UAB

Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

UAB
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

i

International Doctorate in Entrepreneurship and Management

Thesis Title:

Other Side of the Coin: Essays on Dark Side of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Its Effects on Employees' Wellbeing and Workplace Functioning.

PhD Student:

Aamir Suhail

Supervisors:

Dr. Alex Rialp-Criado
Dr. Alexandra Simon-Villar

Tutor

Dr. Alex Rialp-Criado

A thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Barcelona, 2021

Universitat Autònoma
de Barcelona

Acknowledgements

Contents

Abstract of Thesis

This thesis constitutes upon three studies to investigate dark side of the organizational citizenship behavior and its adverse impacts on employees wellbeing and workplace functioning. First two studies mainly rely upon conservation of resources theory. Thus, Based on the conservation of resources theory Study 1 discusses the relationship between employees' experience of citizenship pressure and job performance, as well as the mediating role of citizenship fatigue and moderating role of continuance commitment. A Multisource data reveals that employees' feelings that they have no choice but to participate in ostensibly voluntary behavior harm their job performance because of energy depletion induced by citizenship fatigue. However, employees' continuance commitment moderate the indirect relationship of citizenship pressure and job performance. Employees' belief that their employment alternatives are limited change their perception about citizenship behavior as opportunities instead of threat. Study 2 investigates how compulsory citizenship behavior affects employees' energy and motivation to engage in other voluntary behaviors such as service oriented-organizational behavior and creativity through role overload. We argued that the intensity of this effect is different for different generations (millennials vs. non-millennials). In study 2, results of a co-variance SEM analysis suggest that role overload resulting from compulsory citizenship behavior may undermine the service-oriented OCB and creativity of millennial employees. However, these effects may be more muted among non-millennials who "live to work." Study 3 relies on moral licensing theory to propose a model explaining relationship conflicts through mediating and moderating variables. We suggest that psychological entitlement mediates the relationship between individual initiatives and relationship conflicts. We also argue that impression management motives moderate this mediating effect. Based on the self-representation theory, we suggest that the

relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement becomes stronger when employees take individual initiatives with an intention of engaging in a successful impression management motive. Results of a PLS-SEM analysis of mediated moderation model suggested different strengths of the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement and relationship conflicts at lower and higher levels of impression management motives. Other interesting implications of our study are discussed.

Chapter 1

1.   Introduction of Thesis

1.1   Theoretical Background

The term ''Organizational Citizenship Behavior'' (OCB) was first conceptualized and devised by scholars of organizational behavior and human resource management (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). From that point forward, OCB has, as of now, been subjects of extreme enthusiasm for researchers. Organ (1988), argued that OCB is a weighty factor for an organization's persistence. Organ and Ryan (1995), have characterised OCB as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place." Good soldiers' helping behaviors (i.e. OCB) augment efficiency of their peers and superiors, assist coordination among employees, support consistent performance of organization, reduce employees' turnover intentions, and attract new talent for organizations (Borman, 2004). Nowadays, employers have started considering effectiveness of their employees as competitive advantage of their organizations and linking good soldiers with organizational success. Without good soldiers, organizations could not make their achievements. According to Borman (2004), OCB refers to "participating in activities or actions that are not formally a part of the job description, but that benefit the organization as a whole" (Borman, 2004; Donia .

Although unlike other kinds of pro-social actions, such as helping a family member, there is no strong sense of personal or social obligation to engage in citizenship behavior. Yet considering the importance of this voluntary extra role behavior, human resource scholars and practitioners acknowledged the need to encourage employees to go above and beyond the call of duty and undertake discretionary activities that are not part of their formal job (Neal, West, & Patterson, 2005; Park, 2012). Such OCBs, or the 'good soldier syndrome' can enhance

organizational performance and generate positive outcomes for employees by fuelling their creative performance and sense of meaningfulness. Accordingly, such behaviors are highly pertinent for HR management in line with the assertion that 'the employee performance criterion should be broadened to include citizenship behaviors and contextual performance (Park, 2018).

Despite its positive connotation, not everything is good in OCB. There is also a dark side to OCB. In contrast with conventional OCB, this extra-role behavior is not based on the genuine, spontaneous goodwill of the individual. In contrariety with conventional OCB, there is also a dark side of OCB in the form of citizenship pressure (CP) "a specific job demand in which employees feel pressure to perform OCBs" (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010) or compulsory citizenship behavior (CCB), "extra-role behavior that, in contrast with conventional OCB, is not based on the genuine, spontaneous good will of the individual" (VIGODA-GADOT, 2006; 2007). CCB is forced by managers at workplace, who deliberately increase the workload of the employees by delegating them extra duties which are out of the scope and not covered by their employment contract (He, Peng, Zhao, & Estay, 2019; VIGODA-GADOT, 2006). Therefore, after performing CCB employees feel citizenship fatigue, "state in which employees feel worn out, tired, or on edge attributed to engaging in citizenship behavior."(Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015). Extant literature of organizational behavior and human resource management discusses the dark side of citizenship behavior and its adverse impact both on employees and employers. For example supervisors damage the true sense of this voluntary behavior by forcing their subordinates to engage in so called citizenship behavior (e.g. Bolino, 1999; Bolino et al., 2015; Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Bolino et al., 2010; Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Donia, Johns, Raja, & Khalil Ben Ayed, 2018; VIGODA-GADOT, 2006; Yam, Klotz, He, &

Reynolds, 2017; Zhao, Peng, & Chen, 2014). Hence, this forceful citizenship behavior diminishes employee's ability to fulfil their primary duties (i.e. job performance) or to stop them exhibiting any other voluntary behavior such as service oriented-OCB or creativity.

Similarly, sometimes employees engage in this good deed with bad motives in their minds (Donia, Johns, & Raja, 2016). Their impression management motives inspire them to take individual initiative in helping their colleagues and organizations but by doing so, their sense of psychological entitlement grows to a level where they start considering themselves as the only reason of organizational success. Thus, they not only demand higher rewards but also expect tolerance on their mistakes (Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Spector & Fox, 2010a). Failure in accomplishing such demands generates relationship conflict with their colleagues (Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Spector & Fox, 2010).

1.2 Problem Statement

According to Gabel Shemueli, Dolan, Suárez Ceretti, & Nunez del Prado (2016), workplace stress is a significant concern to workforce. Workload is the leading cause of stress for employees and , one amongst every three people (34%) considers his work life very stressful. The study of above 2,000 individuals exposed that the central reason for workplace stress was hindrance associated with unfortunate supervision and that work was held extra stressful as compared to dues or monetary complications (30%) and healthiness concerns (17%). Almost one in every four, 26% of the people rate disproportionate workload as the second peak stressful dynamic of work. Deficiency of backing from bosses (25%) and impractical targets (25%) came second and third in the list with a marginal difference. Consequently, 19% of the respondents admitted they acquired a sickness day off in line for stress, yet 90% of the respondents who mentioned a dissimilar purpose for their absenteeism, symptomatic of a beliefs of feared about

disclosing mental wellbeing problems. Similarly, 19% people identified they couldn't convey their chiefs if they were excessively stressed. Additionally, one amongst ten (9%), had resigned from a job because of excessive stress and 25% were those who had thought to resign for the reason of work pressure. Furthermore, only 10% amongst the total 22% respondents, who had an established psychological fitness problem, had truly articulated their workplace superiors about this diagnosis (MindUK, 2013, October 09). According to Mind chief executive Paul Farmer, workplace mental condition problems is a subject that employer should not ignore. He further revealed facts of survey, although one in six employees is experiencing burnout, stress or anxiety yet most managers don't sense they cannot offer any support to them. Paul asserted that "improving mental wellbeing in the workplace doesn't have to cost a lot. Aforementioned research (MindUK, 2013, October 09) showed that people whose organisations offered flexible working hours and generous annual leave said such measures supported their mental wellbeing. Three in five people said that if their employer took action to support the mental wellbeing of all staff, they would feel more loyal, motivated, and committed. They are also more likely to recommend their workplace as a good place to work." (MindUK, 2013, October, 09). Moreover, Burke, Moodie, Dolan, & Fiksenbaum (2012), affirmed that higher job demands advesly impact nurses' wellbeing in Spain.

In August 2017, the American Psychological Association (APA), conducted its yearly "Stress in America" survey to inspect Americans' correlation with strain that how stressed they feel in their lives, what caused their white nights and by what means they managed stress in their lives (Harris et. al 2017). According to the decade long results of the survey, work (61%) have consistently topped the list of stressors after money (63%). Current political climate (57%) and

violence and crime (51%) respectively took third and fourth number in the list (The-state-of-our-nation, 2017).

1.3 Research Questions

Next are the explicit research questions:

1- Does citizenship pressure create citizenship fatigue?

2- Does citizenship pressure adversely impact the job performance of employees?

3- Does continuance commitment of employees help them to overcome the citizenship fatigue caused by citizenship pressure and motivate them to complete their in-roll job tasks efficiently?

4- How does compulsory citizenship behavior impact the other voluntary behaviors (service oriented-OCB, creativity)

5- Does compulsory citizenship behavior create role-overload amongst employees?

6- Does generation's characteristics moderate the impact of role-overload on job outcomes (service oriented-OCB and creativity)?

7- Does employees' impression management driven individual initiative yield sense of higher psychological entitlement?

8- Does impression management driven individual initiative generate relationship conflict among employees via psychological entitlement?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Like specified earlier, previous studies explored the relationship between the citizenship pressure and organizational citizenship behavior (Bolino et al., 2010) whereas this study investigates the relationship of CP with CF while hypothesizing the CP as an antecedent of CF. Similarly previous studies discussed the relationship of OCB with employees' JP, however, this

study investigates the relationship of CP with JP directly and indirectly via CF by arguing that employees feel CF when their supervisors pressurize them to perform beyond the formal call of duty against their free will.

Researchers, since recent past, emphasizing on the significance of conducting researches on behaviors of different generations at workplace while focusing the unique behaviors of millennial who are going to form the biggest portion of workforce in coming decade (Becton, Walker, & Jones-Farmer, 2014; Hui-Chun, Yu, & Miller, 2003; Huyler, Pierre, Ding, & Norelus, 2015; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010; Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Salahuddin, 2010; Shragay & Tziner, 2011; Twenge, 2010). Moreover previous studies explained the negative impact of CCB on overall conventional OCB. On the other hand this study investigates the insight of the impact of CCB on service oriented-OCB and creativity.

In countries like Pakistan, the negative effect of pressurized citizenship behavior is significant to study because of high power distance culture in organizations and therefore supervisors commonly put pressure on their subordinates to always be ready to perform beyond the line of duty. To study the adverse impacts of such involuntary behavior on other job outcomes, either under pressure from supervisor or with bad motives employees, we selected these organizations because there occurs a great chance of power space and unprincipled behavior from employer with employees in private sector organizations (Bukhari & Kamal, 2015). On the other hand, public servants are anticipated to show extra commitment in serving the society (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). According to Esteve, Schuster, Albareda, and Losada (2017), public workers are required to work spend extra time at workplace in order to compensate expense and to accomplish targets with less available resources. At the same time, a public servant's willingness to do more for the society may work as a "personal" resource that

may help the public servant to manage time, required for extra-role performance (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Conversely, the effect of such forced extra-role behavior (i.e. CCB) becomes more adverse for public servants who lack this important resource (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). This study therefore explains the outcomes in Eastern context, Pakistan, and claims validity of its findings equally in Western context. Furthermost previously researchers conducted and confirmed same framework investigations and theories in developed American and European countries. Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou (2017), advocated that we ought to test the theories established in the US in other cultures as well, focusing on both public and private sectors. This might give confidence about generalizability of these theories in other cultural contexts. This study addressed this gap by examining the applicability and legitimacy of theories mostly advanced in Western culture in the Asian cultural context.

1.5 Contribution of the Study

There are numerous specific contribution of this study. As mentioned in the problem statement that no matter whether it is individualistic and lower power distant western culture or collectivistic and high power distant eastern culture, workload is the foremost foundation of stress in everyone's life. One amongst every three people (34%) considers his work life very stressful in Pakistan Source: Pakistan Today (www.pakistantoday.com). Firstly, the foremost input of this scholarship is to analyse the level of CP employees feel in Pakistani organizations which are largely considered high in power distant cultures. Here subordinates are supposed to follow the instructions of their supervisors who eye the success of the organization mostly in limitless responsibilities of their subordinates. This study practically tried to make the supervisors and employers aware of the alarming situation that is causing irreparable loss of

human resources because of their continuous pressure on the employee to perform beyond their formal job description.

We apply conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll 1989, 2001) to propose that employees' experience of excessive CP in their performance appraisal can lead to lower in-role job performance because of their energy depletion, in the form of CF (Bolino et al. 2015). Empirical studies indicate effects of CP on employees' actual OCB (Bolino et al. 2010), job engagement (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010), work–family conflict, work–leisure conflict, job stress, and turnover intentions (Bolino et al. 2010), yet prior research has only theorized about how this source of workplace adversity may undermine their actual job performance (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2013; Vigoda-Gadot 2006). By investigating and unpacking the link between CP and JP, we accordingly provide HR managers, especially those operating in market environments that make employees' voluntary behaviors a competitive necessity (Hodson 2002; Organ 1988; Podsakoff et al. 2000), with critical insights into the risk of negative spillover effects. Employees may be unable to meet their in-role job requirements in the presence of excessive pressures to take on additional responsibilities, and CF is an unexplored mechanism by which the experience of such CP may cause employees to underperform on their formal job duties.

Employees' "continuance commitment (CC) is viewed as a tendency to engages in consistent lines of activity (i.e. working for an organization) based on the individual's recognition of the costs (or lost side-bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (i.e. leaving an organization)" (Becker, 1960; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). In response to calls to adopt contingency approaches to clarify the outcomes of excessive work pressures (e.g., Aleksic et al. 2017; Pooja, De Clercq, and Belausteguigoitia 2016), we propose that

employees'CC may function as a buffer against the fatigue that arises with organizational pressures to go beyond formally prescribed duties, which then diminishes the likelihood that employees underperform. Consistent with COR theory, the anticipated resource gains in the form of job security offered to "good soldiers", a critical concern among employees who express high levels of continuance commitment (Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016; Meyer and Allen 1997), can compensate for resource losses due to the experience of citizenship pressure (Hobfoll, 2001). We thus extend previous research that focuses on the negative features of CC, such as lower motivation levels (Meyer and Allen 1991), diminished innovative behaviors (Jafri 2010), or poor job performance (Uppal, 2017). Instead, we consider CC as productive, in that it can mitigate the translation of CP into enhanced CF. This conceptualization extends prior HR management research that focuses primarily on the direct effects of this commitment type on outcomes such as turnover intentions (Gamble and Tian 2015), early retirement (Herrbach, Mignonac, Vandenberghe, & Negrini, 2009; Luchak, Pohler, & Gellatly, 2008), or motivations to improve (Naquin and Holton 2002). Our focus on CC also expands Bolino et al.'s (2015) investigation of the buffering influences of relevant contextual factors (e.g., organizational support, team member exchange quality) on citizenship fatigue in response to OCB. With this extension, we offer HR managers novel insights into which employees might respond less negatively to pressures to go beyond the call of duty, with beneficial consequences for their ability or motivation to meet formal performance targets (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Deery et al. 2017; Werner 2000).

Keep aligning with COR (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) in the second chapter, we investigate how role overload affects employees' motivations to engage in service-oriented OCB and reduces their creativity.

We also posit that the generation in which one was born might moderate the relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB and creativity. We divide the study's population into millennial and non-millennial groups. Millennials include people born between 1980 and 2000. By 2020, they are expected to constitute more than 50% of the global workforce (PwC Annual Report, 2016). In our non-millennial group we have two subgroups: baby boomers born between the mid-1940s and late 1964, and Generation Xers born between 1961 and 1981.

We adopted this approach because employers complain that loyalty and discipline, the trademark of their ancestors, is lacking in millennials. At this point, we should explore the term "generation" in depth to understand the behavioral differences of different generations and to classify their distinctive characteristics. One definition of a generation is, "A group of people who were born and raised in a similar social and historical atmosphere" (Mannheim, 1953; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). Others have described it as, "An identifiable group that shares years of birth and significant life events that occurred in critical stages of their lives" (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). Moreover, according to career stage theory, people pass through five career stages during their life span: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement (Super, 1957, 1980).

We maintain that the attitudes and behaviors of millennials vary a great deal from those of their predecessors. They will be less likely to engage in service-oriented OCB and will exhibit less creativity at work when they feel overloaded because of compulsory citizenship behavior. Millennials want to transform the systems of older generations and be more open and transparent. Thus, for millennials, organizations should be flexible in how work is done.

Third chapter of the current study extends the work of Klotz and Bolino (2013) and Yam, Klotz, He, and Reynolds (2017) who suggest that, after engaging in externally motivated citizenship behavior, employees feel psychologically entitled. Although several studies have discussed the negative consequences of involuntary citizenship behavior in the workplace (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Zhao, Peng, & Chen, 2014), no empirical analysis has explored the causal link between individual initiative and relationship conflicts using the concept of psychological entitlement. Notably, we reveal how a good looking behavior works as an antecedent of one of the most deteriorating phenomena for both employees and organizations. Moreover, we specifically reveal the role of impression management motives in individual initiative and psychological entitlement nexus that provides avenues of research for scholars and elevate the understanding of practitioners regarding bad motives of employees hidden in good deeds.

Finally, the empirical context of this study is Pakistan. We address calls for more research on the negative performance consequences of adverse work conditions in understudied, non-Western, and Asian settings (Becton and Field 2009; Biswas 2016; Jam et al. 2017; Paine and Organ 2000; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Sri Ramalu 2014). Pakistani culture is characterized by high levels of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010), so citizenship pressures and the associated energy depletion might have especially strong effects on employees' propensity to allocate less energy to performance-enhancing activities (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010; Koopman et al., 2020; Lin, Savani, & Ilies, 2019). Moreover, the economic circumstances in Pakistan make it difficult to move from one organization to another (Khilji 2013; Rahman, Naqvi, and Ramay 2008), so employees' CC should be a particularly relevant factor. Thus, our theoretical focus on the concurrent effects of employees' experience of

CP and their CC on their CF and subsequent JP should be highly pertinent in this empirical context that can be generalized in other countries with similar cultural profiles.

Similarly, prevalence of CCB is more likely among employees working in Pakistani organizations with higher power distant cultural attributes that enhance the role-overload of employees and subsequently they not only stop showing creativity in their work but also stop favoring their organizations and their products in front of outsiders.

Moreover, in a low-wage workplace settings, employees might consider themselves entitled for more rewards and perks in return of their individual initiative. When they believe that their organization values them less than their contributions and they do not receive enough rewards for their voluntary behavior, relationship conflicts start. In the Pakistani context, they may also believe their individual initiative boosts their importance for organizational success that help them to secure their long term job period in same organization. Thus, exhibit more individual initiative with impression management motives.

1.6 Plan of the Study

Current study is a comprehensive attempt to reveal every possible phenomenon that may turn good soldiers' voluntary behavior into non-voluntary forced citizenship behavior. In doing so, current study comprise of three chapters (from chapter 2 to chapter 4) in Pakistani context. According to Hofstede (2011) study of cultural dimensions, Pakistan is ranked higher in power distance that enhances the likelihood of this forced behavior among Pakistani employees.

Second chapter (first empirical paper) of the thesis reveals that how citizenship pressure (i.e. pressure to perform OCB) might cause employees to experience frustration if they believe their employer is failing to take their personal well-being into account, by forcing them to perform activities for which they lack the energy or drive because they can harm employees'

mental well-being, work motivation, and performance. Similarly, experience of citizenship pressure may escalate into reduced job performance through citizenship fatigue, because of employees' tendencies to conserve resources that they otherwise would devote to performance-enhancing activities. But at the same time, compared with affective and normative forms of commitments which focus on psychological attachments and moral obligations that employees feel toward their employer, continuance commitment reflects employees' job security concerns which diminish if they can adjust to their current work environment even that imposes significant pressures on their daily functioning. Then as an outcome, this research finds that employees' continuance commitment mitigates the adverse impact of citizenship pressure on job performance, which is a critical determinant of performance evaluations. Hence, concurrent influences of citizenship pressures and continuance commitment on job performance, through citizenship fatigue, accordingly are important considerations for HR managers.

Third chapter (second empirical paper) of the current study discusses that how compulsory citizenship behavior (forced form of OCB) may lead towards role-overload. For instance, when a manager makes it compulsory for employees to work longer hours to complete an extra task, employees may feel that they are suffering from role overload. In such situations it is unlikely that they will have the time or the inclination to engage in voluntary acts of good citizenship. We argue that role overload, triggered by compulsory citizenship behavior, limits employees' creativity and motivation to engage in service oriented-OCB and defend their organizations to outsiders. This phenomenon is more prevalent amongst millennial employees (new generation) as compared to non-millennial employees (old generations) because millennials believe in working to live whereas non-millennials believe in living to work philosophy.

After discussing the two possibilities of supervisor's pressure which change a spontaneous helping behavior into an energy draining forceful behavior, fourth chapter (third empirical paper) investigates that how sometimes employees themselves take individual initiative (a type of OCB) in helping their organizations and colleagues with their impression management motives. Such impression management motives driven citizenship behavior may instil a sense of psychological entitlement in employees because they believe that their extra effort is vital to the organization's success. Thus, psychologically entitled employees seek benefits and favors without actually deserving them. They demand exclusive rights and actions at work. When they believe that their organization values them less than their contributions and they do not receive enough rewards for their voluntary behavior, relationship conflicts start.

In fifth chapter of the present study, we provide overall implications of the thesis and conclude that apparently beneficial looking citizenship behavior does not remain fruitful for the organizations or colleagues when it is forced by supervisors or it is performed by employees with bad intentions in their minds.

1.7 Definition of Study Variables

1.7.1- Citizenship Pressure (CP)

"Citizenship pressure is a specific job demand in which employee feels pressured to perform OCBs." Distinct in this manner, citizenship pressure is dissimilar from other paradigms that might be interrelated to it, or give the impression of similarity in various ways.

In certain, citizenship pressure diverges from constructs which some scholars have denoted as "Culture/ Climate of OCB" and "OCB norms". It's also not because of social exchange perspective (Satisfied customers supposed to engage in more OCB) or impression

management perspective (High self-monitors supposed to engage in more OCB) (Bolino et al., 2010).

1.7.2- Citizenship Fatigue (CF)

"Citizenship Fatigue" (CF) is defined as a "state in which employees feel worn out, tired, or on edge attributed to engaging in OCB."(Bolino et al., 2015, p. 57).

Citizenship fatigue is dissimilar from term "compassionate fatigue". CF is methodical by both affect and cognition, in that it incorporates a sentiment of being depleted, tired, or edgy, and furthermore a conviction that it is excluded in the formal job description going elsewhere the demand and obligation of formal job or partaking in extra role practices that is adding to these emotions. While compassion fatigue is established in slants of sympathy and obligation regarding the care of individuals in urgent and frequently sad circumstances, citizenship fatigue is established more by taking part in moderately optional acts that advantage the organization (Bolino et al., 2015). Consequently, while compassion fatigue is related with sentiments, for example, trouble and feebleness, workers who encounter citizenship fatigue feel baffled or undervalued. Inspite of the fact that CF is bearing a palpable resemblance with two constructs. Firstly, CF resembles with felt stress that captures the general sense that one's job is stressful and that stressful things happen at work (Bolino et al., 2015; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986) or "a sense of time pressure, anxiety, and worry that is associated with job tasks" (Bolino et al., 2015; Hunter & Thatcher, 2007). Secondly citizenship fatigue rsembles with role-overload that focuses on individual's beliefs that they do not have enough time to get everything done at work, they have too much work for one person to do, and the amount of work they are expected to do is too great (Bolino et al., 2015; Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings, 1989). At the same time, it is also different from these constructs in evocative ways. Both felt stress and role overload reflect

individuals' sense that their resources are being stretched or diminished in a way that influences their ability to be successful in their work. However, neither felt stress nor role overload are concerned with OCB in particular. Their effects often undermine employees' ability to perform their jobs in general (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008), not just in the area of citizenship behavior.

1.7.3- "Job Performance (JP)"

"Job performance" is defined as "the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioural episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time".

Importantly this classification refers performance as a property of behavior. Specifically, it is an accumulated property of various distinct behaviors that occur over a period of time. Secondly, the performance refers to the property of behavior that describes the expected value to the organization. In line with this definition, the performance construct is a variable that differentiates between sets of behaviors conceded by different individuals and/or differentiates between sets of behaviors passed in different times by the same individual (Motowidlo, 2003).

1.7.4- "Continuance Commitment"

"Continuance commitment is viewed as a tendency to engages in consistent lines of activity (i.e. working for an organization) based on the individual's recognition of the costs (or lost side-bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (i.e. leaving an organization)" (Becker, 1960; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983).

1.7.5- "Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (CCB)"

CCB defined as "employees' engagement in extra-role, but not necessary voluntary, behaviors that are conducted under duress and not as a result of the self-driven goodwill of the individual himself/herself."(VIGODA-GADOT, 2006)

1.7.6- *"Role-Overload"*

Role overload defines circumstances in which workers feel that too many assignments and tasks are expected to be accomplished by them in given time and other resources (e.g. abilities and energy) (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1990; Kahn, 1973; Rizzo et al., 1970). As organizational-member role goes beyond the formally assigned tasks and duties, it will definitely require additional resources in the form of time and energy to perform it, failing to which, might drive employees to save their resources from other tasks.

1.7.7- *"Service Oriented-OCB"*

"Service-Oriented or Loyalty OCBs reflects faithfulness to the organization through the promotion of its interests and image to outsiders".

1.7.8- *"Creativity"*

Creativity is an individual variant performed by intrinsically or extrinsically motivated workers. Those organizations which promote creativity has consistent growth and long survival (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Han, Harms, & Bai, 2017). Previous research has explored the consequences of destructive leadership styles and abusive supervision as an antecedent of decreased employees' creativity (Han et al., 2017; Lee, Yun, & Srivastava, 2013; Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), however there has been no attention paid to investigate the effect of pressurized extra role behavior (i.e. CCB derived by CP) of employees on their creativity at workplace.

1.7.9- *"Generations Gap"*

The term "generation gap", firstly conversed in 60s, referred the youngest generation of that time as baby boomers who exhibited a substantial variance in their philosophies and thoughts related to what their parents 'generation projected. At the same time, sociological

theory of generation gap came into discussion when baby boomers went against their parents in term of values, social and political behaviors, and music.

1.7.10- "Individual Initiative"

Individual initiative is a type of citizenship behavior and good soldiers perform such voluntary behavior by reaching earlier at workplace, working for extended hours, voluntarily participating in special projects, and coming office during weekends (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Nevertheless, employees regularly perform citizenship behavior because of informal demands (Morrison, 1994; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), expected rewards (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991), or for getting popular amongst colleagues and supervisors (Bolino, 1999; Yam et al., 2017).

1.7.11- "Psychological Entitlement"

Psychological entitlement is "the compensation expected as a result of an individuals' participation in an employment relationship" (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Yam et al., 2017). Psychological entitlement does not necessarily depend on equal quantitative exchange, therefore, entitlement perceptions integrate into trade-off basis (Naumann et al., 2002). For instance, a psychologically entitled person might refuse a charity request because of previous charity contribution. Thus, psychologically entitled employees demand more rewards because of their extra-role performance (Yam et al., 2017) and although people behave according to their motives, similar behaviors do not mean similar motives (Donia et al., 2016). In addition, performance of individual initiatives with impression management motives enhance employees' psychological entitlement.

1.7.12- "Relationship Conflicts"

Relationship conflicts occurs in a group when members of a group experience hostility for each other and display emotions of anger, dissatisfaction and disgrace to group fellows (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). In interactive terms, entitled employees often execute selfish behaviors (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010) and exhibit rudeness and lack of respect to their fellows (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004). Logically, both these behaviors may enhance chances of relationship conflicts at workplace.

1.7.13- "Impression Management"

Impression management motives are generally associated with self-presentation in which people attempt to manipulate the interpretations of their image. People create their images to assert their personal identity and portray themselves accordingly (Schlenker, 1980). Impression management motives of citizenship behavior indicate employees' aspiration either to highlight their positive personality or to avoid their negative image at workplace (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Employees accomplish their impression management motives by taking individual initiative of citizenship behavior, such that individual initiative is instrumental in achieving employees' impression management goals (Bolino, 1999). For instance, they reach at their workplace earlier or stay late, to prove their extra dedication or to establish less dedication of their colleagues who cannot offer such services (Bolino, 1999).

1.8. References

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of management Journal, 26*(4), 587-595.

Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American journal of Sociology, 66*(1), 32-40.

Becton, J. B., Walker, H. J., & Jones-Farmer, A. (2014). Generational differences in workplace behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 44*(3), 175-189.

Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management review, 24*(1), 82-98.

Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(1), 56.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(4), 740.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., Gilstrap, J. B., & Suazo, M. M. (2010). Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(6), 835-855.

Bolino, M. C., Varela, J. A., Bande, B., & Turnley, W. H. (2006). The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 27*(3), 281-297.

Borman, W. C. (2004). The concept of organizational citizenship. *Current directions in psychological science, 13*(6), 238-241.

Bukhari, I., & Kamal, A. (2015). Relationship between perceived organizational politics and its negative outcomes: Moderating role of perceived organizational support. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 30*(2), 271.

Burke, R. J., Moodie, S., Dolan, S. L., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2012). Job demands, social support, work satisfaction and psychological well-being among nurses in Spain. *ESADE Business School Research Paper*(233).

Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, A. M., Shelton, J., Exline, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2004). Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report measure. *Journal of personality assessment, 83*(1), 29-45.

Donia, M. B., Johns, G., & Raja, U. (2016). Good soldier or good actor? Supervisor accuracy in distinguishing between selfless and self-serving OCB motives. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 31*(1), 23-32.

Donia, M. B., Johns, G., Raja, U., & Khalil Ben Ayed, A. (2018). Getting credit for OCBs: potential costs of being a good actor vs. a good soldier. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 27*(2), 188-203.

Esteve, M., Schuster, C., Albareda, A., & Losada, C. (2017). The Effects of Doing More with Less in the Public Sector: Evidence from a Large-Scale Survey. *Public Administration Review, 77*(4), 544-553.

Farrell, D., & Rusbult, C. E. (1981). Exchange variables as predictors of job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover: The impact of rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Organizational behavior and human performance, 28*(1), 78-95.

Gabel Shemueli, R., Dolan, S. L., Suárez Ceretti, A., & Nunez del Prado, P. (2016). Burnout and engagement as mediators in the relationship between work characteristics and turnover intentions across two Ibero-American nations. *Stress and Health, 32*(5), 597-606.

Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: examining main and moderating effects. *Personnel psychology, 61*(2), 227-271.

Herrbach, O., Mignonac, K., Vandenberghe, C., & Negrini, A. (2009). Perceived HRM practices, organizational commitment, and voluntary early retirement among late-career managers. *Human Resource Management, 48*(6), 895-915.

He, P., Peng, Z., Zhao, H., & Estay, C. (2019). How and when compulsory citizenship behavior leads to employee silence: a moderated mediation model based on moral disengagement and supervisor–subordinate guanxi views. *Journal of Business Ethics, 155*(1), 259-274.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American psychologist, 44*(3), 513.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology, 50*(3), 337-421.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online readings in psychology and culture, 2*(1), 2307-0919.1014.

Hui-Chun, Yu, & Miller, P. (2003). The generation gap and cultural influence–a Taiwan empirical investigation. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 10*(3), 23-41.

Hunter, L. W., & Thatcher, S. M. (2007). Feeling the heat: Effects of stress, commitment, and job experience on job performance. *Academy of management journal, 50*(4), 953-968.

Huyler, D., Pierre, Y., Ding, W., & Norelus, A. (2015). Millennials in the Workplace: Positioning Companies for Future Success. *SFERC 2015*, 114.

Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. *Academy of Management journal, 44*(2), 238-251.

Klotz, A. C., & Bolino, M. C. (2013). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: A moral licensing view. *Academy of Management review, 38*(2), 292-306.

Koopman, J., Rosen, C. C., Gabriel, A. S., Puranik, H., Johnson, R. E., & Ferris, D. L. (2020). Why and for whom does the pressure to help hurt others? Affective and cognitive mechanisms linking helping pressure to workplace deviance. *Personnel Psychology, 73*(2), 333-362.

Kowske, B. J., Rasch, R., & Wiley, J. (2010). Millennials'(lack of) attitude problem: An empirical examination of generational effects on work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 265-279.

Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2000). Multigeneration employees: strategies for effective management. *The health care manager, 19*(1), 65&hyhen.

Lin, K. J., Savani, K., & Ilies, R. (2019). Doing good, feeling good? The roles of helping motivation and citizenship pressure. *Journal of applied psychology, 104*(8), 1020.

Lu, A. C. C., & Gursoy, D. (2016). Impact of job burnout on satisfaction and turnover intention: do generational differences matter? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 40*(2), 210-235.

Luchak, A. A., Pohler, D. M., & Gellatly, I. R. (2008). When do committed employees retire? The effects of organizational commitment on retirement plans under a defined-benefit pension plan. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management, 47*(3), 581-599.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50*(1), 123-150.

Mannheim, K. (1953). American sociology. *Essays on Sociology and Social Psychology, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London*.

Morrison, E. W. (1994). Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management journal, 37*(6), 1543-1567.

Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking charge at work: Extrarole efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of management Journal, 42*(4), 403-419.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2003). Job performance. *Handbook of psychology*.

Motowidlo, S. J., Packard, J. S., & Manning, M. R. (1986). Occupational stress: its causes and consequences for job performance. *Journal of applied psychology, 71*(4), 618.

Naumann, S. E., Minsky, B. D., & Sturman, M. C. (2002). The use of the concept "entitlement" in management literature: A historical review, synthesis, and discussion of compensation policy implications. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(1), 145-166.

Neal, A., West, M. A., & Patterson, M. G. (2005). Do organizational climate and competitive strategy moderate the relationship between human resource management and productivity? *Journal of management, 31*(4), 492-512 .

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*: Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel psychology, 48*(4), 775-802.

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: a motivational analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(6), 1306.

Park, R .(2012) .Self-managing teams and employee attitudes: the moderating role of capital intensity. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*(4), 714-730 .

Park, R. (2018). The roles of OCB and automation in the relationship between job autonomy and organizational performance: a moderated mediation model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 29*(6), 1139-11.

Perry, J. L., & Hondeghem, A. (2008). *Motivation in public management: The call of public service*: Oxford university press on demand.

Potipiroon, W., & Faerman, S. (2020). Tired from working hard? Examining the effect of organizational citizenship behavior on emotional exhaustion and the buffering roles of public service motivation and perceived supervisor support. *Public Performance & Management Review, 43*(6), 1260-1291.

Rusbult, C. E., & Farrell, D. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The impact on job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover of variations in rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Journal of applied psychology, 68*(3), 429.

Salahuddin, M. M. (2010). Generational differences impact on leadership style and organizational success. *Journal of Diversity Management, 5*(2), 1.

Schaubroeck, J., Cotton, J. L., & Jennings, K. R. (1989). Antecedents and consequences of role stress: A covariance structure analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 10*(1), 35-58.

Schlenker, B. R. (1980). Impression management: The self-concept. *Social Identity, and Interpersonal Relations (Brooks/Cole, Monterey, CA).*

Shragay, D., & Tziner, A. (2011). The generational effect on the relationship between job involvement, work satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones, 27*(2).

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of applied psychology, 68*(4), 653.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2010a). Counterproductive work behavior and organisational citizenship behavior: Are they opposite forms of active behavior? *Applied Psychology, 59*(1), 21-39.

Spector, P .E., & Fox, S. (2010b). Theorizing about the deviant citizen: An attributional explanation of the interplay of organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(2), 132-143.

Super, D. E. (1957). The psychology of careers; an introduction to vocational development.

Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16*(3), 282-298.

The-State-of-Our-Nation. Stress in America 2017, August from

https://www.apa.org/news/press/releases/stress/2017/state-nation.pdf

Tsui, A. S., Nifadkar, S. S., & Ou, A. Y. (2007). Cross-national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research: Advances, gaps, and recommendations. *Journal of management, 33*(3), 426-478.

Twenge, J. M. (2010). A review of the empirical evidence on generational differences in work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 201-210.

Uppal, N. (2017). Uncovering curvilinearity in the organizational tenure-job performance relationship. *Personnel Review*.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 21*(3), 377-405.

VIGODA-GADOT, E. (2006). Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 36*(1), 77-93.

Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2017). From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance. *Academy of Management journal, 60*(1), 373-396.

Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Chen, H.-K. (2014). Compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: The role of organizational identification and perceived interactional justice. *The Journal of psychology, 148*(2), 177-196.

Zitek, E. M., Jordan, A. H., Monin, B., & Leach, F. R. (2010). Victim entitlement to behave selfishly. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology, 98*(2), 245.

Chapter 2

Citizenship Pressure and Job Performance: Roles of Citizenship Fatigue and Continuance Commitment

Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between employees' experience of citizenship pressure and job performance, as well as the mediating role of citizenship fatigue and moderating role of continuance commitment. Multisource, time-lagged data from employees and their supervisors in Pakistan reveal that employees' beliefs that they have no other choice than to take on allegedly voluntary activities undermine their job performance, due to energy depletion evoked as citizenship fatigue. Their continuance commitment buffers this process; the indirect relationship between citizenship pressure and job performance, through citizenship fatigue, is weaker when employees believe they have limited employment alternatives, because they may perceive expectations of their citizenship as opportunities instead of threats in this case. Human resource managers thus should recognize that excessive organizational pressures for citizenship behaviors can undermine job performance, but less so among employees for whom leaving the organization appears costly.

Keywords: citizenship pressure; citizenship fatigue; job performance; continuance commitment; conservation of resources theory

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Human resource (HR) scholars and practitioners acknowledge the need to encourage employees to go above and beyond the call of duty and undertake discretionary activities that are not part of their formal job descriptions. Such organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), or the "good soldier syndrome" (Organ, 1988), can enhance employer performance and also generate positive outcomes for employees, by fueling their sense of meaningfulness and personal development (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Russo, Guo, & Baruch, 2014). Accordingly, such behaviors are highly pertinent for HR management, in line with the assertion that "the employee performance criterion should be broadened to include citizenship behaviors and contextual performance" (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

Yet HR management research also acknowledges how additional responsibilities can be *detrimental* for employees, especially if the employer places excessive emphasis on voluntary behaviors, leaving employees with the impression that they have no other choice than to allocate significant energy to voluntary efforts (Bolino et al. 2010; Culbertson and Mills 2011; Deery, et al. 2017). Such pressures can manifest in different ways; for example, employees may believe that performing their formally prescribed job duties is not sufficient to achieve a reputation as a valuable organizational member, or they may sense an almost automatic expectation that they sign up for extra task assignments, even if their formal job obligations leave them with insufficient time to do so (Bolino et al. 2010, 2015; Mitchell, Greenbaum, Vogel, Mawritz, & Keating, 2019).

Employees' exposure to such adverse, resource-depleting work conditions, irrespective of their source, is a critical concern for HR professionals, because they can harm employees' mental well-being, work motivation, and performance (e.g., Kumarika Perera, Chew, and Nielsen 2017;

Macky and Boxall 2008; Magee et al. 2017; Perko, Kinnunen, and Feldt 2017). For example, excessive work pressures might cause employees to experience great frustration, especially if they believe their employer is failing to take their personal well-being into account, by forcing them to perform activities for which they lack the energy or drive (Altaf and Awan 2011; Avery et al. 2010; Pooja, De Clercq, and Belausteguigoitia 2016). Although pressures to perform OCB are a pertinent form of such workplace adversity, they have received relatively limited research attention in studies of employee well-being (Bolino et al. 2010; Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010; Horn et al. 2015) or HR management research (Deery et al. 2017; Jiao, Richards, and Hackett, 2013). Yet the persistence of such pressures and their potential harms for organizations' employee bases indicates the need for further investigations, particularly into the possible negative performance consequences that this source of workplace adversity might generate and how they could be contained (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2013; Culbertson and Mills 2011).

To address this gap, we investigate how employees' experience of citizenship pressure might diminish their in-role job performance by enhancing their fatigue levels—which we label "citizenship fatigue," to emphasize the specific source of this form of depletion (Bolino et al. 2015). We define citizenship fatigue as "a state in which feeling worn out, tired, or on edge is attributed to engaging in OCB" (Bolino et al. 2015, 57). We also consider how their continuance commitment, which stems from the difficulties employees associate with leaving their current employer because they sense limited employment alternatives, might mitigate this effect (Meyer and Allen 1991; Veitch and Cooper-Thomas 2009; Wang 2015). Notably, prior HR management research indicates that the motivation that underpins continuance commitment pertains to not only the cost of leaving but also the instrumental benefits of staying with the current employer (Cohen 2007). Compared with affective and normative forms, which focus on the psychological

attachment or moral obligation that employees feel toward their employing organization, respectively (Allen and Meyer 1991; Gamble and Tian 2015), continuance commitment reflects employees' concerns about job security, which diminish if they can adjust to their current work environment, even an environment that imposes significant pressures on their daily functioning (Cohen 2007; Wang 2015). Then as an outcome, we consider employees' in-role job performance, which reflects their ability to meet formally prescribed job requirements (Williams and Anderson, 1991) and is a critical determinant of their performance evaluations (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Takeuchi, Way, and Tian 2018). Investigating the concurrent influences of citizenship pressures and continuance commitment on job performance, through citizenship fatigue, accordingly represents an important quest for HR managers.

COR theory

To substantiate our theoretical arguments, we draw from conservation of resources (COR) theory, which asserts that employees' exposure to adverse work conditions can prompt negative performance outcomes, because they suffer resource depletion and seek to conserve any remaining resources through work-related efforts (Hobfoll 1989, 2001; Rastogi et al. 2018). We similarly propose that the experience of citizenship pressure may escalate into reduced job performance through citizenship fatigue, because of employees' tendencies to conserve resources that they otherwise would devote to performance-enhancing activities (Bergeron 2007; Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; McCarthy, Trougakos, and Cheng 2016). As previous research has shown, enhanced levels of fatigue are causal mechanisms that can connect resource-draining work conditions—such as abusive supervision (Chi and Liang 2013), negative workplace gossip (Wu et al. 2018), or interpersonal problems with mentors (Yi et al. 2017)—to negative work outcomes. However, we know of no empirical studies that investigate the potential mediating

role of citizenship fatigue in relation to the harmful performance consequences of excessive citizenship pressures.

Moreover, COR theory and its underlying notion of buffering effects suggests that the harm caused by employees' exposure to workplace adversity can be mitigated if they possess personal characteristics that diminish their experience of resource losses, due to their potential to generate resource gains (Abbas et al. 2014; Hobfoll 1989). Following this logic, employees' continuance commitment may buffer against the depletion of their positive energy resource reservoirs when their employer imposes undue pressures on them to do more than is prescribed by their formal job descriptions (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010). Employees who exhibit high levels of continuance commitment worry about their job security and actively work to comply with organizational directives to keep their jobs (Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016; Wang 2015). Employer pressures to undertake voluntary work behaviors then might represent opportunities, rather than threats, such that these employees can benefit from their organizational membership and receive positive performance evaluations if they respond positively to the pressures (Cohen 2007; Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016; Johnson and Chu-Hsiang 2006). Consistent with COR theory, we thus argue that energy resource loss, due to experiences of OCB pressures, might be countered by anticipated resource gains, in the form of enhanced job security, if employees comply with employer expectations to go above and beyond the call of duty (Hobfoll and Shirom 2000). Formally, when their continuance commitment is high, the positive effect of employees' experience of citizenship pressure on citizenship fatigue might be mitigated, which should have positive consequences for their job performance.

2.1.1   Contributions

In testing these predictions, we seek to make several contributions to HR research. First, we apply COR theory to propose and demonstrate that employees' experience of excessive citizenship pressure in their performance appraisal can lead to lower in-role job performance *because* of their energy depletion, in the form of citizenship fatigue (Bolino et al. 2015; Hobfoll 1989, 2001). As HR management research indicates, if voluntary behaviors are critical to employees' performance appraisal, the resulting pressures might hinder employees' ability to execute formally prescribed job tasks (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Deery et al. 2017; Jiao, Richards, and Hackett 2013). Empirical studies indicate effects of citizenship pressures on employees' actual OCB (Bolino et al. 2010), job engagement (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010), work–family conflict, work–leisure conflict, job stress, and turnover intentions (Bolino et al. 2010), yet prior research has only *theorized* about how this source of workplace adversity may undermine their actual job performance (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2013; Vigoda-Gadot 2006). We also extend Bolino and colleagues (2015) who applied COR theory to address the moderating role of citizenship pressure on the relationship between OCB and citizenship fatigue, in that we pinpoint the pressure to undertake OCB as a *direct* cause of citizenship fatigue. By investigating and unpacking the link between citizenship pressure and job performance, we accordingly provide HR managers—especially those operating in market environments that make employees' voluntary behaviors a competitive necessity (Hodson 2002; Organ 1988; Podsakoff et al. 2000)—with critical insights into the risk of negative spillover effects. Employees may be unable to meet their in-role job requirements in the presence of excessive pressures to take on additional responsibilities, and citizenship fatigue is an unexplored mechanism by which the experience of such citizenship pressure may cause employees to underperform on their formal job duties.

Second, in response to calls to adopt contingency approaches to clarify the outcomes of excessive work pressures (e.g., Aleksic et al. 2017; Pooja, De Clercq, and Belausteguigoitia 2016), we propose that employees' continuance commitment may function as a buffer against the fatigue that arises with organizational pressures to go beyond formally prescribed duties, which then diminishes the likelihood that employees underperform. Consistent with COR theory, the anticipated resource gains in the form of job security offered to "good soldiers"—a critical concern among employees who express high levels of continuance commitment (Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016; Meyer and Allen 1997)—can compensate for resource losses due to the experience of citizenship pressure (S. E. Hobfoll, 2001). We thus extend previous research that focuses on the negative features of continuance commitment, such as lower motivation levels (Meyer and Allen 1991), diminished innovative behaviors (Jafri 2010), or poor job performance (Uppal 2017). Instead, we consider continuance commitment as productive, in that it can mitigate the translation of citizenship pressures into enhanced citizenship fatigue. This conceptualization extends prior HR management research that focuses primarily on the *direct* effects of this commitment type on outcomes such as turnover intentions (Gamble and Tian 2015), early retirement (Herrbach et al. 2009; Luchak, Pohler, and Gellatly 2008), or motivations to improve (Naquin and Holton 2002). Our focus on continuance commitment also expands Bolino et al.'s (2015) investigation of the buffering influences of relevant *contextual* factors (e.g., organizational support, team member exchange quality) on citizenship fatigue in response to OCB. With this extension, we offer HR managers novel insights into which employees might respond less negatively to pressures to go beyond the call of duty, with beneficial consequences for their ability or motivation to meet formal performance targets (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Deery et al. 2017; Werner 2000).

Third, the empirical context of this study is Pakistan, such that we address calls for more research on the negative performance consequences of adverse work conditions in understudied, non-Western, and Asian settings (Becton and Field 2009; Biswas 2016; Jam et al. 2017; Paine and Organ 2000; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Sri Ramalu 2014). Pakistani culture is characterized by high levels of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010), so citizenship pressures and the associated energy depletion might have especially strong effects on employees' propensity to allocate less energy to performance-enhancing activities (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010). Moreover, the economic circumstances in Pakistan make it difficult to move from one organization to another (Khilji 2013; Rahman, Naqvi, and Ramay 2008), so employees' continuance commitment should be a particularly relevant factor. Our theoretical focus on the concurrent effects of employees' experience of citizenship pressures and their continuance commitment on their citizenship fatigue and subsequent performance thus should be highly pertinent in this empirical context, as well as in other countries in the Asia-Pacific region with similar cultural profiles.

We summarize the proposed theoretical framework, with its foundation in COR theory, in Figure 2.1. In it, we propose that the experience of citizenship pressures thwarts job performance because of the energy depletion resulting from these pressures. Thus, citizenship fatigue mediates between citizenship pressures and job performance. Continuance commitment then functions as a buffer, such that the translation of the experience of citizenship pressures into reduced job performance, through citizenship fatigue, becomes less likely when employees believe that they can leverage these pressures to secure their current employment.

2.2   HYPOTHESES

2.2.1 *Mediating role of citizenship fatigue*

The fatigue or energy depletion caused by expectations to go beyond the call of duty may constitute an important reason that employees fail to meet in-role performance expectations (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Culbertson and Mills 2011). According to COR theory, employees feel more energized and in control of their daily job tasks if they have sufficient energy resources, which they can allocate to completing those tasks (De Clercq and Belausteguigoitia 2017; Hobfoll 2001) However, when employees feel mentally or physically exhausted by undue pressures, the associated energy depletion instead may prevent them from completing their in-role job duties (Bolino and Turnley 2005; McCarthy, Trougakos, and Cheng 2016). That is, the perceived requirement to take on additional responsibilities that exceed formal job descriptions can undermine employees' ability to fulfill their daily performance requirements, because they lack sufficient energy or stamina (Quinn, Spreitzer, and Lam 2012). When employees feel forced to volunteer for extra assignments for which they have little time or interest, they also may be distracted by ruminations about their long-term success or future in the organization (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2010). The associated drain on their energy resources may prevent them from undertaking work efforts that otherwise could help them earn positive performance evaluations (Hobfoll and Shirom 2000).

In addition to hampering their ability to meet their performance targets, the frustration that comes with feeling worn out by excessive pressures to go the extra mile may also generate negative emotions about their employer (Bolino et al. 2010; Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010). That is, employees may feel offended or even angry if they experience exhaustion in response to excessive employer expectations that they should take on extra responsibilities on a "voluntary" basis (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Bergeron 2007). In turn, they may lack the motivation

to allocate significant energy resources to performance-enhancing activities that otherwise could contribute to their organization's success (Rayton and Yalabik 2014). Similarly, employees may interpret their own persistent fatigue, caused by excessive citizenship pressures, as a signal of their employer's lack of respect for their contributions (Bolino et al. 2015), leaving them reluctant to allocate additional energy to productive, performance-enhancing activities. Conversely, in the absence of unrealistic pressures to undertake voluntary activities, employees do not suffer from such mental or physical exhaustion, and perceptions of organizational respect for their efforts might fuel employees' willingness to help the organization (Jiao, Richards, and Hackett 2013). In short, the experience of fatigue, caused by citizenship pressures, is dysfunctional, because employees are not able or willing to execute their formal job tasks successfully, to the same extent they would if such pressures were less prominent.

Hypothesis 2.1: *Employees' citizenship fatigue mediates the relationship between their experience of citizenship pressure and job performance.*

2.2.2 Moderating role of continuance commitment

We predict a buffering role of employees' continuance commitment in the indirect effect of the experience of citizenship pressure on job performance through citizenship fatigue, due to a reduced likelihood that excessive employer pressures to volunteer will escalate into mental or physical exhaustion at work. According to COR theory, employees' negative reactions to adverse resource-draining work circumstances vary with the personal characteristics they possess and that enable them to generate resource gains (Abbas et al. 2014; Hobfoll 2001). Employees' continuance commitment stems from their concerns about the negative consequences that may follow, were they to leave their employer (Johnson and Chu-Hsiang 2006; Meyer and Allen

1991). The possibility of taking on additional task assignments, particularly if those behaviors are strongly expected, might provide a means to mitigate these concerns (Lievens, De Corte, and Schollaert 2008; Russo, Guo, and Baruch 2014). That is, the allocation of personal energy resources to voluntary behaviors should appear particularly helpful to employees who are concerned about their job security and see instrumental value in adjusting themselves to their work environment (Wang 2015), so they regard excessive pressures to engage in citizenship behaviors as potential vehicles for them to gain resources (Hobfoll 2001). Conversely, employees who believe that they could easily find alternative employment may experience excessive citizenship pressures as more stressful, because they do not need to prove themselves to secure their jobs (Bolino et al. 2010).

In combination with the mediating role of citizenship fatigue, this buffering effect of continuance commitment suggests the presence of a moderated mediation effect (Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes 2007). That is, at high levels of continuance commitment, the effect of enhanced citizenship fatigue, as a causal mechanism that explains the harmful role of resource-draining citizenship pressures for thwarting job performance, should be mitigated (Hobfoll and Shirom 2000). Formally, concerns about job security may reduce the chances that resource depletion stemming from citizenship pressures leads to lower job performance, through the activation of citizenship fatigue. Conversely, employees with lower continuance commitment are less concerned about their current job situation and exhibit a lower need to protect their job security by going beyond the call of duty (Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016; Johnson and Chu-Hsiang 2006; Wang, 2015), so they are more likely to experience excessive pressures to take on additional responsibilities as tiring, which undermines their job performance.

Hypothesis 2.2: *The indirect relationship between employees' experience of citizenship pressure and job performance through their citizenship fatigue is moderated by their continuance commitment, such that this indirect relationship is weaker at higher levels of continuance commitment.*

Insert Figure 2.1 about here

2.3   METHOD

2.3.1   *Sample and data collection*

To test the hypotheses, we collected data from employees in several Pakistani-based organizations that operate in different sectors such as textiles, banking, and healthcare. This data collection took place in three waves, with a time lag of three weeks between each wave. These time lags were long enough to reduce concerns about recall bias and reverse causality but not long enough that significant organizational events could have occurred during the data collection. The surveys were administered in English, because it is the official language of communication in higher education and business in Pakistan. In each survey round, the participants were told that their complete confidentiality was guaranteed, that no personal identifying information would ever be revealed, that only aggregate summary data would be made available outside the research team, and that they could withdraw as a participant at any time. The cover letters that accompanied the surveys also emphasized that there were no correct or incorrect answers, that it was expected that respondents would vary in their responses, and that it was essential that their answers reflect their honest opinions. These specifications diminish the likelihood of social desirability and acquiescence biases (Spector 2006).

The first survey captured employees' experience of citizenship pressures and their continuance commitment, and the second survey assessed their citizenship fatigue. In the third

survey, we assessed employees' job performance, based on the ratings of their supervisor, which diminished concerns about common method bias. Of the 400 originally administered surveys, we received 320 in the first round, 310 in the second round, and 242 surveys from supervisors in the third round. After omitting surveys with incomplete data, we retained 239 completed survey sets for statistical analysis, for a response rate of 60%. Of the respondents, 22% were women, and 44% had a master's degree.

2.3.2 Measures

The measures of the focal constructs included items from previous research, with five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Table 2.1 shows the individual measurement items for each focal construct.

Insert Table 2.1 about here

Citizenship pressure.

We measured employees' beliefs that their organization puts excessive pressure on them with an eight-item scale of citizenship pressure developed by Bolino et al. (2010). The respondents indicated, for example, whether "There is a lot of pressure to take on additional responsibilities and volunteer for extra assignments in this organization," "My coworkers often go above and beyond the call of duty, and there is a lot of pressure for me to do so as well," and "Simply doing your formally-prescribed job duties is not enough to be seen as a good employee in this organization" (Cronbach's alpha = .90).

Citizenship fatigue.

The extent to which employees feel worn out because of the perceived necessity to take on responsibilities on a voluntary basis was measured with a seven-item scale of citizenship fatigue (Bolino et al. 2015). Sample items were "I feel worn out because I go beyond the call of

duty for my organization," "Volunteering to take on extra tasks and assignments at work has left me feeling drained," and "Doing so much for my organization leaves me mentally or physically exhausted" (Cronbach's alpha = .91).

Continuance commitment.

We assessed employees' continuance commitment with an eight-item scale that captures the extent to which employees find it challenging to leave their current employment (Allen and Meyer 1990). Sample items include, "It would be very hard for me to leave my company right now, even if I wanted to," "Right now, staying with my company is a matter of necessity as much as desire," and "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company" (Cronbach's alpha = .86).

Job performance.

To measure supervisor-rated job performance, we used a validated seven-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Sample items included "This employee adequately completes assigned duties," "This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in his or her job description," and "This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job" (Cronbach's alpha = .79).

Control variables.

The regression models controlled for employees' gender (1 = female), because female employees might be less stress-resistant than their male counterparts (Xie and Johns 1995), and this demographic trait has been used as a control in previous research on the personal costs that result from exhibiting OCB (Deery et al. 2017). We also controlled for employees' education level (1 = masters degree), because more educated employees might have greater self-efficacy with respect to their ability to cope with stressful work conditions (Bandura 1997) and, on

average, have greater job responsibilities and workloads, which could affect their citizenship fatigue (Bolino et al. 2015).

We assessed the validity of the study's focal constructs with a four-factor measurement model in a confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). This model achieved adequate fit: $\chi^2_{(397)}$ = 667.87, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .91, confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .92, and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05. In support of the presence of convergent validity, the four constructs all featured highly significant factor loadings for the respective items ($p < .001$; Gerbing and Anderson 1988).[1] We also found support for the presence of discriminant validity among the constructs. That is, for the six pairs generated from the four constructs, we compared the differences in the chi-square values of constrained models (in which the correlation between the two constructs was set to equal 1) and their unconstrained counterparts in which the correlation between the constructs was free to vary. The chi-square differences were significant for each pair ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} > .3.84$), in support of discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Additional evidence of discriminant validity is apparent from the inter-construct correlations, which are smaller than the square roots of the corresponding AVE values (Hair et al. 2009).

2.4. ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

To test our hypotheses, we relied on the Process macro for SPPS (Hayes, 2013). In addition to assessing individual paths, this approach supports comprehensive assessments of mediation and moderation effects and thus has been used widely for empirical tests of moderated

---

[1] The average variance extracted (AVE) values equaled .51 for citizenship pressure, .60 for citizenship fatigue, .44 for continuance commitment, and .36 for job performance. Although two values are lower than the generally recommended cut-off of .50, such values tend to be acceptable if the corresponding composite reliabilities (CRs) are higher than .70 (Huang et al. 2013), as was the case in our study (.86 for continuance commitment, .79 for job performance). In addition, AVE values tend to be lower in newer research contexts, such as Pakistan (Adil 2016; Kashif et al. 2017), and the measurement items of each of the focal constructs had very significant correlations with their respective constructs, in support of the presence of convergent validity (Gerbing and Anderson 1988).

mediation models (e.g., Gashi Tresi and Mihelic 2018; Priesemuth and Taylor 2016; Skiba and Wildman 2018; Wang et al. 2018). Notably, the Process macro is superior to traditional Sobel (1982) and Baron and Kenny (1986) tests, because it does not assume normal distribution qualities for indirect and conditionally indirect effects. Rather, it explicitly accounts for possible asymmetries in the sampling distribution by employing a bootstrapping procedure (MacKinnon, Lockwood, and Williams 2004).

