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# THE IMPACT OF NEGATIVE AFFECT ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING THROUGH AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS, AND EMPLOYEE BURNOUT

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THROUGH AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP  
BEHAVIORS AND EMPLOYEE BURNOUT

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A Thesis  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Science  
In  
Psychology:  
Industrial/Organizational

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by  
Michelle Balesh  
December 2020

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## ABSTRACT

Research focusing on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have highlighted how these behaviors support and aid the psychological and social environment within an organization. However, there is a gap within the literature that has not emphasized the negative consequences of engaging in OCBs. This study aims at examining the baleful consequences toward the individual, specifically, one's psychological well-being. By examining one's commitment to the organization, this study is interested if commitment will influence the likelihood of engaging in these discretionary behaviors. The aim of the present study is to understand the inimical effects of OCBs due to the investment of personal resources through the conservation of resource theory (COR) and the social exchange theory, that induce poor psychological well-being. The present study assesses the relationship between affective commitment and levels of burnout through negative affectivity and if these relationships impact one's engagement in OCBs and the effects of their psychological well-being. Results from this study indicate that affective commitment significantly predicts OCBI and OCBO, as well as affective commitment significantly predicts employee burnout. This study found that OCBI and OCBO significantly predicts poor psychological well-being when the relationship is moderated by negative affect.

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## CURRENT STUDY

Previous literature has examined the positive effects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) have toward other employees and the organization. However, there has been a disconnect in further examining the consequences of these behaviors on the individual engaging in these behaviors. Preceding research has examined the effects of engaging in OCBs as it results in psychological strain on the individual. For example, Somech (2016) investigated the impact of OCBs on teachers' strain through role stressors. Although this provides critical research on the effects OCB has on the individual, this study aims to further examine these effects. As research has demonstrated the negative effects of OCBs through role stressors, emotional exhaustion, and depletion of resources, it is critical to examine beyond this, such as the greater impact these negative effects have on well-being.

The goal of this study is to examine the role of OCBs as a source of strain and resource depletion toward the individual engaging in these behaviors. This study examined the role of OCBs predicting poor psychological well-being, as well as the role of affective commitment in predicting the occurrence of OCBs. In addition, this study examined the role of employee burnout in amplifying the toll of OCB's on well-being. For the purpose of this study, theoretical implications will primarily be drawn from the conservation of resources (COR) theory to demonstrate how OCBs can have baleful consequences which is contrary to what previous literature suggests. Furthermore, this study assesses the

relationship between affective commitment and OCBs and how this relationship can lead to resource drain when considering the role of employee burnout and the effect it has on one's psychological well-being.

The conceptual model for this study demonstrates the direct and moderated relationships between the variables. The model examines whether OCBI and OCBO will be predicted by affective commitment. Based on one's organizational commitment, the model suggests that individuals that are affectively committed will engage in OCBI and OCBO. As a result of engaging in discretionary behaviors outside of one's prescribed role, the model illustrates that affective commitment will predict employee burnout as well. Furthermore, the model suggests that OCBI and OCBO will predict employee burnout and poor psychological well-being. The model illustrates that employee burnout will lead to poor psychological well-being as a result of depleting resources toward informal responsibilities. To investigate the role of negative affect, the model demonstrates negative affectivity moderating all direct relationships to further assess how this variable influences the relationships (Refer To Figure 1).

### Background For This Study

Theories such as the conservation of resources and the social exchange theory provide a framework to illustrate how prosocial behaviors can have detrimental effects on the individual. As individuals use their resources to fulfill prosocial behaviors, individuals may experience actual or threaten loss of resources as a result of exhausting their resources which can impact their overall

well-being. The interest in understanding the relationship between negative affectivity and psychological well-being in this study will illustrate the extent to which these negative consequences are a result of engaging in prosocial behaviors.

Previous research has examined the components of burnout predicting counterproductive work behaviors such as withdrawal or abuse (Makhdoom, Atta, & Malik, 2019). Research has focused on burnout predicting these counterproductive work behaviors as a result of experiencing strain of resources (Makhdoom et al., 2019). As a result of experiencing strain at work, employees try to cope with the stress by withdrawing from their workplace by increasing levels of absenteeism and turnover intention (Makhdoom et al., 2019). This research has focused on examining the effects of counterproductive work behaviors to further understand the consequences of burnout. However, to further understand the consequences of burnout, other work behaviors need to be examined. The contribution of this study in the literature on burnout is to understand other factors that can cause individuals to experience negative consequences for what is assumed to be positive, pro-social, and beneficial behaviors. This study examines and identifies the detrimental effects these voluntary behaviors have on the individual through experiencing burnout and negatively impacting one's psychological well-being. Previous work has described employee supporting and helping the organization and co-workers as a uniformly positive process. This study investigates how these behaviors can

have adverse implications that can lead to burnout and poor psychological well-being. As well, this study contributes to the literature by examining how affective commitment may influence the likelihood of engaging in prosocial behaviors. In addition, this study contributes to the literature by demonstrating the relationship between affective commitment and burnout (Refer to Figure 1).

# CHAPTER ONE

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are extra-role behaviors that employees participate in that are not explicitly, directly, or formally required or rewarded by the organization (Chui & Tsai, 2006) and are intended to aid others within the organization (Scola, Schaeperkoetter, Lower, & Bass, 2017). These behaviors can be observed in the workplace through acts of altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness that can contribute to organizational effectiveness by enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity, providing valuable resources, and increasing the stability of the organizational performance (Scola et al., 2017). Many of these behaviors are beyond employees' formal tasks and duties, yet members may feel the need to engage in these behaviors for intrinsic or extrinsic purposes (Scola et al., 2017). Padsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) explain how OCB can potentially influence the overall effectiveness of the organization. Specifically, this can be demonstrated as employees enhance their counterpart's productivity, use of resources in a productive manner, minimizing the use of scarce resources, as well as enabling the organization to adapt effectively to environmental changes (Padsakoff et al., 2000). Engaging in OCB can be a result of employees' job attitudes, employees'

affect, and organizational climate (Bolino et al., 2013). Engaging in discretionary behaviors may positively impact the organization because employees experience an interpersonal feeling of helping defined as “altruism” which results with positive antecedents and consequences of partaking in these behaviors. (Bolino et al., 2013). Organ (1997, p.95) also refers to the positive outcomes of OCB as “support the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place”. Similarly, Grant (2008) differentiates two types of motivation that may drive individuals to engage in behaviors that are not required of them. Intrinsic motivation is based on the individual’s interest and enjoyment of the task or work itself (Grant, 2008). Prosocial motivation is the desire to dispense effort to benefit others (Grant, 2008). Prosocial motivation compliments the personality trait of agreeableness, the individual’s level of empathy and helpfulness, and reflects one’s values of concern and care for others (Grant, 2008). Both intrinsic and prosocial motivation, may direct individuals to engage in discretionary behaviors, however, prosocial motivation is more likely to contribute behaviors when high levels of intrinsic motivation are present (Grant, 2008). The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions formulated by Fredrickson (2001) provides an alternative explanation as to why individuals may engage in prosocial behaviors. The theory states that when individuals experience certain positive emotions such as joy, interest, love, and pride, it impacts this ability to broaden individual’s momentary thought-action repertoires and widen their personal resources (Fredrickson, 2001). These resources can consist of physical,



intellectual, social, and psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001). When an individual experience these positive emotions, it creates a complementary effect as momentary thought-action repertoires are broadened which elicits a wide variety of thoughts and actions to mind (Fredrickson, 2001). These positive emotions can generate social, physical, intellectual and artistic behavior which creates an urge to explore, process new information and experiences, and expand the self in the process (Fredrickson, 2001). Applying the broaden-and-build theory into the workplace, can illustrate how employees that experience positive emotions, either due to the work environment or external environments, can be a motivating factor to engage in discretionary behaviors.

In understanding the functions and influence of OCB within organizations there are two types of discretionary behaviors to assess. The classification of these two forms of OCB explain the different levels of OCB targets and the antecedents and consequences of each (Somech, 2016). Organizational citizenship behaviors- individual (OCBI) are behaviors that directly benefit individuals within the organization and indirectly contribute to the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCBI are behaviors that people are focused on helping others and direct help behaviors, such as helping others who have been absent from work (Williams & Anderson, 1991). In addition, Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Maynes, and Spoelma (2014) identify OCBI through acts of altruism and courtesy, and also include cooperating with others (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) and

peacekeeping (Organ, 1990). The second category of OCB are organizational citizenship behaviors-organization (OCBO) and these behaviors benefit the overall organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). These behaviors adhere to the informal rules implemented to maintain order within the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). This can be observed as employees providing appropriate notice to the organization when unable to come to work (Williams & Anderson, 1991). As well, OCBO can include acts of civic virtue sportsmanship, conscientiousness (Podsakoff et al., 2014), loyalty to the organization (Graham, 1991), “endorsing, defending, and supporting the organization” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), and protecting the organization (George & Jones, 1997). It is important to note the differences between these two types of discretionary behaviors as contextual antecedents, such as rewards and equity, are related to OCBO, and personal dispositions, such as empathy are related to OCBI (Somech, 2016).

In creating the distinction between OCBI and OCBO, it can expose the undesired effects of engaging in these discretionary behaviors. Somech (2016) examined the role stressors through teachers’ role of improving schools as teachers engaged in OCBI and OCBO. As the teachers invested more than required of them in their workplace, specifically for the organization, teachers reported to stressful work experiences (Somech, 2016). Specifically, teachers with high levels of OCBO, experience role stress through role overload and role ambiguity which resulted in negative work outcomes (Somech, 2016). The

relationship between engaging in OCBO and role stressors can be explained through the conservation of resources theory (COR). The COR theory states that individuals attempt to obtain, sustain, and protect valuable resources when perceiving an actual or threatening loss of resources (Lyu, Zhu, Zhong, & Hu, 2016). Somech (2016) explains how investing resources in OCBI and OCBO can lead to negative outcomes as a result of three conditions. Psychological strain occurs if resources are threatened, lost, and investing in resources without obtaining the anticipated level of return (Somech, 2016). Resources can be defined as objects, personal characteristics, environmental conditions, energies, focus, attention, and time (Somech, 2016). These entities are valued by employees as they aid in achievement or protecting valued resources (Somech, 2016). In addition, Somech (2016) explains in the study that teachers may find it overwhelming to engage in OCBO as a result of not having sufficient amount of resources to satisfy all the demands needed to fulfill for the organization. Engaging in prosocial behaviors, whether it is directed toward an individual or the organization, is not a traditionally rewarded behavior (Somech, 2016). Thus, these behaviors may cause greater loss than total resource gain (Somech, 2016). In other words, employees cannot always anticipate receiving a return of resources for their OCB, which suggests resource loss (Somech, 2016). As explained by Hobfoll (2001) the COR theory states that “resource loss is disproportionately greater than resource gain” (Somech, 2016). Thus, as teachers engage in prosocial behaviors, OCBO resulted in experiencing role

ambiguity and role overload due to investing resources to fulfill the demands of the organization (Somech, 2016). Teachers experiencing role ambiguity were faced with unclear demands to fulfill their job expectations while engaging in OCBO such as volunteering for the school (Somech, 2016). engaging in OCBOs, it impacts employee's overall well-being, as surface acting has greater detrimental outcomes (Goodwin et al., 2011). Referring to the COR theory, employees experiencing role ambiguity, as a result of engaging in roles outside of their prescribed duties, were not provided with enough information on how to properly perform their in-role duties. Thus, this created a strain in resources as teachers needed to allocate resources to fulfill and manage their prescribed roles (Somech, 2016). This demonstrates an unclear relationship between what the teachers were investing and obtaining their level of return of resources from participating in these behaviors (Somech, 2016). As well, teachers reported experiencing role conflict when engaging in extra-role behaviors directly for the organization (Somech, 2016). Employees may feel that there are limited resources to fulfill two or more occupational roles and experience internal conflict when designating their resources to their prescribed job roles or extra-role behaviors (Somech, 2016). Furthermore, Somech's study (2016) demonstrates that teachers have limited resources and may face the dilemma of investing resources in their prescribed roles or in prosocial behaviors. As a result of engaging in OCBI and OCBO, teachers reported higher levels of strain,

specifically due to role ambiguity and role conflict, as invested resources resulted in resource loss or resource threat (Somech, 2016).

### Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment encompasses a strong belief in and acceptance of, the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership within the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1987). Organizational commitment can be viewed as a psychological relationship between the employee and the organization they belong to (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The multidimensional model of organizational commitment can lead to different work behaviors within an organization that relate to many different outcomes such as turnover rate, job satisfaction, and job attitudes (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Commitment can also be defined as a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets, such as co-workers, supervisors, and the organization, which can lead to different forms (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). These different forms of commitment within the organization demonstrate the impact of commitment on behavior within the organization (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The three component model of organizational commitment has identified psychological states that can influence employees' behavior and membership in an organization (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The first dimension of commitment is affective commitment. Affective commitment is viewed as the identification, involvement, and emotional attachment to the organization (Allen &

Meyer, 1996). Second, continuance commitment is defined as employees identifying the costs of leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The third type is normative commitment and it is defined as employees remaining as an obligation to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

It is important to distinguish the three components of commitment as there are significantly different implications for on-the-job behavior for each psychological state related to commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Affective commitment is a bond that employees experience through identification and involvement with the organization (Bergner, 2006). Affective commitment entails an emotional attachment to the organization (Wharton, Brunetto & Shacklock, 2011). Affective commitment can also be defined as an individual's identification, embeddedness, and involvement toward an organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226). Previous research has examined the relationship between supervisor-subordinate relationship and affective commitment which demonstrated that employees are significantly less likely to leave when employees are loyal and attached to the organization (Wharton, Brunetto & Shacklock, 2011). Affective commitment is noted to have the strongest positive relationship with desirable work behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Specifically, affective commitment is strongly associated with job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), compared to continuance and normative commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, Mcinnis, Maltin, & Sheppard, 2012). Individuals who remain within the organization tend to

perform assigned tasks with their best ability, attend work regularly, and help with additional tasks (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Continuance commitment is defined as the tendency to behave and engage consistently based on the individual's identification of the costs of discontinuing these activities (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In other words, continuance commitment is the extent to which the individual needs to stay with the organization as a result of the consequences of forgoing benefits related to the investments in the organization (Bergner, 2006). Employees who remain with the organization to avoid the costs may engage in more than what is required within their position (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Continuance commitment develops when employees stand to lose investments or recognize that there is no alternative but to stay (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). In other words, continuance commitment entails the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer et al., 2012).

