degree; a mean age of 48.6 years; and 21.2 years total work experience, on average. In addition, we used U.S. Census Bureau standard codes to classify

¹ A detailed exposition of the process and achieved results associated with this preliminary qualitative fieldwork can be found in Plouffe and Barclay (2007).

the respondents' job type. The top four job categories were professional specialty occupations, 21.6%; executive and managerial, 17.2%; sales and customer account management, 13.7%; and administrative, clerical, and support functions, 8.3%.

Apart from the IEN construct for which we developed a new scale, we used established scales for all other constructs, with those constructs being based on the key references cited in the development of Hypothesis 1-Hypothesis 3. Appendix I offers a detailed description of all utilized scales.

Results

Hypothesis 1: To test Hypothesis 1, we performed a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). The initial model incorporated all the items of the reflective constructs. Because work experience and educational attainment are single item measures, they were excluded from this model. We successively deleted five items—two items for Conscientiousness, two items for Emotional Stability, and one item for propolitical behavior—because of weak loadings or strongly correlated measurement errors. The final CFA model comprised 41 items: IEN (5 items), network ability (4 items), social astuteness (5 items), propolitical behavior (2 items), overall performance (5 items), job satisfaction (5 items), Conscientiousness (5 items), competitiveness (5 items), and Emotional Stability (5 items). Given our large Study I sample size ($n = 704$), this model still offers a reasonable ratio of 6.09 respondents per parameter to be estimated (Bentler & Chou, 1987). This model fit the data acceptably with a χ^2 of 1518.73 ($df = 704$, $p = .000$), a comparative fit index (CFI) of .96, a Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) of .95, and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .04.

As a first sign of convergent validity, all loadings (λ s) were large and significant, and the average variance extracted (AVE) was greater than .50 for all nine constructs (see Appendix I). Only three item loadings were below .60, but we elected to preserve these items for the sake of consistency with prior work. In addition, the internal consistency of all scales was adequate with all Cronbach's alphas greater than .80 (see the diagonal in Table 1).

As a first test of discriminant validity, we constrained to equality (one by one) all the covariances (Φ s) between IEN and all the other latent constructs (including the proactive behaviors, antecedents, and outcomes). In all cases, we observed a significant increase in χ^2 that was equal to or greater than 66.4 ($p < .001$). These findings support the first component of Hypothesis 1 regarding the conceptual distinctiveness of IEN compared to other proactive behaviors.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (Study I)

Constructs	Mean	SD	Square root of AVE ^b	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
				.71	.82	.74	.90	.79	.86	.76	.83	.74	.70	.82
1. Intraorganizational employee navigation	4.13	.70	.71	.80^a										
2. Network ability	5.48	1.02	.82	.57***	.88									
3. Social astuteness	5.70	.84	.74	.34***	.54***	.82								
4. Propolitical behavior	3.51	1.65	.90	.29***	.39***	.22***	.89							
5. Overall performance	6.18	.74	.79	.39***	.35***	.38***	.04	.84						
6. Job satisfaction	5.60	1.13	.86	.39***	.40***	.32***	.16***	.32***	.93					
7. Conscientiousness	7.83	1.01	.76	.38***	.32***	.40***	.07	.48***	.35***	.85				
8. Trait competitiveness	5.16	1.28	.83	.27***	.38***	.29***	.31***	.26***	.22***	.24***	.92			
9. Emotional Stability	6.59	1.31	.74	.20***	.24***	.30***	.10**	.23***	.25***	.37***	.14***	.81		
10. Work experience	21.31	12.85	-	.14***	-.01	.00	-.02	.15***	.17***	.13***	-.12***	.05	-	
11. Educational attainment	4.75	1.38	-	.09*	.07	.03	.08*	.12***	.08*	.06	.05	.02	.01	-

^aThe Cronbach's alphas are presented on the diagonal of the correlation matrix (i.e. the bolded values).

^bAverage variance extracted.

Significance levels reported: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed distribution).

TABLE 2
Relationships Among Antecedents and Different Proactive Behaviors (Study I)

	Intraorganizational employee navigation (β)		Network ability (β)		Social astuteness (β)		Propolitical behavior (β)	
Conscientiousness (Hypothesis 2a)	.28	***	.17	***	.27	***	-.05	
Emotional Stability (Hypothesis 2b)	.07		.16	***	.21	***	.08	
Competitiveness (Hypothesis 2c)	.20	***	.31	***	.20	***	.31	***
Education (Hypothesis 2d)	.06		.04		-.00		.07	*
Work experience (Hypothesis 2e)	.12	***	-.01		-.03		.02	
Adjusted R^2	.19		.21		.24		.10	

Significance levels reported: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed distribution).

Despite its distinctiveness, IEN remains positively related to the other tested proactivity constructs, which is another sign of convergent validity. Indeed, its covariances with all other proactive behaviors ($ps < .001$) were both positive and significant. These results are consistent with the other component of Hypothesis 1: IEN is also related to proactive PE-fit category behaviors.

Because all multi-item scales used in this study possess adequate psychometric properties, their items were summated into construct scores, with their descriptive statistics and correlations presented in Table 1. Using this correlation matrix, we performed a second test of discriminant validity by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted of each construct (see the given column in Table 1) with its correlations with all other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All the square rooted AVE values were substantially greater than their respective correlations, a result that offers further evidence of discriminant validity.

Hypothesis 2: To test Hypothesis 2, we performed a first regression in which IEN was modeled as the dependent variable, with the five personality traits/individual differences as the antecedents (Table 2 for the standardized coefficients). Consistent with Hypotheses 2a, c, and e, we found that Conscientiousness ($\beta = .28, p < .001$), competitiveness ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), and work experience ($\beta = .12, p < .001$) are significantly and positively related to IEN, with this set of results providing initial evidence of the nomological validity of our focal construct. However, in contrast to Hypotheses 2b and d, we found nonsignificant effects on IEN

TABLE 3
Relationships Among Proactive Behaviors and Outcomes (Study I)

	Job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3a) (β)				Overall performance (Hypothesis 3b) (β)			
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
Individual differences								
Conscientiousness	.21	***	.12	**	.41	**	.30	***
Trait competitiveness	.16	***	.06		.14	**	.08	*
Emotional Stability	.18	***	.13	***	.05		.00	
Work experience	.15	***	.14	***	.10	*	.09	**
Educational attainment	.06		.04		.08	*	.08	*
Proactive behaviors								
Intraorganizational employee navigation	-		.14	***	-		.17	***
Network ability	-		.20	***	-		.09	
Social astuteness	-		.05		-		.15	***
Propolitical behavior	-		-.02		-		-.12	***
Adjusted R^2	.19		.26		.26		.33	
R^2 change			.07				.07	

Significance levels reported: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed distribution).

for Emotional Stability ($\beta = .07, p = .07$) and educational attainment ($\beta = .06, p = .08$). Overall, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

Next, we compared the results of this regression with three similar regressions predicting the three other proactive behaviors (Table 2). This approach is consistent with Parker and Collins (2010, p. 651) who suggest that a separate regression analysis should be performed for each proactive behavior, so as to garner a more complete understanding of the individual effect of the antecedents. Interestingly, we found similarities but also differences in the prediction of the four behaviors. In terms of similarities, competitiveness is a significant predictor of all four proactive behaviors (IEN: $\beta = .20, p < .001$; network ability: $\beta = .31, p < .001$; social astuteness: $\beta = .20, p < .001$; propolitical behavior: $\beta = .31, p < .001$). Conscientiousness predicted three of the four behaviors (IEN: $\beta = .28, p < .001$; network ability: $\beta = .17, p < .001$; social astuteness: $\beta = .27, p < .001$) with the lone exception being propolitical behavior ($\beta = .07; p = .27$). In terms of differences, Emotional Stability has a significant impact on network ability ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) and social astuteness ($\beta = .21, p < .001$) but no effect on IEN ($\beta = .07, p = .08$) and propolitical behavior ($\beta = .08, p = .07$). In addition, work experience only predicts

IEN ($\beta = .12, p < .001$), and educational attainment is only related to propolitical behavior ($\beta = .07, p < .05$). In summary, these finding suggests that IEN is a different and unique construct because it is not fully explained by the same antecedents.

