

DECISION SCIENCES INSTITUTE
Too Much Extra Stuff for Overloaded Workers

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ABSTRACT

Employers value individuals who perform organizational citizenship behaviors; thus, researchers are now investigating the possibility that workers may feel pressured to go above and beyond their prescribed job responsibilities. This paper examines the dimensions of citizenship pressure (helping, individual initiative, loyalty) by proposing a mediator, role overload, to explain its negative outcomes. Findings reveal that role overload mediates the relationship between some of the citizenship pressure dimensions and turnover intentions. Role overload mediates the relationship between all the citizenship pressure dimensions and satisfaction with work–life balance. We discuss the implications and limitations of our study.

KEYWORDS: Role Overload, OCB, Work–Life Balance, Turnover Intentions

INTRODUCTION

Organ defines organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization” . Much of the literature on OCB has examined, empirically, the positive effects in two main categories: “ (a) the effects of OCBs on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments regarding pay raises, promotions, etc., and (b) the effects of OCBs on organizational performance and success” . Much research has corroborated Organ’s definition; notably, an examination of OCB, its nature, antecedents, and consequences was advanced and supports the premise that OCB improves organizational effectiveness . However, a key aspect of the definition has been questioned: OCB’s impact on rewards systems, such as evaluations. Podsakoff et al. , in their critical review of the OCB literature, reported that empirical results across several studies indicate that OCB has a substantial positive effect, in fact, just as substantial of an effect as in-role or task performance, on several key personnel decisions made by managers and supervisors, denoting that OCB is acknowledged and recognized. Based on the findings of these studies,

organizations should manage, support, and encourage ways to promote such behavior, while keeping in mind that there may be implications of OCB for individuals .

Since research has examined the positive consequences of OCB for the organization, the OCB literature has called for researchers to empirically examine individual level consequences of OCB . Recent studies reveal negative implications of OCB for individuals, particularly when OCBs are common in the workplace . Bolino and Turnley demonstrated that OCBs can be associated with personal costs to individuals and raised questions about when OCB is associated with negative outcomes for self. Spitzmuller and Van Dyne pointed out that researchers should test whether OCB reduces resources that are required to balance other life domains. Specifically, higher levels of OCB are associated with employee role overload, job stress, work–life conflict, decreased levels of in-role performance, and pressure to perform discretionary behaviors .

Of particular interest in this study, there is considerable evidence that many organizations expect and reward both task performance and OCB ; thus, several researchers have examined the possibility that some employees perceive that organizational citizenship behavior is required, not voluntary . This non-discretionary essence of OCB warrants more investigation. Bolino et al. discussed that researchers have introduced and examined, theoretically and/or empirically, different ideas and constructs that address the reality that employees sometimes feel obligated, required, pressured, or coerced into performing OCBs. Van Dyne and Ellis described that job creep occurs when “employees feel ongoing pressure to do more than the requirements of their jobs” . Job creep happens when OCBs are performed regularly overtime and eventually become considered as an employee’s regular and expected job duties. Vigoda-Gadot proposed and empirically examined compulsory citizenship behavior, which occur when supervisors or other powerful individuals increase employees’ workloads beyond their job descriptions in an effort to elicit higher levels of performance out of employees. Another concept, citizenship pressure, is a negative consequence of OCB that occurs when employees, although they recognize that OCBs are not required, feel pressured to engage in discretionary activities .

While researchers have just recently begun to address the non-discretionary aspect of OCB as a negative consequence, little research activity has been directed toward understanding these constructs and their outcomes for individuals. Bolino et al. called for more empirical examinations of these constructs to study whether this pressure contributes to stress, work–family interference, and increased workload and to also identify when, where, how, and *why* OCBs performed under pressure will benefit or harm individuals. In this study, we have chosen to focus on citizenship pressure, which is defined as “a specific job demand in which an employee feels pressured to perform OCBs” . We limit our examination to citizenship pressure, because unlike job creep and compulsory citizenship behavior, citizenship pressure, in our view, aligns more with the notion that there is a perception of an expectation to perform discretionary duties, as opposed to there actually being an added requirement or increased workload, as implied in the conceptualizations of job creep and compulsory citizenship. We reason that once the workload has been increased or requirements have been added to the job, it is not longer

considered discretionary behavior. It may possibly be considered, though maybe not formally written, as in-role performance .

Citizenship pressure has been empirically examined and the results indicate negative consequences, such as work–family conflict, role overload, role ambiguity, work-leisure conflict, job stress, and intentions to quit . Less is known, however, about the specific processes through which citizenship pressure influences these negative effects for individuals. Research has begun to uncover mechanisms underlying citizenship pressure, but more investigations are needed . We examine role overload as a variable to explain *why* citizenship pressure leads to negative outcomes for individuals. In past research, the citizenship pressure construct has included three dimensions: individual initiative, loyalty, and helping. Various OCB dimensions have different consequences for organizational effectiveness , and scholars have made arguments indicating the same to be true at the individual level . Likewise, we study the separate dimensions of citizenship pressure, as opposed to the overall construct, to determine if the results would be different, as we believe the separate dimensions may yield different results. Conservation of resources theory and role conflict theory are the theoretical underpinnings of our hypotheses. The limitations of the study are later discussed, and avenues for future research are identified.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Role conflict theory may explain some negative consequences of citizenship pressure. Role conflict theory proposes that responsibilities compete for time, physical energy, and psychological resources, making it difficult to successfully perform each role due to time constraints, lack of energy, or mismatched behaviors among roles . In particular, past explanations of role conflict suggest that when managers, coworkers or organizational contextual factors (i.e., the factors may be directly or indirectly associated with an employee) exert increased role expectations on an employee, the additional role expectations may represent an additional role for the employee to consider, which, in many cases, may conflict with other existing roles, creating role conflict . The resulting role conflict may negatively affect overall employee performance, behavioral, and attitudinal outcomes. Therefore, multiple roles could reduce an individual's resources if not distributed properly. Goode argued that the more available roles that an individual has to choose from, the more likely he or she is to exhaust his or her resources. When presented with multiple roles, employees may not have the time, energy, or ability to sufficiently carry out all roles.

