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**A MATTER OF MOTIVE: THE ROLE OF AUTONOMY IN THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR
AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT**

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ABSTRACT

Research on the effects of helping behaviors in the workplace has mainly focused on various positive organizational- and individual-level outcomes. However, over the past few years, this area has seen an increase in empirical investigation into the potential darker side of these behaviors, primarily in terms of employee well-being. Specifically, researchers have demonstrated a positive link between helping behaviors in the workplace and employee job stress, role overload, and work-family conflict. In an effort to both replicate and extend these findings, the current study seeks to determine whether the positive association between helping behaviors and work-family conflict is moderated by employee autonomy. Furthermore, the mediating variables of positive and negative affect, role overload, and hours worked are examined as mediators of this moderating effect. One-hundred sixteen employees from diverse occupations were surveyed with regard to their helping behavior frequency at work and the level of autonomy they perceived in undertaking these behaviors. Additionally, each participants' spouse completed measures pertaining to the focal respondent's strain- and time-based work-family conflict. In support of prior research, the results indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was not associated with work-family conflict, while individual initiative was positively associated with time-based work-family conflict and this relationship was partially mediated by role overload. While the moderating effect of autonomy was not supported, the findings did suggest that autonomy moderated the relationship between individual initiative and negative affect. Implications of this work and future research are addressed.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) refers to actions on the part of the employee that contribute to the social and psychological context of the workplace, thus leading to the organization's effective functioning (Organ, 1997). Examples of these behaviors include staying after work hours to complete a task, helping others with work-related problems, and showing pride when representing the organization to the public (Lee & Allen, 2002). The study of OCBs has flourished over the past few years, with empirical and theoretical papers published on the construct beginning well over two decades ago (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). While this is far from a research area lacking in attention, a shortcoming in this milieu is that the majority of research on OCBs has revolved around its positive outcomes at the expense of the examination and understanding of its potential negative consequences for the employee (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Researchers suggested that one way to redress this oversight was to examine OCBs in light of a wider range of criterion variables, including a greater diversity of measures tapping employee well-being (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004). As an answer to this call for a different direction of OCB examination, a handful of researchers conducted empirical studies in an effort to understand the potentially 'dark' aspects of these seemingly positive behaviors (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

While few studies have established an empirical link between the performance of OCBs and the experience of compromised employee well-being (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein, Allen, & Dorio, 2007), fewer researchers have paid due attention to the

theoretical rationale behind this relationship. Most notable of these researchers is Bergeron (2007), who purports that a paradox of OCBs is that they may benefit the organization but at a cost to the employee, based on the unintentional harm it may cause to employees due to the level of personal resources it takes to engage in such behaviors. While this is an excellent starting point toward grasping the rationale behind the OCB-well-being link, Bergeron concentrates primarily on the relationship between citizenship behavior and employee performance, as opposed to individual-level well-being per se.

Therefore, the current study revolves around two primary goals. First, this research aims to build on Bergeron's (2007) theoretical contribution to this relatively new direction in OCB research, namely the emergence of negative employee consequences. However, instead of a concentration on the performance domain, the emphasis is on employee well-being, specifically perceptions of work demands and work-family conflict. Second, the current study extends previous empirical findings on the OCB-well-being relationship by introducing a more theoretically-based set of variables that seek to answer *when* and *why* OCBs may lead to said conflict.

To attain these goals, this study seeks to examine *when* OCBs might lead to work-family conflict through the incorporation of principles gleaned from self determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000), specifically concentrating on how an employee's perceived degree of autonomy in the undertaking of citizenship behaviors in the workplace may affect the consequences of these behaviors. Additionally, this study seeks to demonstrate *why* OCBs may lead to conflict, through the intervening effects of work time, role overload, and affect (Bergeron, 2007).

Defining Performance

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) define two components of performance: task and contextual. In this model, task performance, also known as in-role performance, refers to activities that directly contribute to the technical core of the organization, such as providing planning, coordination, supervising, and staff functions. On the other hand, contextual performance, also known as extra-role performance, refers to activities that support the organizational core, such as volunteering for tasks not formally part of the job and demonstrating effort. This distinction between behaviors that directly contribute to the technical core and those that support the core is not a recent development, as the importance of both types of behavior have been recognized for decades (Katz, 1964). However, theory and empirical studies revolving around contextual performance have flourished mainly over the past 15 years and have led researchers down a number of research streams. The most relevant of these streams to the current research is that of organizational citizenship behavior, which is a central focus of the present study.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Definition and Dimensions

Organizational citizenship behaviors have been defined in a number of different ways (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995; Graham, 1991). However, an often cited and utilized definition is attributed to Organ (1988), who defined OCB 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. While a number of researchers have accepted this definition, it has also had its share of criticism (Morrison, 1994). Organ (1997) responded to these concerns and pointed out the flaws in 'discretionary' as meaning beyond one's job requirements. Despite this seeming

extra-role notion, OCB as measured contains many elements that observers would consider part of the job, and observers differ across persons and times as to what constitutes in-role or extra-role behaviors (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005; Kamdar, McAllister, & Turban, 2006; Morrison, 1994; Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007).

Additionally, Organ (1997) questioned the distinction of formal rewards, as very few rewards are contractually guaranteed for any behavior, including technical performance. Furthermore, research now strongly suggests that some forms of OCBs might be just as likely if not more likely than in-role performance to lead to monetary gains for employees (Allen & Rush, 1998; Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Werner, 1994). Finally, when determining the similarities and difference between organizational citizenship behavior and contextual performance, Organ defended his term on the grounds that it simply sounds better. Therefore, these two concepts are seemingly synonymous.

While researchers have quibbled over Organ's (1988) definition of OCB, there are also multiple views on the dimensions of the construct. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) determined two separate classes of citizenship behaviors: altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism was defined as behavior that was directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations, while generalized compliance referred to behaviors that do not provide aid to any one specific person, but was indirectly helpful to those involved in the organizational system. These two classes are consistent with the more recent dimensions of OCBo and OCBi, where OCBo pertains to behaviors that benefit the organization, such as having an exemplary attendance record, and OCBi

refers to behaviors that support individuals within the organization, such as interpersonal helping (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

OCB Outcomes

Research on the outcomes of OCB has mainly revolved around its positive impact on overall performance and individual affect. Turning first to performance, Podsakoff et al. (2000) focused on two consequences associated with OCB: its effects on managerial evaluations of performance and its influence on organizational-level performance and success. With regard to the positive association between OCB and managerial evaluation of performance, this outcome has been found in both laboratory and field studies (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; DiPaolo & Hoy, 2005; Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989; Werner, 1994; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce 2008; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Recently, Heilman and Chen (2005; Study 1,2) conducted a series of experiments where participants read male and female employee information forms in which the level of altruistic behavior was manipulated (performed, not performed, and no information about performance). Analyses showed that targets who performed altruistic behaviors were rated higher on performance than both those who did not perform these behaviors and those for whom this information was not given. In the field, similar results to those above have been found. For example, Allen and Rush (1998) found that employee OCB was positively related to overall performance evaluations and reward recommendations.

While the relationship between OCBs and performance ratings are often explained via the role of social exchange theory, such that management may feel a need to reciprocate the employee's extra-role involvement by bolstering performance evaluations and reward recommendations (Podsakoff et al., 2000), the less cognitively-

based role of affect may also be key to understanding why OCBs might lead to higher performance ratings and reward recommendations. For example, individuals in positive moods are more likely to help others, including peers and leaders in the organization, in an effort to maintain or protect this level of affect (Allen & Rush, 1998; Carlson, 1999; Forest, Clark, Mills, & Isen, 1979; George, 1991; Grandey, 2009; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Leading from this, helping others often increases liking of that individual, thus increasing the strength of employee relationships, making the organizational citizen more likely to incur help and other resources when needed (Bowler & Brass, 2006). In turn, this increase in resources may then boost the citizen's overall task performance, which is recognized and evidenced during the employee's yearly performance evaluation.

Numerous studies have supported the positive relationship between OCBs and employee performance evaluations, but there is reason to believe also that OCBs may have the opposite effect on employee performance. According to Bergeron (2007), individuals undertaking OCBs may be setting themselves up for negative career consequences due to the time commitment and resources employees must put forth when engaging in these behaviors. Because there are a fixed number of hours in a day, the author contends that employees devote time to OCBs at the expense of task duties, and this may impede career advancement, especially since management places greater emphasis on task performance in comparison to contextual performance when evaluating employees (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Bergeron (2007) purports that the possibility that engaging in OCBs will adversely affect the employee may rely a great deal on the allocation of resources at the employee's disposal, and that resource allocation to OCBs

at the expense of time and energy spent on task performance may lead to the experience of negative career consequences.

While Bergeron (2007) broaches the possibility that OCBs may lead to negative outcomes for the employee, the majority of outcomes associated with OCBs are positive. Despite this trend, however, Bergeron represents a growing number of researchers who have begun to examine OCB as it relates to more negative, darker aspects of the employee experience, especially in terms of its relation with employee well-being, or more specifically, the experience of work-family conflict (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein, Allen, & Dorio, SIOP 2007; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; 2007).

Work-Family Conflict

Construct Definition and Dimensions

Work-family conflict occurs when individuals are placed in positions where they must perform multiple roles that require time, energy, and commitment, all of which may conflict with each other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Adding to this definition, three forms of work-family conflict are defined: behavior-based conflict, time-based conflict, and strain-based conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Carlson, 1999). Behavior-based conflict occurs when behavior patterns in one domain are deemed inappropriate in another domain. For example, the expression of strong emotions by women in the workplace are generally deemed as inappropriate, much like a lack of emotionality at home would similarly seem to be inappropriate (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Because this form of conflict, unlike the other two dimensions, is not specifically associated with individual resource allocation, the current study will focus exclusively on time-based and strain-based conflict.

Time-based conflict, the most-often reported form of work-family conflict, occurs when demands for time associated with one role become incompatible with the time demands of another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For example, employees may need to spend extra time at the office on a specific project, preventing them from having the available time to pick their children up from school. More specifically, this form of conflict is discussed in terms of two forms: when time pressures from one role make it impossible to engage in another role and when time pressures cause a preoccupation with one role over another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Strain-based conflict is described as the experience of strain in one role that subsequently leads to interference in the participation of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). An example of this form of conflict would be an employee who is fatigued by his workload and subsequently is unable to fulfill his role at home due to a lack of energy. This form of conflict is most-often discussed in terms of overload, when the conflict between two roles (i.e., employee and parent) leads to demands on energy that are so great that neither role is performed adequately or comfortably. Because the current study concentrates primarily on the role that OCBs play in the experience of time-based and strain-based conflict, these concepts will be elaborated upon.

The occurrence of both time-and strain-based work-family conflict is often discussed in terms of the scarcity theory, which assumes that personal resources such as time and energy are limited (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Because these resources are restricted, it is believed that participation in one role necessarily threatens the supply of time and energy in another role, and this in turn leads to conflict (Marks, 1977). In addition to the notion that conflict may occur due to limited resources, another

mechanism through which conflict may occur is negative spillover, which occurs when strains and conflicts in one domain negatively affect one's experience in another domain (Crouter, 1984). The four main types of spillover are skills, values, behaviors, and affect (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Focusing on the spillover of affect, this may take place via two different processes. First, affect originating in one role may transfer to another role due to secondary effects of this affect, such as decreased self-efficacy or diminished personal interactions (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). The second way that affect may spill over from one role to another involves influencing one's overall level of affect (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In this case, an employee may experience high negative affect at work due to poor performance on a task, and this translates into an increase in overall negative affect that spills over into another role domain.

Antecedents of Time- and Strain-based Conflict

A growing number of studies have found that time- and strain-based conflict have both distinct and overlapping antecedents, lending credence to the notion that these dimensions are indeed distinct. With regard to differential relationships between time- and strain-based conflict, time-based conflict has been significantly linked with job involvement and the degree to which the employee views the organization as being profit-driven (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, & Rabinowitz, 1989; Wallace, 1999). On the other hand, strain-based conflict has shown significant relationships with the experience of consistently overlapping work and family domains, ambiguity surrounding the requirements of and the boundary between the roles of employee and family member, the centrality of work to the employee's life, schedule inflexibility, and work role and

family role overload (Carlson, 1999; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 1989; Wallace, 1999).

Based on these differential relationships, it is clear that time- and strain-based work-family conflict are distinct constructs and therefore should be examined as such. However, numerous researchers continue to measure work-family conflict as a unidimensional construct (Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005; Senecal, Vallerand, & Guay, 2001). By continuing to examine work-family conflict as unidimensional, researchers may be missing invaluable insights in terms of fully understanding important antecedents as well as potential moderating and mediating effects associated with this construct. One area in the literature where the distinction among dimensions seems to be most useful is the examination of the relationship between OCBs and work-family conflict.

OCBs and Work-family Conflict: Examining the Darker Side of Citizenship

While the majority of studies examining the outcomes of OCBs concentrate on positive employee, team, and organizational variables (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Ehrhart, Bliese, & Thomas, 2006; Koys, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000), researchers have now begun to discuss and investigate possible downsides of these behaviors with regard to employee well-being (Bergeron, 2007; Eastman, 1994; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; 2007)

Theoretically, the social exchange view of OCB suggests that these behaviors are rational and serve to keep things ‘even’ in terms of the transactions between the employee and the organization. However, this may also mean that to follow the norm of reciprocity at work (giving extra of one’s time and energy in the form of helping others or

staying late), there are costs in the form of time and energy toward a) other work tasks and b) non-work roles. This notion is consistent with Bergeron's (2007) theoretical view that engaging in OCBs has costs to individual-level performance due to tradeoffs with time and energy toward core job behaviors. Similarly, others have argued that OCBs mean one is giving back to the organization, but potentially at the cost to both individual well-being and to one's family role.

Looking at specific indicators of well-being, in a study examining the relationship between the OCB dimension of individual initiative and work-family conflict, Bolino and Turnley (2005) determined that individual initiative, defined as engaging in task-related behaviors at a level far beyond organizational expectations, was positively associated with role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict in university alumni. To clarify Bolino and Turnley's (2005) findings, Klein, Allen, and Dorio (2007) investigated the relationship between various types of OCBs and work-family conflict, examining two potential mediators (work time and role overload) and one potential moderator (gender) in university alumni. The authors found that while neither OCBI nor OCB_o were related to work-family conflict, individual initiative was positively associated with conflict even after entering the control variables (race, age, marital status, tenure). Additionally, all three types of helping behaviors were significantly positively related to work hours. With regard to mediation, the authors found that both work hours (time) and role overload (energy) partially mediated the relationship between individual initiative and WIF, while no support was found for the moderating effects of gender.