Hypothesis 3: To test the criterion-related validity of IEN, we performed a set of regressions in which we examined the effects of IEN on job satisfaction and overall performance. For Hypothesis 3, we followed a two-step procedure. In Step 1, we account for the effects of the personality traits and individual differences (as control variables). Then in Step 2, we incorporate the effects of the four proactive behaviors of interest (Table 3).

Consistent with Hypotheses 3a and b, IEN predicts both job satisfaction ($\beta = .14, p < .001$) and overall performance ($\beta = .17, p < .001$), even after accounting for the effects of the other proactive behaviors and the individual difference variables. These results thus offer evidence of IEN's criterion-related validity. In turn, network ability only has a significant effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), whereas social astuteness ($\beta = .15; p < .001$) and propolitical behavior ($\beta = -.12, p < .001$) are only significantly related to overall performance.

Discussion

IEN exhibits satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity and therefore can be viewed as being distinct from other proactive behaviors within the PE-fit category. However, IEN is not independent from the other considered constructs. Indeed, employees engaging in internal navigation may also have to use, depending on the circumstances, networking, political maneuvering, and/or social astuteness to obtain the needed inputs required for success at work.

In terms of nomological validity, this study shows that IEN has a different set of antecedents than the other examined proactive behaviors. Here, there is much to learn about the unique effects of these antecedents. For example, Emotional Stability—although it predicts network ability and social astuteness—has no effect on IEN. Thus, this Big Five variable may be too broad and abstract to explain a specific and goal-oriented behavior such as IEN. We also found that IEN is better explained by a discrete personality trait like competitiveness (Kohn, 1992), or a “Big Five” variable such as Conscientiousness (Parker & Collins, 2010), which itself has regularly been found to be a strong predictor of other proactive behaviors. Indeed, Conscientiousness is the strongest predictor of IEN in the current dataset, with this result suggesting that IEN requires much perseverance and well thought-out effort. In contrast, the effect of competitiveness on IEN might lead to “dark side” or negative consequences for the organization itself. This is because it may compel navigating employees

to “cross the line” in terms of what is considered acceptable behavior or practice. Although its effect is somewhat smaller, work experience seems to provide evidence that the employee’s firm-specific knowledge helps them engage more intensely in navigational behavior.

Although IEN requires an additional expenditure of energy and extra work for the organizational actor, it also seems to “pay off” in terms of higher satisfaction at work and greater overall performance. Thus, on the one hand, IEN appears to be a pleasant and satisfying endeavor in and of itself. Yet on the other hand, it also leads the employee to perform in a superior manner. Interestingly, we find that IEN is the only proactive behavior considered here that exhibits a significant effect on both of these outcomes, with these results supporting the article’s broader supposition about the value of incorporating IEN into the proactivity literature.

Limitations

As an initial development and exploration of IEN, this study possesses several limitations. Although we constructed our theoretical model based on the current literature, we acknowledge that other proactive behaviors, antecedents, and/or outcomes could have been included. For instance, IEN could have been contrasted with other potentially relevant proactive behaviors, such as taking charge, career initiative, strategic scanning, or problem prevention (Parker & Collins, 2010). In addition, other relevant antecedents and various “proactive motivational states” could also have been incorporated (see Parker et al., 2010). Future work would do well to consider the research possibilities inherent in these avenues.

This work also raises the potentiality for common methods biases given that a single source provided data on both antecedents and outcomes. However, as Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002) note, common methods biases are less important if the goal is to establish validity baselines for some construct(s), knowing that additional methods will later account for such biases. Thus, the study reported next further explores IEN: (a) by reporting different datasets, (b) by leveraging multiple sources for measures of overall performance, and (c) by employing a multi-informant approach beyond the navigating employee.

Study II: Testing of Intraorganizational Employee Navigation in an Overall Performance-Based Theoretical Framework

Here we propose a process-based model (see Figure 1) that specifies a mediating mechanism that explains “*how*” IEN leads to overall performance. Variables labeled “socially derived outcomes” (SDOs) are introduced as plausible mediators to explain the IEN-to-performance

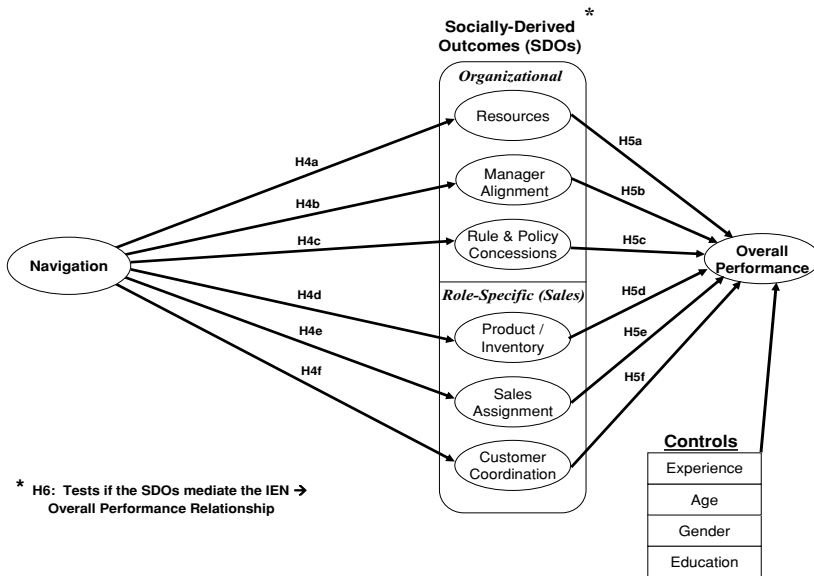


Figure 1: Study II Research Model.

relationship. To summarize the logic inherent in Figure 1, SDOs are made available to the employee as a result of engaging in IEN (Hypotheses 4a-f, or the Hypothesis 4x series). These six SDOs enhance the employee's overall performance (Hypotheses 5a-f, or the Hypothesis 5x series) and are also argued to play a mediating role in the IEN-to-performance relationship (Hypothesis 6).

Focal Employee Type Examined—The Business-to-Business Salesperson

This study focuses on the business-to-business salesperson as the focal employee type. This choice of organizational actor is logical for several key reasons. Indeed, the literature has suggested that there is variance in the degree to which proactive behaviors, such as IEN, are required for workplace success and that the detailed examination of specific work roles represents a high-priority area for new work (see Spreitzer et al., 2005, p. 546; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 196). In addition, proactive behaviors appear especially important when: (a) the employee's work role is socially embedded across the enterprise (Belschak & Hartog, 2010; Griffin et al., 2007) as well as when the work role possesses inherently high levels of (b) situational accountability, (c) ambiguity, and (d) autonomy (as per Grant & Ashford, 2008, pp. 14–17). Overall then, we suggest that the

business-to-business salesperson is an appropriate candidate upon whom to study a proactive behavior such as IEN because their work environment and jobs possess high levels of all these characteristics (Stevens & Kinni, 2007).

Socially Derived Outcomes: An Overview

SDOs are positioned as a preliminary attempt to delineate a mediating mechanism between a proactive behavior (such as IEN) and endogenous variables often studied in this literature (such as overall performance). As per the operational definition of SDOs offered in the article's introduction, these variables help explicate what it is employees seek inside their own organization when acting proactively—and what these elements might “buy them” should they secure them (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 20). They are “socially derived” because they occur at the intersection of the individual employee and their interactions and dealings with other coworkers, departments, and/or different work units across the organization.