First, to assess the presence of mediation (Hypothesis 2.1), we calculated the confidence interval (CI) for the indirect effect of citizenship pressure on job performance, through citizenship fatigue. In this first step, we also assessed the signs and significance levels of the constitutive direct relationships between citizenship pressure and citizenship fatigue, and between citizenship fatigue and job performance. Second, to assess the presence of moderated mediation (Hypothesis 2.2), we calculated the CIs for the conditional indirect effects. As specified in Hayes's (2013) Process macro, the CIs pertain to three different levels of the moderator: one standard deviation (SD) below its mean, at its mean, and one SD above its mean.[2] In this second step, we also assessed the moderating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between citizenship pressure and citizenship fatigue. To minimize the threat of multicollinearity, we calculated the interaction term by multiplying its corresponding mean-centered components (Aiken and West 1991).

Notably, the Process macro uses aggregate indicators instead of latent constructs, which resolves complex nonlinearities and associated estimation challenges that result from the need to calculate all possible product terms of the items that load on interacting latent constructs (Lattin,

---

[2] In line with our conceptual framework, the estimated model included a moderating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between citizenship pressure and citizenship fatigue but not the relationship between citizenship fatigue and job performance. A post hoc analysis indicated that continuance commitment did not significantly moderate the relationship between citizenship fatigue and job performance.

Carroll, and Green 2003; Marsh et al. 2013). According to Hayes, Montoya, and Rockwood (2017, 80), "the proper estimation of interactions between latent variables remains highly controversial, and most researchers would find the task of estimating latent variable interactions so daunting that the unknown effects that can result from ignoring measurement error would seem an acceptable price to pay in exchange for the ease of the analysis and interpretation when using an observed-variable modeling tool like Process." Moreover, Ledgerwood and Shrout (2011) indicate that a latent variable–based approach is much less powerful in detecting mediation effects, because of the enhanced risk of inflated standard errors. Finally, to the extent that the construct reliabilities are high and meet established criteria for acceptable reliability, any bias that might arise when estimating model parameters with aggregate variables, instead of latent constructs, tends to be subdued (Ledgerwood and Shrout 2011).[3]

2.4.1. Results

Table 2.2 reports the correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics, and Table 2.3 provides the results generated from the Process macro. The results show that citizenship pressure enhances citizenship fatigue (β = .822, p < .001), which in turn diminishes job performance (β = -.205, p < .001). The test for mediation indicates an effect size of -.153 for the indirect relationship between citizenship pressure and job performance through citizenship fatigue that is significant, in that the CI does *not* include 0 [-.213, -.096], indicating the presence of mediation.

Insert Table 2.2 and 2.3 about here

---

[3] Even if structural equation–based approaches do not explicitly account for possible non-normal sampling distributions of conditional effects through bootstrapping, we still performed a robustness check with path analysis. Consistent with previous research that estimates path models with interaction effects (De Clercq, Dimov, and Thongpapanl 2013), we combined the items of each construct into a single indicator, then calculated the interaction term, citizenship pressure × continuance commitment, as the product of the respective indicators. The fit of the model was good (TLI = .95, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .07), and the signs and significance levels of the individual paths were consistent with those reported in Table 3.

The test Hypothesis 2.2 entailed a comparison of the strength of the conditional indirect effect of citizenship pressure on job performance through citizenship fatigue at different levels of the moderator. The results reveal diminishing effect sizes at increasing levels of continuance commitment: from -.246 at one SD below the mean, to -.165 at the mean, to -.077 at one SD above the mean (Table 2.4). To check for the presence of moderated mediation directly, we also assess the index of moderated mediation (Hayes 2015) and its corresponding CI. The index equals .116, and its CI does *not* include 0 [.062, .197]. These results affirm that continuance commitment functions as a buffer against the negative indirect effect of the experience of citizenship pressure on job performance, in support of Hypothesis 2.2.

Insert Table 2.4 about here

Finally, the results in Table 2.4 indicate a negative and significant effect of the citizenship pressure $\times$ continuance commitment interaction term (β = -.569, *p* < .001) in the prediction of citizenship fatigue. In Figure 2.2, we plot the effect of citizenship pressure on citizenship fatigue at high and low levels of continuance commitment. The direct positive relationship between citizenship pressure and citizenship fatigue is buffered by continuance commitment, as manifest in the diminishing effect sizes of this relationship at increasing levels of the moderator (i.e., 1.203 at one SD below the mean, .805 at the mean, .378 at one SD above the mean).

Insert Figure 2.2 about here

2.5. DISCUSSION

This study adds to previous HR scholarship by investigating how employees' experience of citizenship pressure might undermine their job performance, with a particular focus on unexplored factors that inform this process. Despite some investigations of how employees' beliefs that their employer puts excessive pressure on them to accept extra responsibilities is stressful and can generate negative work outcomes (Bolino et al. 2010, 2015; Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010), previous HR management research has not explicitly investigated how and when the associated pressures might generate negative spillover effects in the form of reduced job performance (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Culbertson and Mills, 2011; Jiao, Richards, and Hackett 2013). To do so, we have drawn on COR theory (Hobfoll 1989, 2001) and proposed that (1) the inability to meet in-role performance requirements in response to the experience of citizenship pressure arises because employees feel worn out and tired as a direct result of engaging in voluntary behaviors and (2) their continuance commitment mitigates this process.

In turn, our empirical findings provide a novel insight: Organizational pressures that force employees to take on extra assignments "voluntarily" can backfire by compromising their ability to complete their formal job duties (Bergeron 2007; Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004). Meeting the performance standards set by their employer requires significant energy resources from employees (Hobfoll and Shirom 2000; McCarthy, Trougakos, and Cheng 2016; Quinn et al. 2012). Employees who feel tired or worn out because they perceive demands to go an extra mile and undertake tasks that are not technically part of their jobs may not possess the stamina to execute their formally prescribed job tasks too (Deery et al. 2017). Thus, the energy resource depletion that comes with the presence of citizenship fatigue in response to excessive citizenship pressures prevents employees from dedicating sufficient efforts to meeting their employers' performance requirements. Moreover, employees may interpret fatigue, caused by undue

pressures to go above and beyond the call of duty, as disrespectful or offensive (Bolino et al. 2015), and the negative emotions that they experience in turn may motivate them to refrain from positive performance-enhancing behaviors that benefit their employer (Hobfoll 2001).

This negative effect of employees' conviction that their organization expects that people take on extra responsibilities can be subdued to the extent that they perceive that there are limited opportunities for alternative employment and thus are concerned about their job security (Wang 2015). According to COR theory, the resource-depleting effect of adverse work conditions is mitigated when employees possess personal features that can generate resource gains for them and compensate for their resource depletion (Abbas et al. 2014; Hobfoll 2001). If employees who perceive excessive employer pressures for voluntarism also are concerned about their ability to change employment, the option to adjust and take on additional responsibilities might look like an opportunity to mitigate these concerns, instead of a threat that undermines their organizational functioning (Cohen 2007; Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016). Conversely, employees with less continuance commitment have little motivation to leverage citizenship pressures as opportunities to keep their jobs (Johnson and Chu-Hsiang 2006), so they likely experience more significant resource depletion in the presence of these pressures. This buffering effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between the experience of citizenship pressures and citizenship fatigue is particularly insightful when considered in combination with the mediating role of citizenship fatigue. As the results pertaining to the presence of moderated mediation indicate (Preacher et al. 2007), exposure to excessive employer pressures for voluntarism translates less powerfully into lower job performance, through the fatigue stemming from such forced voluntarism, if employees exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment.

In summary, this study adds to HR scholarship by providing a more comprehensive explication of citizenship-related factors that influence job performance. Prior research alerts HR professionals that excessive pressures to go above and beyond the call of duty can compromise employees' ability to meet their formal job requirements (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Culbertson and Mills 2011). Empirically, such research indicates that employees' experience of citizenship pressure can lead to increased levels of OCB (Bolino et al. 2010) and job engagement (Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010) but also job stress (Youn, Kim, and Song, 2017), citizenship fatigue (Bolino et al. 2015), and emotional exhaustion (Deery et al., 2017). Yet we know of no HR research that explicitly examines how excessive pressure to undertake OCB might undermine employees' ability to meet their in-role job requirements due to their citizenship fatigue. We have addressed this gap by denoting how (1) the fatigue attributed to voluntary activities serves as a critical mechanism that links an important but understudied source of workplace adversity (citizenship pressure) to diminished job performance and (2) employees' continuance commitment can disrupt this process. Although the scope of our conceptual model is somewhat narrow, our goal was to achieve depth, rather than breadth, in theorizing about why and when excessive citizenship pressures thwart job performance. Notably, the study's findings extend previous investigations, including those in the realm of HR management, of the direct harmful effects of continuance commitment on productive work outcomes (Gamble and Tian 2015; Jafri 2010; Meyer and Allen 1991; Uppal 2017). This type of organizational commitment can have an indirect benefit, such that employees who are concerned about the lack of alternative employment might heed opportunities to take on additional responsibilities, even if these endeavors are not formally rewarded and feel somewhat forced. Overall, the detrimental role of stringent organizational pressures to go the extra mile, in terms of spurring fatigue and

undermining job performance, can be contained by employees' beliefs that these pressures can be exploited to maintain or improve their current job situation.

Limitations and future research directions

This study has some shortcomings, which suggest further research opportunities. First, we used time lags of three weeks between employees' assessments of their experience of citizenship pressure and their citizenship fatigue, as well as before the third supervisor-rated survey that assessed employees' job performance. We considered this period long enough to reduce recall bias in the two employee surveys but short enough to avert the chance of significant external events that might occur during the course of the study. Additional studies could use longer time frames though, because the exhaustion that comes with persistent pressures to take on additional responsibilities may materialize only after extended periods of time. Moreover, the conversion of citizenship fatigue into diminished job performance might not manifest itself immediately. Longitudinal designs that adopt longer time frames could reduce the possibility of reverse causality too; employees who adequately meet their formal performance requirements might be better positioned to find time for additional activities and therefore feel less worn out by those activities.

Second, we focused on citizenship fatigue as an important explanatory mechanism for the harmful effect of citizenship pressures on job performance, but we did not explicitly measure the fine-grained mechanisms of this process. That is, we argued that exposure to excessive citizenship pressures makes employees feel worn out, which reduces both their ability and their motivation to dedicate significant efforts to performance-enhancing activities. We also expected high levels of continuance commitment to have a mitigating effect, because the anticipated

resource gains in the form of enhanced job security due to citizenship pressures might be seen as opportunities instead of threats. Additional research could measure these mechanisms directly.

Third, our consideration of continuance commitment as a focal contingency factor that buffers the harmful role of extensive citizenship pressures could be complemented by investigations of other personal factors. For example, individual characteristics such as employees' resilience (Linnenluecke 2017), passion for work (Baum and Locke 2004), or creative self-efficacy (Tierney and Farmer 2002) may protect employees against the likelihood that organizational pressures to take on extra duties "voluntarily" are perceived as tiring. In addition, positive *contextual* factors could prevent frustrations about excessive pressures from escalating into a significant depletion of personal energy reservoirs, such as perceived organizational support (Caesens et al. 2017), fair reward systems (Colquitt et al. 2001), or transformational leadership (Dvir et al. 2002).

Fourth, an empirical limitation of this study pertains to the consideration of only two control variables, gender and education, in the statistical models. Future research could consider whether these results hold even when controlling for other factors that might determine employees' responses to the hardships of OCB, such as their age, organizational tenure, number of hours worked per week, or negative affect (Bolino et al. 2015; Deery et al. 2017).

Fifth, our reliance on data from one country, Pakistan, might limit the generalizability of the findings. Our theoretical arguments are country-neutral, but cultural issues could interfere with our conceptual framework. As mentioned, Pakistani culture is marked by high uncertainty avoidance, such that employees might be particularly sensitive to the uncertainty created when invitations to undertake voluntary activities are perceived as not truly voluntary and threatening to their ability to meet formal job duties (Bergeron 2007). The relative importance of

continuance commitment for buffering the negative effect of the experience of citizenship pressure on job performance through enhanced citizenship fatigue in turn may be stronger than it would be in less uncertainty-sensitive countries. Cross-national studies could provide interesting insights into the relative importance of different personal factors for preventing tiring organizational expectations about voluntarism from escalating into lower job performance across different cultural contexts.

Practical implications

This study offers important implications for HR managers. Encouraging employees to engage in additional activities on a voluntary basis can be useful for both organizations and their employees, by fuelling the latter's intrinsic motivation and sense of meaningfulness (Ryan and Deci 2000), but HR professionals must take care not to *force* employees into such voluntarism. To the extent that voluntary work behaviors enter into employees' performance appraisals, HR managers should be aware that excessive expectations can have negative repercussions for employees' ability to meet the formal requirements of their jobs (Werner 2000). Accordingly, they might design monitoring systems to ensure that volunteering for extra assignments *complements* rather substitutes for employees' success in fulfilling their in-role job duties (Deery et al. 2017). Notably, the performance challenges that individual employees encounter in the presence of citizenship pressures may spill over to the organizational level and undermine the employer's competitive advantage (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004). Thus, HR professionals should design systems that enable them to quantify whether and how invitations to go beyond the call of duty contribute to, or detract from, the organization's financial performance.

Furthermore, HR professionals should be proactive in assigning additional duties to employees with the necessary expertise and competencies (Bolino et al. 2015). Thus, they might recruit and retain employees whose abilities allow them to combine formal job duties with extra, voluntary assignments. Adequate selection systems could enable HR professionals to predict, with sufficient accuracy, which employees might be predisposed to cope with organizational pressures to work beyond their formally prescribed duties, for the good of the organization (Werner 2000). In addition, targeted training programs could "activate" these capabilities, through dedicated efforts outside the workplace, structured on-the-job training efforts, or informal learning, all of which encourage HR development (Enos, Kehrhahn, and Bell 2003; Jacobs 2003). However, if employees feel obliged to undertake voluntary activities for which they are not formally rewarded, they might miss out on certain rewards that they otherwise would receive for accomplishing regular job tasks, so HR professionals should also establish sufficient flexibility to adjust reward systems, such that certain work activities that previously were not compensated might become part of formal reward systems (Werner 2000).

In addition, HR professionals need to recognize that some employees might be reluctant to admit that they feel stressed when their employer encourages them to go above and beyond the call of duty and volunteer for extra assignments, so as not to look weak or ungrateful for their current employment (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2010). Thus HR managers should be *proactive* in monitoring whether their expectations that employees take on additional responsibilities have become excessive and are preventing those employees from completing their regular job tasks. In particular, they should create a culture in which employees feel comfortable expressing their concerns about the work pressures they have to endure, as well as develop procedures to enable employees to share their workloads, whether formal duties or

voluntary activities. In parallel, they could create specific guidelines for how employees can support one another in achieving the combined execution of their formal job tasks and extra-role activities, depending on their respective skill sets and capabilities. For example, targeted initiatives could be organized to allow experienced employees to support newcomers' efforts to cope with citizenship pressures through one-on-one mentoring (Thomas and Lankau 2009).

This study's empirical context spans different industries, including manufacturing and services, and its findings accordingly should be generalizable to a broad variety of industry sectors. Yet HR professionals also might consider how pertinent industry factors determine the extent to which citizenship pressures escalate into reduced job performance. An interesting issue along these lines is the intensity of external competitive rivalry (Porter 1996). Competitive markets might increase the perceived need to go beyond the call of duty, such that employees might accept citizenship pressures more readily (Hodson 2002). But these stringent market conditions also can fuel organizational expectations that employees must take on additional responsibilities, and HR professionals should be aware of the threat of citizenship fatigue among employees in this case (Deery et al. 2017)

Finally, and in a related vein, this study might be particularly pertinent for organizations in which expectations of going above and beyond the call of duty are necessitated by competitive pressures. In these settings, it is up to HR professionals to create an internal environment in which employees feel motivated to perform activities for which they are not formally rewarded, by creating a sense that these activities are not just necessary but also provide valuable opportunities for personal development and growth that employees would not find in other organizations. Somewhat counterintuitively, employees' calculation-based, continuance commitment—typically considered a negative type of commitment in HR scholarship (Gamble

and Tian 2015; Meyer and Allen 1991)—can exert positive effects in this process, by stimulating employees to comply with requests for organizational citizenship because doing so is in their personal interest. This is not to say that HR managers should only promote commitment resulting from employees' benefit ratios; instead, we propose that organizations can reduce the hardships that employees encounter when they feel forced to go above and beyond the call of duty, to the extent that they attract and retain employees who embrace the instrumental benefits, both for the organization and themselves, that result from their willingness to take on additional responsibilities and enhance the collective good, even if they are not formally compensated for those actions.

2.6. CONCLUSION

With this study, we have sought to contribute to extant HR research by investigating the relationship between employees' exposure to citizenship pressure and their job performance, with a particular focus on the roles of their citizenship fatigue and continuance commitment in this process. The sense of being tired and worn out, due to stringent organizational expectations for voluntarism, is an important mechanism by which citizenship pressures undermine job performance, but the strength of this explanatory mechanism depends on whether employees are concerned about the challenge of finding alternative employment. We hope then that the findings provide an impetus for further investigations of how organizations can mitigate the frustration that their employees experience when they feel forced to take on additional responsibilities, by showing them how to navigate the accompanying hardships and possibly leveraging them to their own advantage.

2.7.   References

Abbas, M., Raja, U., Darr, W., and Bouckenooghe, D. (2014). Combined effects of perceived politics and psychological capital on job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and performance. *Journal of Management, 40,* 1813–1830.

Adil, M.S. (2016). Impact of change readiness on commitment to technological change, focal and discretionary behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Change, 29,* 222–241.

Aiken, L.S., and West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Aleksic, D., Mihelic, K.K., Cerne, M., and Skerlavaj, M. (2017). Interactive effects of perceived time pressure, satisfaction with work-family balance (SWFB), and leader-member exchange (LMX) on creativity. *Personnel Review, 46,* 662–679.

Allen, N. J., and Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 1–18.

Altaf, A., and Awan, M.A. (2011). Moderating effect of workplace spirituality on the relationship of job overload and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Ethics, 104,* 93–99.

Anderson, J. C., and Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103,* 411–423.

Avery, D. R., Tonidandel, S., Volpone, S. D., and Raghuram, A. (2010). Overworked in America? How work hours, immigrant status, and interpersonal justice affect perceived work overload. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25,* 133–147.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* Freeman, New York, NY.

Baron, R.M., and Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173–1182.

Baum, J.R., and Locke, E.A. (2004). The relationship of entrepreneurial traits, skill, and motivation to subsequent venture growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89,* 587–598.

Becton, J B., and Field, H.S. (2009). Cultural differences in organizational citizenship behavior: a comparison between Chinese and American employees. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 20,* 1651–1669.

Bergeron, D.M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizen-ship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management Review, 32,* 1078–1095.

Biswas, S. (2016). Behavioral and attitudinal outcomes of psychological contract violation. *Journal of Management Development, 35,* 261–279.

Bolino, M.C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., and LePine, J.A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100,* 56–74.

Bolino, M.C., Klotz, A.C., Turnley, W.H., and Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34,* 542–559.

Bolino, M.C., and Turnley, W.H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: The relationship between individual initiative and role over-load, job stress, and work–family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 740–748.

Bolino, M.C., Turnley, W.H., Gilstrap, J.B., and Suazo, M.M. (2010). Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31,* 835–855.

Bolino, M.C., Turnley, W.H., and Niehoff, B.P. (2004). The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behaviour. *Human Resource Management Review, 14,* 229–246.

Borman, W. C., and Motowidlo, S. J. (1993) . Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt and W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71–98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Caesens, G., Stinglhamber, F., Demoulin, S., and De Wilde, M. (2017). Perceived organizational support and employees' well-being: the mediating role of organizational dehumanization. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 26,* 527–540.

Cates, D.A., Mathis, C.J., and Randle, N.W. (2010). A positive perspective of citizenship pressure among working adults. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 22,* 330–344.

Chi, S.-C. S., and Liang, S.-G. (2013). When do subordinates' emotion-regulation strategies matter? Abusive supervision, subordinates' emotional exhaustion, and work withdrawal. *Leadership Quarterly, 24,* 125–137.

Cohen, A. (2007). Commitment before and after: An evaluation and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 17,* 336–354.

Colquitt, J.A., Conlon, D.E., Wesson, M.J., Porter, C.O.L.H., and Ng, K.Y (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 425-445.

Culbertson, S.S., and Mills, M.J. (2011). Negative implications for the inclusion of citizenship performance in ratings. *Human Resource Development International, 14,* 23–38.

De Clercq, D., and Belausteguigoitia, I. (2017). The usefulness of tenacity in spurring problem-focused voice: The moderating roles of workplace adversity. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 32,* 479–493.

De Clercq, D., Dimov, D. and Thongpapanl, N. (2013). Organizational social capital, formalization, and internal knowledge sharing in entrepreneurial orientation formation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 37,* 505–537.

Deery, S., Rayton, B., Walsh, J., and Kinnie, N. (2017). The costs of exhibiting organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management, 56,* 1039–1049.

Devece, C., Palacios-Marqués, D., and Alguacil, M.P. (2016). Organizational commitment and its effects on organizational citizenship behavior in a high-unemployment environment. *Journal of Business Research, 69,* 1857–1861.

Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B.J., and Shamir, B. 2002. Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal, 45,* 735–744.

Enos, M.D., Kehrhahn, M.T., and Bell, A. (2003). Informal learning and the transfer of learning: How managers develop proficiency. *Human Resource Development Quarterly,* 14, 368–387.

Gamble, J., and Tian, A.W. (2015). Intra-national variation in organizational commitment: evidence from the Chinese context. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 26,* 948–970.

Gashi Tresi, D., and Mihelic, K.K. (2018). The roles of self-efficacy and leader–member exchange in the relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation: A moderated mediation model. *Personnel Review, 47,* 1362–1384.

Gerbing, D. W., and Anderson, J. C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research, 25,* 186-192.

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., and Anderson, R. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Hayes, A.F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach.* New York: Guilford Press.

Hayes, A.F. (2015). An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 50,* 1–22.

Hayes, A.F., Montoya, A.K., and Rockwood, N.J. (2017). The analysis of mechanisms and their contingencies: PROCESS versus structural equation modeling. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 25,* 76–81.

Herrbach, O., Mignonac, K., Vandenberghe, C., and Negrini, A. (2009). Perceived HRM practices, organizational commitment, and voluntary early retirement among late-career managers. *Human Resource Management, 48,* 895–915.

Hobfoll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resources. A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44,* 513–524.

Hobfoll, S.E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resource theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *50*, 337–369.

Hobfoll, S.E., and Shirom, A. (2000). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace. In R.T. Golembiewski (Ed.), *Handbook of organization behavior* (2nd ed., pp. 57–81). New York: Dekker.

Hodson, R. (2002). Management citizenship behavior and its consequences. *Work and Occupations, 29,* 64–96.

Hofstede, G.H., Hofstede, G.J., and Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind. Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Horn, D., Mathis, C.J., Robinson, S.L., and Randle, N. (2015). Is charismatic leadership effective when workers are pressured to be good citizens? *Journal of Psychology, 149,* 751–774.

Huang, C.-C., Wang, Y.-M., Wu, T.-W., and Wang, P.-A. (2013). An empirical analysis of the antecedents and performance consequences of using the moodle platform, *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 3,* 217–221.

Jacobs, R.L. (2003), *Structured on-the-job training: Unleashing employee expertise in the workplace*. Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco, CA.

Jafri, M.H. (2010). Organizational commitment and employee's innovative behavior: A study in retail sector. *Journal of Management Research, 10,* 62–68.

Jam, F. A., Donia, M. B., Raja, U., and Ling, C. H. (2017). A time-lagged study on the moderating role of overall satisfaction in perceived politics: Job outcomes relationships. *Journal of Management and Organization, 23,* 321–336.

Jiao, C., Richards, D.A., and Hackett, R.D. (2013). Organizational citizenship behavior and role breadth: A meta-analytic and cross-cultural analysis. *Human Resource Management, 52,* 697–714.

Johnson, R.E., and Chu-Hsiang, C. (2006). "I" is to continuance as "We" is to affective: the relevance of the self-concept for organizational commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27,* 549–570.

Kashif, M., Braganca, E., Awang, Z., and De Run, E.C. (2017). You abuse but I will stay: The combined effects of job stress, customer abuse, and emotional intelligence on employee turnover. *Journal of Management Development, 36,* 899–914.

Khilji, S.E (2013). Human resource management in Pakistan. In S. Budhwar and Y.A. Debrah (Eds.), *Human resource management in developing countries.* London: Routledge.

Ko, C., Ma, J., Kang, M., English, A.S., and Haney, M.H. (2017). How ethical leadership cultivates healthy guanxi to enhance OCB in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 55,* 408 –429.

Kumarika Perera, H., Chew, E.Y.T., and Nielsen, I. (2017). A psychological contract perspective of expatriate failure. *Human Resource Management, 56,* 479–499.

Lattin, J.M., Carroll, J.D., and Green, P.E. (2003). *Analyzing multivariate data.* Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole.

Ledgerwood, A., and Shrout, P. E. (2011). The trade-off between accuracy and precision in latent variable models of mediation processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 101,* 1174–1188.

Lievens, F., De Corte, W., and Schollaert, E. (2008). A closer look at the frame-of-reference effect in personality scale scores and validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93,* 268–279.

Lin, C.-C., and Peng, T.-K. (2010). From organizational citizenship behaviour to team performance: The mediation of group cohesion and collective efficacy. *Management and Organization Review, 6,* 55–75.

Linnenluecke, M.K. (2017). Resilience in business and management research: A review of influential publications and a research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 19,* 4–30.

Luchak, A.A., Pohler, D.M., and Gellatly, I.R. (2008). When do committed employees retire? The effects of organizational commitment on retirement plans under a defined-benefit pension plan. *Human Resource Management, 47,* 581–599.

MacKinnon, D.P., Lockwood, C.M., and Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 39,* 99–128.

Macky, K., and Boxall, P. (2008). High-involvement work processes, work intensification and employee well-being: A study of New Zealand worker experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 46,* 38–55.

Magee, C., Gordon, R., Robinson, L., Caputi, P., and Oades, L. (2017). Workplace bullying and absenteeism: The mediating roles of poor health and work engagement. *Human Resource Management Journal, 27,* 319–334.

Marsh, H.W., Wen, Z., Hau, K., and Nagengast, B. (2013). Structural equation models of latent interactions and quadratic effects. In: Hancock, G.R., Mueller, R.O. (Eds.), *A second course in structural equation modeling,* 2nd ed., Information Age: Greenwich, CT.

McCarthy, J.M., Trougakos, J.P., and Cheng, B.H. (2016). Are anxious workers less productive workers? It depends on the quality of social exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101,* 279–291.

Meyer, J. P. and Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 1,* 61–89.

Mitchell, M. S., Greenbaum, R. L., Vogel, R. M., Mawritz, M. B., & Keating, D. J. (2019). Can you handle the pressure? The effect of performance pressure on stress appraisals, self-regulation, and behavior. *Academy of Management journal, 62*(2), 531-552.

MindUK. (2013, October 09). Work is biggest cause of stress in people's lives. from https://www.mind.org.uk/news-campaigns/news/work-is-biggest-cause-of-stress-in-peoples-lives/

Motowidlo, S.J. (2000). Some basic issues related to contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior in human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 115–126.

Naquin, S.S., and Holton, E.F, III (2002). The effects of personality, affectivity, and work commitment on motivation to improve work through learning. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 13,* 357–376.

Organ, D.W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.

Organ, D.W., Podsakoff, P. M., and MacKenzie, S.B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Paine, J.B., and Organ, D.W. (2000). The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 45–59.

Perko, K., Kinnunen, U., and Feldt, T. (2017). Long-term profiles of work-related rumination associated with leadership, job demands, and exhaustion: A three-wave study. *Work and Stress, 31,* 395–420.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., and Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26, 513–563.

Pooja, A.A., De Clercq, D., and Belausteguigoitia, I. (2016). Job stressors and organizational citizenship behavior: The roles of organizational commitment and social interaction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 27,* 373–405.

Porter, M.E. (1996). What is strategy? *Harvard Business Review, 75,* 61–78.

Preacher, K.J., Rucker, D.D., and Hayes, A.F. (2007). Assessing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions, *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 42,* 185–227.

Priesemuth, M., and Taylor, R.M. (2016). The more I want, the less I have left to give: The moderating role of psychological entitlement on the relationship between psychological contract violation, depressive mood states, and citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37,* 967–982.

Quinn, R.W., Spreitzer, G.M., and Lam, C.F. (2012). Building a sustainable model of human energy in organizations: Exploring the critical role of resources. *Academy of Management Annals, 6,* 337–396.

Rahman, A., Naqvi, S.M.M.R., and Ramay, M.I. (2008). Measuring turnover intention: A study of IT professionals in Pakistan. *International Review of Business Research Papers,* 45–55

Rastogi A., Pati, S.P., Krishnan, T.N., and Krishnan S. (2018). Causes, contingencies, and consequences of disengagement at work: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review, 17,* 62–94.

Rayton, B.A., and Yalabik, Z.Y. (2014). Work engagement, psychological contract breach and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 25,* 2382–2400.

Rose, K. (2016). Examining organizational citizenship behavior in the context of human resource development: An integrative review of the literature. *Human Resource Development Review, 15,* 295–316.

Russo, M., Guo, L., and Baruch, Y. (2014). Work attitudes, career success and health: Evidence from China. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 84,* 248–258.

Ryan, R.M., and Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*(1): 68–78.

Shamsudin, F.M., Subramaniam, C., and Sri Ramalu, S. (2014). The influence of HR practices and job satisfaction on interpersonal deviance in the workplace. *Journal of Management and Organization, 20,* 691–709.

