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The Interactive Effects Of Citizenship Pressure And Job Embeddedness On Positive And Negative Outcomes Of Engagement

Jeremy Logan Jones
University of Mississippi

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THE INTERACTIVE EFFECTS OF CITIZENSHIP PRESSURE AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

ON POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE OUTCOMES OF ENGAGEMENT

A Dissertation presented in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

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in the Department of Management at

the University of Mississippi

by

Jeremy Logan Jones

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ABSTRACT

A more comprehensive understanding of the positive and negative outcomes of engagement could allow for a better conceptualization of the construct. The three goals of this study were: (1) to examine, based on the job demands and resources framework, potential negative antecedent and outcome relationships (i.e., role conflict, role ambiguity, and counterproductive work behaviors); (2) to identify interactions that could negatively impact engagement's positive outcomes (i.e. citizenship pressure); and (3) to identify interactions that could positively impact engagement's negative outcomes (i.e. job embeddedness). To accomplish these goals, the study collected data from both employees and their direct supervisors. An employee survey was utilized to collect data on the independent variables (POS, PSS, role conflict, and role ambiguity), moderators (citizenship pressure and job embeddedness), and engagement. An additional survey, which collected data from the employee's direct supervisor, contained questions pertaining to the dependent variables (Task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and CWB). The results supported the effect of perceived supervisor support on engagement and engagement's partial mediation of the hypothesized antecedent and outcomes relationships. The interaction of citizenship pressure and engagement was found to weaken engagement's effect on organizational citizenship behavior targeting the organization. Lastly, the interaction of job embeddedness and engagement made engagement's effect on counterproductive work behaviors less negative.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to

my wife, my friend, my life, Marla.

You mean the world to me.

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I express my deepest appreciate to my advisor, Dr. Walter Davis and my committee

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I would like to thank my kids, Gaven, Olivia, and Emrie. You have always been

supportive and forgiving of my absence during this journey. Lastly to my wife, Marla, I cannot

thank you enough for your encouragement and devotion. And, I will always love you more.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Recently, management literature has had an increase in studies on positive psychology

and positive organizational behavior. One example of this is the growing body of knowledge on

engagement. Research has made progress establishing engagement as a broad "inclusive"

motivational construct that advances our understanding of work behaviors (Harrison, Newman,

& Roth, 2006). Engagement is said to provide a more comprehensive explanation of behavioral

outcomes versus established attitudinal variables (e.g., job involvement, job satisfaction,

organizational commitment) that offer narrower interpretations of an employee's work related

behaviors (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010).

Several individual-level behaviors, such as task performance and extra-role behaviors, are

influenced by an employee's level of work engagement (Bakker, Demerouti, Brummelhuis,

2011; Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010; Saks,

2006). Engagement has also been linked to reduced employee turnover and accidents (Harter,

Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Saks, 2006). Accordingly, many organizations and practicing

managers have become interested in increasing engagement among their employees on the

assumption that doing so will lead to greater returns (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004;

Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008).

THE CONSTRUCT OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

Engagement affects how an employee will allocate resources (i.e., physical, cognitive, or

emotional) to work roles (Kahn, 1990; 1992). To date, the bulk of engagement research has been

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focused on engagement's effect on positive or favorable workplace behaviors. During the same time period there has been little attention given to engagement's negative antecedents or outcomes. Of the numerous scholarly contributions on work engagement, there have been only two published empirical studies (Ariani, 2013; Ariani, Maleki, & Mazraeh, 2013) which examined work engagement and counterproductive work behaviors in the same model. No research exists that examines the effect of role stressors (i.e., role conflict and ambiguity) on engagement and engagement's effect on counterproductive work behaviors. Likewise, no work engagement research exists that examines the interactive effect of organizational citizenship pressure on engagement's positive outcome relationships or the interactive effect of job embeddedness on engagement's negative outcome relationships.

The lack of examination of work engagement's negative relationships has resulted in an incomplete nomological network and has impaired the conceptualization of engagement. For example, within the engagement literature, there has been little mention or consensus on how to conceptualize disengagement. Common views of disengagement describe it in one of three ways. It has been described as a reduction in engagement, a temporary lack of engagement, or no engagement. Kahn's (1990) seminal article on engagement defined disengagement "as the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990; p. 649). A more comprehensive understanding of the negative relationships of engagement could allow for better conceptualizing of disengagement. Also, through the examination of possible interactions, that could alter either the positive or negative work engagement outcomes, this research could assist in redefining disengagement, conceivably as simply a reduction of work engagement created by the presence of a moderator. Based on these observations, there are three

goals of this research: (1) to examine potential negative antecedent and outcome relationships (i.e., role conflict, role ambiguity, and counterproductive work behaviors) based on the job demands and resources framework; (2) to identify interactions that could impact engagement's positive outcomes (i.e. citizenship pressure); and (3) to identify interactions that could impact engagement's negative outcomes (i.e. job embeddedness).

BACKGROUND

Management research is increasingly focusing on positivity (Rusk & Waters, 2013). Influenced by positive psychology research, which is concerned with positive inputs (e.g., strengths, capabilities) and positive outcomes (e.g., contextual performance, organization citizenship behaviors) (Luthans, 2007), a new stream of individual-level management research known as positive organizational behavior (POB) has emerged (Luthans, 2007; Luthans & Avolio, 2009). The attractiveness of POB is understandable, from both an academic and practitioner point of view, because instead of focusing on impact of negative antecedents and outcomes; most organizational behavior research tends to be centered on the influence of positive antecedents and outcomes (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010). Critics of this positive approach to research have called for a more balanced view that examines both positive and negative relationships in management (Fineman, 2006). Complete understanding of positive relationships of management constructs is important but can create constrained models which ignore the potential for negative outcomes.

The model hypothesized in this research will investigate the hypothesized relationships within the Job Demands-Resources (JDR) and conservation of resources (COR) theoretical frameworks. The JDR has been used to explain work engagement's relationships numerous times in past research (Bakker et al., 2004; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Hakanen et al., 2008;

Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The key assumption of the JDR model is that components of work roles or the workplace environment can be divided into two independent groups: (1) demands or (2) resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Hakanen et al., 2008; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). Job demands are essential components (e.g., cognitive, psychological, physical, social, or organizational) of a work role or organizational environment. These workplace components require an employee to exert effort resulting in physical, physiological, or psychological costs (Mauno et al., 2007). To the employee, these job demand costs are the negative consequences of work such as exhaustion, stress, or anxiety. Alternatively, job resources are facets (e.g., cognitive, psychological, physical, social, or organizational) of work roles or organizational environment that reduce job demand related costs (Bakker et al., 2003, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

Because work engagement predicts how employees will allocate resources to work roles, the JDR is an appropriate theoretical framework. The major contribution of the JDR is that it helps in the interpretation of engagement. The amount of resources allocated between the demands of work roles and resources provided by both the employee and the organization is directly related to the level by which an employee is engaged (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Previous engagement research has attempted to empirically test this proposition numerous times (Bakker et al., 2004; Crawford et al., 2010; Hakanen et al., 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

COR theory states that an employee will attempt to obtain, retain, and protect resources that they view as valuable (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). Based on the COR, any perceived loss of resources can add to the stress levels of employees. The additional stress described by the COR is based on certain assumptions: (1) employees will provide individual

resources, such as time and effort, to prevent the loss of work role or environmental resources; (2) a larger pool of employee resources is less vulnerable to resource loss, (3) lack of availability to large resource pools is expected to result in increased resource loss; (4) large resource pools result in a greater probability that employees will risk resources for increased resource gains; (5) loss of resources has a greater influence on employee stress than resource gains (Hobfoll, 2002; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001; Bakker et al., 2007).

OUTLINE OF THE MODEL

The model presented in this paper is designed to test the applicability of the JDR and COR to engagement research and possible new interactive influences on engagement's outcomes (refer to Figure 1.1). First, the JDR and the effect of COR is examined through the inclusion of both resource and demand antecedents. Job resources are represented in the model by perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS). POS can be defined as an employee's perception that the organization values his or her contributions and cares about his or her well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). PSS is described as the level of employee certainty that supervisors value the work role contributions of the employee and care about the well-being of the employee (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). High levels of POS and PSS will result in higher levels of engagement among employees (Bakker et al., 2007; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006).

Figure 1.1: Hypothesized Model
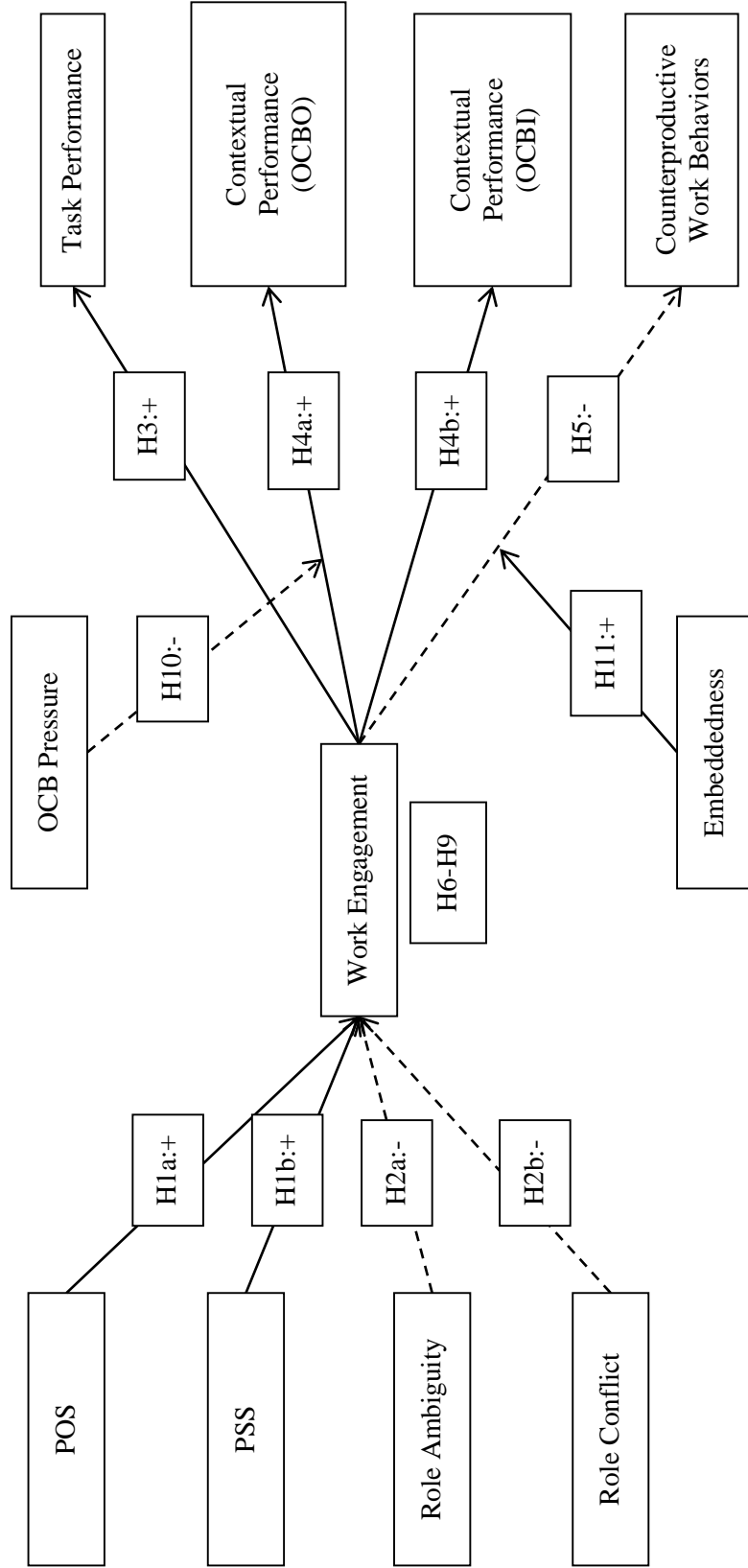
Additionally, in contrast to the effects of resources on engagement, the model examines the influence of job demands in terms of role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity is commonly defined as the lack of formal definition of an employee's work duties and responsibilities, while role conflict exists when an organization is inconsistent in communicating expected employee role behaviors (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Both role ambiguity and conflict can lead to increased stress, decreased satisfaction, and reduced performance (Rizzo et al., 1970). The likelihood of an employee becoming disengaged is higher in the presence of high levels of role ambiguity and conflict.

The model proposes a number of positive and negative outcomes of engagement. First, is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), one of the most extensively researched extra-role behaviors, is defined as employee behavior that: (1) benefits the organization in some way; (2) is not generally part of an employee's work roles; or (3) is not explicitly compensated (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Previous engagement research has supported a positive relationship between engagement and OCB (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010). Subsequent research also suggested that organizational citizenship behavior can be divided into two separate components. The first is OCB directed toward individuals (OCB-I) and the second is OCB directed toward the organization (OCB-O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The model also addresses a potential negative outcome of engagement, counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). CWB can be divided into five categories: (1) abuse toward others; (2) production deviance; (3) sabotage; (4) theft; and (5) withdrawal (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). While all forms of counterproductive behavior may result from work role demands, previous research (Spector et al., 2006) shows abuse, sabotage, and withdrawal are strongly related to

work stress. Withdrawal behaviors are when employees restrict the amount of time engaged in work roles, which includes tardiness, leaving early, or taking unauthorized or long breaks from work. I hypothesize that highly engaged employees are less likely to exhibit counterproductive and withdrawal behaviors than low engaged employees.

The model includes two moderators, citizenship pressure and job embeddedness. The interactive effects of these moderators are hypothesized to alter the influence of an employee's level of engagement on certain individual level outcomes. Citizenship pressure occurs when organizations create circumstances where employees feel force or stress to perform OCB (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). The added stress of citizenship pressure will make the relationship between engagement and OCB less positive. Job embeddedness can be viewed as an employee's attachment or ties to work roles (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, & Erez, 2001). Embeddedness is usually divided into two separate categories: (1) organizational or on-the-job and (2) community or off-the-job embeddedness. This model is focused on organizational or on-the-job embeddedness because it has been supported as a better predictor of work place outcomes with the exception of job relocation, which is not an outcome of this model (Lee et al., 2004). Because of the increased attachment to work roles, high levels of embeddedness have been shown to reduce negative outcomes such as absenteeism and voluntary turnover (Lee et al, 2001). I hypothesize that high job embeddedness will make the relationship between engagement and counterproductive behaviors less negative.