Because employees play many different roles, it is proposed that SDOs are best organized as (a) those shared across most, if not all, job types (Campbell et al., 1993; Griffin et al., 2007) versus (b) those specific to one's job or work role (e.g., the salesperson). We therefore identify in Figure 1 three “organizational” SDOs that will apply to virtually all employees (resources, manager alignment, and rule and policy concessions) as well as three “role-specific” SDOs germane specifically to the sales role (product/inventory, sales assignment, and customer coordination). Importantly, we suggest that there may be more SDOs than this study delineates. However, the goal here is to simply ascertain whether or not these SDOs play a mediating role in the IEN-to-performance linkage rather than attempting to provide an exhaustive inventory of all such possible SDOs.

Socially Derived Outcomes: Organizational

Resources

Resources, and their importance to the firm's success, are well documented in the management literature (e.g., Barney, 2001). Before resources can be harnessed for competitive success, they first have to be identified and secured (Mosakowski, 1993), and this is where IEN plays an active role. The resources SDO is thus consistent with the management literature, which views resources as (a) largely finite and depleting in nature, as well as (b) useful for the satisfaction of the individual employee's workplace goals and objectives (Conner, 1991; Feldman, 2004;

Spreitzer et al., 2005). The resources SDO is thus defined as “the employee’s propensity to secure sufficient amounts of financial, technical, marketing and other types of resources which are required to perform their jobs effectively.” So, the more employees engage in IEN, the more they should be able to find and secure such needed and valuable resources, which, in turn, would give them an advantage at work. Therefore:

Hypothesis 4a: The greater the employee’s intraorganizational navigation, the greater the quantity and/or quality of resources they are able to garner.

Manager Alignment

Research has long established that forward-thinking, savvy employees will attempt to align themselves with high-performing managers (Levenson, Stede, & Cohen, 2006; Mintzberg, 1973). We thus define the manager alignment SDO as “the employee’s propensity to be consistently aligned with a high performing and generally preferred immediate manager.” Through their navigational efforts, we posit that employees become more apt to identify high performing and otherwise preferred managers while also building stronger relationships with them. Navigation will also assist the employee in helping better understand these managers’ vision and unique way of doing things. With this in mind, we propose:

Hypothesis 4b: The greater the employee’s intraorganizational navigation, the greater their alignment with a high-performing and preferred immediate manager.

Rule and Policy Concessions

In most organizations, there are rules and procedures that govern how employees should conduct themselves (Raelin, 1984). A tenuous assumption, however, is that employees—particularly boundary spanners, whose jobs require the inputs and cooperation of disparate groups across the enterprise—uniformly play fair and abide by the organization’s rules and policies (see Brady, 1987; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). The rule and policy concessions SDO is thus defined as “the employee’s propensity to get others in their own organization to relax and/or break formal and informal rules, policies and procedures in their favor.” The argument here is that navigation assists the employee by allowing them to better understand which rules and policies could be bent or broken in their favor and which individuals within the organization could help with this (See Harris & Bromiley, 2007). Thus:

Hypothesis 4c: The greater the employee's intraorganizational navigation, the greater the number of favorable rule and policy concessions they receive.

Socially Derived Outcomes: Role Specific

Product/Inventory

It is often assumed that a firm's supply of products and services is infinite. However, where the firm has a fast-selling product (Dion, Hasey, Dorin, & Lundin, 1991) or where there are production problems, inventory may be negatively impacted. In this context, salespeople may be required to "work" their organization and the right individuals through navigational behavior in order to ensure that their own customers' orders are fulfilled. Thus, the product/inventory SDO is defined as "the employee's (or salesperson's) propensity to get sufficient amounts of product and/or services to be able to meet the demands of their customers." Past research has shown that when needed firm-level inputs are not present to satisfy customer demand that this, in turn, can negatively influence the performance of the employees who serve customers (e.g., salespeople, see Liao & Chuang, 2004). Thus:

Hypothesis 4d: The greater the employee's (or salesperson's) intraorganizational navigation, the greater the amount of product/inventory they are able to garner.

Sales Assignment

The sales assignment SDO is defined as "the employee's (salesperson's) propensity to consistently secure a preferred job assignment (or 'sales territory')." The marketing literature has demonstrated that sales territories vary in their business potential (Ryans & Weinberg, 1979) and that sales managers design territories using a variety of arbitrary means (Deutscher, Burgoyne, Grundman, & Marshall, 1982). Therefore, successful salespeople probably engage in navigational behavior in order to proactively seek out plum sales territories and assignments (Sujan, 1999). Through their navigational efforts, the salesperson can collect valuable information about the most promising territories and selling assignments. Then, with IEN again acting as the behavioral catalyst, they may develop special relationships with key managers and thus gain influence over sales territory assignment decisions. In sum, we argue that salespeople who engage in IEN are more likely to be assigned to the most preferred sales territories and job assignments (Sujan, 1999). This line of thought is consistent with the work of Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, and Shalhoop (2006),

which demonstrated that proactive workplace behaviors (such as IEN) can lead to the securing of better job opportunities. Formally:

Hypothesis 4e: The greater the employee's (or salesperson's) intraorganizational navigation, the better the sales territory or assignment they secure for themselves.

Customer Coordination

We define the customer coordination SDO as “the employee's (salesperson's) ability to secure needed organizational inputs to coordinate the details and tasks pertinent to the closing of specific sales opportunities.” Although on the surface, customer coordination might sound loosely akin to boundary-spanning (e.g., Tushman & Scanlan, 1981), the two concepts are different in terms of their fundamental nature (a behavior vs. an outcome) and level of abstraction. Boundary spanning typically implies a broad-based basket of activities that expand the control, range, and/or coverage of an individual employee or an organization, department, or work unit within it. In contrast, customer coordination—as an SDO—is much more specific. It is an outcome related to the level of synchronization and overall coordination that a salesperson receives internally related to pending sales transactions. Through their navigational activity, salespeople should become more interconnected and familiar with other employees and the role(s) played by each of them. So, salespeople who intensively engage in IEN should better understand how their colleagues can respectively contribute, with these salespeople, in turn, thus in an enhanced position to further synchronize the efforts of the organization itself toward successfully closing specific deals and customer transactions. For these reasons, we expect IEN to be positively related to customer coordination. Therefore:

Hypothesis 4f: The greater the employee's (or salesperson's) intraorganizational navigation, the greater the amount and/or quality of sales coordination they receive.

Socially Derived Outcomes and Employee Performance

As shown in Figure 1, SDOs are argued to act as predictors of overall performance. In this regard, we first address the effects of the three organizational SDOs (resources, manager alignment, and rule and policy concessions). Here we argue that employees who have identified and secured greater amounts of needed resources should have an advantage over others and that this, in turn, should positively impact the employee's overall performance. This logic is well established in the resource-based

view of the firm (Feldman, 2004; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Second, those employees who succeed at being better aligned with top managers are suggested to be positioned for higher overall performance because they receive the coaching, profiling, and support required to be successful (e.g., Drucker, 2004; Grant et al., 2009). Finally, employees who enjoy more concessions and breaks with respect to formal and informal organizational rules and policies will naturally be in an enhanced position to achieve their individual performance goals and objectives (Harris & Bromiley, 2007). Formally, we suggest:

- Hypothesis 5a:* The more resources the employee is able to garner, the greater their overall performance.
- Hypothesis 5b:* The more the employee is aligned with a high-performing and preferred immediate manager, the greater their overall performance.
- Hypothesis 5c:* The more favorable rule and policy concessions the employee receives internally, the greater their overall performance.