Normative commitment is the extent to which a person is obligated to stay with the organization (Bergner, 2006). The obligation toward the organization is reflected as the reciprocity for benefits (Bergner, 2006). The normative component of organizational commitment may be influenced by factors such as individual experiences relating to familial and cultural socialization, as well as organizational socialization (Allen & Meyer, 2011). Normative commitment develops through the socialization experiences in the individual's early life that influences one's commitment to one's employer and toward the organization

(Allen & Meyer, 1996). These experiences can consist of family-based experiences related to work, such as parents who emphasize the loyalty to one's job, and also culturally based experiences, which can be seen as cultural sanctions towards not being consistent and stable within one position (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Normative commitment tends to have less impact on the quantity and/or quality of the work, but much more influence on the "tone" in which the work is carried out (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Individuals who remain in the organization as a result of normative commitment, may do so if they perceive it to pertain to their duty, or means of reciprocation of benefits received (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Normative commitment also tends to be associated with higher levels of supportive behavior within the organization (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Affective commitment differs from continuance commitment that incorporates "side bets" (Wang, Weng, Mcelroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens, 2014). Affective commitment is different from normative commitment as the organization will satisfy the employees' needs in the workplace (Wang et al., 2014). Individuals with higher affective commitment have a mindset that is characterized by the desire "to pursue a course of action of relevance to a target" (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Mechanisms involved in developing this desire encompass involvement, shared values, and identification (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). If an individual becomes involved through intrinsic motivation in a course of action, identifies the values intertwined within the action, and/or develop their identity



due to the association within the entity, this process encourages the development of affective commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Distinguishing affective commitment from other forms of commitment and the mind-set associated with it, there are different behavioral on-the-job outcomes with affective commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Individuals who are psychologically attached employees tend to endorse the organizations goals and values, even when these behaviors are outside of their in-role responsibilities (Wang et al., 2014). Affectively committed employees may engage in behaviors outside of their job responsibilities due to having a strong sense of ownership and view that the organizations interest as their own (Wang et al., 2014). As a result, these types of employees are resilient when problems arise, willing to share creative ideas with others, provide insightful warnings, and promote constructive change for the organization (Wang et al., 2014). In addition, these employees are psychologically attached to the organization and will provide additional effort toward the organization to improve organizational functions even when faced with difficult challenges (Wang et al., 2014).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) identified two types of behavior related to commitment. Focal behavior relates to the course of action, which is bound by the employee's commitment. Any type of commitment should lead to focal behavior, discretionary behavior incorporates any actions that are included at the discretion of the employee (Herscovitch & Meyer 2002). As the three types of commitment demonstrate focal behavior, the extent in which the individual

engages in discretionary behavior, such as OCBs, is dependent on the mind-set related to their commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer 2002). The mind-set that is related to the commitment can be related to cost, obligation, and desire to engage in these behaviors (Herscovitch & Meyer 2001). With one type of commitment present, there is a strong probability that employees will engage in focal behavior. Given that employees with affective commitment are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviors, this may lead to higher levels of supportive behavior toward other employees and the organization (Herscovitch & Meyer 2002). These discretionary behaviors that are associated with affective commitment reflect the variety of possible behavior outcomes (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001). When commitment is conjoined by a mind-set of desire such as affective commitment, the behavioral consequences of commitment are perceived to be broader than when commitment is conjoined by the mind-set of perceived cost or felt obligation (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001). In other words, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) explain that when employees follow a course of action to avoid cost or due to obligation, they are more likely to define what is required and less likely to engage in extra-role behaviors. Thus, affectively committed employees view a wider scope of behaviors within their job, than those that are normatively or continuously committed. As a result, individuals who affectively committed may have a stronger tendency to follow through on their commitment and their willingness to engage in behaviors outside of the terms of the commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001).

**Hypothesis 1:** Affective commitment will positively predict OCBI.

**Hypothesis 2:** Affective commitment will positively predict OCBO.

To further distinguish the types of commitment and the outcomes most influenced by each, it is crucial to understand the influence of the social exchange theory (SET) on the consequences of affective commitment. Providing an underlying rationale, the social exchange theory explains that individuals feel the need to reciprocate when receiving benefits from others (Wang et al., 2014). First, the foundation of SET is based on the rules of exchange that are set by the participants of exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This theory consists of reciprocity rules as a form of social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This consists of negotiated rules to reach beneficial arrangements through the exchanges that occur (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As mentioned by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), individuals who possess affective commitment tend to engage in more discretionary behaviors due to the equilibrium between the exchange between the employee and organization. In other words, these individuals have a desire to support and help the organization and in return their desires are fulfilled, as there are mutual goals and values. Employees who are affectively committed to the organization demonstrate their willingness to improve the organization's functions (Wang et al., 2014), which illustrates reciprocation between these types of employees and the organization.

## Employee Burnout

Burnout has been defined by Maslach (1982), as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do some type of “people work” (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Burnout can also be explained by Freudenberger and Richelson (1980) as high cost of high achievement afflicting people with high goals and expectations (Brown & Roloff, 2015). To further elaborate on the definition of burnout, Demerouti et al., (2001) define the various components of burnout. Emotional exhaustion is characterized as feelings exhaustion by the emotional demands from one’s work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Depersonalization is characterized as being detached and cynical responses to the recipients of one’s service or care (Demerouti et al., 2001). Lastly, reduced personal accomplishment is explained as one’s self-evaluation that one is no longer effective in working and in fulfilling one’s job responsibilities (Demerouti et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion resembles traditional reactions of general stress such as fatigue, job-related depression, psychosomatic symptoms, and anxiety (Demerouti et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion has mirrored similar job stressors such as workload problems, behavioral outcomes, turnover intentions, and absenteeism. The next dimension of burnout that Maslach (1982) highlights is depersonalization. Depersonalization is defined as being detached and cynical responses to the recipients of one’s service or care (Demerouti et al., 2001). Depersonalization is characterized as a “withdrawal or mental distancing” from

others (Demerouti et al., 2001). Cherniss (1980) explains that depersonalization can be observed as forms of alienation, disengagement, or cynicism toward one's job and their work role (Demerouti et al., 2001). The third dimension of burnout, feelings of reduced personal accomplishment, also known as professional efficacy, can be viewed as a consequence of the core negative emotional experience of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Burnout often shows similar symptoms with depression. Specifically, previous research has illustrated an overlap between symptoms of burnout and depression (Bianchi, Schonfeld, & Laurent, 2015). Longitudinal studies examining the overlap between burnout and depression suggest that symptoms of both conditions are developed and clustered together (Bianchi et al., 2015). Research on the overlap between depression and burnout have suggested that burnout symptoms consist of depressive symptoms, which researchers have concluded that burnout can be used as an equivalent to depressive symptoms in the workplace (Bianchi et al., 2015).

Previous research has demonstrated that burnout may occur in any type of occupation, as similar stressors may lead to equivalent stress reactions in different occupations (Demerouti et al., 2001). Studies have shown that high job demands may lead to emotional exhaustion, job-related depression, and anxiety within human services occupations and other occupations as well (Demerouti et al., 2001). Demerouti et al. (2001) highlights previous research has focused on relationships between human service burnout and poor job resources like lack of

social support (Leiter, 1991), skill underutilization (Leiter, 1990), low job control (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998; De Rijk, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & De Jonge, 1998), and poor performance feedback (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Demerouti et al. (2001) illustrates the similarities of these outcomes in various occupations. Empirical evidence demonstrates similar job stressors that result in common stress reactions that demonstrate similar antecedents as burnout. Demerouti et al. (2001) defines stressors as external factors that may have the potential to apply a negative influence on individuals within various situations. As individuals have a need for predictability and stability, individuals experiencing a disproportion of resources, can generate a stress response that can clash with the need for consistency and result in symptoms of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). In terms of disruption, stress can be characterized by an imbalance of the cognitive-emotional-environmental system by external factors. Job demands refer to physical, social, and organizational aspects of the job that need physical or mental effort, which are associated with physiological and psychological costs, such as exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001). Previous theories have described the relationship between demands and exhaustion through the development of fatigue, however, Demerouti et al. (2001) discusses how employees can avoid burnout and exhaustion when facing high workload. Demerouti et al. (2001) explains that “health-protecting factors”, also known as resources, may create an opportunity for employees to maintain their health. Job resources can be “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job” (Demerouti

et al., 2001). These job resources aid in achieving work goals, minimize job demands related to psychological and physiological costs, and promote personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). The job demand-resource (JD-R) model states that the progression of burnout follows two processes (Demerouti et al., 2001). In the first process, the demanding aspects of one's work, such as extreme job demands, may lead to arduousness workdays that then lead to exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001). The second process, explains that a lack of resources to fulfill job demands, may lead to withdrawal behaviors. These types of behaviors may have long-term influence on work behavior and result in disengagement from work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, the interaction between job demands and job resources are vital factors in the development of burnout, specifically exhaustion and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). In relation to the influence resources has on work behaviors, means efficacy can further elaborate on the outcomes of resources. Means efficacy is the belief in the use of the external resources to successfully perform the job (Simmons, Payne, & Pariyothron, 2014). Means efficacy is a complementing aspect to an individual's self-efficacy in performance (Simmons et al., 2014). Previous research has demonstrated that when employees are confident in their external resources, they are more likely to view that they are given resources to succeeded, rather than not succeed (Simmons et al., 2014). However, when employees doubt their means, they are more likely to withdraw and disengage in high effort (Simmons et al., 2014). Therefore, means efficacy highlights the

significant role resources have, as individuals' knowledge and beliefs about the resources can influence work related outcomes, which can impact employees' wellbeing (Simmons et al., 2014).

In Demerouti's et al. (2001) study, the authors further examined previous literature (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Golembiewski, Boudreau, Munzenrider, & Lou, 1996; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Shirom, 1989) which found that burnout can be detected in various types of occupations. Specifically, Demerouti et al. (2001) gathered empirical evidence through employees from occupational field outside of human services, such as transportation operations and manufacturing industry. The findings from Demerouti's et al. (2001) reveal that burnout within various occupations consist of the same basic components, however they may have different patterns of the outcome depending on the occupation has recipients. Through the JD-R model, the study's findings were consistent with other authors, as job demands are positively related to exhaustion, and job resources negatively related to disengagement from work (Demerouti et al., 2001). The finding suggest that the development of burnout can be a result of the working conditions (Demerouti et al., 2001). When job demands are high, employees may experience feelings of exhaustion, but not disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). When job resources are limited, employees may demonstrate high levels of disengagement behaviors (Demerouti et al., 2001). Additionally, employees that experience high job demands and



have limited access to resources develop exhaustion and disengagement, defining characteristics of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Brown and Roloff (2015) examine the relationship between OCB and burnout through the employees who perform them. Brown and Roloff (2015) discuss a specific form of OCB, individual initiative, which consists of “task-related behaviors at a level so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 524). Brown and Roloff (2005) explain that these types of OCB can be observed as working extended hours past one’s schedule and working after hours at home (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Organ (1988) characterized OCB as a type of behavior that is voluntary , individual initiative OCB may not be voluntary (Brown & Roloff, 2015). Organ (1988) suggests that many individual initiatives can be labeled as in-role behaviors, however, it is the level or intensity of these behaviors that marks them as a type of discretionary behavior. This type of behavior draws the connection to extra role time-organizational citizenship behavior (ERT-OCB; Brown & Roloff, 2015).The type of behavior is not what determines if it is an OCB, rather it is the degree of devotion of one’s time-to-task-related behavior (Brown & Roloff, 2015). In other words, this type of behavior is considered OCB because of the amount of time that is invested in these behaviors that are above the minimal requirements or expectations of the organization (Brown & Roloff, 2015). ERT-OCB may a detrimental influence on employees as a result of working long hours and feeling

fatigue as a result of extra role hours that can result in burnout, both physical and psychological (Brown & Roloff, 2015). Freudenberger and Richelson (1980) state these types of individuals tend to exert all their energy and efforts to reach a good sense of self and tends to result in excessive workloads. Brown and Roloff (2015) suggest these types of individuals that “give it their all” are more likely to contribute ERT-OCB. Individuals that participate in ERT-OCB may experience a “gradual disillusionment” that can occur when their contribution is not reciprocated by the organization through social support (Brown & Roloff, 2015). This disillusionment can cause employees to feel that their efforts toward the organization are not valued by the organization (Brown & Roloff, 2015). Thus, the gradual disillusionment and the strain of “giving it their all” toward the organization can contribute to the symptoms of burnout (Brown & Roloff, 2015). According to Adam’s Equity Theory, the ratio of outputs to inputs may be under, over, or equally distributed (Adams, 1963). The ratio of inputs to outputs is evaluated through a comparative basis (Tseng and Kuo, 2013). Individuals compare the inputs and outputs ratio made by themselves and the ratio made by others (Tseng and Kuo, 2013). Therefore, this can dictate how employees perceive and justify the use of their resources and whether symptoms of burnout may be experienced (Tseng & Kuo, 2013).