To test this model, the study was designed to collect data from two separate sources. The first survey was completed by working adults, employees. It gathered data on the independent variables (POS, PSS, role conflict, and role ambiguity), moderators (citizenship pressure and job embeddedness), and engagement. The second survey, which collected data from the employee's

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direct supervisor, contained questions pertaining to the dependent variables (Task performance,

OCB-O, OCB-I, and CWB). This research was designed in this fashion to maximize the

likelihood of collecting valid, objective data on employee perceptions at work (i.e., independent

variables, moderators, and engagement) and also actual employee work behaviors (i.e.,

dependent variables).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Engagement as a construct is frequently surrounded by misunderstanding (e.g. Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2008; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Rhenen, 2009; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011). This is largely the result of confusion generated by the existence of multiple competing views of engagement, which results in an overall incomplete and fragmented nomological network. The competing views originate from a wide range of semantic, conceptual, nomological, and operational issues. For example, there is confusion created by the assortment of modifiers (e.g., work, job, employee, and task) used in conjunction with engagement discussions. Although these modifiers seem to be used interchangeably, it is not clear that the target underlying their varied uses supports such indiscriminant usage. At a foundational level, there remains lingering debate as to the basic nature of the construct. In various treatments, it has been viewed as a state, a trait, or as a behavior (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Such inconsistencies result in recurrent misinterpretation, and create noise that impedes systematic progress in engagement research.

In the last two decades, the typical goal of engagement research is identifying mechanisms that increase individual engagement. In some cases, this only adds to the confusion to the array of perspectives revolving around the construct. For instance, following the seminal research on engagement (Kahn, 1990; 1992), it was eagerly embraced by practitioners in the form of numerous consulting firms that all began offering interventions to increase levels of engagement among employees. Mainstream and popular press treatments of engagement, and

many technical reports based on this approach tend to take a simplistic view of engagement as an outcome, rather than utilizing the common academic view of engagement as a mediating motivational variable that explains the relationship between situational or individual predictors and behavioral outcomes (Wefald & Downey, 2009). Furthermore, because many consulting firms follow a differentiation strategy, engagement has been defined differently numerous times in order to gain competitive advantage over their industry counterparts (e.g., Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004; Sirota, Mischkind, & Meltzer, 2005).

The result is proliferation of vastly different, and rarely validated, conceptualizations of engagement. Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 5) noted as much in stating that since its inception, "engagement has been used to refer to a psychological state (e.g., involvement, commitment, attachment, mood), performance construct (e.g., either effort or observable behavior, including pro-social and organizational citizenship behavior [OCB]), disposition (e.g., positive affect [PA]), or some combination of the above." This problem is frequently observed when reviewing the contemporary engagement literature. Whole sections of articles are often devoted solely to the defense of the basic concepts of engagement theory, with discussions generally centering on issues such as construct validity, discriminate validity, and parsimony (Bakker, 2011; Christian et al., 2010; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

It should be noted that previous research has repeatedly supported engagement's greater explanatory power of individual behaviors over more narrowly defined attitudinal variables such as job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010). Likewise, the construct has been shown to have discriminant validity from similar attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job

involvement (Christian et al., 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; Saks, 2006).

As a first step toward remedying the fractured field of engagement research, Macey and Schneider (2008) initiated a published dialogue regarding the competing views of engagement. The variety of responses to Macey and Schneider not only illustrated a divergence of opinions about the definition of engagement, but also drew attention to the fact that different conceptualizations of engagement necessitate varying networks of antecedents and outcomes. Although several interesting positions on engagement emerged from this series of articles and commentaries, Saks (2008) commented that rather than clarifying the nature of engagement and establishing its unique place in organizational research, the general outcome is an imprecise definition consisting of other more established constructs in a repackaged form, "old wine in a new bottle".

However, rather than merely being critical, Saks (2008) pointed out there are a few theoretical frameworks within academic research on engagement that could lead to a more precise, refined, and integrated model of engagement. As evidenced through a general review of extant literature, it becomes apparent that the multitude of views on engagement can be traced back to two dominant perspectives. One stream of research is based on the ethnographic work of Kahn (1990, 1992) and his concept of personal engagement, while the other stream is firmly grounded in the work of several European scholars (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker & Lloret, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, 2004) who view engagement as a positive, multidimensional motivational state similar to "energy at work". While both versions of engagement will now be discussed, for this research study the broader and seminal conceptualization of engagement from Kahn (1990; 1992) will be to focus.

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ENGAGEMENT

The concept of personal engagement was introduced by William Kahn in 1990. Borrowing greatly from Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model, Kahn's work centers on situational factors (e.g., work elements, social systems, and individual distractions) affecting the experience of three psychological conditions (e.g., meaningfulness, safety, and availability), which in turn lead to moments of personal engagement with work (refer to Figure 2.1). These moments of personal engagement involve individuals devoting their full physical, cognitive, and emotional energies to the performance of their work roles. Thus, by Kahn's description, engagement, or more correctly stated, moments of engagement are behavioral manifestations of workers who are deeply and personally connected to their work roles (Kahn, 1990; 1992). Within his work, Kahn did not provide an operationalized definition, nor did he develop a standard measurement instrument to capture personal engagement. These factors, along with the unwieldy nature of measuring behavioral displays indicating moments of engagement, help to explain why research further developing Kahn's conceptualization of engagement remained somewhat dormant for several years and received only marginal attention from academic and practitioner communities.

Shortly before the turn of the millennium, interest in engagement started to dramatically increase due to the work of Wilmar B. Schaufeli and Arnold B. Bakker, who initiated a separate stream of engagement research. This new wave of research resulted in a body of work that reflects Kahn's seminal conceptualization of engagement, but also diverged in a few important ways. This view of engagement largely evolved from research on burnout, and rather than address those discrete, behavioral moments of physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement described by Kahn, they tended to view engagement as an enduring positive state (Bakker &

Schaufeli, 2008). The result was a conceptualization of engagement as energy and identification at work, similar to what is experienced in flow. The popularity of this version of engagement resulted in the development of the most widely used measure of the construct, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) which assesses individuals reported work-related vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Models of engagement, originating from the work of Kahn (1990; 1992), depict engagement as the harnessing of an employee's self in his or her work roles. Engaged employees will express themselves in their work roles through the allocation of resources (i.e., physical, cognitive, and emotional) (Christian et al., 2011; Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Defining this allocation, engagement is a motivational state that results from employee's perceptions of situational information such as their work roles, their social environments, and their ability to perform. The result, based on these perceptions, is the employee's level of engagement or the amount of effort they are willing to bring in or leave out of their work role performances (Kahn, 1990).

Kahn's research suggested three psychological conditions that predict engagement. The three psychological conditions observed by Kahn were: (1) psychological meaningfulness; (2) psychological safety; and (3) psychological availability. Psychological meaningfulness refers to the extent an employee believes his or her job is supported based on the employee's own values (Renn and Vandenberg, 1995; May et al., 2004). Psychological safety is defined as being able to express one's self in work roles without the fear of negative consequences (Kahn, 1990). Psychological availability is having the physical, emotional, or psychological resources to invest in one's work roles (Kahn, 1990). Perceptions of work related variables are predictors of an employee's level of these psychological conditions.

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An empirical study of the effect of these three psychological conditions and their determinants was conducted by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004). The results revealed that all three conditions have a positive relationship with work engagement and of the three psychological conditions; meaningfulness has the strongest relationship with engagement. Determinants that had a positive relationship with the three psychological predictors were: job enrichment and work role fit (predicting psychological meaningfulness); rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor relations (predicting psychological safety); and personal resources availability (predicting psychological availability). Co-worker norms were negatively related to psychological safety and participation in outside activities was negatively related to psychological availability. Overall, May et al. (2004) supported Kahn's model of engagement and continued the development of the engagement construct's nomological network.

Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) defined engagement as "a multidimensional motivational concept reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in active, full work performance (Rich et al., 2010: 619)." Based on this premise and the predictors of work engagement, they propose the precursors of engagement as value congruence, perceived organizational support, and core self-evaluations. These antecedents are linked to the predictors of engagement, which are psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability. Engagement was shown to mediate the relationship between these determinants and behavioral outcomes such as task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Employee's experienced psychological safety, to some extent, is a result of the perceived support of management and the trusting interpersonal relationships with other individuals inside the organization that are perceived as agents of the organization (Kahn, 1990). Accordingly,

Figure 2.1: Kahn's Model of Personal Engagement (Source: Kahn, 1992; p. 340)

Psychological   Individual
Conditions   Differences

Work
Elements

Tasks
Roles
Interactions

Meaningfulness

Models of self-in-role
Security
Courage
Adult Development

Social
Systems

Relationships
Group
Dynamics
Norms

Safety

Moments of:

Psychological
Presence

Personal
Engagement

Individual
Distractions

Availability

Physical
Energies
Emotional
Energies

System
Feedback

Reinforcements
Punishments

Outcomes

Performance quality
Individual experience
Systemic growth/productivity

Rich, et al. (2010) proposed that perceived organizational support (POS) will lead to higher perceived psychological safety. Psychological availability is the employee's perception of being ready, willing, and able to invest in the work role. Based on Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger (1998) core self-evaluations or an individual's appraisal of their worthiness, effectiveness, and capability can have an effect on an employee's psychological availability.

A recent study by Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) treated engagement as the investment of the multiple dimensions of one's physical, emotional, and cognitive self in work roles (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). They argue that engagement reflects motivation rather than "an attitude toward features of the organization or the job (Christian et al., 2011: 91)." The antecedents proposed in their model were job characteristics, leadership, and other dispositional characteristics. Like many others, this study suggests engagement mediates the relationship between perceived workplace characteristics and behavioral outcomes, such as task performance and OCB. These relationships are based on the argument that engagement is a proximal motivational state, a concept also suggested by the work of Rich et al. (2010) and Kahn (1990). Conceptualizing engagement in this manner supports that work engagement affects behavioral outcomes.

Another recent engagement article, Airila et al. (2014) is a two-wave 10-year longitudinal study that examines engagement's process based on the JDR. The focal goal of the study was to find support for engagement as a mediator between different resources and work ability. Two types of resources were included, organizational resources (i.e., supervisory relations, interpersonal relations and task resources) and personal resources (self-esteem). A secondary goal was to find support for engagement's mediating role between past and future work

performance. The results indicate that differing levels of job and personal resources have a long-term effect on both engagement and work performance.

This section will focus on certain on engagement antecedents that can be viewed as organizational resources, perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support. As stated previously, job resources are facets (e.g., cognitive, psychological, physical, social, or organizational) of work roles or organizational environment that reduce job demand related stress (e.g., Bakker et al., 2003, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)

Perceived organizational support (POS) is an employees' belief that their organization values the employees' contributions and cares about the employees' well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS can be considered a job resource based on the organization caring, approving, and respecting employees. Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) described certain psychological processes fundamental to POS: (1) a felt obligation about the welfare of the organization; (2) a felt obligation about assisting in the attainment of organizational goals; (3) a fulfillment of an employees' socio-emotional needs that results in the incorporation of organizational membership and work roles into their social identity; and (4) a strengthening of employees' beliefs that the organization will reward favorable, increased performance.

Based largely on social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) and the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960), research suggests that the higher the level of POS, the more an employees will reciprocate. Social exchange theory (SET) concerns the interactions of different parties and how these interactions generate perceived obligations and value (Emerson, 1976). Based on SET and the reciprocity norm, the interactions are generally viewed as interdependent and influence one

party by the recurring actions of another party. The effect of SET and its interdependent interactions can result in higher levels of employee performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). These interactions, within the context of the organization or POS, can be motivating and help create boundaries about what behaviors are acceptable within a workplace. POS has considerable support for both discriminant and construct validity. It is related to but unique from similar belief and attitudinal constructs (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Shoss et al., 2013).

POS affects an employee's psychological safety or their ability to perform their work roles without fear of negative consequences (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006). A study by Saks (2006) tested the effect of POS on engagement and various individual outcomes based on social exchange theory. The results indicate that POS predicts engagement. In addition, engagement mediated the relationships between the POS and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to quit, and OCB. POS focuses on the interpersonal relationships originating from agents of the organization. When these relationships are supportive, employees are more willing to take risks and express themselves without fear of adverse consequences (Khan, 1990; Saks, 2006; Rich et al., 2010). Rich et al. (2010) described employees with a high level of POS as employees with clear expectations of their organization's reaction to their accomplishments or mistakes. A high level of POS results in an employee fully investing in his or her work roles (Edmondson, 1999). On the other hand, employees perceiving low POS are unsure of what to expect and will fear engaging fully in their work roles possibly leading to withdrawal from work roles (Kahn, 1990).

PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT (PSS)

Research has constantly shown that social support affects engagement and consequently employee behaviors (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). A few engagement studies have examined supervisor support. One way to conceptualize and measure supervisor support is PSS. PSS is the observed level to which supervisors value the work role contributions of the employee and care about the well-being of the employee (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). PSS can be considered a resource because high levels of PSS have been shown to lower work-related stress or job demands (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanrock & Eisenberger, 2006).

Based on the JDR, the primary focus of Schaufeli & Bakker (2004) was to further our understanding of the relationship of burnout and engagement, which the study described as burnout's "positive antipode". The model tested burnout and engagement with different predictors (i.e. job demands and resources) and outcomes. This research was one of the first engagement studies to include supervisor support as one of the resources examined. Though the conceptualization was different, narrower than PSS, the results confirmed several hypotheses that furthered engagement research. First, burnout and engagement are negatively related. Second, that burnout is predicted by high levels of job demands and low levels of job resources while engagement is only predicted by differing levels of job resources. Next, burnout predicts both future health problems and turnover intention, but engagement only predicts turnover intentions. Finally burnout mediates the job demands and health problems relationship whereas engagement mediates only the relationship between job resources and turnover intention.

Based on the JDR and the norm of reciprocity, James, McKechnie, & Swanberg, (2011) examined the effect of PSS on the engagement of older workers in a retail setting. The study analyzed the effects of four separate dimensions of work roles. Three of the four dimensions

affected all age groups: (1) supervisor support and recognition; (2) schedule satisfaction; and (3) job clarity. As anticipated, career development was not a predictor of engagement for retirement-eligible employees.