Role conflict affects both individual well-being and organizational effectiveness . Empirical studies indicate that role conflict affects individuals' physical health, psychological well-being, and interpersonal relationships at work and home .

Individuals with conflicting roles also grapple to find ways to manage their limited resources. Conservation of resources (COR) theory acknowledges the value of personal resources to individuals in the workplace. COR theory describes, "individuals are motivated to protect their current resources (conservation) and acquire new resources (acquisition)" . Essentially,

individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that avoid resource losses and in behaviors that generate resources, since a loss can have profound negative implications to well-being and a gain can have profound positive implications to well-being. Resources are in the eye of the beholder, could include anything of value to an individual, and are tied to situations as well as personal experiences . The extent to which individuals strive to acquire, maintain, and protect their resources will have differential implications on actor wellbeing . Halbesleben and colleagues provide an example, “time with family could be viewed as a valuable resource to one person while it may not be valued by someone else or may even be perceived as a threat to other resources” , and the authors also provide a sample of resources that have been examined in the literature, including, but not limited to the following: job security, autonomy, social support, time away from work, self esteem, self efficacy, and family-friendly workplace policies. COR, in conjunction with role conflict theory, provide the foundation to explain the negative consequences of citizenship pressure.

Consequences of Citizenship Pressure

Bolino et al. found that employees who feel pressured to perform OCB experience role overload, role ambiguity, work–family conflict, work-leisure conflict, job stress, decreased levels of job satisfaction, and increased intent to quit the organization, all of which are negative consequences of citizenship pressure. Role overload is defined as a scenario in which employees believe they do not have enough time to get everything done at work, that there is too much work for one person to do light of the time available, their abilities, and other constraints . In a recent study, Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey and LePine empirically examined citizenship fatigue, which can be compared to role overload. Further, citizenship fatigue is defined as “a state in which feeling worn out, tired, or on edge is attributed to engaging in OCB” . The only difference between role overload and citizenship fatigue is that citizenship fatigue is specific applies specifically to OCB as opposed to job performance in general. The findings of the study revealed that employees experienced less citizenship fatigue when citizenship pressure was low, indicating that citizenship pressure can be a burden on individuals. Citizenship pressure, based on role conflict theory and the above-mentioned previous empirical studies, adds duties or roles for the employee to *consider* and this added burden conflicts with existing duties and roles.

In further examination of the relationship between citizenship pressure and role overload, we believe the separate dimensions of citizenship pressure (individual initiative, helping, and loyalty) will yield different results from assessments of the overall construct based on the theoretical perspective that the pressure to help colleagues and to take initiative is different from the pressure to show loyalty. Helping and taking initiative might require individuals to spend more time at work, causing more inter-role conflicts; while showing loyalty is less of a case. For example, a recent article by Koopman, Lanaj and Scott found that helping colleagues at work actually influenced individuals’ work process. We can also expect that they have to stay late to work in order to make up the hours used to help others. Based on role conflict theory and this previous empirical examination, we expect a positive relationship between citizenship pressure - helping and role overload and between citizenship pressure – individual initiative and role overload. We expect a negative relationship between citizenship pressure - loyalty and role overload.

H1a: Citizenship pressure – helping is positively related to role overload.

H1b: Citizenship pressure – individual initiative is positively related to role overload.

H1c: Citizenship pressure –loyalty is negatively related to role overload.

Role overload has become a serious issue in the workplace, as companies are asking employees to do more with fewer resources . According to role conflict theory, overloaded workers must decide how to cope with their multiple, competing demands. In addition and from a COR perspective, resources may not exist to successfully handle the overload of roles; thus, the lack of resources leads to defensive attempts to conserve the remaining resources. One recent study revealed that role overload mediated the relationships between a form of work stress and turnover intentions. Jensen, Patel, and Messersmith found that role overload

partially mediated the relationship between high-performance work systems/job control and turnover intentions. Role overload may be viewed as a process and may help to better explain why citizenship pressure has negative implications. For example, a worker may feel that citizenship pressure interferes with the ability to effectively perform task duties. The individual may perceive that task duties are most important to obtain additional resources in the job (e.g., raises and promotions). The inability to focus on the essential, most valued aspect of the job represents a resource loss and leads the individual to consider a self-protecting coping solution to avoid future potential resource losses (e.g., missed raises and promotions). Turnover intentions represent a job-related withdrawal behavior used to cope with increased demands at work. When employees perceive pressure to perform above and beyond their job description, they experience role overload and in order to cope with the role overload, they develop intentions to leave the organization. Based on the varying dimensions of citizenship pressure, it also seems that some forms of citizenship pressure may be more deleterious than others. For example, perceived pressure to be loyal may not require as many resources as the pressure to help others or the pressure to exert more individual initiative.

H2a: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – helping and turnover intentions.

H2b: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – individual initiative and turnover intentions.

