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The "dark side" of OCB: Examining the relationship between citizenship behavior and work-to-family conflict

Rebecca H. Klein
University of South Florida

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The “Dark Side” of OCB: Examining the Relationship between
Citizenship Behavior and Work-to-Family Conflict

by

Rebecca H. Klein

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
University of South Florida

Major Professor: Tammy D. Allen, Ph.D.
Walter C. Borman, Ph.D.
Vicky Phares, Ph.D.

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time, gender, discretionary

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To all my friends and loved ones, without whom I could never have accomplished this feat. In particular, I dedicate this thesis to my parents, who taught me that I could accomplish anything I set my mind on, and whose never-ending love and support has made me the person I am today. And also to my fiancé, for all the words of encouragement, patience, and technical support that he has provided along the way.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	iii
List of Figures	v
Abstract	vi
Chapter One – Introduction	1
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): Defining the Construct	3
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): Positive Biases	6
Work-Family Conflict (WFC): An Overview	8
Work Time as a Mediator to the OCB—WIF Relationship	10
Role Overload as a Mediator to the OCB—WIF Relationship	11
OCBO, OCBI, and WIF	13
The Moderating Effects of Gender	14
The Moderating Effects of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary	16
Hypotheses	18
Chapter Two – Method	19
Participants	19
Measures	21
Procedure	24
Chapter Three – Results	26
Preliminary Analyses	26
Hypothesis Testing	27
Exploratory Analyses	45
Chapter Four – Discussion	56
Theoretical Implications	57
Practical Implications	59
Limitations	60
Future Directions	62
Conclusion	64
References	65
Appendices	74
Appendix A: Hypothesized Relationships	75

Appendix B: Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Scale Items	76
Appendix C: Work-to-Family Conflict Scale Items	78
Appendix D: Role Overload Scale Items	79
Appendix E: Individual Initiative Scale Items	80

List of Tables

Table 1	Descriptive Statistics	28
Table 2	Intercorrelations among Study Variables	29
Table 3	Regression of OCB (Self-Reported) on WIF	32
Table 4	Regression of OCBI (Self-Reported) on WIF	32
Table 5	Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on WIF	33
Table 6	Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF	33
Table 7	Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF	34
Table 8	Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF	34
Table 9	Regression of OCB (Self-Reported) on Work Time	36
Table 10	Regression of OCBI (Self-Reported) on Work Time	36
Table 11	Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on Work Time	37
Table 12	Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time	37
Table 13	Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time	38
Table 14	Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time	38
Table 15	Regression of (Self-Reported) OCB on Role Overload	40
Table 16	Regression of (Self-Reported) OCBI on Role Overload	40
Table 17	Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on Role Overload	41
Table 18	Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload	41
Table 19	Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload	42

Table 20	Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload	42
Table 21	Moderated Regression of Gender on Work Time and WIF	43
Table 22	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCB (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	46
Table 23	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBI (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	46
Table 24	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBO (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	47
Table 25	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCB (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	47
Table 26	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	48
Table 27	Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	48
Table 28	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCB (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	49
Table 29	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBI (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	50
Table 30	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBO (Self-Reported) and Role Overload	51
Table 31	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCB (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	52
Table 32	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	53
Table 33	Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload	54
Table 34	Regression of Individual Initiative (Self-Reported) on WIF	54
Table 35	Regression of Individual Initiative (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF	55

List of Figures

- Figure 1. Hypothesized relationships between OCB and WIF, including mediating and moderating variables. 76

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Rebecca H. Klein

ABSTRACT

Research on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) has focused on the positive aspects of the construct, neglecting the possibility that individuals who engage in OCB may suffer negative consequences. Thus, the present study expands the literature by examining the possibility that OCB is also related to negative individual-level factors, such as work-to-family conflict (WIF). In a replication and extension of Bolino and Turnley’s (2005) research, the present study offers an in-depth analysis of the relationship between OCB and WIF, examining two potential mediators (work time and role overload) and two potential moderators (gender and perceptions of OCB as discretionary). Two hundred and ninety-six participants, recruited from the alumni database of a large southeastern university, Craig’s List, and a snowball approach, completed surveys. Additionally, supervisor-ratings of OCB were obtained for a subsample of 35 participants. Study hypotheses were tested using zero-order correlations and multiple regression analyses. No support was found for a relationship between OCB and WIF, nor was there support for the moderating role of gender and perceptions of OCB as discretionary. Theoretical and practical implications, as well as future directions, are discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and related constructs have received an increasing amount of research attention over the past decade (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). As a result, much progress has been made in addressing conceptual ambiguities with the construct, as well as uncovering a variety of antecedents and consequences to citizenship behavior (see Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; and Podsakoff et al., 2000 for reviews). Despite the field's growing knowledge base, the vast majority of research on citizenship behavior still focuses on the positive aspects of such action, clinging to the prevailing assumptions that OCB stems from non-self-serving motives and results in beneficial organizational- and individual-level outcomes (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004). However, several researchers have recently suggested that there may also be a "dark side" to citizenship behavior, advocating the inclusion of a broader range of criterion variables, such as overload, role stress, and work-family conflict (Bolino et al., 2004; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993).

Although little empirical research has tested these propositions, Bolino and Turnley (2005) recently found evidence that OCB is, in fact, associated with negative consequences for employees, including role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict (WFC). Moreover, gender was found to moderate the relationship between

citizenship behavior and WFC, with females exhibiting a stronger relationship between the two variables. These findings represent an important step toward understanding how contextual performance relates to individual-level outcomes; however, more research is clearly needed.

Accordingly, the present study aimed to replicate and extend Bolino and Turnley's (2005) research, focusing specifically on the relationship between OCB and work-interfering-with-family conflict (WIF). Bolino and Turnley (2005) focused on one type of OCB, individual initiative, and, as they point out in their discussion section, their measure of individual initiative (developed for that particular study) may be more related to work time and WIF than previously developed OCB scales. Thus, the present study utilized a more inclusive, psychometrically established measure of this construct, testing the veracity of the OCB-WIF link. Additionally, as is common in the OCB literature, supervisor ratings of OCB were collected, while Bolino and Turnley (2005) utilized spousal ratings. Because spousal ratings are rarely used in OCB research, it is unclear the degree to which spouse and supervisor ratings converge. However, given that other research has shown that results do vary by source of OCB (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000), it is important to assess whether the relationship between OCB and WIF holds with supervisor-reported citizenship behavior. The current study also extended upon Bolino and Turnley's (2005) research by examining two potential mediating variables – work time and role overload – to the relationship between OCB and WIF. Finally, two moderators were investigated, including gender, in continuation with Bolino and Turnley's (2005) findings, and individual differences in the degree that OCB is perceived as non-discretionary. By using a more fine-grained measure of organizational

citizenship behavior, as well as examining both mediating and moderating variables affecting its relationship with WIF, the present study intends to shed light on a largely neglected area within the OCB field.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): Defining the Construct

Organizational citizenship behavior, originally defined as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4), was developed as an extension of Katz and Kahn’s (1966, 1978) work. Using an open systems model, Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) proposed that organizations must elicit three patterns of employee behavior in order to maintain effectiveness: attracting and retaining membership, ensuring an acceptable level of role performance consistency, and evoking “innovative and spontaneous behavior: performance beyond role requirements for accomplishments of organizational functions” (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 337). Thus, Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) distinguish between dependable role performance and extra-role behavior, with the latter including such acts as cooperating with co-workers and promoting a favorable work climate. Drawing upon these ideas, Organ and colleagues coined the term “organizational citizenship behavior,” originally introduced as a means of broadening the performance domain, thereby helping to explain the surprisingly low observed correlations between productivity and job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988).

Although OCB is considered the most well-known and researched among related concepts (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), several alternative constructs have been described as well, including extra-role behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1995), contextual

performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), and organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). While there is much overlap among these terms, subtle differences exist. For example, unlike extra-role behavior and the original definition of OCB, contextual performance, defined as behaviors that “do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73), does not exclude behaviors that are in the job description or that are formally rewarded. Moreover, organizational spontaneity only includes extra-role behaviors, though such behaviors may be rewarded (George & Brief, 1992). Finally, prosocial organizational behavior is described in terms of the employees' *intentions* to benefit the organization, so the actual behavior can be either functional or dysfunctional (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Despite these subtle conceptual distinctions, the items used to measure the various constructs are often very similar, tapping such behaviors as helping others, staying late or working weekends, performing at levels that exceed minimum requirements, and tolerating inconveniences on the job (Bolino et al., 2004).

Variations among these definitions highlight two points of contention that have arisen in conceptualizing these constructs: whether such behaviors are truly discretionary and whether they are recognized by the formal reward system. In the OCB literature, “discretionary” refers to behaviors that are not in formal job descriptions and that are not an enforceable part of the role. However, several researchers have pointed out that there is ambiguity in the boundary between task performance and OCB (Graham, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 1995) and that the distinction between in-role and

extra-role behaviors often varies across persons and times (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Additionally, although Organ's (1988) original definition of OCB stipulated that such behaviors are not directly rewarded, Podsakoff et al. (1993) provide numerous reasons why managers may take them into account, including norms of reciprocity and fairness, the accessibility of OCB in memory, implicit assumptions about what makes a good employee, and attributional processes. Moreover, empirical research has supported that managerial performance ratings are, in fact, influenced by citizenship behaviors (Allen & Rush, 1998; Conway, 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000; Werner, 1994). In fact, after conducting a meta-analysis of relevant lab and field studies, Podsakoff et al. (2000) concluded that OCB is at least as influential as is in-role performance in predicting managerial ratings/personnel decisions, even after controlling for common method variance. In response to these findings and criticisms, Organ (1997) recently modified the definition of OCB, removing the stipulations that such behavior is discretionary and not rewarded. Thus, for the purposes of this paper, OCB is defined accordingly.