A recent PSS and engagement study, utilizing the JDR model, Bulent, Seigyoung, Michelle, & Abeer (2013), focuses on a sample from the service industry to analyze the effect of supervisor feedback and PSS on engagement. Additionally, the model tested the possible interactive effects of these differing resources on engagement. The model found support for the mediating role of engagement on the resources and service employee performance relationship. The results suggested supervisory feedback is positively related to engagement while supervisory support is not significantly related. As expected, high levels of engagement is related to higher levels of employee performance. At high levels of perceived autonomy, the interactive effect of supervisory support is positive while supervisory feedback is negative on engagement. Once again engagement was determined to be a mediator between supervisory feedback and employee performance.

As stated previously, job demands are essential components (e.g., cognitive, psychological, physical, social, or organizational) of a work role. These work role components require an employee to exert effort resulting in physical, physiological, or psychological costs (Mauno et al., 2007). To the employee, these job demand costs are the negative aspects of work roles such as exhaustion, stress, or anxiety.

ROLE CONFLICT & AMBIGUITY

Based on Katz and Kahn (1966), a role has characteristics informally defined by norms and expectations of a social group or organization concerning a focal member of a certain role set. Additionally, a role is defined by formal expectations of an organization such as

specification of duties, communication structures, and authority relationships. These role

expectations are activities that an organization requires of an employee in performance of work

roles. To influence employee behavior, organizations create role episodes. Role episodes consist

of the communication of work roles to employees, the receiving of the work role communication,

and the resulting behavior of the focal employee in the work role set. Role episodes can have

complications. For example, one role may require many separate activities or one employee may

have several separate work roles. These types of complications to work role episodes can result

in work related stressors, such as role conflict and ambiguity.

The theories concerning role conflict and ambiguity revolve around the management

principles of chain of command and unity of command (Rizzo et at., 1970). The focus of the

chain of command principle is on how organizations, primarily authority and reporting

relationships, are structured. An efficient chain of command exists when each employee can

recognize a clear and single line of authority from the top to the bottom of the organization. A

single and clear line of authority increases job satisfaction, individual performance, and the

control and coordination of management (Rizzo et al., 1970). The principle of unity of command

posits that an employee should be required to report to one and only one supervisor. The goal of

this principle is single accountability in that employees should be accountable for the

performance of their tasks to one and only one supervisor. Unity of command precludes

employees from receiving contradicting orders or mismatched expectations from opposing

supervisors. It prevents the necessity of allocating time and effort to the interpretation and

prioritizing of supervisor's orders, thus reducing the resources that may be applied to the

demands of the work roles.

Role conflict and ambiguity result from the violation of these classic management principles and causes decreased individual satisfaction, individual performance, and organizational effectiveness (Jackson, & Schuler, 1985; Tubre & Collins, 2000). Role conflict refers to a "situation of conflict between focal individuals and different senders in the organization" (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; p. 231). Role ambiguity occurs when necessary information is not available to an employee, which complicates their given organizational position (Rizzo et al., 1970). When role conflict and ambiguity exist, there is no clear model for preferred or expected behavior, which results in the employee experiencing increased stress levels (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; Jackson, & Schuler, 1985; Rizzo et al., 1970).

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1985) conducted a meta-analysis and a conceptual reevaluation of the role ambiguity and role conflict research. The results of the meta-analysis supported the influence of role conflict and ambiguity and unfavorable individual outcomes such as tension and low job satisfaction. It also indicated a weak negative relationship between job ambiguity and job performance. This meta-analysis was "revisited" by Tubre, T. C., & Collins, J. M. (2000) and with the inclusion of a bigger sample in the meta-analysis, the study found support for the negative effect of role conflict and ambiguity on job performance.

Another recent meta-analysis, Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008) included 169 samples. The goal of the meta-analysis was to examine the relationships of seven different work related stressors and job performance: (1) role ambiguity; (2) role conflict; (3) role overload; (4) job insecurity; (5) work–family conflict; (6) environmental uncertainty; and (7) situational constraints. The results indicated each stressor had a negative effect on each job performance measure. Role ambiguity had the strongest negative effect on job performance,

compared to the other stressors. Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson (2011) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the effect of role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, conflict, and overload) on OCB. An analysis of forty-two previous studies indicate that role conflict and role ambiguity have a negative in effect on OCB and that is an interactive effect of the OCB target, organization type, and OCB rating source. Predictably, role conflict had a stronger negative effect on OCB than task performance.

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS (OCB)

One of the most commonly researched contextual or extra-role behaviors is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB is defined as employee behavior that: (1) benefits the organization in some way; (2) is not generally part of an employee's work roles; or (3) is not explicitly compensated (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Organ & Ryan (1995) separate this discretionary effort into different categories: (1) altruism or helping other members of the organization; (2) courtesy or preventing problems originating from the work relationship; (3) sportsmanship or tolerant of less than ideal situations; (4) civic virtue or dutifully contributing to the life of the firm ; and (5) conscientiousness or dedication to the job. Because of the diverse and wide range of citizenship behaviors, Organ (1997; p. 91) redefined OCB as "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supported task performance." Subsequent research has also suggested that OCB can be divided into two separate components. Each of the OCB dimensions can be differentiated by who benefits from the OCB. OCB can be directed toward individuals (OCB-I) or OCB can be directed toward the organization (OCB-O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). There is strong support

for the positive relationship between engagement and OCB (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006).

Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003) examined emotional exhaustion and OCBs. Based on SET, the article predicted that emotional exhaustion influences job performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and turnover intentions. Organizational commitment was hypothesized to mediate these relationships. The findings suggested the stress from emotional exhaustion negatively affects performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and positively affects turnover intentions. As hypothesized, organizational commitment altered these effects. Based on COR theory, Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino (2009) investigated the negative aspects of high work engagement, in terms of OCBs and work-family conflict. According to COR, an employee will try to conserve resources and engaged employees will allocate more resources to work roles and OCBs. The authors hypothesized that the resulting lack of resources for family demands would generate work-family conflict. They also hypothesized that the interactive effect of the individual's level of conscientiousness will reduce the effect of high engagement on work family conflict. The results found higher levels of work interference with family at higher levels of engagement and OCBs. This effect was weaker for employees with higher levels of conscientiousness.

Lee and Allen (2002) examined the role of affect and cognitions in predicting organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and workplace deviance behavior (WDB), data were collected from 149 registered nurses and their coworkers. Job affect was associated more strongly than were job cognitions with OCB directed at individuals, whereas job cognitions correlated more strongly than did job affect with OCB directed at the organization. With respect to WDB, job cognitions played a more important role in prediction when job affect was

represented by 2 general mood variables (positive and negative affect). When discrete emotions were used to represent job affect, however, job affect played as important a role as job cognition variables, strongly suggesting the importance of considering discrete emotions in job affect research.

COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS (CWB)

Counterproductive behaviors are distinctive individual acts that share two characteristics (Spector & Fox, 2005). The behaviors "are volitional (as opposed to accidental or mandated) and harm or intend to harm organizations and/or organization stakeholders, such as clients, coworkers, customers, and supervisors (Spector et al., 2006; p. 447)." CWB can be categorized into five different types: (1) abuse against others; (2) production deviance; (3) sabotage; (4) theft; and (5) withdrawal (Spector et al., 2006). Abuse is defined as either physical or psychological harmful acts directed toward other employees to cause harm. The damage done can be through threats, comments, ignoring, or undermining another employee. Production deviance is purposefully being inefficient and ineffective in task performance (Spector & Fox, 2005). Sabotage is defined as defacing or destroying another person's property (Chen & Spector, 1992). Theft is the unlawful taking of other's property. Research suggests theft is caused by a number of reasons such as the perception it is appropriate, injustice, low self-control, demographic characteristics, personality traits, and stress (Payne & Gainey, 2004). Withdrawal is the intentional restricting of time working to less than what the organization requires such as absence from work, arriving late, leaving early, or taking long breaks.

Spector et al. (2006) examined the multiple components of CWB and their relationship with common CWB antecedents. Three studies supported the independent relationships of the five components of CWB. Some CWB antecedents were better predictors of different CWB

components. Specifically, abuse and sabotage were predicted by stress levels and withdrawal was predicted by boredom and the employee being upset. A meta-analysis, Dalal (2005), investigated the relationship between OCB and CWB. Results supported a moderate negative relationship between OCB and CWB. There was no change in the relationship based on the OCB target (i.e., OCB-O or OCB-I).

A recent study by Ariani (2013) examined the relationships between engagement, OCB, and CWB. The result supported a positive relationship between engagement and OCB. As expected, engagement had a negative effect on CWB and there was a negative relationship between OCB and CWB. Another recent study, Ansari, Maleki, & Mazraeh, 2013) investigated the effects of personality characteristics (conscientiousness, trait anger), job characteristics (skill variety, feedback) and organizational characteristics (distributive justice, organizational constraints) on CWB and the possible interactive effects of burnout and engagement. The results supported a positive relationship between CWB and burnout. Interestingly, the results showed no relationship between engagement and CWB. Additionally, they found no support for any effect of trait anger, distributive justice, or organizational constraints on engagement.

At varying levels, previous research has examined the effect of engagement on the proposed outcome variables. However, the hypothesized model does offer novel insight into two new moderators of engagement's outcome relationships. There has been a very limited amount of research concentrating interactive influences on engagement's outcome relationships with the focus being on personality traits as moderators. To help resolve part of this void in engagement research, the hypothesized model contains two moderators, citizenship pressure and job embeddedness.

CITIZENSHIP PRESSURE

Citizenship pressure is a job demand in which an employee feels stressed from the organization to perform OCBs (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). It is similar but differs from OCB cultures or OCB norms. For example, based principally on SET and justice theories, an OCB culture revolves around an organization anticipating reciprocal employee outcomes by encouraging employees to be good citizens in terms of treating employees fairly, providing interesting work, supporting employee needs (Chen, 2008). Similarly, OCB norms are the level by which citizenship behaviors are considered typical and desirable within an organization. Ehrhart and Naumann (2004) define OCB norms as the degree to which employees recognize their coworkers perform OCBs. This performance is descriptive of a good organization citizen based on social group norms (Bolino et al., 2010).

On the other hand, citizenship pressure is a broader construct than OCB norms and can be described as the degree to which employees perceive stress to engage in OCB. Thus, high levels of citizenship pressure can be viewed as a job demand. Citizenship pressure can stem from "either internal (e.g., dispositional) or external (e.g., group norms, role perceptions, desire for advancement) forces" (Bolino et al., 2010; p. 837). Overall, citizenship pressure is different than other job demands or stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity. While citizenship pressure is an individual's perception of stress concerning the need to engage in allegedly voluntary citizenship behaviors, it is generally perceived at similar levels within an organization across groups of employees. Citizenship pressure does vary across individuals and is in the long run subjective. For example, employees within the same workplace environment, same group, or working for the same supervisor could experience different levels of citizenship pressure (Bolino et al., 2010).

JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

Embeddedness has been shown to affect individual behaviors such as job search, intentions to leave, and voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). The construct is generally defined as how an individual is tied to an organization or occupation. These "ties" are characterized by three dimensions: (1) the person's links to the embedding variable (2) the fit of the person with the organization or occupation; and (3) the sacrifice or what is given up in the process of leaving the organization or occupation (Mitchell et al., 2001). In previous literature, links are described as the ties to other people and activities in a workplace, fit is the extent by which the job and/or community are similar to what the employee values, and sacrifice is ease of which ties can be broken.

Links are the ties to other people and activities within a work context. These ties are generated both internal (within the organization) and external (within the community). Examples of factors creating internal links are relationships with coworkers and supervisors. Examples of external links are relationships with neighbors, friends, families, and activity links in the area. These links have been shown to lower turnover rates (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), create more links that make it more difficult to leave (Burt, 2001), lead to stronger fit through extensive links (Ng & Feldman, 2009), and create larger sacrifices for the employee (Ng & Feldman, 2011).

Fit, as described by Mitchell et al. (2001), is the extent with which the job and communities are similar to the employees' other life spaces. In other words, fit is the extent to which the employee fits into the business or community. This fit has been shown to be a predictor of employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) and is stronger with the addition of extensive links (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

Sacrifice is the "perceived losses (monetary, non-monetary) of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job" (Mitchell et al., 2001). The basic component of

sacrifice is what the employee would have to "give-up" in order to overcome embeddedness. If

the level of sacrifice is low, then the less the person is embedded and the greater the likelihood of

overcoming any effects of embeddedness with greater ease and frequency.

Lee et al. (2004) extended the theory on job embeddedness, which was disaggregated into

its two major sub dimensions, on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness. The results indicated

that off-the-job embeddedness was predictive of voluntary turnover and volitional absences,

while on-the-job embeddedness was not. On-the-job embeddedness had a positive effect on OCB

and task performance, while off-the-job embeddedness was not. Additionally, embeddedness

moderated the effects of absences, OCB, and performance on turnover.

Chapter 2 contained a literature review of the constructs proposed in the hypothesized

model. Table 2.1 consists of the conceptual and operational definitions of the constructs

presented in Chapter 2. In the next chapter, the theoretical development of the hypothesized

model will be discussed.

Table 2.1 Construct conceptual and operational definitions

Construct	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition (3 Sample Items)	Relevant Literature
Perceived Organizational Support *Employee-rated*	An employees' belief that their organization values the employees' contributions and cares about the employees' well-being	1. My organization takes pride in my accomplishments. 2. My organization really cares about my well-being. 3. My organization values my contributions to its well-being.	Eisenberger et al. (2001)
Perceived Supervisor Support *Employee-rated*	The observed level to which supervisors value the work role contributions and the well-being of the employee	1. My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments. 2. My supervisor really cares about my well-being. 3. My supervisor values my contributions to its well-being.	Eisenberger et al. (2002)

	Refers to a disagreement between a focal individual and different senders in the organization	1. I have to do things that should be done differently. 2. I receive assignments without the manpower to complete them. 3. I have to disobey rules and policies in order to carry out assignments.	Rizzo et al. (1970)
Role Conflict *Employee-rated*			
Role Ambiguity *Employee-rated*	Occurs when necessary information is not available to an employee, which complicates their given organizational position	1. I feel certain about how much authority I have. 2. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job. 3. I know that I have divided my time properly.	Rizzo et al. (1970)
Engagement *Employee-rated*	A multidimensional motivational construct reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in active role performance	*Physical engagement* 1. I work with intensity on my job. 2. I exert my full effort to my job. 3. I devote a lot of energy to my job.	Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010)
		Emotional engagement 1. I am enthusiastic in my job. 2. I feel energetic at my job. 3. I am interested in my job.	
		Cognitive engagement 1. At work, my mind is focused on my job. 2. At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job. 3. At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job.	