Employees can also experience burnout when experiencing role stressors, specifically role conflict when engaging in OCBs. As explained by Katz and Kahn (1978), role conflict can refer to “contradictory expectations” that occur at once

from others within the organization that interfere with each other and creates obstacles to fulfill the tasks (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011). Role conflict has a much stronger relationship with work outcomes, organizational commitment, emotional exhaustion, and anxiety, compared to role ambiguity and role overload (Eatough et al., 2011). As previously stated by Somech (2016), OCB may strain resources as a result of fulfilling required duties and additional prosocial behaviors. Consequently, this may lead employees to sense role conflict where to invest their limited resources between their prescribed job roles or other voluntary behavior (Somech, 2016). Employees experiencing role conflict when engaging in high levels of OCB can result in employee burnout symptoms, such as employee strain (Somech, 2016). Similarly, Eatough et al. (2011) also examines the relationship between role conflict and engaging in OCB. Eatough et al. (2011) states that discretionary behaviors that employees participate in are not required or apart of their performance, yet OCB are perceived as a hindrance to employees' work achievement. Specifically, role conflict is viewed as hindering employees' ability to reach personal and professional goals at work (Eatough et al., 2011). Thus, this type of role stressor may elicit negative emotions when associated with OCB, such as anxiety and tension that can then increase the likelihood of disengagement in prosocial behaviors (Eatough et al., 2011). Through the COR theory framework, Eatough et al. (2011) suggests that role conflict occurs when resources are distributed to conflicting roles and employees concentrate their efforts to a specific role to

reduce tension between the conflicting roles. However, as employees try to minimize the demands of each role, employees tend to reduce resources dedicated to OCB rather than their prescribed job duties (Eatough et al.,2011). As a result, employees aim at conserving resources by minimizing their investment of resources in OCBs (Eatough et al., 2011). In addition, when employees are experiencing role conflict, the investment of resources toward OCB may cause a stressful experience if employees are unable to meet the demands through threatened or actual loss of resources (Bolino, Harvey, Hsiung, & LePine, 2015). The authors explain that there is a negative relationship between OCB and role conflict due to the hinderance on employee's attainment of goals (Eatough et al., 2011). To cope with conflicting roles, employees demonstrate a reduction in OCB to allocate resources to resolve the discrepancy between the conflicting demands (Eatough et al., 2011).

Chronic job demands, such as role stressors, trigger health impairments that result in psychological ill-health symptoms through burnout (de Beer, Pienaar, & Rothmann, 2016). Xanthopoulou, Sanz-Vergel, and Demerouti (2014) explain through the JD-R model, that when employees perceive excessive job demands and feel they do not have enough resources to fulfill the demands, employees experiencing distress (De Beer et al., 2016). According to Karasek's (1979) job demands-decisions latitude model suggests that the level of job control is related to job demands that influence work related outcomes (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004). Work environments that are high demand-

high control are illustrated as strenuous and taxing on the individual and should result in increased motivation and learning (Boswell et al., 2004). However, when an individual has a significant amount of pressure, and minimal control, it can lead to undesirable effects (Boswell et al., 2004). These effects can occur when control of resources or opportunities are not easily accessible to the employee (Boswell et al., 2004). Maslach (1982) explains that employees use their personal resources to meet the inordinate demands. As a result, this depletes their energetic capacity which results in employees' experiencing exhaustion and cynical attitudes that leads to burnout (De Beer et al., 2016). Burnout has demonstrated to be stable and consistent over time (Melamed, Shirom, Toker, & Shapira, 2006; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2002), leading to psychological ill-health symptoms, in addition to undesirable outcomes for the organization (De Beer et al., 2016). Previous research by Mommersteeg, Heijnen, Verbraak, & Van Doornen, (2006); Raison & Miller (2003) established how burnout can impact the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal-axis functioning that is connected to other regulatory systems in the body that govern energy balance and mood states (De Beer et al., 2016). De Beer's et al. (2016) conducted a study that consisted of a three-wave mediation model that examined the health impairment process. Specifically, the authors found a causal relationship in the health impairment process. Work overload predicted burnout, which then predicated psychological ill-health symptoms (De Beer et al., 2016). Psychological ill-health symptoms were measured through poor psychological well-being and psychological distress

(De Beer et al., 2016). In addition, to examine the consistency of burnout, De Beer et al. (2016) predicted burnout in the three-wave model and found that Burnout (T1) predicted Burnout (T2), and consequently predicted Burnout (T3). De Beer et al. (2016) also found a predictive relationship between Burnout (T2) and Psychological ill-health symptoms (T3). In other words, burnout measured in three different phases was related and connected to psychological ill-health symptoms that employees experienced via burnout (De Beer et al., 2016).

**Hypothesis 3:** Affective commitment will negatively predict employee burnout.

**Hypothesis 4:** OCBI will positively predict employee burnout.

**Hypothesis 5:** OCBO will positively predict employee burnout.

#### Outcomes of Psychological Well-Being

Research has previously examined the various impact burnout has on employee outcomes, and it is critical to assess how burnout can impact different aspects of employees' personal life (Papathanasiou, 2015). Research has demonstrated that burnout relates to neurotic characteristics which encompass traits of anxiety and depression (Papathanasiou, 2015). Turnipseed (1998) further explains the relationship between burnout and anxiety through emotional exhaustion, as there are similar anxiety levels in both (Papathanasiou, 2015). Previous research has illustrated the essence of burnout to be related to the reduction of resources, in conjunction with depressive symptomatology (Papathanasiou, 2015). These depressive symptomatology may include

feelings of anger, guilt, anxiety, and symptoms of physical fatigue (Papathanasiou, 2015). The aim in Papathanasiou's (2015) study was to examine the relationship between burnout and mental health status within health care providers, and the results revealed that emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment were statistically correlated with levels of anxiety and depression. Although depression and burnout are two independent mood states, the overlap between these two entities entail similar symptoms (Papathanasiou, 2015). Specifically, the overlapping feeling of exhaustion is experienced in both states (Papathanasiou, 2015). Papathanasiou (2015) measured levels of burnout and mental health status of each participant and found the different dimensions of burnout occurring with moderate levels of anxiety and depression. The results of Papathanasiou's (2015) study found that as whole burnout is significantly correlated with mental health, with emotional exhaustion being correlated the most. Similarly, Corrigan (1994) examined the relationship between the factors of burnout with the state anxiety and social support to determine the directionality of these relationships through a cross-lagged panel design within staff members at psychiatric hospitals. Emotional exhaustion and the state of anxiety were measured at time 1 and time 2 and demonstrated to be highly related (Corrigan, 1994). These findings do not suggest the directionality between burnout and anxiety, rather the comparison of cross-lagged correlations implies the direction of this correlation. In other words, the findings suggest that emotional exhaustion

leads to more inpatient staff to experience and report symptoms of anxiety as a result of burnout (Corrigan, 1994).

As previous research has focused on how OCBs provide support to the organization, to fully understand the effects of these work behaviors, it is necessary to examine how these discretionary behaviors may lead to adverse effects toward well-being. It is important to investigate the taxing effects OCBs can trigger toward the individual and whether it leads to burnout. To further understand the extent of this relationship, this study examines if these negative consequences resulting from engaging in prosocial behaviors impacts one's psychological well-being. While studying this relationship, understanding how one's commitment to the organization can increase or decrease the likelihood of engaging in these prosocial behaviors by assessing the relationship between affective commitment and burnout.

**Hypothesis 6:** OCBO will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

**Hypothesis 7:** OCBI will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

**Hypothesis 8:** Employee burnout will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

#### The Moderating Role of Negative Affectivity

Positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) are used as the dominant methods of identifying general personality traits (Jain, Malhotra, &



Guan, 2012). Affectivity may influence how individuals “experience, evaluate and deal with tasks as well as how they recall information”, which influences their overall organizational judgements and behaviors (Jain et al., 2012, pg. 1006). PA refers to the nature of experiencing positive feelings, whereas NA refers to experiencing negative feelings (Jain et al., 2012). Experiencing high PA can be observed as being joyful, exhilarated, and enthusiastic (Jain et al., 2012). In addition, the state of experiencing high PA can result in high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Individuals experiencing low PA experience feelings like sadness and are lethargic (Jain et al., 2012). Consequently, individuals with low PA tend to become disengaged as a result unfulfilling experiences (Jain et al., 2012).

NA tends to promote survival through adapting to threatening and aversive situations through fostering avoidance types of behaviors, which then result in the disposition of experiencing negative feelings (Jain et al., 2012). High NA is defined through negative feelings such as anger, disgust, and contempt (Jain et al., 2012). Individuals experiencing high NA tend to report higher levels of distress, discomfort, and dissatisfaction, even when the source of stress is not present (Watson & Clark, 1984). In addition, individuals with high NA have continuing feelings of distress and nervousness, as they “tend to dwell on mistakes, disappointments, and shortcomings” and focus on the negative aspects of life in a general sense (Levin & Stokes, 1989). Individuals with low NA experience feelings of calmness and serenity (Watson 1988). Low NA individuals

report to be more satisfied with life outcomes, self-secure, and are less fixated and be more resilient to life's challenges (Levin & Stoke, 1989).

As NA represents differences in individual's temperament, mood, and cognitive orientation, Watson and Clark (1984) explain that NA does not imply psychological health. Contrary to this, high levels of NA are related with a type of cognitive bias in which individuals interpret and assess their life experiences (Levin & Stoke, 1989). Thus, one's affectivity and their cognitive style may influence what they experience and feel about their job (Levin & Stoke, 1989). As most jobs consist of positive and negative characteristics, individuals with high NA may emphasize and focus on the unfavorable qualities of their job (Levin & Stoke, 1989). However, individuals with low NA may focus on the positive qualities of their job and "attend more equally to both favorable and unfavorable job features" (Levin & Stoke, 1989). In a general sense, NA may influence how employees process related information, and can be distorted due to their affective state (Levin & Stoke, 1989). Levin and Stoke (1989) explain that if an individual is experiencing feelings associated with NA, such as pessimism or nervousness, this may be reframed to mirror one's unpleasant emotional experiences.

Those high in NA demonstrates the predisposition of reacting negatively environmental stimuli, this can result in negative relationships with work related outcomes (Selmer & Luring, 2013). Individuals who are high on NA may be less likely to engage in, and provide support for the organization (Sears, Zhang, &

Han, 2016). This can include socializing and networking with others, pursue guidance and feedback, and obtaining useful resources to perform their work (Sears et al., 2016). Sears et al. (2016) also notes that individuals with low NA tend to display more comfort and trust when interacting with others and are encouraged to initiate relational and tasked related actions that promote commitment and performance. These characteristics associated with individuals with low NA may be more likely to benefit from instrumental and social support within the organization, which strengthens the relationship in the exchange with perceived organizational support (Sears et al., 2016). As the differences between NA and PA can have various outcomes in relation to the organization, it is important to examine behaviors within the organization that can be influenced by one's affectivity.

**Hypothesis 9:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI. The affective commitment - OCBI relationship will be positive at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - OCBI relationship will be negative at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 10:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO. The affective commitment – OCBO relationship will be positive at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment – OCBO relationship will be negative at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 11:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and employee burnout. The affective commitment - employee burnout relationship will be negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - employee burnout relationship will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 12:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBI and employee burnout. The OCBI and employee burnout relationship will be negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The OCBI and employee burnout relationship will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 13:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBO and employee burnout. The OCBO - employee burnout will be negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The OCBO - employee burnout will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 14:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and poor psychological well-being. The affective commitment - poor well-being relationship will be negative at lower levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - poor well-being relationship will be positive at higher levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 15:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being. The burnout - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The burnout - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 16:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBI and poor psychological well-being. The OCBI - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The OCBI - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

**Hypothesis 17:** Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBO and poor psychological well-being. The OCBO - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The OCBO - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

## CHAPTER TWO

### METHOD

#### Participants

From the initial 358 participants ( $N = 358$ ) that were recruited from Sona Research Systems ( $N= 200$ ) and social media and convenience sampling ( $N =158$ ), 303 completed cases were used in the analysis ( $n= 303$ ). As the purpose of the study is to examine the effects prosocial behaviors have on individuals' psychological well-being, adults with work experience between the ages 18-65 years or older participated in the study. Participants were asked demographic questions such as ethnicity, educational level, marital status, employment length, occupation titles, and number of hours worked a week to provide additional information regarding participants' experiences at work.

All working adults were included in the study; male ( $n = 66, 21.8%$ ), female ( $n = 235, 77.6%$ ), non-binary ( $n = 1, .3%$ ), and one participant preferred not to answer ( $n=1, .3%$ ). Out of the total sample ( $n= 303$ ), three participants did not respond to the question pertaining to age. Participants age were grouped from 18-24 years old ( $n = 112, 37.0%$ ), 25-34 years old ( $n = 80, 26.4%$ ), 35-44 years old ( $n = 33, 10.9%$ ), 45-54 years old. ( $n = 19, 6.3%$ ), 55-64 years old ( $n = 23, 7.6%$ ), and 65 years or older ( $n = 33, 10.9%$ ). Participants reported their ethnicity as White ( $n = 115, 38.0%$ ), Hispanic or Latino. ( $n = 128, 42.2%$ ),

Black or African American ( $n = 16, 5.3\%$ ), Middle Eastern ( $n = 12, 4.0\%$ ), Asian or Pacific Islander ( $n = 26, 8.6\%$ ), and Other ( $n = 6, 2.0\%$ ). Participants reported to be single ( $n = 189, 62.4\%$ ), married/partnership ( $n = 89, 29.4\%$ ), divorced ( $n = 15, 5.0\%$ ), Widowed ( $n = 7, 2.3\%$ ), or other ( $n = 3, 1.0\%$ ). Participants were also asked to report their attained education level. All but one participant reported their education level with the majority of participants earned “some college” education. (See Table 1 for complete demographic statistics).