H2c: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – loyalty and turnover intentions

In addition to the relationships hypothesized above, we were also interested in role overload as an explanation of why citizenship pressure affects workers' work–life interface. Although expectations at work are continually expanding, balancing work and life is an important career value for individuals that affect decisions such as choice of occupation, choice of employer, as well as attitudinal outcomes. Although much of the literature on work–life issues examines work–family conflict rather than work–life balance, both individuals and organizations alike are becoming more interested in balancing work and family demands. Even though work–life balance has been portrayed in the literature to be “a perceptual phenomenon characterized by a sense of having achieved a satisfactory resolution of the multiple demands of work and family demands”, the variable of interest in this study, satisfaction with work–life balance, is defined as “an overall level of contentment resulting from an assessment of one’s degree of success at meeting work and family demands”. Unlike other work–family constructs, satisfaction with work–life balance, among other things, does not make reference to a view on inter-role conflict, interference or contamination, does not link work–family balance with low conflict between the work and family roles, and does not affect the quality of experience or performance from the work role to the life role. Satisfaction with work–life balance is based on how well individuals believe they are handling the demands originating from their work responsibilities and family obligations. Thus, satisfaction with work–life balance is the overall happiness of being able to manage the work–family interface.

Studies have found that role overload mediates the relationships between various forms of work stress and work–life satisfaction variables. For example, an investigation of 138 salespeople revealed that role overload mediates the relationship between self efficacy, which plays a critical role in stress perceptions and satisfaction with pay . Drawing on role conflict theory, when an individual experiences role overload at work, resulting from implicit expectations to perform above and beyond his or her job duties, work roles may interfere with other life roles. Considering COR theory, as people lose resources (i.e., the ability to resolve conflicting roles at work), they consider the value of and try to find ways to protect their remaining resources (i.e., satisfaction with work–life balance). The conflicting roles cause a downstream impact of changes in resources . Thus, a loss of resources at work causes a loss of resources outside work. When employees perceive pressure to perform duties that would otherwise be discretionary, they experience role overload and, in turn, become dissatisfied with their degree of success of being able to balance work and life. From a combined role conflict and COR perspective, role overload is the process through which citizenship pressure is related to satisfaction with work–life balance. We test each dimension of citizenship pressure separately.

H3a: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – helping and satisfaction with work–life balance.

H3b: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – individual initiative and satisfaction with work–life balance.

H3c: Role overload mediates the relationship between citizenship pressure – loyalty and satisfaction with work–life balance.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT/MODEL

The data reported in this study were collected as part of a larger data collection. The sample consisted of full-time professional or clerical employees who were acquired by snowball sampling, a type of sampling that requires participants to recruit their acquaintances to complete questionnaires. While there are a number of biases inherent in snowball sampling, Salganik and Heckathorn proposed that it is an acceptable form of sampling methodology in social science research. Previous research has demonstrated that this form of respondent-driven sampling has been used often to obtain information from employees in a variety of firms and industries .

We asked our colleagues from other universities in the United States to request their graduate students to recruit individuals (by providing names and email addresses) to participate in our research study, and to offer their graduate students an incentive for their recruitment efforts. The purpose of the extra credit incentive was to increase the number of graduate students willing to participate and possibly increase the final sample size . Soon after, colleagues from four public, southern universities in the United States forwarded individuals who were identified by their graduate students. Next, we sent an e-mail invitation from our colleague's email address (via surveymonkey.com) to the referred individuals' email address with the subject line stating the graduate student who referred them, with instructions explaining the web questionnaires would be sent at two separate points in time, and with a link for the individuals to click if they agree to

participate in the survey. To reassure that individuals selected by the graduate students were eligible to participate, we asked the following qualifying questions at the beginning of the survey: do you work full-time (32 hours or more a week); are you married or living with a significant other (partner); and do you primarily work at home. Individuals who met the criteria proceeded to complete the first survey, which included a measure for the exogenous variable (citizenship pressure), control variable (negative affectivity) and demographic information.

First survey respondents were sent an email approximately two weeks later asking them to participate in the second survey. Podsakoff and colleagues recommended a temporal separation between data collection of the predictor and criterion variables because it is highly unlikely that the participant remembered any of his or her responses from the first survey, thus minimizing consistency patterns. On average, the second survey was actually completed 19 days after the first survey had been submitted. The second survey to the participant included questions about the endogenous variables (i.e., role overload, satisfaction with work–life balance, turnover intentions). Dillman, Smyth, and Christian advise against rapid reminders and suggest one should send reminders similarly to “how one would communicate with a business acquaintance one does not know well”. Therefore, a reminder was sent approximately one week after the initial email to those who had not responded or completed any of the entire surveys. Since both surveys were disseminated via email to the participants, the surveys were matched by the participants’ email addresses, which was the individuals’ unique identification.

A total of 557 email invitations with instructions and survey link were sent via surveymonkey.com from the professor’s email address to potential respondents. Of the 557 email invitations, 392 individuals participated but only 332 individuals were eligible based on the criteria. Of the 332 eligible participants, 317 individuals completed the first survey (56 percent response rate). Since we were collecting data for the employee-partner dyad and utilizing the email address as the identifier to match the employee to his or her partner, a second email was sent to the 317 individuals containing instructions for the individuals to forward the email to their partner. Additionally, the email included an explanation of the study for the partner, and a link for the partner to click in order to fill out the survey on his or her perception of the employee’s attitudes and behavior. An 89 percent response rate resulted from the partner completing the “partner’s survey” (282 of the 317 partners completed the survey). As a final step in this data collection process, a third email with a link to the employee’s second survey was sent to the 282 email addresses of completed surveys from the partner’s survey. Of the 282 individuals, 243 responded and completed the employee’s second survey (86 percent response rate). After matching all completed responses received from the employee-partner dyad (two employee’s surveys, one partner’s survey) by email address, the overall response rate was approximately 43 percent (243 matched surveys).