Based on these findings, the authors explain the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict based on the perceived increase in job demands that

often accompany those who undertake OCBs (Perlow & Weeks, 2002). Therefore, when employees engage in citizenship behaviors, these behaviors may be undertaken in addition to their usual task duties. Engaging in these behaviors has the potential, then, to add hours to the employee's already busy workday, leading to the experience of overload due to an exorbitant level of perceived job demands.

Though these findings are interesting and overturn the believed positive effect of OCBs, only a handful of studies have demonstrated negative effects of OCBs on employee well-being. Moreover, these effects have generally only been found with certain dimensions of OCB – specifically individual initiative. Upon examining the difference between individual initiative and other OCB dimensions such as helping behavior, two characteristics stand out. First, the measure of individual initiative utilized by both Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007) is essentially a behavioral-based measure of work-family conflict, consisting of such statements as 'Brings things home to work on' and 'Works late into the night at home'. This may explain why this dimension is positively related to work-family conflict, while OCBi and OCBo, which are not measured in this way, are not positively related to work-family conflict.

More interesting, however, is the second characteristic that stands out between individual initiative and OCBi/OCBo, which is the notion of autonomy. With regard to this concept, individual initiative involves taking on behaviors beyond one's everyday tasks, and may be difficult to distinguish from required in-role tasks and task performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Because of its nature, employees undertaking tasks consistent with the description of individual initiative may do so out of a sense of obligation as opposed to choice.

The reduced perception of employee autonomy that may accompany behaviors classified under the dimension of individual initiative, as opposed to the other OCB dimensions, may help to determine when extra-role behaviors have the potential to lead to work-family conflict. Self determination theory is a useful approach when it comes to investigating these relationships.

OCBs and Work-family Conflict: The Moderating Effect of Autonomy

Self Determination Theory and Individual Well-Being

Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997) deems three psychological needs whose satisfaction acts as the basis for optimal human development, motivation and overall well-being—competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Specifically, competence refers to a need to have a significant effect on one's environment and attain valued outcomes within that environment, while relatedness refers to a desire to feel cared for and connected to others (Harter, 1978; Reis, 1994). Finally, autonomy references the need to have a sense of choice in the actions that one undertakes (Deci, 1975). This final need for autonomy has long been considered a requirement of normal healthy functioning and has taken a central role in SDT, as self-determined behavior is inherently defined as experiencing a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Two key concepts associated with SDT are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Based on its emphasis on internally-driven freedom of action, intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in behaviors for their own sake, due to spontaneous interest or enjoyment, rather than having an ulterior motive (Deci, 1975; Porter & Lawler, 1968). In this case,

intrinsically motivated behaviors reap rewards to the extent that such behaviors bring satisfaction to the individual who undertakes them. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is characterized by instrumentality and sought-after outcomes that drive an individual to take on specific actions. Leading from this, extrinsically motivated behavior occurs when the desired outcome of such behavior is separate from the behavior itself, such as performing a task in order to achieve a monetary gain or to gain the approval of another individual (Lepper & Greene, 1978; Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004).

Autonomous motivation refers to the extent that individuals experience internally-driven choice over their behaviors and actions, driven by the satisfaction of the key psychological needs, whereas controlled motivation refers to the experience of coercion in the determination of one's actions, most often driven by external factors (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The differences between autonomous and controlled motivation in SDT are important, as the theory postulates that these motivations differ in terms of both their underlying regulatory processes and their accompanying experiences. SDT suggests that behaviors can be characterized by the degree to which they range from autonomous to controlled, rather than being either intrinsically versus extrinsically driven. In other words, the distinction between the overarching concepts of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is not as black and white as these concepts are usually understood to be. Extrinsic motivation may vary in the degree to which it is autonomous, depending on the extent to which the motivation is aligned with the individual's values or attitudes associated with their behaviors (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Consequently, autonomous and controlled motivation are placed on a continuum ranging between internally- and externally-driven behaviors (please refer Figure 1).

On the opposite side of this continuum from fully autonomous, or intrinsic motivation, lies external regulation, which is the form of regulation that individuals most often associate with the classic definition of extrinsic and controlled motivation.

Behavior in this realm is fully controlled by external factors, most often in an effort to avoid punishment or to attain rewards valued by the individual, such as an employee taking on a task in order to receive a paycheck for doing so, or to avoid being terminated by his supervisor.

Moving closer to intrinsic motivation on this continuum, introjection refers to behavior that is fully controlled not by external, but internal factors, such that the same employee takes on a work task in an effort to avoid his own feelings of guilt or shame. This behavior is recognized as being moderately controlled, but not by the external factors most often associated with external regulation.

Identification is the next step toward intrinsic motivation on the continuum of autonomous and controlled motivation and references behaviors that are more autonomous than external regulation or introjection, but still are externally driven. This type of motivation, considered to be moderately autonomous, is set apart from more extrinsically-driven motivation because the individual understands the value of his behavior, but still undertakes specific actions for instrumental reasons. In keeping with the above examples, identification may be exemplified through an employee taking on a job task because he understands the importance of the task, but continues to feel the external pressure from his supervisor to undertake this behavior.

Finally, integration refers to behaviors that are recognized for their value and are integrated into the individual's usual behavior, but the behavior is aimed at attaining specific outcomes, rather than interest in the activity itself, and therefore has some element of extrinsic motivation (Ryan, 1995). In this case, integration would be indicated if an employee chooses to undertake a job task not because he enjoys the task, but because he views himself as a good employee and therefore undertaking the task is consistent with the way that he perceives himself. This form of regulation is considered to be an autonomous form of extrinsic motivation because the information is fully integrated into the individuals' core sense of self and values. Overall, the distinction between introjection, identification and integration represent differences in the level of internalization, or the degree to which individuals accept values, attitudes, or regulatory structures. Therefore, as individuals move closer to accepting the values or attitudes associated with their behaviors, external regulation transforms into internal regulation, such that external rewards are no-longer required for behavior to occur (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

The empirical study of SDT and well-being has been undertaken utilizing diverse sample populations in a wide variety of clinical and academic settings (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007; Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Baker, 2004; Edmunds, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2006; Gagne, Ryan, & Bargmann, 2003; Haggard & Chatzisarantis, 2007; Maltby & Day, 2001; Pelletier & Dion, 2007; Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose, & Senecal, 2007; Vansteenkiste, Zhou, Lens, & Soenens, 2005; Williams, McGregor, Sharp, Levesque, Kouides, Ryan, & Deci, 2006; Zeldman, Ryan, & Fiscella, 2004). Regardless of the context, research examining SDT has shown that psychological well-

being is positively associated with intrinsic and autonomous motivation, determined by the satisfaction of the three needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy. On the other hand, when these needs are not met, especially that of autonomy, behavior is based on extrinsic and controlled motivation, leading to more negative outcomes. This translates into the summary notion that autonomous motivation is more likely to lead to positive effects for the individual, while controlled motivation is more likely to lead to negative individual-level outcomes.

Based on those studies applying SDT to individual well-being, it would seem that in the workplace, differential motives behind employee actions would play a role in determining the positive and negative consequences experienced by those behaviors. For example, if employees undertake actions based on personal choice as opposed to obligation, and intrinsic and autonomous as opposed to extrinsic and controlled motivation, these individuals should be more likely to experience positive consequences from these actions.

Consistent with this line of thought, the empirical research examining SDT in the organization has led to similar results to those studies in other contexts (Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, De Witte, & Van den Broeck (2007). For example, looking specifically at the role of autonomy on employee outcomes, Baard, Deci, and Ryan (2004) found that higher perceived autonomy in the organization, measured by employee perceptions of choice and options offered by management with regard to problem solving and overall work tasks, was associated with increased psychological adjustment. This positive outcome was explained through the mediating effect of autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction, consistent with the basic elements of SDT.

Additionally, Grant (2008) examined the interaction between prosocial and intrinsic motivation on employee performance, productivity, and persistence, and determined both in a sample of firefighters and fundraising callers that when intrinsic motivation was low, higher prosocial motivation led to lower persistence and productivity. The author suggested that completing tasks in the absence of inherent enjoyment leads to stress due to depletion of employees' psychological resources, therefore leading to exhaustion and subsequent losses in productivity. In such situations, when intrinsic motivation is tempered, Grant (2008) indicates that, rather than undertaking prosocial behaviors out of a sense of volition, employees act based on perceived pressure and no-longer feel in control of their own behaviors. This then leads to negative outcomes for the employee.

Related Theoretical Concepts.

Job characteristics theory. While studies highlighted up to this point have examined the role of autonomy on individual outcomes within the framework of SDT alone, organizational researchers have utilized a number of theoretical rationales to guide examination in this area, often in conjunction with SDT. Numerous studies have investigated the role that perceived autonomy plays on employee perceptions and experiences of stress (de Jonge & Shaufeli, 1998; Golden, Veiga, & Simsek, 2006; Hall, Royle, Brymer, Perrewe, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2006; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Wei-Tao & Shih-Chen, 2007). Many of these studies examine employee outcomes under the guiding framework of Job Characteristics Theory (JCT; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), which addresses how core job characteristics may lead to employee motivation through various psychological states. Studies utilizing JCT as the overarching framework most often seek to understand the effect of environmental variables on behavior and affect in

the workplace, and this research supports the prediction that worker satisfaction, motivation and performance are higher among individuals who see their jobs as high in the five core job characteristics (Fried & Ferris, 1986). For example, Spector and Jex (1991) found that job characteristics were linked with a number of health and behavioral outcomes. Interestingly, autonomy was the job characteristic associated with the most employee outcomes, such that perceived autonomy was positively linked to satisfaction and negatively linked to frustration, anxiety, and doctor visits. This gives an indication of the importance of autonomy in the experience of one's job and the outcomes an employee experiences as a result of this autonomy.

Job demand- control model. In addition to SDT and JCT, the Job Demand-Control Model (JD-C; Karasek, 1979) posits that the combination of high job demands and low job control will precipitate lower physical and psychological well-being. In this model, control is defined as a combination of both employee autonomy and skill discretion, and numerous researchers have found support for this model when it comes to determining employee well-being (Allen & Mellor, 2002; de Jonge, Dollard, Dormann, Blanc, & Houtman, 2000; Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Helkama, 2001; Grebner, Semmer, & Elfering, 2005; Janssen, Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes, & Tummers, 2004). For example, Fernet, Guay, and Senecal (2004) found that for those employees with high self-determination, job control buffered the effects of job demands on emotional exhaustion and also led to higher perceptions of personal accomplishment in the face of high job demands. The authors reasoned that employees who are self-determined are inclined toward autonomous actions and are more likely to utilize job control as an effective way to cope with heightened job demands.

Locus of control. Similar to this notion of effective utilization of job control, the concept of locus of control emphasizes the differential impact of control viewed within the self (internal locus of control) versus control located outside the individual (external locus of control). Internals are theorized to experience greater well-being because they are more likely to attribute outcomes to their own control, rather than to the control of an external source (Rotter, 1966). In the midst of negative outcomes, Rotter (1966) expected that internals would remain higher in well-being than externals, as internals would be more likely to tolerate delays in rewards and plan for long-term goals. On the other hand, externals would likely lower their goals, consistent with the notion that these individuals were lower in achievement motivation than internals. The relationship between locus of control and employee well-being has been examined in a number of studies, with great support for the theorized role that locus of control plays in employee psychological health (Daniels & Guppy, 1994; Leung, Siu, & Spector, 2000; Schmitz, Neumann, & Oppermann, 2000; Spector et al., 2002). For example, Spector et al. (2001) found that internal locus of control was associated with reduced psychological and physical strain. The authors attribute these findings to the idea that internals, believing that they have more personal autonomy and control, feel freer to change their work environment if it is too stressful, whereas externals do not believe they have this freedom.

The findings of SDT applied to the workplace are similar to those found in various other contexts. Those employees who have autonomous motivation and undertake actions out of choice, as opposed to undertaking behaviors out of need such as a way to achieve an extrinsic reward (controlling motivation) tend to experience psychological benefits. While these articles referencing the organizational context are

convincing, they do not tell the entire story of the role that autonomy and autonomous motivation plays in workplace behavior, as the research on SDT in the workplace has paid little attention to extra-role behavior (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Furthermore, those studies linking SDT to organizational helping have concentrated primarily on the promotional effects of autonomy and autonomous control, rather than their outcomes (Gagne, 2003).

The Motivation Behind Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

It was once assumed that individuals engaging in OCBs did so primarily out of a selfless desire to help the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). However, the reasons why individuals take part in helping behaviors may be due to a wide variety of reasons (i.e., image enhancement, moral obligation), and depending on why the individual engages in such behavior may help to determine its consequences (Bolino, 1999). A generous amount of research has been undertaken in an effort to understand why individuals take part in prosocial behavior, examining both volunteers and paid employees (Barbuto, Brown, Wilhite, & Wheeler, 2001; Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, and Miene, 1998). Despite the wide variety of motives for helping behavior, each motive with its own unique purpose, all motives espoused in these articles emphasize the possibility that helping behavior may be undertaken by an individual for reasons ranging from autonomous or intrinsic to controlling or extrinsic. For example, reducing a diverse set of potential motives for OCB through factor analysis, Rioux and Penner (2001) developed a scale to assess the motivations behind citizenship behavior. These motives consist of organizational concern, prosocial values, and impression management.

Prosocial values motives involve the need to be a helpful individual and the need to be accepted and to interact smoothly with one's peers, while organizational concern motives reference a desire to help the organization because one identifies with and takes pride in the organization and because it is seen as being committed to one's welfare. Impression management motives involve a desire to maintain a positive image and to avoid creating a negative one.

Examining this scale, the difference between employees experiencing autonomy when carrying out their extra-role behaviors and not experiencing autonomy seems clear. For instance, individuals undertaking extra-role behaviors based on prosocial values generally act based on intrinsic motivation, such that the individual genuinely wants to help others, and feels as though he has autonomous control over such actions. On the other hand, undertaking extra-role behaviors based on a motive to impression manage is extrinsically motivating to the individual, as he persists in such behavior to avoid punishment or loss, as opposed to an authentic need to help and serve others. Thus, this individual experiences some degree of controlled motivation, as his actions to some extent are governed based on rewards or punishments under the control of others.

While Bolino (1999) suggested examining the consequences of OCBs based on the motive behind the behaviors, up to this point, no empirical work has examined the role that motive plays on the relationship between OCB and individual-level consequences. Instead, empirical investigations that examine the role of OCB and its motives have looked only at the relation between motive and frequency of OCB, as opposed to the outcome of such behavior. Thus, the current study aims to examine the role that motive (autonomy) plays in determining the relationship between OCBs and

work-family conflict. When taking into account the role of motives as they pertain to OCBs, it is conceptually possible to distinguish between multiple types of behaviors that range on a continuum from autonomous to controlled.