Another aspect of citizenship behavior that has suffered from a lack of consensus is the dimensionality of the construct. Among the various factor structures used to describe OCB, the most common are a two-factor, a three-factor, and a five factor solution. The two-factor solution differentiates behaviors aimed at helping individuals (OCBI) from those directed at the organization (OCBO; Williams & Anderson, 1991). More recently, Coleman and Borman (2000) found support for three factors; the first two, interpersonal citizenship performance and organizational citizenship performance, significantly overlap with OCBI and OCBO, respectively. However, they also found

support for a third factor, labeled job/task conscientiousness, which includes behaviors that benefit the job/task. Although both of these solutions define citizenship behavior according to the *target* of the act, other researchers have used the *type* of behavior to differentiate among dimensions. For example, the five-factor structure is composed of conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue, altruism, and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988). Conscientiousness (termed individual initiative by Podsakoff et al., 2000) is defined as carrying out role behaviors at a level well beyond the minimum requirements, while courtesy involves behaviors aimed at preventing work-related problems. Individuals who responsibly participate in the organization's political life and contribute to corporate governance are displaying civic virtue, and altruism involves helping a specific person with an organizationally relevant task. Finally, sportsmanship is described as tolerating less than ideal situations without complaining.

Although researchers have found support for each of these factor structures (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Williams & Anderson, 1991), the two-factor solution is the most parsimonious. Additionally, the relationship between OCB and other variables has been found to differ, depending on whether the behavior targets the individual or the organization (Illies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Thus, William and Anderson's (1991) two-factor solution (OCBI and OCBO) is utilized in this study.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): Positive Biases

Evidently, a great deal of the OCB literature has been devoted toward defining the construct and addressing conceptual ambiguities with its meaning. Additionally, much

research has focused on examining the antecedents and consequences of citizenship behavior. However, the vast majority of this research describes citizenship behavior as a positive phenomenon, largely ignoring the possibility that it could result from self-serving motives or lead to negative consequences. For example, although researchers have examined a wide variety of antecedents, including job satisfaction, positive affectivity, organizational support, and transformational leadership (see Podsakoff et al., 2000 for a review), their focus has generally been limited to variables that carry a positive connotation, stemming from the assumption that OCB is guided by a desire to help others (Bolino et al., 2004). Alternatively, researchers have suggested that employees may engage in citizenship behaviors in order to manage impressions, gain rewards, or make others look bad (Bolino et al., 2004; Eastman, 1994; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Similarly, the consequences associated with OCB are also generally assumed to be positive. Consistent with Katz and Kahn's (1966) notion that such behaviors are crucial for effective organizational functioning, researchers assume that OCB leads to positive organizational outcomes. Although empirical research is generally supportive of this notion, there are also exceptions to the pattern, with various dimensions of OCB being unrelated, or even negatively related, to performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). In terms of individual-level outcomes, OCB has been associated with career advancement and rewards over time (Van Scotter et al., 2000), and it is generally assumed that employees are attracted to organizations that encourage citizenship behavior (Bolino et al., 2004). However, as described by Bolino et al. (2004), there are reasons to predict negative individual-level consequences as well. Specifically, employees may experience difficulty distinguishing

between in-role and extra-role performance (leading to role ambiguity) and feel pressured to display escalating citizenship (enhancing overload and work-family conflict). These propositions are consistent with the finding that individual initiative is positively related to role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Bolino and Turnley's (2005) findings are particularly troublesome, given that the OCB literature frequently focuses on ways that supervisors can encourage citizenship behavior at their organizations (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 1993; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). If such behavior results in negative consequences for employees, supervisors need to recognize the dangers of blindly encouraging OCB. Although an in-depth examination of the relationship between OCB and a multitude of individual-level consequences is clearly necessary, this paper focuses on one outcome in particular: work-to-family conflict. Hypothesized relationships are described in the subsequent sections and presented in Figure 1 (see Appendix A).

Work-Family Conflict (WFC): An Overview

Drawing from Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal's (1964) work on role conflict and role ambiguity, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) define work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (p. 77). WFC is considered multi-faceted, consisting of time-based (the time requirements of one role impair performance on the second role), strain-based (pressures associated with one role adversely affect performance in the other role), and behavior-based conflicts (the behavioral requirements necessary for each domain are different or

incompatible). Additionally, researchers have acknowledged the bi-directionality of the construct; WFC can arise in the work domain (work-to-family conflict or work interfering with family, WIF) or in the family domain (family-to-work conflict or family interfering with work, FIW; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). The domain specificity hypothesis posits that situational variables associated with a given domain relate to conflict originating from that domain (Frone, 2003; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992); thus, because OCB is a work-related variable, the current study focused on its effects on work interfering with family.

Work-family conflict, and more specifically WIF, has been associated with a variety of negative outcomes, ranging from attitudinal, behavioral, and health-related variables (see Frone, 2003 and Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000 for reviews). In a meta-analysis of 67 studies, Allen et al. (2000) identified three broad domains of WIF consequences: nonwork-related (e.g., life satisfaction, family performance), work-related (e.g., intentions to quit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment), and stress-related (e.g., general psychological strain, somatic/physical symptoms, depression). Given these detrimental effects, it is essential to pinpoint the antecedents leading to work-to-family conflict.

To that end, a multitude of antecedents have been identified and studied (see Bruck & Allen, 2005; Byron, 2005; and Frone, 2003 for reviews). Among these variables are demographic factors (e.g., gender, number of kids), dispositional factors (e.g., negative affectivity, agreeableness), situational characteristics (e.g., social support, job involvement), and crossover effects (e.g., partner's level of WFC). While numerous antecedents have been found to predict WIF, Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997)

advocate distinguishing proximal predictors of WFC from those that are more distal. In their model, work-related antecedents such as supervisor support are posited to affect WIF through three proximal predictors: work time, role overload, and work distress. In support of work time as a proximal antecedent, Major, Klein, and Ehrhart (2002) found that several commonly studied WIF predictors, including nonjob responsibilities, career identity salience, and organizational rewards, exerted their effects through work time. Although their study provides convincing evidence for work time as an important mediator, Cardenas, Major, and Bernas (2004) caution that simply looking at how much time you spend in a given role may “fail to capture the subjective experiences that often lead individuals to feel overworked and to experience conflict between work and family domains” (p. 347). Thus, the current study focused on two of Frone et al.’s (1997) proximal predictors, work time and role overload, to explain why OCB is likely related to WIF.

Work Time as a Mediator to the OCB—WIF Relationship

A cursory examination of the OCB construct highlights why engaging in citizenship behaviors often involves devoting more time to work, either directly or indirectly by taking on extra demands. For example, OCBO includes attending extra organizational functions and keeping up with developments in the organization. Similarly, behaviors included in the OCBI dimension are adjusting one’s work schedule to accommodate other employees, helping those that are absent, and assisting others with their workload. Perlow and Weeks (2002) discovered that employees often view helping behavior as an unwanted interruption from their “real work,” with one employee stating: “The biggest frustration of my job is always having to help others and not getting my

own work done” (p. 353). Thus, individuals who engage in citizenship behaviors may view such acts as unwanted demands, feeling pressured to work longer hours in order to fulfill their other work requirements.

As suggested by the rational model and the resource drain model, individuals who work longer hours are likely to face higher levels of WIF. The rational model of work-family conflict predicts a linear relationship between the amount of time spent in the work and family domains and the degree of WFC experienced (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987). Overall, research has been supportive of this notion, with the relationship between work time and WIF being approximately .26 (Byron, 2005). Another reason that OCB may impact WIF is elucidated by the resource drain model, which postulates that individuals have a finite amount of resources (Rothbard, 2001; Staines, 1980). Given that time, one type of resource, is clearly in limited supply, employees are faced with the challenge of balancing their time between the work and family domains. If situational variables, such as engaging in citizenship behaviors, require that more time be spent in one domain, fewer hours are available for the other domain, and work-family conflict is likely to ensue. Thus, it is hypothesized that individuals who engage in citizenship behaviors tend to spend more time engaged in work-related activities, thereby increasing their levels of WIF.

Role Overload as a Mediator to the OCB—WIF Relationship

Another mechanism by which citizenship behavior is likely to affect work-to-family conflict is through role overload. Kahn et al. (1964) describe role overload as a type of stressor that occurs when an individual experiences an overwhelming level of demands, which are perceived as exceeding his/her capabilities given the time available

and/or his/her abilities (Kahn et al., 1964). Role overload is a function of the number of roles enacted, as well as the demands required of each role. As previously mentioned, citizenship behaviors may be viewed by employees as extra demands placed upon them. Moreover, while all employees inherently enact the job-holder role, researchers have proposed that individuals who engage in OCB essentially take on an additional work role: that of organizational-member (Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998). Because each of these roles requires unique demands and expectations, employees may experience pressure and strain. Additionally, employees who have partners, children, and/or other familial obligations are faced with the additional challenge of simultaneously handling family role requirements.

Not surprisingly, strong empirical support exists for a relationship between role overload at work and WIF, with one meta-analysis estimating the correlation to be .65, correcting for unreliability (Byron, 2005). The spillover model sheds light on why role overload is likely to influence work-family conflict. Work-family spillover involves the transfer of thoughts, affect, and behavior between the work and family domains; thus, experiences in one domain impact experiences in the other domain (Roehling, Moen, & Batt, 2003). In support of the spillover model, Williams and Alliger (1994) found that moods, stress, and thoughts generated in one domain influenced behavior and cognitions in the other domain; moreover, task demands were associated with distress, which enhanced spillover. Because overload is related to intense affective responses, such as anger, frustration, emotional exhaustion, and stress (Chen & Spector, 1991; Thompson, Kirk, & Brown, 2005), these emotions are likely to carry over into the alternate domain. Additionally, Frone et al. (1997) describe how individuals experiencing role overload are

likely to be psychologically preoccupied with one role, while attempting to fulfill the requirements of the other. Because such ruminating thoughts and overpowering affective responses are distracting and debilitating, not to mention resource-draining, interrole conflict is likely to result. Therefore, it is predicted that, by taking on an additional role as well as more demands, individuals who engage in citizenship behaviors are more likely to experience role overload, which then leads to WIF.