Task Performance *Supervisor-rated*	Any behavior that is directly related to the accomplishment of the core job activities that support the accomplishment of organizational goals	1. This employee is very competent 2. This employee gets his or her work done very effectively 3. This employee has performed his/her job well	Heilman, Block, and Lucas (1992)
Organizational Citizenship Behavior *Supervisor-rated*	Behavior that benefits the organization in some way, is not generally part of an employee's work roles, or is not explicitly compensated	Separated into OCB-I and OCB-O	Organ and Ryan (1995); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)
OCB-I *Supervisor-rated*	OCB directed at individuals	1. Willingly give time to help others who have work-related problems 2. Adjusts own work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off 3. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems 4. Assist others with their duties	Lee and Allen (2002)
OCB-O *Supervisor-rated*	OCB directed at the organizations	1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image 2. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization 3. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems	
Counterproductive Work Behaviors *Supervisor-rated*	Defacing or destroying another person's property	*Sabotage* 1. Purposely wasted employer's materials/supplies. 2. Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property. 3. Purposely dirtied or littered place of work.	Spector et al. (2006)

	Restricting the amount of time working to less than is required by the organization	*Withdrawal* 1. Came to work late without permission. 2. Stayed home from work and said they were sick when they were not. 3. Taken a longer break than they were allowed to take.	
	Purposefully being inefficient and ineffective in task performance	*Deviance* 1. Purposely did work incorrectly. 2. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done. 3. Purposely failed to follow instructions.	
	Unlawful taking of other's property	*Theft* 1. Stolen something belonging to the employer. 2. Took supplies or tools home without permission. 3. Put in to be paid for more hours than actually worked.	
	Physical or psychological acts directed toward other employees to cause harm	*Abuse* 1. Told people outside the job what a lousy place they work for. 2. Been nasty or rude to a client or customer. 3. Ignored someone at work.	
Organizational Citizenship Pressure *Employee-rated*	Job demand in which an employee feels stressed from the organization to perform OCBs	*OCBO Pressure* 1. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image. 2. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to work beyond my formally prescribed duties for the good of the organization. 3. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	Bolino et al. (2010)

		OCBI Pressure 1. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems. 2. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off. 3. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to give up time to help other employees who have work or non-work problems.	
Job Embeddedness *Employee-rated*	The extent with which the job is similar to the employees' other life spaces	*Fit to Organization* 1. I like the members of my work group. 2. My coworkers are similar to me. 3. My job utilizes my skills and talents well.	Mitchell et al. (2001)
	Ties to other people and activities within a work context	*Links to Organization* 1. How long have you been in your present position? 2. How long have you worked for this company? 3. How long have you worked in this industry?	
	Perceived losses of resources that may be forfeited by leaving a job	*Sacrifice Organization-Related* 1. I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals. 2. The perks on this job are outstanding. 3. I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.	

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT OF MODEL

ANTECEDENT INFLUENCES

The model presented in this study was developed to better define engagement in terms of JDR research, investigate some of engagement's positive and negative antecedent and outcome relationships, and examine new interactive influences on engagement's outcomes. First, the JDR is utilized to predict both resource and demand antecedents. Influences of job resources on engagement are represented by perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS).

POS is the level of employee certainty that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). PSS is the observed level to which supervisors value the work role contributions of employees and care about the well-being of employees (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). An employee's organization and supervisor relationship can be a source of work environment resources. Employees perceiving high levels of POS and PSS feel their organizations care, approve, and respect them. Higher levels of POS and PSS create higher levels of the psychological conditions that predict engagement. Support from one's organization and supervisor can increase the meaningfulness of a work role, the availability of resources, and the safety of self-expression at work. As supported in previous literature, high levels of POS and PSS will result in higher levels of engagement among employees (Bakker et al., 2007; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006).

H1a: The relationship between POS and engagement is positive.

H1b: The relationship between PSS and engagement is positive.

Additionally, in contrast to the effects of resources on engagement, the model examines the influence of job demands in terms of role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity is defined as a lack of formal definition of role duties and requirements. Role conflict exists when an employee's expected behavior during a role episode is inconsistent with other role expectations from members of the other role set (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Rizzo et al., 1970). Both role ambiguity and conflict result in an employee having increased stress, decreased satisfaction, and reduced performance (Rizzo et al., 1970). The likelihood of an employee becoming disengaged is higher in the presence of high levels role ambiguity and conflict because of the decrease of available resources. Based on the JDR, an employee will allocate resources toward a job demand because of the perceived stress of the demand. This reduction of resources will result in a reduction of psychological safety, which is a predictor of engagement. Employees not only will have fewer resources but may be afraid or unable to express themselves in their work roles because of role conflict and ambiguity. This reduction of psychological safety or fear of unwarranted negative feedback could also decrease engagement.

H2a: The relationship between role ambiguity and engagement is negative.

H2b: The relationship between role conflict and engagement is negative.

OUTCOMES OF ENGAGEMENT

Task performance has been defined as any behavior that is directly related to the accomplishment of the core job activities that support the accomplishment of organizational goals (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997). There are three attributes of task performance: (1) it should be established and central to any associated job; (2) there needs to be consensus about

what the job activities are; and (3) these activities should be relatively static over time (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Previous research has supported higher levels of engagement predicting higher levels of task performance (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010). This is based on the fact that engagement is a predictor of resource allocation. Engaged employees will allocate more resources to work roles and thereby perform at a higher level.

H3: The relationship between engagement and task performance is positive

The model hypothesizes a number of other outcomes of engagement, both positive and negative. First, engagement's relationship with OCB is tested. OCB is defined as employee behavior that: (1) benefits the organization in some way; (2) is not generally part of an employee's work roles; or (3) is not explicitly compensated (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Subsequent research also suggested that organizational citizenship behavior can be divided into two separate components. The first is directed toward individuals (OCB-I) and the second is organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization (OCB-O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Engaged employees will display an increase of discretionary effort, such as increased OCB-I and OCB-O, toward both individuals and the organization (Christian et al., 2011).

H4a: The relationship between engagement and OCBO is positive.

H4b: The relationship between engagement and OCBI is positive.

The negative outcome of engagement examined in this model is counterproductive work behaviors. Counterproductive work behaviors can be divided into five categories: (1) abuse toward others; (2) production deviance; (3) sabotage; (4) theft; and (5) withdrawal (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). While all forms of counterproductive behavior may result from work role demands, previous research (Spector et al., 2006) shows abuse, sabotage, and withdrawal are

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strongly related to work stress. Abuse is defined as either physical or psychological harmful acts

directed toward other employees to cause harm. The damage done can be through threats,

comments, ignoring, or undermining another employee. Production deviance is purposefully

being inefficient and ineffective in task performance (Spector & Fox, 2005). Sabotage is defined

as defacing or destroying another's property (Chen & Spector, 1992). Theft is the unlawful

taking of other's property. Research suggests theft is caused by a number of factors such as the

perception it is appropriate, injustice, low self-control, demographic characteristics, personality

traits, and stress (Payne & Gainey, 2004). Withdrawal is the intentional restricting of time

working to less than what the organization requires such as absence from work, arriving late,

leaving early, or taking long breaks. Because engaged employee allocate more resources to work

roles, any remaining resources will likely be divided into off-job roles such as family activities.

It is unlikely that an engaged employee or one with high levels of meaningfulness, resource

availability, and safety would allocate resources toward CWB.

H5: The relationship between engagement and counterproductive work behaviors is negative.

MEDIATING EFFECTS OF ENGAGEMENT

As discussed in hypotheses 1-5, engagement plays a large role in the allocation of

resources toward job demands. The JDR framework, which engagement is based on, states that

stressors within the workplace may preclude resource allocation to necessary work roles. For

example, if an employee perceives a job demand, such as a deadline to perform a work activity,

then the employee is likely to allocate resources, such as time or effort, to satisfy the demand. A

measure of that allocation is engagement. Or stated another way, engagement would mediate the

relationship between the stressor and performance. The effect of a given resource, such as POS

or PSS, on both positive and negative outcomes, such as OCB or CWB, is dependent on the

employee's level of engagement in work roles. Likewise, the effect of a given demand, such as role conflict or ambiguity, on both positive and negative outcomes, such as OCB or CWB, is dependent on the employee's level of engagement in work roles. Based on this, hypotheses 6-9 are:

H6: Engagement will mediate the relationship between POS and

    H6a: Task Performance

    H6b: OCBO

    H6c: OCBI

    H6d: CWB

H7: Engagement will mediate the relationship between PSS and

    H7a: Task Performance

    H7b: OCBO

    H7c: OCBI

    H7d: CWB

H8: Engagement will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and

    H8a: Task Performance

    H8b: OCBO

    H8c: OCBI

    H8d: CWB

H9: Engagement will mediate the relationship between role conflict and

    H9a: Task Performance

    H9b: OCBO

    H9c: OCBI

H9d: CWB

THE MODERATING EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP PRESSURE

To examine possible changes in engagement's effect on both positive and negative outcomes the model includes two moderators, OCB pressure and job embeddedness. The interactive effects of these moderators are hypothesized to alter the influence of an employee's level of engagement on OCB and CWB. As previously hypothesized, in the absence of these moderators, engagement is expected to have a positive influence on OCB and a negative effect on CWB. Stated another way, a highly engaged employee is predicted to display more citizenship behaviors and fewer counterproductive behaviors while a low engaged employee will have fewer citizenship behaviors and more counterproductive behaviors.

OCB pressure occurs when organizations create circumstances in which organizations stress employees perform citizenship behaviors (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). Because of the added stress of OCB pressure, it may alter the positive relationship between engagement and OCB. For example, an employee may view the stress to display citizenship behaviors as a job demand and, like any job demand that produces stress, the employee must allocate resources to the demand which results in less resources going towards OCB. The result would be a reduction in overall OCB. The added demand of citizenship pressure will make the relationship between engagement and OCB less positive. So, in an organization with high citizenship pressure, an engaged employee will perform less citizenship behaviors than a similarly engaged employee in an organization without citizenship pressure. A conceptual graph of the proposed interaction is presented in Figure 3.1.

H10: When OCB pressure is high the relationship between work engagement and OCB will be less positive.

Figure 3.1: Proposed interaction of citizenship pressure on engagement and OCB relationship
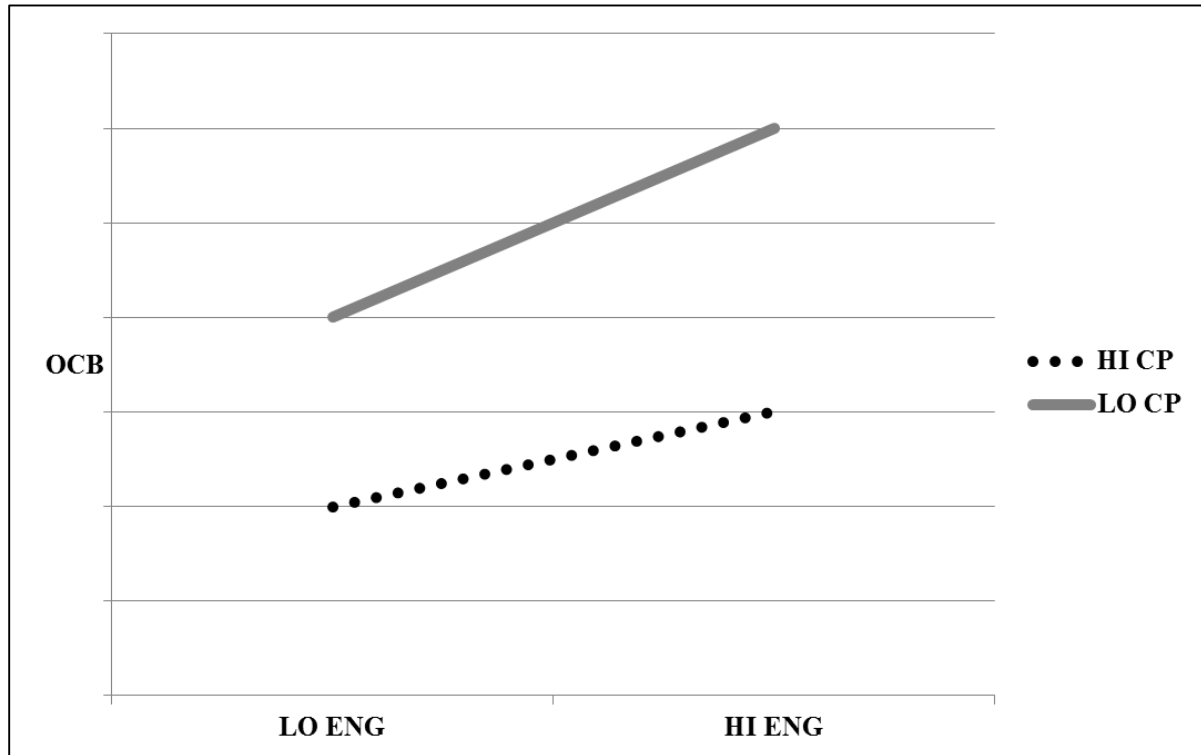
THE MODERATING EFFECT OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

Job embeddedness can be viewed as an employee's attachment or ties to work roles

(Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, & Erez, 2001). Embeddedness is usually divided into two separate

categories: (1) organizational or on-the-job and (2) community or off-the-job embeddedness.

This model is focused on organizational or on-the-job embeddedness because it has been

supported as a better predictor of work place outcomes with the exception of job relocation,

which is not an outcome of this model (Lee et al., 2004). Because of the increased attachment to

work roles, high levels of embeddedness have been shown to reduce negative outcomes such as

absenteeism and voluntary turnover (Lee et al, 2001). If an employee is tied to an organization

by their links, fit, or sacrifice then the employee will be less likely to engage in CWB. The result

will be a reduction in the negative effect of engagement on CWB. Or a high level of job

embeddedness will make the relationship of engagement and counterproductive behaviors less

negative. A conceptual graph of the proposed interaction is presented in Figure 3.2.