The Relationship Between Choice and Work-Family Conflict

By applying the findings gleaned from the application of SDT in the workplace to the relationships discerned by Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007) between OCBs and work-family conflict, it seems plausible that individuals who feel as though they have a choice in the extra-role behaviors they undertake should experience less work-family conflict than those who commit such behaviors out of a sense of obligation, guilt, or shame. One rationale for this notion is that those undertaking behaviors out of choice are more autonomously motivated, while those undertaking behaviors out of obligation are more controlled in their motivation, and this difference has shown to be a factor in the determination of positive versus negative well-being.

Individual initiative refers to an employee's internal coercion (introjection) to take on extra-role behaviors. According to SDT, as behavior moves further away from being fully intrinsic, the ability to fulfill the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are undermined, producing decreased satisfaction and reduced individual well-being (Deci et al., 2001). Therefore, employees whose behaviors are extrinsically driven are at a risk of experiencing negative outcomes, even from ostensibly 'voluntary' tasks. This distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has the potential to determine when employees will experience work-family conflict as an outcome of extra-role behaviors.

Examining the empirical research that delves into the effect of autonomy on work-family conflict, a definite theme is recognized, such that those who perceive a

greater level of autonomy over which tasks they undertake and when they undertake them at work tend to experience lower conflict between work and family domains than those lacking this perception (Adams & Jex, 1999; Andreassi & Thompson, 2007; Clark, 2002; Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Grönlund, 2007). For example, Batt and Valcour (2003), in a sample of white-collar employees, found that autonomy, measured as perceived control over which tasks to undertake and how to undertake them, was negatively related to strain-based work-family conflict.

The Role of Autonomy in the Relationship Between OCB and Work-family Conflict

Pulling from these studies that indicate that having perceived control over one's work activities is associated with lower work-family conflict than not having this control, making the link between OCBs, autonomy, and work-family conflict is not a difficult undertaking. When extra-role behaviors were measured by Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007) as individual initiative, employees reported work-family conflict. However, when extra-role behaviors were measured as OCBi, there was no association with work-family conflict. Looking more specifically at these measures, the OCBi measure used by both Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007) indicates that the employee has a choice in carrying the behaviors (i.e., 'Assist others with their duties', 'Help others who have been absent'). On the other hand, the measure of individual initiative is more ambiguous with regard to autonomy, and the behaviors listed in this scale may be those that the individual feels that he should undertake to avoid guilt or reprimand (i.e., 'Stays at work after normal business hours', 'Attends work-related functions on personal time). Piecing these findings together, it may be that the level of perceived control an employee has over undertaking helping behaviors may determine

when the employee will experience work-family conflict based on those behaviors.

Therefore, the following prediction is made:

H1: The relationship between OCB and strain- and time-based work-family conflict will be moderated by autonomy, such that the relationship will be negative when the employee perceives autonomy in undertaking OCBs and will be positive when the employee does not perceive autonomy in undertaking OCBs.

While this discussion has illuminated how autonomy may interact with extra-role helping behavior to affect the employee's experience of strain-based work-family conflict these relationships may potentially occur through the mechanisms of perceived role overload and affect.

OCBs and Strain-based Work-Family Conflict: The Mediating Effects of Role Overload and Affect

While the above discussion helped to shed light on when individuals may experience work-family conflict as a result of undertaking OCBs, the two mechanisms of role overload and affect may help to explain why these consequences might occur.

Role Overload

Role overload refers to the perception that one's available resources are inadequate when it comes to dealing with the various roles that the individual consistently juggles (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoeck, 1964). Due to its emphasis on overwhelming demands at work, it is not surprising that role overload is empirically linked with work-family conflict or the extent to which it interferes with family demands (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, & Keough, 2003; Elloy & Smith, 2004).

Examining extra-role behaviors as they relate to role overload and work-family conflict, Klein et al. (2007) found that individual initiative was positively related to work-family conflict through the mediating influence of role overload. The reasoning behind this relationship was that employees view these behaviors as simply another demand placed upon them in the organization and thus led to role overload, which translated into conflict. This determination is characteristic of behaviors undertaken based on controlled, as opposed to autonomous motivation, which could explain why individual initiative was associated with role overload and subsequent conflict. On the other hand, OCBI and OCBo were not associated with conflict. This may be because OCBI references behaviors that are of greater intrinsic value to the individual, while OCBo refers to behaviors that may be less intrinsically based, but should be based on a greater level of autonomous regulation than individual initiative.

Looking at this from an SDT perspective, those employees undertaking extra-role behaviors based on controlled motives, such that they believe they should take on such behaviors to avoid shame, guilt, or to receive some form of external reward (introjection or external regulation), will potentially view these actions as adding further demands to their role as an employee, leading to overload. This role overload may occur because the employee sees little perceived autonomy with regard to the performance of these actions, and this may lead to heightened conflict, based on the pressure experienced (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000; Grant, 2008). However, when extra-role behaviors are conducted under autonomous motives, where individuals undertake them because they take pleasure in them, or because they find value in them (identification, or integration), individuals should not feel as though these behaviors are placing additional demands on them, and

therefore should not experience overload or increased work-family conflict from these behaviors.

Consistent with the above reasoning, Klein et al. (2007) found no relation between OCBi and role overload. However, these authors did find a significant positive relationship between individual initiative and role overload. This contrast may be due to the nature of measurement, such that the items for OCBi represented greater autonomous motivation in undertaking the behavior, while the degree of autonomy inherent within the behavioral items measuring individual initiative were more ambiguous and were perhaps more likely to be construed as being based on more controlled motivation. Based on this information, the following prediction is made:

H2: The moderating effect of autonomy on the relationship of OCB and strain-based work-family conflict is partially explained by perceived role overload (mediated moderation).

Affect

Aside from role overload, mood may also explain the relationship between OCBs and work-family conflict. Consistent with the research on mood spillover, it is not uncommon for negative affect experienced in one role to adversely affect functioning in another role due to a perceived or actual inability to meet role demands (Piotrkowski, 1979; Repetti, 1989). Additionally, the same has been found in terms of positive affect in one role translating to positive affect in another role (Judge & Ilies, 2004; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Williams & Alliger, 1994). These studies lend support to the notion that affect in one role may spillover to another role to influence whether or not an individual will experience work-family conflict.

Adding OCBs to this line of reasoning makes sense as well, since the link between OCBs and affect has been supported in a number of empirical studies. Most studies to date examining affect as an outcome of OCB have concentrated on the positive effects of these behaviors on employee mood (Harris, 1977; Sprecher, Fehr, & Zimmerman, 2007; Williamson & Clark, 1989). However, this relationship cannot be assumed in all situations. For example, Miner (in press) utilized a random interval experience sampling approach with call center employees and had participants complete one measure of mood in the morning and four throughout the workday. Participants were asked throughout the workday to indicate whether they had been taking part in voluntary or involuntary helping behaviors when the alarm sounded. Within-person analyses of these surveys showed that positive affect was higher when the participant was engaged in voluntary helping behaviors when signaled to complete the survey, while negative affect was higher when the participant was taking part in involuntary helping behaviors at the time of survey completion.

There are a number of potential reasons behind the positive link between helping behavior and mood. First, helping behavior has been found to increase self-esteem and heighten the self-concept, such that individuals who help simply feel better about themselves as a result (Wallach, 2006). Furthermore, individuals might expect to feel better after helping others, and this may transfer into a positive mood state (Sprecher, Fehr, and Zimmerman, 2007; Williamson & Clark, 1989). Harris (1977; Study 3) gave undergraduate participants in his experimental condition the opportunity to help an individual find a paper that she lost while walking on or near a college campus. The author found that helping another individual led to both a higher expectation of positive

mood following helping behavior and a more positive actual mood, measured directly after the helping incident, than those individuals in the control condition who were not given a chance to help another individual. This higher positive mood was found to differ absolutely and when compared to participants' usual mood.

Adding to this, the broaden and build theory (Frederickson, 2003) indicates that those who feel positive emotions are more likely to think and act in new or novel ways, and these actions can lead to a greater array of social, psychological, intellectual, and physical resources available to the individual. In this case, by undertaking OCBs, the person may feel more positively and therefore build these actions into their lifestyle to a greater extent, thus continuing an upward spiral that contributes to overall mood and well-being (Frederickson, 2001).

On the flip side, however, mood maintenance posits that those who feel good tend to show an increase in helpfulness when the helping task is pleasant, but may help less when the act of helping is distasteful (Isen & Levin, 1972; Isen & Simmonds, 1978). Therefore, based on this framework, enjoyable helping behaviors can act to prolong positive affect, while unpleasant actions may disrupt one's positive affect (Carlson, Charlin, & Miller, 1988). Research shows that controlled behaviors are viewed as less pleasurable and more distressful than autonomous behaviors (e.g., Sheldon et al., 2004). It may be that individuals experienced negative affect because their behaviors were involuntary and therefore not fully autonomous. Without this autonomy, then, employees may not enjoy the process of engaging in these extra-role behaviors, which may in turn lead to higher anticipated or experienced negative affect and lower positive affect (Grant, 2008; Ryan & Connell, 1989). On the other hand, those taking part in voluntary helping

behaviors may have felt more autonomous in their behavior and this may have either maintained or boosted their level of anticipated or experienced positive affect. Therefore, the following is predicted:

H3: The moderating effect of autonomy on the relationship of OCB and strain-based work-family conflict is partially explained by affect (mediated moderation).

OCBs and Time-based Work-Family Conflict: The Mediating Effects of Hours Worked

Bergeron (2007) argues that OCBs have the potential to harm the employee due to the time and effort that the individual puts into these behaviors. While the author does not discuss work-family conflict as an outcome of time spent on OCBs, he does indicate that an increase in the number of hours worked by the employee may be just one consequence of undertaking OCBs because any time spent on OCBs is time that is taken away from other areas. While Bergeron (2007) discusses the undertaking of OCBs at the expense of task performance at work, this concept may be replaced by activities in the home. In this situation, taking on OCBs adds to the time an individual must spend at work in addition to one's usual responsibilities, and this additional time may be time that is taken away from the family domain, thus leading to increased time-based work-family conflict.

The rational model of work-family conflict contends that the amount of conflict perceived by an individual will increase steadily as the number of hours spent in work and/or family roles increase (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987). Examining hours spent at work specifically, this model has received a great deal of support (Britt & Dawson, 2005; Byron, 2005; Hill, 2005; Noor, 1999; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992; Reynolds & Aletraris, 2007). Examining time-based work-family conflict specifically,

Major, Klein, and Ehrhart (2002) found that as work time for employees in a Fortune 500 company increased, so too did their perceptions of time-based work-family conflict. Looking closer at this notion, it would seem that time-based conflict would be the work-family conflict dimension most likely to be affected by work hours, given that time is a limited resource, and time spent in the work domain takes away from time that can be spent in the family domain (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991).

Examining extra-role behaviors as they relate to time at work and work-family conflict, Klein et al. (2007) found that work time, measured as the number of hours worked in an average week, was positively related to OCBo, OCBi, and individual initiative. Furthermore, work time partially mediated the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict. The authors justified these findings with the notion that OCBs boil down to more work for the employee, whether it is helping an absent employee catch up on his work (OCBi), planning the office's holiday party (OCBo), or checking email and remaining in touch with the office during non-work hours (individual initiative). Regardless of the dimension of OCB, taking on these behaviors leads to increased tasks for the employee, which translates into additional time spent either physically at work, working from home, or both. Based on this increased demand on the employee's time, it seems reasonable that the employee would subsequently experience conflict between work and family, especially as a consequence of individual initiative, as this is associated with taking the performance of OCBs far beyond its usual limits (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Interestingly, time at work mediated the relationship between OCB and work-family conflict only for individual initiative, as opposed to either OCBi or

OCBo. This could indicate that autonomy in terms of undertaking OCBs is also a factor when it comes to the experience of work-time and work-family conflict.

Looking at this from an SDT perspective, those employees undertaking extra-role behaviors based on controlled motives, such that they believe they should take on such behaviors to avoid shame, guilt, or to receive some form of external reward (introjection or external regulation), may potentially put more time into these behaviors based on a perception of judgment, therefore leading to extra time at work and increased time-based work-family conflict. However, when extra-role behaviors are conducted under personal autonomy, where individuals choose to undertake them because they take pleasure in them, or because they find value in them (identification, or integration), individuals may be less likely to allow this to impact their work-time a great extent, since they are free to begin and cease these activities as they see fit. Therefore engaging in these behaviors should not lead to time-based conflict between work and family.

On the other hand, perceiving a choice when it comes to engaging in OCBs may also lead to additional time at work (Major et al., 2002). Grant (2008) found that firefighters high in both prosocial motivation and intrinsic motivation worked significantly more overtime hours than those with high prosocial motivation and low intrinsic motivation. The author reasoned that, consistent with SDT, intrinsic motivation in this case led to increased persistence on the part of the firefighters, leading to an increase in time spent at work. Therefore, if an individual enjoys the activities or tasks that he is undertaking, he may be more likely to persist at these tasks. However, it may also be true that if an individual does not enjoy the tasks or activities that he is engaging in, and engages in them only because he feels as though he has to, he will not persist in

these activities for an extended period of time, and therefore will not add additional time to his work day (Grant, 2008).

Based on this information, the following prediction is made:

H4: The moderating effect of autonomy on the relationship of OCB and time-based work-family conflict is partially explained by time spent at work (mediated moderation).

Chapter 2

METHOD

Overview

The current study utilized two online surveys (www.surveymonkey.com; Appendix B), with one directed at employees and the other directed at each employee's spouse/significant other. The primary respondent survey included the measurement of how often employees engage in OCBs, as well as the motives underlying these behaviors, followed by additional scales used to capture the variables tested in the proposed model, including the dependent measure of work-family conflict. In addition to this survey, in order to reduce the threat of common method bias, the employee's spouse/significant other provided ratings of the employee's work-family conflict.