A majority of the sample were between the ages of 28 and 46 (62.0%), female (63.6%), African American (62.8%), married and living with their spouse or partner (77.3%), and earned a total household income of more than \$80,000 (63.7%). The mean number of respondents with children aged 18 or under was 1.19. Approximately 76.8 percent of the sample was college educated with a majority of the sample having a bachelor’s degree (43.4%). As it relates to

organizational tenure, participants in the study reported that 37.2 percent had been working for their organization between one and five years, and 25.6 percent had been working for their organization between six and 10 years. On average, respondents had worked 44.78 hours per week. Utilizing Tharenou, Latimer and Conroy's scale, the mode organizational level was nonsupervisory.

Measures

Variables were measured in a manner consistent with the existing organizational behavior literature. For this study, the exogenous variables are citizenship pressure – helping (CPH), citizenship pressure – individual initiative (CPII), citizenship pressure – loyalty (CPL), and the control variables, and the endogenous variables are role overload, turnover intentions, and satisfaction with work–life balance (SWLB). Table 1 provides descriptive statistics and internal reliabilities for all the study variables, in addition to the correlations among the study variables.

Insert Table 1 about Here

Citizenship Pressure – Helping, Individual Initiative, and Loyalty

Since citizenship pressure can be described as the perception of pressure that an employee feels obligated to perform above and beyond his or her required job responsibilities, it was measured with a 34-item scale compiled by Bolino et al. , which is comprised of Settoon and Mossholder’s 14-item helping scale, Bolino and Turnley’s 15-item individual initiative scale, and Moorman and Blakely’s 5-item loyalty scale. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they felt pressured (1 = “never felt pressured,” 5 = “always pressured”) to perform each of the OCB duties for the 34 items of the three dimensions (i.e., 14 helping items, 15 individual initiative items, and 5 loyalty items). Sample questions include: “Assist coworkers with heavy workloads even though it is not part of job” (helping), “Stay at work after normal business hours” (individual initiative), and “Show pride when representing the organization in public” (loyalty).

There are many forms of OCB. For instance, another form of OCB, generalized compliance, focuses on the degree to which employees do not take extra and/or extended breaks , which are normally important among non-professional employees and, therefore, unsuitable for our sample. Given that helping, individual initiative, and loyalty reflect an array of behaviors that organizations can benefit from and are very pertinent among working professional, this study focuses only on these three types of OCBs. Additionally, in order for the expansion and tests of theory to move the OCB literature forward, it is necessary to begin examining the different facets of OCB .

Role Overload

This variable was assessed by the 3-item scale used for Bolino and Turnley’s study. Respondents were asked to indicate to the extent they agree or disagree (1 = “strongly disagree,” 5 = “strongly agree”) with each of the three items. An example item is “The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.”

Turnover Intentions

This variable was assessed using a 3-item scale . Respondents were asked to indicate to the extent they agree or disagree (1 = “strongly disagree,” 5 = “strongly agree”) with each of the three items. An example item is “I will probably look for a new job next year”.

Satisfaction with Work–Life Balance

Although there are other measures of work–family balance , we chose to use Valcour’s 5-item scale because it focuses on “satisfaction with one’s allocation of time and attention to work and

personal/family roles”, and the “assessments of their degree of success at integrating the demands of work and personal/family roles” . In designing this study, we were interested in reducing common method variance by collecting ratings from another source . Therefore, we collected ratings from their significant others about their perceptions of the employee’s satisfaction with work–family (life) balance. The spouses/significant others were asked to indicate their perception of the employee’s level of satisfaction (1 = “very dissatisfied,” 5 = “very satisfied”) with each of the five items. A sample question includes “The way he/she divides his/her time between work and personal or family time”. In addition, the employees were asked for their responses to the same questions in order to test the extent to which the significant other’s perception of the employee’s satisfaction with work–family (life) balance and the employee’s satisfaction with work–family (life) balance were viewed in the same manner and to provide some evidence of the measure’s validity. The correlation between the employee’s ratings and the significant other’s ratings on satisfaction with work–family balance was .474 ($p < .001$).

Control Variables

For this study, three variables were used as controls: sex, average weekly hours, and negative affectivity. These variables may account for some variance in the results; thus, they were held constant in the model minimizing their effect on the endogenous variables. Since there are a number of demographic factors that have been found to influence employee’s attitudes and behaviors, we controlled for sex . Additionally, we controlled for the number of hours an individual works per week because it may lead to work and family or life role incompatibilities , and could possibly influence a person’s decision to leaving the organization . Average hours worked was measured by asking respondents on average, how many hours they worked in a week.

Even though there has been some debate of whether it is necessary to control for negative affectivity , some researchers believe that it should be included in studies of stresses and strains . In order to make sure that role overload and turnover intentions are distinct from negative affectivity and to control for the potential influence of negative affectivity in the analyses, we assessed this variable using the 10-item scale from PANAS . Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent these adjectives (e.g., scared, ashamed, distress) described them during the past few weeks (1 = “not at all,” 5 = “extremely”) with each of the ten items. Negative affectivity was represented by composite parcels of items, as recommended by Bagozzi and Heatherton for scales with five or more items. For this study, the ten items were systematically assigned to parcels using the following procedure: items with the highest and lowest loadings on this factor were assigned to the first parcel, the second-highest and -lowest items to the second parcel, the third-highest and -lowest items to the third parcel, and so on.

RESULTS

Prior to testing the hypothesized model, we examine the measurement model implementing the two-step approach for structural equation modeling (SEM) by Anderson and Gerbing . Using the

analysis of moment structures (AMOS) computer program in the SPSS 22 software package, we conducted our analyses with SEM.

Measurement Model

Furr and Bacharach argue that an important advantage of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) over correlation (and many alternative analytic strategies) is that “researchers can evaluate validity evidence in terms of the estimated correlation between a scale and criterion, while accounting for measurement error in both the scale and the criterion” . Therefore, we conducted CFA to assess discriminant validity of the six variables: CPH, CPII, CPL, role overload, SWLB, and turnover intentions.