Skiba, T., and Wildman, J.L. (2018). Uncertainty reducer, exchange deepener, or self-determination enhancer? Feeling trust versus feeling trusted in supervisor-subordinate relationships. *Journal of Business and Psychology,* doi:10.1007/s10869-018-9537-x.

Sobel, M.E. (1982). *Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models.* In Sociological Methodology, S. Leinhardt, ed. Washington, DC: American Sociological Association, 290–312.

Son, S.J., and Kim, D.-Y. (2016). The role of perceived management support and trust in mentors on protégés' organizational citizenship behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 54,* 481–497.

Spector, P.E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods, 9,* 221–232.

Takeuchi, R., Way, S.A., and Tian, A.W. (2018). Cross-level effects of support climate: Main and moderating roles. *Human Resource Management, 57,* 1205–1218.

Tierney, P., and Farmer, S.M. (2002). Creative self-efficacy: Potential antecedents and relationship to creative performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 45,* 1137–1148.

Thomas, C.H., and Lankau, M.J. (2009). Preventing burnout: the effects of LMX and mentoring on socialization, role stress, and burnout. *Human Resource Management, 48,* 417–432.

Uppal, N. (2017). Uncovering curvilinearity in the organizational tenure-job performance relationship: A moderated mediation model of continuance commitment and motivational job characteristics. *Personnel Review, 46,* 1552–1570.

Veitch, R.W.D., and Cooper.-Thomas, H.D. (2009). Tit for tat? Predictors of temporary agency workers' commitments. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 47,* 318–337.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2006). Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 36,* 77–93.

Wang, Q., Bowling, N.A., Tian, Q.-T., Alarcon, G.M., and Kwan, H.K. (2018). Workplace Harassment Intensity and Revenge: Mediation and Moderation Effects. *Journal of Business Ethics, 151,* 213–234.

Wang, Y. (2015). Examining organizational citizenship behavior of Japanese employees: a multidimensional analysis of the relationship to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 26,* 425–444.

Werner, J.M. (2000). Implications of OCB and contextual performance for human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 3–24.

Williams, L.J., and Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17,* 601–617.

Wu, X., Kwan, H.K., Wu, L.-Z., and Ma, J. (2018). The effect of workplace negative gossip on employee proactive behavior in China: The moderating role of traditionality. *Journal of Business Ethics, 148,* 801–815.

Xie, J.L., and Johns, G. (1995). Job scope and stress: Can job scope be too high? *Academy of Management Journal, 38,* 1288–1309.

Yi, J., Kwan, H.K., Hu, Y.-L., and Chen, S. (2017). Revenge exacerbates the effects of interpersonal problems on mentors' emotional exhaustion and work-family conflict: A self-defeating perspective. *Human Resource Management, 56,* 851–866.

Youn, H., Kim, J.-H., and Song, H. (2017). The leading causes and consequences of citizenship pressure in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 29,* 1541–1559.

TABLES

Tables A: Demographical Data

Demographics	N	Percent	Mean	Sd. Dev.
Gender				
Male	186	77.8		
Female	53	22.2		
Total	**239**	**100**		
Education Qualification				
Intermediate	15	6.3		
Graduation	118	49.4		
Masters	103	43.1		
M.Phil	3	1.3		
Total	**239**	**100**		
Marital Status				
Married	130	54.39		
Unmarried	106	44.35		
Divorced	3	1.26		
Widow	0			
Total	**239**	**100**		
Age			34.87	8.39
Minimum	20			
Maximum	54			

Notes: n = 239.

Table 2.1. Constructs and measurement items

	Loading	t-Value
Citizenship pressure (α = .90; CR = 0.89; AVE = 0.51)		
I feel a lot of pressure to go the extra mile by doing a lot of things that, technically, I don't have to do.	.848	12.35***
In this organization, the people who are seen as "team players" are the ones who do significantly more than what is technically required of them.	.680	9.972***
There is a lot of pressure to take on additional responsibilities and volunteer for extra assignments in this organization.	.740	1.822***
Simply doing your formally-prescribed job duties is not enough to be seen as a good employee in this organization.	.748	1.952***
My co-workers often go "above and beyond" the call of duty, and there is a lot of pressure for me to do so as well.	.775	11.338***
Management expects employees to "voluntarily" take on extra duties and responsibilities that aren't technically required as a part of their job.	.685	1.029***
Just doing your job these days is not enough—there is a lot of pressure to go above and beyond the bare minimum.	.481	7.091***
I feel a lot of pressure to work beyond my formally-prescribed duties for the good of the organization.	.706 [a]	--
Citizenship fatigue (α = .91; CR = 0.91; AVE = 0.60)		
Because of going the extra mile for my organization, I feel "on edge" about various things.	.740	11.343***
I feel worn out because I go beyond the call of duty for my organization.	.831	12.821***
Doing so much for my organization leaves me mentally or physically exhausted.	.775	11.904***
I often lack energy because I go beyond my job duties at work.	.767	11.785***
I am tired of going beyond the call of duty for my organization.	.806	12.409***
Volunteering to take on extra tasks and assignments at work has left me feeling drained.	.753	11.542***
I am getting tired of being a team player in my organization.	.734 [a]	--
Continuance commitment (α = .86; CR = 0.86; AVE = 0.44)		
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (reverse coded).	.440	
It would be very hard for me to leave my company right now, even if I wanted to.	.658	6.162***
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my company now.	.738	6.440***
It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my company now (reverse coded).	.679	6.239***
Right now, staying with my company is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	.562	5.735***
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company.	.696	6.300***
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.750	6.475***
I continue to work for this company because another company may not match the benefits I have now.	.705 [a]	--
Job performance (α = .79; CR = 0.79; AVE = 0.36)		
This employee adequately completes assigned duties.	.720 [a]	--
This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	.684	9.130***
This employee performs task that are expected of him/her.	.631	8.513***
This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job.	.697	9.274***
This employee engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	.468	6.424***
This employee neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform (reverse coded).	.460	6.326***
This employee fails to perform essential duties (reverse coded).	.455	6.262***

[a] Initial loading was fixed to 1, to set the scale of the construct.

Notes: α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2.2 Correlations and descriptive statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Citizenship pressure						
2. Citizenship fatigue	.631**					
3. Continuance commitment	.466**	-.052				
4. Job performance	.146*	-.122	.272**			
5. Gender (1 = female)	-.061	.044	.075	-.038		
6. Education (1 = masters)	.008	.090	-.100	.013	.152*	
Mean	3.976	3.476	3.469	4.084	.222	.444
SD	.680	.800	.692	.453	.416	.498

Notes: n = 239.

$* p < .05; ** p < .01.$

Table 2.3. Process results for individual paths

	Citizenship fatigue	Job performance
Gender (1 = female)	.162*	-.007
Education (1 = masters)	.034	.040
Citizenship pressure	.822***	.248***
Continuance commitment	-.511***	
Citizenship pressure × Continuance commitment	-.569***	
Citizenship fatigue		-.205***
R^2	.632	.099

Notes: n = 239.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 2.4. Conditional indirect effects and index of moderated mediation

Continuance Commitment	Effect	Bootstrap SE	Bootstrap LLCI	Bootstrap ULCI
-1 SD	-.246	.050	-.348	-.149
Mean	-.165	.033	-.231	-.100
+1SD	-.077	.028	-.134	-.021
Index	.116	.034	.062	.197

Notes: n = 239; SE = standard error; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit

confidence interval.

FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Conceptual model

```
                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │   Continuance    │
                    │   commitment     │
                    └────────┬─────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│   Citizenship    │──▶│   Citizenship    │──▶│  Job performance │
│    pressure      │   │    fatigue       │   │                  │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
```
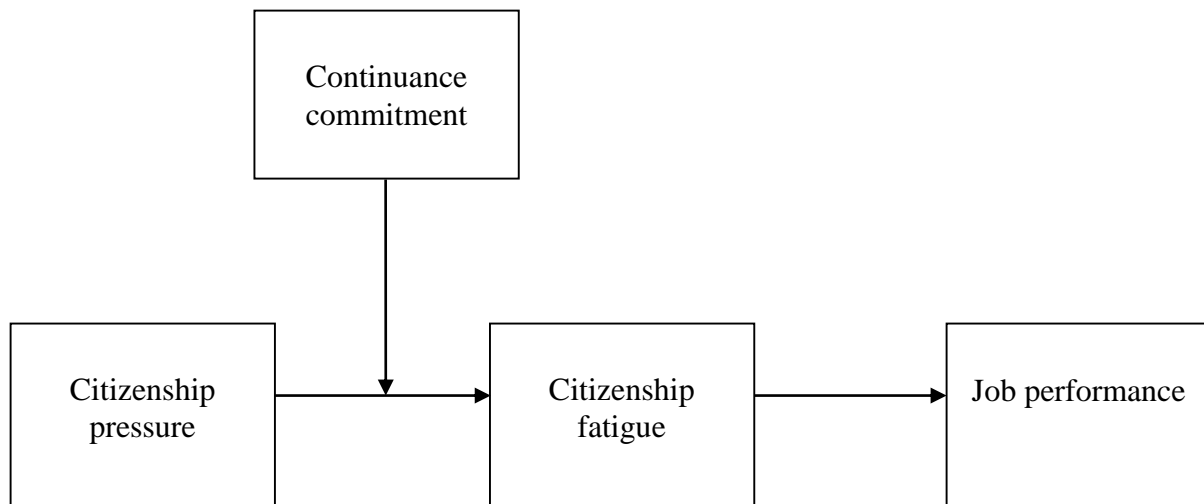
Figure 2.2. Moderating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between citizenship pressure and citizenship fatigue
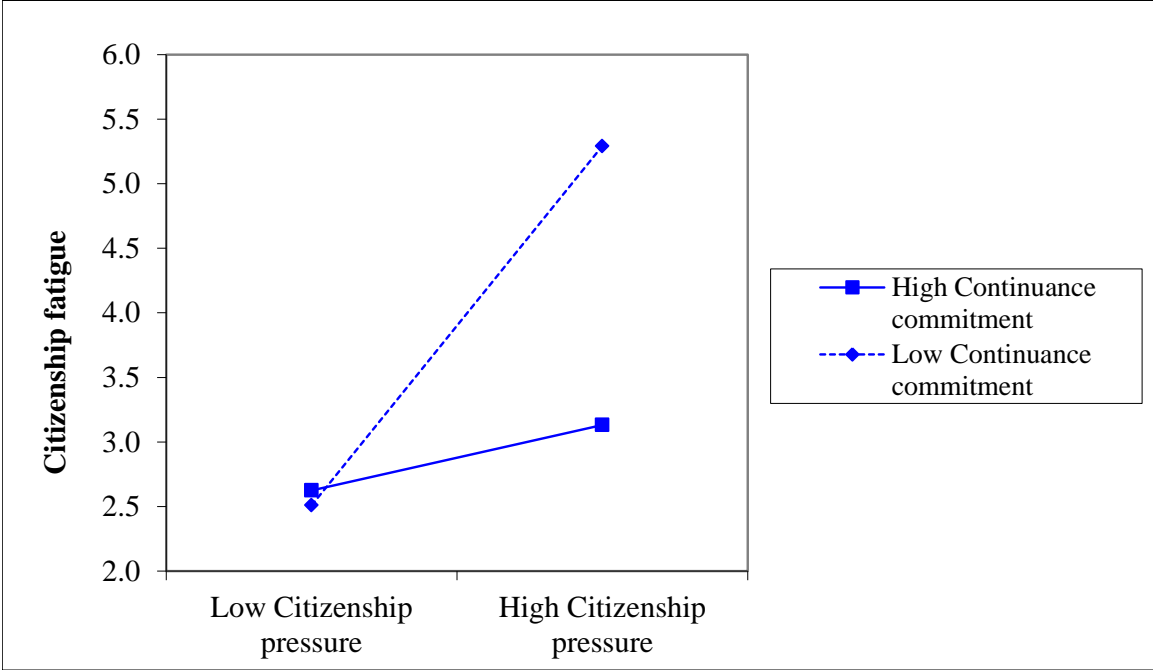
Chapter 3

Like Father, Like Son[4]?

The Relationship between Generations, Role Overload, Service-Oriented OCB and Creativity

Abstract

This study investigates how compulsory citizenship behavior affects employees' energy and motivation to engage in other voluntary behaviors such as service oriented-organizational behavior and creativity, and the additional impact of role overload and one's generation. Based on the conservation of resources theory, we suggest that compulsory citizenship behavior negatively affects service-oriented OCB and creativity and suggest several hypotheses for its relationship with role overload and generational position (millennials or non-millennials). Results of a SEM analysis from multisource, time-lagged data of employees and their supervisors reveals several interesting direct and indirect relationships. The findings suggest that role overload resulting from compulsory citizenship behavior may undermine the service-oriented OCB and creativity of millennial employees. However, these effects may be more muted among non-millennials who "live to work." Other interesting implications of our study are discussed.

Keywords: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior, Creativity, Millennials, Non-Millennials, Role-Overload, Service oriented-OCB.

---

[4] The use of this proverb is merely for the purpose of making title more relevant, all authors of the study strongly believe on "Gender Equality" and do not believe on representing sample with a particular gender.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was first conceptualized during the 1980s (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). From that point on, it has significantly extended our knowledge about voluntary behavior in organizations. Despite its positive connotation, not everything is positive in OCB. There is also a dark side to OCB, known as compulsory citizenship behavior. In contrast with conventional OCB, this extra-role behavior is not based on the genuine, spontaneous goodwill of the individual (VIGODA-GADOT, 2006).

Although compulsory citizenship behavior is a hypothetically significant construct, it has not yet attracted a great deal of scholarly attention. Therefore, the impact of such behavior on organizations and employees has seldom been investigated. Role overload is a situation in which employees are given extra responsibilities to perform in the time available to them and given their existing capabilities (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Although citizenship behavior has a positive impact on organizations, it might also create negative consequences when supervisors make it compulsory for employees. Organ and Ryan (1995) argued that OCB might contribute to employees' stress and feelings of being overloaded. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that compulsory citizenship behavior may lead to role overload. In addition, there may be other costs to this role overload such as less service-oriented OCB and creativity that result when employees feel overloaded. For instance, when a manager makes it compulsory for employees to work longer hours to complete an extra task, employees may feel that they are suffering from role overload. In such situations, it is unlikely that they will have the time or the inclination to engage in voluntary acts of good citizenship. Such forced actions deplete their energy and resources. As a result, Vigoda-Gadot (2006) established that compulsory citizenship behavior is positively

correlated with job-related stress and intentions to quit. It is also negatively related to job-related satisfaction and commitment.

While some researchers have reported the negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and overall OCB (Zhao, Peng, & Chen, 2014), we still know little about how compulsory citizenship behavior influences other types of conventional OCB such as service-oriented OCB via role overload. This study investigates the negative relationship between role overload and service oriented-OCB. We argue that role overload, triggered by compulsory citizenship behavior, makes employees much less likely to defend their organizations to outsiders, meaning, engage in service oriented-OCB.

In addition to citizenship behavior, organizations also benefit from their workers' creativity. It is a factor that helps companies succeed in a competitive world (Vincent & Kouchaki, 2016). The long-term success of organizations depends on the creativity of its products and services (George & Zhou, 2001; Lev, 2004; Sternberg & Lubart, 1999). Researchers have examined various techniques for encouraging creativity in the workplace (Mueller & Kamdar, 2011; Vincent & Kouchaki, 2016), but the scarcity of literature supporting the relationship between role overload and creativity leaves room for further research. Thus, we investigate how role overload resulting from compulsory citizenship behavior limits the creativity of employees.

To support our hypothetical contentions, we draw from the conservation of resources theory, which states that working in an energy-draining environment exhausts employees' resources, which has a negative impact on their output (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). In accordance with this theory, we investigate how role overload affects employees' motivations to engage in service-oriented OCB and reduces their creativity.

We also posit that the generation in which one was born might moderate the relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB and creativity. We divide the study's population into millennial and non-millennial groups. Millennials include people born between 1980 and 2000. By 2020, they are expected to constitute more than 50% of the global workforce (PwC Annual Report, 2016). In our non-millennial group we have two subgroups: baby boomers born between the mid-1940s and late 1964, and Generation Xers born between 1961 and 1981.

We adopted this approach because employers complain that loyalty and discipline, the trademark of their ancestors, is lacking in millennials. At this point, we should explore the term "generation" in depth to understand the behavioral differences of different generations and to classify their distinctive characteristics. One definition of a generation is, "A group of people who were born and raised in a similar social and historical atmosphere" (Mannheim, 1953; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). Others have described it as, "An identifiable group that shares years of birth and significant life events that occurred in critical stages of their lives" (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). Moreover, according to career stage theory, people pass through five career stages during their life span: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement (Super, 1957, 1980).

We maintain that the attitudes and behaviors of millennials vary a great deal from those of their predecessors. They will be less likely to engage in service-oriented OCB and will exhibit less creativity at work when they feel overloaded because of compulsory citizenship behavior. Millennials want to transform the systems of older generations and be more open and transparent. Thus, for millennials, organizations should be flexible in how work is done.

3.2. Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses

For organizations, OCB helps them achieve their goals quickly and inexpensively. One unfortunate outcome of this importance of OCB is that what was once voluntary behavior has become mandatory (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Many previous studies have indicated that employers make it compulsory for their employees to put in extra effort by increasing their work hours and availability (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1997; Hochschild, 1997; Maume Jr & Bellas, 2001). When OCB becomes compulsory, it has a negative impact on other job outcomes (Organ & Ryan, 1995; VIGODA-GADOT, 2006).

Employees have two roles in the workplace. They hold a specific job and they are members of the organization. The former denotes the formal or in-role responsibilities and tasks that employees must accomplish, whereas the latter includes their willingness to perform extra tasks as good citizens of the organization (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998). Compulsory citizenship behavior muddies the distinction between their in-role performance as employees and their extra-role performance as members of the organization. Doing so might overload them (VIGODA-GADOT, 2006).

For more than five decades, researchers have been investigating how different roles influence workers' behaviors (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role theory maintains that individuals usually try to behave according to their defined roles (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Additionally, role theory suggests that the failure of employees to accomplish their goals due to lack of time and energy results in inter-role conflict and strain for them. In line with role theory, we argue that employees regard compulsory citizenship behavior as an extra role, resulting in role overload. It requires employees to devote additional resources in the form of time and energy to this extra role in addition to their in-role tasks. Thus, in the absence of extra resources, workers feel role overload when their managers

force them to take their work home to complete it on time, spend extra hours at work, come to the office on their days off, and give up their personal time to attend work-related meetings. As a result, they find it difficult to devote the time and energy required to accomplish their in-role duties. Therefore, we posit that there is a relationship between the compulsory citizenship behavior demanded of employees, which is outside of their domain, and role overload.

Hypothesis 3.1: *Compulsory citizenship behavior is positively related to role overload.*

3.2.1. *Role Overload as a Mediator*

Role overload refers to circumstances in which workers feel that they are expected to accomplish too many assignments and tasks in a given time and without additional resources such as an increase in their abilities and energy (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1990; Kahn, 1973; Rizzo et al., 1970). Given that the organizational-member role goes beyond the formally assigned tasks and duties, it will definitely require additional resources in the form of time and energy to perform it. Failing to do so might drive employees to take resources from other voluntary tasks such as service-oriented OCB and creativity.

Organizational citizenship behavior takes various forms, but service-oriented OCB is probably more important for some organizations than for others (Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). For instance, service-oriented OCB is important for organizations that need to present a positive image of themselves to the world. While supervisors can strongly encourage their subordinates to engage in citizenship behavior (VIGODA-GADOT, 2006), they are less able to do so with regard to service oriented-OCB, which is covert in nature.

The conservation of resources theory posits that people seek to protect their existing resources and try obtain more resources (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). The theory maintains that

the threat of losing existing resources, actually losing them, and the failure to obtain new resources after investing their existing resources produces stress in employees. These resources include objects, conditions, and states (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). To substantiate our theoretical arguments, we draw from the conservation of resources theory and role theory, which asserts that employees' exposure to adverse work conditions such as role overload can prompt negative outcomes such as reduced or negative service-oriented OCB (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015). These outcomes result because employees are forced to invest their resources and want to conserve any remaining resources through work or family-related efforts (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Rastogi, Pati, Krishnan, & Krishnan, 2018). Such outcomes are important to organizations that provide services, because employees' vocal support for their organization (i.e. service oriented- OCB) is a competitive necessity (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Like service oriented-OCB, creativity is an individual ability that workers exhibit either intrinsically or through external motivation. Organizations that promote creativity grow and prosper (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Han, Harms, & Bai, 2017). Previous research has explored the consequences of destructive leadership styles and abusive supervision as antecedents of declines in employees' creativity (Han et al., 2017; Lee, Yun, & Srivastava, 2013; Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012). However, there has been no attention paid to the effect of pressuring employees to take on extra roles on their creativity at work.

Based on the conservation of resources theory, we believe that role overload is a likely mediator of the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and creativity. Role overload drains many of the employees' available resources, leaving little or nothing for their creativity. The lack of resources can be a major obstacle to their creative ideas and actions (Han

et al., 2017). To be creative at work, employees need social and material resources (West & Farr, 1990; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Without them, they will not be able to pursue creative ideas (Han et al., 2017). According to previous findings, negative perceptions about a supervisor impede the subordinates' creative thinking (Han et al., 2017). Expertise at doing a job, the ability to think critically and the motivation to do something unique are the tripod of creativity (Amabile, 1988). Although role overload has less of an effect on employees' expertise in doing their jobs, it may have a negative effect on their ability and motivation to think creatively because it depletes the resources they have to do so (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2007). Encouragement on the part of organization motives employees to put in extra effort and create new ideas for solutions to ongoing problems (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; G. Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011; H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). In contrast, role overload and the depletion of resources it brings with it are likely to demoralize them and reduce their creativity. Moreover, previous research confirms that workers respond in kind to positive and negative behavior (Blau, 1964; Thibaut, 2017). Thus, role overload results in the reduction of other voluntary behaviors such as service-oriented OCB and creativity.

We, therefore, hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3.2a: *Role overload mediates the negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and employees' service oriented-OCB.*

Hypothesis 3.2b: *Role overload mediates the negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and employees' creativity.*

3.2.2. The Moderating Role of One's Generation

The distinction between generations is usually based on both statistical and sociological factors related to important historic events such as wars, economic situations, or technological innovations. After World War II, it was baby boomers who experienced economic growth. Loyalty, competitiveness and hard word became their trademark (Crampton & Hodge, 2007; Shragay & Tziner, 2011; Weil, 2008). They believe in living for their work, being loyal to their employers and being willing to sacrifice for their professions. They also believe in working as long as needed to do their jobs and appraisal-based promotions (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Shragay & Tziner, 2011). In addition, they may have difficulty managing the work-life balance and blur the boundaries between their work obligations and their life outside work (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Shragay & Tziner, 2011).

In contrast to their parents, Generation X was born into a difficult socioeconomic period characterized by an unstable economy and scandals in government and business (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). This environment created a lack of trust in them (Johnson & Lopes, 2008), leading them to rely on their own initiative and to emphasize the value of freedom and creativity. Given the lengthy hours their parents spent at work, Generation Xers developed self-confidence and independence, and do not look to others for self-esteem (Simons, 2010). Many entered the workforce at a precarious time economically and saw their parents lose their jobs. Thus, for them, the value of loyalty to their employer changed to loyalty to their jobs and fellow workers. They became quite willing to switch jobs to advance their careers (Simons, 2010).

Millennials, who will constitute the major of the workforce in coming years, are the last generation born in the twentieth century (Shragay & Tziner, 2011). This generation has witnessed major changes in the world including globalization, the rise of social media, and instantaneous technology. Their parents worked hard to increase their self-confidence and

expected a great deal from them (Shragay & Tziner, 2011). They are team oriented and believe in group efforts instead of individualism. They prefer the social aspects of their life more than others and resist anything that interferes with their social life (Shragay & Tziner, 2011). According to Forbes, [Editor's note: Citation is missing in references] millennials become more uneasy and annoyed when work interferes with their private lives (source: "FORBES work state of mind project"). Similarly, a survey conducted by Aurora of 200 on-the-job millennials found that 80% of the respondents indicated that a work-life balance was essential to their voluntary citizenship behavior, creativity and productivity at work (Aurora, 2016). Millennials believe in a well-defined organizational structure, appreciate others at work, and seek a positive relationship with their supervisors that is not always welcomed by older generation managers who want their subordinates to work independently and individually (Shragay & Tziner, 2011). They fulfill their responsibilities (Leyden, Teixeira, & Greenberg, 2007), but do not like their supervisors pressuring them to sacrifice their private time to do work beyond their formal job responsibilities. Unlike baby boomers, they work to live rather than live to work.

These generations vary considerably in their attitudes toward work (Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy Jr, 2009) and in the factors they regard as job stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Non-millennials such as baby boomers and Generation Xers prioritize work over other aspects of life. Therefore, they do not respond with the same intensity against job stressors as millennials. Role overload is clearly a job stressor. Therefore, we expect people in different generations to respond differently to it. In addition, for most non-millennials, a stable, secure, well-paying job is their top priority (Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). Non-millennials in upper and middle management positions often engage in service-oriented OCB by voicing their support for their organizations. They are also

committed to their work and try to do it in a creative manner (Salahuddin, 2010). Some researchers have argued that non-millennials accord a great deal of significance to work and think about their employment as more integral to their lives than millennials do (Gursoy, Chi, & Karadag, 2013; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Twenge, 2010). Millennials believe in the quality rather than the quantity of work and show loyalty to their jobs, not their organizations. In contrast, non-millennials are more loyal and feel emotional attachment to their organizations, believing that every extra role they undertake will pay off (Gursoy et al., 2013; 2008; Hart, 2006). According to the Families and Work Institute (2006), non-millennials work hard to achieve their goals and believe that their employers will reward them for doing so. They are also more likely than millennials to seek higher positions and more responsibilities at work.

As the career stage theory posits, people pass through five stages during their careers: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement (Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Super, 1980). Based on their ages, today's millennials are either at the exploration stage where they begin to choose their professions, taking "trial jobs" before finding an appropriate fit, or the establishment stage where, having chosen a suitable profession, they try to secure a place in their selected field. Thus, at these stages of their careers, millennials may particularly resent extra roles that are beyond their job scope. In response, they may resist these attempts quite strongly. Even if they do not do so immediately, their negative feelings about their organization may increase, leading to a lack of willingness to engage in service-oriented OCB or invest creativity in their work.

Similarly, based on their age, non-millennials are in the maintenance stages of their careers and are very much settled in their jobs. Their goal is to retain their jobs and positions in the organization. At this stage, they seek job security and are hesitant to switch organizations

(Lu & Gursoy, 2016; McGill, 1980; Slocum & Cron, 1985). These goals might mitigate their resentment of extra roles (Lu & Gursoy, 2016), particularly because they likely believe that one lives to work and should be loyal to the organization. Therefore, non-millennials are less likely to regard role overload in as negative a light as millennials. Their dedication to their work and sense of spirit responsibility to their co-workers lead them to see role overload as a factor of their working conditions (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Even when their supervisors give them additional roles, they accept them because either they are happy with their position in the company or they fear trying to find another job (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Thus, unlike millennials, non-millennials might be less likely to retaliate against role overload by reducing their service-oriented OCB or limiting the creativity they invest in their work. They are also less likely to retaliate in such ways when they are forced to engage in compulsory citizenship behavior. Therefore, we our final hypotheses state that:

Hypothesis 3.3a: *An employee's generation moderates the negative relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB, such that the negative relationship is stronger for millennials than non-millennials.*

Hypothesis 3.3b: *An employee's generation moderates the negative relationship between role overload and creativity, such that the negative relationship is stronger for millennials than non-millennials.* Figure 3.1 illustrates our proposed model.

Insert Figure 3.1 about here

3.3   METHOD

3.3.1. Sample and Data Collection

To test our hypotheses, we selected organizations from different sectors, such as IT firms, banks, educational institutes, and textiles, for data collection. We collected the data in three waves with a three-week time lag between each wave. This lag was long enough to eliminate recall bias and reverse causality but not long enough for significant organizational changes during data collection. We did not translate any of the scales into the local language and used all scales in their original English. We guaranteed every participant that this survey was only for research purposes and that only aggregate summary data would be used for analyses without revealing the personal identification of the respondents at any stage. We asked the respondents for their honest opinion and noted in the cover letter of the questionnaire that there were no correct or incorrect answers. These precautions minimized the biases of social concern and consent (Spector, 2006).

We measured compulsory citizenship behavior in the first phase and self-rated role overload in the second phase. In the third phase, we measured both self-rated service-oriented OCB and supervisor-rated creativity. Out of 400 questionnaires in the first phase, we received 330 completed surveys. After the third phase, the number of complete surveys dropped to 266. We omitted only one survey because of incomplete data. Thus, the response rate was good at 66%.

Of the respondents, 71% were male and 90% had a graduate degree or higher. With regard to age, 62% were millennials with a mean age of 30. On average, the non-millennials were 46 years old.

3.3.2. Measures

All of our measures came from previous studies and used 5-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 5 ("Strongly Agree). The only exception was the measures for

compulsory citizenship behavior and creativity for which the Likert scales ranged from 1 ("Never") to 5 ("Always") and 1 ("Not At All Characteristic") to 5 ("Very Characteristic"), respectively.