Sample and Procedure

Participants were recruited by trained undergraduate research assistants from a large public university in the northeastern United States. For class credit, 70 students enrolled in an upper division psychology course completed research ethics training and were instructed by the author to identify employees who met the following criteria: over 18 years of age, non-student, had some contact with coworkers, and had a spouse/significant other who could complete a brief survey about the participant. The recruits sent an email provided by the primary investigator to each potential participant who met these criteria. This email described the study as being about employee behavior and perceptions in the workplace and an electronic link to the main survey was provided. Additionally, the recruitment email instructed the respondent to forward a separate survey link to his/her spouse or significant other in order to complete a brief survey about the

primary respondent. Assistants earned 5% course credit for obtaining completed surveys from two employees and their spouse/significant other, and they could earn additional credit for acquiring up to two more completed survey sets. In order to assign extra credit to the assistants, as well as to link each focal employee's data with the spouse/significant other's data, respondents and spouses/significant others entered a code at the end of each respective survey. This code consisted of the research assistant's last name and a number assigned by the research assistant that varied for each recruited participant.

Usable surveys were collected from 183 primary respondents. Of the 183 respondents, three did not give permission for their responses to be utilized for research purposes and therefore were eliminated from further analyses. Of the resulting 180 respondents, 116 (64.4% of original sample) had matching spouse/significant other data and therefore were retained for this study's analyses.

It is possible that respondents with spousal ratings differ in a meaningful way from those who do not, thus biasing our findings. T-tests were used to compare both groups on the mean levels of key self-reported variables utilized in the study. Results of these analyses showed that the two groups did not significantly differ on frequency of OCB, $t(178) = 1.49, p > .05$, perceived autonomy in undertaking OCB, $t(178) = 1.16, p > .05$, frequency of individual initiative behaviors, $t(178) = 1.91, p > .05$, perceived autonomy in undertaking individual initiative behaviors, $t(178) = 0.18, p > .05$, self-rated strain-based work-family conflict, $t(177) = 1.63, p > .05$, and time-based work-family conflict, $t(177) = 1.16, p > .05$, thus minimizing the possibility of sampling bias influencing our results.

Of all 116 focal respondents, 48 (41%) were male and 68 (59%) were female, with an average age of 43.34 years. The majority of respondents were Caucasian (84%), followed by Hispanic/Latino (6%) and African American (3%). Overall, 4% of the participants were single, 91% were married or living with a partner, and 5% were separated or divorced. Additionally, 39% of participants had at least one dependent child under the age of 18 living at home, while 61% had no children under 18 living at home. With regard to education, 14% attended some college but did not receive a college degree, 39% held an undergraduate degree, 19% had a master's degree, while 6% held a doctorate. Respondents represented a wide number of occupational categories, including clerical work (17%), sales (13%), education (13%), health/caring work (12%), and technical work (11%), with an average tenure of 8.82 years.

Measures

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Organizational citizenship behavior frequency (focusing on the altruism dimension) was measured using Lee and Allen's (2002) subscale. This scale contained 5 items (i.e., 'Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems. '), and participants were asked to indicate the frequency in which they had engaged in these behaviors over the past month. Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from 'never' to 'always', and calculation of the scale was computed by averaging the scores for each item. This scale had an alpha coefficient of .83.

Individual initiative (II). Individual initiative was measured using 5 items from Bolino and Turnley's (2005) scale. This scale consisted of behaviors such as 'Stays at work after normal business hours.' and 'Attends work-related functions on personal

time.’. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency in which they had engaged in these behaviors over the past month. Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘always’, and calculation of the scale was computed by averaging the scores for each item. This scale had an alpha coefficient of .83.

Relative autonomy. The Self Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ; Ryan & Connell, 1989) was used in the current study to determine the degree to which respondents engaged in organizational citizenship behaviors for autonomous reasons in the past month. The scale included slight modifications in response wording to reflect the nature of OCBs and the organizational context. Respondents rated their perceived autonomy in undertaking citizenship behavior after responding to both OCB and II scales. Respondents were asked to indicate how true 12 statements were in terms of the reason behind their citizenship behaviors (i.e., ‘Because engaging in these behaviors is important and beneficial for myself and my organization.’). Responses were made on a 7-point scale ranging from ‘Not at all true’ to ‘Very true’. The scale contained 4 subscales, representing the four types of regulation underlying human behavior (external, introjected, identified, intrinsic). To attain a score for this scale, all subscale items were combined into one Relative Autonomy Index (RAI) by use of the following formula: $2(M_{Intrinsic}) + M_{Identified} - M_{Introjected} - 2(M_{External})$ (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Ryan & Connell, 1989). The scale in its full form had an alpha coefficient of .83; the individual subscales did not form reliable scales and were not examined separately.

Time spent at work. Work time was measured using two items, consisting of the following questions: ‘How many hours do you work in an average week? Include time spent doing job-related work at home’ and ‘On your last regular work day at this job,

how many hours did you work? Include time spent doing job-related work at home.'

(Major et al., 2002). As suggested by Major et al. (2002), items were combined by first multiplying the hours worked in the last regular work day by five, then calculating the mean of this outcome and the number of hours worked in an average week. This scale had an alpha coefficient of .77.

Role overload. Role overload was measured using the 3 items (i.e., 'It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.') that Bolino and Turnley (2005) used in their study to measure the same variable. These items were based on scales developed by Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jennings (1989) and Beehr, Walsh, and Taber (1976) and tap both time pressure and work load. Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The scale score was computed by averaging the items and had an alpha coefficient of .87.

Affect at work. Employee affect was measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). This scale consisted of a list of 20 affective traits and participants rated each emotion based on the extent to which they had felt the emotion at work over the past 30 days. Responses were based on a 5-point scale ranging from 'very slightly or not at all' to 'extremely'. The scale was made up of 2 subscales, measuring positive affect and negative affect, and subscale scores are computed by averaging the 10 items that make up each subscale. The PANAS had alpha coefficients of .91 and .84 for PA and NA, respectively.

Work-family conflict (WFC). Work-family conflict of the focal employee was both self-rated and rated by the employee's spouse/significant other using the Work-Family Conflict Scale (WFCS; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000), which included time- and

strain-based work-to-family scales. Both subscales contained 3 statements whose stems were modified for the spouse/significant other survey to reflect that the focal respondents' spouse/significant other completed these items (i.e., My spouse/significant other has to miss family activities due to the amount of time he/she must spend on work responsibilities.', 'When my spouse/significant other gets home from work, he/she is often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.'). Individuals responded to these items on a 5-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', and scores were computed by averaging the 3 items that made up each subscale. These subscales had alpha coefficients of .90 and .92 for time-based and strain-based conflict, respectively.

Demographics/control variables. Participants were asked to indicate their gender, race (i.e., African/African-American, Hispanic/Latino, Asian, Caucasian, Indian, Middle Eastern, Native American, South American), age in years, marital status (i.e., single, living with a partner, married, separated, divorced, widowed), organizational tenure in years and months, educational level (i.e., no degree, high school diploma, junior college or Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, technical degree, Master's degree, doctorate), and the number of dependent children under the age of 18 currently living in the home.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

Descriptive Analyses

Bivariate correlations for the observed variables and their means and standard deviations can be found in Table 1. To reduce issues of common method variance, all WFC analyses will be reported based solely on the spouse/significant other's responses to these subscales, where applicable. There was a high correlation between self- and spouse-reported strain-based ($r = .40, p < .01$) and time-based ($r = .59, p < .01$) WFC, supporting that the spouse rating represents the target respondents' experience but also provides unique information. Mean levels of reported strain- and time-based WFC ($M_{strain-based} = 2.62, SD = 1.05$; $M_{time-based} = 2.76, SD = .99$) tended to be slightly lower than means reported in previous studies utilizing the same scale (Carlson et al., 2000; Carlson et al., 2003).

Given my interest in moderating effects, I did not propose any direct effects of OCB on WFC or the proposed mediators. However, it is useful to consider whether there are direct effects to see how the results compare to other studies. The correlation matrix suggests no association between OCB ($M = 2.62, SD = .79$) and both strain-based ($r = -.03, p > .05$) and time-based ($r = -.02, p > .05$) conflict, consistent with the findings of Klein et al. (2007). . Similarly, II ($M = 3.22, SD = .80$) was not found to be related to strain-based conflict ($r = .03, p > .05$), but had a strong positive relationship with time-based conflict ($r = .34, p < .01$), consistent with the findings of Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007).

Examining the relationships between OCB and II and each of the proposed mediators, it was found that OCB was unrelated to negative affect ($r = .10, p > .05$), role overload ($r = .02, p > .05$), and hours worked per week ($r = .07, p > .05$), though OCB was positively associated with positive affect ($r = .23, p < .05$). On the other hand, II was positively associated with both positive ($r = .33, p < .01$) and negative ($r = .20, p < .05$) affect, role overload ($r = .34, p < .01$), and hours worked per week ($r = .45, p < .01$). These findings are consistent with prior research with regard to the relationship between OCB and role overload (Bolino & Turnley, 2005) as well as between II and role overload and hours worked per week (Klein et al., 2007).

Hypothesis Testing Predicting WFC: Moderation by Autonomy

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the relationship between OCB/II and strain- and time-based work-family conflict would be moderated by autonomy, such that the relationship would be negative when the employee perceived autonomy in undertaking extra-role behaviors and would be positive when the employee did not perceive this autonomy when undertaking such behaviors. To test this prediction, two hierarchical regressions were run based on Baron and Kenny (1986), one for OCB and one for II. Gender, marital status, and parental status were entered as controls in step 1, the direct predictors of OCB/II and their respective autonomy measures were entered in step 2, and the centered interaction terms (OCB x OCB relative autonomy; II x II relative autonomy) were entered in step 3.

Table 2 depicts each step of the regression analyses described above for both OCB and II. For OCB, the control variables accounted for a significant 7% ($p < .05$) of the variance explained in strain-based conflict. However, OCB, autonomy, and the

interaction did not account for significant incremental variance explained. Similarly, with regard to II, the controls, predictors, and the interaction did not explain a significant amount of variance in strain-based conflict. For time-based conflict, the direct effect of II was positive ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) beyond other variables, but the interaction was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypotheses 2-4 predicted mediated moderation, such that the moderating effect of autonomy on the relationship between OCB/II and WFC would be explained by the mediating variables of affect (H2), role overload (H3) and hours worked per week (H4). According to Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005), in order to establish support for mediated moderation, the first condition that must be met analytically is a significant interaction term when predicting the outcome variable, thus indicating an overall moderating effect. However, Table 2 shows us that autonomy did not moderate the relationship between OCB/II and strain- or time-based WFC. Therefore, Hypotheses 2-4 were not supported.

Exploratory Analyses Predicting WFC: Mediation by Mood and Overload

My results suggest that perceived autonomy with regard to engaging in OCB/II did not change the relationships with work-family conflict. Therefore, I attempted to replicate and extend previous findings that the relationship between II and time-based WFC is explained by work affect, stress/overload, and hours worked per week. Following the strategy outlined in Baron and Kenny (1986), three steps are required in an assessment of mediation: (1) the DV is regressed onto the independent variable (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 non-significant relationship between the IV and DV when the mediator

is present (step 3). As evidenced in Table 2, the first step in showing mediation is supported, but only for the relationship between II and time-based WFC. Support for step two in Baron and Kenny's (1986) analytic plan is shown in Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6, such that II is significantly associated with negative affect ($\beta = .18, p < .01$), positive affect ($\beta = .34, p < .05$), role overload ($\beta = .33, p < .05$), and hours worked per week ($\beta = .44, p < .05$), respectively.

Table 7 shows the effect of these four mediators on time-based WFC simultaneously, indicating that the coefficient for II was reduced ($\beta = .27$ versus $.33$) when all four of these mediators were entered into the regression equation. Additionally, both positive affect and role overload predicted WFC beyond the controls, II, and the other mediators. To further assess the mediating effects of positive affect and role overload, these variables were analyzed separately.

Table 8 indicates that when positive affect was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II actually increased rather than decreased ($\beta = .34$ versus $.40$). Therefore, partial mediation was not supported for this variable.

With regard to role overload, Table 8 also shows that when role overload was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II decreased ($\beta = .33$ versus $.23$). A Sobel test was performed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to determine whether the indirect effect of II on time-based conflict through role overload was significant, and partial mediation was supported ($z = 2.30, p < .05$). This finding replicated previous research examining one mechanism for the relationship between II and work-family conflict (Klein, Allen, & Dorio, 2007).

Exploratory Analyses: Moderated Mediation

While the proposed mediated moderation was not supported in this study, moderated mediation may be possible. Moderated mediation occurs when there exists a mediating effect between the predictor and outcome that varies as a function of the moderator. It is important to note that in this analysis it is not essential to have a significant moderating or mediating effect, but rather, a mediation effect that varies based on the proposed moderating variable.

In order to test for moderated mediation, the following equations were conducted (Muller et al., 2005):

$$\text{Equation 1. } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Mo + \beta_3 XMo + e_4$$

$$\text{Equation 2. } Me = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X + \beta_3 Mo + \beta_4 XMo + e_5$$

$$\text{Equation 3. } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Mo + \beta_3 XMo + \beta_4 Me + \beta_5 MeMo + e_6$$

In each of the above equations, β_0 is the constant, X is II, Mo is autonomy, XMo is the interaction between II and autonomy, Me is the proposed mediator, $MoMe$ is the interaction between the proposed mediator and autonomy, and Y is WFC. In order to gain support for moderated mediation, two conditions must be satisfied: 1) the relationship between II and time-based WFC should be significant (Equation 1), but the interaction term of autonomy and II should be non-significant for time-based WFC (Equation 1) and 2) the interaction term of autonomy and II should be significant for the proposed mediator (Equation 2) and the proposed mediator should have a significant effect on time-based WFC (Equation 3).

Negative affect. For negative affect, condition 1 (Table 2) for moderated mediation was supported, such that the relationship between II and time-based WFC was significant (Equation 1), but the interaction term of autonomy and II was non-significant

for time-based WFC (Equation 1) . When examining condition 2, the interaction term of autonomy and II was significant for negative affect (Equation 2; Table 3; $\beta = -.20, p < .05$) and negative affect was significantly associated with time-based WFC (Equation 3; $\beta = .30, p < .05$). Therefore, moderated mediation was supported for negative affect. This interaction is graphed in Figure 3. Here we see that at low levels of autonomy, the relationship between II and NA is strong and positive, whereas at high levels of autonomy, II and NA are unrelated.

The same analyses were conducted for the other three mediators (see Tables 2 and 4). However, no other analyses supported moderated mediation.

Additional Sample Analyses

Self-rated WFC. A major difference between the current study and the two prior studies examining the relationship between OCB/II and WFC is that these prior studies utilized only self-reported work-family conflict measures (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein et al., 2007). While the direct relationships of both Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007) were replicated in the current study, it may be that the proposed moderating results would be found when using self- instead of other-reported WFC. As discussed above, self-reported work-family conflict was collected in the current study, but all analyses were run using spouse/significant other-reported conflict in order to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In an effort to determine if the examination of self-reported conflict would change the outcome of the main analyses, all prior analyses were re-run using these data, and the summarized results compared to the full sample are shown in Table 9. The results were similar to the spouse

ratings; thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported, nor were mediated moderation analyses possible to examine.