H11: When embeddedness is high the relationship between work engagement and

counterproductive work behaviors will be less negative.

Figure 3.2: Proposed interaction of job embeddedness on engagement and OCB relationship
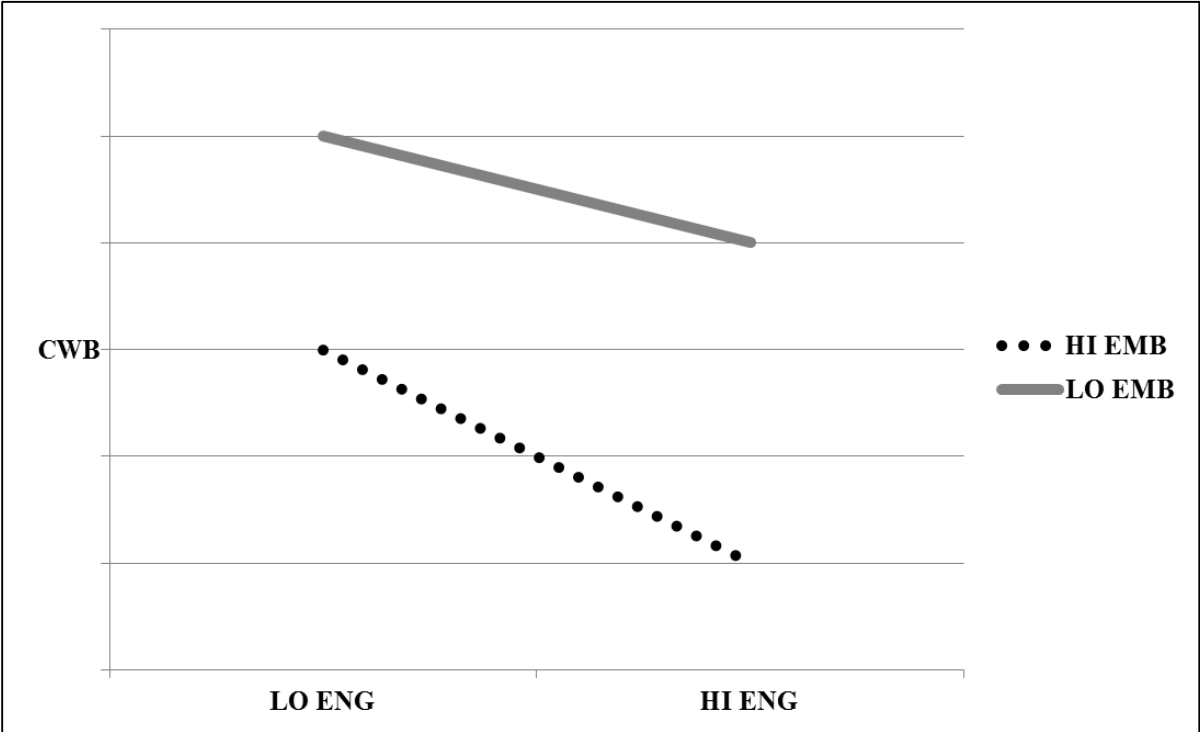
CHAPTER FOUR

METHODS

DATA COLLECTION

The study was designed to collect data from two separate sources. The first survey was competed by working adults, employees. It gathered data on the independent variables (POS, PSS, role conflict, and role ambiguity), moderators (citizenship pressure and job embeddedness), and engagement. Another survey, which collected data from the employee's direct supervisor, contained questions pertaining to the dependent variables (Task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and CWB). This research was designed in this manner to maximize the likelihood of collecting valid, objective data on employee perceptions related to work (i.e., independent variables, moderators, and engagement) and also accurate data on the employee's actual work behaviors (i.e., dependent variables).

Student-recruited sampling method was utilized to identify the subjects to participate in this study (Wheeler, Shanine, Leon, & Whitman, 2014). Student-recruited sampling has become an acceptable research method, especially when collecting survey data (Demerouti & Rispens, 2014; Hochwarter, 2014). One recent meta-analysis, Wheeler et al. (2014), examined several studies of engagement to determine whether or not student recruited sampling yielded different results (both demographic and in observed relationships) than traditional sampling. After comparing the results, the meta-analysis did not find a significant difference, in both the demographics and observed relationships, based on their use of traditional or student-recruited sampling (Wheeler et al., 2014).

As suggested when using student-recruited sampling, students were provided with the preferred demographic for participants and instructions for the data collection process (Demerouti & Rispens, 2014; Hochwarter, 2014; Wheeler et al., 2014). In exchange for extra-credit in undergraduate business courses, students were instructed to locate subjects that were at least 18 years of age and have worked full-time for at least two years. In an attempt to increase the diversity and external validity of the sample, students were not allowed to take the survey even if they met the required demographics. Qualtrics survey software was utilized to collect data from all participants in the study.

The data collection procedure was as follows. First, students were emailed a template email for the employee survey, which only required the student to fill in the participant's name as the addressee of the email. The students were instructed to forward the email only to subjects fitting the required demographic for the study. The template email, which students forwarded to working adults, provided employees with the needed information for the employee to participate in the study. The information provided in the employee email included: (1) instructions for taking the survey; (2) a link to the Qualtrics survey; (3) and the contact information for researchers and the university's internal review board (IRB). Next, if the employee consented to take the survey by clicking on the link then they were asked questions pertaining to data collection of the independent variables (POS, PSS, role conflict, and role ambiguity), moderators (citizenship pressure and job embeddedness), and engagement. At the end of employee survey, the subject was asked for their name and the name and email of their direct supervisor. Then, using the information provided by the employee in the employee survey, the principal researcher emailed the supervisor survey to the employee's direct supervisor. Additionally after 24 hours, if

there was no response from the direct supervisor, the primary researcher would send at least

three follow-up reminder emails to the supervisor.

The email for supervisors contained the following: instructions for taking the survey, a

link to the Qualtrics survey, and the contact information for researchers and the university's

internal review board (IRB). Once the survey data from all surveys was collected, the data was

combined, and the identifiers were removed to protect the identity of the employee and direct

supervisor.

Several procedures were employed to help insure the validity of the data (Dillman,

Smyth, & Christian, 2009). First, as described above, detailed instructions were provided to both

students and study participants (employees and supervisors). Next, the data provided by each

subject was examined to locate any patterns within the scale responses. Any patterns that were

located had to be examined on a case-by-case basis. If it was believed that the pattern was

intentional then the survey was removed. Furthermore, Qualtrics software provides other useful

data such as the time and Internet protocol (IP) address of each survey response. Based on the

average time to complete the employee survey, which was 26.8 minutes ($SD = 7.9$), any

employee survey completed in less than 5 minutes was not considered valid and was also

removed. To help prevent students from taking the survey, any survey responses that originated

from a university Internet protocol (IP) address was also removed.

MEASURES

All scales utilized a 7 point Likert scale with response options ranging from 1="strongly

disagree" to 7="strongly agree". Both conceptual and operational definitions of the constructs

can be found in Table 2.1. Data on the independent variables (POS, PSS, role conflict, and role

ambiguity), moderators (citizenship pressure and job embeddedness), and engagement was

collected from employees or working adults. An additional survey, which collected data from the employee's direct supervisor, collected data on the dependent variables (Task performance, OCB-O, OCB-I, and CWB).

<div align="center">EMPLOYEE REPORTED MEASURES</div>

Perceived organizational support was collected from employees and measured on a 6 item scale from Eisenberger et al., 2001. Sample items from the measure are: "my organization takes pride in my accomplishments", "my organization really cares about my well-being", and "my organization values my contributions to its well-being." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of perceived organizational support. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .90.

Perceived supervisor support was collected from employees using a 6 item scale from Eisenberger et al., 2002. The items are similar to the POS scale but the referent is changed to reflect the employee's perceived support from the supervisor. Sample scale items are: "my supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments", "my supervisor really cares about my well-being", and "my supervisor values my contributions to its well-being." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of perceived supervisor support. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .89.

Engagement was assessed by asking employees questions based on a 18 item scale from Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) that captures three dimensions of engagement (*physical*, *emotional*, and *cognitive*). Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of engagement. Sample items are, "I work with intensity on my job" (*physical*), "I am enthusiastic in my job" (*emotional*), and "At work, my mind is focused on my job" (*cognitive*). Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of engagement. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .95.

Citizenship Pressure was collected from employees and measured with an 8-item scale from Bolino et al. (2010). Sample items for this measure were ''I feel a lot of pressure from the

organization to attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image", "I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to work beyond my formally prescribed duties for the good of the organization", "I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to take action to protect the organization from potential problems", and "I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to do a lot of things that, technically, I don't have to do." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of citizenship pressure. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .90.

Job Embeddedness was assessed from employees by using a 25 item scale from Mitchell et al. (2001). Sample items are: *"I like the members of my work group"*, "my coworkers are similar to me" and "my job utilizes my skills and talents well". Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of job embeddedness. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .93.

Marker Variable was measured by a 3 item scale from Miller & Chiodo (2008). The items are "I prefer the color blue", "I do not like the color blue (r)", and "I like wearing blue clothes". Responses were averaged to derive an overall level the marker variable. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .90.

Control Variables were gender, job tenure, and industry. Gender was held constant to control any differences attributed to whether the employee was male (coded 1) or female (coded 0). The amount of time an employee has had their current job was controlled because the independent variables and moderators are perceptions of resources or demands within an employee's workplace. Because of the diversity of the industries represented in the sample, the industries were dummy coded and included in the statistically analysis.

SUPERVISOR REPORTED MEASURES

Task performance was measured from direct supervisor reported scales (Smircich, & Chesser, 1981). The supervisor-rated scale items are from Heilman, Block, and Lucas (1992).

The scale items are: "This employee is very competent"; "This employee gets his or her work done very effectively"; and "This employee has performed his/her job well." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of task performance. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .91.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB-I and OCB-O) were collected from direct supervisors using scales from Lee and Allen (2002). Examples of the OCB-I scale items are: "Willingly gives time to help others who have work-related problems" and "Adjusts work schedule to accommodate other employees". Examples of OCB-O scale items are: "Attend functions that are not required but that help the organization" and "Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of OCB-I and OCB-O. Cronbach's alpha for the scales was .90 for OCB-I and .79 for OCB-O.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors were collected from direct supervisors using a 16 item scale from Spector et al. (2006). Sample scale items are: *Sabotage* "employee purposely wasted employer's materials/supplies"; *Withdrawal* "employee came to work late without permission; *Production Deviance* "employee purposely did work incorrectly"; *Theft* "employee stolen something belonging to employer"; and *Abuse* "employee told people outside the job what a lousy place they work for." Responses were averaged to derive an overall level of counterproductive work behaviors. Cronbach's alpha for scale was .93.

ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

Reliability and correlations of the survey data were analyzed. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale items in the measurement model (Schreiber et al., 2006). A CFA analysis examines the validity of latent factors by estimating the degree to which scale items load on their anticipated latent factors. Individual indicators must load, at an acceptable level, on the intended latent factor to

remain in the dataset. Factor loadings for remaining indicators were used to check for construct and discriminant validity issues (Hatcher & O'Rourke, 2014).

In addition to the CFA, to test for common method variance that may exist in survey responses, the employees answered a three item, marker variable scale presented in Miller & Chiodo (2008). The scale asks about the participant's attitudes toward the color blue. To be considered a valid marker variable scale, according to procedures defined in Lindell and Whitney (2001), all scale items must be theoretically unrelated to the variables of interest and thus must be statistically uncorrelated (Williams & Cavazotte, 2010). A subject's preference for the color blue was uncorrelated with all the variables of interest in the study.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) measures the interrelations between latent factors in a sequence of structural equations. Once the measurement model was confirmed, structural models were used to calculate the parameter estimates for the hypothesized direct and indirect (mediation) effects (Ding, Velicer, & Harlow, 1995). The statistical significance of structural path estimates and standard errors were checked. One major advantage of SEM is that it can indicate whether the hypothesized model is a good fit for the data collected in this study (Schreiber et al., 2006). Fit is judged by fit indices provided by the SEM analysis. The fit indices that were checked and reported are the non-normed fit index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). For good fit, when examining continuous data, Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that the values of the fit indices should be: RMSEA < .06; TLI > .95; and CFI > .95. Additionally, an alternate, direct path model was tested to check for better model fit compared to the hypothesized model.

The moderated effects were analyzed using hierarchal regression. Interaction or moderation exists if the relationship of engagement and OCB or engagement and CWB varies as

a function of the value of another independent variable such as citizenship pressure or job

embeddedness (Aiken & West, 1991). To test for moderation, all independent variables were

mean-centered and a product variable from engagement and each moderator (citizenship pressure

and job embeddedness) was created (Hayes, 2008). Multiple regression analysis for moderation

was conducted in steps. Lower order variables were left in each subsequent step. The first step

examined the effect of control variables. Next, the effect of the moderating variable and

engagement on the dependent variables was tested. Finally, the product term was included to test

the statistical significance of the moderated or interaction effect.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

SAMPLE

Overall, 521 students were offered extra-credit for recruiting a minimum of three survey participants. 383 employee surveys were submitted, so based on the possible number of surveys that could have been submitted (1563), the response rate for employees was approximately 24 percent. From the data collected in the employee surveys, 342 supervisor surveys were emailed to direct supervisors. Some of the employee surveys were removed due to incomplete data, mainly missed identifiers or direct supervisor contact information. Of the 342 supervisor surveys that were emailed, 228 were submitted by direct supervisors of the original employees (66 percent response rate for supervisors). After removing remaining incomplete surveys, the final sample size, which contained paired employee and direct supervisor survey data, was 220.

The average age of employees in this study was 32.6 years ($SD = 8.6$), with 84 percent being Caucasian, and 70 percent being female (refer to Tables 5.1 and 5.2). Mean work experience was 18.4 years ($SD = 12.1$), mean organizational tenure was 8.9 years ($SD = 8.5$) and job tenure was 7.1 years ($SD = 7.4$). The respondents reported that 18.6 percent were high school graduates, 15.9 percent held an associate degree, 52.7 percent had earned a bachelor's degree, 11.4 percent a master's degree, and 0.5 percent a doctoral degree (refer to Table 5.3). The main industries represented within the sample were health care or social service (17.3 percent), finance or insurance (15 percent), manufacturing (9.5 percent), education (8.2 percent), wholesale or

retail (8.2 percent), and real estate (7.3 percent), for exact breakdown of industries refer to Table

5.4.