First, we considered the fit to the data to the six-factor model in which the six latent variables were measured by different sets of indicators. In our six-factor model, CPH, CPII, and CPL were represented by composite parcels of items, similar to negative affectivity. Role overload was represented by three items; turnover intentions by three items; and SWLB by five items. Specifically, we compared the fit of a six-factor model with the fit of six alternatives [a one-factor model; a two-factor model in which CPH, CPII, and CPL items load on the same factor, and role overload, turnover intentions, and SWLB items loaded on the same factor; a four-factor model in which CPH, CPII, and CPL items load on the same factor; a four-factor model in which role overload, turnover intentions, and SWLB items loaded on the same factor; a five-factor model in which turnover intentions and SWLB items loaded on the same factor; and a five-factor model in which role overload and SWLB items loaded on the same factor]. Using maximum likelihood estimation, in every instance, the six-factor solution provided a better fit for the data than the other alternatives . Table 2 presents the results of the confirmatory factory analysis.

 Insert Table 2 about Here

Structural Equation Model

After establishing satisfactory model fit, the research hypotheses were investigated and the structural coefficients were interpreted [χ^2 (563, $n = 242$) = 872.110, $p < .001$; normed $\chi^2 = 1.549$; CFI = .960; TLI = .955; RMSEA = .048 (90% CI = .041 to .054); SRMR = .052]. Controlling for sex, marital status, average hours worked, and negative affectivity, we examined the hypotheses. Hypotheses 1a and 1b suggest that the CPH and CPII would be positively related to role overload, while Hypothesis 1c suggests that CPL would be negatively related to role overload. We find that CPH (.143, $p = .019$, adj. $p = .048$) and CPII (.337, $p < .001$, adj. $p < .001$) are positively related to role overload, and CPL (-.147, $p = .011$, adj. $p = .044$) is negatively related to role overload; thus, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c are supported. Unstandardized estimates for the hypothesized model appear in Figure 1.

 Insert Figure 1 about Here

As proposed by scholars pertaining to mediation analysis, bootstrapping is utilized as the procedure to evaluate the significance of the hypothesized mediation effect. The bootstrap sample size was set to 1000 replications for the mediation analyses and the confidence intervals for two bootstrap methods (percentile and bias-corrected) were reported as recommended. Some scholars have proven that the results from using the bootstrap technique are more reliable and accurate than previous mediation tests such as causal steps and product of coefficient.

Hypothesis 2a proposes that role overload will mediate the relationship between CPH and turnover intentions. The findings show that the estimated indirect effect from CPH to turnover intentions through role overload is .046. The 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is .004 to .148 and has a significant p -value of .027. To cross validate the findings, Cheung and Lau suggest that researchers should compare their results of the bias-corrected method to the percentile method, which has a lower Type I error rate, and propose that “the effect was considered to be significant if zero was not within the confidence intervals”. Given that the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect is -.002 to .121 and the p -value is .065, the original findings did not cross validate. Thus, hypothesis 2a is not supported. Table 3 presents the results of role overload mediating the relationship between the citizenship pressure dimensions and outcomes.

 Insert Table 3 about Here

Hypothesis 2b offers that role overload mediates the relationship between CPII and turnover intentions. The estimated indirect effect is .108. The findings for the bias-corrected method (the 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is .027 to .239 and a significant p -value of .016) is cross validated with the percentile method (the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect is .014 to .220 and a significant p -value of .033). Therefore, in support of Hypothesis 2b, we find role overload mediates the relationship between CPII and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 2c recommends that role overload mediates the relationship between CPL and turnover intentions. The estimated indirect effect is -.047. The findings for the bias-corrected method (the 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is -.127 to -.005 and a significant p -value of .024) is cross validated with the percentile method (the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect is -.119 to -.001 and a significant p -value of .043). Therefore, in support of Hypothesis 2c, we find role overload mediates the relationship between CPL and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3a suggests that role overload mediates the relationship between CPH and SWLB. The estimated indirect effect is -.034. The findings for the bias-corrected method (the 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is -.104 to -.004 and a significant p -value of .016) is cross validated with the percentile method (the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect is -.086 to -.001 and a significant p -value of .040).

Therefore, in support of Hypothesis 3a, we find role overload mediates the relationship between CPH and SWLB.

Hypothesis 3b proposes that role overload mediates the relationship between CPH and SWLB. The estimated indirect effect is $-.079$. The findings for the bias-corrected method (the 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is $-.179$ to $-.020$ and a significant p -value of $.006$) is cross validated with the percentile method (the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect $-.169$ to $-.017$ and a significant p -value of $.009$). Therefore, in support of Hypothesis 3b, we find role overload mediates the relationship between CPH and SWLB.

Hypothesis 3c offers that role overload mediates the relationship between CPL and SWLB. The estimated indirect effect is $.035$. The findings for the bias-corrected method (the 95% bias-corrected method confidence interval for the indirect effect is $.005$ to $.088$ and a significant p -value of $.012$) is cross validated with the percentile method (the 95% percentile method confidence interval for the indirect effect is $.003$ to $.080$ and a significant p -value of $.023$). Therefore, in support of Hypothesis 3c, we find role overload mediates the relationship between CPL and SWLB.

Further, CPH was negatively related to SWLB ($-.226$, $p = .043$, adj. $p = .072$), and CPL was negatively related to turnover intentions ($-.220$, $p = .036$, adj. $p = .067$). Individuals who were higher in role overload were higher in turnover intentions ($.321$, $p = .018$, adj. $p = .048$) and lower in their SWLB ($-.238$, $p = .025$, adj. $p = .056$). Not shown in Figure 1 to keep the model simple, the significant effects of control variables in the final model were as follows: Average hours worked per week was positively related to role overload ($.018$, $p = .011$, adj. $p = .044$), and negatively related to turnover intentions ($-.031$, $p = .015$, adj. $p = .048$). Negative affectivity was positively related to role overload ($.289$, $p < .001$, adj. $p < .001$) and turnover intentions ($.427$, $p = .005$, adj. $p = .033$), and negatively related to satisfaction with work–life balance ($-.250$, $p = .037$, adj. $p = .067$).