OCBO, OCBI, and WIF

It is also important to consider whether OCBO and OCBI differentially relate to work-interfering-with-family conflict. Although both types of behaviors are expected to require increased time and demands, thereby leading to WIF, it is possible that the strength of the relationship varies depending on the target of the OCB. Specifically, individuals engaging in OCBI may do so with the expectation that other employees will reciprocate such behaviors (Perlow & Weeks, 2002). To the extent that these assumptions are correct, the relationship between OCBI and WIF may be weakened (compared to the relationship between OCBO and WIF), given that these individuals may have co-workers willing to help in the event of a family-related absence. Conversely, the majority of OCBI items require active behavioral involvement, while the OCBO construct also includes emotion-based behaviors, such as showing pride for the organization in public. Although these behaviors may not involve an extra time commitment, they may require the use of emotion regulation strategies which, as described in the emotional labor literature, can be relatively resource-intensive (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Thus, to the extent that such behaviors are perceived by employees as stressors requiring resources, they may be particularly likely to relate to work-interfering-with-family conflict.

Despite these propositions, there is a dearth of literature in this area. Thus, these statements are exploratory, and no explicit hypotheses are included regarding whether OCBO and OCBI differentially relate to WIF.

The Moderating Effects of Gender

The current study also investigated the moderating role of gender. As suggested and tested by Bolino and Turnley (2005), gender is likely to play a role in the relationship between OCB and WFC. Using role theory, they argue that interrole conflict is particularly likely to occur when other demands prevent an individual from carrying out the requirements of their most valued role. Although gender roles are changing, the perception still exists that men associate more strongly with the work domain, while women place the highest value on the family (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005). Therefore, women are likely to be particularly sensitive to work demands that interfere with family time. Consistent with their hypothesis, Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that gender moderated the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict, such that the relationship was stronger for women than for men.

In order to more fully understand how gender affects the citizenship behavior–WIF relationship, it is important to examine more precisely where gender exerts its effects, given the two proposed mechanisms shown in Figure 1. The current study proposes that gender influences both pathways between OCB and WIF, though in different ways. Specifically, gender is expected to moderate the relationship between work time and WIF, as well as the relationship between citizenship behavior and role overload.

The gender role perspective states that “people interpret their time expenditures and thus their perceptions of conflict in accordance with sex role expectations” (Gutek et al., 1991, p. 567). As a result, gender role expectations may distort the rational perspective because time in one’s “own” domain is viewed as less of an imposition compared to time in the “alternate” domain (Gutek et al., 1991). Thus, women’s WFC may be particularly affected by work time, while family time is more predictive of men’s WFC. In support of the gender role perspective, Gutek et al. (1991) found that women reported more WIF, even though the number of hours they worked was comparable to that of men. Additionally, work time interacted with gender such that working long hours was associated with WIF for women only (Gutek et al., 1991). The nature of this interaction is similar to the one uncovered by Bolino and Turnley (2005), which indicated that the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict was stronger for women than for men. If individual initiative, along with other types of OCB, is positively related to work time, as proposed in this study, then their findings may be explained by the gender role perspective. Specifically, engaging in OCB is expected to increase one’s work time, thereby leading to more WIF; moreover, the relationship between work time and WIF is likely to be stronger for females than for males, given that women are more likely to perceive work time as interfering with their family role (Gutek et al., 1991). The current study tested this proposition, hypothesizing that gender and work time interact to predict WIF.

Gender may also influence perceptions of role overload. Just as time is often viewed as more imposing when it arises from the less-valued role, demands in general may be perceived differently depending on with which role they are associated. Thus, the

extra demands that arise from engaging in OCBs may be considered manageable when the work role is highly valued but overwhelming when alternate roles are valued more. Consistent with this notion, role theory predicts that role pressures are intensified when they interfere with the role most central to one's self-concept (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). Because role overload is a function of one's *perceptions* of the demands placed upon him/her, these heightened role pressures may result in higher levels of role overload. Thus, it is expected that women are more likely than men to view citizenship behaviors as excessive demands, with role overload as a probable outcome.

The Moderating Effects of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary

Another potential moderator involves individual differences in how employees view citizenship behaviors. As formerly discussed, one of the biggest points of contention in defining the OCB construct has been whether such behaviors are truly extra-role. Organ (1997) responded to debates and criticisms by removing the word "discretionary" from his original definition of OCB, thereby allowing for the possibility that OCB can be either in-role or extra-role. However, employees are still likely to make this distinction, differentiating between behaviors viewed as "above and beyond" the job requirements and those that are an expected part of the position. A closer examination of role theory elucidates why these perceptions are likely to be affected by both situational characteristics (e.g., organizational norms for staying late) and individual differences (i.e., different employees perceive the requirements of the job differently).

According to Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970), roles involve a position in a social structure along with a set of expectations about behavior. Role expectations are communicated via role-senders, which are then interpreted by the person occupying the

role (Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978). This interpretation process is affected by an individual's perceptions and cognitions of the message, as well as his/her own inherent biases about what behaviors are expected of a given role (Katz & Kahn, 1978); moreover, different role senders may have different role expectations, or vary their messages over time, complicating the process further (Kahn et al., 1964). Thus, role expectations are likely to differ across individuals, even for the same position in a single organization.

Consequently, numerous researchers have proposed that the same behavior may be considered either extra-role or in-role, depending on the person's role expectations (Graham, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 1995). In fact, Morrison (1994) found vast differences in how employees defined their jobs, and employees and supervisors differed in their classifications of which behaviors were considered discretionary.

Whether an individual perceives a given behavior as discretionary may have implications for employee outcomes, such as role overload. Morrison (1994) argues that behaviors that are considered in-role will be conceptualized differently than those classified as extra-role. Because they are considered discretionary, extra-role behaviors may be viewed as optional, rather than as demands required of the position. Additionally, role pressures are intensified when noncompliance with demands is perceived as having negative consequences (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). It seems probable that negative consequences are perceived as a more likely outcome of noncompliance with in-role behaviors, compared to behaviors deemed extra-role. Since role overload is a function of "legitimate role requirements" (Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977, p. 320), occurring when demands and expectations exceed a given threshold (Rizzo et al., 1970), role overload may be less likely to occur when behaviors are perceived as discretionary. Accordingly, it

is proposed the relationship between OCB and role overload is moderated by perceptions of OCB, such that the relationship is weaker when citizenship behaviors are perceived as extra-role.

Hypotheses

1. Organizational citizenship behavior is positively associated with work-interfering-with-family conflict (WIF).
2. Organizational citizenship behavior is positively associated with work time.
3. Organizational citizenship behavior is positively associated with role overload.
4. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and work-interfering-with-family conflict (WIF) is mediated by work time.
5. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and work-interfering-with-family conflict (WIF) is mediated by role overload.
6. The relationship between work time and work-interfering-with-family conflict (WIF) is moderated by gender, such that the relationship is stronger for females than for males.
7. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and role overload is moderated by gender, such that the relationship is stronger for females than for males.
8. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and role overload is moderated by perceptions of OCB as extra-role, such that the relationship is stronger when OCB is perceived as non-discretionary than when OCB is perceived as discretionary.

Chapter Two

Method

Participants

Consistent with other work-family conflict research, participants were only included if they were working at least 20 hours a week and were either married, living with a partner, or a parent with a child living at home. The initial recruitment strategy for the study was to rely on the alumni database of a large southeastern university, which consisted of 12,976 names and email addresses. However, this technique resulted in a dismal response rate: only 295 alumni filled out the survey, with supervisor data being available for a mere 21 respondents. Although a full explanation for the low response rate is indeterminable, one contributing factor was the number of invalid email addresses, as 3,340 emails were returned as undeliverable. Additionally, 141 emails were sent directly to SPAM, as indicated by an automatic email that was sent in response to the solicitation email; and 51 participants responded that they did not meet the study's inclusion criteria. Of the 12,976 alumni, only 70 individuals *formally* declined to participate, by clicking "No, I will not participate" on the solicitation website, or by responding to the solicitation email.

Because the alumni database was not as successful as originally hoped, other recruitment methods were employed. Information about the study was posted on Craig's List, an extensive classifieds website, and a snowball approach was utilized, in which

friends, family members, and acquaintances of the principal investigator were asked to forward the study information to interested individuals. Fourteen people responded to the ad on Craig's List, and the snowball approach generated 37 interested individuals. Of these potential participants, 28 went on to fill out the survey (5 recruited from Craig's List, and 23 from the snowball approach).

In total, 397 individuals responded that they were willing to participate in the study, and 323 went on to fill out the survey. However, 25 of these participants had a significant amount of missing data, and two participants did not meet the inclusion criteria; thus, these 27 individuals were dropped from the analysis. This resulted in a sample of 296 participants.

A determination of the "true" response rate is difficult, given the uncertainty in the number of emails that were never received and the number of participants who were ineligible to participate. It can be confirmed that at least 467 individuals received the initial solicitation email, denoted by the fact that they followed the link to indicate whether they were willing to participate in the study. Thus, an upper-bound estimate of the response rate is 63.38 percent. Conversely, one might consider that 13,027 emails were originally sent out. Subtracting out the known values of undeliverable emails, letters sent to SPAM, and ineligible participants, the number is reduced to 9,495. Using this number as a total, a lower-bound estimate of the response rate is 3.12 percent. In actuality, the "true" response rate probably lies somewhere between these two numbers.