The three specific SDOs related to the sales role (product/inventory, sales assignment, and customer coordination) should also naturally enhance overall performance. First, salespeople who can avoid “stock-out” situations and “inventory runs” are less likely to lose important sales, which should result in greater sales and thus, overall performance (Dion et al., 1991). Second, salespeople who enjoy the best territories or/and cater to the most promising customer accounts should also realize greater levels of sales, which is a critical component of overall performance in this work role (Sujan, 1999). Finally, salespeople who have better control over the coordination of pending or completed sales transactions should be in a better position to ultimately satisfy their customers and thus enjoy repeat business, all of which ultimately lead to greater overall performance in this role (Weitz & Bradford, 1999). Hence:

- Hypothesis 5d:* The more product/inventory the employee (or salesperson) is able to garner, the greater their overall performance.
- Hypothesis 5e:* The better the territory or specific sales assignment the employee (or salesperson) has secured, the greater their overall performance.
- Hypothesis 5f:* The greater the amount and/or quality of customer coordination the employee (or salesperson) receives internally, the greater their overall performance.

Socially Derived Outcomes: Mediation Effects

As explained previously, a key objective of this second study is to attempt to provide insights about a potential mediating mechanism between a proactive behavior, such as IEN, and overall performance (as per Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010). Specifically, we posit that IEN leads to greater performance because it allows the employee to more effectively identify and harness critical SDOs that are needed to succeed either in general (organizational SDOs) or given the specific requirements of their work roles (role-specific SDOs). In other words, navigational behavior will lead to SDOs and these, in turn, foster greater overall performance. Given that both IEN and the notion of SDOs are new to the proactivity literature, we simply examine the combined mediation effect of all the SDOs on overall performance. Put differently, we suggest that their *total* indirect effects should be substantial and significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Furthermore and at this early stage of development, it is difficult to predict how each specific SDO might differ in its ability to mediate the IEN-performance pathway. Thus:

Hypothesis 6: Socially derived outcomes, taken as a whole, mediate the relationship between intraorganizational employee navigation and overall performance.

Method

We felt it important to test the Study II research model in at least two different settings because extant work in the proactivity domain leads us to believe that IEN might play a differential role across various organizational and industry contexts (e.g., Crant, 2000; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Two *Fortune* 500 companies were recruited for this research: one in a high-tech industry (TechCo) and one in financial services (BankCo). TechCo is a well-known technology and office automation products and services vendor whose salespeople sell to clients of all sizes across all industries. At BankCo, we studied their commercial account managers (or salespeople). These account managers arrange loans for corporate clients, attempt to increase customer deposits, and sell fee-based corporate services. TechCo provided a database of 364 salespeople and BankCo provided a database of 144 account managers. The TechCo sample consisted of its entire salesforce in one industrialized country; the BankCo sample was its entire commercial salesforce worldwide.

The design and execution of our survey followed Dillman's (2000) tailored design method. We also consulted work offering guidance on conducting multimethod, multi-informant research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Both firms supported this research by preannouncing the

project to each salesforce, with the salespeople receiving no reward for completing the survey other than a high-level summary of the findings. All responses were recorded through a secure third-party survey web-hosting service, with 206 useable cases achieved for TechCo (56.6%) and 109 for BankCo (75.5%).

Measurement

The identical procedures outlined for Study I were followed in operationalizing the Study II research model (see Appendix II for complete details). All items included on each firm's version of the survey were identical with one exception: the product/inventory SDO.² The six SDO constructs were measured by 7-point disagree/agree Likert scaling. As noted before, IEN was measured with 5-point frequency-based behavioral assessment scaling. As prescribed by the literature, reflective indicators were employed for IEN and all six SDO constructs (Jarvis, Mackenzie, Podsakoff, Mick, & Bearden, 2003).

Overall Performance

Overall performance in the sales role is typically operationalized vis-à-vis either: (a) perceptual/self-reported measures from the salesperson or (b) archival/objective measures of performance from the organization itself. These measures typically refer to the levels of sales generated by the salesperson (e.g., units or dollars) and/or the achievement of his or her sales objectives (e.g., percent of assigned sales quota achieved). Best practices pieces (Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 1995; Rich, Bommer, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Johnson, 1999; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, & Roth, 1998) and a recent comparative study (Plouffe, Hulland, & Wachner, 2009) on the relative efficacy of these different approaches for modeling performance in the sales role indicate that, ideally, both types of measures be utilized in a formative manner in operationalizing overall performance (as per Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Thus, this is the approach taken here.

The objective performance measure was provided by each firm's management from company records.³ For the self-reported measures, we

²Although management at both TechCo and BankCo agreed that salespeople's ability to identify and secure product/inventory would likely impact performance, from an operational standpoint, this meant different things to the salespeople in each of these firms. Our approach was therefore to include on each firm's survey three general measures of product/inventory as well as three firm-specific measures.

³We used percentage of sales quota achieved for TechCo salespeople for the most recently completed fiscal year. For BankCo, we used a composite measure of performance based on the salesperson's achieved loan and deposit growth for the most current fiscal year compared to their assigned targets.

employed Johlke, Duhan, Howell, and Wilkes' (2000) 6-item scale, which is a well-validated scale in the sales literature.⁴ These six self-reported measures of performance were summed into a single subjective performance measure.⁵

Control Variables

We also control for a variety of factors that could have an impact on overall performance, such as gender (e.g., Bemmels, 1988), age (e.g., Levy & Sharma, 1994), work experience, and educational attainment (e.g., Pfeffer, 1985). These control variables have been regularly used in organizational research (e.g., Schmidt, Hunter, & Outerbridge, 1986; Vinchur et al., 1998), with all having been identified as significant predictors of salesperson performance (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985; Ingram & Bellenger, 1983; Wang & Netemeyer, 2002). Specifically, male, older, more experienced,⁶ and more highly educated salespeople, compared to their respective counterparts, have been regularly found to perform in a superior manner. Accordingly, it appears important to control for these variables to ensure that the effects of IEN and the SDOs on overall performance are empirically robust. Because all the control variables represented an index for an observed variable, they were all modeled in a formative manner (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001).

Multimethods

We also adopted a multimethod approach to measuring the key constructs in this second study (as per Kumar, Stern, & Anderson, 1993; Seidler, 1974). The immediate managers of the salespeople at BankCo were asked as key informants to respond to the same items with respect to one or two of their salespeople, selected at random. With this sample of managers, the resultant response rate was 91.8%. If convergence is

⁴This scale employs an 11-point Likert format where respondents rate their performance from: $-5 = \textit{much worse than the other salespeople in this company}$ to $+5 = \textit{much better than the other salespeople in this company}$.

⁵If all seven items (one objective; six subjective) were used to estimate overall performance, the subjective measures would be overweighted. Supporting analyses indicated that the subjective performance scale was highly reliable ($\alpha = .91$ for TechCo and $.94$ for BankCo), which further justifies the summed scale score and our approach.

⁶The five experience control variables items are: "How long have you been in sales (in years)?" "How long have you been in sales in this industry (in years)?" "How long have you been in sales with your current employer (in years)?" "How long have you been selling the products you currently represent (in years)?" And "How long have you been selling in your current sales territory (i.e., the specific customer accounts, industry verticals, and/or geographies you cover – in years)?"

achieved across the managers and their salespeople, this acts as an additional test of reliability (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991). All constructs here were included in the BankCo manager's survey with the exception of overall performance (because archival measures were already available).