DISCUSSION

Scholars have answered the call and begun to investigate the personal and professional costs of OCB. Findings of prior studies demonstrate higher levels of job stress, intentions to quit, negligent behavior, burnout, work–family conflict, work–leisure conflict; and lower levels job satisfaction, innovation, in-role performance, and work-to-family enrichment. For this study, we argued, based on role conflict theory and COR theory, that employees who felt pressured to help others and show individual initiative were more likely to experience role overload. Employees who felt pressure to be loyal to the company were less likely to experience role overload. Further, we argued that role overload is the process to explain the relationships between the dimensions of citizenship pressure and turnover intentions as well as the relationships between the dimensions of citizenship pressure and satisfaction with work–life balance. Overall, our findings were supportive of these ideas; however, role overload did not account for the relationship between citizenship pressure – helping and turnover intention.

When searching for an explanation of why role overload did not mediate the relationship between citizenship pressure-helping and turnover intention, we found studies that suggest that the outcomes of helping behaviors may not be as cut and dry and instead, the outcomes of helping behavior are dependent on factors such as values and motives. For example, Grant, Parker and Collins revealed, in their empirical study, that proactive helping behaviors are more likely to contribute to higher supervisor performance evaluations when employees express strong prosocial values based on benevolent intentions rather than weak prosocial values based on self-serving intentions. The study pointed out that supervisors did not punish or penalize employees for engaging in proactive helping behaviors based on self-serving values, but rather, they were simply less likely to reward employees with extra credit for proactive helping behaviors based on self-serving values because supervisors expected that employees with self-serving values already benefit from engaging in these behaviors. This indicates that employees' values may impact their willingness to help and if employees detect a pattern of higher performance evaluations as a result of helping or if they have self-serving values, they may view the *pressure* to help favorably instead of negatively. In addition, a recent study revealed that promotion-focused employees, or employees who seek advancement and accomplishment, perceive more favorable implications of helping others, so they may not perceive the pressure to help others as detrimental to their well-being. All in all, individuals are motivated to exhibit helping behaviors for a variety of reasons, some of which may not necessarily lead to negative consequences for individuals and organizations.

Contributions

Our research contributes to extant literature on OCB and to the scant discussions of citizenship pressure in several ways. OCB is good for organizational effectiveness, group functioning, and individual performance evaluations and rewards, thus, citizenship pressure has emerged as an individual-level consequence based on the significance of OCB to organizations, managers, and employees. As such, this study answers a call by researchers to examine individual-level consequences of OCB. According to our examination, citizenship pressure negatively affects individuals; however, previous studies have shown that citizenship pressure has both positive and negative effects, further illustrating the interesting paradox of OCB for individuals, whereby OCB leads to both positive and negative effects. In addition, we answered a call to examine mediating processes that explain why citizenship pressure leads to negative outcomes. Finally, we answered a call to look more critically at the different types of OCB and their differential effects on outcomes, but we extended and adapted this concern to citizenship pressure. Specifically, scholars have noted that future research should examine different forms of OCB to determine whether they have similar implications and boundary conditions.

Directions for Future Research

Citizenship pressure is a concern for workers and organizations, and our study suggests some important avenues for future research. Future research should investigate additional consequences and antecedents of citizenship pressure. Particularly, studies should shed more

light on the positive consequences for individuals, teams, and organizations. For example, Bolino et al. revealed that citizenship pressure is positively associated with OCB behaviors, which indicates that workers who perceive pressure to perform duties outside of their formal job description in turn perform duties beyond their task duties. In addition, Cates et al. found a positive relationship between citizenship pressure and job engagement. It would be useful to see if there are other positive consequences of citizenship pressure and to determine how or if managers should employ citizenship pressure as a tactic to increase performance. Along the same lines, it would be interesting to see if citizenship pressure leads to other negative outcomes (e.g., job ambiguity) and non-discretionary activities such as job creep, which happens when OCBs are performed regularly overtime and eventually become considered as an employee's regular and expected job duties and compulsory citizenship behavior. Citizenship pressure should be studied within and across different types of companies and industries to see, based on an institutional theory perspective, if social norms and institutional expectations make citizenship pressure more tolerable among individuals in today's workforce due to volatile economic conditions. Future studies should also focus on the source of citizenship pressure (organizational culture, managers, coworkers, etc.).

It would be worthwhile to explore other mediators to explain citizenship pressure. Also future studies should investigate the moderating role of personal and situational variables. More specifically, it would be interesting to examine the current findings in relation to occupational type and stage of employment (i.e., newly hired, close to retirement). Other moderating variables that should be considered include generational differences and cultural differences. For example, a recent study revealed that older workers are perceived more positively than younger workers in terms of OCB directed toward the organization, so citizenship pressure could be experienced more by older workers than younger workers.

As indicated in this study, scholars should separately study the different dimensions of OCB with regard to citizenship pressure, including some of the widely used dimensions of OCB, which include sportsmanship, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The results of one study indicate that managers are attracted to and satisfied with individuals who exhibit certain OCBs (altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue), and they are dissatisfied with employees who do not exhibit certain OCBs (altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness). This implies that managers may value certain OCBs over others and may also pressure employees accordingly. A closer look at the different dimensions would elucidate this area of inquiry.