Table 1.  
*Demographic Variables.*

Variables			
		<i>n</i>	%
Age	18-24	112	37.0%
	25-34	80	26.4%
	35-44	33	10.9%
	45-54	19	6.3%
	55-64	23	7.6%
	65 or older	33	10.9%
	Missing	3	1.0%
	Sex	Male	66
Female		235	77.6%
Non binary		1	0.3%
Prefer not to answer		1	0.3%
Missing		0	0%
Marital Status		Single/never married	189
	Married or partnership	89	29.40%
	Divorced	15	5%
	Widowed	7	2.30%
	Other	3	1%
	Missing	0	0%
	Ethnicity	White	115
Hispanic or Latino		128	42.2%
Black or African American		16	5.3%
Middle Eastern		12	4.0%
Asian or Pacific Islander		26	8.6%
Other		6	2.0%
Education Level		Doctorate	10
	Master's Degree	18	5.9%
	Bachelor's Degree	80	26.4%
	Some college	136	44.9%
	High school	42	13.9%
	Other	16	5.3%



	Missing	1	0.3%
Number of Children			
	0	208	68.6%
	1	36	11.9%
	2	29	9.6%
	3	18	5.9%
	4	6	2.0%
	5 or more	4	1.3%
	Missing	2	0.7%
Occupation Type			
	Office and Administrative Support Occupations	29	9.6%
	Business and Financial Operations Occupations	5	1.7%
	Legal Occupations	2	0.7%
	Community and Social Service Occupations	7	2.3%
	Healthcare Support Occupations	20	6.6%
	Construction and Extraction Occupations	3	1.0%
	Management Occupations	6	2.0%
	Computer and Mathematical Occupations	7	2.3%
	Production Occupations	7	2.3%
	Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media Occupations	11	3.6%
	Education, Training, and Library Occupations	31	10.2%
	Life, Physical, and Social Science Occupations	2	0.7%
	Personal Care and Service Occupations	6	2.0%
	Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations	37	12.2%
	Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations	1	0.3%
	Transportation and Materials Moving Occupations	3	1.0%
	Other Occupation	98	32.3%
	Multiple Occupation	26	8.6%
	Missing	2	0.7%
Length of employed with current organization			
	Less than 6 months	48	15.8%
	6 to 12 months	40	13.2%
	1 to 3 year	88	29.0%
	4 to 6 years	47	15.5%
	7 years or more	78	25.7%

	Total	301	99.3%
	Missing	2	0.7%
Number of Occupations			
	1	237	78.20%
	2	39	12.90%
	3 or more	21	6.90%
	Total	297	98%
	Missing	6	2.00%
Hours Worked in a Week			
	20 hours or less	96	31.7%
	21-30 hours	65	21.5%
	31-40 hours	92	30.4%
	41-50 hours	27	8.9%
	51-60 hours	10	3.3%
	61 hours or more	6	2.0%
	Missing	7	2.3%

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Note: Demographic Variables ( $n = 303$ )

## Procedure

Recruitment of participants for the self-reporting survey was conducted through snowball and convenience sampling through SONA Research Management Systems. Once participants were recruited, a link was provided to access the survey through Qualtrics. Participants recruited from SONA Research Management Systems received one (1) SONA credit for their participation. All other participants were recruited through convenient sampling through social media platforms such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and MTurk. In addition, MTurk participants were compensated \$1.50 for their participation in the study. These participants received no direct benefit for their participation, yet their contribution helped to further the scientific understanding of work and job settings.

After participants were directed to Qualtrics, participants reviewed and voluntarily agreed to the informed consent to begin the study. Following, participants were asked a series statements and questions regarding demographics, OCBs, employee burnout, positive and negative affectivity, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being. Confidentiality and anonymity of the participants was explained through the debriefing form to ensure data was in an aggregated form and secured in a password protected computer. Participants were also informed that the study should involve no risks beyond those regularly faced in daily life. The duration of this study was dependent on each participant, however, most participants completed the survey between 15-20 minutes.

## Measures

### Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist

Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler (2012) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C) was used to assess the frequency of OCBs performed by employees. This 20-item scale measured the frequency of OCBs directed toward other individuals within the organization and OCBs directed to the actual organization (Fox et al., 2012). The OCB-C uses a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = Every day (Fox et al., 2012). The coefficient alpha for the 20-item version is .95.

### Maslach Burnout Inventory

Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwabs' (1996) burnout inventory was used to assess the three components of burnout syndrome: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. The scale consists of 22-items that measure each component of burnout by three subscales. The items are answered in regard to the frequency in which the respondent experiences these feelings (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). The scale consists of a 7-point fully anchored scale ranging from 0 = "Never" to 6 = "Every Day". With an anchoring scale of all 7 points on the frequency dimensions, it allows for a more standardized response scale, so the meanings assumed by respondents are fairly certain by the researcher. Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha is .86.

### Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988) self-report measure of affect was used to measure positive and negative affect. This scale consists of 20-items that list words that describe different feelings and emotions individuals generally feel on average (Watson et al., 1988). The scale consists of a 5-point scale ranging from 1= "Very slightly or not at all" to 5= "Extremely". Internal consistency for the PANAS was estimated by using coefficient alpha which are .93 for positive affect and .91 for negative affect.

### Three-Component Model Employee Commitment Survey

Meyer and Allen (1991;1993; 1997) revised and shortened scale of employee commitment measured the three forms of employee commitment for an organization: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. This scale consists of 18-items with three subgroups for each type of commitment. A list of series of statements are presented that represent feelings that individuals may have about the organization they work for. The items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 7= "Strongly agree". The TCM employee commitment scale estimates internal consistency by using coefficient alpha. The coefficient for affective, continuance, and normative commitment are .84, .83, and .81.

### Psychological Well-being

Ryff and Keyes (1995) developed the psychological well-being (PWB) shortened scale with 18-items to measure six subscales of psychological well-

being; autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. The scale uses a 7-point scale with 1= "Strongly agree" and 7= "strongly disagree". The internal consistency was estimated through Cronbach's alpha which was .84.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESULTS

#### Data Screening

Through using SPSS version 25, variables were examined to identify outliers, skewness, kurtosis, normal distribution, multicollinearity, missing value analysis, for the following variables: OCBI/OCBO, employee burnout, negative affect, affective commitment, psychological well-being.

To test for univariate outliers the standard of  $z > \pm 3.33$  ( $p < .001$ ) was used. Four potential univariate outliers were detected within the data. Negative affect had one potential univariate outlier ( $z = 3.53$ ) with a raw score of 5.00. Affective commitment had two potential univariate outliers ( $z = 3.42$ ) with a raw score of 6.33 and ( $z = 4.20$ ) with a raw score of 7.00. Psychological well-being also had one potential univariate outlier ( $z = -3.99$ ) with a raw score of 1.72. However, these cases were conserved as their scores were not viewed as practical outliers. Multivariate outliers were tested among the variables using Mahalanobis criteria  $\chi^2(5) = 20.52$  ( $p < .001$ ). Two multivariate outliers were detected with Mahalanobis distance scores 21.06 and 27.96. Given that there was not a significant gap within the distribution of the Mahalanobis distance scores, these two cases were kept and not deemed as true multivariate outliers.

The normality of the distribution of the six main variables were examined through using the standard of  $z > \pm 3.33$  ( $p < .001$ ). Negative affect was significantly skewed (7.22,  $p < .001$ ), but not kurtotic. The assumption of normality was not met for negative affect as this variable was positively skewed. Affective commitment was not skewed, however it was significantly kurtotic (8.12,  $p < .001$ ). OCBI, OCBO, employee burnout, and psychological well-being were within the  $\pm 3.3$  range for skewness and kurtosis. Due to the skewness and kurtosis violations, the assumption of normality was not met. Through running a bivariate correlation, the assumption of collinearity was met as the correlations did not exceed .9. A missing value analysis determined that there were no missing cases from the dataset and no significant pattern of missing data as completed cases were used (See Table 2).



Table 2.  
*Descriptive Statistics.*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	(z) Skewness	Kurtosis	(z) Kurtosis
OCBI	2.66	0.93	0.36	0.36	-2.22	-2.22
OCBO	2.66	0.96	-0.15	-0.15	-2.17	-2.17
Employee Burnout	3.06	1.01	2.20	2.20	-1.14	-1.14
Negative Affect	1.98	0.85	7.22*	7.22*	1.66	1.66
Affective Commitment	3.41	0.85	1.25	1.25	8.12*	8.12*
Psychological Well-Being	5.12	0.85	-2.90	-2.90	0.58	0.58

Note: Asterisks indicate significant skewness or kurtosis at  $p < .001$ .

## Model 1

Structural equation modeling was used to test Model 1 through JMP Pro. Model 1 examined the various relationships between affective commitment, OCBI, OCBO, employee burnout, and poor psychological well-being. Affective commitment was expected to negatively predict employee burnout (Hypothesis 3) and positively predict OCBI (Hypothesis 1) and OCBO (Hypothesis 2). Hypothesis 3 was supported, as affective commitment significantly predicted employee burnout ( $b = .14$ ,  $SE = .06$ , Wald  $Z = 3.70$ ,  $p = .02$ ). Hypothesis 1 was supported, as affective commitment significantly predicted OCBI ( $b = .12$ ,  $SE = .06$ , Wald  $Z = 2.04$ ,  $p = .04$ ). Hypothesis 2 was supported, as affective commitment significantly predicted OCBO ( $b = .21$ ,  $SE = .06$ , Wald  $Z = 3.70$ ,  $p = .00$ ).

OCBI was expected to positively predict employee burnout (Hypothesis 4) and poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 7). Hypothesis 4 was not supported, as OCBI did not significantly predict employee burnout ( $b = .17$ ,  $SE = .10$ , Wald  $Z = 1.68$ ,  $p = .09$ ). Hypothesis 7 was not supported, as OCBI did not significantly predict poor psychological well-being ( $b = .16$ ,  $SE = .09$ , Wald  $Z = 1.89$ ,  $p = .06$ ). OCBO was expected to positively predict employee burnout (Hypothesis 5) and poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 6). Hypothesis 5 was supported, as OCBO significantly predicted employee burnout ( $b = -.24$ ,  $SE = .11$ , Wald  $Z = -2.31$ ,  $p = .02$ ). However, Hypothesis 6 was not supported as OCBO did not significantly predict poor psychological well-being ( $b = -.04$ ,  $SE = .09$ , Wald  $Z = -.40$ ,  $p = .69$ ). Employee burnout was expected to positively

predict poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 8). Hypothesis 8 was supported, as employee burnout significantly predicted poor psychological well-being ( $b = -.55$ ,  $SE = .05$ , Wald  $Z = -11.46$ ,  $p = .00$ ).

### Moderating Hypotheses

To examine the influence negative affect has on affective commitment, OCBI, OCBO, employee burnout, and poor psychological well-being as a moderating variable, hypotheses were tested through Andrew Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Macro.

#### Affective Commitment

Results indicated that negative affect did not significantly moderate the relationship between affective commitment and burnout ( $p > .05$ ) (Hypothesis 11.) Results suggested negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI,  $b = .1446$ ,  $p = .02$  (Hypothesis 9). Results indicated negative affect did not significantly moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO ( $p > .05$ ) (Hypothesis 10). Results suggested negative affect did not significantly moderate the relationship between affective commitment and psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ) (Hypothesis 14).

#### Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

To examine if negative affect moderates the relationship between OCBI and employee burnout (Hypothesis 12) and poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 16) were tested. Negative affect did not moderate the relationship

between OCBI and employee burnout, as such Hypothesis 12 was not supported ( $p > .05$ ). Negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between OCBI and psychological well-being,  $b = -.1193$ ,  $p = .00$ . (Hypothesis 16) (See Figure 1). In addition, negative affect was examined if it moderates the relationship between OCBO and employee burnout (Hypothesis 13) and poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 17). Negative affect did not moderate the relationship between OCBO and burnout, as such Hypothesis 13 was not supported ( $p > .05$ ). Negative affective significantly moderated the relationship between OCBO and psychological well-being, as such Hypothesis 17 was supported,  $b = -.1099$ ,  $p = .02$ .

### Employee Burnout

The moderation of negative affect between employee burnout and psychological well-being was examined (Hypothesis 15). Hypothesis 15 was not supported, as negative affect did not moderate the relationship between burnout and psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ).

### Supplementary Analysis

To further examine the effects of negative affect as a moderating variable in this study, analyzing levels of negative affect provides additional information on how this variable can impact one's overall psychological well-being. Through using JMP, negative affect was analyzed as a continuous variable and split to examine the subsets of negative affectivity. Following, regressions were

conducted to estimate the relationships with high, medium, and low levels of negative affectivity. (Refer to Figures 2-9).

Low levels of negative affect did not significantly moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI ( $p > .05$ ). Low levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OBCO ( $\beta = .23$ ,  $SE = .11$ , Wald  $Z = 2.04$ ,  $p = .04$ ). Low levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and employee burnout ( $p > .05$ ). Low levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBI and poor psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ). Low levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBO and poor psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ). Low levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being ( $\beta = -.57$ ,  $SE = .13$ , Wald  $Z = -4.46$ ,  $p = .00$ ). Low levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBI and employee burnout ( $p > .05$ ). Low levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between OCBO and employee burnout ( $\beta = -.32$ ,  $SE = .14$ , Wald  $Z = -2.31$ ,  $p = .02$ ).