Measurement Assessment

Our hypotheses are tested by estimating a series of partial least squares (PLS) models (see Hulland, 1999).⁷ Separate models were tested for TechCo and BankCo, thus allowing for between-firm comparisons of the key results. The PLS measurement models demonstrated acceptable item-level reliability, with all reflective indicators loading on their intended construct at at least .60. In addition, all measures of formative constructs were significant at $p < .05$ or better (see Appendix II for details). The final PLS measurement models contained identical items across both studied organizations, a situation that is helpful because it lends credence to comparisons across contexts. Table 4 summarizes the internal consistency (IC) achieved for the reflective constructs (all but overall performance and the control variables because these are formative, Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The IC values were all acceptable across both firms as they exceeded .70. The Cronbach's alpha values were also acceptable.

Table 5 provides evidence of both convergent and discriminant validity. Consistent with Study I, Table 5 shows that all variables had an average variance extracted (AVE) greater than .50, providing evidence of convergent validity. As evidence of discriminant validity, in all cases, the square root of AVE for each construct exceeds its correlation with all other constructs in the model across both studied organizations.

Our multimethod approach to the measurement of the model constructs acted as an additional check on reliability. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs, see McGraw & Wong, 1996; Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) were used to assess the degree of convergence between the salesperson and their managers. Table 6 summarizes these results. Single measure intraclass correlations report the correlation between dyads on an item-by-item basis, with all ICCs being significant ($p < .05$ or better). Average measure intraclass correlations examine all items associated with a particular construct together and, in the present case, support the convergence of responses between the salespeople and their managers. Table 6 also reports

⁷ A rule of thumb which guides data sizing requirements for PLS is that there be a minimum of ten cases for each predictor variable in any model being estimated (Pfaffenberg and Patterson, 1987). For the evaluation of the structural model in PLS, this implies that there be at least ten cases for each path leading to the construct with the highest number of such predictors. Six (SDO) paths predict performance; hence 60 cases are needed per firm.

TABLE 4
Measurement Assessment (Study II)

Construct	Epistemic orientation	Number of items	Mean	SD	Internal consistency	Alpha (α)
TechCo						
Intraorganizational employee navigation	Reflective	5	4.19	1.24	.84	.73
Resources	Reflective	6	4.82	1.52	.83	.75
Manager alignment	Reflective	4	5.02	1.20	.87	.79
Rule and policy concessions	Reflective	5	4.26	1.19	.91	.88
Product/inventory	Reflective	6	4.82	1.16	.91	.87
Sales assignment	Reflective	4	4.87	1.15	.91	.89
Customer coordination	Reflective	4	4.83	1.30	.91	.87
Overall performance	Formative	2	na	na	na	na
BankCo						
Intraorganizational employee navigation	Reflective	5	4.21	1.26	.84	.74
Resources	Formative	6	5.00	1.29	.86	.80
Manager alignment	Reflective	4	4.71	1.30	.90	.86
Rule and policy concessions	Reflective	5	3.41	1.23	.91	.89
Product/inventory	Reflective	6	4.59	1.53	.88	.84
Sales assignment	Reflective	4	3.85	1.22	.92	.88
Customer coordination	Reflective	4	5.63	1.13	.89	.85
Overall performance	Formative	2	na	na	na	na

Cronbach's alphas achieved by combining the manager and salesperson data (McGraw & Wong, 1996).

Tests of Hypotheses

Overview

Table 7 shows the significant path coefficients and the variance explained (R^2) for the SDOs and overall performance. An initial observation is the encouraging amount of variance explained in performance (TechCo: $R^2 = 15.6\%$; BankCo: $R^2 = 9.3\%$). These results are promising because R^2 values at these levels either meet (BankCo) or exceed (TechCo) the

TABLE 5
Correlations Among Constructs (Study II)

TechCo	Constructs							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Intraorganizational employee navigation	.71							
	.51^a							
2. Resources	.38	.71						
3. Product/Inventory	.31	.39	.79					
4. Sales assignment	.21	.36	.33	.86				
5. Manager alignment	.36	.29	.37	.43	.79			
6. Customer coordination	.31	.39	.45	.25	.30	.84		
7. Rule & policy concessions	.09	.07	.28	.13	.25	.06	.82	
8. Overall performance	.22	.17	.15	.27	.34	.20	.03	na
BankCo								
1. Intraorganizational employee navigation	.72							
	.52							
2. Resources	.19	.74						
3. Product/Inventory	.33	.44	.74					
4. Sales assignment	.22	.38	.45	.86				
5. Manager alignment	.37	.26	.37	.47	.84			
6. Customer coordination	.25	.45	.41	.30	.26	.82		
7. Rule & policy concessions	.22	.02	.37	.26	.30	.14	.67	
8. Overall performance	.31	-.01	.09	.17	.28	.13	.12	na

^aThe lower values on the diagonals are each construct's AVE; the upper bolded value is the $\sqrt{\text{of each AVE}}$.

amount of variance that is typically explained when overall performance is the dependent variable, is operationalized in this manner, and when salespeople are the focal employee type under examination (that is, R^2 values between 10–20%. See Churchill et al., 1985; Vinchur et al., 1998). In addition, the higher R^2 on overall performance exhibited for TechCo provides some evidence that IEN may be relatively more important in

TABLE 6
*Intraclass Correlation Coefficients and Cronbach's Alphas: BankCo
 Salespeople and Their Immediate Managers (Study II)*

Construct	<i>F</i> value	<i>df</i>	Single measure intra- class correlation	Average measure intra- class correlation	Cronbach's alpha
Intraorganizational employee navigation	5.668	131	.48*	.82*	.83
Resources	5.413	131	.39*	.79*	.82
Product/inventory	5.959	131	.37*	.78*	.83
Sales assignment	8.457	131	.58*	.83*	.88
Manager alignment	3.321	131	.27*	.65*	.70
Customer coordination	6.025	131	.47*	.82*	.83
Rule and policy concessions	2.954	131	.19	.62	.66

Significance levels reported: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed distribution).

some organizational contexts than others, though we should be cautious with this assertion as, ultimately, the formative measure of overall performance for each of the TechCo and BankCo models comprised both a shared measure (i.e., the self-reported performance scale) as well as the firm-specific archival performance measure.

Hypothesis 4x

At both firms, the relationship between IEN and the six hypothesized SDOs was strong. At TechCo, five of six such relationships were supported (Hypotheses 4a,b,d,e,f), with only the Hypothesis 4c relationship not being supported (i.e., the IEN to rule and policy concessions). At BankCo, all six relationships were supported (Hypotheses 4a-f). This provides evidence that IEN is an important precursor to the garnering of these valuable, socially derived variables.

Hypothesis 5x

Overall, the Hypothesis 5x series received mixed support in both samples. At TechCo, both manager alignment (Hypothesis 5b: $\beta = .29$, $p < .01$) and sales assignment (Hypothesis 5e: $\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) were significant predictors of overall performance. The remaining SDOs did not have a significant impact on performance; hence, Hypotheses 5a,c,d,f were not supported. At BankCo, three SDOs had a significant effect on overall performance: resources (Hypothesis 5a: $\beta = .12$, $p < .05$), manager alignment (Hypothesis 5b: $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$), and customer coordination

TABLE 7
PLS Structural Model Results (Study II)

PLS Structural Model Relationships	TechCo		BankCo	
	β	R^2	β	R^2
Hypothesis 4 series of hypotheses:				
Navigation → Resources (H4a)	.38***	14.4%	.19*	3.7%
Navigation → Manager Alignment (H4b)	.36***	12.7%	.37***	13.9%
Navigation → Rule & Policy Concessions (H4c)	-	-	.22*	4.7%
Navigation → Product/Inventory (H4d)	.31***	9.3%	.33***	11.0%
Navigation → Sales Assignment (H4e)	.21**	4.6%	.22*	4.7%
Navigation → Customer Coordination (H4f)	.31***	9.6%	.25*	6.0%
Hypothesis 5 series of hypotheses				
Resources → Performance (H5a)	-	-	.12*	-
Manager Alignment → Performance (H5b)	.29**	-	.25**	-
Rule and Policy Concessions → Performance (H5c)	-	-	-	-
Product/Inventory → Performance (H5d)	-	-	-	-
Sales Assignment → Performance (H5e)	.14*	-	-	-
Customer Coordination → Performance (H5f)	-	-	.12*	-
Explained Variance (R^2) in Overall Performance		15.6%		9.3%
Control variables				
Work Experience → Performance	.25**	-	.37**	-
Educational Attainment → Performance	-	-	-	-
Age → Performance	-	-	-	-
Gender → Performance	-	-	-	-

Only significant PLS model structural path betas are listed.
 Significance levels reported: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed distribution).