Limitations

This study should be considered in light of its limitations. We relied on a majority of self-reported measures, presenting the potential problem of common method bias. Given our cross sectional data, issues of causality cannot be inferred or suggested between the exogenous and endogenous variables. Even though scholars may assume that the use of self-reports automatically implies that observed relationships among variables are inflated, we also met the

four specific conditions as identified by Conway and Lance in conjunction with remedies outlined by Podsakoff et al. .

Since we collected a majority of our data from the same source, we employed several procedural remedies for controlling common method biases as offered by Podsakoff et al. . Procedurally, we presented detailed information about the precautions taken to ensure the confidentiality of our respondents, and respondents were informed that there was no right or wrong answers. All variables in this study contained multiple indicators and the reliability of the variables was acceptable. In addition, we used existing measures from the published literature that had already undergone reliability and validity testing. These procedures were conducted in order to decrease socially desirable responses, increase the number of honest responses (since all of our variables, no other source was used to corroborate their answers to survey questions), reduce evaluation apprehension, and reduce the likelihood of responses from test wise participants.

The sample of employees used in this study may not be representative of the general population. It should be noted that 71 percent of the respondents were African American. Most populations would have a smaller percentage of African Americans. In addition, the respondents reported a high total household income in relation to the average population. It should be noted that 63 percent of the respondents reported income greater than \$80,000 per year. Thus, the perception of citizenship pressure may be quite different in other samples of employees.

Practical Implications and Conclusions

The findings of this study reveal that OCB ultimately has negative implications for workers. Although OCB affects the organization in positive ways, managers should be careful about encouraging and rewarding this behavior, as it leads some employees to perceive that there is an implicit requirement to perform OCBs. As discussed in this study, citizenship pressure is a negative consequence of OCB that occurs when employees, although they recognize that OCBs are not required, feel pressured to engage in discretionary activities .

Theoretically, OCBs should truly be a discretionary occurrence among employees; however, in practice, OCBs are considered by managers in performance evaluations and in reward recommendations . The reality is that when individuals perform OCBs and take on additional roles, the manager's workload and burdens are decreased and his or her job is less difficult. The bottom line is that managers simply like and prefer employees who work above and beyond their basic job description .

Citizenship pressure is a real phenomenon that must be managed properly. The challenge for managers is to figure out how to effectively motivate employees to exhibit OCBs in a manner that does not resemble the type of subtle pressure that would lead to negative outcomes. Practitioners should focus on selecting employees who are more susceptible to OCB and ensure that the work environment is one that fosters these behaviors in terms of evaluations and rewards. Managers must also communicate their expectations in a clear, concise, fair, and

just fashion. Lastly, superiors must exhibit supportive behaviors and transformational leadership behaviors towards their followers.

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Study Variables^a

| VAR ^b | CPH | CPII | CPL | RO | TI | SWLB | Sex | HW | NA |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------------|
| CPH | .411 | | | | | | | | |
| CPL | .538 | .533 | | | | | | | |
| RO | .240 | .415 | .178 | | | | | | |
| TI | .069 | .098 | -.050 | .278 | | | | | |
| SWLB | -.135 | -.305 | -.127 | -.313 | -.115 | | | | |
| Sex | .124 | .020 | .066 | .082 | .031 | .077 | | | |
| HW | -.017 | .366 | .173 | .260 | -.085 | -.212 | -.11 2 | | |
| NA | .233 | .303 | .305 | .340 | .247 | -.239 | .055 | .135 | |
| Mean | 2.128 | 2.013 | 2.090 | 2.864 | 2.621 | 4.109 | .639 | 44.775 | 1.605 |
| s.d. | 1.001 | .909 | 1.097 | 1.095 | 1.222 | .993 | .481 | 7.273 | .626 |
| Cronbach α | .962 | .946 | .913 | .859 | .898 | .942 | | | .865 |
| 95% CI for Cronbach α | .955 to .969 | .936 to .955 | .894 to .929 | .825 to .887 | .874 to .918 | .930 to .953 | | | .838 to .889 |

Note. VAR = Variables; CPH = Citizenship Pressure–Helping; CPII = Citizenship Pressure–Individual Initiative; CPL = Citizenship Pressure–Loyalty; RO = Role Overload; TI = Turnover Intentions; SWLB = Satisfaction with Work–Life Balance; AHW = Average Hours Worked per week; NA = Negative Affectivity; CI = Confidence Interval.

^a $n = 242$ [except for sex ($n = 241$)]. Correlations with absolute values of .127 or greater are significant at the $p < .05$ level or better. Reliability estimates are on the diagonals in parentheses.

^b Coding was as follows: Sex: 0 = Male, 1 = Female.

Table 2
Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis

| Models | χ^2 | <i>df</i> | $\frac{\chi^2}{df}$ | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | SRMR | Model Comp. |
|---|-----------|-----------|---------------------|------|------|-------|------|-------------|
| Model 1: One-Factor F1: CPH, CPII, CPL, RO, TI and SWLB load on same factor | 4,569.104 | 377 | 12.120 | .395 | .348 | .215 | .214 | 5 vs. 1 |
| Model 2: Two Factor F1: CPH, CPII, CPL load on same factor; F2: RO, TI, and SWLB load on same factor | 3,494.388 | 376 | 9.294 | .550 | .514 | .186 | .191 | 5 vs.2 |
| Model 3a: Four Factor F1: CPH, CPII, and CPL load on same factor; F2: RO; F3: TI; F4: SWLB | 2,412.274 | 371 | 6.502 | .705 | .678 | .151 | .162 | 5 vs. 3a |
| Model 3b: Four Factor F1: CPH; F2: CPII; F3: CPL; F4: RO, TI and SWLB load on same factor | 1,771.583 | 371 | 4.775 | .798 | .779 | .125 | .115 | 5 vs. 3b |
| Model 4a: Five Factor F1: CPH; F2: CPII; F3: CPL; F4: RO; F5: TI and SWLB load on same factor | 1,376.270 | 367 | 3.750 | .854 | .839 | .107 | .083 | 5 vs. 4a |
| Model 4b: Five Factor F1: CPH; F2: CPII; F3: CPL; F4: RO and SWLB load on same factor; F5: TI | 1067.519 | 367 | 2.909 | .899 | .888 | .089 | .099 | 5 vs. 4b |
| Model 5: Six Factor F1: CPH; F2: CPII; F3: CPL; F4: RO; F5: TI; F6: SWLB | 663.151 | 362 | 1.832 | .957 | .951 | .059 | .057 | |
| Null model | 7,332.813 | 406 | | | | | | |