Moderate levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI ( $\beta = -0.21$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ , Wald  $Z = -2.19$ ,  $p = .03$ ). Moderate levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO ( $p > .05$ ). Moderate levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and

burnout ( $p > .05$ ). Moderate levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBI and poor psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ). Moderate levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between OCBO and poor psychological well-being ( $b = -0.26$ ,  $SE = 0.13$ , Wald  $Z = -2.07$ ,  $p = .04$ ). Moderate levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being ( $b = -0.36$ ,  $SE = 0.08$ , Wald  $Z = -4.44$ ,  $p = .00$ ). Moderate levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBI and employee well-being ( $p > .05$ ). Moderate levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBO and employee well-being ( $p > .05$ ).

High levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI ( $b = 0.26$ ,  $SE = .09$ , Wald  $Z = 3.01$ ,  $p = .00$ ). High levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO ( $b = 0.34$ ,  $SE = .08$ , Wald  $Z = 4.13$ ,  $p = .00$ ). High levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and employee burnout ( $p > .05$ ). High levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBI and poor psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ). High levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBO and poor psychological well-being ( $p > .05$ ). High levels of negative affect significantly moderated the relationship between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being ( $b = -0.49$ ,  $SE = .09$ , Wald  $Z = -5.70$ ,  $p = .00$ ). High levels of negative affectivity did not moderate

the relationship between OCBI and employee burnout ( $p > .05$ ). High levels of negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between OCBO and employee burnout ( $p > .05$ ).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DISCUSSION

#### General Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess the negative consequences that employees face when engaging in prosocial behaviors that may lead to poor psychological well-being. Research has illustrated that when individuals engage in OCBI or OCBO, these behaviors are not traditionally rewarded, therefore these actions may result in a greater loss of resources than total resource gain (Somech, 2016). As explained through the COR theory, employees invest greater amount of personal resources into these discretionary behaviors than what they perceive or actually receive back (Hobfoll, 2001). This results in the undesirable effects of OCBI and OCBO that lead to employee burnout and poor psychological well-being (Somech, 2016). In this study, affective commitment was assessed to determine if one's bond and relationship to the organization motivates individuals to engage in prosocial behaviors. As previous literature has studied the taxing consequences of OCBs, this study focused on investigating whether one's affect, specifically negative affect, influenced the like likelihood in engaging in OCBI/OCBO, experiencing employee burnout, and the possible detrimental effects on psychological well-being.



As this model examined the influence of organizational commitment, specifically affective commitment, to further understand the likelihood in engaging in OCBs. Individuals that reported to be affectively commitment to their organization engaged in OCBI (Hypothesis 2) and OCBO (Hypothesis 3). This is a result of these individuals forming an identification and are highly involved with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226). Affectively committed employees also develop an emotional attachment with their organization, and as a result are more likely and willingly to invest resources into prosocial behaviors toward the organization because of the bond that is formed (Wharton et al., 2011). The study's results also support this to be significant when negative affect moderated the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI (Hypothesis 5), but not when moderating the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO (Hypothesis 6) As explained through the social exchange theory, individuals that are affectively committed tend to engage in prosocial behaviors as they perceive equilibrium between themselves and the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This perceived balance of exchange tends to stem from employees' desire to support and aid the organization in exchange for their own professional goals being met through the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Although these affectively committed employees are achieving their goals within the organization, they are also investing a great amount of resources through engaging in OCBI and OCBO, which can lead to an unequal exchange between the themselves and the organization

An unequal exchange in resources between the individual and the organization can potentially have harmful effects within the workplace. It was found that affectively committed individuals experienced employee burnout (Hypothesis 1). This can be a result of engaging in discretionary behaviors while attending to one's formal job duties. However, in examining the impact negative affect between affectively committed employees and employee burnout, the results demonstrated that negative affect did not intervene this relationship (Hypothesis 4). In addition, as there is an overlap between symptoms of employee burnout and symptoms of poor psychological well-being, this study was interested in examining if one's psychological well-being was also impacted. Similarly, it was found that affectively committed individuals did not report poor psychological well-being when negative affect was accounted for (Hypothesis 18).

As the main focus of this study is highlighting the consequences of engaging in OCBs on one's psychological well-being, it is important to examine how antecedents and consequences of each influence one's well-being. The model determined that OCBO predicted employee burnout (Hypothesis 9), but OCBI did not predict employee burnout (Hypothesis 7). Although only OCBO predicted employee burnout, this could be a result of the contextual antecedents that are attached to OCBO, such as rewards and equity, whereas the personal dispositions like empathy are associated with for OCBI (Somech, 2016). In addition, OCBI and OCBO did not predict employee burnout through negative

affect (Hypothesis 8 and Hypothesis 10). Although one's affectivity and cognitive style can influence their perception about their job and their work environment (Levin & Stoke, 1989), when individuals are provided with ample amount of resources, these resources can serve as "health-protecting factors" as the necessary tools are present fulfill the formal and informal demands at work (Demerouti et al., 2001). When organizations provide the appropriate amount of job resources to employees, it allows for more opportunities to fulfill demands while aiding in personal and professional development (Demerouti et al., 2001).

To further examine the magnitude of OCBI and OCBO have on employees, the model evaluated the impact these discretionary behaviors have on one's psychological well-being. OCBI and OCBO did not predict one's psychological well-being (Hypothesis 11 and Hypothesis 13). However, OCBI and OCBO did predict psychological well-being when negative affect moderated these relationships (Hypothesis 12 and Hypothesis 14). These results can be supported as individuals who are negatively affected are more likely to report higher levels of distress when a source of stress is not present (Watson & Clark, 1984). In addition, negative affected individuals tend to report feelings of distress and nervousness due to their tendency to dwell on shortcomings (Levin & Stokes, 1989). Therefore, negative affect can influence how individuals process related information that can distort reality due to their affective state that can then have a toll on their psychological well-being (Levin & Stoke, 1989).

To understand further psychological implications within the workplace, the model explained that employee burnout predicted poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 15). Previous research has demonstrated how burnout can have overlapping characteristics to traits related to anxiety and depression, which supports this finding (Papathanasiou, 2015). Burnout and anxiety share common related symptoms, emotional exhaustion (Turnipseed, 1998). Also, individuals experience burnout can also experience overlapping symptoms with poor psychological well-being, such as depressive symptomatology (Papathanasiou, 2015). Burnout and depression are two independent states, there is a significant correlation between these two states which can demonstrate a linkage between the two (Papathanasiou, 2015). To further assess this predictive relationship, employee burnout predicting poor psychological well-being through negative affect was examined (Hypothesis 16). Although this moderating hypothesis was not significant, it could be due to the cognitive style that negative affectively individuals possess (Levin & Stoke, 1989). Specifically, these individuals may be accustomed to these negative thoughts and beliefs that has formed their mindset and may be unable to recognize symptoms of burnout or poor psychological well-being apart from their negative affect.

Previous research studied the findings related to the taxing consequences of OCBs, however this study contributes to the research by considering the influence negative affect has on OCBI and OCBO, employee burnout, and one's psychological well-being depending on the individuals commitment to the

organization. The results depict that affectively committed individuals engaged in OCBI and OCBO (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3). In addition, the study also examined the impact negative affect has on affective commitment predicting the likelihood of engaging in OCBI and OCBO (Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6). It was found that affective commitment predicted individuals engaging in OCBI but not OCBO through negative affect. This could be a result as affectively committed individuals are more likely to consult, collaborate and work with their peers to overcome obstacles faced (Wang et al., 2014). In doing so, these employees tend to exhibit behaviors of OCBI which consist of maintaining and establishing interpersonal relationships for work-related support to fulfill their goals and improve organizational functions (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2017). Therefore, due to being affectively committed to the organization this may trump one's negative affect, as the bond with the organization is highly valued.

Characteristics of negatively affected individuals have the predisposition of reacting adversely to environmental stimuli as a result of the negative cognitive framework they possess (Selmer & Luring, 2013). In addition, those who are high on negative affect are less likely to engage in and provide support toward the organization (Selmer & Luring, 2013). However, as found in the study, affectively committed individuals tend to engage in OCBI and OCBO (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3) due to the emotional and psychological bond that is shared with the organization (Wharton et al., 2011). This also study examined whether OCBI and OCBO could predict poor psychological well-being through negative

affect (Hypothesis 12 and Hypothesis 14). The results illustrated that these hypotheses were significant, in which negative affect did moderate the relationship between OCBI and OCBO predicting poor psychological well-being. As the characteristics of negative affect are of pessimistic emotions and outlooks, this can place these individuals at a greater chance of experiencing poor psychological well-being while engaging in prosocial behaviors. Those reporting high negative affect individuals may not view these behaviors as rewarding or beneficial, and as a result they are unable to handle the strain of investing in these behaviors, thus impacting their psychological well-being. Investing resources into discretionary behaviors can lead to psychological strain as resources are threatened or lost, especially since these behaviors are not traditionally or formally rewarded (Somech, 2016). These informal behaviors may lead to individuals experiencing role stressors, such as role ambiguity, as there is an unclear boundary their prescribed roles, thus resulting in poor psychological well-being (Somech, 2016). This also supports the finding that employee burnout is predictive of poor psychological well-being (Hypothesis 15). In addition, as the study supports employee burnout predicting poor psychological well-being, it is important to note the relationship between the detrimental effects of informal tasks and duties that can have long term effects on one's mental state. As the JD-R model states, burnout occurs in two folds: (1) extreme job demands that lead to exhaustion and (2) lack of resources to fulfill job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001). There is a distinct connection between employee burnout and poor

psychological well-being that stem from the lack of resources provided to employees to fulfill OCBs. Therefore, this study illustrates the lack of insufficient resources to fulfill the demands, whether they are required or prosocial demands, can result in employee burnout which can then be expressed as symptoms of poor psychological well-being. Specifically in this study, when negative affect moderates the relationship between affective commitment it significantly predicted OCBI. This exemplifies the influence affective commitment on the likelihood of engaging in OCBI, even when one's well-being is at stake. Thus, one who is affected committed to the organization and displays traits of negative affect, will continue to engage and participate in prosocial behaviors as they perceive the organization is has fulfilled their work needs and desires.

#### Theoretical Implications

This study has provided additional insight to uncover the detrimental effects of engaging in discretionary behaviors. Although these behaviors can have a positive impact on organizational processes and the overall organization (Bolino et al., 2013), it comes at the cost of the employee, specifically their well-being. As previous research depicts OCBs to have benign ramifications, this study emphasizes how these behaviors actually have underlying negative consequences at the cost of one's psychological well-being. Specifically, as OCBs are not recognized behaviors that are traditionally a part of the job, this exemplifies how engaging in these behaviors can be draining as OCBs are outside of one's prescribed responsibilities. Therefore, it is unwise for

organizations to expect these behaviors to be embedded within one's responsibilities at work it leads to depletion of resources which can harmfully impact the individual. As the COR theory highlights, the individual is motivated to obtain, sustain, and protect valued resources when perceived or actual loss of resources is present, therefore, investing resources into OCBs can lead to greater loss (Lyu et al., 2016). As these behaviors are outside of one's prescribed roles, OCBs can lead to resource strain as there are limited resources to designate to prescribed and discretionary duties (Somech, 2016). As a result of experiencing strain due to the lack of resources, employees begin to experience emotional exhaustion (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). The experience of emotional exhaustion signifies the depletion of resources, thus leading to employee burnout (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007).

Because many organizations have an indirect expectation and desire for their employees to actively engaging in OCBI and OCBO, these behaviors are not acknowledged as part of their job. Specifically, the desire for these unrequired and uncompensated behaviors can lead to ethical and legal implications for the organization given the taxing effects of OCBs on employee well-being. This study demonstrates the importance of organizations providing necessary resources for high job demands. When employees experience high job demands, both prescribed and discretionary duties, dimensions of employee burnout can be eluded when organizations provide adequate resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). When personal resources are used to fulfill demands,



one's energetic capacity is diminished and can lead to exhaustion and cynical attitudes that can develop into employee burnout (De Beer et al., 2016). To further examine these findings, this study emphasized the importance of future implications employee burnout can have on one's psychological well-being. As previous studies illustrated the similarities between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being, such as neurotic characteristics that include symptoms of anxiety and depression (Papathanasiou, 2015), this study examines the sequence of these symptoms. Specifically, this study illustrates how one of the taxing effects of OCBs is the sequence of experiencing employee burnout that can lead to poor psychological well-being, as a result of insufficient resources provided.

### Practical Implications

The findings of this study apply to organizations who are interested in creating a work environment that promotes the well-being of their employees. This study contributes to the literature by examining negative affect and understanding the influence negative affect has on employee behaviors and outcomes. Organizations should be considering employees' affect as it influences work and personal experiences. Organizations that are willing to learn and apply the knowledge of negative affect into their practices, will be able to create a work environment that allows employees that are high on negative affect to reduce the risks experiencing poor psychological well-being. Given that there are distinct differences between individuals who are high on positive or negative

affect, organizations should understand how to structure work related tasks and activities to ensure both types of individuals are engaged and motivated.

Organizations can apply this knowledge to have successful coaching, employee development programs, and performance management systems that compliment and support negatively affected individuals. Organizations should consider developing organizational practices that align with individuals who are negatively affected, as this will create an environment that compliments their cognitive styles and how they process work-related information (Levin & Stoke, 1989).