(Hypothesis 5f: $\beta = .12, p < .05$). Given this, Hypotheses 5c,d,e were not supported in this setting. Interestingly, the manager alignment SDO was a significant predictor of overall performance in both settings.

Control Variables

The impact of three of the four control variables embedded in this study—or age, gender, and educational attainment—was negligible. Experience was the only significant control variable in both samples (TechCo: $\beta = .25, p < .01$; BankCo: $\beta = .37, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 6

Various mediation tests, each with different pros and cons, exist in the literature (Wood, Goodman, Beckman, & Cook, 2008). Because the basic IEN model in Study II is predicated on full mediation (as per Figure 1), we use a test that directly estimates the indirect effects of the mediators (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006). A test that is based on a partial mediation, such as Baron and Kenny (1986), is less appropriate in the present context

because it relies on the change in the relationship between the predictor and the independent variable.

To test Hypothesis 6, we employed the multimediation procedure explained by Preacher and Hayes (2008). As they recommend, we used their SPSS macro and focused on the parameters generated by bootstrapping (based on 5000 samples). This method allows the estimation of (a) the total indirect effects of all considered mediators as well as (b) each individualized indirect effect. We focus on the bootstrapping procedure because it does not rely on the normality assumption, which is questionable for small samples.

Building on our prior findings, this analysis focuses on the most relevant mediators—that is, the SDOs that are both significantly predicted by IEN (Hypothesis 4x) and significant predictors of performance (Hypothesis 5x). Accordingly, for TechCo, we calculated the overall indirect effects mediated by the “sales assignment” and “manager alignment” SDOs. For BankCo, our model incorporated the “resources,” “manager alignment,” and “customer coordination” SDOs as the key mediators. The presentation of these simplified models is more parsimonious than the models with all six SDOs, and the conclusions remain unchanged.

For TechCo, the bootstrapping procedure showed that the total indirect effects were significant (total indirect effects = .20; $p < .001$). This statistic means that “sales assignment” and “manager alignment,” taken as a whole, significantly transfer the influence of IEN on overall performance. For BankCo, the total indirect effects—mediated by the “resources,” “manager alignment,” and “customer coordination” SDOs—were also significant (total indirect effects = .15; $p < .05$). Overall, these findings are supportive of Hypothesis 6.

Next, we analyzed the influence of each individual mediator. For TechCo, only the indirect effect of “manager alignment” was significant (indirect effect = .15; $p < .01$). The path mediated by the “sales assignment” SDO was marginally significant (indirect effect = .05; $p = .06$). Although the contrast effect between these two mediators failed to achieve significance ($p = .07$), “manager alignment” seems the key mediator that explains most of the total indirect effects in this sample. We noted a similar pattern for BankCo: the indirect effect with “manager alignment” was significant (indirect effect = .18; $p < .05$), but the indirect effect was neither significant for “resources” (effect = -0.03; $p = .51$) nor for “customer coordination” (effect = .01; $p = .93$). In this sample, we found significant contrasts that showed that the effect of “manager alignment” was greater than those of “resources” ($p < .05$), or “customer coordination” ($p < .05$). Overall, these results indicate that “manager alignment” is the key SDO that mediates most of the effect of IEN and overall performance given both samples. We comment further on the potential reasons for the manager alignment SDO’s prominent role in the ensuing discussion.

Discussion

For the Hypothesis 4x and Hypothesis 5x series, in all, we found that 7 of 12 hypotheses were supported at TechCo and 9 of 12 at BankCo. This signals a reasonable degree of nomological validity for the research model presented in Figure 1. In addition, we noted that IEN was important in both organizations for garnering SDOs but that the impact of the SDOs on performance was more idiosyncratic and context-specific.

Hypothesis 4 received strong support: IEN significantly predicted five of the six SDOs at TechCo and all six at BankCo. Finding adequate support for Hypothesis 4 was a first step in understanding the role of the SDOs within the proactivity domain. However, we note that the R^2 that IEN explained in the SDOs was generally modest, from a low of 3.7% to a high of 14.4% (see Table 7). This is not overly surprising, however, as other factors beyond navigation are likely involved in determining the quantity and/or quality of the SDOs received by employees.

The support for Hypothesis 5 was mixed: Only two SDOs had a significant impact on performance at TechCo and only three at BankCo. Although salespeople's navigation does assist in garnering most of the SDOs at both firms, in some cases, attaining these SDOs does not always impact their overall performance. For instance, the "product/inventory" SDO exhibited nonsignificant results on performance in both studied organizations, perhaps an indication that it is simply not germane in the current empirical settings. The nonsignificant association between some of the SDOs and performance also raises the issue of moderation effects. For instance, some personality traits—such as Conscientiousness—might help explain when some SDOs have a significant effect on performance.

Importantly, we confirmed Hypothesis 6 and found that the SDOs taken as a whole have significant total indirect effects in both samples. This supports our contention that the effect of IEN on performance is explained by the SDOs derived by employees. Perhaps more important, we found that being aligned with a top manager was the most influential mediator in both organizations. This particular finding is important for several reasons. First, it indicates that the performance of salespeople can be better understood given the relationship they maintain with their immediate managers, and IEN seems to be a critical pathway through which the employee facilitates this. Second, manager alignment is the only considered SDO that relates to managers and superiors, whereas the other five SDOs involve coworker types who work across a range of organizational levels that are not managerial/supervisory in nature (Klein et al., 1994).

The strong results for the manager alignment SDO therefore suggest that future research should pay special attention to the "employee-manager" dyad. In addition, a broader question also emerges here, that being: What plausible reasons might exist for the strength of this finding?

One might be a “nonskill” explanation for specific managers—in other words, they themselves might have the needed political ties, social capital, networks, and so on, which facilitate high performance for their employees. If true, this would imply that IEN’s effects on performance may actually be attenuated by factors associated with individual managers and not necessarily the employee’s “alignment” with them *per se*. A second reason could be that the employee’s navigational efforts might serve to identify needed resources, inputs, information, and so on, which then position the manager themselves to better do their jobs, with this then acting as the meditational pathway to performance noted in the findings. If this supposition is true, it would actually suggest that, although the individual employee’s motivation for engaging in IEN might be selfish in nature, that this need not necessarily have “dark-side” effects on the broader organization—if the manager in question channels the fruits of the employee’s navigational efforts in ways that benefit the work group and/or organization, versus just the navigating employee. Possibilities like these with respect to the managerial alignment SDO bode well for future research scrutiny.

Limitations

This study should be tempered by acknowledging certain limitations, with a starting point being two related issues surrounding the generalizability of the findings. First, the participants of this study were limited to salespeople and their immediate managers. Hence, the broad range of coworkers with whom the employee interacts inside the organization was not explicitly accommodated in the research design. It would thus be interesting to garner the reactions of the coworkers with whom the salesperson goes to for SDOs. Efforts in this direction, however, might necessitate more complex network-based research designs (e.g., Fombrun, 1982). Second, in examining just the salesforces at two large organizations, this then begs the question as to what extent the results can be generalized to other types of employees? Support for the generalizability of the findings, however, is the consistent pattern of results in terms of the variance explained in the dependent variable of overall performance as well as drivers of this across both firms. Going forward then, examination of other types of employees who have both the need and the means to navigate (e.g., job crafters, such as those in HR) becomes intriguing.