Compulsory Citizenship Behavior. We measured compulsory citizenship behavior by a 6-item scale developed by Vigoda (2006). The sample items include: "I feel that I am expected to invest more effort in this job than I want to and beyond my formal job requirements." (Cronbach's α = .90).

Role Overload. We measured role overload with three items originally developed by Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jennings (1989) and Beehr, Walsh, and Taber (1976), and used by Bollino and Tunley (2005). (Cronbach's α = .93).

Service-Oriented OCB. We used the 16-item scale developed by Bettencourt and colleagues (2001) to assess service-oriented OCB. Items include: "Tells outsiders this is a good place to work." (Cronbach's α = .95).

Creativity. We used the 13-item scale developed by Jing Zhou (2001) to measure supervisor-rated creativity. Scale items include: "Suggests new ways of performing work tasks." (Cronbach's α = .93).

Generations. We divided the respondents into two generations: millennials who were 40 years old or younger and non-millennials who were older than 40. We assigned the millennials a value of 1 and the non-millennials a value of 2.

Control Variables. In our regression models, we also controlled for gender, because female employees might be less stress-tolerant than male employees (Deery, Rayton, Walsh, & Kinnie, 2017; Xie & Johns, 1995). We also controlled for educational qualifications because more educated employees might have greater self-efficacy with respect to their ability to cope

with stressful work conditions (Bandura, 1997). Finally, we controlled for holding a managerial position because employees within the managerial ranks might engage in more service-oriented OCB and be more creative in their work than those who are not managers. We did not control for age because it was related to our moderator, generation.

3.3.3. Data Analysis Technique

To analyze our data, we used SPSS, AMOS, and a PROCESS macro. Table 3.1 lists the descriptive statistics, showing the correlations among the variables. In the final analysis, we included the control variables that had significant correlations with the dependent variables because including control variables with insignificant correlations might affect the coefficient values of the dependent variables in a regression model (Petersitzke, 2009).

We conducted confirmatory factory analysis to measure the overall model fit. We used Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), CMIN/df, and the Root-Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) to evaluate the models' goodness of fit (Byrne, 2001). A good model fit should have higher values for all of the goodness indices (e.g. CFI, TLI should be above 0.90). Lower values indicate that the model is a poor fit with the data (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kline, 2015). The results of the CFA showed a relatively poor model fit because some of the error terms had higher modification index values.[5] After correlating some of the error terms of the same constructs that demonstrated higher co-variances in their modification indices, the fit of the model improved (CMIN/df = 1.46, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.04).

---

[5] We correlated some of the error terms of the same construct for service-oriented OCB and creativity which have modification indices values higher than 15 that improved the models' goodness of fit.

Insert Table 3.1 about here

The reliability of a scale depends upon the correlation of its total items (Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004). Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) greater than 0.70 indicate the reliability of a scale (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978). Furthermore, we followed Hair et al. (2010) for measuring the validity of the scales. After the CFA, significant factor loadings for respective items of the scale and AVE values of each scale together proved the convergent validity of the constructs.[6] The inter-construct correlations, which are smaller than the square roots of the respective AVE values, provide additional evidence of discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010). Table 3.1 presents the values regarding the reliabilities and validity of all of the scales with factor loadings. Table 3.2 shows the descriptive and correlations of the different focal constructs.

Insert Table 3.2 about here

3.4.   Findings

To assess the validity of our hypotheses, we conducted a structural equation modeling analysis in AMOS. The results of the SEM proved that our empirical model was a good fit. (CMIN/df = 1.54, TLI = .95, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .04). Through the results of the SEM analysis, we established that compulsory citizenship behavior has a significant positive relationship with role overload (*β = 0.76;* LLCI = .92, ULCI = 1.18), supporting H3.1.

---

[6] Although the AVE value of creativity (AVE = .49) is marginally less than advised value of .50, yet it is considered acceptable when value of composite reliability (CR) is above .70 (Huang, Wang, Wu, & Wang, 2013), that in our study is (.92 for creativity). Moreover, lower AVE values are considered acceptable in newer research areas (Adil, 2016; De Clercq, Suhail, Azeem, & Haq, 2019). Finally, each item is significantly correlated to its respective construct to prove convergent validity (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988).

Hypothesis 3.2a predicted that role overload would mediate the negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and employees' service-oriented OCB. Therefore, when employees experience role overload by being required to engage in compulsory citizenship behavior, their service-oriented OCB declines. Table 3.3 indicates that there is a direct relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and service-oriented OCB (β = *-0.44;* LLCI = -0.50, ULCI = -0.26) and an indirect relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and service-oriented OCB via role overload (β = *-0.22,* LLCI = -0.28, ULCI = -0.11). Thus, Hypothesis 3.2a is accepted. Similarly, the values in Table 3.3 indicate an insignificant direct relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and creativity (β = *-0.02,* LLCI = -0.14, ULCI = -0.09). However, this relationship becomes significant and negative when mediated by role overload (β = *-0.35,* LLCI = -0.30, ULCI = -0.16). These values show that role overload fully mediates the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and creativity. Therefore, Hypothesis 3.2b is accepted.

Insert Table 3.3 about here

We also used Hayes' (2017) PROCESS Model 1 with 5,000 bootstrap samples to test the moderating effects of generation on the relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB and creativity (MacKinnon, Coxe, & Baraldi, 2012). The results presented in Table 3.4 indicate that the true β-value for the interaction between role overload and generation that affects the outcome variables, service-oriented OCB and creativity, falls between LLCI = 0.22 and ULCI = 0.43 for the former and between LLCI = 0.08 and ULCI = 0.26 for the latter. These ranges do not include zero, because β= 0 would mean no effect whatsoever. Therefore, the fact that the confidence interval does not contain zero means that there is a genuine moderating

effect. Thus, we can conclude that generation moderates the relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB as well as between role overload and creativity.

We used a dichotomous dummy variable as the moderator (Millennials=1, Non-Millennials=2). Thus, it is important to determine which generation moderates the negative relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB as well as between role overload and creativity. Table 3.4 provides the results of the conditional effects of role overload by generation. The results indicate that being a millennial strengthens the negative relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB (Effect = -0.54, p = .000) much more than being a non-millennial (Effect = -0.21, p = .000). Therefore, the negative relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB is much stronger among millennials than non-millennials. Similarly, being a millennial strengthens the negative relationship between role overload and creativity (Effect = -0.32, p = .000) much more than being a non-millennial (Effect = -0.15, p = .001). Thus, the results support Hypotheses 3A and 3B.

Insert Table 3.4 about here

Figure 3.2 depicts that, when there is no role overload, millennials are much more likely to engage in service-oriented OCB than non-millennials. As their role overload increases, both groups are likely to reduce their service-oriented OCB. However, the rate of decline is faster for millennials than non-millennials. Eventually, for the former it drops to an average value of almost 1.00 for maximum role overload as opposed to a mean value of more than 3.00 for non-millennials.

Insert Figure 3.2 about here

Similarly, Figure 3.3 provides a graphical depiction of the relationship between role overload and creativity for millennials and non-millennials. Both groups exhibit almost the same degree of creativity when they do not experience role overload. However, the creativity of millennials drops to a mean value of almost 1.50 at a maximum value of role overload. The creativity of non-millennials does not decline as much and remains at a mean value of 3.00 at a maximum value of role overload. Hence, the illustrations in Figures 3.2 and 3.3 also provide graphical support for the acceptance of Hypothesis 3.3a and 3.3b, respectively.

Insert Figure 3.3 about here

3.5.   Discussion

This study contributes to prior studies by exploring how a forced voluntary behavior such as compulsory citizenship behavior can weaken other voluntary behaviors such as service oriented-OCB and creativity through role overload. Previous research established a negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior with other work outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; 2006), but did not investigate the effects of compulsory citizenship behavior on reduced service-oriented OCB and creativity, via role overload.

Using both role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) and the conservation of resources theory (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), we demonstrate that when employees feel stressed because they are required to take on extra roles, they are less likely to engage in service-oriented OCB or invest creativity in their work. Furthermore, based on career stage theory (Super, 1980), we also establish that millennials and non-millennials react differently when they experience role overload at their workplace. Compulsory citizenship behavior increases the role overload of employees that reduces their ability and desire to engage in any other voluntary behavior

(Bergeron, 2007; Bolino et al., 2004). Taking on the extra roles of service-oriented OCB and creativity demands substantial time and energy from workers (S. Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000; McCarthy, Trougakos, & Cheng, 2016). The resulting depletion of their resources might reduce their determination to engage in other important voluntary behavior (Deery et al., 2017). Additionally, employees regard the role overload caused by compulsory citizenship behavior as a rude intrusion into their normal work (Bolino et al., 2015). These negative sentiments may prompt them to speak negatively about the organization in front of outsiders.

One of the additional contributions of this study is in demonstrating the moderating role of one's generation on the relationship between role overload and other voluntary behavior such as service-oriented OCB and creativity. Millennials and non-millennials differ in their reaction to role overload due to compulsory citizenship behavior. The former are more likely than the latter to reduce their engagement in service-oriented OCB and creativity. Possible reasons might include the fact that millennials give much importance to their social life. When role overload forces them to stay longer hours on the job and do extra work, they consider it an imposition on their social life, making them less willing to take on other voluntary behavior. In contrast, non-millennials, who are more likely to follow the ethos of "live to work" do not exhibit such a marked decline in their service-oriented OCB for their organizations or their creativity. Another reason might be the difference in their level of experience. Millennials are still in the exploring stage of their careers, so they might not have enough experience to know how to deal with role overload. In contrast, non-millennials who are in the maintenance stage of their careers feel very much settled in their jobs and have enough experience to deal with role overload and still engage in service-oriented OCB and creativity. Similarly, at this stage in their careers, they may feel a

connection with the organization and be willing to promote it to others and present creative ideas for the solution of ongoing problems.

Despite the contributions of the study, it has several limitations that suggest future research opportunities for other researchers. First, we used 3-week lags between the various waves of data collection. Lengthening the time lags might be useful because the feeling of role overload that comes with the continuous engagement in compulsory citizenship behavior might need longer to materialize. Additionally, role overload might not lead to less service-oriented OCB and creativity immediately. Longitudinal models with longer time spans could also reduce the likelihood of reverse causality. Workers who have more time to learn how to manage different roles might feel less overwhelmed by role overload and then have the energy to engage in service-oriented OCB and to generate creative ideas.

Second, this study focused mainly on the behaviors of millennials because we regarded them as the largest part of the future workforce. Therefore, we selected two groups--baby boomers and Generation Xers non-millennials. Doing so limited our ability to explore the difference in the behaviors among all three generations that currently make up the workforce. Future researchers could explore the difference in the behaviors of all three generations.

Third, one drawback of our methodology involves the consideration in the statistical models of only three control variables (gender, education and designation). Future researchers should investigate the impact of more control variables such as organizational tenure and work hours that might determine the responses of employees to role overload (Bolino et al., 2015; Deery et al., 2017).

Fourth, in some cases the distinction between millennials and non-millennials involved only a few years' difference in age. Future researchers might utilize more extreme differences in

age to determine whether they obtain similar results. Fifth, future studies may also investigate the role of other dichotomous moderators such as gender to explain the difference in behaviors between males and females when they face role overload because of compulsory citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the marital status of the employees might also be a good moderator of study for this relationship between role overload and job outcomes. Married workers might have much more negative reactions than their unmarried colleagues to being burdened with extra role assignments. Another factor that might play a role in this relationship is the quality of the marital relationship.

Sixth, the theoretical arguments are country-neutral, but may conflict with cultural issues. Study culture is marked by a high level of uncertainty avoidance. Such a factor might make employees particularly sensitive to the uncertainty created because of role overload, making them less willing to engage in any other voluntary duties (Bergeron, 2007). Millennials from diverse cultures may also have various individual reasons for avoiding tiresome organizational expectations about performing different roles.

Our findings have several important implications for managers and employers. First, HR professionals would be wise to understand the difference between taking on an extra role voluntarily and being required to do so. Clearly, the latter may have negative repercussions for employees' ability to engage in other important voluntary behaviors (Deery et al., 2017) such as service-oriented OCB and creativity. Hence, HR managers should design systems to ensure that voluntary assignment do not become mandatory (Bolino et al., 2004). They should guard against the possibility that the negativity that employees feel because of compulsory citizenship behavior might spill over into their vocal complaints about the organization to others.

In particular, HR practitioners should be diligent in allocating extra roles to workers with the requisite experience and qualifications (Bolino et al., 2015). They might hire such employees who are capable of balancing different voluntary assignments. Adequate recruitment mechanisms can help predict which employees could balance formal and informal roles (Werner, 2000). Furthermore, training programs could help existing employees develop these skills.

Some workers might also be hesitant to disclose their feelings of stress when their supervisors force them to engage in citizenship behavior, believing that it makes them seem inadequate at doing their jobs (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). Thus, the HR team should impress upon managers that they should be careful about making voluntary OCB compulsory. In addition, organizations should create a culture in which employees feel comfortable enough with their supervisors to discuss their sense of role overload rather than complaining about it to outsiders. Similarly, employers could introduce guidelines that employees can follow in helping each other voluntarily, based on their specific skills and expertise. For instance, through one-on-one mentoring, experienced non-millennials could help their newly recruited millennial colleagues deal with role overload (Thomas & Lankau, 2009).

Implications of the current study are generalizable to a wide range of industrial sectors because the analytical scope of this research covers various businesses, including manufacturing and services. Thus, HR teams should be mindful that, regardless of their industry or sector, imposing role overload on employees may lead to a reduction in their service-oriented OCB and creativity.

3.6. Conclusion

Through the current study, we facilitated human resource policymakers and researchers by investigating the causal relationship of compulsory citizenship behavior with other voluntary

behaviors such as service-oriented OCB and creativity with the mediating role of role overload in this process. The sense of role-overload is an important mechanism that undermines employees' service-oriented OCB performance in front of outsiders and creativity at the workplace due to the draconian performance of citizenship behavior where outcomes display disparity in the intensity of this descriptive mechanism for millennials and non-millennials. We hope that such different reactions of millennials, who are going to be a major workforce in future, will persuade policy-makers to plan different human resource policies for millennials by keeping in view that they are not like their ancestor (i.e. non-millennials), who devote their life to perform at the workplace. This will further induce organizations to rethink the true spirit of voluntary behavior performance while planning the future of the workplace. Moreover, our study outcomes provide an impetus for future researchers to investigate the mechanism of how management can alleviate the negative impact of such forced extra-role performance particularly for millennials because the future of the workplace is associated with this youngest workforce.

3.7. REFERENCES

Adil, M. S. J. J. o. O. C. M. (2016). Impact of change readiness on commitment to technological change, focal, and discretionary behaviors: Evidence from the manufacturing sector of Karachi. *29*(2), 222-241.

Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. *Research in organizational behavior, 10*(1), 123-167.

Amabile, T. M., Schatzel, E. A., Moneta, G. B., & Kramer, S. J. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(1), 5-32.

Bacharach, S. B., Bamberger, P., & Conley, S. C. (1990). Work Processes, Role Conflict, and Role Overload The Case of Nurses and Engineers in the Public Sector. *Work and Occupations, 17*(2), 199-228.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*: Macmillan.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of management journal, 26*(4), 587-595.

Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological bulletin, 91*(1), 3.

Beehr, T. A., Walsh, J. T., & Taber, T. D. (1976). Relationships of stress to individually and organizationally valued states: Higher order needs as a moderator. *Journal of applied psychology, 61*(1), 41.

Bergeron, D. M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management review, 32*(4), 1078-1095.

Bettencourt, L. A., Gwinner, K. P., & Meuter, M. L. (2001). A comparison of attitude, personality, and knowledge predictors of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(1), 29.

Blau, P. (1964). 1964 Exchange and power in social life. New York: Wiley.

Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(1), 56.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(4), 740.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., Gilstrap, J. B., & Suazo, M. M. (2010). Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(6), 835-855.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Niehoff, B. P. (2004). The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(2), 229-246.

Bond, J. T., Galinsky, E., & Swanberg, J. E. (1997). *The National Study of the Changing Workforce, 1997. No. 2*: ERIC.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. *Personnel Selection in Organizations; San Francisco: Jossey-Bass*, 71.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts. *Applications, and Programming, Mahwah, New Jersey*.

Crampton, S., & Hodge, J. (2007). Age discrimination and downsizing. *Business Review, Cambridge, 7*(1), 341-347.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(6), 1241.

De Clercq, D., Suhail, A., Azeem, M. U., & Haq, I. U. (2019). Citizenship pressure and job performance: roles of citizenship fatigue and continuance commitment. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*.

Deery, S., Rayton, B., Walsh, J., & Kinnie, N. (2017). The costs of exhibiting organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management, 56*(6), 1039-1049.

DeWall, C. N., Baumeister, R. F., Stillman, T. F., & Gailliot, M. T. (2007). Violence restrained: Effects of self-regulation and its depletion on aggression. *Journal of Experimental social psychology, 43*(1), 62-76.

Dion, M. J. (2006). *The impact of workplace incivility and occupational stress on the job satisfaction and turnover intention of acute care nurses*: University of Connecticut.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of applied psychology, 75*(1), 51.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: a conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological bulletin, 112*(2), 310.

George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: an interactional approach. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(3), 513.

Gibson, J. W., Greenwood, R. A., & Murphy Jr, E. F. (2009). Generational differences in the workplace: Personal values, behaviors, and popular beliefs. *Journal of Diversity Management, 4*(3), 1.

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G.-Q., & Karadag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 40-48.

Gursoy, D., Maier, T. A., & Chi, C. G. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(3), 448-458.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). Multivariate data analysis: Global edition: Pearson Higher Education Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Han, G. H., Harms, P., & Bai, Y. (2017). Nightmare bosses: The impact of abusive supervision on employees' sleep, emotions, and creativity. *Journal of Business Ethics, 145*(1), 21-31.

Hart, K. (2006). Generations in the workplace: finding common ground. *MLO: medical laboratory observer, 38*(10), 26-27.

Hobfoll, S., & Shirom, A. (2000). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace (57-81). *Handbook of organization behavior (2nd Revised Edition). New York, New York: Marcel Dekker*.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American psychologist, 44*(3), 513.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress

process: advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology, 50*(3), 337-

421.

Hochschild, A. R. (1997). When work becomes home and home becomes work. *California

Management Review, 39*(4), 79.

Huang, C.-C., Wang, Y.-M., Wu, T.-W., & Wang, P.-A. (2013). An empirical analysis of the

antecedents and performance consequences of using the moodle platform. *International

Journal of Information and Education Technology, 3*(2), 217.

Isenhour, L. C., Stone, D. L., Lien, D., Zheng, W., Zhang, M., & Li, H. (2012). Performance

appraisal process and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Managerial

Psychology*.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on

role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational behavior and human

decision processes, 36*(1), 16-78.

Johnson, J. A., & Lopes, J. (2008). The Intergenerational Workforce, Revisited. *Organization

Development Journal, 26*(1).

Kahn, R. L. (1973). Conflict, Ambiguity, and Overload: Three Elements in Job Stress.

Occupational Mental Health.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). Organizational

stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (Vol. 2): Wiley New

York.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*: Guilford publications.

Klotz, A. C., & Bolino, M. C. (2013). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: A moral licensing view. *Academy of Management review, 38*(2), 292-306.

Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2000). Multigeneration employees: strategies for effective management. *The health care manager, 19*(1), 65&hyhen.

Lancaster, L. C., & Stillman, D. (2002). *When generations collide: Who they are, why they clash, how to solve the generational puzzle at work*: HarperCollins New York.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*: Springer publishing company.

Lee, S., Yun, S., & Srivastava, A. (2013). Evidence for a curvilinear relationship between abusive supervision and creativity in South Korea. *The Leadership Quarterly, 24*(5), 724-731.

Lev, B. (2004). Sharpening the intangibles edge. *Harvard business review, 6*, 109-116.

Leyden, P., Teixeira, R., & Greenberg, E. (2007). The progressive politics of the millennial generation. *New Politics Institute. http://www. newpolitics. net/node/360*.

Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of management journal, 55*(5), 1187-1212.

Lu, A. C. C., & Gursoy, D. (2016). Impact of job burnout on satisfaction and turnover intention: do generational differences matter? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 40*(2), 210-235.

MacKinnon, D. P., Coxe, S., & Baraldi, A. N. (2012). Guidelines for the investigation of mediating variables in business research. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 27*(1), 1-14.

Mannheim, K. (1953). American sociology. *Essays on Sociology and Social Psychology, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London*.

Maume Jr, D. J., & Bellas, M. L. (2001). The overworked American or the time bind? Assessing competing explanations for time spent in paid labor. *American Behavioral Scientist, 44*(7), 1137-1156.

McCarthy, J. M., Trougakos, J. P., & Cheng, B. H. (2016). Are anxious workers less productive workers? It depends on the quality of social exchange. *Journal of applied psychology, 101*(2), 279.

McGill, M. E. (1980). *The 40-to 60-year-old Male: A Guide for Men--and the Women in Their Lives--to See Them Through the Crises of the Male Middle Years*: Simon & Schuster.

Miller, D. T., & Effron, D. A. (2010). Psychological license: When it is needed and how it functions *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 43, pp. 115-155): Elsevier.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? *Academy of management journal, 41*(3), 351-357.

Mueller, J. S., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Why seeking help from teammates is a blessing and a curse: a theory of help seeking and individual creativity in team contexts. *Journal of applied psychology, 96*(2), 263.

Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I. (1978). Psychometric Theory, New York, NY: McGrawHill: Inc.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*: Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel psychology, 48*(4), 775-802.

Park, J., & Gursoy, D. (2012). Generation effects on work engagement among US hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(4), 1195-1202.

Petersitzke, M. (2009). Supervisor psychological contract management *Supervisor psychological contract management* (pp. 131-142): Springer.

Pfeffer, J. (2013). Wouldn't it be nice if it weren't always about—and only about—the money? Bloomberg Businessweek, Retrieved from http://www.businessweek.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 94*(1), 122.

Rastogi, A., Pati, S. P., Krishnan, T., & Krishnan, S. (2018). Causes, contingencies, and consequences of disengagement at work: an integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review, 17*(1), 62-94.

Reisenwitz, T. H., & Iyer, R. (2009). DIFFERENCES IN GENERATION X AND GENERATION Y: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION AND MARKETERS. *Marketing Management Journal, 19*(2).

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative science quarterly*, 150-163.

Russo, M., Guo, L., & Baruch, Y. (2014). Work attitudes, career success and health: Evidence from China. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 84*(3), 248-258.

Sackett, P., & DeVore, C. (2001). Counterproductive behaviors at work Dalam N. Anderson, DS Ones, HK Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial, Work, & Organizational Psychology Volume 1: Personnel Psychology (hal. 145-164): London, UK: Sage Publications.

Salahuddin, M. M. (2010). Generational differences impact on leadership style and organizational success. *Journal of Diversity Management, 5*(2), 1.

Schaubroeck, J., Cotton, J. L., & Jennings, K. R. (1989). Antecedents and consequences of role stress: A covariance structure analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 10*(1), 35-58.

Shaw, J. D., Delery, J. E., Jenkins Jr, G. D., & Gupta, N. (1998). An organization-level analysis of voluntary and involuntary turnover. *Academy of Management journal, 41*(5), 511-525.

Shragay, D., & Tziner, A. (2011). The generational effect on the relationship between job involvement, work satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones, 27*(2).

Simons, N. (2010). Leveraging generational work styles to meet business objectives. *Information Management, 44*(1), 28.

Slocum, J. W., & Cron, W. L. (1985). Job attitudes and performance during three career stages. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 26*(2), 126-145.

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of applied psychology, 68*(4), 653.

Sonnentag, S., Unger, D., & Nägel, I. J. (2013). Workplace conflict and employee well-being. *International Journal of Conflict Management*.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: truth or urban legend? *Organizational research methods, 9*(2), 221-232.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 269-292.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2010). Theorizing about the deviant citizen: An attributional explanation of the interplay of organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(2), 132-143.

Sternberg, R. J., & Lubart, T. I. (1999). The concept of creativity: Prospects and paradigms. *Handbook of creativity, 1*, 3-15.

Straub, D., Boudreau, M.-C., & Gefen, D. (2004). Validation guidelines for IS positivist research. *Communications of the Association for Information systems, 13*(1), 24.

Super, D. E. (1957). The psychology of careers; an introduction to vocational development.

Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of vocational behavior, 16*(3), 282-298.

Thibaut, J. W. (2017). *The social psychology of groups*: Routledge.

Thomas, C. H., & Lankau, M. J. (2009). Preventing burnout: The effects of LMX and mentoring on socialization, role stress, and burnout. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management, 48*(3), 417-432.

Twenge, J. M. (2010). A review of the empirical evidence on generational differences in work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 201-210.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 21*(3), 377-405.

VIGODA-GADOT, E. (2006). Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 36*(1), 77-93.

Vilela, B. B., González, J. A. V., & Ferrín, P. F. (2008). Person–organization fit, OCB and performance appraisal: Evidence from matched supervisor–salesperson data set in a Spanish context. *Industrial Marketing Management, 37*(8), 1005-1019.

Vincent, L. C., & Kouchaki, M. (2016). Creative, rare, entitled, and dishonest: How commonality of creativity in one's group decreases an individual's entitlement and dishonesty. *Academy of management journal, 59*(4), 1451-1473.

Wang, G., Oh, I.-S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & Organization Management, 36*(2), 223-270.

Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of management journal, 48*(3), 420-432.

Weil, N. (2008). Welcome to the generation wars: As boomer bosses relinquish the reins of leadership to generation X both are worrying about generation Y. *C10, 21*(8).

Welbourne, T. M., Johnson, D. E., & Erez, A. (1998). The role-based performance scale: Validity analysis of a theory-based measure. *Academy of Management journal, 41*(5), 540-555.

Werner, J. M. (2000). Implications of OCB and contextual performance for human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review, 10*(1), 3-24.

West, M. A., & Farr, J. L. (1990). lnnovation and creativity at work: Psychological and Organizational Strategjes. *NY: John Wiley & Sons*, 265-267.

Wey Smola, K., & Sutton, C. D. (2002). Generational differences: Revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(4), 363-382.

Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of applied psychology, 93*(1), 125.

Xie, J. L., & Johns, G. (1995). Job scope and stress: Can job scope be too high? *Academy of Management journal, 38*(5), 1288-1309.

Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2017). From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance. *Academy of Management journal, 60*(1), 373-396.

Yuan, F., & Woodman, R. W. (2010). Innovative behavior in the workplace: The role of performance and image outcome expectations. *Academy of management journal, 53*(2), 323-342.

Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Chen, H.-K. (2014). Compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: The role of organizational identification and perceived interactional justice. *The Journal of psychology, 148*(2), 177-196.

Zhou, J., & George, J. M. (2001). When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management journal, 44*(4), 682-696.

TABLES

Table 3.1: Constructs and measurement items.

	Loadings	t-Values
Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (α = .90; CR = 0.90; AVE = 0.64)		
The management in this organization puts pressure on employees to engage in extra-role work activities beyond their formal job tasks.	0.85	15.13***
There is social pressure in this organization to work extra hours, beyond the formal workload and without any formal rewards.	0.84	14.83***
I feel that I am expected to invest more effort in this job than I want to and beyond my formal job requirements.	0.75	12.95***
I feel that I am forced to help other employees beyond my formal obligations and even when I am short on time or energy.	0.76	13.18***
I feel that I am forced to assist my supervisor against my will and beyond my formal job obligations.	0.79a	
Role Overload (α = .93; CR = 0.92; AVE = 0.80)		
The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.	0.87	22.74
I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.	0.88	22.09
It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	0.94a	
Service-oriented OCB (α = .95; CR = 0.94; AVE = 0.50)		
Tells outsiders this is a good place to work.	0.76a	
Says good things about organization to others.	0.82	16.51***
Generates favorable goodwill for the company.	0.84	14.65***
Encourages friends and family to use the firm's products and services.	0.60	9.96***
Actively promotes the firm's products and services.	0.83	14.41***
Follows customer-service guidelines with extreme care.	0.82	14.33***
Conscientiously follows guidelines for customer promotions.	0.86	15.13***
Follows up in a timely manner to customer requests and problems.	0.83	14.51***
Performs duties with unusually few mistakes.	0.75	12.90***
Always has a positive attitude at work.	0.76	12.95***
Regardless of circumstances, exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers.	0.63	10.56***
Encourages co-workers to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement.	0.57	9.43***
Contributes many ideas for customer promotions and communications.	0.60	10.03***
Makes constructive suggestions for service improvement.	0.62	10.34***
Frequently presents to others creative solutions to customer problems.	0.63	10.43***
Takes home brochures to read up on products and services.	0.56	9.29***
Creativity (α = .93; CR = 0.92; AVE = 0.49)		
Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives.	0.75	9.47***
Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.	0.76	9.51***
Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.	0.69	8.91***
Suggests new ways to increase quality.	0.67	8.84***
Is a good source of creative ideas.	0.73	9.41***
Is not afraid to take risks.	0.76	9.58***
Promotes and champions ideas to others.	0.74	9.38***
Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to.	0.74	9.38***
Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	0.68	8.77***
Often has new and innovative ideas.	0.63	8.29***
Comes up with creative solutions to problems.	0.69	8.91***
Often has a fresh approach to problems.	0.65	8.53***
Suggests new ways of performing work tasks.	0.59a	

a Initial loading was fixed to 1 to set the scale of the construct.