The participant sample was 43.9 percent male, composed of 92.9 percent White; 4.1 percent Hispanic or Mexican American; 1 percent Black or African American; and .7 percent Asian or Pacific Islander. One percent of the sample reported "other" as their

race. In terms of education, .7 percent of the sample had only a high school diploma; 1.4 percent attended some college; 44.9 percent had a college degree; 38.5 percent had a master's degree; and 14.5 percent had a doctoral degree. Moreover, the majority of participants were married (80.1 percent), though 7.8 percent were single, living with a partner, and 12.2 percent were single.

Of the 296 participants, matched supervisor data was provided for 38 individuals (12.84 percent of the primary participant sample; 21 from the alumni database, 4 recruited from Craig's List, and 13 from the snowball approach). However, because of missing data, three of the supervisors had to be dropped from analysis, resulting in 35 matched subordinate-supervisor pairs. The supervisor sample was 51.4 percent male, with the majority reporting being White (94.3 percent). The remaining 5.7 percent reported Black or African American as their race. The educational background of the supervisor sample was as follows: 2.9 percent had attended some high school; 5.7 percent had attended some college; 25.7 percent had a college degree; 45.7 percent had a master's degree; and 20 percent had a doctoral degree. Additional demographic information for both the primary participants and their supervisors is presented in Table 1.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, responses to all scales were on a 7-point Likert-type scale, that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Scores were calculated by averaging item responses. Scales are provided in Appendices B, C, D, and E.

Organizational citizenship behavior. OCB ratings were attained from both supervisor- and self-reported data. To measure OCBI and OCBO, Lee and Allen's (2002) measure was utilized. Although the Williams and Anderson (1991) scale is more

typically used to assess these factors, Lee and Allen (2002) criticize their measure, pointing out that it includes items that reflect workplace deviance behavior rather than OCB. Thus, Lee and Allen (2002) modified Williams and Anderson's (1991) measure, removing such items as "Takes undeserved work breaks" and "Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations." The resultant scale is composed of 16 items, eight per dimension. Additionally, the OCBI scale was supplemented with two items from another OCB scale (Schneider, Goff, Anderson, & Borman, 2003). A sample OCBI item is "Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems," while "Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image" is an item designed to measure OCBO. Responses were reported on a 7-point scale, that ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (always). Lee and Allen (2002) reported sub-scale reliabilities to be .83 (OCBI) and .88 (OCBO). The alpha coefficients in the present study were .86 (OCBI), .91 (OCBO), and .90 (combined) for the self-reported data; and .95 (OCBI), .91 (OCBO), and .96 (combined) for the supervisor-reported data.

Work-to-family conflict. Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrin's (1996) WIF scale was used, which is composed of five items. A sample item includes "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities." Netemeyer et al. (1996) reported high alpha coefficients for the scale ($\alpha=.88-.89$ for WIF and $\alpha=.83-.89$ for FIW across three diverse samples), and slightly higher alpha coefficients were observed in the present study, at .93.

Work time. One item was used to assess work time: "How many hours do you work in an average week? Include time spent doing job-related work at home."

Role overload. Employees provided self-reports of their role overload at work, using the role overload scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). The scale contains three items, including “I have too much work to do to do everything well,” and the reported reliability is .65 (Cammann et al., 1983). Items were slightly modified to specify the work domain; for example, “The amount of work I am asked to do is fair” was altered to “The amount of work I am asked to do at my job is fair.” The alpha coefficient for the present study was .80.

Perception that OCB is extra-role. Consistent with Morrison’s (1994) method, for each OCB item, employees classified the behavior into one of two categories: “You see this as an expected part of your job” or “You see this as above and beyond what is expected for your job.” Each behavior classified under the first category was coded as one, while behaviors in the second category were coded as two. Then, as done in Allen and Rush (1998), an overall score was computed by summing responses and dividing by the total number of behaviors. This method yielded a reliability of .86, as reported by Allen and Rush (1998), and an alpha coefficient of .83 in the present study.

Demographics/control variables. Gender was coded as follows: 1 (male) and 2 (female). Race was also collected, asking participants to identify themselves as American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian or Pacific Islander; Black or African American; Hispanic or Mexican American; White (non-Hispanic); or other. Additionally, age, marital status (married; single, living with partner; or single), organizational tenure, and salary were included as potential control variables. Responsibility for Dependents (RFD), an index that statistically combines the number and age of dependents according to level

of responsibility (Rothausen, 1999), was included as well. Although the majority of work-family research focuses solely on the number of children living at home and/or the age of the youngest child living at home, the Responsibility for Dependents index provides a more thorough assessment by considering the age of each child.

Individual initiative. The fifteen individual initiative items developed by Bolino and Turnley (2005) were included for exploratory purposes, and both self and supervisor ratings were gathered. A sample item is “Checks back with the office even when he/she is on vacation.” Responses were reported on a 7-point scale, that ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (always). Bolino and Turnley (2005) reported a scale reliability of .91, and the alpha coefficient in the present study was .91 (self-report) and .92 (supervisor-report).

Procedure

Participants were contacted via email or Craig’s List, asking them to voluntarily participate in the study. The solicitation email included a link to a website, whereby participants indicated whether they were willing to participate. Specifically, they were provided with two options: “Yes, I am willing to participate” and “No, I am not willing to participate.” Those who responded “no” were thanked for their time and no longer contacted; those who responded “yes” were sent an additional email, which included a link to the survey. Survey instructions and informed consent were provided on the first page of the website, assuring participants that their responses were confidential and anonymous. Those who chose to continue were directed to a webpage with survey items, and upon completion of the survey, participants were asked to submit their responses electronically. Once the survey was submitted, a debriefing page was displayed, asking the participant to give a similar survey to his/her supervisor (for another source of OCB

ratings). A separate link was provided, and the electronic link was designed such that the supervisor's responses were automatically linked to that participant.

Participants were also given the option of receiving survey packets in the mail. Six participants elected this option, following a similar procedure as the online respondents. However, they filled out hard copies of study materials, were asked to manually give their supervisor the survey, and were provided with an envelope/prepaid postage for mailing study materials back. In order to link the two sources of data (self and supervisor), hard copies of surveys were marked with a code number. The identification numbers was unrelated to participant data but rather generated randomly to protect the anonymity of the participants. Those recruited from Craig's List were asked to contact the lead investigator, and the remaining procedure matched that of the other participants. Participants who indicated that they were willing to participate in the study were sent reminder emails approximately two weeks after the initial email if they had not yet completed the survey.

Chapter Three

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive data for all study variables, including means, standard deviations, observed minimums/maximums, and alpha coefficients, are provided in Table 1.

Intercorrelations among study variables are provided in Table 2.

Before conducting the primary analyses, the data was inspected to determine whether any assumptions had been violated. The first assumption of regression, independence, is a methodological question. The study design provides no reason to suppose that the participants' responses depended upon each other; thus, this assumption was assumed to be met. Scatterplots of variable pairs were inspected to test the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. The graphs did not indicate that non-linear relationships were present. Additionally, the variance of the independent variables appeared relatively constant across all levels of the dependent variable, supporting the assumption of homoscedasticity.

The data was also assessed for normality and outliers. Specifically, skewness and kurtosis values were computed, and histograms and box plots were graphed. Several of the variables were skewed or kurtotic. For example, supervisor reports of OCBI, OCBO, and overall OCB were negatively skewed. Given the positive nature of OCB, this skewness was not unexpected and is typical in the literature. Thus, it was deemed

inappropriate to transform the data. The distributions of work hours and number of kids exhibited some kurtosis, and income and organizational tenure were positively skewed. Again, these results are not uncommon in the literature, so the data was not normalized.

Outliers were defined as data points falling more than three standard deviations away from the mean. Accordingly, two individuals had extreme scores on self-reported overall OCB, with scores of 2.72 and 2.83. This was driven by a very low OCBO score for the first individual (1.75) and a very low OCBI score for the second individual (2.70). Additionally, another participant had an outlying score of 2.60 on self-reported OCBI, and two individuals had a low score of 2.25 on self-reported OCBO. Two individuals reported working a very high number of hours a week, at 85 and 90, and there were multiple outliers regarding salary, including four individuals who reported an income of over \$350,000. Finally, there was one outlier for organizational tenure at 48 years, and two individuals with five kids living at home. Despite the significant number of outliers, all of these values are plausible and were thus kept in the data set.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 predicted that OCB would be positively associated with WIF, work time, and role overload, respectively. These hypotheses were tested by examining zero-order correlations between outcome variables and each dimension of OCB. Additionally, hierarchical regression was used to test whether these relationships remained significant after controlling for gender, age, salary, tenure, and number of children living at home. Although initially the Responsibility for Dependents index was intended to be used rather than number of children living at home as a control variable, the two were highly correlated ($r = .92, p < .01$). Moreover, an initial assessment of the

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	N	# of Items	α	M	SD	Obs. Min.	Obs. Max.
<u>Study Variables</u>							
OCB (self)	296	18	.90	5.31	.79	2.72	7.00
OCBI	296	10	.86	5.16	.84	2.60	7.00
OCBO	296	8	.91	5.49	1.03	1.75	7.00
OCB (supervisor)	35	18	.96	5.67	.89	3.00	7.00
OCBI	35	10	.95	5.65	.89	3.00	7.00
OCBO	35	8	.91	6.07	.76	4.13	7.00
WIF	296	5	.93	4.03	1.54	1.00	7.00
OCB Discretionary*	293	18	.83	1.38	.24	1.00	2.00
Role Overload	296	3	.80	4.09	1.49	1.00	7.00
Work Time (hrs/wk)	293	1	--	46.15	11.32	20	90
II** (self)	295	15	.91	4.17	1.20	1.00	7.00
II** (supervisor)	35	15	.92	4.44	1.14	2.60	6.64
<u>Sample Demographics</u>							
Age	290	1	--	46.58	9.33	22	67
Salary	277	1	--	90,810	83,403	2,400	800,000
Tenure (years)	280	1	--	9.72	8.74	.08	48
# Kids at Home	178	1	--	1.82	.92	0	5
RFD	170	--	--	8.57	4.57	0	21
<u>Supervisor Demographics</u>							
Age	33	1	--	48.33	7.65	34	65
Tenure (years)***	34	1	--	4.07	4.32	.25	16.83