Note. $n = 242$. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; Root Mean Square Residual; F = Factor; CPH = Citizenship Pressure–Helping; CPII = Citizenship Pressure–Individual Initiative Pressure–Loyalty; RO = Role Overload; TI = Turnover Intentions; SWLB = Satisfaction with Work–Life Balance.

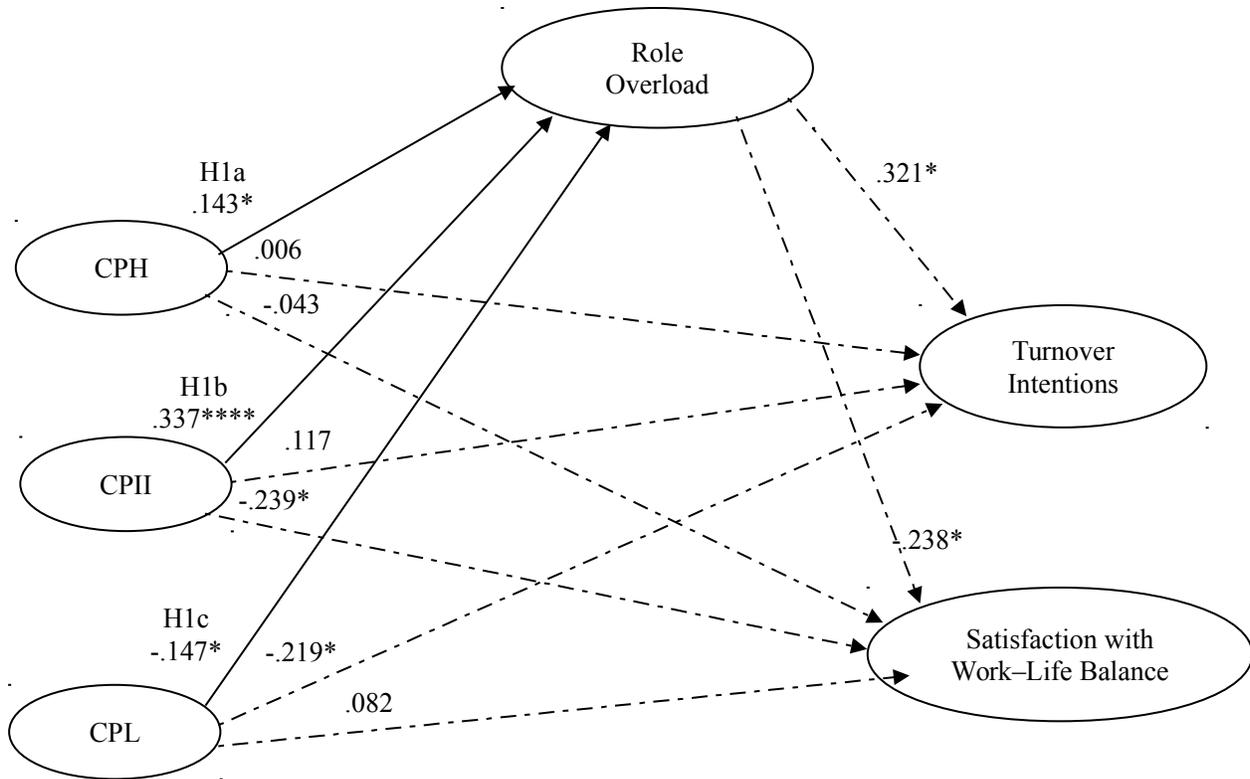
Table 3
Indirect Effects Results of the Structural Equation Model
(Testing Mediating Effects Based on AMOS Bootstrapping Outputs)

| | Endogenous Variable | |
|-------|---|--|
| | Turnover Intentions (Mediator – Role Overload) | Satisfaction with Work–Life Balance (Mediator – Role Overload) |
| | Indirect Effects | Indirect Effects |
| CPH | Hypothesis 2a .046 (.033) | Hypothesis 3a -.034* (.022) |
| CPII | Hypothesis 2b .108* (.054) | Hypothesis 3b -.079* (.039) |
| CPL | Hypothesis 2c -.047* (.030) | Hypothesis 3c .035* (.020) |
| R^2 | .120 | .176 |

Notes. CPH = Citizenship Pressure–Helping; CPII = Citizenship Pressure–Individual Initiative; CPL = Citizenship Pressure–Loyalty. Standardized coefficients and two-tailed test results; standard errors are in parentheses. The mediation analysis using the bootstrap method (N = 1000).

* $p < .05$.

Figure 1
Role Overload Mediating the Relationships between Citizenship Pressure and Outcomes,
for Hypothesized Structural Equation Model^a



^a n = 242. Unstandardized coefficients are provided for each path in the model tested (except for paths from the four control variables, which are not shown for presentation purposes).

= not hypothesized.

CPH = Citizenship Pressure–Helping; CPII = Citizenship Pressure–Individual Initiative; CPL = Citizenship Pressure–Loyalty.

* $p < .05$

**** $p < .001$