I also examined the four proposed mediators of the II-WFC relationship using the self-reported strain-based WFC measure. When all four mediators were entered into the regression equation predicting self-reported strain-based WFC, the coefficient for II was slightly reduced ($\beta = .39$ to $.33$), and both positive affect and role overload predicted WFC beyond the controls, II, and the other mediators. To further assess the mediating effects of positive affect and role overload, these variables were analyzed separately. When positive affect was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II increased rather than decreased ($\beta = .40$ to $.50$), so partial mediation was not supported. With regard to role overload, when this variable was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II decreased ($\beta = .40$ to $.28$). A Sobel test was performed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to determine whether the indirect effect of II on time-based conflict through role overload was significant, and partial mediation was supported ($z = 2.41, p < .01$). When reported by the spouse/significant other, no mediation effects were found for strain-based WFC.

When focusing on mediators of time-based WFC, using self-reported WFC, when all mediators were entered into the regression equation the coefficient for II was reduced ($\beta = .44$ to $.30$). Additionally, positive affect, role overload, and hours worked per week predicted WFC beyond the controls, II, and the other mediators. To further assess mediating effects, these variables were analyzed separately. When positive affect was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II increased rather than decreased ($\beta = .53$ versus $.44$), lending no support for partial mediation. With

regard to role overload, when this variable was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II decreased ($\beta = .30$ versus $.44$). A Sobel test was performed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to determine whether the indirect effect of II on time-based conflict through role overload was significant, and partial mediation was supported ($z = 2.70, p < .01$). For hours worked per week, when this variable was the only mediator entered into the regression equation, the beta coefficient for II decreased ($\beta = .34$ versus $.40$). A Sobel test was performed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to determine whether the indirect effect of II on time-based conflict through hours worked was significant, and partial mediation was supported ($z = 3.19, p < .01$). These mediation findings for both overload and work hours replicate Klein et al. (2007), while I only found support for role overload with the other-reported WFC time-based measure.

Dependent Children Sample. Another factor that sets this study apart from the two prior studies examining the impact of OCBs on work-family conflict is that 39% of the current study participants had children, whereas Klein et al. (2007) utilized a sample where 100% of the participants had children, and Bolino and Turnley (2005) used a sample with 51% of the participants having dependent children. In order to determine if parental status may have affected the degree of support found in the current study, all analyses were re-run on a sample where all participants had children ($N = 45$) and a sample where no participants had children ($N = 71$), with other-reported conflict as the dependent variable. Results of these analyses are summarized in Table 10. Consistent with the full-sample analyses, OCB was not associated with strain- or time-based conflict for those both with and without children. Additionally, consistent with the full sample, II was not related to strain-based WFC, but was positively associated with time-based

conflict ($\beta = .35, p < .01$) for those both with and without children. The dependent children status of the respondents did not change the results for the moderating effects in terms of OCB and II for both strain- and time-based WFC. Furthermore, no support was found for either mediation or mediated moderation. While there were other relationships that were no longer significant (see Table 10), this could simply be due to the small sample size and thus low power to detect significant results.

Gender. Gender representation (41%M; 59%F) in the current study is comparable to that of both Bolino and Turnley (51%M; 49%F) and Klein et al. (46%M; 54%M). However, given differences in the experience of WFC based on gender indicated in prior research (see Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005 for a review), I examined these groups separately. The analyses separated by gender are summarized in Table 11. For both males ($N = 48$) and females ($N = 68$), the relationships of OCB/II with work-family conflict was similar, with only II having a significant positive relationship with time-based WFC ($\beta = .37, p < .01$; $\beta = .30, p < .05$ for males and females respectively). Most of the OCB relationships were the same for both men and women, though some relationships were no longer significant for either, suggesting low power to detect significant relationships within these sub-groups (see Table 11). There were some interesting gender differences in terms of the association of II and the mediating variables. Engaging in II was associated with role overload and hours worked per week for women, but not for men (see Table 11). In contrast, II was associated with positive affect for both men and women, though more strongly for men ($\beta = .51, p < .01$ and $\beta = .27, p < .05$, respectively).

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to determine the effect of autonomy on the relationship between helping behaviors and work-family conflict, as well as to determine the mediating factors that account for said conflict. It was predicted that the relationship between OCB/II and both strain- and time-based WFC would depend on the degree of autonomy employees perceived in undertaking these helping behaviors, and that the effect of this moderation would be due to the intervening mechanisms of affect, role overload, and hours worked per week. Overall, while many of the results of the current study are consistent with prior research examining the relationship between OCB/II and WFC, as well as potential mediators (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein et al., 2007), the role of autonomy in this relationship was not as predicted. Below I review the results from the hypothesis testing, and then some explanations and post-hoc analyses.

Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the relationship between helping behaviors and strain- and time-based conflict would be moderated by autonomy, such that the greater autonomy an individual had in undertaking citizenship behaviors in the workplace, the weaker the relationship would be between these behaviors and conflict. However, if the employee perceived lower autonomy in helping others at work, the relationship between helping and conflict was predicted to be strong and positive. These relationships were predicted based on the underpinnings of self determination theory, in that the greater autonomy and volition one experiences with regard to behaviors enacted, the higher psychological well-being he/she will experience as a result.

Utilizing a sample of adults working at least twenty hours per week in a wide variety of occupations, with spouse-provided ratings of work-family conflict, this initial hypothesis was not supported, as autonomy was not found to moderate the relationship between helping behaviors and work-family conflict. Given that Hypotheses 2-4 were based on this initial finding of moderation, these too were not supported. These hypotheses were based on mediated moderation, such that it was predicted that autonomy would moderate the relationship between helping and conflict and this interaction effect would be explained by positive and negative affect (H2), role overload (H3) and hours worked per week (H4). Given the lack of an interaction effect between helping in the workplace and autonomy on work-family conflict, none of these predictions could be supported.

While these hypotheses were not supported, a number of useful findings were determined from this study. For example, consistent with Bolino and Turnley (2005) and Klein et al. (2007), I found that OCB was unrelated to both strain- and time-based WFC, while II was unrelated to strain-based WFC, but positively associated with time-based conflict. Thus, volunteering to help coworkers seems to have little effect on the experience of strain, stress, or time spent in the workplace conflicting with one's family life. However, when helping the organization, such that employees rearrange their personal lives to accommodate their work tasks and activities, this has the effect of taking time away from one's family life, thus increasing conflict between work and family domains.

Inherent differences in the way each scale is written could account for the differential relationships between OCB, II, and WFC. For example, frequency of OCB is

measured by listing a number of behaviors such as ‘Help others who have been absent’, whereas II is measured by behaviors such as ‘Attends work-related functions on personal time’. The difference between these scales is that II introduces an element of work-life interference, whereas OCB does not. To examine this issue more closely, I separated II into two separate measures—the one item that does not imply interference with one’s personal life (‘Volunteers for special projects in addition to normal job duties’) and the four remaining items that do feature an implied interference with one’s personal life (i.e., ‘Stay at work after normal business hours’). Interestingly, when analyzed as two separate measures, the one item that did not imply interference with one’s personal life was not associated with time-based WFC ($\beta = .08, p > .05$), while the remaining four items were positively associated with conflict ($\beta = .34, p < .01$). Each of these four items individually predicted time-based WFC as well. This is an initial step that indicates that perhaps the differences in the relationship between II and WFC and OCB and WFC are at least partially due to the way the majority of scale items are written, indicating an issue of construct overlap between II and WFC.

Looking beyond the possibility of construct overlap as a reason for the contrasting relationships between OCB, II, and WFC, the goal of the current study was to determine whether the employee’s perceived degree of autonomy in undertaking helping behaviors in the workplace moderated the relationship between OCB and WFC or II and WFC. Considerable research examining the role of autonomy on personal outcomes has shown that higher levels of perceived autonomy are linked with reduced physical health symptoms, lower anxiety, greater vitality, and overall better physical and mental health and well-being (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Reis, Sheldon, Gable,

Roscoe, and Ryan, 2000). Based on self determination theory, the reasoning behind this link between autonomy and well-being is that autonomy is a basic psychological need, and when individuals are able to act on their own volition, their actions controlled only by themselves, this need is satisfied, thus leading to optimal human functioning (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Following this line of thought, it seems plausible that the role of autonomy may have a moderating effect on the link between helping behavior and a sign of stress – work-family conflict. However, this moderating effect was not found, and there are a number of explanations as to why this is the case.

First, the variable of autonomy was OCB- and II-specific, where employees were asked to indicate the degree to which they undertook these behaviors based on a wide variety of motives, and the degree of relative autonomy was determined based on the combination of both internally and externally controlled reasons. However, when measuring autonomy in light of self determination, this construct is most often discussed in terms of overall psychological need satisfaction, as opposed to specific instances. For example, Baard et al. (2004) and Deci et al. (2001) examined autonomy at work by asking employees to indicate their degree of perceived autonomy in a scale that addressed a number of varied work circumstances and asked participants to respond based on their job perceptions over the span of the past year. This way, the researcher was able to obtain an overall measure of autonomy at work, as opposed to a situation-specific measure, and this may have made a difference in the current study. In order to determine whether a more general measure of autonomy at work would make a difference in the current study's outcome, follow-up analyses were conducted utilizing the same measure used by the above researchers, except that participants were asked to respond to questions about

their job over the past month instead of year. This alternate measure also did not moderate the relationship between OCB/II and WFC. Additionally, a measure of overall self determination, examining the psychological need satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, was also analyzed in this context and moderation was not supported in this case either. These results indicate that perhaps the specific nature of the autonomy measure may not be the reason for the lack of moderation between helping behaviors and WFC.

It should be pointed out here that a significant mean difference existed between the self-reported degree of autonomy associated with OCB versus II, $t(116) = -6.56, p < .01$. This difference is counter to the reasoning of the current study, such that employees reported *more* autonomy when it came to undertaking II behaviors, as opposed to OCB. While this is inconsistent with the author's arguments, it does make sense, in that Morrison (1994) found that employees differ in what they view as in-role and extra-role behaviors, and that how individuals view OCB depends on how far-reaching they view their job responsibilities. In this light, employees may view less autonomy in undertaking OCB because the boundary between what they *must* do on the job and what they *choose* to do on the job is unclear. On the other hand, because II behaviors seem to go so far and above an employee's responsibilities on the job, the individual may view this boundary much more clearly and therefore report experiencing a higher level of autonomy when it comes to undertaking II than OCB.

Leading from the above information, another explanation as to why autonomy did not moderate the relationship between OCB/II and WFC could be the nature of the sample. In the current sample, 64% of the focal respondents held at least a bachelors

degree, with 50% of the sample in a management or supervisory position in the workplace. Therefore, it may be that these individuals already had a relatively high degree of autonomy at work, and therefore this variable did not have the intended impact on WFC because we had few participants who indicated truly low autonomy. Consistent with this notion, the overall autonomy index for the current sample was only slightly below zero ($M = -.13$) for OCB, and above zero ($M = 1.20$) for II. Due to the weighting of controlled and non-controlled motives when determining an individual's relative autonomy, higher values (those above zero) represent behavior that is less externally controlled/more autonomous, while lower values (those below zero) represent behavior that is more externally controlled/less autonomous. While prior researchers utilizing this scale did not indicate mean levels of relative autonomy for comparison (e.g. Grolnick & Ryan, 1989), it was found that the employees in the current study indicated higher levels of perceived autonomy at work than in previous studies utilizing the same 7-point scale (e.g., $M = 5.28$ versus 3.15 ; Deci et al., 2001). Therefore, the moderating effect of autonomy on WFC may have been supported if this sample were made up of individuals with a lower degree of autonomy in their positions.

Finally, the lack of moderation may be because the sample utilized included many employees (61%) with either grown children or no children at home, thus decreasing the incidence of work-family conflict in the overall sample. To address this concern, the sample was divided into those with children under 18 years living in the home and those with no children/children not living in the home, and all study analyses were run on both samples. Results (Table 10) showed that autonomy did not moderate the relationship between helping and conflict for either sample, consistent with results found with the

overall sample. Interestingly, when looking at the means for WFC for both samples, it was found that those with no children/children not living in the home had *higher* levels of time-based conflict when compared to those with children in the home ($M = 2.82$ for no children in the home; $M = 2.67$ for children in the home), though these differences were not significant [$t(114) = .78, p > .05$]. On the other hand, those with children in the home had higher strain-based conflict ($M = 2.73$) than those with no children in the home ($M = 2.55$), although again, these differences were not significant [$t(114) = -.89, p > .05$]. Additionally, those with no children in the home reported lower frequency of OCB ($M = 3.48$) than those with children in the home ($M = 3.68$), but indicated higher frequency of II ($M = 3.26$) than those with children in the home ($M = 3.15$). While these differences too were nonsignificant [$t(114) = -1.36, p > .05$ and $t(114) = .77, p > .05$, respectively], these trends indicate that those with children in the home seem to experience greater stress from the push and pull of work and home domains and tend to take on helping behaviors far beyond their job responsibilities to a lesser degree than those without children. However, having dependents does not necessarily translate into lower interpersonal OCBs in contrast to those without dependents.

Mediation

Without the significant interaction term of OCB/II and autonomy on WFC, the proposed mediated moderation of positive and negative affect, role overload, and hours worked per week was not supported. Despite this, a number of interesting findings were determined with regard to the relationship between helping behaviors and the four proposed mediators. For example, engaging in either measure of ‘extra effort’ meant more positive affect at work, but individual initiative was also positively related to

negative affect, role overload, and hours worked per week. Thus, this tells us that being a good citizen at work can act to boost one's positive mood. However, while a positive mood might accompany activities that go far beyond the call of one's daily duties, the employee also may experience heightened negative mood, a determination that he/she has far too much work for one person to complete, and an increase in time spent at work.

Leading from these findings, and consistent with Klein et al. (2007), the current study provides further support for the mediating effect of role overload on the relationship between II and WFC. I provide a constructive replication of the Klein et al. (2007) finding by showing that role overload explained the positive relationship between II and time-based WFC for spouse-rated WFC as well as self-reported WFC. Thus, the relationships are not simply due to source or a self-perceptual bias. Furthermore, and also consistent with Klein et al. (2007), hours worked per week explained this relationship, but only when WFC was self-reported. These findings follow the notion that those who go above and beyond the call of duty have increased spillover from work to family due to both the psychological sense of overload and the increase in time to meet these additional responsibilities.