Given that individuals high on negative affect are less likely to collaborate and network with peers which can have auspicious effects for the organization, organizations should be mindful with developing job designs and work structures that will encourage collaboration among negatively affected employees.

Specifically, organizations should consider mentoring or peer-coaching as a method to allow individuals high on negative affect to access resources.

Developing a relationship with a mentor or a peer will provide individuals with the opportunity to access resources through learning and collaborating with others.

This study presents the repercussions of investing resources in OCBs as they can result in employee burnout which can lead to poor psychological well-being. As the study demonstrates the high demands expected within the workplace, employees face role stressors due to the demands of prescribed and discretionary behaviors (Somech, 2016). In other words, organizations expect employees to engage in prosocial behaviors, however, employees do not receive

the reciprocation of resources from the organization. The lack of acknowledgment through implicitly embedding these behaviors in performance management systems and job descriptions, aids in the poor well-being of employees. It is not the mere fact that OCBs harm one's psychological well-being, as previous research has demonstrated these behaviors can support and help the organization. Rather, it is the ways in which organizations covertly expect and demand OCBs to be fulfilled without providing appropriate resources to their employees. Therefore, organizations should provide clear and transparent expectations to their employees regarding OCBs. Specifically, policies and practices need to be implemented within organizations to incorporate OCBs and ensure employee are capable and rewarded for these behaviors, similarly to the prescribed duties. As this study illustrates, the lack of sufficient resources is a factor that drives employees to experience poor psychological well-being, organizations need to proactively create an environment with an abundance of resources to ensure employees' needs are met and prevent any dimensions of employee burnout that can become symptoms of poor psychological well-being.

#### Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has several notable limitations to be addressed. The first limitation of this study is due to the self-reporting method of the survey. Using this method of data collection can influence the participants' response due to the interpretation of the questions or wording of the scales used. In addition, the use

of a self-reporting survey questions the accuracy of responses as participants' may have responded to items in a way that is socially desirable. Specifically, this study focuses on aspects of psychological well-being and participants may not have responded truthfully given the stigma associated with mental health. However, future studies should use other methods such as focus groups, as this method can provide an in-depth understanding and additional detail to participants' experiences at work. The second limitation pertains to the items used in the survey. Although the items were used from previously validated measures, one item was not included in the OCB-Checklist scale due to researcher error, which could have impacted the results of this study.

The second limitation is due to the study's cross-sectional approach. Although this study collected useful data regarding symptoms of employee burnout and poor psychological well-being, a longitudinal study would be beneficial to provide further context regarding the symptoms and whether changes occurred throughout the study.

The third limitation to this study is due to COVID-19. As this global pandemic lead to instability of jobs, uncertainty, and anxiety regarding the future. Although data information was collected throughout the pandemic, it may have impacted participants' responses. Specifically, participants' responses regarding organizational commitment may have shifted as job instability and unemployment increased throughout the pandemic. In addition, responses regarding negative

affect may have been exaggerated as the current social and economic status was unclear.

As the findings in this study exemplify that OCBO significantly predict employee burnout and OCBs significantly predicted poor psychological well-being when moderated by negative affect, more research related to OCBs needed. Future research should be directed to further understand the role of OCBs within organizations. Psychological safety should be considered as another variable to consider with OCBs to gain supplemental information regarding the outcomes related to prosocial behaviors. Investigating the role of psychological safety when examining OCBs can provide insightful results regarding how the work environment and work relations can contribute to employee well-being. Future research should examine whether psychological safety serves as buffer between OCBs and related outcomes, such employee burnout and poor psychological well-being. In addition, studying psychological safety as a buffer will provide further insight toward organizations' culture and climate and the impact it may have on employee well-being through psychological safety. Also, future research should examine the effects of workaholism with reference to OCBs and employee well-being. As behaviors of workaholism may have overlapping patterns to OCBs, future research should consider examining the antecedents and consequences of these behaviors and relating outcomes. Specifically, future studies should examine what motivates

individuals to engage in OCBs and workaholic behaviors and whether there are relating factors.

This study did not examine a specific occupation, however, future research should consider studying solely human services careers, such as psychologists, nurses, and social workers. These types of occupation tend to have an excessive amount of emotional labor that can strongly impact employee well-being in comparison to other occupations. As many of these human services careers tend to have components of emotional labor tied with moral obligations, it can create additional stressors that may result these individuals to be more vulnerable to employee burnout and poor psychological well-being.

### Conclusion

From previous research and the contribution of this study, engaging in OCBs are not the cause of the detrimental impact on employees' psychological well-being. Rather, it is the lack and drain of resources from organizations that lead to these ramifications and destruct employees' well-being. These work-related behaviors have indicated to have vile outcomes when organizations do not discern or embed these behaviors as part of the job, thus not supplying appropriate resources for employees and lead to drain of resources.

Organizations that find value from OCBs must account for prosocial behaviors through policies, practices, and procedures to ensure employees are supported through a healthy work environment. In addition, it is critical for organizations to possess knowledge regarding employees' affect as it can dictate work-related

behaviors that are strongly associated with psychological well-being.

Implementing policies and practices that support employees for their contribution in prosocial behavior will cultivate a work environment that promotes higher productivity, collaboration among peers, and innovation through accessible and appropriate resources, while prioritizing the well-being of their employees.

APPENDIX A  
HYPOTHESES OF CURRENT STUDY



*Hypothesis 1:* Affective commitment will positively predict OCBI.

*Hypothesis 2:* Affective commitment will positively predict OCBO.

*Hypothesis 3:* Affective commitment will negatively predict employee burnout.

*Hypothesis 4:* OCBI will positively predict employee burnout.

*Hypothesis 5:* OCBO will positively predict employee burnout.

*Hypothesis 6:* OCBO will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

*Hypothesis 7:* OCBI will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

*Hypothesis 8:* Employee burnout will positively predict poor psychological well-being.

*Hypothesis 9:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBI. The affective commitment - OCBI relationship will be positive at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - OCBI relationship will be negative at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 10:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBO. The affective commitment – OCBO relationship will be positive at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment – OCBO relationship will be negative at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 11:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and employee burnout. The affective commitment - employee burnout relationship will be negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - employee burnout relationship will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 12:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBI and employee burnout. The OCBI and employee burnout relationship will be negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The OCBI and employee burnout relationship will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 13:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBO and employee burnout. The OCBO - employee burnout will be

negative at low levels of negative affectivity. The OCBO - employee burnout will be positive at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 14:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and poor psychological well-being. The affective commitment - poor well-being relationship will be negative at lower levels of negative affectivity. The affective commitment - poor well-being relationship will be positive at higher levels of negative affectivity.

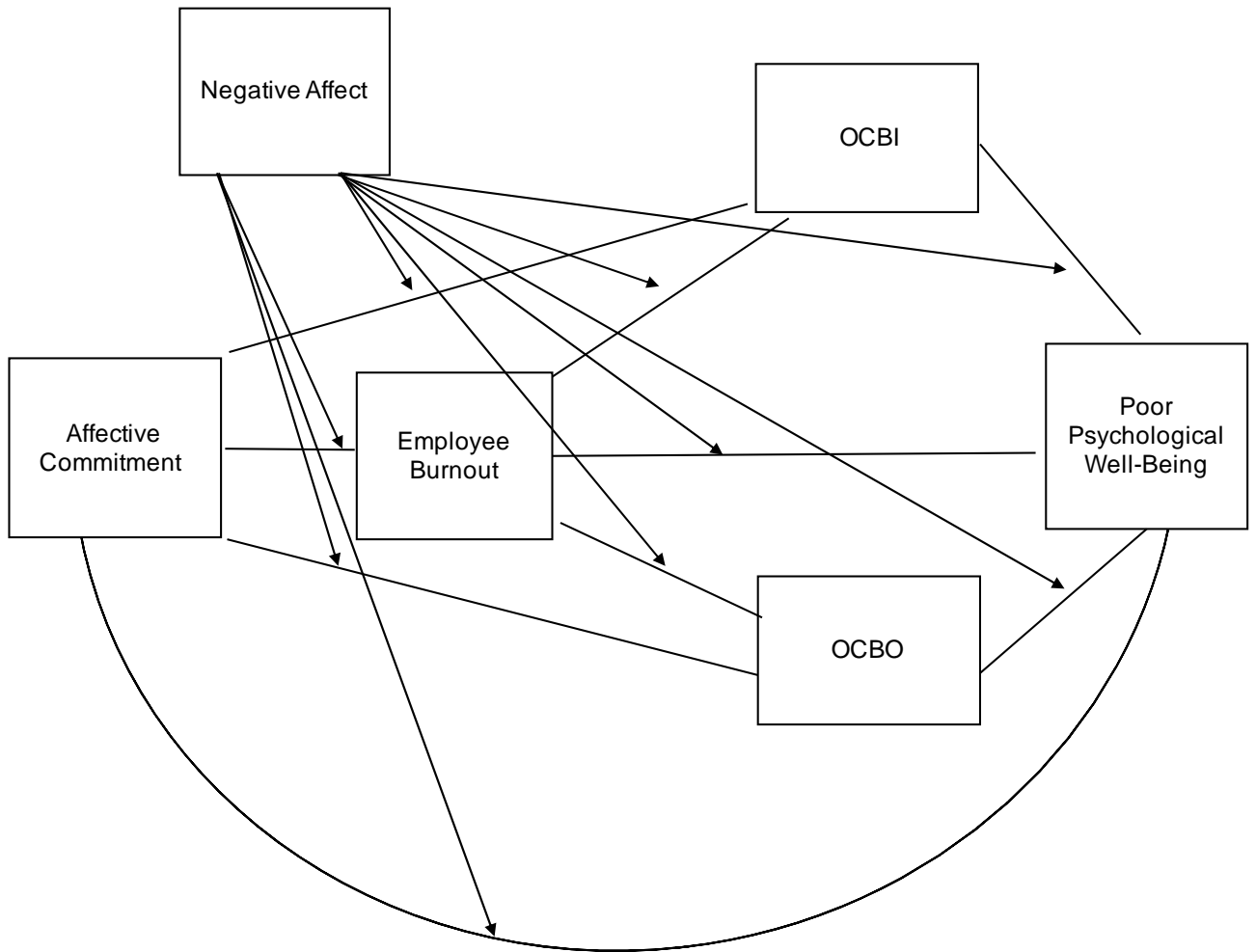
*Hypothesis 15:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between employee burnout and poor psychological well-being. The burnout - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The burnout - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 16:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBI and poor psychological well-being. The OCBI - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The OCBI - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

*Hypothesis 17:* Negative affectivity will moderate the relationship between OCBO and poor psychological well-being. The OCBO - poor well-being relationship will be positive but weak at lower levels of negative affectivity. The OCBO - poor well-being relationship will be positive but greater in magnitude at high levels of negative affectivity.

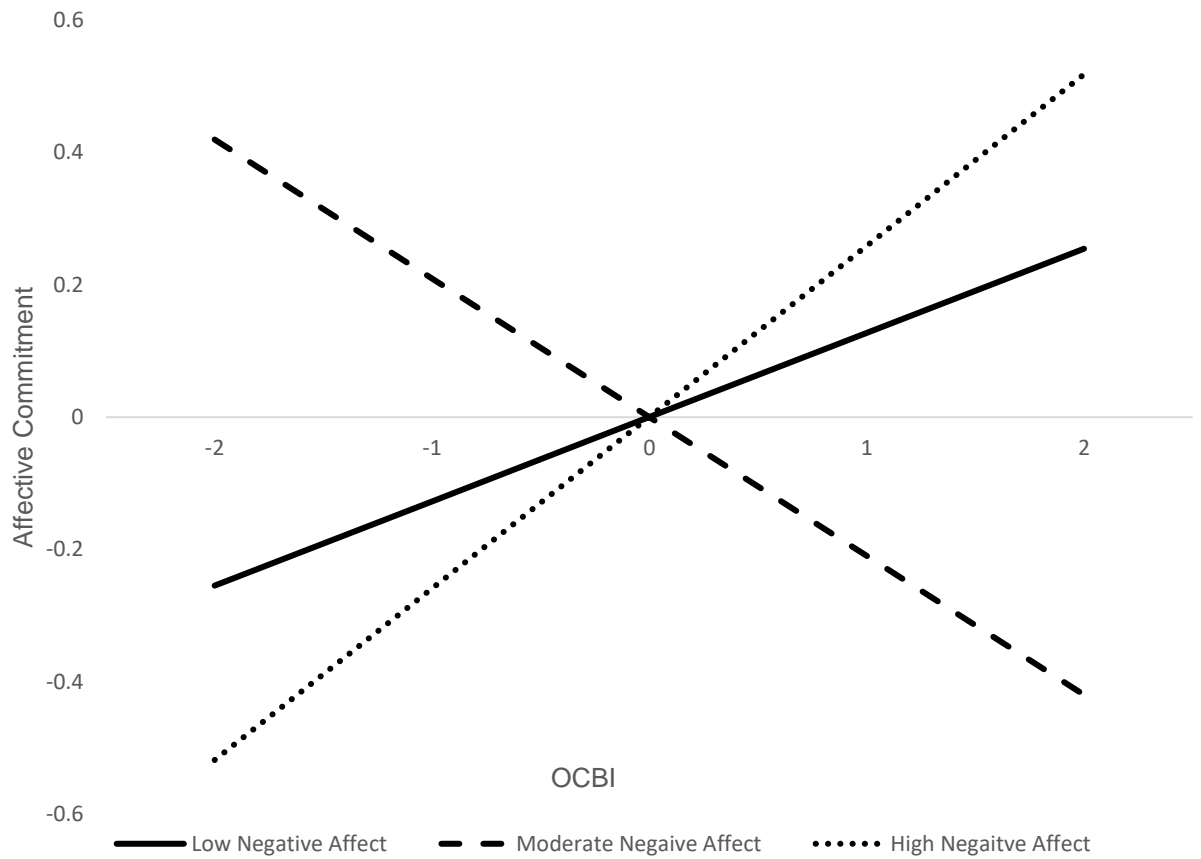
APPENDIX B  
FIGURES

Figure 1.