α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. *** $p < .001$

Table 3.2. Correlations and descriptive statistics.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior							
2. Role Overload	.74**						
3. Service Oriented-OCB	-.66**	-.61**					
4. Creativity	-.35**	-.47**	.50**				
5. Gender (1 = female)	-.15*	-.02	.03	-.04			
6. Qualification (1 = masters)	.14*	-.11	-.12*	.23**	-.09		
7.Designation (1 = Management)	.09	.10	.05	-.09	.06	-.28*	
Mean	3.78	3.80	2.98	2.77			
SD	.83	1.14	.75	.70			

Notes: n = 265.
* $p < .05$;
** $p < .01$.

Table 3.3: Standardized Structural Estimates from Structural Equation Modeling.

Path	Standardized Coefficients	t-Values
Total Effects		
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Role Overload	0.76	
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Service-Oriented OCB	-0.66	
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Creativity	-0.37	
Direct Effects		
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Role Overload	0.76	19.66***
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Service-Oriented OCB	-0.44	-6.69***
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Creativity	-0.02	-.22
Role-Overload → Service-Oriented OCB	-0.29	-4.31***
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Creativity	-0.46	-5.61
Gender → Role Overload	0.08	2.09
Qualification → Role Overload	-0.21	-5.49***
Indirect Effects		
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Role Overload → Service-Oriented OCB	-0.22	
Compulsory citizenship behavior → Role Overload → Creativity	-0.35	

Table 3.4: SResults of the Moderation Hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3.3a: Service-Oriented OCB   Hypothesis 3.3b: Creativity

	Coefficient	BC 95% CI		p-value	Coefficient	BC 95% CI		p-value
		Lower	Upper			Lower	Upper	
Role overload (A)	-0.54	-0.60	-0.47	.000				
Generation (B)	.85	0.75	0.95	.000				
Interaction AxB	.33	0.22	0.43	.000				
Conditional effect of role overload in groups defined by generation								
1 (Millennials)	-0.54	-0.60	-0.47	.000				
2 (Non-Millennials)	-0.21	-0.30	-0.13	.000				
Role overload (A)					-0.32	-0.36	-0.28	.000
Generation (B)					0.55	0.42	0.67	.000
Interaction AxB					0.17	0.08	0.26	.000
Conditional effect of role overload in groups defined by generation								
1 (Millennials)					-0.32	-0.36	-0.28	.000
2 (Non-Millennials)					-0.15	-0.23	-0.08	.001

FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Model
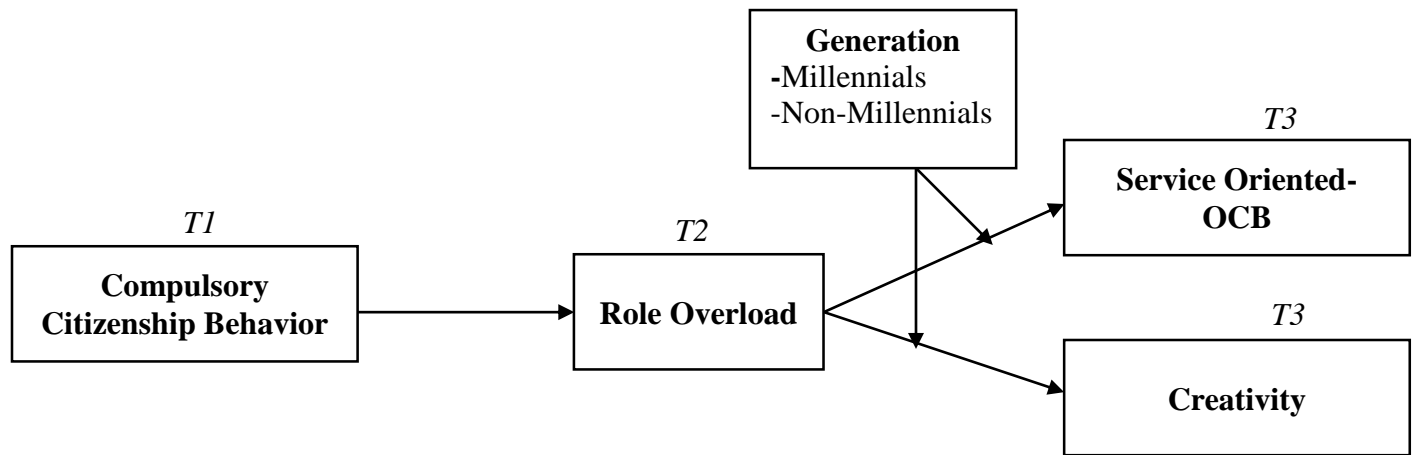
Figure 3.2. Moderating effect of generation on a relationship between role overload and service-oriented OCB.
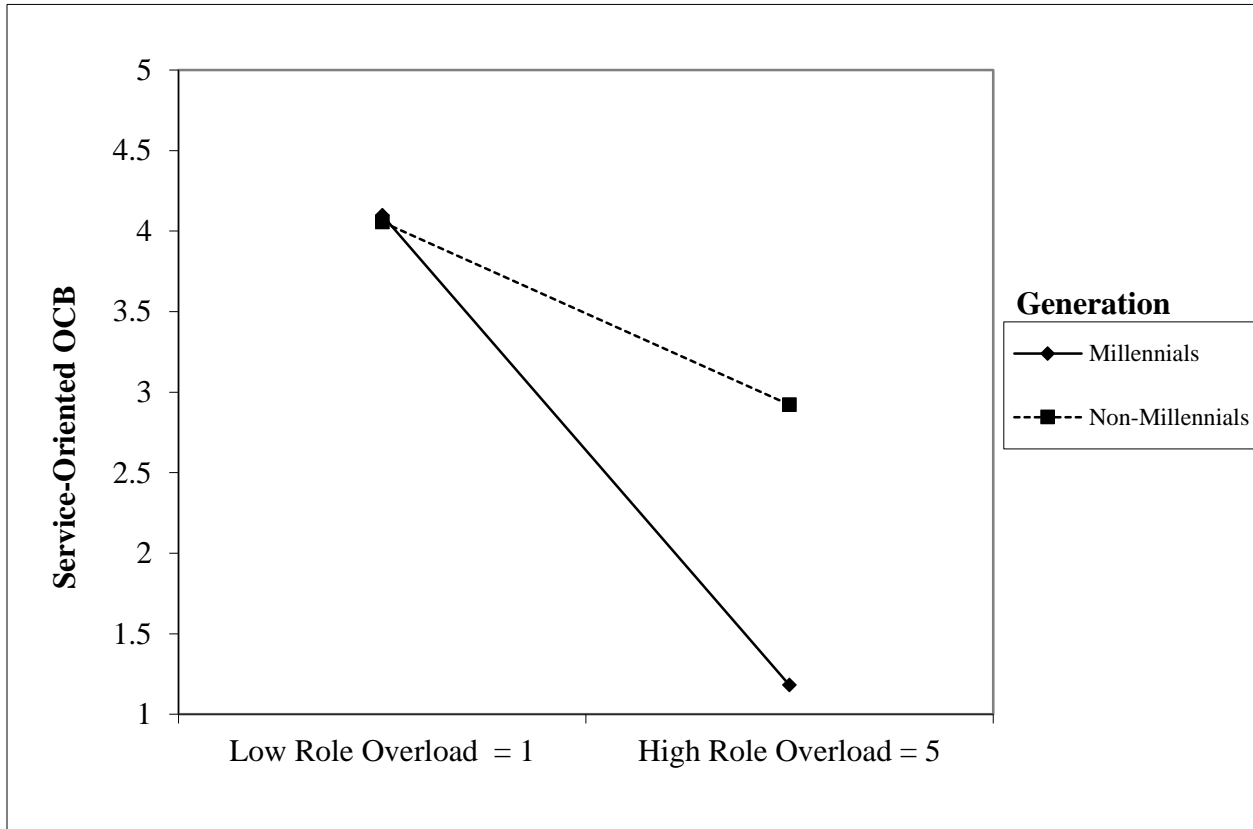
Figure 3.3. Moderating effect of generation on a relationship between role overload and creativity.
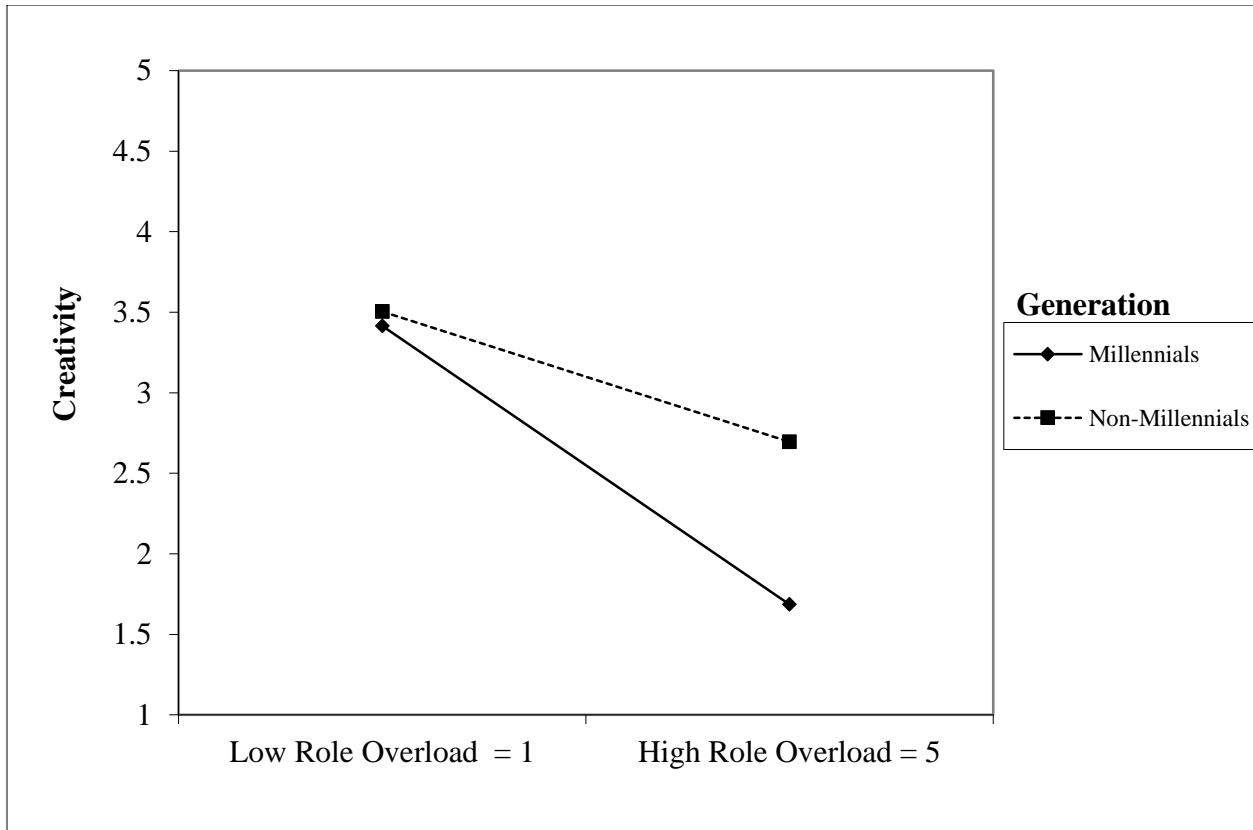
Chapter 4

Good Deeds for Bad Motives:

Explaining Relationship Conflicts by Impression Management Motives and Individual Initiative

Abstract

This study relies on moral licensing theory to propose a model explaining relationship conflicts through mediating and moderating variables. We suggest that psychological entitlement mediates the relationship between individual initiatives and relationship conflicts. We also argue that impression management motives moderate this mediating effect. Based on the self-representation theory, we suggest that the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement becomes stronger when employees take individual initiatives with an intention of engaging in a successful impression management motive. Results of a SmartPLS-SEM analysis from multisource, time-lagged data about employees and their supervisors reveal interesting direct and indirect relationships. The findings of a mediated moderation analysis suggest different strengths of the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement and relationship conflicts at lower and higher levels of impression management motives. Other interesting implications of our study are discussed.

Keywords: Individual Initiative, Psychological Entitlement, Relationship Conflict, Impression Management Motives.

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Relationship conflict, the realization of interactive dissimilarities among employees, involves emotional elements such as anxiety and resistance, personal disputes such as hostility amongst colleagues at work, and emotions like anger, dissatisfaction and impatience (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Considering the importance of their individual initiatives, psychologically entitled employees expect more tolerance for their mistakes and have less tolerance for the mistakes of others because of their superiority complex feelings. On the other hand, supervisors exhibit lesser tolerance for and more anger at the self-serving impression management maneuvers of so-called voluntary behaviors (Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010) and rate such organizational citizenship behaviors negatively (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). Supervisors do so because they react to citizenship behavior either with indignation or gladness by observing them and accredit such behaviors based on their motives (Halbesleben et al., 2010).

This study proposes a model that examines relationship conflicts as a potential outcome of individuals' initiatives, psychological entitlement, and impression management motives. We expect that the impression management motives of individual initiatives may enhance employees' psychological entitlement. At the same time, they may diminish their respect amongst coworkers. Eventually, those who engage in such activities might become angry, troublesome workers who have more relationship conflicts at work.

To explore these relationships, the study builds on several theoretical pillars such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Organ, 1988), the moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010) and self-presentation theory (Baumeister, 1982). We maintain that when employees engage in citizenship behavior (i.e. individual initiative) with the self-serving purpose

of presenting themselves as good soldiers (Bolino, 1999; Bourdage, Wiltshire, & Lee, 2015), a relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement is likely to develop. Studies have discussed impression management motives as an antecedent of OCB (Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Thus, we maintain that impression management motives strengthen the positive correlation between individual initiative and employees' psychological entitlement, resulting in relationship conflicts.

Our study extends the work of Klotz and Bolino (2013) and Yam, Klotz, He, and Reynolds (2017) who suggest that, after engaging in externally motivated citizenship behavior, employees feel psychologically entitled. Although several studies have discussed the negative consequences of involuntary citizenship behavior in the workplace (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Zhao, Peng, & Chen, 2014), no empirical analysis has explored the causal link between individual initiative and relationship conflicts using the concept of psychological entitlement. Notably, we reveal how a good looking behavior works as an antecedent of one of the most deteriorating phenomena for both employees and organizations. Moreover, we specifically reveal the role of impression management motives in individual initiative and psychological entitlement nexus that provides avenues of research for scholars and elevate the understanding of practitioners regarding bad motives of employees hidden in good deeds.

4.2. LITERATURE REVIEW, MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Background and Theory

Good deeds are reflected in organizational citizenship behavior. This area has been a rich field for studies since Organ (1988) introduced it using the metaphor of the good soldier (e.g. LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, &

Blume, 2009). However, the motives for employees' engaging in organizational citizenship behavior are also important because there is a distinction between good soldiers, who help their organization and coworkers, and good actors, who help themselves (e.g. Bolino, 1999; Donia, Johns, & Raja, 2016; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Individual initiative is a type of citizenship behavior. Good soldiers engage in such voluntary behavior by coming to work earlier, staying later, and volunteering to work on special projects (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Nevertheless, employees regularly engage in citizenship behaviors because of informal demands (Morrison, 1994; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), expected rewards (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991), or the desire to improve their popularity with colleagues and supervisors (Bolino, 1999; Yam et al., 2017). Rioux and Penner (2001) differentiated between selfless motives behind such behavior, which have a positive correlation with organizational commitment (Rioux & Penner, 2001) and leader-member exchanges (Bowler, Halbesleben, & Paul, 2010), and selfish motives that are negatively associated with dark personality traits (Becker & Dan O'Hair, 2007). Conversely, self-serving motives such as attempts at impression management motives positively correlate with dark personality traits (Becker & Dan O'Hair, 2007) and are negatively associated with leader-member exchanges (Bowler et al., 2010).

Moreover, some citizenship motives arouse employees' sense of psychological entitlement (Yam et al., 2017), defined as "the compensation expected as a result of an individual's participation in an employment relationship" (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002, p. 150; Yam et al., 2017). According to Naumann et al. (2002) psychological entitlement does not necessarily depend on quantitatively equal exchanges. Therefore, perceptions about entitlement might also result in a notion of trade-offs (Naumann et al., 2002). For instance, a psychologically entitled person might refuse a request to contribute to charity because he or she

had previously made such a contribution. Thus, psychologically entitled employees demand more rewards because of their extra-role performance (Yam et al., 2017). However, similar behavior does not imply similar motives (Donia et al., 2016). In addition, those who exhibit individual initiative with the goal of impression management may come to feel more psychologically entitled. Such individuals usually have more conflicts at work because, according to Donia et al. (2016), coworkers and supervisors do not respect individual initiative motivated by impression management goals.

Other theoretical foundations for our model and arguments can be found within the moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010) and self-presentation theory (Baumeister, 1982). The moral licensing theory maintains that people with moral orientations and actions may also exhibit problematic immoral behaviors in the future (Merritt, Effron, & Monin, 2010). When employees engage in any type of citizenship behavior as an individual initiative, they expect their colleagues to have more tolerance for their future mistakes. For example, someone who stays late at work to meet a deadline for an ongoing project might consider it acceptable to come into work late the next day. The idea is that a previously performed good action provides one with a license for bad behavior in the future. The failure to obtain the expected acceptance of one's immoral actions makes this employee angry with his or her colleagues. According to Miller and Effron (2010), people refrain from engaging in immoral behaviors and expressing such attitudes because they do not want others to lose respect for them. For instance, to avoid being viewed as egotistical, employees may refrain from demonstrating any kind of psychological entitlement.

However, when people make a link between their current behavior and past conduct, they may feel that their image does not depend solely upon their current actions. Rather, people view

their current behavior in the context of their past behaviors. Hence, they may feel comfortable expressing dubious thoughts (Miller & Effron, 2010) based on the belief that their past good behavior entitles them to engage in bad behavior currently. The literature provides strong support for the moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010; Monin & Miller, 2001). Studies have confirmed these arguments by demonstrating that the current conduct of a person is viewed in the context of previous behavior, such that previous moral actions permit people to engage in future immoral conduct. The idea of moral licensing is to balance one's current image, which determines one's future actions (Blanken, van de Ven, & Zeelenberg, 2015). For instance, employees who engage in citizenship behavior may become involved in relationship conflicts because of a stronger sense of moral licensing. On the other hand, employees who are involved in relationship conflicts might be more eager to engage in citizenship behavior to balance their past actions and regain their image as a good soldier. Similarly, Mazar and Zhong (2010) reported that people start lying or cheating after demonstrating moral behaviors in the past. Additionally, people demand moral licensing based on their imagined good behavior instead of their true moral behavior (Khan & Dhar, 2007; Yam et al., 2017). According to Yam et al. (2017), researchers have established empirical links between moral licensing and psychological entitlement. Zhong, Liljenquist, and Cain (2009) argued that moral licensing generates a sense of moral carelessness when employees take part in good work. According to Merritt et al. (2010), individuals feel entitled to transgress when they engage in virtuous behavior. Likewise, Sachdeva, Iliev, and Medin (2009) affirmed that a sense of moral licensing encourages employees to feel entitled to and ask for more rewards than their actual performance might warrant. Several scholars have asserted that good deeds, such as citizenship behavior might create a sense of moral licensing in employees that is similar to the concept of psychological

enticement (Merritt et al., 2010; Miller & Effron, 2010; Polman, Pettit, & Wiesenfeld, 2013; Yam et al., 2017). Thus, entitlement is frequently associated with negative consequences (Yam et al., 2017). For instance, entitled employees feel that their own needs should take priority over the organization's needs. It is this sense of selfishness that motivates them to engage in self-serving tasks (Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

Model and Hypotheses

Insert Figure 4.1 about here

Our model, illustrated in Figure 4.1, extends these arguments by proposing that the psychological entitlement resulting from individual initiatives contributes to relationship conflicts amongst employees at work for several reasons. First, we argue that relationship conflicts occur when members of a group feel hostile toward each other and express anger at, dissatisfaction with and a lack of respect to group fellows (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). In interactive terms, entitled employees often engage in selfish behaviors (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010) and exhibit rudeness and lack of respect to their fellows (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004). Logically, both of these behaviors make relationship conflicts at work more likely. Additionally, those who take on extra tasks voluntarily may feel more anxious and stressed (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). With their sense of psychological entitlement, these stressed employees may have more relationship conflicts with co-workers. Moreover, maintaining the image of a good soldier through impression management techniques including citizenship behavior is very draining. As a result, these employees have little energy left to invest in their home life, resulting in work-life conflicts (Bolino et al., 2010) and work-family conflicts (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). For example, while interacting with their colleagues, these employees

find it difficult to cope with the stress of the extra work and other feelings of discomfort (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015). Therefore, after performing extra tasks as good soldiers, psychologically entitled employees think they deserve exclusive treatment at work. Their sense of superiority prompts them to expect that others will tolerate their immoral behavior because of their past moral conduct. They may also demand extra rewards because they feel that the success of the organization depends mainly on their extra efforts. In line with these arguments, some research maintains that psychological entitlement mediates the impact of individual initiative on relationship conflicts at work. Hence, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4.1a: *Individual initiative has a positive relationship with psychological entitlement.*

Hypothesis 4.1b: *Psychological entitlement mediates the positive relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflicts.*

Based on the self-presentation theory, we also expect impression management motives to have a moderating effect on relationship conflicts. Self-presentation theory discusses two motives for self-presentation (Baumeister, 1982). Pleasing the audience covers people's self-presentation designed to meet the expectations and preferences of their audience. Self-construction refers to people's desire to meet their own vision of their ideal self. Our study depends upon the self-construction aspect of self-presentation where employees voluntarily engage in behavior to improve the acceptance of their future wrongdoings. Impression management motives are generally associated with self-presentation in which people attempt to manipulate the interpretations of their image. People create an image of themselves and try to portray themselves accordingly (Kacmar, Delery, & Ferris, 1992; Schlenker, 1980). The impression management motives of citizenship behavior indicate employees' desire to highlight

their positive personality or to avoid their negative image at work (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Employees engage in citizenship behavior as an impression management technique to achieve one of these goals (Bolino, 1999). For instance, they may come to work early or stay late to prove their dedication or to establish that their colleagues who cannot do so are less dedicated (Bolino, 1999). Citizenship behavior can be proactive in nature, with employees deciding to engage in such behaviors to satisfy certain needs or achieve certain goals (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Likewise, citizenship behavior might also be preemptive in nature, designed to thwart future criticism because of their wrongdoing. Similarly, previous research has established a relationship between externally motivated citizenship behavior and subsequent deviant behavior (Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005; Spector & Fox, 2010; Yam et al., 2017). Unlike other kinds of pro-social actions such as helping a family member, there is no strong sense of personal or social obligation to engage in citizenship behavior (Donia et al., 2016).

The self-construction aspect of the self-presentation theory motivates employees to recall their good actions instead of their good traits. According to Conway and Peetz (2012), recalling a moral action reminds one that the purpose of that action has already been accomplished. Recollection of this positive deed can awaken a sense of license for engaging in immoral behavior. Consequently, self-interest becomes more important. In contrast, recalling a moral trait triggers the idea of morality. Thus, it stimulates a sense of engaging in moral behaviors consistently (Conway & Peetz, 2012) and underscores moral norms, such as taking more individual initiative to help colleagues. Subsequently, people's impression management motives may strengthen the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement because such motives prompt employees to recall their moral actions instead of their moral traits.

In contrast, employees who are not motivated by a desire to impress others may feel less psychological entitlement after engaging in an individual initiative.

For instance, according to Salamon and Deutsch (2006), some employees might feel that proof of good citizenship might save them from future punishment for their mistakes. This sense of being a good citizen is more likely to emerge among employees who take individual initiatives with impression management motives. For instance, employees engage in citizenship behavior for internal or external reasons (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Pure enjoyment of a task, helping others, and making an extra contribution to an organization's success are examples of intrinsic motivations. In contrast, performing such extra duties for personal, ulterior motives alters the purely altruistic nature of citizenship behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Yam et al., 2017). On the other hand, according to Gagné and Deci (2005), external factors such as fulfilling organizational demands or responding to pressure from one's manager might result in organizational citizenship behavior (Yam et al., 2017). Therefore, research has confirmed that when employees engage in citizenship behavior, negative consequences may also emerge (Yam et al., 2017). Any type of citizenship behavior may instill a sense of psychological entitlement in employees because they believe that their extra effort is vital to the organization's success. Moreover, such feelings may be stronger among employees who take on individual initiatives with impression management motives in mind than among those who do not have such motives.

Naumann et al. (2002, p. 150), defined psychological entitlement as "the compensation expected as a result of an individual's participation in an employment relationship." When employees feel psychologically entitled, they seek benefits and favors without actually deserving them (Naumann et al., 2002). According to Snow, Kern, and Curlette (2001), psychologically

entitled employees demand exclusive rights and treatment at work. Psychological entitlement results if individuals believe that their organization values them less than their contributions are worth. Thus, citizenship performance increases employees' psychological entitlement because they do not receive enough reward for their voluntary behaviors (Yam et al., 2017). Furthermore, impression management motives prompts them to undertake the individual initiatives that can ultimately result in psychological entitlement. Empirical studies have validated that workers sometimes act like good soldiers not because they want to (Bolino et al., 2013; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007), but because they think it is compulsory (Bolino, 1999; Organ et al., 2005). Therefore, when employees take the initiative, they experience a sense of psychological entitlement that is greater for those who do so with impression management motives. Thus, we posit that:

Hypothesis 4.2: *Impression management motives moderate the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement, such that the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement becomes stronger when impression management motives are high, and weaker when impression management motives are low.*

4.3. METHOD

4.3.1. Measures

Individual Initiative. We used Bolino and Turnley's (2005) individual initiative scale to measure supervisors' ratings of individual initiative. The supervisors rated their subordinates on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly disagree).

Impression Management Motives. Rioux and Penner (2001) developed a 30 items scale to measure different motives of citizenship behaviors. We used 10 items from scale of Rioux and

Penner (2001) to measure the self-reported impression management motives of employees' citizenship behavior. Selected items described impression management motives of citizenship behavior. For instance, "To look better than my coworkers.''

Psychological Entitlement. We measured this variable with the 9-item psychological entitlement scale of Campbell et al. (2004). Sample items include, "I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others," "People like me deserve an extra break now and then," and "I feel entitled to more of everything."

Relationship Conflict. We used four items from Jehn's (1995; 2001) supervisor rating scale to measure relationship conflict. The participants responded to the items on a 5-point Likert scale (1=none, 5=a lot).

Control variables. Age, education, experience, and gender potentially affect ethical decision making (Collins, 2000; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). However, only age and gender revealed a significant correlation with endogenous variables yielded changes in the structural model. Hence, based on previous studies (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016; Petersitzke, 2009; Ruiz-Palomino, Bañón-Gomis, & Linuesa-Langreo, 2019; Spector & Brannick, 2011), we excluded non-significant control variables from our main analysis.

4.3.2. Sample and Procedure

We collected our data from employees and their supervisors in government and private organizations in an Asian culture. We designed a three-wave data collection procedure with a three-week interval between each wave, which helped minimize concerns about recall biases and the chances of major organizational changes. We distributed our surveys in English amongst employees of all departments in the banking sector, educational institutions, IT firms, textile units, and government departments. This diverse sample enhances the generalizability of our

findings. A cover letter assuring anonymity was attached to each questionnaire. Some of the study's variables (e.g., individual initiative, relationship conflict) showed discrepancies in different organizations. To deal with this issue, we collected data from numerous public and private organizations. To minimize process preferences, we also gathered data from free sources. We used supervisors' ratings to assess the independent variable of individual initiative and the dependent variable of relationship conflict. All other variables (i.e., impression management motives, psychological entitlement) were self-reported. Questionnaires were filled out with on-site supervision.

At time 1 (T1) we approached employees to report self-rated impression management motives and requested supervisors to rate the individual initiative of their subordinates. At time 2 (T2) employees were asked to report psychological entitlement. Finally, at time 3 (T3) we requested the supervisors to rate the relationship conflicts of their subordinates. This practice reduced the burden of the supervisors because they had to fill a small questionnaire each time. Moreover, at T3 they had to rate only those subordinates who successfully filled out the T1 and T2 questionnaires. This approach enhanced the quality of the data and responses from the supervisors.

Total 282 participants and their immediate supervisors filled the surveys in three time lags. Individual initiative. Each time lag comprised of 3 weeks. Out of initially distributed 390 questionnaires in the first phase, we received 323 completed surveys. In the second phase, the number of complete surveys declined to 292. After the third phase, we received 283 complete surveys, the highest response rate of all of the three phases. We omitted only one survey because of more than five missing values for individual initiative. Thus, the response rate was good at

69% with 282 complete questionnaires. Of the participants, 71% were male and almost 66% had a university education. Table 4.1 lists the detailed characteristics of all of the respondents.

Insert Table 4.1 about here

4.3.3. Data Analysis

We analyzed our data using structural equation modeling with partial least squares (PLS-SEM) in the latest release of SmartPLS 3. The PLS path model measures the reliability (Cronbach's alpha, rho-A, composite reliability and validity (convergent and discriminant)) of the measurement model. It also evaluates the structural model as appropriate for testing the hypotheses. According to Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2016), SmartPLS is useful for a small sample (n=242) and complex models (include both mediation and moderation). We also used the PROCESS macro to conduct a moderation analysis (Hayes, 2012, 2017). This approach is popular for analyzing moderated mediation models (Tresi & Mihelič, 2018; Wang, Bowling, Tian, Alarcon, & Kwan, 2018).