While mediated moderation was not supported in this study, it was deemed possible, given the significant correlations between II and the four proposed mediators discussed above, that moderated mediation may be supported, such that the mediating effect between II and time-based WFC may vary as a function of autonomy. Consistent with my theoretical ideas from SDT, autonomy moderated the relationship between individual initiative and negative affect, such that when autonomy was low, this relationship was strong and positive. However, when autonomy was high, engaging in II

behaviors did not predict negative mood at work. This suggests that as employees are given less autonomy in the behaviors they engage in with regard to work, their affective well-being in light of these activities is endangered. These findings are consistent with the general nature of autonomy, such that its effects are most consistently associated with cognitive and affective, as opposed to behavioral, outcomes. More autonomous behavior is linked strongly to affective outcomes such as heightened self-esteem, increased positive affect, and greater feelings of self-worth because actions under one's own control are generally viewed by the individual as more satisfying and positive (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2000; McDonough & Crocker, 2007). In this case, the interaction of autonomy and II has a more proximal effect on negative affect, indirectly affecting WFC through this experienced affectivity, as opposed to a direct effect on WFC. This finding is in support of both the general tenets of self determination theory, as well as the more specific affective effects of individual autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Theoretical Implications

The current study sought to replicate and extend prior research findings on the relationship between helping behaviors and work-family conflict, and in doing so highlighted a number of theoretical implications. First, because II was positively related to time-based WFC and unrelated to strain-based WFC, this lends credibility to the multidimensionality of WFC. Previous studies examining the relationship between helping behaviors and WFC have measured conflict as a unidimensional construct (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein et al., 2007), and a call for the utilization of measures that more clearly distinguish between different forms of conflict led to the measurement

of both strain- and time-based conflict in the current study (Kossek & Ozeki, 1988). Based on the present findings, it seems that taking on behaviors at work that go beyond the call of duty interferes with one's home life because time devoted to the work role is time taken away from the home role because time is finite. Therefore, the time devoted to one's work activities is time stripped from one's home activities, which leads to heightened time-based work-family conflict.

It is interesting to note that II was not associated with strain-based conflict, as rated by the employee's spouse, so taking on behaviors in the workplace above and beyond the call of duty may not necessarily lead to observable signs of strain at home. This may mean that employees are better at coping with these stressors before they reach the point of strain, or that the employees actually enjoy these extra activities, which does not seem out of the question, given that II was also positively related to positive affect. In this case, by feeling more positive at work, this may reduce the strain/affective spillover to home.

As mentioned above, in addition to the findings associated with extra-role behaviors and WFC, it was also determined that II was positively associated with positive affect, negative affect, role overload, and hours worked per week, and OCB was also positively associated with positive affect. While previous research had shed light on the relationship between II and role overload and hours worked per week (Klein et al., 2007), this study added further support to these variables as two mechanisms underlying the positive relationship between II and WFC. With regard to the helping behavior- positive affect link, these findings are consistent with the notion that helping others is reinforced by the positive affect and pleasant feelings associated with such behaviors (Carlson et al.,

1988; Toegel, Anand, & Kilduff, 2007). This follows with social exchange theory in that people help others in part because they want to gain from that behavior (Blau, 1964). In this situation, individuals calculate rewards and costs and aim to maximize the rewards from their behavior while minimizing the costs.

Additionally, the role of mood maintenance may come into play here, such that enjoyable helping behaviors can act to prolong positive affect, whereas unpleasant actions may lead to a disruption in positive affect, which might account for the positive relationship between II and NA. However, taking this relationship further, I found that the effect of II on NA varied by the degree of autonomy perceived in undertaking II behaviors. This adds further support to self determination theory, as individuals whose need for autonomy is not satisfied tend to experience decreased psychological well-being in comparison to those whose need for control and volition is satisfied.

Taken together, these findings support and build on Bergeron's (2007) purported paradox of helping behaviors in the workplace, based on the resource allocation framework (Becker, 1965). Bergeron purports that citizenship behaviors in the workplace have the potential to lead to unintentional harm to the employee due to the level of personal resources it takes to engage in such behaviors. In the case of the current study, the personal resource most at stake when taking on helping behaviors above and beyond what is expected in the workplace is that of time, which subsequently leads to the experience of time-based WFC.

According to the resource allocation framework, time is a fixed resource, and employees must make decisions daily in terms of how and where they will spend their time. Based on this notion, with regard to II, employees make the decision to exert time

and energy on extrarole behaviors at work at the expense of personal time at home, leading to the experience of time-based conflict, which in itself is a negative experience for the employee. Additionally, beyond this conflict, because WFC has been linked with increased job dissatisfaction, greater turnover intentions, decreased career satisfaction, and lower perceived career success, it may be that, as Bergeron (2007) proposed, helping behaviors in the workplace also have the paradoxical effect of leading to negative career consequences (Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Peluchette, 1993).

Negative career consequences may occur because the employee experiences conflict and either decides to leave the position or reduce his/her hours at work in order to have more time with his/her family. Each of these actions may lead to decreases in salary and promotion opportunities, thus negatively affecting one's career. Therefore, with regard to the paradox of citizenship behavior, the employee may be adversely affected due to the experience of conflict, as well as the steps these individuals might take to avoid or decrease this conflict, due to the fixed and finite nature of the resource of time.

Finally, with regard to theoretical implications, it was found that gender moderated the relationship between II and role overload ($\beta = 1.01, p < .05$). Interestingly, for women, the relationship between II and role overload was strong and positive. However, for men, there was no relationship between the two variables. This makes sense, as role overload occurs when the overall demands of time and energy are too overwhelming for an individual to perform all roles adequately (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Even though women now participate more in the workforce, the gendered division of labor within the home continues, with the female being more responsible for

the home and family (Lincoln, 2008). This is consistent with social role theory, in that men and women take on different roles both inside and outside the home, given societal demands and expectations (Eagly, 1987). Therefore, the undertaking of individual initiative behaviors on top of daily work duties for women may result in greater role overload because after putting in this extra time and energy at work, they then come home and must exert additional time and energy in the family domain. Additionally, when women's work lives interrupt their personal lives, it may be more pronounced and overwhelming, given the heightened responsibilities that women take on in the home. On the other hand, while men may put in time and energy undertaking individual initiative behaviors at work, and may also experience work interruptions while at home, this may not impact perceptions of role overload to the extent that it impacts women, since this is more expected and accepted for males (Voyandoff, 1988).

Practical Implications

When addressing the current study's practical implications, it is important to note that not all helping behaviors are created equal. With regard to replication, I gained additional support for the positive relationship between II and WFC, as well as the lack of relation between OCB and WFC. Additionally, it was determined that both OCB and II are positively associated with positive affect.

These findings indicate that while not all helping behaviors may have a negative employee-level impact, it is possible that exceeding the call of duty in the workplace has the potential to lead to increased conflict between work and family domains due to the amount of time that each domain requires of the individual. Looking at the behaviors measured in the OCB and II scales, it appears that the helping behaviors that are most

likely to lead to conflict for the employee are those that blur the boundaries between the work and home domain, leading to work-family interference.

Beyond recognizing that different types of helping behaviors in the workplace have different consequences, it is also important for both employees and supervisors to recognize overall that citizenship has its potential costs, and that, in the short term, higher frequency of these behaviors may lead to positive effects for the organization and individual, but in the long run, taking part in these behaviors may adversely affect the employee and therefore the organization. These effects are most likely to occur, it seems, when the organization encroaches on the employee's personal life, such that he/she is unable to keep the two domains separate. For instance, it may be that helping a coworker catch up with missed work does not result in the negative effects that attending a work function outside of normal business hours might, because the prior situation does not necessarily take time away from one's non-work life.

It is understood that in some situations, employees simply must work beyond business hours or attend to work-related business at home. However, based on the current study, it would be advised that these interruptions into employees' personal lives be kept to a minimum. This concept is not original, and research is growing with regard to the benefits of employee detachment from work during non-work hours (Sonnentag, 2003). Most notable for the purposes of this study, Sonnentag and Bayer (2005) found that especially during times of work overload, detachment from work was related to positive mood and well-being. Therefore, it seems that supervisors who allow their employees to detach from work (i.e., not calling the employee about work-related issues while at home) have employees who are happier, and this positive affect may in turn lead

to a greater degree of organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Johnson, 2008).

While it is one situation when supervisors call employees during non-work hours or ask employees to work beyond business hours, it is another situation when employees take work home with them or come in on their day off not because they are asked directly by their supervisor to do so, but because the employee feels pressure to do so. The current study found that negative affect explained the link between engaging in II and experiencing WFC, and that NA was heightened by low autonomy. From this, it is important that employees undertake helping behaviors in the workplace by choice, as opposed to obligation. One way to reduce this obligation is for organizations to base performance appraisals on task performance, as opposed to contextual performance or a mixture of the two, as is often done in organizations (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Whiting et al., 2008). By basing appraisals on behaviors beyond those required of job tasks, this sends a message to employees that extra-role behaviors are expected, taking away the voluntary or discretionary flavor of these behaviors. Subsequently, by taking away this autonomy over helping in the workplace, there is the potential that employees' well-being will be compromised.

Limitations

While a number of the current study's findings are consistent with previous research, it has a number of limitations. First, given the cross sectional design of this study, the direction of the discussed relationships cannot be determined conclusively. For example, it may be that those experiencing WFC or role overload take on more individual initiative behaviors, perhaps as a way to compensate for compromised task performance

or to avoid the responsibilities and stresses in the home. While the WFC-II relationship has not been explored in the literature, the WFC-OCB link has, and is most often a negative correlation, such that as individuals' WFC increases, their citizenship behaviors decrease (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005), presumably to conserve their resources. However, I do not find evidence for such a negative correlation. Additionally, with regard to causation, it may be that those individuals experiencing negative affect are more likely to take on helping behaviors in an effort to make themselves feel better, or those with positive affect are more likely to take on these behaviors because helping others helps them to maintain their positive self-concept and self-esteem. Overall, without a longitudinal design, these relationships cannot be fleshed out definitively, but only speculated upon.

Another limitation is the self-reported measures of OCB and II. Most often, these behaviors are other-reported by one's coworker, supervisor, or both due to the avoidance of common method variance (Lee & Allen, 2002; Wilkerson, Evans, & Davis, 2008). While these additional measures were not collected in the current study, we did utilize spouse/significant other ratings of WFC, which is consistent with Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) call to obtain predictor and outcome variables from different sources. However, the issue still stands as to whether the self-report of the helping behaviors at hand are as accurate as those that would have been obtained by a different source.

Finally, with regard to the sample, the participants in the current research may not be representative of the working population at large, given their generally high levels of educational attainment, work autonomy, and management positions. Due to these factors, work-family conflict may have been less of an issue compared to less

autonomous samples, given that the employees may have been afforded greater flexibility in their positions. With further regard to limitations of the current study, the exploratory analyses conducted with specific sub-samples (no children/children; males/females) should be approached with caution, given the relatively low cell sizes when the full sample was split.

Future Research Directions

There are a number of directions that the study of the negative impact of extrarole behaviors in the workplace can take. First, future research should address the concerns of the current study, mainly with regard to the cross sectional design, OCB/II ratings, and sample representativeness. Looking at the design, by examining the potential negative impact of II in a longitudinal study, this would allow researchers to not only discern the impact of these behaviors on employee well-being, but could expand this notion the organization. Interestingly, longitudinal designs are lacking in this research area. Instead, researchers are examining the link between helping behaviors and negative outcomes cross-sectionally and proposing different correlational directions. Rather than designing incrementally unique cross-sectional studies, researchers should concentrate more on designing longitudinal studies in order to achieve a better understanding of the negative impact of citizenship. After all, it seems fathomable, given that II is linked with WFC, role overload, and job stress (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Klein et al., 2007) that this could, in the long term, affect organizational functioning and performance.

Additionally, no study examining the negative impact of OCB/II has collected non self-reported ratings on both OCB/II and the outcome variable. By including this, we might get a different perspective on the individual's behaviors and perceptions. An issue

with research examining the negative impact of OCB/II at the individual level has been the utilization of samples that are more convenient than representative of the population. Therefore, the results are based on primarily white-collar employees with higher-than-average salaries, autonomy, and flexibility. It would be interesting to determine whether the results differ with a sample that also represents the blue-collar worker.

Another area for future research involves the development of an II scale that does not imply that such behaviors interfere with one's personal life. Bolino and Turnley (2005) developed the currently used II scale, as the previously utilized scales measuring this construct are very short and tend only to apply to certain position levels. As a result, this scale seems to be more generalizable to all jobs and job levels, but also seems to lend itself to positive correlations with WFC measures, simply because of construct overlap. The development of a scale without this issue may lead to a more accurate indication of the effect of II on individual well-being.

If OCB is not associated with WFC, it may be that, given the positive outcomes of OCB addressed in the literature (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), this construct is associated with the more positive outcomes associated with the intersection of work and family domains. In fact, I found support that OCB was linked to positive work mood. Therefore, another research direction is to examine the association between OCB and positive outcomes such as work-family facilitation or positive crossover effects (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). While this runs counter to the objective of determining possible negative outcomes of helping behaviors in the workplace, it is important to recall the strong base of research that associates OCB with positive individual- team- and organizational-level outcomes. While the possible negative

outcomes of extra-role behaviors should continue to be explored, they should be examined simultaneously with the positive outcomes.

Finally, with regard to the negative effects of helping behavior, this topic should be further examined with a wider range of criterion variables, aside from those revolving around individual well-being (i.e., role overload, job stress). For example, as Bergeron (2007) suggests, helping behaviors may lead to a number of career consequences, given that time spent on these behaviors may be at the cost of task performance. It would be interesting to see if this is truly the case, as well as to determine potential buffers to these effects, such as the role of mentors or improved time management and multi-tasking skills.

Conclusion

The relationship between helping behaviors at work and work-family conflict creates a dilemma for both employees and supervisors, such that citizenship behaviors allow the organization to run successfully, but present potential costs to employee well-being which may then spiral upward into decreased organizational well-being. Theoretically, there is a need to further flesh out the negative impact of helping behaviors at work in terms of when and why these behaviors might present a threat to the employee. Practically, it is important that supervisors understand the possible risks associated with going above and beyond one's duties on a consistent basis, as well as the ameliorating role that autonomy may play in this equation. Overall, while helping behaviors at work are associated with a great deal of positives, it is the negatives that may, in the end, affect the organization and its employees the most.