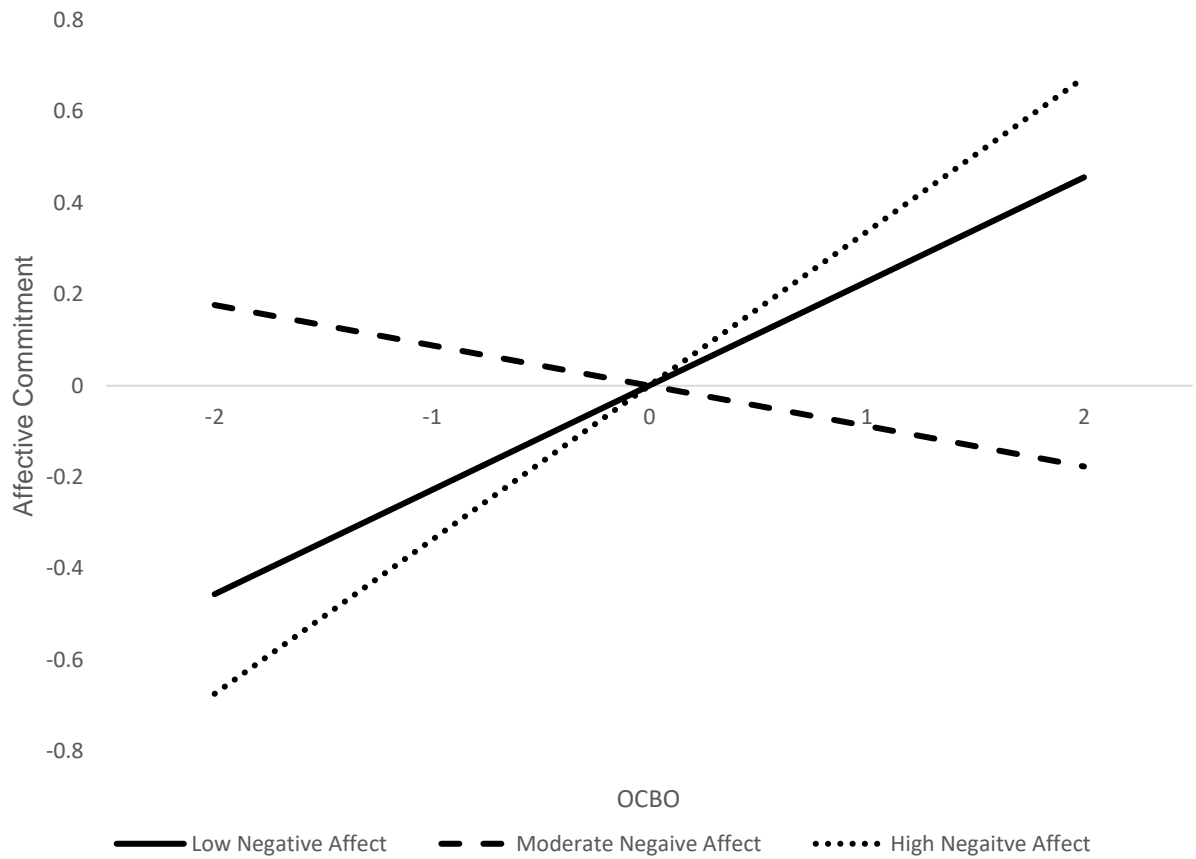
Caption: Proposed Conceptual Model.

Figure 2.



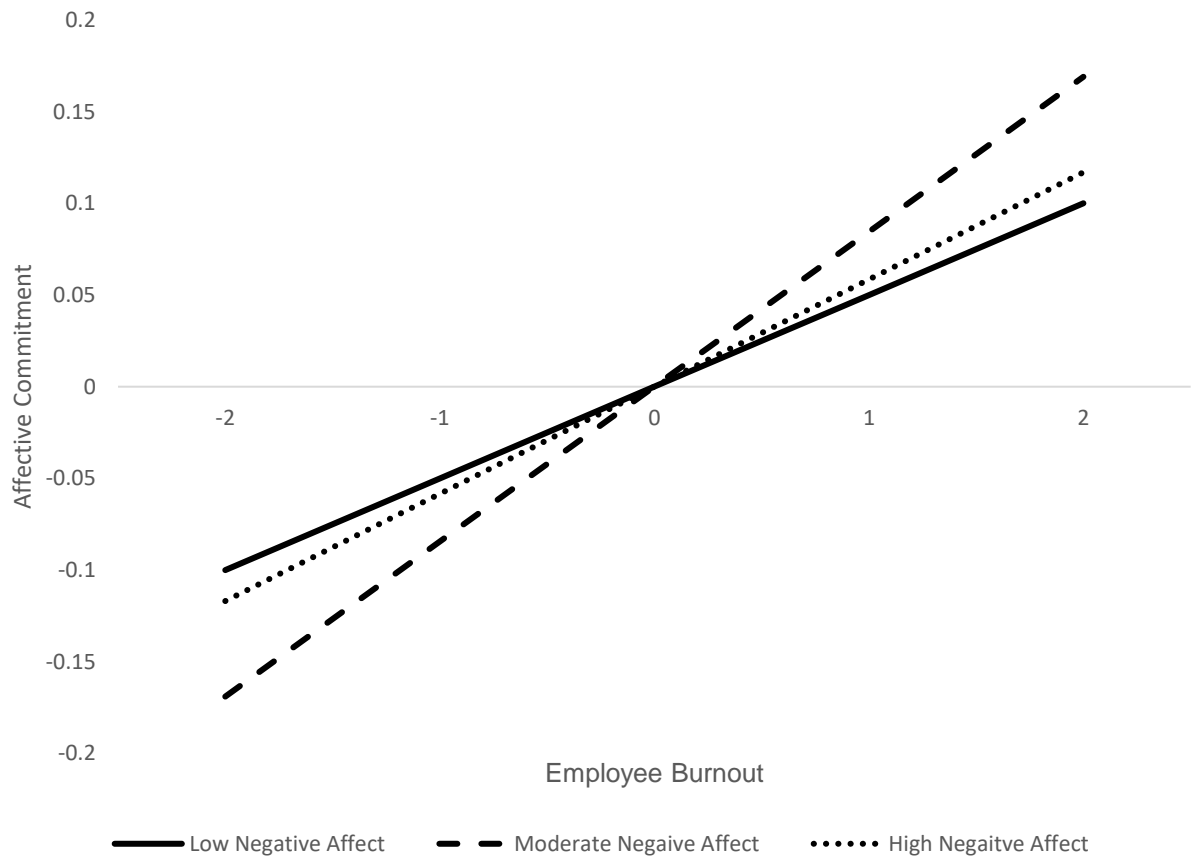
Caption: Interaction Between Affective Commitment and OCBI Moderated by Negative Affectivity at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

Figure 3.



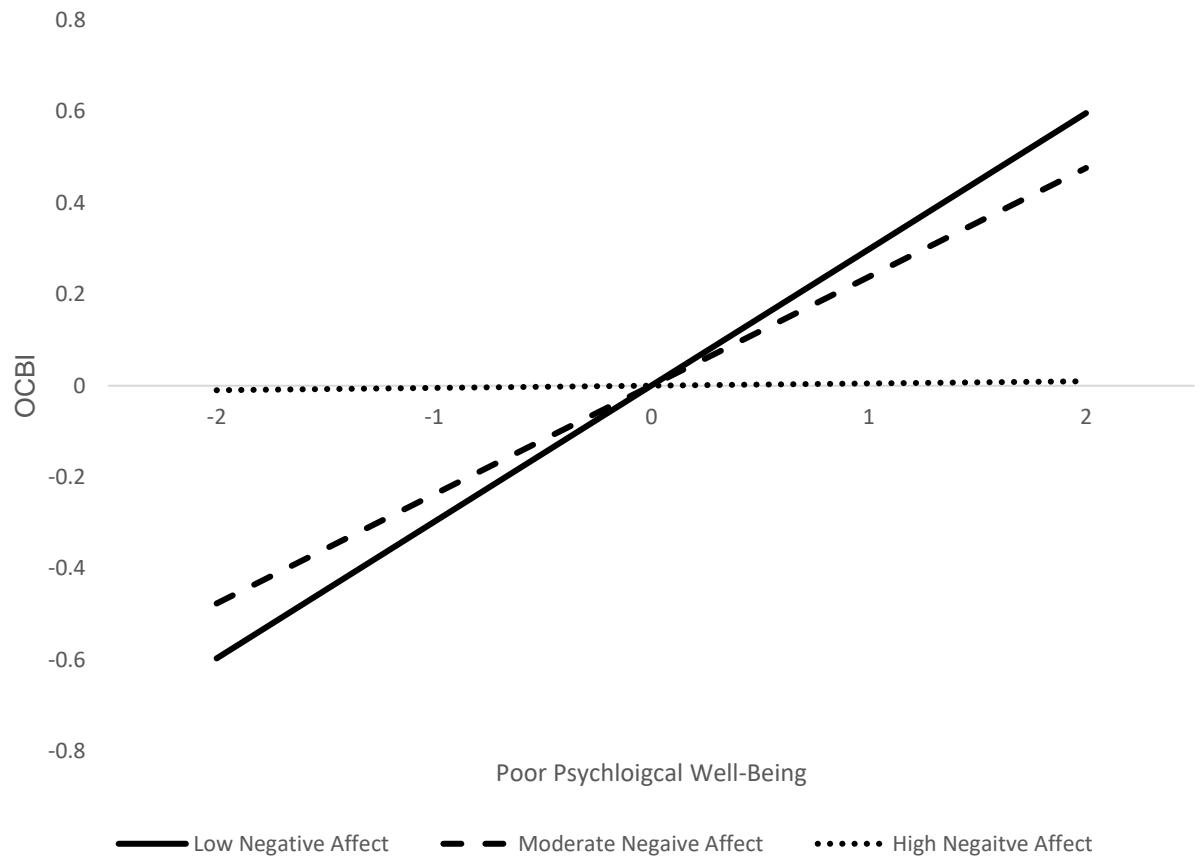
Caption: Interaction Between Affective Commitment and OCBO Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

Figure 4.



Caption: Interaction Between Affective Commitment and Employee Burnout Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

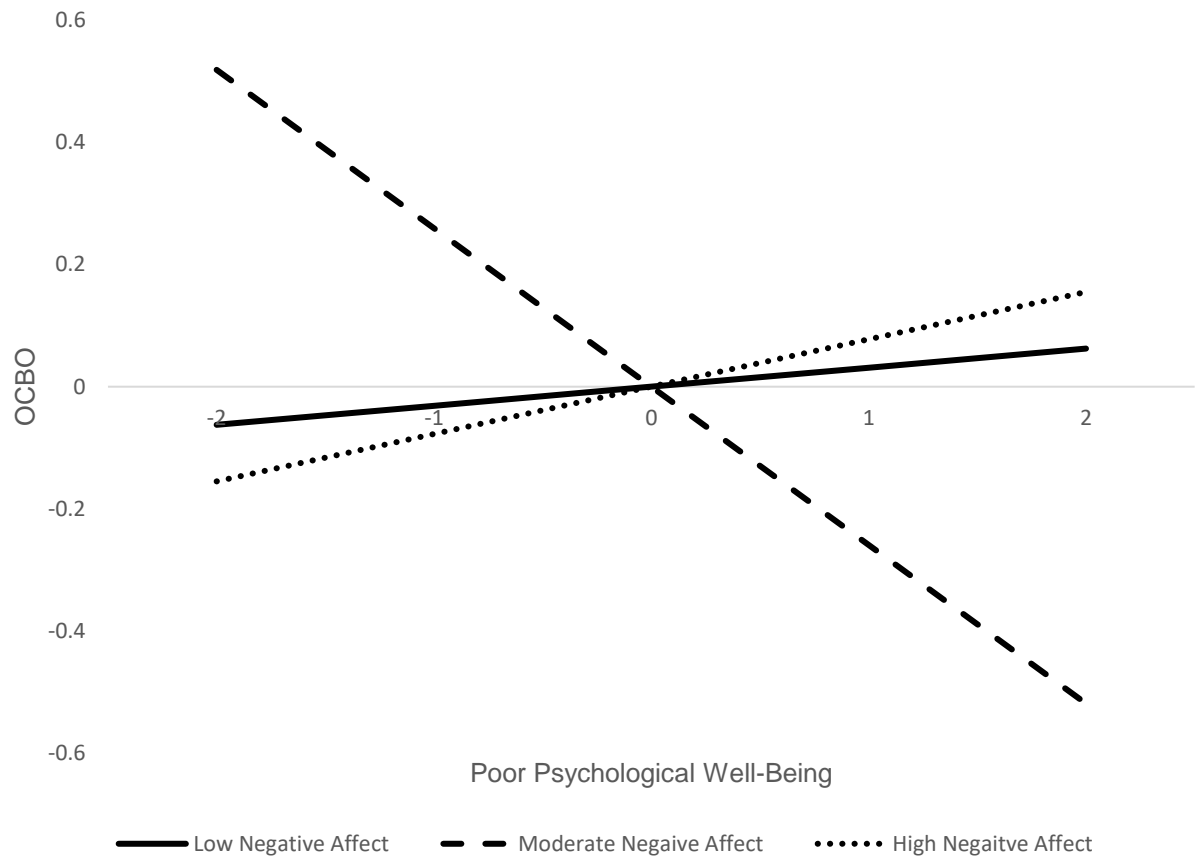
Figure 5.