Table 5.1 Demographics (Gender)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	154	70.0	70.0	70.0
Male	66	30.0	30.0	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.2 Demographics (Ethnicity)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
White / Caucasian	184	83.6	83.6	83.6
Black / African American	18	8.2	8.2	91.8
Latino / Latina / Hispanic	6	2.7	2.7	94.5
Native American	1	.5	.5	95.0
Asian / Native Hawaiian	9	4.1	4.1	99.1
Multi-racial (more than one race)	1	.5	.5	99.5
Other	1	.5	.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.3 Demographics (Education)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School / GED	41	18.6	18.6	18.6
Associate Degree	35	15.9	15.9	34.5
Technical Degree	2	.9	.9	35.5
Bachelor's Degree	116	52.7	52.7	88.2
Master's Degree	25	11.4	11.4	99.5
Doctoral Degree	1	.5	.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.4 Demographics (Industry)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agriculture	3	1.4	1.4	1.4
Construction or Utilities	13	5.9	5.9	7.3
Manufacturing	21	9.5	9.5	16.8
Wholesale or Retail	18	8.2	8.2	25.0
Transportation or Warehousing	4	1.8	1.8	26.8
Information Technology	15	6.8	6.8	33.6
Finance or Insurance	33	15.0	15.0	48.6
Real Estate	16	7.3	7.3	55.9
Education	18	8.2	8.2	64.1
Health Care or Social Services	38	17.3	17.3	81.4
Arts, Entertainment, or Recreation	8	3.6	3.6	85.0
Accommodation or Food Services	9	4.1	4.1	89.1
Public Administration	5	2.3	2.3	91.4
Other	19	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

RELIABILITY AND CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Table 4.5 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations for each of the variables in the study, calculated using SPSS. Scale reliabilities are displayed along the main diagonal. All reliabilities were acceptable at an above 0.7 alpha. Consistent with previous studies regarding engagement, certain correlations supported a ($p < .01$) positive relationships between engagement and: perceived organization support ($r = .25$); perceived supervisor support ($r = .31$); task performance ($r = .33$); organizational citizenship behavior-individual (.56); organizational citizenship behavior-individual ($r = .48$). Additionally, consistent with the hypothesized model, the correlation supported a negative relationship between engagement and role ambiguity ($r = -.20$). Also, engagement had a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors ($r = -.38$). The correlation between role conflict and engagement was not supported. Next, the potential for common-method variance (CMV) was investigated (Doty & Glick, 1998; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The lack of significant correlation between the marker variable and all other variables suggests CMV was not an issue (refer to Table 5.5). To test for multicollinearity, variance inflation factors were calculated. Overall, the variance inflation factors were 1.8 or less, which is less than the suggested threshold of 10.0 therefore the effects of collinearity were limited (Lomax, 1992).

Table 5.5. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations for All Measures

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender	.300	.459															
2. Industry	7.736	3.535	-.201**														
3. Job Tenure	8.882	8.503	.086	-.236**													
4. Engagement	5.764	.949	.053	.002	.030	(.95)											
5. Perceived Organizational Support	5.677	1.186	-.061	-.085	.038	.251**	(.90)										
6. Perceived Supervisor Support	6.083	.934	-.103	-.049	-.012	.312**	.721**	(.89)									
7. Role Conflict	4.937	1.378	-.119	-.002	.059	.078	.462**	.361**	(.88)								
8. Role Ambiguity	2.330	.882	.044	.091	-.065	-.197**	-.539**	-.555**	-.386**	(.86)							
9. Embeddedness	5.462	.940	-.059	-.151*	.135*	.275**	.726**	.580**	.419**	-.642**	(.93)						
10. Citizenship Pressure	5.493	.848	-.037	-.081	-.045	.426**	.291**	.233**	.172*	-.179**	.208**	(.90)					
11. Task Performance	6.258	1.209	.077	-.109	.063	.329**	.166*	.228**	.058	-.194**	.161*	.275**	(.91)				
12. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organization)	4.819	.528	.027	.083	-.055	.558**	.151*	.203**	.049	-.083	.090	.469**	.269**	(.79)			
13. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Individual)	6.048	.868	.002	.041	-.058	.482**	.280**	.353**	.127	-.184**	.229**	.285**	.532**	.365**	(.90)		
14. Counterproductive Work Behaviors	1.620	.771	.035	-.014	.097	-.377**	-.179**	-.205**	-.116	.198**	-.254**	-.367**	-.477**	-.287**	-.630**	(.93)	
15. Marker Variable	3.556	1.646	-.075	-.093	.107	-.034	-.009	.021	.057	-.021	.025	-.115	.009	-.050	.027	.069	(.90)

Note. N = 220. Alphas are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal.

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

Discriminant validity was examined by comparing the squared intercorrelations between

constructs and the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct. Support for discriminant

validity exists if the squared intercorrelations between variables are less than the AVE for each

construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The squared intercorrelations were less than the AVE for

the relevant constructs thus supporting discriminant validity. The AVE for OCBO was .48,

which was slightly less than the recommended threshold cut-off of .50 (Fornell & Larcker,

1981). The AVEs for the remainder of the measures were at or greater than .50 (Refer to Table

5.6).

Table 5.6. Reliabilities and Average Variance Explained

	Mean	S.D.	α	CR	AVE
1. Engagement	5.764	.949	.95	.91	.64
2. POS	5.677	1.186	.90	.96	.87
3. PSS	6.083	.934	.89	.95	.84
4. Role Conflict	4.937	1.378	.88	.96	.52
5. Role Ambiguity	2.330	.882	.86	.87	.62
6. Embeddedness	5.462	.940	.93	.94	.64
7. Citizenship Pressure	5.493	.848	.90	.88	.65
8. Task Performance	6.258	1.209	.91	.97	.92
9. OCBO	4.819	.528	.79	.79	.48
10. OCBI	6.048	.868	.90	.89	.66
11. CWB	1.620	.771	.93	.89	.68
12. Marker Variable	3.556	1.646	.90	.91	.78

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Next, in MPlus, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to ensure that all

scale items had significant loadings on their construct of interest, that the constructs

demonstrated adequate convergent, and that the model generated good fit. The method of

estimation for the CFA was maximum likelihood; based on the assumption all variables were

normally distributed. The cross loading cut-off for factor loadings was 0.7. Overall, there are 12

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latent variables estimated in the measurement model. Engagement, job embeddedness, and counterproductive work behaviors were modeled as second-order latent factors. The three dimensions of engagement and embeddedness were treated as first-order latent factors and were represented by six items each. The five dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors were also treated as first-order factors and had three items apiece. These first order factors were then used as indicators of the higher-order constructs.

All the remaining variables in the study were modeled in the CFA as first-order latent variables. The variables represented by six observed scale items were perceived organization support, perceived supervisor support, role ambiguity, organization citizenship behavior (organization), and organization citizenship behavior (individual). Role conflict had seven items. Finally, task performance and the marker variable had three items each. For first order factors, the standardized factor loadings ranged from .69 to .96 and were all statistically significant (p < .05), indicating convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Gerbing & Anderson, 1992). Finally, the fit of the CFA was acceptable ($\chi^2 = 10133.96$, $df = 4772$, $p < .001$; CFI = .90, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .07). Next, given these diagnostic results, the hypothesized model was tested.

STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL ANALYSIS

The next analysis, to test hypotheses 1-5, was conducting using structural equation modeling (SEM) in MPlus. To accomplish this, two different structural models were tested. Both models have POS, PSS, role conflict, and role ambiguity as independent (exogenous) variables. Also, both models have task performance, OCB (organization and individual), and counterproductive work behavior as dependent (endogenous) variables. In both models, independent variables were allowed to co-vary. Model 1 is the hypothesized mediated model with engagement as the mediator between the independent and dependent variables (see Figure

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5.1). Model 2 is a direct path model without engagement as a mediator and the independent variables directly predicting the dependent variables. Of the two structural models, only Model 1 estimated and had acceptable fit (χ^2 = 1291.455, df = 609, p < .001; RMSEA = .07, CFI = .91, SRMR = .07). Fit is judged by fit indices provided by SEM analysis. For good fit when examining continuous data, Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest the values of the fit indices be: RMSEA < .06; CFI > .90; and SRMR = .07.

Based on SEM, the significance results for the proposed hypotheses were:

H1a: The relationship between POS and engagement is positive. NOT SUPPORTED

H1b: The relationship between PSS and engagement is positive. SUPPORTED

H2a: The relationship between role ambiguity and engagement is negative. NOT SUPPORTED

H2b: The relationship between role conflict and engagement is negative. NOT SUPPORTED

H3: The relationship between engagement and task performance is positive. SUPPORTED

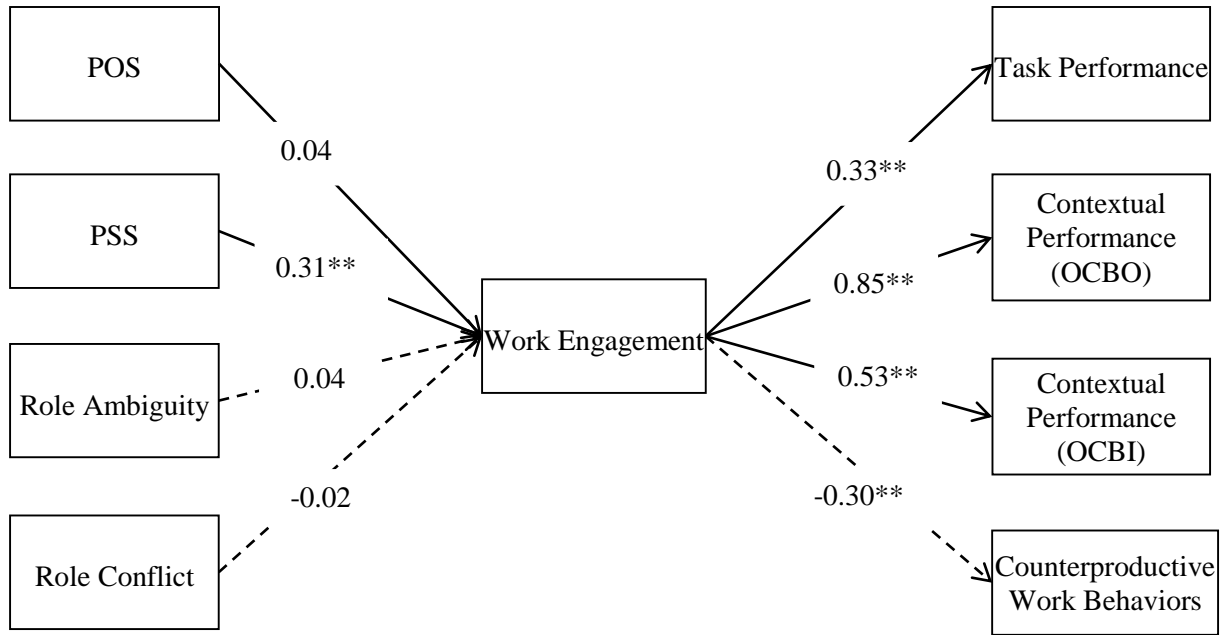*H4a: The relationship between engagement and OCBO is positive.* SUPPORTED

H4b: The relationship between engagement and OCBI is positive. SUPPORTED

H5: The relationship between engagement and CWB is negative. SUPPORTED

Figure 5.1: Structural Hypothesized Mediated Model

Note: N = 220. Solid lines represent positive relationships.

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

Next, the hypotheses concerning engagement mediating the paths between the independent and dependent variables (*H6-H8*) were tested. But, of the first four hypotheses proposing relationships between the independent variables and engagement, only PSS had a significant path coefficient. Because of this fact, the only hypothesis concerning mediated paths that was tested was engagement mediating the path between PSS and each dependent variable. To test for mediation, the direct and indirect effects were analyzed in MPlus (refer to Table 5.7). Partial mediation exists if the total indirect effect is significant and the direct effect is also significant (MacKinnon et al., 2002, Preacher, Kristopher, & Hayes, 2004). In all the hypothesized mediated relationships in H7, both the direct and total indirect effects are significant which suggests engagement only partially mediates the relationships.

Table 5.7 Mediation Test

H7: Engagement will mediate the relationship between PSS and:		
	Direct Effect	Total Indirect Effect
H7a: Task Performance	0.189**	0.103**
H7b: OCBO	0.201**	0.264**
H7c: OCBI	0.303**	0.167**
H7d: CWB	-0.119**	-0.093**

* p < .05 ** p < .01

So based on these results:

H6: Engagement will mediate the relationship between POS and

  H6a: Task Performance   NOT SUPPORTED

  H6b: OCBO   NOT SUPPORTED

  H6c: OCBI   NOT SUPPORTED

| *H6d: CWB* | NOT SUPPORTED |

H7: Engagement will mediate the relationship between PSS and

H7a: Task Performance	SUPPORTED (PARTIAL)
H7b: OCBO	SUPPORTED (PARTIAL)
H7c: OCBI	SUPPORTED (PARTIAL)
H7d: CWB	SUPPORTED (PARTIAL)

H8: Engagement will mediate the relationship between role ambiguity and

H8a: Task Performance	NOT SUPPORTED
H8b: OCBO	NOT SUPPORTED
H8c: OCBI	NOT SUPPORTED
H8d: CWB	NOT SUPPORTED

H9: Engagement will mediate the relationship between role conflict and

H9a: Task Performance	NOT SUPPORTED
H9b: OCBO	NOT SUPPORTED
H9c: OCBI	NOT SUPPORTED
H9d: CWB	NOT SUPPORTED

INTERACTION ANALYSES

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized moderated relationships (*H10* and *H11*). For testing the interaction hypotheses, all independent variables were mean centered and a cross-product term was created for each interaction; between engagement and citizenship pressure, also, engagement and job embeddedness. In the regression equation, the three control variables (gender, industry, and job tenure) were entered in Step 1 of

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the analysis, the main effects were entered in Step 2, and the interaction product variable was entered in Step 3.