A second limitation is that data on both predictors and outcomes were collected from the same source (or salespeople), and there is thus again the possibility of a common methods bias. However, we believe we addressed this in two ways. First, both objective and self-reported measures of overall performance were incorporated into the study’s design. Second, there was significant convergence between the salespeople and their managers on all exogenous variables.

A final limitation refers to the presence of several nonsignificant paths in the research model, especially between the SDOs and overall performance. Ultimately, the absence of significant results may be a function of idiosyncrasies associated with the two studied companies, or the specificity of the organizational actor, which was examined (salespeople). It is also plausible that regardless of the empirical setting, these paths are simply theoretically invalid. Therefore, additional work in other industries and with other employee types seems appropriate to further explore these issues. Future research should also examine potential moderation effects, which might signal needed boundary conditions before a proactive behavior such as IEN can come to impact performance.

General Discussion

Contributions

The primary contribution of this article is to introduce to the proactivity literature a new construct that captures the notion of an employee's intraorganizational workplace navigation. In Study I, evidence was offered as to the discriminant, nomological, and criterion-related validities of IEN. We also found that IEN is a significant predictor of job satisfaction and overall performance as measured in a heterogeneous setting. In Study II, additional evidence was offered to show that IEN does impact overall performance, specifically for business-to-business salespeople. Importantly, Study II also showed that this relationship is more richly contextualized when a class of intervening variables—labeled “socially derived outcomes” (SDOs)—are simultaneously considered. Specifically, we found that “manager alignment” is the most critical SDO, as it explained most of the mediation effects in both organizations examined in Study II (TechCo and BankCo). The analysis reported in Study II also provides initial evidence that the effects of SDOs on the employee's overall performance can vary quite markedly across industries and companies. Thus, Study II supports the recent conjecture of Grant and Ashford (2008) and Parker et al. (2010) that some of the most fertile research directions within the proactivity domain reside in garnering a better understanding of the mediating mechanisms (e.g., SDOs) through which proactive behaviors—such as IEN—come to impact and shape overall performance.

Practical Implications and Management Challenges

Given the findings reported here, this article suggests that managers should probably more clearly acknowledge the role of proactive IEN in thinking through the success factors underlying exemplary

performance in many different types of work roles and organizational contexts. Successful employees in critical boundary-spanning roles, such as in business-to-business sales, have traditionally managed the inefficiencies and complexity inherent in their work processes and internal environments on their own (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). It may be time to acknowledge that developing and nurturing navigational behavior should not be left to chance. Rather, managers should consider strategies and interventions that might nurture navigational behavior.

IEN thus points to a new dimension of managers' coaching, mentoring, and support roles. As a proactive workplace behavior, IEN provides a fresh explanatory lens as to *why* some employees always seem to get resources, plum job assignments, to work under the most revered managers, and so forth. They have the navigational skills and wherewithal to seek out and secure these types of valued workplace inputs. Therefore, addressing perceived injustices and guiding employees to the understanding that they too have to learn to navigate the broader organization becomes a coaching opportunity.

In a related line of thinking, this research should also get managers thinking about whether or not IEN can be developed through training. Perhaps individuals who excel at IEN could transfer some of their prowess at this form of proactivity to others in the organization through one-on-one training, mentoring, job shadowing, and related types of interventions. If the behaviors inherent in IEN cannot be taught, then managers may be well-served to find a way to identify competency in navigational behavior as a key criterion in the hiring process. Here managers would have to become adept at uncovering IEN potential through, for example, revamped behavioral interviewing techniques, role playing, or measurement instruments.

Some of the most intriguing implications of this work surround the apparent paradox that IEN might actually pose for firms (Lewis, 2000). A question to consider carefully in this regard is this: Is navigation a "good thing"? Scholars who contribute to the growing body of knowledge on proactivity have recently noted that the majority of research attention in this area continues to be fixated on proactive behaviors that benefit the broader organization (e.g., Parker & Collins, 2010). However as Grant and Ashford (2008, pp. 24–25) and Belschak and Den Hartog (2010, p. 478) have noted, there is an entire branch of proactivity research that remains largely unexplored: Work with a focus on proactive behaviors that benefit the individual first and foremost, and not necessarily the organization. Thus being "good" at IEN may only be advantageous for the individual employee (e.g., Bolino, 1999). This is perhaps even more likely for boundary spanners (like salespeople) who are extrinsically motivated to engage in such behavior because of compensation plans, bonuses, commissions, and the like.

Spreitzer and her colleagues (2005, p. 546) pick up on this notion in the conclusion of their theoretical piece on workplace “thriving,” noting that “for units to thrive, individual thriving cannot occur at the expense of the thriving of others or the learning and vitality of the collective.” And yet, that is precisely the type of counterintuitive reality that IEN could be promoting within modern workplaces. In this regard, let us again consider the focal employee type examined in the latter portion of this work (salespeople in Study II). Salespeople who are adept at IEN may disproportionately garner SDOs, and therein lies the paradox: The individual employee wins, but the broader organization may lose (Lewis, 2000). For instance, limited organizational resources or scarce inventory may end up being allocated to less profitable or less strategic customers simply because the salesperson responsible for managing those customer relationships is a shrewd internal navigator. From a completely different frame of reference, salespeople who are less skilled at navigation may end up assigned to the toughest territories or being supervised by lackluster sales managers—the exact *opposite* of what they actually need to succeed. Although the prospect of a workforce uniformly high in a proactive behavior such as IEN may at first glance seem appealing, the preceding suggests that this may not always be the case.

There is a related issue to consider. If in any organization, high levels of navigation are *required* for an employee to be successful and perform well in their jobs, perhaps this is evidence that the organization itself has serious faults. There may be excessive hurdles and bureaucracy, process breakdowns and misfires, and/or favoritism in allocating key resources, job assignments, and the like. Any of these contingencies might force the employee to engage in navigation behavior in order to simply survive, let alone prosper. So in these instances, perhaps where attention needs to be focused is on fixing the broader organization itself.

Future Research Directions

In terms of future research directions that are stimulated by the present article, we offer several and, in so doing, attempt to organize them in order of priority. This work highlighted that IEN is a distinct and valid proactive workplace behavior that has a positive impact on overall performance. This thus raises questions about its precise antecedents. Although we examined its linkage with a series of personality traits and individual differences in Study I, we would suggest that a more deliberate and thorough treatment of the motivational factors underlying IEN is a high priority research area. For instance, future work could study the effects of motivational states belonging to the “can do” (can I do this behavior) and “reason to” (what is this behavior going to do for me) categories identified by Parker et al. (2010, pp. 834–838) as potential antecedents of IEN.

There is also much more work to do regarding the SDOs as a mediating mechanism within the proactive workplace behaviors domain. A first and logical step in this regard would be to test some or all six of the SDOs offered in Study II in other empirical contexts to see whether or not nonsignificant paths reported in this article might prove significant. We also suggest additional work that further expands both the “organizational” and “role-specific” categories of SDOs (e.g., with other employee types beyond salespeople).

In addition, new work could push further by more fully examining the role “work experience” plays on both IEN and on the garnering of SDOs. Here, recall that work experience was a significant control variable in both Studies I and II. Beyond this, future work could further explore the interesting finding unearthed in Study II regarding the “manager alignment” SDO, which was identified as the key mediator of the IEN-to-performance relationship at both studied organizations. Although purely a speculative assertion, could it be that this mediating variable might also prove efficacious in enhancing existing, known effects between other proactive workplace behaviors and overall performance, or other outcomes of interest?