All non-demographic variables are measured on a 7-point scale unless otherwise noted

*Measured on a 2-point response scale

**Individual Initiative

***Length of time as supervisor of study participant

Table 2. Intercorrelations among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 OCB (self)	--							
2 OCBI (self)	.86†	--						
3 OCBO (self)	.85†	.47†	--					
4 OCB (sup.)	.04	-.00	.07	--				
5 OCBI (sup.)	.04	.06	-.00	.97†	--			
6 OCBO (sup.)	.04	-.09	.16	.94†	.84†	--		
7 WIF	-.05	.02	-.10	-.09	-.09	-.08	--	
8 OCB Discr.	-.07	.03	-.15†	.15	.15	.13	-.13*	--
9 Role Ovld.	-.12*	-.07	-.14*	-.19	-.22	-.13	.65†	-.09
10 Work Time	.30†	.26†	.25†	-.27	-.30	-.21	.40†	-.04
11 Gender ¹	.04	.06	.01	-.22	-.29	-.11	.12*	.08
12 Age	.04	-.02	.09	.11	.11	.11	-.12*	-.13*
13 Salary	.05	-.02	.12	.03	.04	.01	.13*	-.07
14 Tenure	.02	-.04	.08	-.28	-.28	-.24	-.08	-.09
15 # Kids	.10	.06	.11	.12	.20	-.03	.04	-.05
16 RFD	.03	.00	-.05	.17	.22	.07	.10	-.13
17 II (self)	.39†	.25†	.43†	.06	.04	.09	.32†	-.09
18 II (sup.)	-.14	-.39*	.17	.42*	.37*	.45†	.05	.00

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$; N's ranged from 35 to 296

¹Male=1; Female=2

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 OCB (self)									
2 OCBI (self)									
3 OCBO (self)									
4 OCB (sup.)									
5 OCBI (sup.)									
6 OCBO (sup.)									
7 WIF									
8 OCB Discr.									
9 Role Ovld.	--								
10 Work Time	.36†	--							
11 Gender ¹	.21†	-.07	--						
12 Age	-.10	.02	-.20†	--					
13 Salary	-.03	.34†	-.31†	.08	--				
14 Tenure	.07	.06	-.11	.37†	.17†	--			
15 # Kids	.10	.12	-.12	-.09	.11	-.05	--		
16 RFD	-.05	.11	-.08	-.31†	.10	-.10	.92†	--	
17 II (self)	.44†	.44†	.00	.11	.16†	.07	-.05	-.07	--
18 II (sup.)	.06	.12	-.03	.03	-.26	-.06	.03	-.04	.57†

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$; N's ranged from 35 to 296

¹Male=0; Female=1

regression analyses revealed that results were similar, regardless of which index was used. Because of missing data there were more responses for number of children living at home, compared to Responsibility for Dependents. Thus, to maximize power, number of children living at home was used as a control variable in the present study. The remaining control variables were chosen based on their inclusion in Bolino and Turnley's (2005) study. The present study aimed to maximize the similarity between the two studies, in order to replicate their research. However, given that many of the control variables were unrelated to the studied dependent variable, analyses were also performed with no control variables entered into the regression equations. The two methods yielded convergent findings; thus, only the results with the control variables entered in step one are reported here.

Relationships between OCB and the dependent variables were assessed using both the self- and supervisor-reports of OCB. It is important to note that the correlations between self and supervisor ratings of OCB, OCBI, and OCBO were not significant ($r = .04$, $r = .06$, and $r = .16$, respectively). This finding, while noteworthy, is consistent with prior research, which reported a non-significant correlation of .11 between self- and supervisor-reported OCB (Allen et al., 2000).

Regression results for Hypothesis 1 are presented in Tables 3 through 8. Tables 3, 4, and 5 report results for self-reported overall OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively; and Tables 6, 7, and 8 report results for supervisor-reported overall OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively. As presented in the tables, control variables were entered in step one, and OCB was entered in step two. The numbers presented in the table are standardized beta weight coefficients, unless otherwise specified.

Table 3. Regression of OCB (Self-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.15	.15
Age	-.02	-.02
Salary	.31†	.31†
Tenure	-.16	-.16
# Kids	-.05	-.04
Independent Variable		
OCB (self)		-.04
F^1	3.43†	2.89*
Overall R^2	.10	.10
Adjusted R^2	.07	.07
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 4. Regression of OCBI (Self-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.15	.14
Age	-.02	-.02
Salary	.31†	.31†
Tenure	-.16	-.15
# Kids	-.05	-.06
Independent Variable		
OCBI (self)		.05
F^1	3.43†	2.93*
Overall R^2	.10	.10
Adjusted R^2	.07	.07
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 5. Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.15	.15
Age	-.02	-.03
Salary	.31†	.32†
Tenure	-.16	-.15
# Kids	-.05	.03
Independent Variable		
OCBO (self)		-.13
F^1	3.43†	3.36†
Overall R^2	.10	.12
Adjusted R^2	.07	.08
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.01

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 6. Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.12	-.20
Age	.30	.64
Salary	.35	.12
Tenure	-.24	-.97
# Kids	-.05	.52
Independent Variable		
OCB (supervisor)		-.61
F^1	.92	1.03
Overall R^2	.31	.41
Adjusted R^2	-.03	.01
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.04

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 7. Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.12	-.07
Age	.30	.49
Salary	.35	.23
Tenure	-.24	-.69
# Kids	-.05	.33
Independent Variable		
OCBI (supervisor)		-.38
F^1	.92	.80
Overall R^2	.31	.35
Adjusted R^2	-.03	-.09
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.06

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 8. Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.12	-.10
Age	.30	.55
Salary	.35	.16
Tenure	-.24	-.69
# Kids	-.05	.25
Independent Variable		
OCBO (supervisor)		-.46
F^1	.92	1.06
Overall R^2	.31	.42
Adjusted R^2	-.03	.03
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.06

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

As indicated by both the zero-order correlations and the regression results, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Neither self-reported nor supervisor-reported OCB were related to WIF ($r = -.05$, $r = .02$, $r = -.10$ for self ratings of OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively; $r = -.09$, $r = -.09$, $r = -.08$ for supervisor ratings of OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively). Moreover, none of the forms of OCB (across both self- and supervisor-report) accounted for significant variance in WIF after accounting for the control variables ($\beta = -.04$, $\beta = .05$, and $\beta = -.13$ for self-reported total OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively; and $\beta = -.61$, $\beta = -.38$, and $\beta = -.46$ for supervisor-reported total OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively).

Tables 9 through 14 present the regression results for Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive association between OCB and work time. Results for self-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO are reported in Tables 9, 10, and 11, while Tables 12, 13, and 14 presents results for supervisor-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively. Self-reported OCB significantly related to work hours ($r = .30$, $p < .01$ for total OCB; $r = .26$, $p < .01$ for OCBI; and $r = .25$, $p < .01$ for OCBO), while supervisor-reported OCB did not ($r = -.27$ for total OCB; $r = -.30$ for OCBI; and $r = -.21$ for OCBO). While non-significant, it is interesting to note that the correlations between supervisor-rated OCB and work time were in the negative direction; this is counter to both the hypothesized relationship and the results for self-reported OCB. The regression analyses produced similar results. Self-reported OCB and OCBI had significant positive standardized beta weights ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .24$, $p < .01$, respectively), while self-reported OCBO and supervisor-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO were not significant ($\beta = .11$, $\beta = -.12$, $\beta = -.30$, and $\beta = .09$, respectively). Thus, Hypothesis 2 received partial support.

Table 9. Regression of OCB (Self-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.02	-.03
Age	-.00	.00
Salary	.42†	.41†
Tenure	-.02	-.02
# Kids	.10	.07
Independent Variable		
OCB (self)		.21†
F^1	7.62†	8.01†
Overall R^2	.20	.24
Adjusted R^2	.18	.21
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.03

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 10. Regression of OCBI (Self-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.02	-.04
Age	-.00	-.00
Salary	.42†	.41†
Tenure	-.02	-.00
# Kids	.10	.07
Independent Variable		
OCBI (self)		.24†
F^1	7.62†	8.56†
Overall R^2	.20	.26
Adjusted R^2	.18	.23
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.05

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 11. Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.02	-.02
Age	-.00	.00
Salary	.42†	.41
Tenure	-.02	-.02
# Kids	.10	.08
Independent Variable		
OCBO (self)		.11
F^1	7.62†	6.79†
Overall R^2	.20	.21
Adjusted R^2	.18	.18
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 12. Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.51	.44
Age	.34	.41
Salary	.45	.41
Tenure	.16	.01
# Kids	.29	.40
Independent Variable		
OCB (supervisor)		-.12
F^1	1.01	.77
Overall R^2	.34	.34
Adjusted R^2	.00	-.10
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.10

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 13. Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.51	.36
Age	.34	.49
Salary	.45	.36
Tenure	.16	-.21
# Kids	.29	.59
Independent Variable		
OCBI (supervisor)		-.30
F^1	1.01	.83
Overall R^2	.34	.36
Adjusted R^2	.00	-.07
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.07

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 14. Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on Work Time

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Time	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.51	.55
Age	.34	.29
Salary	.45	.49
Tenure	.16	.24
# Kids	.29	.23
Independent Variable		
OCBO (supervisor)		.09
F^1	1.01	.77
Overall R^2	.34	.34
Adjusted R^2	.00	-.10
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.10