Tables 5.7 and 5.8 present the results from each of the regression analyses. To test H10, Step 2 of the analysis examined the effect of engagement on OCBO, and citizenship pressure on OCBO. The main effect of engagement on OCBO was supported and positive ($B = .502$; $p < .01$), so the more engaged an employee is the more OCBO behaviors direct supervisors observed. The main effect of citizenship pressure on OCBO was not supported.

Table 5.8 Regression Analysis of OCBO

Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Controls			
Gender	.051	.000	-.035
Industry	-.010	-.011	-.013
Job Tenure	-.006	-.008	-.006
Focal Variables (Main Effects)			
Engagement		.502**	.437**
Citizenship Pressure		.062	.069
Interaction Terms (Conditional Effects)			
Engagement x Citizenship Pressure			-.149**
R^2	.006	.362	.382
ΔR^2		.356**	.020**
Final Adj. R^2=.364**			

Note: N = 220. Unstandardized coefficient values are shown.

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

In the final step of the regression examines the hypotheses concerning the influence of interaction between engagement and citizenship pressure on OCBO. The interaction term was found to be negative and supported ($B = -.149$, $p < .01$), and accounted for an additional 2 percent explained variance in OCBO. Figure 4.2 graphically depicts the interaction. The general pattern indicates that the interaction functions in the hypothesized manner. That is, the interaction or moderated relationship of citizenship pressure weakens the effect engagement has on OCBO.

Figure 5.2 Interaction of Engagement and Citizenship Pressure on OCBO
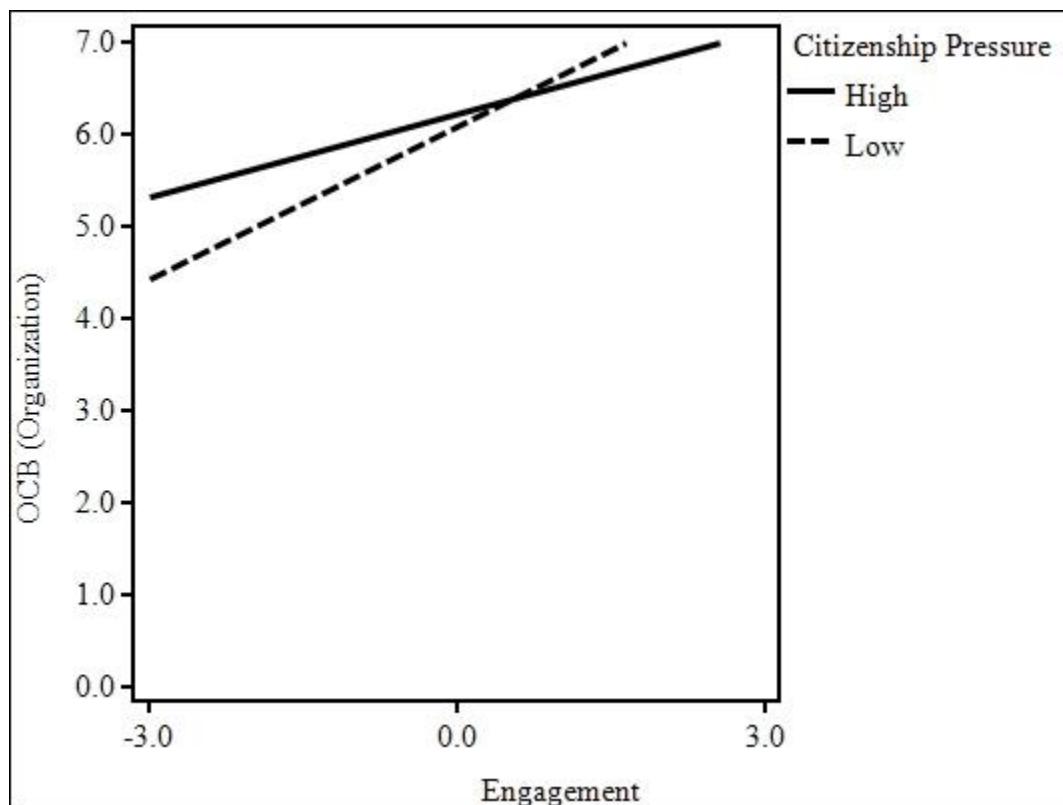
H10: When OCB pressure is high the relationship between work engagement and OCB will be less positive. SUPPORTED

To test H11, Step 2 of the analysis tested the main effects of engagement on CWB, and job embeddedness on CWB. The main effect of engagement on CWB was supported and

negative ($B = -0.271$; $p < .01$). The main effect of job embeddedness on CWB was also negative

and supported ($B = -0.146$; $p < .01$). Therefore the more an employee is engaged or embedded in

a workplace the less likely they are to exhibit CWB.

Table 5.9 Regression Analysis of CWB

Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Controls			
Gender	.050	.051	.035
Industry	.003	-.001	-.007
Job Tenure	.009	.012	.012
Focal Variables (Main Effects)			
Engagement		-0.271**	-0.29**
Job Embeddedness		-0.146**	-.075
Interaction Terms (Conditional Effects)			
Engagement x Job Embeddedness			.194**
R^2	.010	.184	.239
ΔR^2		.174**	.055**
Final Adj. R^2=.218**			

Note: N = 220. Unstandardized coefficient values are shown.

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

In the final step of the regression was to analysis the hypotheses concerning the influence

of interaction between engagement and job embeddedness on CWB. The interaction term was

found to be positive and supported ($B = .194$, $p < .01$), and accounted for an additional 6 percent

explained variance in CWB. Figure 4.3 graphically depicts the interaction. The general pattern

indicates that the interaction functions in the hypothesized manner. That is, the interactive effect

of job embeddedness has on the relationship between engagement and CWB is less negative. In

other words, an embedded engaged employee is less likely to display CWB than an engaged

employee.

H11: When embeddedness is high the relationship between work engagement and

counterproductive work behaviors will be less negative. SUPPORTED

Figure 5.3 Interaction of Engagement and Citizenship Pressure on OCBO
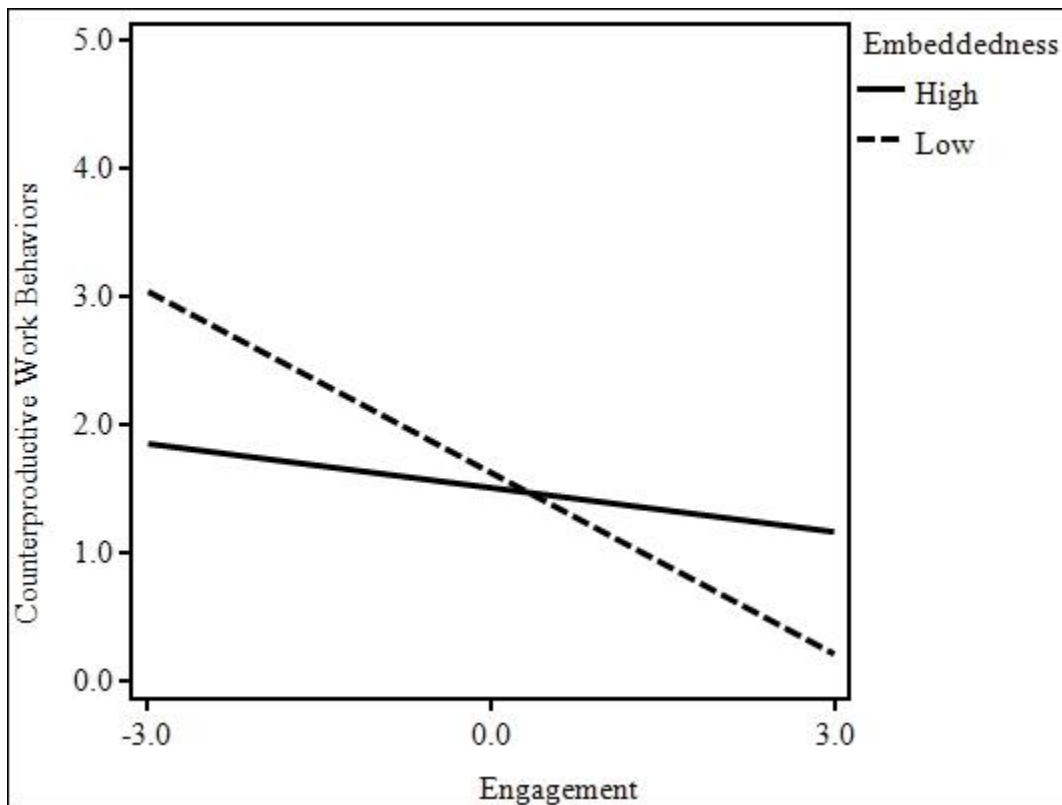
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

The concept of employee engagement has produced an increasing number of articles in academic and practitioner publications (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). This fact can be regarded as evidence of an emergent interest in the construct. Much of this interest is driven by the desire to identify the effects of job demands and resources on engagement, to better understand employee behaviors. This identification is important because it has been viewed as one way for organizations to gain a competitive advantage (Lawler, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994).

The questions tested in this dissertation are needed because of a lack of examination of the negative aspects of work engagement, which has diminished our conceptualization of the construct. A more comprehensive understanding of the negative relationships of engagement, to include moderated relationships, can allow for better understanding of its outcomes. Based on these observations, the three goals of this study were: (1) to examine, based on the job demands and resources framework, antecedent and outcome relationships (i.e., role conflict, role ambiguity, and counterproductive work behaviors); (2) to identify interactions that could negatively impact engagement's positive outcomes (i.e. citizenship pressure); and (3) to identify interactions that could positively impact engagement's negative outcomes (i.e. job embeddedness).

This focus of this dissertation was to test our current belief in the effect of engagement on certain work behaviors. To that end, one mediated and two moderated models were used to test some of engagement's relationships. The purpose of these tests was to identify a possible time

when highly engaged employees may not be as productive as expected. Also, an instance when disengaged employees are not always as counterproductive as current theory predicts.

Overall, this study centered on Kahn's (1990, 1992) foundational work, while still incorporating some popular, contemporary theoretical frameworks such as job demands and resources and conservation of resources. By doing this, this dissertation extended our understanding of engagement and its nomological network. This chapter discusses the findings that were hypothesized in previous chapters, describes the contributions and the limitations of this study, and suggests possible new directions for future research.

The model presented in this study was developed to better define engagement in terms of JDR research and investigate certain antecedent effects on engagement. The model utilized both resource and demand antecedents to predict engagement. Influences of job resources on engagement were represented by perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS). While the influence of job demands on engagement focused on role ambiguity and role conflict.

As discussed previously, POS is the level of employee certainty that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). PSS is the observed level to which supervisors value the work role contributions of employees and care about the well-being of employees (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). An employee's relationship with their organization or supervisor can be a source of work-related resources. Based on this assumption, the relationships between POS or PSS and work engagement were hypothesized to be positive. This means that high levels of perceived support from one's organization or supervisor will

predict high levels of work engagement in employees within the organization (Bakker et al., 2007; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006).

The results of the correlations showed engagement, POS, and PSS all having significant ($p<.01$) positive correlations between constructs [ENG and POS ($r=.251$), ENG and PSS ($r=.312$), and POS and PSS ($r=.721$)]. But, the structural model supported only the positive effect of support from an employee's supervisor or PSS ($B = .310$; $p < .01$). This positive relationship predicts higher levels of engagement for employees that have supervisors that value the employee's contributions and care about their well-being.

Even though POS had a strong correlation ($r=.721$) with PSS and a significant correlation with engagement ($r=.251$), the structural model found a non-supported effect of POS on engagement, which is atheoretical based on previous research. One explanation of this may be systematic error. Systematic error results from bias in the measurement of constructs, and is noticeable in the consistent over- or under-estimation of model parameters (Lavrakas, 2008). But since CMV was tested by a marker variable, and was deemed to not be an issue, then the chances this atheoretical result stemming from systematic error are relatively low.

Even though gender, industry, and job tenure were controlled for in the model, there may be an explanation in possible interactions between POS and some of the demographics of the sample. These interactions may not create a significant amount constant error (i.e. systematic error) but may explain why the sample viewed supervisors as being influential in predicting engagement but not the support of the organization. For example, the sample had a disproportionate amount of females (70 percent), college graduates (64 percent had a bachelor's degree or higher), and a high percentage of certain industries, where supervisors typically play a key role in an employee's work environment, such as healthcare or social services (17 percent).

In contrast to the effects of resources on engagement, the model tested the influence of job demands in terms of role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity was defined as a lack of formal definition of role duties and requirements. Role conflict was described as occurring when an employee's expected behavior during a role episode is inconsistent with other role expectations from members of the other role set (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Rizzo et al., 1970). Both role ambiguity and conflict result in an employee having increased stress, decreased satisfaction, and reduced performance (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Based on the JDR, an employee will have to allocate resources to satisfy a job demand because of the perceived stress the specific job demand causes the employee. This reduction of resources may result in a reduction of work engagement. Because of this, the relationship between role ambiguity, role conflict, and engagement was hypothesized as negative. As expected, the correlations between engagement and role ambiguity were supported and negative (r=-.197). But, the correlation between role conflict and engagement was non-supported. Even though there was a significant relationship between role ambiguity and engagement, the structural model showed non-supported paths between role ambiguity, role conflict, and engagement. The means that the study did not find a direct influence from these stressors on the work engagement levels of employees. Similar to POS, there may have been a situation or individual characteristic that interacted with role ambiguity and conflict to cause this non-supported effect.

Overall, all of the hypotheses concerning engagement's outcomes were supported and had a coefficient in the predicted direction. First, task performance, or any behavior that is directly related to the accomplishment of the core job activities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997), was found to have a supported positive correlation with engagement (r=.329). Also, the

structural model supported a relationship between engagement and task performance (B = .330; p < .01), which means a highly engaged employee will successful perform their assigned tasks at work better than a low engaged employee. Previous research has supported higher levels of engagement predicting higher levels of task performance (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010).

Next, engagement's relationship with OCB-O and OCB-I were tested. OCB is defined as employee behavior that: (1) benefits the organization in some way; (2) is not generally part of an employee's work roles; or (3) is not explicitly compensated (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Based on the increase of resources, it was hypothesized that engagement would have a positive influence on OCB-O and OCB-I. The structural model showed a supported positive relationship between engagement and OCB-O (B = .850; p < .01) and OCB-I (B = .530; p < .01). These findings show that highly engaged employees displayed high levels of OCB, toward both individuals and the organization (Christian et al., 2011).