Other areas we see as being ripe for attention would be to embed and test other potential mediating mechanisms (e.g., beyond the notion of SDOs) between IEN and overall performance. Although overall performance (e.g., Grant et al., 2009) was the primary outcome of interest across this article, there are other variants of job and workplace performance that could also represent intriguing avenues for future research (for example, see Campbell et al., 1993; Griffin et al., 2007). Beyond performance, new work could examine IEN’s impact on other interesting outcomes such as customer loyalty or the employee’s organizational commitment. Finally, future studies in this area could move beyond linear, process-based frameworks and more fully consider the complex temporal dynamics and feedback loops, which might be at work between proactive behaviors such as IEN and overall performance.

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APPENDIX I
Measures and CFA Results for Study I

Construct items	Loadings
Proactive person–environment fit behaviors	
Intraorganizational employee navigation (average variance extracted (AVE) = .51; 5-point Likert scale)	
1. I learn as much as possible about my organization.	.73
2. I examine my own company's organization charts and personnel directories.	.67
3. I utilize my existing contacts and network within this organization.	.72
4. I keep up to date with personnel changes within my company.	.68
5. I seek out others in my organization who can help me fulfill my job tasks.	.76
Network ability (AVE = .66; 7-point Likert scale)	
1. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.	.82
2. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.	.81
3. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.	.79
4. I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.	.84
Social astuteness (AVE = .54; 7-point Likert scale)	
1. I understand people very well.	.76
2. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.	.76
3. I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others.	.78
4. I pay close attention to people's facial expressions.	.64
Propolitical behavior (AVE = .82; 5-point Likert scale)	
1. I am actively involved in politics at work.	.83
2. I participate in organizational politics on a daily basis.	.97
OUTCOMES	
Job satisfaction (AVE = .73; 7-point Likert scale)	
1. I feel fairly well-satisfied with my present job.	.81
2. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	.84
3. Most days, I am enthusiastic about my work.	.88
4. I like my job better than the average worker does.	.88
5. I find real enjoyment in my work.	.87
Overall performance (AVE = .63; 7-point Likert scale)	
1. I adequately complete my assigned duties.	.77
2. I fulfill the responsibilities specified in my job description.	.92

continued

APPENDIX I (continued)

Construct Items	Loadings
3. I perform the tasks that are expected of me.	.92
4. I meet the formal performance requirements of my job.	.84
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.	.39
PERSONALITY TRAITS / ANTECEDENTS	
Conscientiousness (AVE = .58; 9-point scale)	
1. Disorganized, organized	.60
2. Irresponsible, responsible	.86
3. Negligent, conscientious	.86
4. Impractical, practical	.70
5. Lazy, hardworking	.75
Trait competitiveness (AVE = .70; 7-point Likert scale)	
1. I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others.	.80
2. It is important to me to perform better than others on a task.	.83
3. I feel that winning is important in both work and games.	.89
4. I try harder when I am in competition with other people.	.80
5. Being # 1 is important to me.	.85
Emotional Stability (AVE = .55; 9-point scale)	
1. Angry, calm	.79
2. Tense, relaxed	.95
3. Nervous, at ease	.89
4. Envious, not envious	.48
5. Emotional, unemotional	.42

APPENDIX II
Measures for Study II

Construct items	TechCo loadings	BankCo loadings
Intraorganizational employee navigation		
1. I learn as much as possible about my organization.	.73	.76
2. I examine my own company's organization charts and personnel directories.	.79	.74
3. I utilize my existing contacts and network within this organization.	.61	.73
4. I keep up to date with personnel changes within my company.	.72	.67
5. I seek out others in my organization who can help me fulfill my sales (i.e., job) tasks.	.70	.71
Resources—"Within this company..."		
1. ...management gives me the discretionary expense spending I need to sell effectively (e.g., for sales-related travel or customer entertainment).	.69	.69

continued

APPENDIX II (continued)

Construct items	TechCo loadings	BankCo loadings
2 . . .my coworkers give me sufficient amounts of key marketing materials (e.g., product literature).	.72	.85
3 . . .my coworkers give me what I need in terms of trial products, "free-bees" and other needed promotional resources.	.70	.79
4 . . .my coworkers get me access to all of the technological resources I need to sell effectively (such as personal computers, faxes, cellular phones, and computer presentation projectors).	.71	.71
5 . . .management gives me the sales training and professional development I need to sell effectively.	.71	.67
Manager alignment—"Within this company. . ."		
1 . . .well-regarded managers have wanted me to sell for them versus other managers.	.88	.87
2 . . .high performing managers have ensured that I am on their team.	.90	.89
3 . . .certain managers have politicked and lobbied so that I end up working for them.	.73	.84
4 . . .I usually end up working for a highly competent manager.	.65	.74
Rule and policy concessions—"Within this company. . ."		
1 . . .my coworkers sometimes bend organizational rules on my behalf.	.76	.77
2 . . .my coworkers sometimes break organizational rules so that my customers' needs are met.	.71	.75
3 . . .my coworkers 'stretch' the rules for me more than they do for others.	.82	.88
4 . . .my coworkers sometimes interpret organizational rules in ways that are favorable to me.	.87	.89
5 . . . my coworkers sometimes relax the 'official rules' as they pertain to me.	.90	.79
Customer coordination—"At my company. . ."		
1 . . .I get the assistance of key others that I need when coordinating the details of my transactions.	.89	.88
2 . . .I get key others to act as additional internal points of contact for my customers.	.87	.88
3 . . .my coworkers give me the coordination assistance I need to maximize my productivity.	.87	.85
4 . . .my coworkers ensure that my customers do not 'fall through the cracks'.	.65	.66
Sales assignment—"At this company. . ."		
1 . . .management assigns me to a sales territory or assignment that will yield a high income for me.	.84	.82
2 . . .my manager ensures that I end up in a 'preferred' selling territory.	.89	.91

continued

APPENDIX II (continued)

Construct items	TechCo loadings	BankCo loadings
3. . . .management assigns me to a sales territory or assignment that is highly valued by the other salespeople here.	.86	.93
4. . . .management assigns me to an 'important' sales territory or assignment.	.85	.77
Overall performance ^a		
1. My ability to sell products/services with higher profit margins.		
2. My ability to generate a high dollar amount of sales in my territory.		
3. My ability to quickly generate sales of new company products/services.	summed	summed
4. My ability to produce a high market share for my company in my territory measure.	.92	.96
5. My ability to exceed the sales targets and objectives that are assigned to me.		
6. My ability to identify and sell to major accounts/customers in my territory.		
7. Archival measure of employee performance (obtained from company records).	.16	.18
Product/inventory—"Within this company. . ."		
1. (ALL) . . .my coworkers get me the products and/or services that my customers seek.	.21	.38
2. (ALL) . . .my coworkers successfully lobby for scarce products/services on my behalf.	.77	.49
3. (ALL) . . .my coworkers do more to assist me in securing the products and/or services I need for my customers than they do for the 'average' salesperson.	.90	.26
4. (TechCo) . . .my coworkers successfully lobby for popular products/services on my behalf.	–	.36
5. (TechCo) . . .my coworkers assist me by securing a sufficient volume of the products/ services I best like selling.	–	.27
6. (TechCo) . . .when products or services are offered to the marketplace for the first time, my coworkers manage to secure a sufficient amount to satisfy what my customers demand.	–	.17
7. (BankCo) . . .my coworkers process 'credit-related applications and information' on my behalf in a timely manner.	.31	–
8. (BankCo) . . .my coworkers automatically deal with 'red tape' and other issues related to my client's financial affairs.	.24	–
9. (BankCo) . . .my coworkers 'get around' caps and ceilings for me on specific types of loans and deposit products if current fiscal targets have already been met.	.23	–

^aEpistemically presented in a formative manner; all items significant at $p < .05$ or better.