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Hypothesis 3 proposed that OCB would be positively related to role overload. This hypothesis was not supported. Self-reported OCB and OCBO were significantly related to role overload but in the opposite direction as hypothesized ($r = -.12, p < .05$ and $r = -.14, p < .05$, respectively). Self-reported OCBI and supervisor-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO were not significantly correlated with role overload ($r = -.07, r = -.19, r = -.22$, and $r = -.13$, respectively). Tables 15, 16, and 17 present the regression results for self-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO; and Tables 18, 19, and 20 present regression results for supervisor-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively. As shown in the tables, only OCBO (self-reported) had a significant standardized beta weight in the regression analyses ($\beta = -.19$); self-reported OCB ($\beta = -.11$), self-reported OCBI ($\beta = -.00$), supervisor-reported OCB ($\beta = -.25$), supervisor-reported OCBI ($\beta = -.19$), supervisor-reported OCBO ($\beta = -.15$) did not explain significant variance in role overload, according to the regression analyses. Thus, the results did not support a positive association between OCB and role overload; conversely, the relationships were either non-significant or negative.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 proposed that the relationship between OCB and WIF would be mediated by work time and role overload, respectively. Following the strategy outlined in Baron and Kenny (1986), three steps are required in an assessment of mediation: (1) the dependent variable (DV) is regressed onto the IV; (2) the mediator is regressed onto the IV; and (3) the DV is regressed onto both the IV and the mediator. Support for mediation requires significant relationships in the first two steps, as well as a nonsignificant relationship between the IV and DV when the mediator is present (step three). As previously mentioned, the relationship between OCB and WIF was not

Table 15. Regression of OCB (Self-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.18	.19*
Age	-.06	-.06
Salary	.10	.11
Tenure	.06	.06
# Kids	-.13	-.12
Independent Variable		
OCB (self)		-.11
F^1	1.63	1.69
Overall R^2	.05	.06
Adjusted R^2	.02	.03
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.01

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 16. Regression of OCBI (Self-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.18	.18
Age	-.06	-.06
Salary	.10	.10
Tenure	.06	.06
# Kids	-.13	-.13
Independent Variable		
OCBI (self)		-.00
F^1	1.63	1.35
Overall R^2	.05	.05
Adjusted R^2	.02	.01
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.01

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 17. Regression of OCBO (Self-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.18	.19*
Age	-.06	-.07
Salary	.10	.12
Tenure	.06	.08
# Kids	-.13	-.11
Independent Variable		
OCBO (self)		-.19*
F^1	1.63	2.34*
Overall R^2	.05	.09
Adjusted R^2	.02	.05
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.03

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 18. Regression of OCB (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.22	.09
Age	.48	.62
Salary	.02	-.08
Tenure	-.27	-.57
# Kids	.41	.64
Independent Variable		
OCB (supervisor)		-.25
F^1	.38	.32
Overall R^2	.16	.17
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.38
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.12

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 19. Regression of OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.22	.12
Age	.48	.57
Salary	.02	-.04
Tenure	-.27	-.50
# Kids	.41	.61
Independent Variable		
OCBI (supervisor)		-.19
F^1	.38	.30
Overall R^2	.16	.17
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.39
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.13

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 20. Regression of OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) on Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.22	.15
Age	.48	.56
Salary	.02	-.05
Tenure	-.27	-.42
# Kids	.41	.51
Independent Variable		
OCBO (supervisor)		-.15
F^1	.38	.31
Overall R^2	.16	.17
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.38
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.12

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

significant across all forms of OCB and both sources of data. Thus, the first step was not satisfied for either of the two hypotheses, and no subsequent analyses were performed.

Finally, the interactions proposed in Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 were tested with moderated hierarchical regression (James & Brett, 1984). For these regression equations, control variables were added in first, followed by the independent variable. The interaction term was entered in the third step. Results were inspected to determine whether the interaction term added incremental variance over the independent variable, thereby indicating support for moderation.

Table 21. Moderated Regression of Gender on Work Time and WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.15	.16	-.01
Age	-.02	-.02	-.03
Salary	.31†	.12	.13
Tenure	-.16	-.15*	-.15*
# Kids	-.05	-.09	-.09
Independent Variable			
Work Time		.46†	.32
Interaction			
Gender X Work Time			.20
F^1	3.43†	9.16†	7.86†
Overall R^2	.10	.27	.27
Adjusted R^2	.07	.24	.23
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.17	-.01

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151 Step 2 df = 6, 150; Step 3 df = 7, 149; * $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Hypothesis 6 proposed that the relationship between work time and WIF would be moderated by gender, such that the relationship would be stronger for females than for males. The moderated regression results are presented in Table 21. Although work time was significantly associated with WIF ($\beta = .46, p < .01$), the interaction term did not increase the variance explained in WIF. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the relationship between OCB and role overload would be moderated by gender, such that the relationship would be stronger for females than for males. Tables 22, 23, and 24 present the regression results using self-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO; and Tables 25, 26, and 27 present the regression results using supervisor-reported OCB, OCBI, and OCBO, respectively. Across both sources of OCB ratings and all three types of OCB, the interaction term was not significant, with no incremental variance in role overload being explained ($\beta = -.40$ for self ratings of OCB; $\beta = -.06$ for self ratings of OCBI; $\beta = .45$ for self ratings of OCBO; $\beta = -4.57$ for supervisor ratings of OCB; $\beta = .40$ for supervisor ratings of OCBI; and $\beta = 10.10$ for supervisor ratings of OCBO). No support was found for Hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 8 proposed that the relationship between OCB and role overload would be moderated by perceptions of OCB as extra-role, such that the relationship would be stronger when OCB is perceived as non-discretionary than when OCB is perceived as discretionary. Results for self-reported OCB (Table 28), OCBI (Table 29), and OCBO (Table 30), as well as supervisor-reported OCB (Table 31), OCBI (Table 32), and OCBO (Table 33), are presented. As indicated by the tables, the interaction terms were not significant for self-rated OCB ($\beta = -.90$), OCBI ($\beta = .33$), or OCBO ($\beta = -.02$),

or supervisor-rated OCB ($\beta = 3.65$), OCBI ($\beta = 1.02$) or OCBO ($\beta = .72$). So Hypothesis 8 was unsupported.

Exploratory Analyses

Although the present study aimed to replicate Bolino and Turnley's (2005) findings that OCB and WIF were positively associated, no such relationship was found. Thus, it is important to consider potential reasons for the divergent findings. One possible explanation is that the relationship between OCB and WIF only holds for certain types of OCB, mainly individual initiative. Alternatively, sample differences may be the cause of the inconsistency. To explore the first possibility, it is necessary to assess whether the relationship between individual initiative and WIF holds in the present sample.

As shown in Table 2, WIF was, in fact, significantly correlated with self-reported individual initiative ($r = .32, p < .01$). Conversely, WIF and supervisor-reported individual initiative were not significantly related ($r = .05$). Table 34 and Table 35 present results for the regression of WIF on self-reported and supervisor-reported individual initiative, respectively. Unlike the more general measure of OCB, self-reported individual initiative does explain significant variance in WIF ($\beta = .36, p < .01$). This is very similar in magnitude to the standardized beta weight of .37 observed by Bolino and Turnley (2005). The beta weight for supervisor-reported individual initiative, though similar in magnitude, was not significant ($\beta = .32$).

Table 22. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCB (Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.18	.19*	.53
Age	-.06	-.06	-.06
Salary	.10	.11	.11
Tenure	.06	.06	.06
# Kids	-.13	-.12	-.11
Independent Variable			
OCB (self)		-.11	.05
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCB (self)			-.40
F^1	1.63	1.69	1.50
Overall R^2	.05	.06	.07
Adjusted R^2	.02	.03	.02
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.01	.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150; Step 3 df = 7, 149

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 23. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBI (Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.18	.18	.23
Age	-.06	-.06	-.06
Salary	.10	.10	.10
Tenure	.06	.06	.06
# Kids	-.13	-.13	-.13
Independent Variable			
OCBI (self)		-.01	.02
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCBI (self)			-.06
F^1	1.63	1.35	1.15
Overall R^2	.05	.05	.05
Adjusted R^2	.02	.01	.01
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.01	.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150; Step 3 df = 7, 149

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 24. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBO (Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.18	.19*	.57
Age	-.06	-.07	-.07
Salary	.10	.12	.11
Tenure	.06	.08	.06
# Kids	-.13	-.11	-.10
Independent Variable			
OCBO (self)		-.19*	.04
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCBO (self)			-.45
F^1	1.63	2.34*	2.10*
Overall R^2	.05	.09	.09
Adjusted R^2	.02	.05	.05
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.03	.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 151; Step 2 df = 6, 150; Step 3 df = 7, 149; * $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 25. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCB (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.22	.09	5.03
Age	.48	.62	.511
Salary	.02	-.08	.28
Tenure	-.27	-.57	-.13
# Kids	.41	.64	.39
Independent Variable			
OCB (supervisor)		-.25	2.12
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCB (supervisor)			-4.57
F^1	.38	.32	.30
Overall R^2	.16	.17	.21
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.38	-.49
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.12	-.23

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9; Step 3 df = 7, 8; * $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 26. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBI (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.22	.12	3.77
Age	.48	.57	.47
Salary	.02	-.04	.20
Tenure	-.27	-.50	-.06
# Kids	.41	.61	.34
Independent Variable			
OCBI (supervisor)		-.19	1.87
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCBI (supervisor)			.40
F^1	.38	.30	.36
Overall R^2	.16	.17	.24
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.39	-.42
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.13	-.03

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9; Step 3 df = 7, 8; * $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 27. Moderated Regression of Gender on OCBO (Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.22	.15	-10.31
Age	.48	.56	.33
Salary	.02	-.05	-.65
Tenure	-.27	-.42	-.27
# Kids	.41	.51	.32
Independent Variable			
OCBO (supervisor)		-.15	-4.46
Interaction Term			
Gender X OCBO (supervisor)			10.10
F^1	.38	.31	.33
Overall R^2	.16	.17	.22
Adjusted R^2	-.26	-.38	-.46
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.12	-.08