4.4. Findings

4.4.1. Measurement Model

Insert Table 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 about here

Measurement models of the current study are reflective in nature. Reliability and validity assessments of the reflective model reveal that it is comprehensive (Hair Jr et al., 2016). Factor

loadings values and AVE values (≤ 0.50) confirm the convergent validity of our study's scales. Table 4.2 reports the internal consistency, indicating acceptable values of Cronbach's α, composite reliability (i.e. above 0.70) (Koay, 2018; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), factor loadings (CFA) and AVEs. Discriminant validity explains the degree of difference between two different constructs. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the square root of any construct's AVE value should be greater than the inter-construct correlation value (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Mooi, 2010). Table 4.3 reports the square root of each construct's AVE value. It also provides a correlation matrix that confirms the discriminant validity. However, Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) criticized this approach and recommended a novel heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio for measuring discriminant validity. According to this novel approach, the HTMT value of each construct should not be more than 0.85 (Kline, 2015). Table 4.4 shows that the HTMT ratio of each construct does not exceed the cut-off limit of 0.85.

4.4.2. Structural Model

After confirming the measurement model, we used various tests on the structural model. We performed consistent PLS bootstrapping (because of the reflective nature of all constructs) with a resample of 5000 to report (β) and related t-values, the coefficient of determination (R^2) and the predictive relevance (Q^2). We calculated two indicators of model fit: the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and normed fit model (NFI). The SRMR value of 0.78 is below the cut-off of 0.08 and the NFI value of 0.89 almost meet the cut-off of 0.90, indicating the goodness of model fit.

Individual initiative has a significant and positive relationship with psychological entitlement ($\beta=0.42$, $p< 0.01$), supporting H1a. The relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict is significant but negative ($\beta=-0.39$, $p<0.01$). Additionally, individual

initiative results in a 32% positive change in psychological entitlement (R^2=.32), while individual initiative, via psychological entitlement, explains 66% of the variance in relationship conflict (R^2=.66). These (R^2) values confirm the significance of the model (Cohen 1988, p. 12). In the next step, we followed Chin, Peterson, and Brown (2008) and used the blindfolding method in SmartPLS to calculate predictive relevance (Q^2). The (Q^2) values of both of our endogenous variables (psychological entitlement = 0.20) and (relationship conflict = 0.54) confirm substantial predictive relevance because (Q^2 >0) indicates the predictive relevance of a model. Table 4.6 lists the statistics of the structural model.

4.4.3. Mediation Analysis

Table 4.6 reports the findings of the PLS-SEM. The results of the structural model indicate a significant relationship in all stages of the mediation test. In the first stage we calculated the direct impact of individual initiative on psychological entitlement (β (a) = .42, t=7.87, p<.01). Next, we calculated the direct impact of individual initiative on relationship conflict by controlling psychological entitlement (β (c′) = -.0.39, t=8.72, p<.01). Then we calculated the direct impact of psychological entitlement on relationship conflict (β (b) = .62, t=15.28, p<.001). In the next stage, we calculated the indirect impact of individual initiative on relationship conflict with the mediating role of psychological entitlement (β = .26, t=5.80, p<.01).   Results indicate a significant relationship in all stages of the mediation test. Furthermore, Kappa square value of the indirect effect (κ^2 = 0.189) affirms significant mediation with medium range magnitude of mediation. Thus hypothesis H4.1b is accepted.

```
-----------------------------------
Insert Table 4.6 about here
-----------------------------------
```

4.4.4. Mediated Moderation Analysis

After conducting the moderation analysis in SmartPLS, we examined the mediated moderation hypothesis posited in H4.2. To do so, we used the PROCESS macro to calculate the confidence interval. We adopted this approach based on the recommendation of Ledgerwood and Shrout (2011) who argued that there was a greater probability of more standard errors in a latent variable centered method. On the other hand, using a combination of indicators in the PROCESS macro resolves problems of complex nonlinearities and associated estimations because of the calculation of every term of the items, loading on interacting latent variables (Lattin, Carroll, and Green 2003; Marsh et al. 2013). In the PROCESS macro, the relevance of the confidence interval is determined on three levels of the moderator: (1) one SD below the mean, (2) at the mean, and (3) one SD above the mean (Hayes, 2013). Therefore, we calculated the conditional relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement and the relationship between psychological entitlement and relationship conflict in the presence of impression management motives. Calculating the conditional indirect relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict via psychological entitlement at different levels of impression management motives is necessary to test H2 in depth. The outcomes of the mediated moderation analysis reveal that the strength of the relationship (unstandardized effect) increases from .58 at (-1 SD) to .96 at the mean, and to 1.37 at (+1 SD). We also measured the index of moderated mediation to verify the presence of moderated mediation (Hayes 2015) and ensure that the confidence interval does not contain 0 [*.189, .566*]. Table 4.7 shows the findings of the moderated mediation analysis. These findings confirm that impression management motives exacerbate the indirect positive relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict, supporting H2. Similarly, the results in Table 4.7 indicate that an increase in impression management motives

strengthen the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement ($\beta=.35$, $t=3.78$, $p<.001$).

Insert Table 4.7 about here

Lastly, we plotted the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement at various levels of impression management motives using MS Excel. As the results in Figure 4.2 demonstrate, the highest level of psychological entitlement occurs when those who engage in a great deal of impression management motives also engage in extensive individual initiative. For those who do not engage in a great deal of impression management motives, this relationship is far weaker.

Insert Figure 4.2 about here

4.5   DISCUSSION

Although some researchers have reported a negative impact of enforced or compulsory citizenship behavior (for example see Yam et al., 2017), no study, to our knowledge, has discussed the relationship between employees' good behavior (i.e. individual initiative) and negative outcomes such as relationship conflicts. Therefore, our goal was to prove an in-depth understanding of the ostensibly good deed of individual initiative, which is the least explored category of citizenship behavior. Relying on the moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010), we developed a theoretical model reflecting both a direct, positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement, and an indirect, mediated relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict through psychological entitlement. The

findings of the analysis confirm that when employees take individual initiative, they also feel psychologically entitled, which may lead to more relationship conflicts with their co-workers. Furthermore, the results also affirm the existence of psychological entitlement as a successful mediator in the development of an indirect relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict. This whole scenario supports hypotheses H1 and H1b. On the other hand, the empirical findings also reveal an interesting insight. When employees take individual initiative without feeling psychologically entitled, they are less likely to become involved in relationship conflicts.

How do we explain this finding? For instance, researchers argue that, logically, the voluntary nature of citizenship behavior (i.e. individual initiative) should position it as opposite to all types of deviant behaviors such as relationship conflicts because the former is performed to benefit colleagues, whereas the latter is carried out to harm fellow workers (Dalal, 2005). Similarly, based on a meta-analysis, Dalal (2005) argued that citizenship behavior contradicts deviant behavior because the former maintains positive affect (George & Brief, 1992) whereas the latter enhances negative affect (Spector & Fox, 2002). Moreover, the extant literature has claimed that the presence of other antecedents such as attitudes about colleagues as not performing well (Spector & Fox, 2002) and perceptions of injustice amongst employees (Sackett & DeVore, 2001) establish a relationship of altruistic behaviors with selfish actions. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that individual initiative might reduce the frequency of relationship conflicts when employees do not feel psychologically entitled because of their taking individual initiative.

Another reason might be the consideration of individual initiative amongst employees. As Organ (1988, p. 104) suggested, during difficult times, employees may come forward to help

colleagues and organizations by taking individual initiative. However, it is the intensity of such actions that convert them into citizenship behavior (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Thus, when employees consider helping others as one of their duties, the chances of relationship conflicts decline.

Finally, based on the self-presentation theory (Baumeister, 1982), a substantial aspect of impression management, we theoretically argued that individuals may make deliberate attempts to manipulate the views that other have about them by presenting themselves as good citizens. However, these good behaviors may be anchored in bad intentions, whose goal is impression management motives. Consequently, stronger impression management motives strengthen the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement, which could result in relationship conflicts. Our findings confirm this theoretical argument by supporting hypothesis H4.2. Thus, we contribute to the individual initiative literature with a detailed description of how a good behavior such as individual initiative, rooted in bad intentions such as impression management, can damage the work atmosphere of organizations because of growing relationship conflicts.

Beyond its theoretical contribution, our study has substantial practical implications for organizational heads and human resource managers. When employees voluntarily take individual initiative without impression management motives, their sense of psychological entitlement remain much lower than those who take such initiative with impression management motives in mind. Thus, the motives behind the behavior are more important the behavior itself. Bad motives such as the desire to change how people see one create a sense of psychological entitlement amongst the employees who engage in such citizenship behavior. Therefore, when evaluating those who take individual initiatives, HR leaders should also evaluate their intentions. Bad

intentions can actually hurt the organization in the form of increased relationship conflicts among workers. These relationship conflicts, in the form of increased incivility and stress, lead to greater dissatisfaction and more turnover intentions amongst employees (Dion, 2006) and damage employees' well-being (Sonnentag, Unger, & Nägel, 2013). Workplaces characterized by regular relationship conflicts have a negative effect at the individual and organizational levels. On the individual level, employees experience greater stress and mental illness and less creativity. On the organizational level, there is less productivity, more absenteeism, and increases in the time and money required to hire new employees because of higher turnover rates. Hence, HR managers should be vigilant in identifying employees who express their psychological entitlement after taking individual initiatives.

Such vigilance is necessary because those who regularly experience relationship conflicts while working with psychologically entitled so-called "good soldiers" reduce their extra-role performance, which often provides organizations with a competitive advantage over their competitors. Thus, human resource departments should develop organizational level systems to detect the impression management motives of employees.

Another reason for such vigilance is that employees with ulterior motives such as impression management motives may pretend to be more helpful to their colleagues and more loyal to their organizations than they actually are. Thus, HR managers should consider these possibilities when offering rewards and promotions to such employees. The extant literature has discussed the positive relationship between employees' citizenship behavior and their performance appraisals (Isenhour et al., 2012; Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Instead of considering short-term, extra-role performance, HR practitioners should evaluate the long-term overall behavior of employees with their peers before

writing performance appraisals or offering performance-based rewards. Similarly, a comprehensive and well-designed recruitment system may also help the HR department detect those who are more likely to engage in impression management tactics. While psychological entitlement is an unethical behavior that breaches workplace norms, employers sometimes ignore their employees' moral violations and focus merely on organizational success (Pfeffer, 2013). Thus, department heads often tolerate the unethical behaviors of apparently extra-role performing employees without investigating the antecedents of such citizenship behaviors if these behaviors seem to be helping the company. On the other hand, they highlight minor problems of employees who are less likely to engage in extra-role performance. This practice, in fact, enhances the sense of psychological entitlement of so-called good-citizens and threats the long-term success and survival of the organizations. Thus, it is prudent for HR practitioners to enforce the same workplace norms throughout the organization.

Finally, specialized training programs might be very helpful in this regard. HR managers should introduce such training programs that might improve the skills and abilities of all employees to volunteer when it is needed. This practice might reduce the sense of psychological entitlement in those who have engaged in extra-role performance. Moreover, such effective on-the-job training may be used to reduce the sense of impression management and psychological entitlement in the participants.

4.5.1. Limitations and Future Research Directions

Alongside its potential contribution, the current study has some limitations that should be noted. Our first limitation is related to the sample. Almost 65% of the participants were university graduates in white-collar jobs. Although response error was expected to be minimal among the executives (e.g. (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins Jr, & Gupta, 1998) yet the under-

representation of blue-collar employees might limit our ability to generalize the results. Thus, future studies might include more lower-level employees to enhance the generalizability of the findings. Next, even though we collected data in three waves, the shorter intervals between them might result in some limitations. For instance, although our study does not have any common bias or response bias problems, increasing the time lag might provide better results because sometimes relationship conflicts need more time to appear after psychological entitlement takes root. Moreover, the conversion of individual initiative into psychological entitlement might not happen immediately. Similarly, measuring relationship conflicts with peer-rated scales, not self-reported scales, might enrich the findings. Moreover, our desire to ensure the participants of their anonymity restricted our ability to conduct a longitudinal research (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, such an approach might strengthen both the direct and indirect relationships between individual initiative and relationship conflicts. In addition, a cross-cultural approach may provide an interesting explanation about the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement at different levels of impression management motives and the mediated and direct relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict. Finally, including more control variables, such as personality traits, might enhance the insights we could offer the psychological entitlement literature. Hence, future researchers might include more moderating variables that might weaken the positive relationship between psychological entitlement and relationship conflicts.

4.6. SUMMARY

Good organizational behaviors such as OCB and pro-social behaviors are always considered valuable for employees and organizations (Organ, 1988; Organ et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2009). On the other hand, employees' negative behavior may spillover to the

entire organization and lead to serious offenses (Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs, 1998; Francesca Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009; Quade, Greenbaum, & Petrenko, 2017). Employers are not always aware of such conduct for several reasons (F Gino & Moore, 2009; Trevino & Nelson, 2016). This study reveals how bad motives can poison the impact of individual initiative, leading to detrimental effects on peers and employers.

4.7. References

Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological bulletin, 91*(1), 3.

Becker, J. A., & Dan O'Hair, H. (2007). Machiavellians' motives in organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Communication Research, 35*(3), 246-267.

Bernerth, J. B., & Aguinis, H. (2016). A critical review and best-practice recommendations for control variable usage. *Personnel Psychology, 69*(1), 229-283.

Blanken, I., van de Ven, N., & Zeelenberg, M. (2015). A meta-analytic review of moral licensing. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 41*(4), 540-558.

Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management review, 24*(1), 82-98.

Bolino, M. C., Klotz, A. C., Turnley, W. H., & Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34*(4), 542-559.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(4), 740.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., Gilstrap, J. B., & Suazo, M. M. (2010). Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(6), 835-855.

Bolino, M. C., Varela, J. A., Bande, B., & Turnley, W. H. (2006). The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 27*(3), 281-297.

Bourdage, J. S., Wiltshire, J., & Lee, K. (2015). Personality and workplace impression

management: Correlates and implications. *Journal of applied psychology, 100*(2), 537.

Bowler, W. M., Halbesleben, J. R., & Paul, J. R. (2010). If you're close with the leader, you must

be a brownnose: The role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader, and

coworker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives. *Human Resource

Management Review, 20*(4), 309-316.

Brass, D. J., Butterfield, K. D., & Skaggs, B. C. (1998). Relationships and unethical behavior: A

social network perspective. *Academy of Management review, 23*(1), 14-31.

Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, A. M., Shelton, J., Exline, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2004).

Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report

measure. *Journal of personality assessment, 83*(1), 29-45.

Chin, W. W., Peterson, R. A., & Brown, S. P. (2008). Structural equation modeling in marketing:

Some practical reminders. *Journal of marketing theory and practice, 16*(4), 287-298.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences–Second Edition. 12

Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc. *Hillsdale, New Jersey, 13*.

Conway, P., & Peetz, J. (2012). When does feeling moral actually make you a better person?

Conceptual abstraction moderates whether past moral deeds motivate consistency or

compensatory behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 38*(7), 907-919.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship

behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(6),

1241.

Dion, M. J. (2006). *The impact of workplace incivility and occupational stress on the job

satisfaction and turnover intention of acute care nurses*: University of Connecticut.

Donia, M. B., Johns, G., & Raja, U. (2016). Good soldier or good actor? Supervisor accuracy in

    distinguishing between selfless and self-serving OCB motives. *Journal of Business and*

    Psychology, 31(1), 23-32.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable

    variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research, 18*(1), 39-50.

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of*

    Organizational Behavior, 26(4), 331-362.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: a conceptual analysis of the

    mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological bulletin, 112*(2),

    310.

Gino, F., Ayal, S., & Ariely, D. (2009). Contagion and differentiation in unethical behavior: The

    effect of one bad apple on the barrel. *Psychological science, 20*(3), 393-398.

Gino, F., & Moore, D. (2009). See no evil: When we overlook other people's unethical behavior

    In RM Kramer, AE Tenbrunsel, & MH Bazerman (Eds.), Social decision making: Social

    dilemmas, social values, and ethical judgments (pp. 241–263): New York, NY:

    Routledge.

Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., & Piccolo, R. F. (2015). When leaders fail to "walk the talk"

    supervisor undermining and perceptions of leader hypocrisy. *Journal of management,*

    41(3), 929-956.

Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A primer on partial least squares*

    structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): Sage publications.

Halbesleben, J. R., Bowler, W. M., Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2010). Organizational

    concern, prosocial values, or impression management? How supervisors attribute motives

to organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40*(6), 1450-1489.

Harvey, P., & Martinko, M. J. (2009). An empirical examination of the role of attributions in psychological entitlement and its outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 30*(4), 459-476.

Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling: University of Kansas, KS.

Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*: Guilford Publications.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the academy of marketing science, 43*(1), 115-135.

Isenhour, L. C., Stone, D. L., Lien, D., Zheng, W., Zhang, M., & Li, H. (2012). Performance appraisal process and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Jehn, K. A. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative science quarterly*, 256-282.

Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. *Academy of Management journal, 44*(2), 238-251.

Kacmar, K. M., Delery, J. E., & Ferris, G. R. (1992). Differential Effectiveness of Applicant

      Impression Management Tactics on Employment Interview Decisions 1. *Journal of*

      Applied Social Psychology, 22(16), 1250-1272.

Khan, U., & Dhar, R. (2007). Where there is a way, is there a will? The effect of future choices

      on self-control. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 136*(2), 277.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*: Guilford

      publications.

Klotz, A. C., & Bolino, M. C. (2013). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: A moral

      licensing view. *Academy of Management review, 38*(2), 292-306.

Koay, K. Y. (2018). Workplace ostracism and cyberloafing: a moderated–mediation model.

      Internet Research.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of

      organizational citizenship behavior: a critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of*

      applied psychology, 87(1), 52.

Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of*

      management, 33(3), 321-349.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and

      objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons'

      performance. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50*(1), 123-150.

Mazar, N., & Zhong, C.-B. (2010). Do green products make us better people? *Psychological*

      science, 21(4), 494-498.

Merritt, A. C., Effron, D. A., & Monin, B. (2010). Moral self-licensing: When being good frees

      us to be bad. *Social and personality psychology compass, 4*(5), 344-357.

Miller, D. T., & Effron, D. A. (2010). Psychological license: When it is needed and how it functions *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 43, pp. 115-155): Elsevier.

Monin, B., & Miller, D. T. (2001). Moral credentials and the expression of prejudice. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology, 81*(1), 33.

Morrison, E. W. (1994). Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management journal, 37*(6), 1543-1567.

Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking charge at work: Extrarole efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of management Journal, 42*(4), 403-419.

Naumann, S. E., Minsky, B. D., & Sturman, M. C. (2002). The use of the concept "entitlement" in management literature: A historical review, synthesis, and discussion of compensation policy implications. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(1), 145-166.

Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I. (1994). Psychometric Theory 3rd edition (MacGraw-Hill, New York).

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*: Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2005). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*: Sage Publications.

Penner, L. A., Midili, A. R., & Kegelmeyer, J. (1997). Beyond job attitudes: A personality and social psychology perspective on the causes of organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 111-131.

Petersitzke, M. (2009). Supervisor psychological contract management *Supervisor psychological contract management* (pp. 131-142): Springer.

Pfeffer, J. (2013). Wouldn't it be nice if it weren't always about—and only about—the money? *Bloomberg Businessweek*, Retrieved from http://www.businessweek.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 94*(1), 122.

Polman, E., Pettit, N. C., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2013). Effects of wrongdoer status on moral licensing. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 49*(4), 614-623.

Quade, M. J., Greenbaum, R. L., & Petrenko, O. V. (2017). "I don't want to be near you, unless…": The interactive effect of unethical behavior and performance onto relationship conflict and workplace ostracism. *Personnel Psychology, 70*(3), 675-709.

Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Mooi, E. A. (2010). *Response-based segmentation using finite mixture partial least squares.* Paper presented at the Data Mining.

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: a motivational analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(6), 1306.

Ruiz-Palomino, P., Bañón-Gomis, A., & Linuesa-Langreo, J. (2019). Impacts of peers' unethical behavior on employees' ethical intention: Moderated mediation by Machiavellian orientation. *Business Ethics: A European Review, 28*(2), 185-205.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). When rewards compete with nature: The undermining of intrinsic motivation and self-regulation *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation* (pp. 13-54): Elsevier.

Sachdeva, S., Iliev, R., & Medin, D. L. (2009). Sinning saints and saintly sinners: The paradox of moral self-regulation. *Psychological science, 20*(4), 523-528.

Sackett, P., & DeVore, C. (2001). Counterproductive behaviors at work Dalam N. Anderson, DS Ones, HK Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial, Work, & Organizational Psychology Volume 1: Personnel Psychology (hal. 145-164): London, UK: Sage Publications.

Salamon, S. D., & Deutsch, Y. (2006). OCB as a handicap: An evolutionary psychological perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 27*(2), 185-199.

Schlenker, B. R. (1980). Impression management: The self-concept. *Social Identity, and Interpersonal Relations (Brooks/Cole, Monterey, CA).*

Shaw, J. D., Delery, J. E., Jenkins Jr, G. D., & Gupta, N. (1998). An organization-level analysis of voluntary and involuntary turnover. *Academy of Management journal, 41*(5), 511-525.

Snow, J. N., Kern, R. M., & Curlette, W. L. (2001). Identifying personality traits associated with attrition in systematic training for effective parenting groups. *The Family Journal, 9*(2), 102-108.

Sonnentag, S., Unger, D., & Nägel, I. J. (2013). Workplace conflict and employee well-being. *International Journal of Conflict Management.*

Spector, P. E., & Brannick, M. T. (2011). Organizational Research. *Organizational research methods, 14*(2), 287-305.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 269-292.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2010). Theorizing about the deviant citizen: An attributional explanation of the interplay of organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(2), 132-143.

Tresi, D. G., & Mihelič, K. K. (2018). The roles of self-efficacy and leader–member exchange in the relationship between job crafting and work–self facilitation. *Personnel Review*.

Trevino, L. K., & Nelson, K. A. (2016). *Managing business ethics: Straight talk about how to do it right*: John Wiley & Sons.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 21*(3), 377-405.

Vilela, B. B., González, J. A. V., & Ferrín, P. F. (2008). Person–organization fit, OCB and performance appraisal: Evidence from matched supervisor–salesperson data set in a Spanish context. *Industrial Marketing Management, 37*(8), 1005-1019.

Wang, Q., Bowling, N. A., Tian, Q.-t., Alarcon, G. M., & Kwan, H. K. (2018). Workplace harassment intensity and revenge: Mediation and moderation effects. *Journal of Business Ethics, 151*(1), 213-234.

Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of applied psychology, 93*(1), 125.

Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2017). From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance. *Academy of Management journal, 60*(1), 373-396.

Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Chen, H.-K. (2014). Compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: The role of organizational identification and perceived interactional justice. *The Journal of psychology, 148*(2), 177-196.

Zhong, C.-B., Liljenquist, K., & Cain, D. M. (2009). Moral self-regulation: Licensing and compensation.

Zitek, E. M., Jordan, A. H., Monin, B., & Leach, F. R. (2010). Victim entitlement to behave selfishly. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology, 98*(2), 245.

TABLES

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics

Demographics	Min	Max	N	Percent	Mean	Sd. Dev.
Gender						
Male			200	71.10		
Female			82	28.90		
Total			282	100		
Qualification					2.91	0.82
Matriculation			14	5.00		
Intermediate			89	31.5		
Graduation			106	37.5		
Masters			71	25.2		
M.Phil			2	0.8		
Total			282	100		
Experience	2	15			2.99	2.67
Age	20	54			34.87	8.39

(N= 282)

Table 4.2: CFA, Reliability and Validity

Individual Initiative (α=.91, CR=.92, AVE=.55)

Checks his/her e-mail or voice mail from home.	.90
Works on his/her days off (e.g., weekends).	.51
Brings things home to work on.	.80
Takes work-related phone calls at home.	.63
Carries a cell phone or pager for work so he/she can be reached after normal business hours.	.77
Stays at work after normal business hours.	.72
Attends work-related functions on his/her personal time.	.62
Travels whenever the company asks him/her to, even though technically he/she doesn't have to.	.83
Works during his/her vacations.	.80
Goes into the office before normal business hours.	.76
Volunteers for special projects in addition to his/her normal job duties.	.68
Rearranges or alters his/her personal plans because of work.	.68
Checks back with the office even when he/she is on vacation.	.78

Psychological Entitlement (α=.90, CR=.92, AVE=.68)

I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others.	.80
Great things should come to me.	.81
If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the first lifeboat!	.79
I demand the best because I'm worth it.	.83
I do not necessarily deserve special treatment.	.84
I deserve more things in my life.	.81
People like me deserve an extra break now and then.	.80
Things should go my way.	.87
I feel entitled to more of everything.	.86

Relationship Conflict (α=.90, CR=.93, AVE=.87)

How much relationship tension is there in his/her work group	.89
How often do people get angry while working in his/her group	.87
How much emotional conflict is there in his/her work group	.84
How much friction is there between this employee and his/her co-workers	.83

Impression Management Motives (α=.83, CR=.91, AVE=.78)

To avoid looking bad in front of others.	.89
To avoid looking lazy.	.90
To look better than my co-workers.	.91
To avoid a reprimand from my boss.	.90
Because I fear appearing irresponsible.	.89
To look like I am busy.	.88
To stay out of trouble.	.88
Because rewards are important to me.	.90
Because I want a raise.	.91
To impress my co-workers.	.80

(N=282)

Table 4.3: Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Individual Initiative	*0.73*						
2. Psychological Entitlement	.38**	*0.82*					
3. Impression Management	-.37**	.50	*.78*				
4. Relationship Conflict	-.17**	.59**	.69**	*.92*			
5. Gender (1 = female)	.10	-.19*	-.31**	-.33**			
6. Education (1 = masters)	-.07	.04	.10	-.09	.14*		
7.Age	-.14*	.32**	..60**	.058**	-.19*	-.19*	
8.Expereience	.09	.04	-.03	.04	.01	.18**	.30**
Mean	3.96	3.40	1.70	1.26			
SD	.69	.78	.69	.50			

(N=282)
* Correlation significance at 0.05
** Correlation significance at 0.01
Note: Bold and italic values are the square roots of the AVEs (Fornell-Larcker criteria of discriminant validity).

Table 4.4: Discriminant Validity (HTMT Ratio)

	Individual Initiative	Psychological Entitlement	Relationship Conflict
Individual Initiative			
Psychological Entitlement	.42		
Relationship Conflict	.16	.61	

(N=282)

Table 4.5: Testing of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses	β	t-values	Decision	p
H1a: Individual initiative has a positive relationship with psychological entitlement **Individual Initiative →Psychological Entitlement**	0.42	7.87	Accepted	0.00
H1b: Psychological entitlement mediates the positive relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict **Individual Initiative → Psychological Entitlement →Relationship Conflicts**	0.26	5.80	Accepted	0.00
H2: Impression management motives moderate the relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement, such that the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement becomes stronger when impression management motives are high, and weaker when impression management motives are low. **Individual Initiative X Impression Management Motives → Psychological Entitlement**	0.35	3.78	Accepted	0.00

(N = 282)

Table 4.6: Path Estimates of Structural Model for Direct and Indirect Effects

Exogenous Variables		M (Psychological Entitlement)				Y (Relationship Conflicts)		
		β	t-Value	p		β	t-Value	p
X (Individual Initiative	**a**	0.42	7.87	0.000	**c′**	-0.39	8.02	0.000
M (Psychological Entitlement)		___	___	___	**b**	0.62	15.28	0.000
C1 (Age)		0.33	6.13	0.000		0.28	8.74	0.000
C2 (Gender)		-0.16	3.30	0.001		-0.11	3.65	0.001
		$R^2 = 0.32$				$R^2 = 0.66$		
		$Q^2 = 0.20$				$Q^2 = 0.54$		

Indirect Effect

Path						β	t-Value	p
Ind.Ini → PE→RC						0.26	5.80	0.001
							$(\kappa^2 = 0.189)$	

(N=282)
Ind. Ini = Individual Initiative, PE = Psychological Entitlement, RC = Relationship Conflict

Table 4.7: Moderated Mediation Model

Impression Management Motives	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI
-1 SD (Low level of IMM	.58	.1074	.369	.792
Mean (Moderate Level of IMM	.96	.0597	.845	1.080
+1 SD (High Level of IMM)	1.37	.1329	.835	1.637
Index	.35	.098	.189	.566

(N=282)

Note: Effect = Unstandardized Regression Coefficients.