Finally, a negative outcome of engagement was examined, counterproductive work behaviors. Counterproductive work behaviors can be divided into five categories: (1) abuse toward others; (2) production deviance; (3) sabotage; (4) theft; and (5) withdrawal (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). The correlation between engagement and counterproductive work behaviors was found to be significant and negative (r=-.377). Analysis of the hypothesized model showed support for a negative relationship between engagement and CWB (B = -.300; p < .01). The results reported in this study support the notion that engaged employees are less likely to participate in CWB than low or disengaged employees.

As discussed in hypotheses 1 through 5, engagement plays a large role in how resources are allocated to job demands. As described above, an example of this could be an employee perceiving a job demand, such as a deadline to perform a work task, and allocating resources, such as time or effort, to satisfy that demand. Engagement was predicted to mediate the relationships between all of the job resource and job demand antecedents in the hypothesized model (POS, PSS, role ambiguity, and role conflict) and the outcome variables (task performance, OCBO, OCBI, and CWB).

For a mediated relationship to exist then the antecedent, or independent variable, has to have a significant effect on the mediating variable, which in turn influences the outcome, or dependent variable (Hayes, 2008). Based on this fact, only one of the antecedent relationships (PSS) in this study needed to be tested for mediation because the other three antecedents studied did not have an effect on engagement. To test for mediation, the direct effect, for PSS and each of the outcome variables, and total indirect effect, mediated by engagement, were calculated. Because the resulting model had good fit and both the direct and total indirect effects were supported, then only a case for partial mediation could be supported. Partial mediation exists because there may be other mediators or moderators that also explain the effect PSS has on the outcome variables. This means that the effect PSS has on all the different outcome variables is not totally dependent on the presence of engagement in the model. But, if engagement is included, then the model has better predictive power.

Citizenship pressure occurs when organizations compel employees to perform citizenship behaviors (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). Because of the added stress of citizenship pressure, it alters the positive relationship between engagement and OCB. For example, an employee may view the stress to display citizenship behaviors as a job demand and, like any job

demand that produces stress; the employee will allocate resources to the demand. The result will be fewer resources being allocated toward OCB and, in so doing, a reduction in the levels of OCB. The added demand of citizenship pressure should make the relationship between engagement and OCB less positive. But, since citizenship pressure originates from the organization, and generally not an individual within the organization, then it was hypothesized that citizenship pressure would interact with work engagement to make only engagement's effect on OCB-O less positive. The results from the regression tests for moderation supported this hypothesis finding a negative interactive effect ($B = -.149$; $p < .01$) between engagement and citizenship on the levels of employee's OCB-O.

This means the level of citizenship pressure makes engagement's positive affect on OCB-O less positive. In other words, engagement's influence on OCB-O is affected by the level of citizenship pressure perceived within the organization. Examining the graph of the interaction in Figure 4.2, there is a supported difference in OCB-O when engagement is high and high levels citizenship pressure, which results in lower OCB-O. Oddly enough, at low levels of engagement, high citizenship pressure appears to create higher levels of OCB-O. One possible explanation of the phenomenon maybe that disengaged employees will not allocate resources toward work roles, and this would create a resource surplus. The effect of citizenship pressure on employees with resource surpluses may be greater than engaged employees because engaged employees may be suffering from resources constraints. This alternative is in line with one of the assumptions of conservation of resources theory, which states that "large resource pools result in a greater probability that employees will risk resources for potential resource gains" (Hobfoll, 2002; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001; Bakker et al., 2007). The potential resources gains in this scenario may benefit the organization, as with any OCB-O, but may not be tied to the work roles

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of the disengaged employee, so a disengaged employee may still display these types of behaviors in a workplace.

Job embeddedness can be viewed as an employee's attachment or ties to work roles (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, & Erez, 2001). Because of the increased attachment to work roles, high levels of embeddedness have been shown to reduce negative outcomes such as absenteeism and voluntary turnover (Lee et al, 2001). If an employee is tied to an organization by their links, fit, or sacrifice then the employee should be less likely to engage in CWB. Or, as hypothesized, a high level of job embeddedness will make the relationship of engagement and counterproductive behaviors less negative.

The regression analysis, of this moderated effect, supported a positive interaction effect between job embeddedness and engagement on CWB ($B = .194$; $p < .01$). This means that when job embeddedness and engagement are both taken into consideration then engagement's effect on CWB becomes more positive or, in other words, less negative. So, referring to figure 5.3, when engagement is low, we expect to see higher levels of CWB. But when job embeddedness is high there are actually lower levels of CWB than when job embeddedness is low. This means that a disengaged but embedded employee is less likely to exhibit CWB. The reverse is true for highly engaged employees, in that a highly embedded employee that is also engaged in his or her work roles will be more likely to display CWB then an employee that is engaged but not embedded.

CONTRIBUTIONS

The diverse nature of the sample allows for generalization of the findings across a variety of industries. Data was collected from individuals in a wide variety of organizational contexts which varied considerably in their levels. All of the variables of interest had acceptable means

and standard errors, which suggests that high and low levels of the variables were adequately sampled. Respondents had a relatively high level of work experience (mean = 8.88 years, s.d. = 8.50), so individuals should have been exposed to varying degrees of job demands and resources in the workplace. As a whole, these sample characteristics suggest that the results of this study can be generalized to many different work settings.

The contributions of the actual findings of this study can help both the academic development of engagement. This work extends our knowledge of engagement by further testing the dominant model of engagement, the job demands and resources model. In this test of that model, this study found that not all resources increase engagement, lack of significance of POS. And, not all job demands lower engagement, lack of significance of role ambiguity and conflict.

Practitioners can benefit from the major contribution of this work, which is the identification of moderated relationships that change the way we view engagement's outcome relationships. In particular, this study identified when the presence of a work stressor, such as citizenship behavior, can change engagement's relationship with OCB-O. And, likewise, by considering an employee's level of job embeddedness, we see a reduction of the negative effect engagement has on CWB. Both of these findings can help change the practitioner's view of engagement, which is engagement is always a good thing, and be a possible path for future research.

LIMITATIONS

The cross-sectional nature of the data raises concerns about the claims of causality. These concerns stem from any analysis based on correlations in data taken from one time point. One view of causality is that a cause should precede the effect, in a temporal sense, but cross-sectional is taken a one-time point. To have a better test of causality, future studies would need

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to be longitudinal with more than one time point for claims of one-way causality and more than two time points for reciprocal causality. In terms of the validity of the data, the study does have more than one source, but still only has one method. Having an independent source of the data for dependent variables did help lower the chances of CMV, such as social desirability bias, because of the objective nature of the source of dependent variable data. This is why, even with more than one source, CMV was still tested for using a marker variable. Finally, the effect of any possible CMV is not a major concern because two of the most important findings in the study involve interactions. And while CMV has the potential to inflate main effect relationships, it does not impact interaction terms in the same fashion. In fact, CMV tends to deflate interaction effects, ultimately making moderation harder to detect (Siemsen, Roth & Oliveira, 2010).

Finally, the complexity of this research design may have reached the limit on what can be accomplished using student recruited sampling. Surprisingly, there was a vast majority, over 90 percent, of supervisor email addresses submitted that belonged to actually organizations versus free email addresses such as "Yahoo" or "Gmail". But, there still may have been a restriction of range issue in that students appeared to ask their relatives to take the surveys because of the data needed from both the employee and their direct supervisor. This assumption is solely based on the similarity of many last names of students and employees in employee surveys submitted. If this was the case then it may account for the unbalanced amount of female, college graduates, and certain businesses in the data-set.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The next progression in this research could be a longitudinal study, for a better test of the claims of causality. To that end, a diary study, which are getting increasingly popular in engagement research, could help identify if the moderated effects found in this study fluctuate on

a daily basis or are they relatively stable, as we now perceive them to be. There needs to be some effort directed at examining the negative sides of organizational behavior and its effect on work engagement. While it may be more palatable to examine the strengths and potential gains within employees, there is a certain need to further understand the effects of negative antecedents and outcomes on engagement.

Also, future research could examine the possibility of why individuals may be engaged in some work roles, but not others. Individuals typically are tasked with an array of roles within an organization. While employees may find some of these roles engaging, some other roles may have limited motivation potential. For example, a typical faculty member at a large university primarily has three work roles: (1) research; (2) teaching; and (3) service. They could be highly engaged in research and teaching roles while having a low level of engagement in service roles. Future research could investigate what situational and individual characteristics lead to certain role engagement.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Perceived Organizational Support scale

Perceived Organizational Support scale (Eisenberger et al., 2001)

Employee-rated

1. My organization takes pride in my accomplishments.

2. My organization really cares about my well-being.

3. My organization values my contributions to its well-being.

4. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.

5. My organization shows little concern for me. (R)

6. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.

Appendix B: Perceived Supervisor Support scale

Perceived Supervisor Support scale (Eisenberger et al., 2002)

Employee-rated

1. My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments.

2. My supervisor really cares about my well-being.

3. My supervisor values my contributions to its well-being.

4. My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.

5. My supervisor shows little concern for me. (R)

6. My supervisor is willing to help me if I need a special favor.

Appendix C: Role Ambiguity scale

Role Ambiguity scale (Rizzo et al., 1970)

Employee-rated

1. I feel certain about how much authority I have.

2. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.

3. I know that I have divided my time properly.

4. I know what my responsibilities are.

5. I know exactly what is expected of me.

6. I have a clear explanation of what has to be done.

Appendix D: Role Conflict scale

Role Conflict scale (Rizzo et al., 1970)

Employee-rated

1.   I have to do things that should be done differently.

2.   I receive assignments without the manpower to complete them.

3.   I have to disobey rules and policies in order to carry out assignments.

4.   I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.

5.   I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.

6.   I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.

7.   I receive assignments without adequate resources and materials to complete them.

8.   I work on unnecessary things.

Appendix E: Engagement scale

Engagement scale (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010)

Employee-rated

Physical engagement

1. I work with intensity on my job.

2. I exert my full effort to my job.

3. I devote a lot of energy to my job.

4. I try my hardest to perform well on my job.

5. I strive as hard as I can to complete my job.

6. I exert a lot of energy on my job.

Emotional engagement

1. I am enthusiastic in my job.

2. I feel energetic at my job.

3. I am interested in my job.

4. I am proud of my job.

5. I feel positive about my job.

6. I am excited about my job.

Cognitive engagement

1. At work, my mind is focused on my job.

2. At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job.

3. At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job.

4. At work, I am absorbed by my job.

5. At work, I concentrate on my job.

6. At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job.

Appendix F: Task Performance scale

Task Performance scale (Heilman, Block, & Lucas, 1992)

Supervisor-reported

      1.   This employee is very competent

      2.   This employee gets his or her work done very effectively

      3.   This employee has performed his/her job well

Appendix G: Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale

Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

Supervisor-reported

OCBO

1. Attendance at work is above the norm.

2. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.

3. Takes undeserved work breaks.

4. Complain about insignificant things at work.

5. Conserves and protects organizational property.

6. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.

OCBI

1. Helps others who have been absent.

2. Helps others who have heavy workloads.

3. Assists me with work when not asked.

4. Takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.

5. Goes out of his/her way to help new employees.

6. Takes a personal interest in other employees.

Appendix H: Counterproductive Work Behavior scale

Counterproductive Work Behavior scale (Spector et al., 2006)

Supervisor-reported

Sabotage

      1.   Purposely wasted employer's materials/supplies.

      2.   Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property.

      3.   Purposely dirtied or littered place of work.

Withdrawal

      4.   Came to work late without permission.

      5.   Stayed home from work and said they were sick when you were not.

      6.   Taken a longer break than they were allowed to take.

      7.   Left work earlier than they were allowed to.

Deviance

      8.   Purposely did work incorrectly.

      9.   Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done.

      10.   Purposely failed to follow instructions.

Theft

      11.   Stolen something belonging to employer.

      12.   Took supplies or tools home without permission.

      13.   Put in to be paid for more hours than actually worked.

Abuse

      14.   Told people outside the job what a lousy place they work for.

      15.   Been nasty or rude to a client or customer.

      16.   Ignored someone at work.

Appendix I: Citizenship Pressure scale

Citizenship Pressure scale (Bolino et al., 2010)

Employee-rated

1. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.

2. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to work beyond my formally prescribed duties for the good of the organization.

3. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

4. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to do a lot of things that, technically, I don't have to do.

5. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems.

6. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.

7. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to give up time to help other employees who have work or non-work problems.

8. I feel a lot of pressure from the organization to assist other employees with their duties.

Appendix J: Job Embeddedness scale

Job Embeddedness scale (Mitchell, 2001)

Employee-rated

Fit to Organization

1. I like the members of my work group.

2. My coworkers are similar to me.

3. My job utilizes my skills and talents well.

4. I feel like I am a good match for this company.

5. I fit with the company's culture.

6. I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.

7. My values are compatible with the organization's values.

8. I can reach my professional goals working for this organization.

9. I feel good about my professional growth and development.

Links to Organization

1. How long have you been in your present position?

2. How long have you worked for this company?

3. How long have you worked in this industry?

4. How many coworkers do you interact with regularly?

5. How many coworkers are highly dependent on you?

6. How many work teams are you on?

7. How many work committees are you on?

Sacrifice Organization-Related

1. I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.

2. The perks on this job are outstanding.

3.   I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.

4.   I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.

5.   My promotional opportunities are excellent here.

6.   I am well compensated for my level of performance.

7.   The benefits are good on this job.

8.   The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent.

9.   The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent.

10.   The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent.

VITA

EDUCATION

M.B.A. Arkansas State University, Business Administration, 2011

B.S. Arkansas State University, Management, 2010

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Instructor, University of Mississippi (July, 2012-2015).

Research Assistant, University of Mississippi (August, 2011 - 2015).

Adjunct Instructor, Black River Technical College (January, 2011 - May, 2011).

Graduate Assistant, Arkansas State University (June, 2010 - May, 2011).

Real Estate Agent, ERA (May, 2006 – August 2008).

Police Officer, City of Jonesboro, AR (September, 1998 - May, 2006).