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9; Step 3 df = 7, 8; * $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 28: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCB (Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.19	.22	.24
Age	-.07	-.08	-.08
Salary	.04	.04	.04
Tenure	.08	.08	.09
# Kids	-.06	-.05	-.04
Independent Variables			
OCB (self)		-.14	-.71
OCB Discretionary		-.16	-.85
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCB			-.90
F^1	2.18	2.92†	2.82†
Overall R^2	.05	.10	.11
Adjusted R^2	.03	.06	.06
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.03	.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 192; Step 2 df = 7, 190; Step 3 df = 8, 189

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 29: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBI (Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.19*	.21*	.21*
Age	-.07	-.08	-.08
Salary	.04	.04	.04
Tenure	.08	.08	.08
# Kids	-.06	-.06	-.05
Independent Variables			
OCBI (self)		-.05	-.25
OCB Discretionary		-.07	-.31
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCBI			.33
F^1	2.18	1.78	1.59
Overall R^2	.05	.06	.06
Adjusted R^2	.03	.03	.02
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.00	-.01

¹Step 1 df = 5, 192; Step 2 df = 7, 190; Step 3 df = 8, 189

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 30: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBO
(Self-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.19*	.20†	.21†
Age	-.07	-.07	-.07
Salary	.04	.04	.03
Tenure	.08	.09	.09
# Kids	-.06	-.06	-.06
Independent Variables			
OCBO (self)		-.19†	-.18
OCB Discretionary		-.19†	-.19*
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCBO			-.02
F^1	2.18	3.83†	3.34†
Overall R^2	.05	.12	.12
Adjusted R^2	.03	.09	.09
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.06	.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 192; Step 2 df = 7, 190; Step 3 df = 8, 189

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 31: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCB
(Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.49	.48	.48
Age	.37	.41	.38
Salary	.13	.09	.07
Tenure	-.35	-.46	-.57
# Kids	.43	.49	.62
Independent Variables			
OCB (supervisor)		-.06	-1.72
OCB Discretionary		-.10	-2.78
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCB			3.65
F^1	.70	.46	.43
Overall R^2	.21	.23	.25
Adjusted R^2	-.09	-.27	-.34
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.18	-.07

¹Step 1 df = 5, 13; Step 2 df = 7, 11; Step 3 df = 8, 10

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 32: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBI
(Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.49	.44	.46
Age	.37	.37	.35
Salary	.13	.10	.09
Tenure	-.35	-.39	-.38
# Kids	.43	.46	.48
Independent Variables			
OCBI (supervisor)		-.12	-.57
OCB Discretionary		.12	-.66
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCBI			1.02
F^1	.70	.46	.37
Overall R^2	.21	.23	.23
Adjusted R^2	-.09	-.27	-.39
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.18	-.12

¹Step 1 df = 5, 13; Step 2 df = 7, 11; Step 3 df = 8, 10

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 33: Moderated Regression of Perceptions of OCB as Discretionary on OCBO
(Supervisor-Reported) and Role Overload

Variable	Dependent Variable: Role Overload		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Gender	.49	.43	.19
Age	.37	.47	.45
Salary	.13	-.05	-.29
Tenure	-.35	-.50	-.35
# Kids	.43	.41	.12
Independent Variables			
OCBO (supervisor)		.03	-.24
OCB Discretionary		-.36	-.80
Interaction Term			
OCB Discretionary X OCBO			.72
F^1	.70	.67	1.04
Overall R^2	.21	.30	.45
Adjusted R^2	-.09	-.15	.02
Δ in Adjusted R^2		-.06	.17

¹Step 1 df = 5, 13; Step 2 df = 7, 11; Step 3 df = 8, 10

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 34. Regression of Individual Initiative (Self-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.15	.15
Age	-.01	-.04
Salary	.31†	.24†
Tenure	-.16	-.14
# Kids	-.06	-.04
Independent Variable		
Individual Initiative (self)		.36†
F^1	3.43†	7.20†
Overall R^2	.10	.23
Adjusted R^2	.07	.19
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.12

¹Step 1 df = 5, 150; Step 2 df = 6, 149

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Table 35. Regression of Individual Initiative (Supervisor-Reported) on WIF

Variable	Dependent Variable: WIF	
	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables		
Gender	.12	.30
Age	.30	.37
Salary	.35	.53
Tenure	-.24	-.16
# Kids	-.05	-.04
Independent Variable		
Individual Initiative (supervisor)		.32
F^1	.92	.93
Overall R^2	.31	.38
Adjusted R^2	-.03	-.03
Δ in Adjusted R^2		.00

¹Step 1 df = 5, 10; Step 2 df = 6, 9

* $p < .05$; † $p < .01$

Chapter Four

Discussion

The current study was designed to address a limitation in the OCB literature: the consistent trend of treating the construct as a wholly positive phenomenon. Although citizenship behaviors have been related to positive outcomes for individuals and for organizations (see Podsakoff et al., 2000 for a review), few studies have examined whether negative consequences are also associated with engaging in OCB. Bolino and Turnley's (2005) research represents an important exception, and the present study was designed to replicate and extend their findings. Additionally, this study intended to address some limitations of their study, by utilizing a more general OCB measure, collecting supervisor ratings of citizenship performance, and examining potential mediators and moderators to the OCB—WIF relationship.

Despite these intentions, the study's hypotheses were largely unsupported. Neither supervisor- nor self-reported OCB were significantly related to WIF. Additionally, self-reported, but not supervisor-reported, OCB was significantly related to work hours. Contrary to expectations, self-reported OCBO was *negatively* related to role overload, and the relationship between all other types of OCB and role overload was non-significant. Although the study hypothesized that work time and role overload would mediate the relationship between OCB and WIF, the conditions of mediation were not met, as the direct relationship between OCB and WIF was not significant. Finally, none

of the proposed interactions were significant, as gender did not moderate the relationship between OCB and role overload; perceptions of OCB as discretionary did not moderate the relationship between OCB and role overload; and gender did not moderate the relationship between work time and WIF.

Because these findings diverged from that of Bolino and Turnley (2005), it is fruitful to consider potential reasons for the discrepancy. As Bolino and Turnley (2005) mention in their article, their measure of individual initiative, designed specifically for their study, may be more strongly related to WIF than other OCB measures. Thus, it is possible that the relationship between OCB and WIF is limited to the specific OCB dimension of individual initiative. Consistent with this hypothesis, self-reported individual initiative and WIF were positively related in the present sample.

Theoretical Implications

The present study highlights several important theoretical implications. Specifically, OCB should not be treated as a wholly positive phenomenon. Although WIF was not related to OCBI or OCBO in the present study, the relationship between WIF and the specific dimension of individual initiative was significant. The divergent findings may reflect the nature of the individual initiative factor, which includes behaviors that are particularly likely to interfere with one's work-life balance (e.g., bringing work home; working during vacations). While negative individual-level consequences may only be associated with certain types of citizenship behavior, it is important for researchers to broaden the scope of OCB research, considering potential positive and negative aspects of the construct.

By testing for the moderation of gender in the relationship between OCB and role overload, and between work time and WIF, the present study provided a test of the gender role perspective. This theory proposes that people's perceptions of time and role conflict depend upon sex role expectations (Gutek et al., 1991); in light of this perspective, the null findings in the present study are surprising. It is likely that societal views about sex role expectations have changed considerably in the past sixteen years, as an increasing number of women have entered the workforce. Women may have internalized the work role more than they did previously, resulting in diminished gender differences in how work-related demands are perceived. Thus, as compared to the gender role perspective, the rational model of WFC may receive increasing support in the future, as the notion that work is a man's domain is diminished. The present study supported this notion, finding that work time was positively related to WIF but that the relationship was consistent for men and women.

Another theoretical implication elucidated by the present study concerns the dimensionality of the OCB construct. As previously mentioned, OCB has suffered from conceptual ambiguity, and there is a lack of consensus regarding its factor structure. Although the present study cannot speak to the number of factors underlying the construct, the results do support the multidimensionality of OCB, as the relationship between OCB and outcome variables varied across different dimensions of citizenship behavior. For example, OCBO but not OCBI was negatively associated with role overload. Additionally, individual initiative, but OCBI and OCBO, related to WIF. Thus, the present study provides some support for differentiating citizenship behavior according to target as well as type of behavior.

Researchers have also disagreed on whether citizenship behavior can be described as discretionary. Contrary to Organ's (1988) original definition of the construct, the present study supports the notion that citizenship behaviors are frequently viewed as an expected part of one's job. Moreover, there was considerable variance in these perceptions. Such findings are consistent with past research (Morrison, 1994). Thus, researchers are encouraged to refrain from defining OCB as discretionary behavior.

From a methodological standpoint, the present study highlights the importance of collecting OCB ratings from multiple sources. The correlation between self and supervisor ratings of OCB ranged from .04 to .16 in the present study, confirming that the two sources are offering distinct information. Interestingly, the relationship between self- and supervisor-ratings of individual initiative was much higher, at .57. This may stem from the fact that certain types of OCB are more observable and salient to supervisors. A sample OCBO is keeping up with developments in the organization, and a sample OCBI is assisting others with their duties. Supervisors may be less aware of these types of behaviors as compared to those encompassed by the individual initiative factor, which includes working during vacations and coming in to work early. Thus, while collecting OCB ratings from multiple sources is always useful, the amount of unique information provided by each source may depend upon the specific type of citizenship behavior.