FIGURES

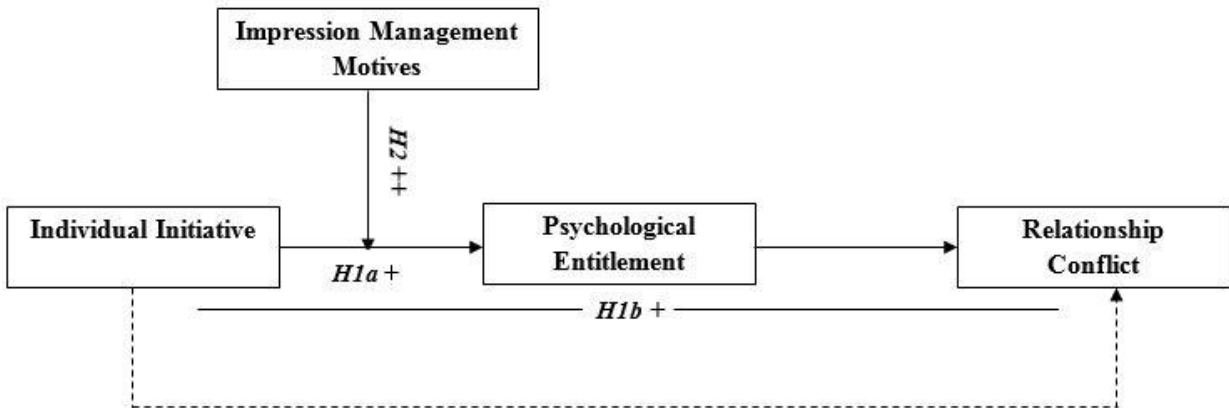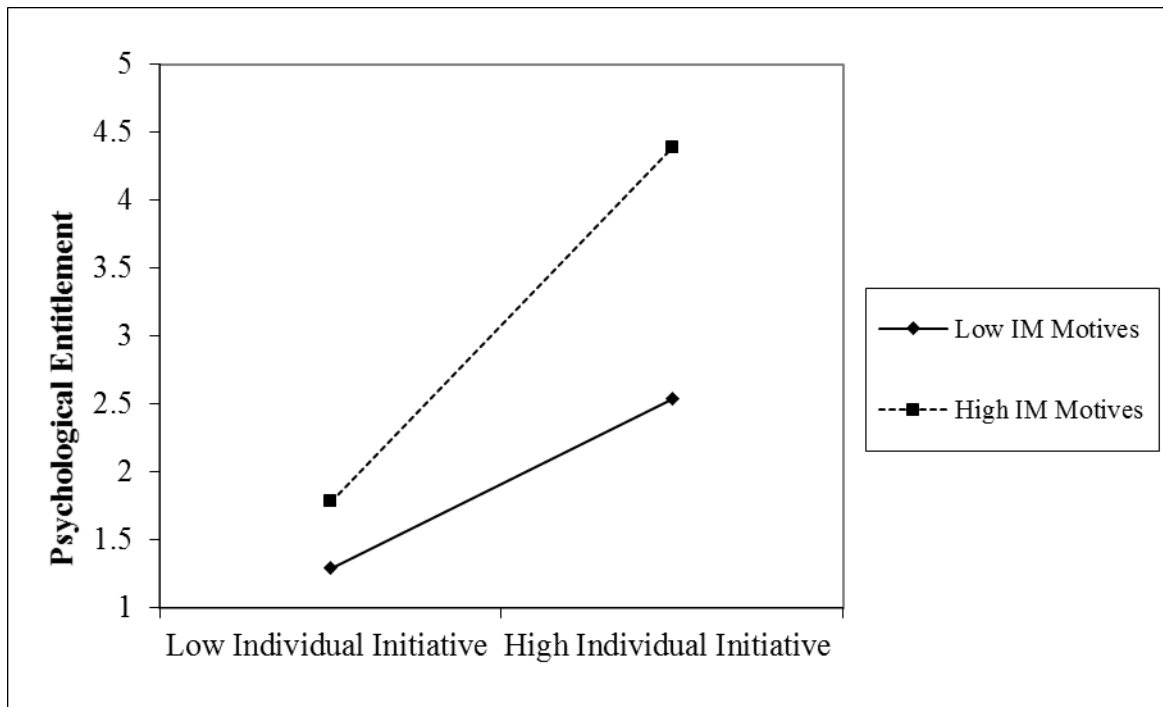**Figure 4.1: Diagram of the Hypothetical Model.**

Figure 4.2: Moderation Graph (Relationship between Individual Initiative and Psychological Entitlement at Low and High Levels of Impression Management Motives).

Note: IM Motives = Impression Management Motives

Chapter 5. Thesis Conclusion

MAIN FINDINGS OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 2 (First Empirical Paper)

Despite some investigations of how employees' beliefs that their employer puts excessive pressure on them to accept extra responsibilities is stressful and can generate negative work outcomes (Bolino et al. 2010, 2015; Cates, Mathis, and Randle 2010), previous HR management research has not explicitly investigated how and when the associated pressures might generate negative spillover effects in the form of reduced job performance (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004; Culbertson and Mills, 2011; Jiao, Richards, and Hackett 2013). To do so, we have drawn on COR theory (Hobfoll 1989, 2001) and proposed that (1) the inability to meet in-role performance requirements in response to the experience of citizenship pressure arises because employees feel worn out and tired as a direct result of engaging in voluntary behaviors and (2) their continuance commitment mitigates this process.

In turn, our empirical findings provide a novel insight: Organizational pressures that force employees to take on extra assignments "voluntarily" can backfire by compromising their ability to complete their formal job duties (Bergeron 2007; Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004). Meeting the performance standards set by their employer requires significant energy resources from employees (Hobfoll and Shirom 2000; McCarthy, Trougakos, and Cheng 2016; Quinn et al. 2012). Employees who feel tired or worn out because they perceive demands to go an extra mile and undertake tasks that are not technically part of their jobs may not possess the stamina to execute their formally prescribed job tasks too (Deery et al. 2017). Thus, the energy resource depletion that comes with the presence of citizenship fatigue in response to excessive citizenship pressures prevents employees from dedicating sufficient efforts to meeting their employers'

performance requirements. Moreover, employees may interpret fatigue, caused by undue pressures to go above and beyond the call of duty, as disrespectful or offensive (Bolino et al. 2015), and the negative emotions that they experience in turn may motivate them to refrain from positive performance-enhancing behaviors that benefit their employer (Hobfoll 2001).

This negative effect of employees' conviction that their organization expects that people take on extra responsibilities can be subdued to the extent that they perceive that there are limited opportunities for alternative employment and thus are concerned about their job security (Wang 2015). According to COR theory, the resource-depleting effect of adverse work conditions is mitigated when employees possess personal features that can generate resource gains for them and compensate for their resource depletion (Abbas et al. 2014; Hobfoll 2001). If employees who perceive excessive employer pressures for voluntarism also are concerned about their ability to change employment, the option to adjust and take on additional responsibilities might look like an opportunity to mitigate these concerns, instead of a threat that undermines their organizational functioning (Cohen 2007; Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Alguacil 2016). Conversely, employees with less continuance commitment have little motivation to leverage citizenship pressures as opportunities to keep their jobs (Johnson and Chu-Hsiang 2006), so they likely experience more significant resource depletion in the presence of these pressures. This buffering effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between the experience of citizenship pressures and citizenship fatigue is particularly insightful when considered in combination with the mediating role of citizenship fatigue. As the results pertaining to the presence of moderated mediation indicate (Preacher et al. 2007), exposure to excessive employer pressures for voluntarism translates less powerfully into lower job performance, through the fatigue stemming from such forced voluntarism, if employees exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment.

Chapter 3 (Second Empirical Paper)

This study found how a forced voluntary behavior such as compulsory citizenship behavior can weaken other voluntary behaviors such as service oriented-OCB and creativity through role overload. Previous research established a negative relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior with other work outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; 2006), but did not investigate the effects of compulsory citizenship behavior on reduced service-oriented OCB and creativity, via role overload.

Using both role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) and the conservation of resources theory (S. E. Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), we demonstrate that when employees feel stressed because they are required to take on extra roles, they are less likely to engage in service-oriented OCB or invest creativity in their work. Furthermore, based on career stage theory (Super, 1980), we also establish that millennials and non-millennials react differently when they experience role overload at their workplace. Compulsory citizenship behavior increases the role overload of employees that reduces their ability and desire to engage in any other voluntary behavior (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino et al., 2004). Taking on the extra roles of service-oriented OCB and creativity demands substantial time and energy from workers (S. Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000; McCarthy et al., 2016). The resulting depletion of their resources might reduce their determination to engage in other important voluntary behavior (Deery et al., 2017). Additionally, employees regard the role overload caused by compulsory citizenship behavior as a rude intrusion into their normal work (Bolino et al., 2015). These negative sentiments may prompt them to speak negatively about the organization in front of outsiders.

An additional finding of this study is to demonstrate the moderating role of one's generation on the relationship between role overload and other voluntary behavior such as

service-oriented OCB and creativity. Millennials and non-millennials differ in their reaction to role overload due to compulsory citizenship behavior. The former are more likely than the latter to reduce their engagement in service-oriented OCB and creativity. Possible reasons might include the fact that millennials give much importance to their social life. When role overload forces them to stay longer hours on the job and do extra work, they consider it an imposition on their social life, making them less willing to take on other voluntary behavior. In contrast, non-millennials, who are more likely to follow the ethos of "live to work" do not exhibit such a marked decline in their service-oriented OCB for their organizations or their creativity. Another reason might be the difference in their level of experience. Millennials are still in the exploring stage of their careers, so they might not have enough experience to know how to deal with role overload. In contrast, non-millennials who are in the maintenance stage of their careers feel very much settled in their jobs and have enough experience to deal with role overload and still engage in service-oriented OCB and creativity. Similarly, at this stage in their careers, they may feel a connection with the organization and be willing to promote it to others and present creative ideas for the solution of ongoing problems.

Chapter 4 (Third Empirical Paper)

Although some researchers have reported a negative impact of enforced or compulsory citizenship behavior (for example see Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017), no study, has discussed the relationship between employees' good behavior (i.e. individual initiative) and negative outcomes such as relationship conflicts. Therefore, we found an in-depth understanding of the ostensibly good deed of individual initiative, which is the least explored category of citizenship behavior. Relying on the moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010), we developed a theoretical model reflecting both a direct, positive relationship between individual

initiative and psychological entitlement, and an indirect, mediated relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict through psychological entitlement. The findings of the analysis confirm that when employees take individual initiative, they also feel psychologically entitled, which may lead to more relationship conflicts with their co-workers. Furthermore, the results also affirm the existence of psychological entitlement as a successful mediator in the development of an indirect relationship between individual initiative and relationship conflict. This whole scenario supports hypotheses H1 and H1b. On the other hand, the empirical findings also reveal an interesting insight. When employees take individual initiative without feeling psychologically entitled, they are less likely to become involved in relationship conflicts.

How do we explain this finding? For instance, researchers argue that, logically, the voluntary nature of citizenship behavior (i.e. individual initiative) should position it as opposite to all types of deviant behaviors such as relationship conflicts because the former is performed to benefit colleagues, whereas the latter is carried out to harm fellow workers (Dalal, 2005). Similarly, based on a meta-analysis, Dalal (2005) argued that citizenship behavior contradicts deviant behavior because the former maintains positive affect (George & Brief, 1992) whereas the latter enhances negative affect (Spector & Fox, 2002). Moreover, the extant literature has claimed that the presence of other antecedents such as attitudes about colleagues as not performing well (Spector & Fox, 2002) and perceptions of injustice amongst employees (Sackett & DeVore, 2001) establish a relationship of altruistic behaviors with selfish actions. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that individual initiative might reduce the frequency of relationship conflicts when employees do not feel psychologically entitled because of their taking individual initiative.

Another reason might be the consideration of individual initiative amongst employees. As Organ (1988, p. 104) suggested, during difficult times, employees may come forward to help colleagues and organizations by taking individual initiative. However, it is the intensity of such actions that convert them into citizenship behavior (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Thus, when employees consider helping others as one of their duties, the chances of relationship conflicts decline.

Finally, based on the self-presentation theory (Baumeister, 1982), a substantial aspect of impression management, we theoretically argued that individuals may make deliberate attempts to manipulate the views that other have about them by presenting themselves as good citizens. However, these good behaviors may be anchored in bad intentions, whose goal is impression management motives. Consequently, stronger impression management motives strengthen the positive relationship between individual initiative and psychological entitlement, which could result in relationship conflicts. Our findings confirm this theoretical argument by supporting hypothesis H4.2. Thus, we contribute to the individual initiative literature with a detailed description of how a good behavior such as individual initiative, rooted in bad intentions such as impression management, can damage the work atmosphere of organizations because of growing relationship conflicts.

CONCLUSION OF THESIS

First of all with study 1, we have sought to contribute to extant HR research by investigating the relationship between employees' exposure to citizenship pressure and their job performance, with a particular focus on the roles of their citizenship fatigue and continuance commitment in this process. The sense of being tired and worn out, due to stringent organizational expectations for voluntarism, is an important mechanism by which citizenship pressures undermine job performance, but the strength of this explanatory mechanism depends on whether employees are concerned about the challenge of finding alternative employment. We hope then that the findings provide an impetus for further investigations of how organizations can mitigate the frustration that their employees experience when they feel forced to take on additional responsibilities, by showing them how to navigate the accompanying hardships and possibly leveraging them to their own advantage.

Through study 2, we facilitated human resource policymakers and researchers by investigating the causal relationship of compulsory citizenship behavior with other voluntary behaviors such as service-oriented OCB and creativity with the mediating role of role overload in this process. The sense of role-overload is an important mechanism that undermines employees' service-oriented OCB performance in front of outsiders and creativity at the workplace due to the draconian performance of citizenship behavior where outcomes display disparity in the intensity of this descriptive mechanism for millennials and non-millennials. We hope that such different reactions of millennials, who are going to be a major workforce in future, will persuade policy-makers to plan different human resource policies for millennials by keeping in view that they are not like their ancestor (i.e. non-millennials), who devote their life to perform at the workplace. This will further induce organizations to rethink the true spirit of voluntary behavior

performance while planning the future of the workplace. Moreover, outcomes of study 2 provide an impetus for future researchers to investigate the mechanism of how management can alleviate the negative impact of such forced extra-role performance particularly for millennials because the future of the workplace is associated with this youngest workforce.

Study 3 argues that Good organizational behaviors such as individual initiative and pro-social behaviors are always considered valuable for employees and organizations (Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2009). On the other hand, employees' negative behavior may spillover to the entire organization and lead to serious offenses (Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs, 1998; Francesca Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009; Quade, Greenbaum, & Petrenko, 2017). Employers are not always aware of such conduct for several reasons (F Gino & Moore, 2009; Trevino & Nelson, 2016). This study reveals how bad motives can poison the impact of individual initiative, leading to detrimental effects on peers and employers in the form of relationship conflict.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THESIS

This study offers widespread implications for HR managers. Encouraging employees to engage in additional activities on a voluntary basis can be useful for both organizations and their employees, by fuelling the latter's intrinsic motivation and sense of meaningfulness (Ryan and Deci 2000), but HR professionals must take care not to force employees into such voluntarism. To the extent that voluntary work behaviors enter into employees' performance appraisals, HR managers should be aware that excessive expectations can have negative repercussions for employees' ability to meet the formal requirements of their jobs (Werner 2000). Accordingly, they might design monitoring systems to ensure that volunteering for extra assignments complements rather substitutes for employees' success in fulfilling their in-role job duties (Deery

et al. 2017). Notably, the performance challenges that individual employees encounter in the presence of citizenship pressures may spill over to the organizational level and undermine the employer's competitive advantage (Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff 2004). Thus, HR professionals should design systems that enable them to quantify whether and how invitations to go beyond the call of duty contribute to, or detract from, the organization's financial performance.

Furthermore, HR professionals should be proactive in assigning additional duties to employees with the necessary expertise and competencies (Bolino et al. 2015). Thus, they might recruit and retain employees whose abilities allow them to combine formal job duties with extra, voluntary assignments. Adequate selection systems could enable HR professionals to predict, with sufficient accuracy, which employees might be predisposed to cope with organizational pressures to work beyond their formally prescribed duties, for the good of the organization (Werner 2000). In addition, targeted training programs could "activate" these capabilities, through dedicated efforts outside the workplace, structured on-the-job training efforts, or informal learning, all of which encourage HR development (Enos, Kehrhahn, and Bell 2003; Jacobs 2003). However, if employees feel obliged to undertake voluntary activities for which they are not formally rewarded, they might miss out on certain rewards that they otherwise would receive for accomplishing regular job tasks, so HR professionals should also establish sufficient flexibility to adjust reward systems, such that certain work activities that previously were not compensated might become part of formal reward systems (Werner 2000).

In addition, HR professionals need to recognize that some employees might be reluctant to admit that they feel stressed when their employer encourages them to go above and beyond the call of duty and volunteer for extra assignments, so as not to look weak or ungrateful for their current employment (Bergeron 2007; Bolino et al. 2010). Thus HR managers should be proactive

in monitoring whether their expectations that employees take on additional responsibilities have become excessive and are preventing those employees from completing their regular job tasks. In particular, they should create a culture in which employees feel comfortable expressing their concerns about the work pressures they have to endure, as well as develop procedures to enable employees to share their workloads, whether formal duties or voluntary activities. In parallel, they could create specific guidelines for how employees can support one another in achieving the combined execution of their formal job tasks and extra-role activities, depending on their respective skill sets and capabilities. For example, targeted initiatives could be organized to allow experienced employees to support newcomers' efforts to cope with citizenship pressures through one-on-one mentoring (Thomas and Lankau 2009).

Finally, and in a related vein, this study might be particularly pertinent for organizations in which expectations of going above and beyond the call of duty are necessitated by competitive pressures. In these settings, it is up to HR professionals to create an internal environment in which employees feel motivated to perform activities for which they are not formally rewarded, by creating a sense that these activities are not just necessary but also provide valuable opportunities for personal development and growth that employees would not find in other organizations. Somewhat counterintuitively, employees' calculation-based, continuance commitment, typically considered a negative type of commitment in HR scholarship (Gamble and Tian 2015; Meyer and Allen 1991), can exert positive effects in this process, by stimulating employees to comply with requests for organizational citizenship because doing so is in their personal interest. This is not to say that HR managers should only promote commitment resulting from employees' benefit ratios; instead, we propose that organizations can reduce the hardships that employees encounter when they feel forced to go above and beyond the call of duty, to the

extent that they attract and retain employees who embrace the instrumental benefits, both for the organization and themselves, that result from their willingness to take on additional responsibilities and enhance the collective good, even if they are not formally compensated for those actions.

Furthermore, HR professionals would be wise to understand the difference between taking on an extra role voluntarily and being required to do so. Clearly, the latter may have negative repercussions for employees' ability to engage in other important voluntary behaviors (Deery et al., 2017) such as service-oriented OCB and creativity. Hence, HR managers should design systems to ensure that voluntary assignment do not become mandatory (Bolino et al., 2004). They should guard against the possibility that the negativity that employees feel because of compulsory citizenship behavior might spill over into their vocal complaints about the organization to others.

In particular, HR practitioners should be diligent in allocating extra roles to workers with the requisite experience and qualifications (Bolino et al., 2015). They might hire such employees who are capable of balancing different voluntary assignments. Adequate recruitment mechanisms can help predict which employees could balance formal and informal roles (Werner, 2000). Furthermore, training programs could help existing employees develop these skills.

Some workers might also be hesitant to disclose their feelings of stress when their supervisors force them to engage in citizenship behavior, believing that it makes them seem inadequate at doing their jobs (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino et al., 2010). Thus, the HR team should impress upon managers that they should be careful about making voluntary OCB compulsory. In addition, organizations should create a culture in which employees feel comfortable enough with their supervisors to discuss their sense of role overload rather than complaining about it to

outsiders. Similarly, employers could introduce guidelines that employees can follow in helping

each other voluntarily, based on their specific skills and expertise. For instance, through one-on-

one mentoring, experienced non-millennials could help their newly recruited millennial

colleagues deal with role overload (Thomas & Lankau, 2009).

When employees voluntarily take individual initiative without impression

management motives, their sense of psychological entitlement remain much lower than those

who take such initiative with impression management motives in mind. Thus, the motives behind

the behavior are more important the behavior itself. Bad motives such as the desire to change

how people see one create a sense of psychological entitlement amongst the employees who

engage in such citizenship behavior. Therefore, when evaluating those who take individual

initiatives, HR leaders should also evaluate their intentions. Bad intentions can actually hurt the

organization in the form of increased relationship conflicts among workers. These relationship

conflicts, in the form of increased incivility and stress, lead to greater dissatisfaction and more

turnover intentions amongst employees (Dion, 2006) and damage employees' well-being

(Sonnentag, Unger, & Nägel, 2013). Workplaces characterized by regular relationship conflicts

have a negative effect at the individual and organizational levels. On the individual level,

employees experience greater stress and mental illness and less creativity. On the organizational

level, there is less productivity, more absenteeism, and increases in the time and money required

to hire new employees because of higher turnover rates. Hence, HR managers should be vigilant

in identifying employees who express their psychological entitlement after taking individual

initiatives.

Such vigilance is necessary because those who regularly experience relationship conflicts

while working with psychologically entitled so-called "good soldiers" reduce their extra-role

performance, which often provides organizations with a competitive advantage over their competitors. Thus, human resource departments should develop organizational level systems to detect the impression management motives of employees.

Another reason for such vigilance is that employees with ulterior motives such as impression management motives may pretend to be more helpful to their colleagues and more loyal to their organizations than they actually are. Thus, HR managers should consider these possibilities when offering rewards and promotions to such employees. The extant literature has discussed the positive relationship between employees' citizenship behavior and their performance appraisals (Isenhour et al., 2012; Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Instead of considering short-term, extra-role performance, HR practitioners should evaluate the long-term overall behavior of employees with their peers before writing performance appraisals or offering performance-based rewards. Similarly, a comprehensive and well-designed recruitment system may also help the HR department detect those who are more likely to engage in impression management tactics. While psychological entitlement is an unethical behavior that breaches workplace norms, employers sometimes ignore their employees' moral violations and focus merely on organizational success (Pfeffer, 2013). Thus, department heads often tolerate the unethical behaviors of apparently extra-role performing employees without investigating the antecedents of such citizenship behaviors if these behaviors seem to be helping the company. On the other hand, they highlight minor problems of employees who are less likely to engage in extra-role performance. This practice, in fact, enhances the sense of psychological entitlement of so-called good-citizens and threats the long-term success and survival of the organizations. Thus, it is prudent for HR practitioners to enforce the same workplace norms throughout the organization.

Finally, specialized training programs might be very helpful in this regard. HR managers should introduce such training programs that might improve the skills and abilities of all employees to volunteer when it is needed. This practice might reduce the sense of psychological entitlement in those who have engaged in extra-role performance. Moreover, such effective on-the-job training may be used to reduce the sense of impression management and psychological entitlement in the participants.

Implications of the current study are generalizable to a wide range of industrial sectors because the analytical scope of this research covers various businesses, including manufacturing and services. Yet HR professionals also might consider how pertinent industry factors determine the extent to which citizenship pressures escalate into reduced job performance. An interesting issue along these lines is the intensity of external competitive rivalry (Porter 1996). Competitive markets might increase the perceived need to go beyond the call of duty, such that employees might accept citizenship pressures more readily (Hodson 2002). But these stringent market conditions also can fuel organizational expectations that employees must take on additional responsibilities, and HR professionals should be aware of the threat of citizenship fatigue among employees in this case (Deery et al. 2017).

LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study has some shortcomings, which suggest further research opportunities. During data collection for current study, we used time lags of three weeks (wherever required). New studies could use longer time frames though, because some attitudes may materialize only after extended periods of time. For example, the conversion of citizenship fatigue into diminished job performance, materialization of role overload that comes with the continuous engagement in compulsory citizenship behavior, conversion of individual initiative into psychological

entitlement, might not manifest itself immediately. Longitudinal designs that adopt longer time frames could reduce the possibility of reverse causality too; employees who adequately meet their formal performance requirements might be better positioned to find time for additional activities and therefore feel less worn out by those activities.

In the first empirical paper, we argued that exposure to excessive citizenship pressures makes employees feel worn out, which reduces both their ability and their motivation to dedicate significant efforts to performance-enhancing activities. We also expected high levels of continuance commitment to have a mitigating effect, because the anticipated resource gains in the form of enhanced job security due to citizenship pressures might be seen as opportunities instead of threats. Additional research could measure these mechanisms directly.

Our consideration of continuance commitment as a focal contingency factor that buffers the harmful role of extensive citizenship pressures could be complemented by investigations of other personal factors. For example, individual characteristics such as employees' resilience (Linnenluecke 2017), passion for work (Baum and Locke 2004), or creative self-efficacy (Tierney and Farmer 2002) may protect employees against the likelihood that organizational pressures to take on extra duties "voluntarily" are perceived as tiring. In addition, positive contextual factors could prevent frustrations about excessive pressures from escalating into a significant depletion of personal energy reservoirs, such as perceived organizational support (Caesens et al. 2017), fair reward systems (Colquitt et al. 2001), or transformational leadership (Dvir et al. 2002).

While discussing the generation, this study focused mainly on the behaviors of millennials because we regarded them as the largest part of the future workforce. Therefore, we selected two groups-baby boomers and Generation Xers, both as non-millennials. Doing so

limited our ability to explore the difference in the behaviors among all three generations that currently make up the workforce. Future researchers could explore the difference in the behaviors of all three generations.

In some cases the distinction between millennials and non-millennials involved only a few years' difference in age. Future researchers might utilize more extreme differences in age to determine whether they obtain similar results. Fifth, future studies may also investigate the role of other dichotomous moderators such as gender to explain the difference in behaviors between males and females when they face role overload because of compulsory citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the marital status of the employees might also be a good moderator of study for this relationship between role overload and job outcomes. Married workers might have much more negative reactions than their unmarried colleagues to being burdened with extra role assignments. Another factor that might play a role in this relationship is the quality of the marital relationship.

Next limitation is related to the sample. Almost 65% of the participants were university graduates in white-collar jobs. The under-representation of blue-collar employees might limit our ability to generalize the results. Thus, future studies might include more lower-level employees to enhance the generalizability of the findings.

An empirical limitation of this study pertains to the consideration of limited control variables, in the statistical models. Future research could consider whether these results hold even when controlling for other factors that might determine employees' responses to the hardships of OCB, such as their age, organizational tenure, number of hours worked per week, or negative affect (Bolino et al. 2015; Deery et al. 2017).

Our reliance on data from one country, Pakistan, might limit the generalizability of the findings. Our theoretical arguments are country-neutral, but cultural issues could interfere with our conceptual framework. As mentioned, Pakistani culture is marked by high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance, such that employees might be particularly sensitive to the uncertainty created when invitations to undertake voluntary activities are perceived as not truly voluntary and threatening to their ability to meet formal job duties (Bergeron 2007). The relative importance of cross-national studies could provide interesting insights into the relative importance of different personal factors for preventing tiring organizational expectations about voluntarism from escalating into lower job performance across different cultural contexts. In addition, a cross-cultural approach may provide an interesting explanation about the negative relationship between citizenship pressure and job performance in a different scenario of continuance commitment, negative relationship of compulsory citizenship behavior with service oriented-OCB and creativity, positive relationship of individual initiative and psychological entitlement at different levels of impression management motives. Hence, future researchers might also include more moderating variables to explore the relationship of different variables of current study.

REFERENCES

Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological bulletin, 91*(1), 3.

Bergeron, D. M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management review, 32*(4), 1078-1095.

Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(1), 56.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(4), 740.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., Gilstrap, J. B., & Suazo, M. M. (2010). Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(6), 835-855.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Niehoff, B. P. (2004). The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(2), 229-246.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of applied psychology, 90*(6), 1241.

Deery, S., Rayton, B., Walsh, J., & Kinnie, N. (2017). The costs of exhibiting organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management, 56*(6), 1039-1049.

Dion, M. J. (2006). *The impact of workplace incivility and occupational stress on the job satisfaction and turnover intention of acute care nurses*: University of Connecticut.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: a conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological bulletin, 112*(2), 310.

Hobfoll, S., & Shirom, A. (2000). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace (57-81). *Handbook of organization behavior (2nd Revised Edition). New York, New York: Marcel Dekker*.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American psychologist, 44*(3), 513.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied psychology, 50*(3), 337-421.

Isenhour, L. C., Stone, D. L., Lien, D., Zheng, W., Zhang, M., & Li, H. (2012). Performance appraisal process and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity.

McCarthy, J. M., Trougakos, J. P., & Cheng, B. H. (2016). Are anxious workers less productive workers? It depends on the quality of social exchange. *Journal of applied psychology, 101*(2), 279.

Miller, D. T., & Effron, D. A. (2010). Psychological license: When it is needed and how it functions *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 43, pp. 115-155): Elsevier.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*:

    Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Pfeffer, J. (2013). Wouldn't it be nice if it weren't always about—and only about—the money?

    Bloomberg Businessweek, Retrieved from http://www.businessweek.

Sackett, P., & DeVore, C. (2001). Counterproductive behaviors at work Dalam N. Anderson, DS

    Ones, HK Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial, Work, &

    Organizational Psychology Volume 1: Personnel Psychology (hal. 145-164): London,

    UK: Sage Publications.

Sonnentag, S., Unger, D., & Nägel, I. J. (2013). Workplace conflict and employee well-being.

    International Journal of Conflict Management.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some

    parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship

    behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 269-292.

Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of*

    vocational behavior, 16(3), 282-298.

Thomas, C. H., & Lankau, M. J. (2009). Preventing burnout: The effects of LMX and mentoring

    on socialization, role stress, and burnout. *Human Resource Management: Published in*

    Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and

    in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management, 48(3), 417-432.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of

    compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology,*

    21(3), 377-405.

VIGODA-GADOT, E. (2006). Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of

the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour,*

36(1), 77-93.

Vilela, B. B., González, J. A. V., & Ferrín, P. F. (2008). Person–organization fit, OCB and

performance appraisal: Evidence from matched supervisor–salesperson data set in a

Spanish context. *Industrial Marketing Management, 37*(8), 1005-1019.

Werner, J. M. (2000). Implications of OCB and contextual performance for human resource

management. *Human Resource Management Review, 10*(1), 3-24.

Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping,

voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of applied*

psychology, 93(1), 125.

Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2017). From good soldiers to

psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance.

Academy of Management journal, 60(1), 373-396.