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Appendix A: Tables and Figures

Table 1

Correlation Table

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. OCBi	3.56	.79	.83														
2. II	3.22	.80	.26**	.83													
3. Autonomy (OCB)	-.14	1.38	.06	.02	.83												
4. Autonomy (II)	1.20	1.99	.04	-.02	.19*	.88											
5. Role Overload	3.04	1.07	.02	.34**	-.04	-.25**	.87										
6. PA	3.68	.69	.23*	.33**	-.06	.12	.08	.91									
7. NA	1.70	.61	.10	.20*	-.18	-.35**	.51**	-.09	.84								
8. Hours Worked	44.29	8.43	.07	.45**	.01	-.04	.38**	.28**	.26**	.77							
9. Time-based WFC [†]	2.76	.99	-.02	.34**	-.03	.03	.37**	-.08	.21*	.29**	.90						
10. Strain-based WFC [†]	2.62	1.05	-.03	.03	-.07	-.09	.23*	-.19*	.17	.01	.55**	.92					
11. Time-based WFC	2.62	1.20	.05	.45**	-.02	-.13	.53**	-.08	.41**	.46**	.59**	.32**	.93				
12. Strain-based WFC	2.52	1.10	.10	.41**	-.10	-.27**	.50**	-.15	.52**	.30**	.38**	.40**	.73**	.92			
13. Dependent Children	--	--	.13	-.07	.01	-.02	-.06	.09	-.07	-.11	-.07	.08	-.07	.03	--		
14. Gender	--	--	.06	-.01	.01	-.01	-.08	-.23*	.03	-.21	-.23*	-.05	.00	-.03	.00	--	
15. Marital Status	--	--	.18	-.10	.08	.10	-.05	-.04	-.15	-.11	-.13	-.21*	-.11	-.12	.20*	.09	--

Note: The values in italics are alpha coefficients for the multi-item scales

N = 116; For Gender 1=Male, 2= Female; For Dependent Children 1=No, 2=Yes; For Marital Status, 1= Not married or living with partner, 2= Married or living with partner

* p < .05

** p < .01

[†] Spouse-reported

Table 2

Moderated Regression Analyses for Spouse-reported Work-family Conflict

Work-family Conflict	Strain-based		Time-based	
	<i>b</i>	ΔR^2	<i>b</i>	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>		.07*		0.06
Gender	-0.06		-0.22*	
Marital Status	-0.24**		-0.10	
Parental Status	0.14		-0.04	
<i>Step 2</i>		0.00		0.00
OCBi	-0.01		0.01	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	-0.06		-0.02	
<i>Step 3</i>		0.00		0.00
OCBi x RA	-0.03		-0.01	
Total R ²		0.07		0.06
<i>Step 1</i>		0.07		0.06
Gender	-0.03		-0.22*	
Marital Status	-0.24**		-0.10	
Parental Status	0.15		-0.04	
<i>Step 2</i>		0.00		0.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	0.00		0.33**	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	-0.05		0.05	
<i>Step 3</i>		0.01		0.01
II x RA	-0.12		-0.12	
Total R ²		0.08		0.18

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation.

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Table 3

Results for Moderated Mediation Analyses for Negative Affect and Spouse-rated WFC

	<i>Negative Affect</i>		<i>Time-based WFC</i>		
	<i>b</i>	ΔR_2	<i>b</i>	<i>b'</i>	ΔR_2
<i>Step 1</i>		.03			.06
Gender	.04		-.22*	-.25**	
Marital Status	-.14		-.10	-.10	
Parental Status	-.05		-.04	-.02	
<i>Step 2</i>		.15**			.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	.18*		.33**	.30**	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	-.34**		.05	.11	
<i>Step 3</i>		.04*			.01
II x RA	-.20*		-.11	-.14	
<i>Step 4</i>					.06*
Negative Affect (NA)				.30**	
NA x RA				.16	
Total R ²		.22			.24

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b'* represents the coefficient when all variables are entered

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Table 4

Results for Moderated Mediation Analyses for Positive Affect and Spouse-rated WFC

	<i>Positive Affect</i>		<i>Time-based WFC</i>		
	<i>b</i>	ΔR_2	<i>b</i>	<i>b'</i>	ΔR_2
<i>Step 1</i>		.01			.06
Gender	.03		-.22*	-.20*	
Marital Status	-.06		-.10	-.07	
Parental Status	.10		-.04	.00	
<i>Step 2</i>		.13**			.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	.34**		.33**	.38**	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	.14		.05	.08	
<i>Step 3</i>		.01			.01
II x RA	.10		-.11	-.08	
<i>Step 4</i>					.04
Positive Affect (PA)				-.19†	
PA x RA				-.08	
Total R ²					.22

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b'* represents the coefficient when all variables are entered

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

† $p = .05$

Table 5

Results for Moderated Mediation Analyses for Role Overload and Spouse-rated WFC

	<i>Role Overload</i>		<i>Time-based WFC</i>		
	<i>b</i>	ΔR_2	<i>b</i>	<i>b'</i>	ΔR_2
<i>Step 1</i>		.01			.06
Gender	-.07		-.22*	-.19*	
Marital Status	-.04		-.10	-.07	
Parental Status	-.04		-.04	.00	
<i>Step 2</i>		.17**			.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	.33**		.33**	.21*	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	-.24**		.05	.11	
<i>Step 3</i>		.00			.01
II x RA	.04		-.11	-.17	
<i>Step 4</i>					.08**
Role Overload (RO)				.29**	
RO x RA				.11	
Total R ²					.26

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b'* represents the coefficient when all variables are entered

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Table 6

Results for Moderated Mediation Analyses for Hours Worked and Spouse-rated WFC

	<i>Hours Worked</i>		<i>Time-based WFC</i>		
	<i>b</i>	ΔR_2	<i>b</i>	<i>b'</i>	ΔR_2
<i>Step 1</i>		.06			.06
Gender	-.20*		-.22*	-.20*	
Marital Status	-.07		-.10	-.06	
Parental Status	-.10		-.04	-.01	
<i>Step 2</i>		.20**			.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	.44**		.33**	.26*	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	-.04		.05	.05	
<i>Step 3</i>		.00			.01
II x RA	-.01		-.11	-.14	
<i>Step 4</i>					.02
Hours Worked (HW)				.11	
HW x RA				.07	
Total R ²					.20

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b'* represents the coefficient when all variables are entered

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Table 7

Mediated Regression Analyses for All Proposed Mediators

	Spouse-reported time-based WFC		
	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> ¹	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>			0.06
Gender	-0.22*	-0.17*	
Marital Status	-0.10	-0.08	
Parental Status	-0.04	0.03	
<i>Step 2</i>			0.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	0.33**	0.27**	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	0.05	0.15	
<i>Step 3</i>			0.12**
NA		0.03	
PA		-0.23*	
Role Overload		0.26*	
Hours Worked		0.10	
Total R ²			0.29

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b*¹ represents the coefficient when all variables are entered, to test for mediation.

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Table 8

Mediated Regression Analyses for Positive Affect and Role Overload

	Spouse-reported time-based WFC		
	<i>b</i>	<i>b'</i>	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>			0.06
Gender	-0.22*	-0.21*	
Marital Status	-0.10	-0.08	
Parental Status	-0.04	0.01	
<i>Step 2</i>			0.11**
Individual Initiative (II)	0.33**	0.40**	
Relative Autonomy (RA)	0.05	0.07	
<i>Step 3</i>			0.04**
PA		-0.21*	
Total R ²			0.21
<i>Step 1</i>			0.06
Gender		-0.19*	
Marital Status		-0.08	
Parental Status		-0.01	
<i>Step 2</i>			0.11**
Individual Initiative (II)		0.23*	
Relative Autonomy (RA)		0.12	
<i>Step 3</i>			0.07**
Role Overload		0.29**	
Total R ²			0.24

Note: *b* represents standardized β coefficients at that step of entry in the regression equation. *b'* represents the coefficient when all variables are entered, to test for mediation.

**p* < .01, ** *p* < .05

Table 9

Study Analyses for Spouse-rated/Self-rated WFC

	OCB	OCB x RA	II	II x RA
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/+	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	+/+	X/X
Negative Affect	X		+	
Positive Affect	+		+	
Role Overload	X		+	
Hours Worked	X		+	
Moderated Mediation	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/+	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	+/+	X/X	X/X	X/X
Mediation: II	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/+	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	+/+	X/+

Note: The first symbol represents the relationship for spouse-rated WFC and the second symbol represents the relationship for self-rated WFC
 X = $p > .05$; + = positive correlation, $p < .05$

Table 10

Study Analyses for No Children/Children Samples

	OCB	OCB x RA	II	II x RA
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	+/X	X/X
Negative Affect	X/X		X/X	
Positive Affect	+/X		+/X	
Role Overload	X/X		+/+	
Hours Worked	X/X		+/+	
Moderated Medation	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Mediation: II	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X

Note: The first symbol represents the relationship for the sample without children and the second symbol represents the relationship for the sample with children
X = $p > .05$; + = positive correlation, $p < .05$

Table 11

Study Analyses for Males/Females Samples

	OCB	OCB x Choice	II	II x Choice
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	+/+	X/X
Negative Affect	X/X		X/X	
Positive Affect	X/X		+/+	
Role Overload	X/X		X/+	
Hours Worked	X/X		X/+	
Moderated Mediation: II	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Mediation: II	NA	PA	Role Overload	Hours Worked
Strain-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X
Time-based WFC	X/X	X/X	X/X	X/X

Note: The first symbol represents the relationship for the male sample and the second symbol represents the relationship for the female sample
 X = $p > .05$; + = positive correlation, $p < .05$

Figure Captions

Figure 1. The self-determination continuum

Figure 2. The proposed model of the relationship between OCBs and Work-family conflict

Figure 3. The moderating effect of individual initiative and autonomy on negative affect

Figure 1

Behavior	Non self-determined- - - - - Self-determined					
Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation			Intrinsic Motivation	
Type of Regulation	Non-regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Motivation	None	Controlled	Moderately Controlled	Moderately Autonomous	Autonomous	Inherently Autonomous

Figure 2

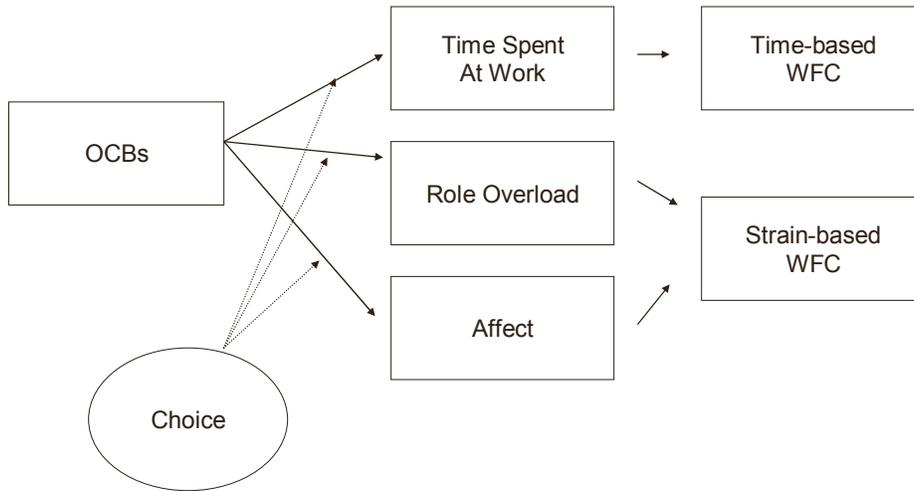
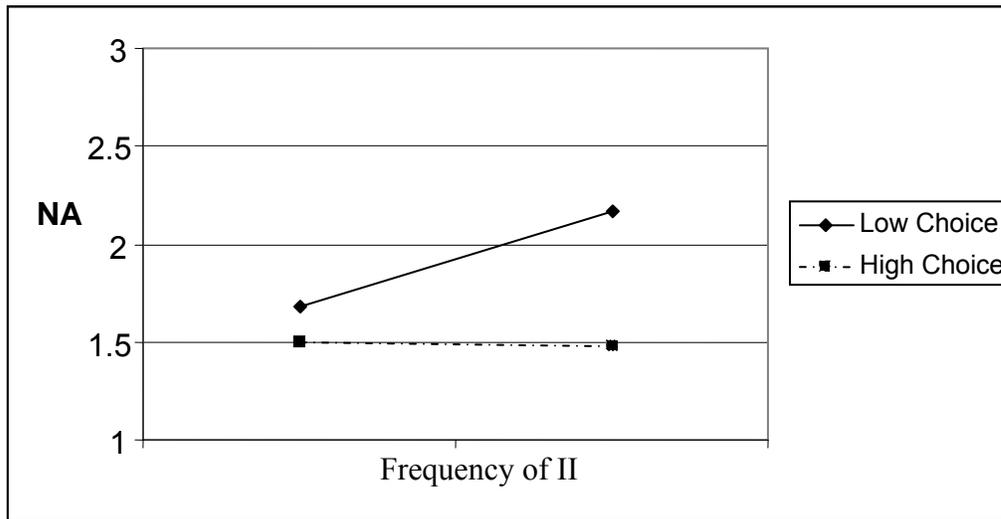


Figure 3



Appendix B: Scales

OCB

With regard to the following behaviors, please indicate the frequency in which you have engaged in the following behaviors at work over the past month.

Helped others who had been absent.

Gave your time to help others who had work-related problems.

Adjusted your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.

Gave up time to help others who had work or nonwork problems.

Assisted others with their duties.

II

With regard to the following behaviors, please indicate on the scale provided the frequency in which you have engaged in the following behaviors at work over the past month.

Stayed at work after normal business hours.

Attended work-related functions on personal time.

Rearranged or altered personal plans because of work.

Volunteered for special projects in addition to normal job duties.

Took work-related phone calls on personal time.

Relative Autonomy

Continuing to think about the behaviors above, please indicate how true each of these statements are with regard to why you engaged in these behaviors over the past month.

Because I want to have a positive impact on others.

Because it is fun to engage in these behaviors.

Because I'd be afraid of falling out of favor with management if I didn't engage in these behaviors.

Because I receive pleasure from engaging in these behaviors.

Because engaging in these behaviors is important and beneficial for myself and my organization.

Because I care about benefiting others through my work.

Because it is personally important to me to engage in these behaviors.

Because I have a strong value for engaging in these behaviors.

Because I simply enjoy engaging in these behaviors.

Because I want to help others through my work.

Because I would feel bad about myself if I didn't engage in these behaviors.

Because I want others to see me as a good employee when I engage in these behaviors.

Because I feel pressured by the organization to engage in these behaviors.

Because it is important to me to do good for others through my work.

Because engaging in these behaviors helps my image in the organization.

Because others like me better when I engage in these behaviors.

Self Determination at Work

The following questions concern your feelings about your job during the last month. Please indicate how true each of the following statements is for you given your experiences on your job.