Practical Implications

The present study has practical implications as well. Organizations may implicitly or explicitly encourage employees to engage in citizenship behaviors, through the culture, norms, policies, and/or managerial attitudes and behaviors. If employees experience negative outcomes as a result of engaging in OCB, then organizations that encourage

such behaviors may face adverse consequences in the long run. The results of this study suggest that only certain types of OCB, mainly individual initiative, are associated with WIF. Conversely, OCBO was *negatively* related to role overload. The reasons for this finding are unclear. Perhaps individuals who engage in OCBO are more committed to their organization and less likely to see the extra behaviors as a demanding burden. In accordance with this supposition, support for a positive relationship between citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment has been found in many studies (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Alternatively, perhaps the direction of causality is reversed, such that individuals who experience role overload respond by engaging in fewer citizenship behaviors, and those with low role overload perform more OCBs. While the present study cannot speak to the viability of these potential explanations, it does suggest that organizations should pay attention to the *type* of OCB that is encouraged; some behaviors may have positive implications, while others may be associated with negative outcomes.

Limitations

It is important to highlight the limitations of the present study. Perhaps the biggest problem involved sampling issues. The study suffered from a poor response rate, which creates concerns regarding the representativeness of the sample. One of the major constructs of interest in the present study was OCB. Filling out the survey, as well as asking one's supervisor to do the same, may itself be considered an example of a prosocial or citizenship behavior. Thus, the sample as a whole, and the subset with supervisor data in particular, may differ from the population in ways that are central to the tenets of the study. Moreover, the sample was highly educated, with 53 percent

having a graduate degree, and of high SES, with a mean salary of over \$90,000. Additionally, 94.3 percent of the sample reported being of white race. These sample characteristics are likely a function of the recruitment strategies, which relied on an alumni database, Craig's List, and a snowball approach. Given the non-representativeness of the sample, it is unclear the extent that these findings generalize to the broader population.

Another problem with the sample was the small number of supervisor data that was available. With only 35 matched participant-supervisor pairs, the current study suffered from a lack of power to detect relationships, particularly with respect to the interactions. Although study hypotheses were also tested using self ratings of OCB, this approach raises concerns of common method variance, which can serve to inflate the relationship between variables. Thus, a larger sample of matched data would have been optimal.

Finally, the cross-sectional nature of the study precludes any statements of causality. In fact, this may provide another potential explanation for the lack of relationship between OCB and WIF. While the present study hypothesized that engaging in OCB leads to enhanced WIF, other researchers have proposed that the direction of causality is reversed. Specifically, it has been suggested that individuals experiencing work-family conflict will be less likely to engage in citizenship behaviors (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005). In support of this proposition, two studies uncovered a negative relationship between OCB and WFC (Bragger et al., 2005; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005). Thus, it is possible that the relationship between OCB and WIF is cyclical, whereby engaging in OCB increases WIF, which

causes the employee to respond by performing fewer citizenship behaviors. A cross-sectional approach cannot speak to this possibility.

Future Directions

Because this area of research has been largely neglected, there are many avenues available for future research. First, future research should address some of the methodological limitations of the present study, by replicating this study with a more representative sample of participants and a larger sample of supervisors. The field would also benefit from an exploration of these relationships using non-cross-sectional methodologies, such as longitudinal or experience sampling approaches.

Conceptually, a more in-depth investigation of the relationship between OCB and WIF is needed. The present study highlighted that the relationship may be limited to certain types of citizenship behaviors, such as individual initiative. Future research should explore more specifically which behaviors are detrimental to balancing work and family life. In addition to a more fine-grained analysis of individual initiative, it may be fruitful to explore other dimensions of OCB, using an OCB scale that conceptualizes the construct according to type of behavior, rather than target. Similarly, more information may be gained by using a WIF scale that differentiates between time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict. For example, sportsmanship, defined as tolerating less than ideal situations without complaining (Organ, 1988) may be emotionally draining, leading to strain-based WIF, while individual initiative is more likely related to time-based WIF.

It is also necessary to explore conditions that may mitigate or exacerbate the relationship between OCB and WIF. Several researchers have suggested that there are a variety of motives for engaging in OCB, some of which may be self-serving (Bolino et

al., 2004; Eastman, 1994; Rioux & Penner, 2001). In fact, engaging in certain types of OCB may actually be an effective strategy for balancing work and family roles. For example, an individual who engages in OCB may do so with the hope that the behavior is later reciprocated, to build up a supportive network of co-workers, or to win favor with his/her supervisor. Each of these outcomes could lead to future benefits for the employee should a conflict arise between his/her work and family roles. Moreover, the organizational culture may come into play, as organizations vary in the extent to which cooperative behavior is encouraged. In a cooperative climate, citizenship behavior may be expected, but it is also likely to be reciprocated, thereby mitigating the relationship between OCB and WIF. Thus, to fully understand the nature of the relationship between WIF and OCB, a systems approach may be necessary, which considers the dynamic relationship between multiple systems – including coworkers, supervisors, and the organizational culture – rather than the individual in isolation. Qualitative research may enhance our understanding in this regard.

Other factors, such as individual differences, may also impact the relationship between OCB and WIF. Researchers have suggested that the relationship between stressors and strain may be moderated by time management behaviors (Jex & Elacqua, 1999). Although Jex and Elacqua (1999) did not find support for this claim in their study, time management skills may be particularly useful for employees struggling to balance multiple roles, including that of organizational-member, job-holder, and family-member. Thus, the relationship between OCB and WIF may be moderated by time management skills, such that the relationship is weakened for individuals that are able to effectively manage their time. Another potential moderator is need for affiliation. Individuals with a

high need for affiliation require harmonious relationships with other people (McClelland, 1987), so they may be particularly likely to engage in altruistic behaviors. However, these individuals are less likely to view OCB as a burden; on the contrary, by satisfying their needs, citizenship behaviors may reduce their strain and enhance their ability to juggle multiple roles. Future research should explore this possibility and consider other personality factors that may also impact the relationship between OCB and WIF.

Research in this area should not be limited to WIF, as OCB may lead to other negative individual-level consequences as well, such as job stress (Bolino & Turnley, 2005) and role ambiguity (Bolino et al., 2004). Moreover, researchers should focus on steps that organizations can take to prevent the potential negative consequences of engaging in OCB, such as training employees on how to balance multiple demands and training supervisors to be aware of the types of behaviors they are encouraging their subordinates to conduct.

Conclusion

Although the hypotheses were largely unsupported, the present study addressed an important research question that has received limited attention in our field. Moreover, the present study has significant theoretical and practical implications. Because few studies have been done on this topic, additional research is needed. By fully exploring the nature of the OCB construct, including both positive and negative aspects, we can shed light on a neglected topic.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Hypothesized Relationships

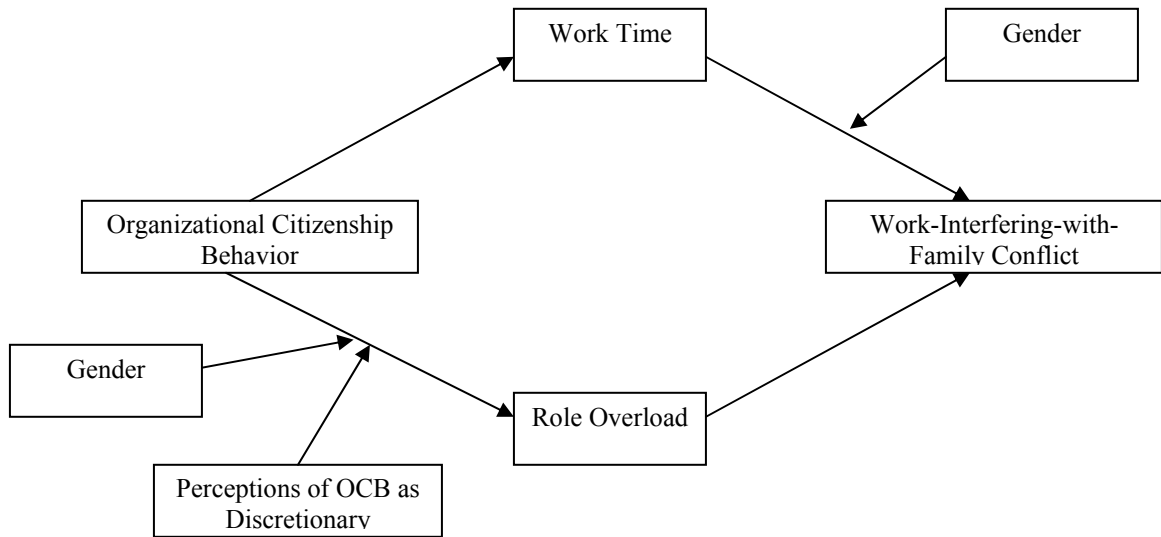


Figure 1. Hypothesized relationships between OCB and WIF, including mediating and moderating variables.

Appendix B

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Scale Items*

OCBI Items

1. Helps others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.
9. Always shows consideration for others, even when especially busy or stressed.
10. Goes out of his or her way to congratulate others for their achievements.

OCBO Items

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
6. Express loyalty toward the organization.

7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

*Lee & Allen (2002); Schneider, Goff, Anderson, & Borman (2003)

Appendix C

Work-to-Family Conflict Scale Items*

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

*Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian (1996)

Appendix D

Role Overload Scale Items*

1. I never seem to have enough time at work to get everything done.
2. I have too much work to do to do everything well at my job.
3. The amount of work I am asked to do at my job is fair. (R)

*Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh (1983)

Appendix E

Individual Initiative Scale Items*

1. Checks his/her e-mail or voice mail from home.
2. Works on his/her days off (e.g., weekends).
3. Brings things home to work on.
4. Takes work-related phone calls at home.
5. Carries a cell phone or pager for work so he/she can be reached after normal business hours.
6. Stays at work after normal business hours.
7. Works late into the night at home.
8. Attends work-related functions on his/her personal time.
9. Travels whenever the company asks him/her to, even though technically he/she doesn't have to.
10. Works during his/her vacations.
11. Goes into the office before normal business hours.
12. Volunteers for special projects in addition to his/her normal job duties.
13. Rearranges or alters his/her personal plans because of work.
14. Checks back with the office even when he/she is on vacation.
15. Participates in community activities for the benefit of his/her company or organization.

*Bolino & Turnley (2005)