I feel like I have a lot of control over deciding how my job gets done.

I really like the people I work with.

I do not feel very competent when I am at work.

People at work tell me I am good at what I do.

I feel pressured at work.
 I get along with people at work.
 I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work.
 I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.
 I consider the people I work with to be my friends.
 I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job.
 When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.
 Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.
 My feelings are taken into consideration at work.
 On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am.
 People at work care about me.
 There are not many people at work that I am close to.
 I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.
 The people I work with do not seem to like me much.
 When I am working I often do not feel very capable.
 There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work.
 People at work are pretty friendly towards me.

Work Affect

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past 30 days at work.

Distressed	Interested
Upset	Excited
Guilty	Enthusiastic
Irritable	Proud
Ashamed	Alert
Nervous	Inspired
Jittery	Determined
Afraid	Attentive
Scared	Active
Hostile	Strong

Hours Worked Per Week

How many hours do you work in an average week?

On your last regular work day at this job, how many hours did you work? Include time spent doing job-related work at home.

Role Overload

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding your job.

The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.

I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.

It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.

Work-Family Conflict

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding your job.

My work keeps me from my nonwork activities more than I would like.

The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and nonwork activities.

I have to miss nonwork activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in nonwork activities/responsibilities.

I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family/friends.

Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Appendix C: Surveys

Focal Employee Survey

I. Instructions

Below you will find 26 sets of questions regarding your perceptions about your job, as well as behaviors you engage in on-the-job. Please answer all questions to the extent that you feel comfortable doing so. Please also read all instructions and individual items carefully and respond as accurately as you can, to the best of your ability.

II. Employment Information

The following questions address information related to your most current job. Please answer as accurately and honestly as possible.

Are you currently employed?

No

Yes

How long have you worked at your current job?

_____ Years

_____ Months

What is your job title?

Which of the following occupations best describes your job?

Sales (e.g., telemarketing, pharmaceutical sales)

Service (e.g., cashier, restaurant server, service representative)

Health/Caring (e.g., nurse, child care, therapist)

Education (e.g., teacher, tutor)

Technical (e.g., computer tech, software development)

Clerical (e.g., accountant, assistant)

Physical (e.g., construction, landscaping)

Other (please specify)

Are you a supervisor or manager?

No

Yes

Do you work at least 20 hours per week at your current job?

No

Yes

How many hours do you work in an average week?

On your last regular work day at this job, how many hours did you work? Include time spent doing job-related work at home.

III. Your Feelings/Emotions

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past 30 days at work.

Response options: Very slightly or not at all, A little, Moderately, Quite a bit, Extremely

Interested
Distressed
Excited
Upset
Strong
Guilty
Scared
Hostile
Enthusiastic
Proud
Irritable
Alert
Ashamed
Inspired
Nervous
Determined
Attentive
Jittery
Active
Afraid

IV. Feelings About Your Job

The following questions concern your feelings about your job during the last month. Please indicate how true each of the following statements is for you given your experiences on your job.

Response Options: Not at all true, Somewhat true, Very true (on a 7-point scale)

I feel like I have a lot of control over deciding how my job gets done.
I really like the people I work with.
I do not feel very competent when I am at work.
People at work tell me I am good at what I do.
I feel pressured at work. I get along with people at work.
I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work.
I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.
I consider the people I work with to be my friends.

I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job.
When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.
Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.
My feelings are taken into consideration at work.
On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am.
People at work care about me.
There are not many people at work that I am close to.
I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.
The people I work with do not seem to like me much.
When I am working I often do not feel very capable.
There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work.
People at work are pretty friendly towards me.

V. Helping Behaviors at Work

In the next two (2) sections you will be asked questions regarding the frequency with which you engage in certain helping behaviors in the workplace and why you engage in these behaviors. Please pay careful attention to the response format of each grouping of items, as this format changes as you make your way through each of the next two (2) sections.

With regard to the following behaviors, please indicate on the scale provided the frequency in which you have engaged in the following behaviors at work over the past month.

Response Options: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always

Helped others who had been absent.
Gave your time to help others who had work-related problems.
Adjusted your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
Gave up time to help others who had work or nonwork problems.
Assisted others with their duties.

Continuing to think about the behaviors above, please indicate how true each of these statements is with regard to why you engaged in these behaviors over the past month.

Response Options: Not at all true, Not very true, Sort of true, Very true

Because I want to have a positive impact on others.
Because it is fun to engage in these behaviors.
Because I'd be afraid of falling out of favor with management if I didn't engage in these behaviors.
Because I receive pleasure from engaging in these behaviors.
Because engaging in these behaviors is important and beneficial for myself and my organization.
Because I care about benefiting others through my work.
Because it is personally important to me to engage in these behaviors.

Because I have a strong value for engaging in these behaviors.
Because I simply enjoy engaging in these behaviors.
Because I want to help others through my work.
Because I would feel bad about myself if I didn't engage in these behaviors.
Because I want others to see me as a good employee when I engage in these behaviors.
Because I feel pressured by the organization to engage in these behaviors.
Because it is important to me to do good for others through my work.
Because engaging in these behaviors helps my image in the organization.
Because others like me better when I engage in these behaviors.

VI. Additional Helping Behaviors at Work

With regard to the following behaviors, please indicate on the scale provided the frequency in which you have engaged in the following behaviors at work over the past month.

Response Options: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always

Stayed at work after normal business hours.
Attended work-related functions on personal time.
Rearranged or altered personal plans because of work.
Volunteered for special projects in addition to normal job duties.
Took work-related phone calls on personal time.

Continuing to think about the behaviors above, please indicate how true each of these statements are with regard to why you engaged in these behaviors over the past month.

Because I want to have a positive impact on others.
Because it is fun to engage in these behaviors.
Because I'd be afraid of falling out of favor with management if I didn't engage in these behaviors.
Because I receive pleasure from engaging in these behaviors.
Because engaging in these behaviors is important and beneficial for myself and my organization.
Because I care about benefiting others through my work.
Because it is personally important to me to engage in these behaviors.
Because I have a strong value for engaging in these behaviors.
Because I simply enjoy engaging in these behaviors.
Because I want to help others through my work.
Because I would feel bad about myself if I didn't engage in these behaviors.
Because I want others to see me as a good employee when I engage in these behaviors.
Because I feel pressured by the organization to engage in these behaviors.
Because it is important to me to do good for others through my work.
Because engaging in these behaviors helps my image in the organization.
Because others like me better when I engage in these behaviors.

VII. Perceptions About Your Job

The following section addresses various physical, emotional, and social aspects of your current position. Please read each item carefully and pay special attention to the changing response formats as you make your way down the page.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding your job.

Response Options: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor agree, Agree, Strongly agree

I am not really sure how long my present job will last.

I can be sure of having my present job as long as I do good work.

I am afraid of losing my present job. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

In general, I don't like my job. Generally speaking, I like working here.

The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.

I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.

It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.

My work keeps me from my nonwork activities more than I would like.

The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and nonwork activities.

I have to miss nonwork activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in nonwork activities/responsibilities.

I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family/friends.

Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Please read each statement below and then indicate how often you have felt this way while you were at work over the past month.

Response Options: Felt this way every day, A few times a week, About once a week, A few times a month, About once a month, Less than once a month, Never felt this way while at work

I feel emotionally drained from my work.

I feel used up by the end of the work day.

I dread getting up in the morning and having to face another day on the job.

I feel burned out from my work.

I feel frustrated by my job. I feel frustrated by my job.

I feel I am working too hard on my job.

Please indicate how often people at work engage in these specific interactions with you:

Response Options: Rarely, Occasionally, Sometimes, Fairly Often, Very often

People at work...

Tell me that they can sympathize with what I'm saying.

Tell me that they would be willing to personally help out to finish a task or directly solve problems.

Tell me that they would be willing to talk to others to help resolve a problem for me.

Express confidence in me.

Let me know that they would be willing to talk to others and stand up for me.

Say things that help me keep problems in perspective.

Tell me that they understand how I am feeling.

Offer advice or other alternatives to problems.

VIII. Your Personality

Below you will find a list of common human traits. Please use this list to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly your same age. Following each trait, please indicate how accurately that trait describes you, using the rating scale provided.

Response Options: Extremely Inaccurate, Very Inaccurate, Moderately Inaccurate, Slightly Inaccurate, Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate, Slightly Accurate, Moderately Accurate, Very Accurate, Extremely Accurate

Bashful

Energetic

Moody

Systematic

Bold

Envious

Organized

Talkative

Careless

Extraverted

Philosophical

Temperamental

Cold

Fretful

Practical

Touchy

Complex

Harsh

Quiet

Uncreative

Cooperative
Imaginative
Relaxed
Unenvious
Creative
Inefficient
Rude
Unintellectual
Deep
Intellectual
Shy
Unsympathetic
Disorganized
Jealous
Sloppy
Warm
Efficient
Kind
Sympathetic
Withdrawn

IX. Personal Information

What is your gender?

Male

Female

What is your age (in years)?

What is your race/ethnicity? Please check all that apply.

African/African-American

Hispanic/Latino

Asian

Caucasian

Indian (India)

Middle Eastern

Native American

South American

Other (please specify)

What is your current level of education?

No degree

High school diploma

Junior college or Associate Degree (A.A.)

Bachelor's degree (B.A. or B.S.)

Technical degree (teaching certificate, R.N.)

Master's degree (M.A. or M.S.)
Doctorate (M.D., Ph.D., Psy.D.)

What is your current marital status?

Single, never married

Living with a partner

Married

Separated

Divorced

Widowed

Do you have any dependent children under the age of 18 years living in your home at least half-time?

No

Yes

X. Spouse/Significant Other Survey

In addition to your response to this survey, we are also interested in learning about your personality and work attitudes through information gleaned from your spouse or significant other. Below you will find a structured email explaining this process to him/her that you may cut and paste. This email also includes a link to a brief (10 minute) survey. We greatly appreciate your help with this data collection.

*In order to match your responses to your spouse/significant others', but retain your confidentiality while ensuring that the student who sent you this survey receives full credit for your and your spouse/significant others' survey completion please enter below the same code that you entered at the beginning of this survey and share this with your spouse/significant other as well. Your spouse/significant other will be asked to enter this code prior to completing his/her survey.

Please copy and paste the spouse/significant other email body and survey link below into an email to send to your spouse/significant other. This should be someone who has the opportunity to observe you at home on a daily basis.

Dear _____,

I have recently completed a survey about my work experiences and helping behaviors at work as part of a class and research project. The project is now requesting that my spouse or a significant other complete a short survey about my health and well-being, and gave me this letter and link. Would you be willing to help?

If so, follow the steps below from the researchers/instructors:

1. The link to the survey is at the end of this letter. Click on this link to access the survey.
2. The first webpage you will see is the consent form, which describes the procedures and contact information of the researchers, and ensures that you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. You may want to print off this page for your files, in case you have any questions.
3. Your identity and that of your spouse/significant other is confidential. Your spouse/significant other identified a code (see below) that will allow the researchers to connect your responses together. You will need to enter this code on the first page of the on-line survey.

SURVEY LINK:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=vO4vezLcLDpKyBSsyZoUug_3d_3d

EMPLOYEE CODE:

* This survey will be available to you until October 9, 2008. Please complete the survey before that date.

Thank you so much for considering our request. We would really appreciate your time! If you have any concerns, please contact April Jones (amj191@psu.edu) at The Pennsylvania State University.

Spouse/Significant Other Survey

1. Instructions

Below you will find 4 sets of questions regarding your spouse/significant other's perceptions about his/her job, as well as behaviors that he/she engages in on-the-job. Please answer all questions to the extent that you feel comfortable doing so. Please also read all instructions and individual items carefully and respond as accurately as you can, to the best of your ability.

2. My Spouse/Significant Others' Job

This section addresses your spouse/significant others' job characteristics and behaviors. Please answer each question to the best of your ability and knowledge.

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements using the scale provided.

Response Options: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither Disagree nor Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree

My spouse/significant others' work keeps him/her from his/her nonwork activities more than he/she would like.

The time my spouse/significant other must devote to his/her job keeps him/her from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.

My spouse/significant other has to miss nonwork activities due to the amount of time he/she must spend on work responsibilities.

When my spouse/significant other gets home from work he/she is often too frazzled to participate in nonwork activities/ responsibilities.

My spouse/significant other is often so emotionally drained when he/she gets home from work that it prevents him/her from contributing to his/her family/friends.

Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when my spouse/significant other comes home he/she is too stressed to do the things that he/she enjoys.

2. Thank You!

You have completed the survey. When you click 'done', your responses will be submitted. Thank you very much for your help, as it is greatly appreciated.

April M. Jones

EDUCATION

Doctor of Philosophy in Industrial/Organizational Psychology
Minor in Labor/Industrial Relations, expected August 2009
The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania

Master of Arts in Experimental Psychology, May 2003
Towson University, Towson, Maryland

Bachelor of Arts in Psychology (*Summa Cum Laude*), May 2001
Hood College, Frederick, Maryland

SELECTED CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

- Cleveland, J., McCarthy, A., Jones, A., Sawyer, K., Foo, S., & Hunter, S. (April 2009). *An Emerging (Work) Force: Older Women's Work-life Characteristics and Perceptions*. Paper presented at the 23rd annual meeting of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New Orleans, LA.
- Cleveland, J., Jones, A., Hunter, S., Harrison, M., O'Neill, J., Almeida, D., & Davis, K. D. (August 2008). *Performance Climate, Job/home demands, Work/family Spillover and Work Outcomes in a Multi-level Context*. Paper presented at the 2008 annual meeting of the Academy of Management. Anaheim, CA.
- Jones, A., Foo, S., Sawyer, K. B., Cleveland, J., & Fisher, G. (August 2008). *The Effects of Non-work Social Support and Job Demands on Life Satisfaction and Health Among Older Workers*. Paper presented at the 2008 annual meeting of the Academy of Management. Anaheim, CA.
- Jones, A., Cleveland, J., Foo, S., & Sawyer, K. B. (August 2007). *Non-Work Support, Job Demands, and Work/Life Outcomes Among Diverse Older Workers*. Paper presented at the 2007 annual meeting of the Academy of Management. Philadelphia, PA.
- Harrison, M., Jones, A., & Cleveland, J. (April, 2007). *Viewing the Work-Family Interface Through a Leadership Perspective*. Paper presented at the 22nd annual meeting of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York, NY.
- Jones, A., & Cleveland, J. (May, 2006). *All in the Family? The Importance of Managerial Support for Singles in the Workplace*. Paper presented at the 21st annual meeting of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Dallas, TX.