Caption: Interaction Between OCBI and Poor Psychological Well-Being Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

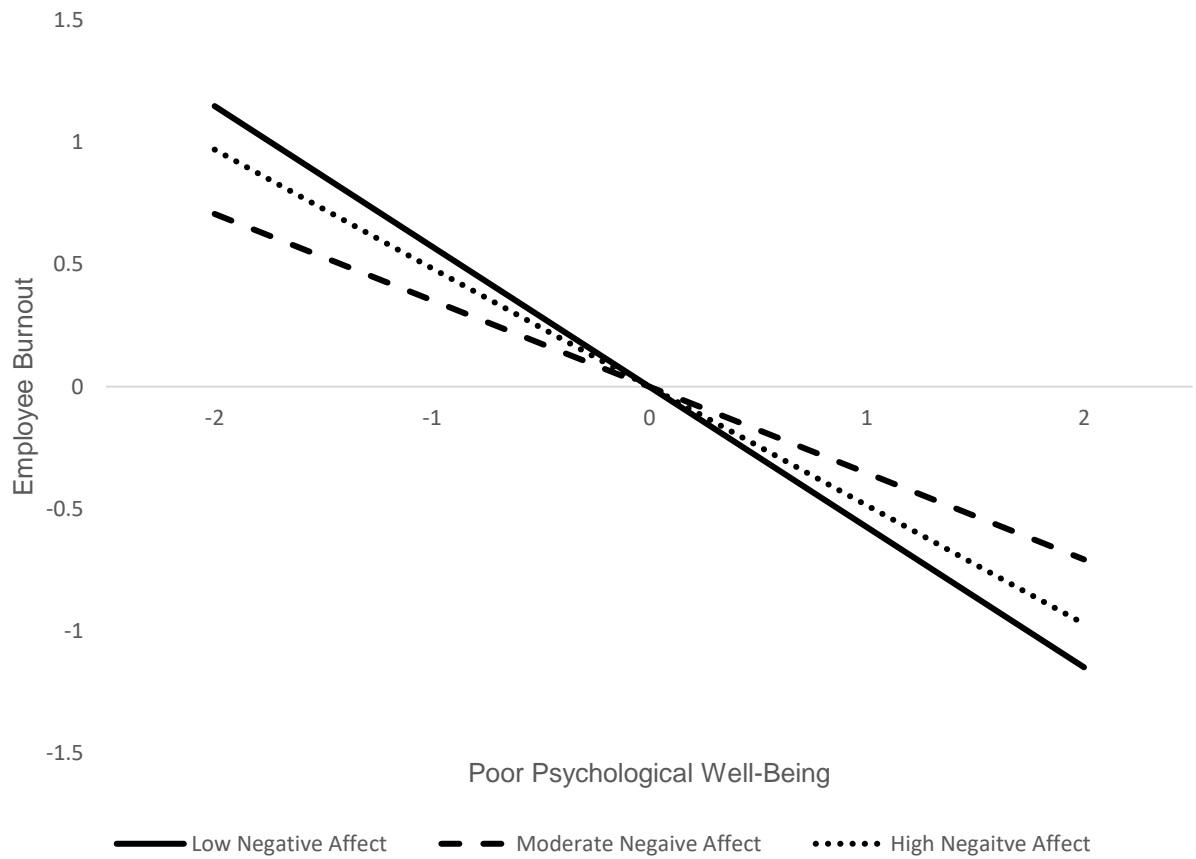


Figure 6.



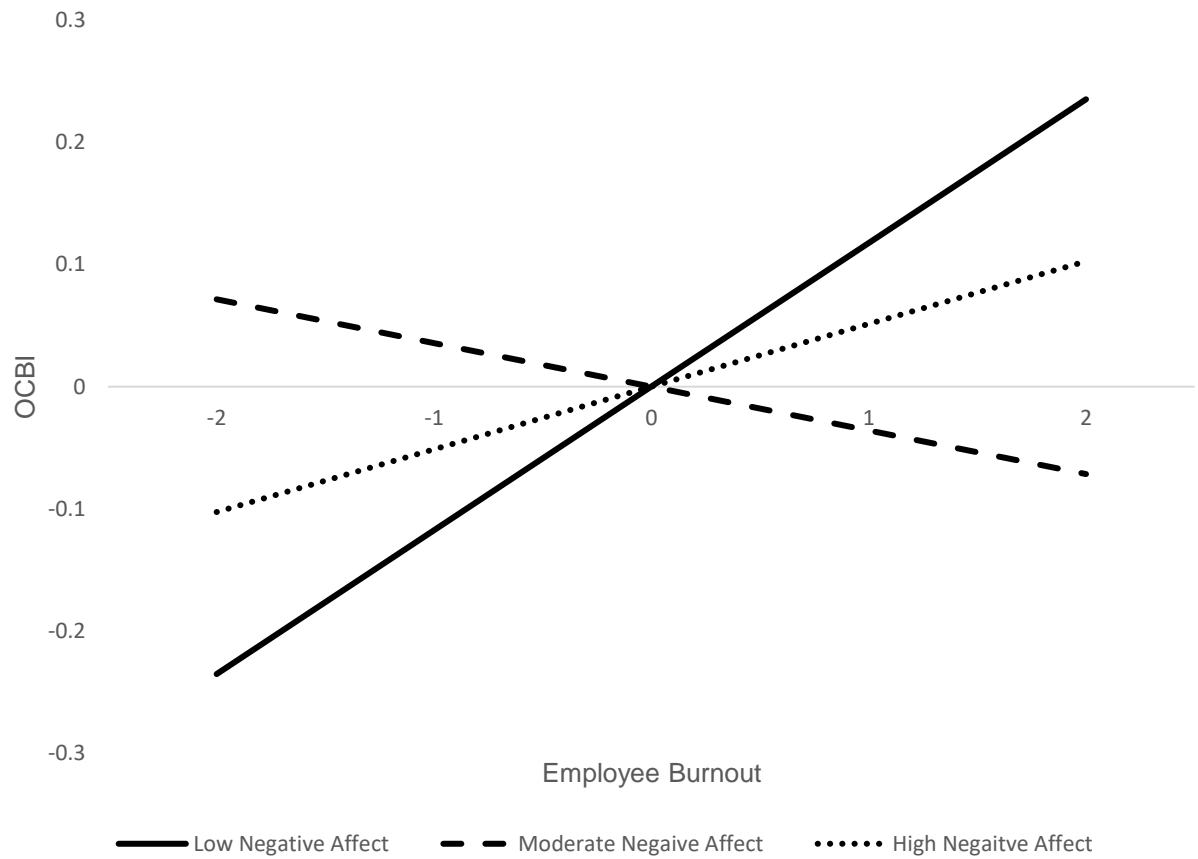
Caption: Interaction Between OCBO and Poor Psychological Well-Being Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

Figure 7.



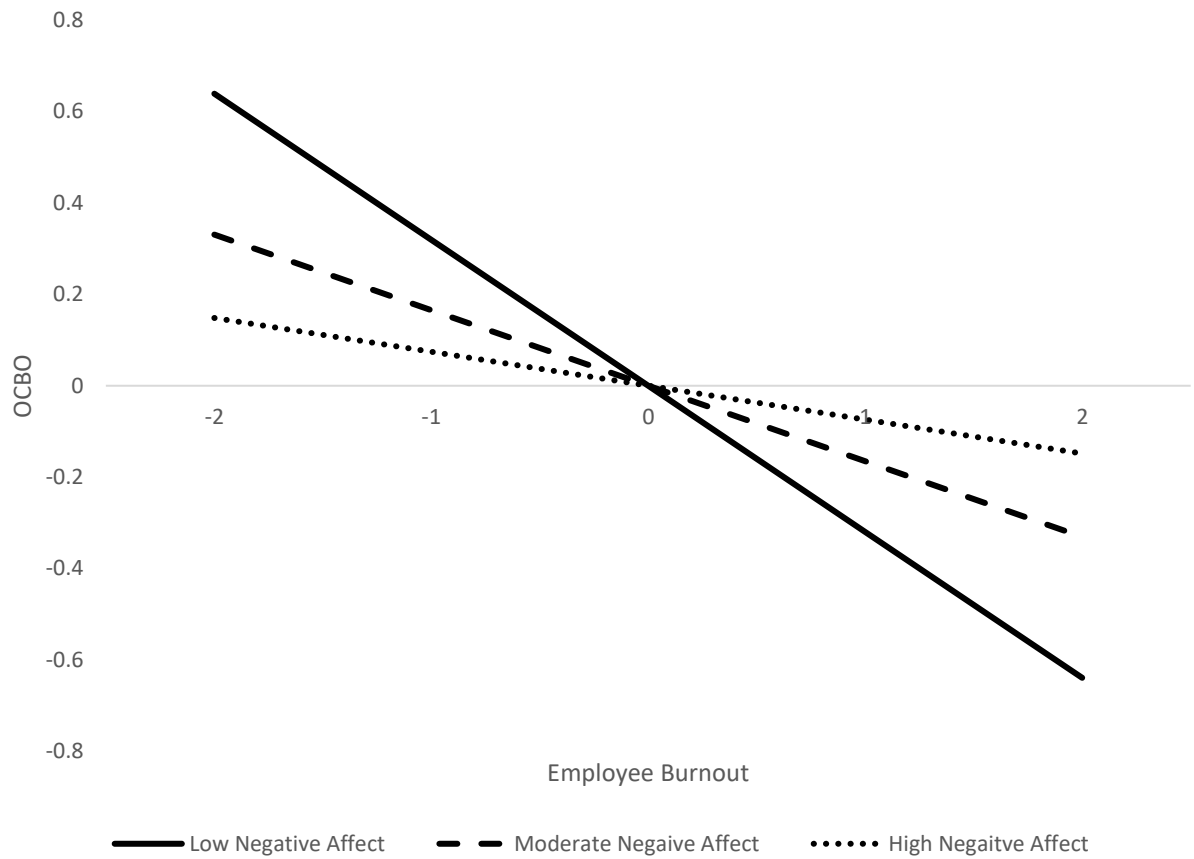
Caption: Interaction Between Employee Burnout and Poor Psychological Well-Being Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

Figure 8.



Caption: Interaction Between OCBI and Employee Burnout Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

Figure 9.



Caption: Interaction Between OCBO and Employee Burnout Moderated by Negative Affect at High, Moderate, and Low Levels. All variables are standardized.

APPENDIX C  
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (OCB-C) (REVISED  
VERSION)

**Instructions:** Read each statement and indicate how often you have done each of the following things at your present job. (Items are on a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = Every day).

1. Picked up meal for others at work
2. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
3. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
4. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
5. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
6. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal problem.
7. Changed vacation schedule, workdays or shifts to accommodate co-worker's needs.
8. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
9. Offered suggestions for improving the work environment.
10. Finished something for co-worker who had to leave early.
11. Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object.
12. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
13. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
14. Took phone messages for absent or busy co-worker.
15. Said good things about your employer in front of others.
16. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.
17. Volunteered to help a co-worker deal with a difficult customer, vendor, or co-worker.

18. Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.
19. Decorated, straightened up, or otherwise beautified common workspace.
20. Defended a co-worker who was being "put-down" or spoken ill of by other co-workers or supervisor.

Citation: Fox, Suzy, Spector, Paul E, Goh, Angeline, Bruursema, Kari, & Kessler, Stacey R. (2012). The deviant citizen: Measuring potential positive relations between counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85(1), 199–220.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02032.x>

APPENDIX D  
MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY



**Instructions:** Read each statement and indicate how often you have experienced these at work. (Items are on a 7-point fully anchored scale ranging from 0 = “Never” to 6 = “Every Day”).

**Emotional Exhaustion:**

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.
6. I feel frustrated by my job.
7. I feel I’m working too hard on my job.
8. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.
9. I feel like I’m at the end of my rope.

**Personal Accomplishment:**

1. I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things. (R)
2. I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients. (R)
3. I feel I’m positively influencing other people’s lives through my work.(R)
4. I feel very energetic. (R)
5. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients. (R)
6. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients. (R)
7. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job. (R)

8. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly. (R)

**Depersonalization:**

1. I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal 'objects'.
2. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.
3. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
4. I don't really care what happens to some recipients.
5. I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems

**(R) = Reverse coded items.**

Citation: Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., Leiter, M. P., Schaufeli, W. B., & Schwab, R. L. (1986). Maslach burnout inventory (Vol. 21, pp. 3463-3464). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting psychologists press.

APPENDIX E  
THREE-COMPONENT MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT  
QUESTIONNAIRE (REVISED VERSION)

**Instructions:** Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement. (Items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 7= "Strongly agree").

**Affective Commitment:**

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

**Continuance Commitment:**

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

**Normative Commitment:**

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
4. This organization deserves my loyalty.
5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

**(R) = Reverse coded items.**

Citation: Meyer, John P, & Allen, Natalie J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.

APPENDIX F  
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

**Instructions:** Read the statements and indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement. (Items are on a 7-point scale with 1= “Strongly agree” and 7= “strongly disagree”).

1. I like most parts of my personality. (R)
2. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out so far. (R)
3. Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them. (R)
4. The demands of everyday life often get me down.
5. In many ways I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.
6. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.
7. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.
8. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live. (R)
9. I am good at managing the responsibilities of daily life. (R)
10. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.
11. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth. (R)
12. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world. (R)
13. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others. (R)
14. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.
15. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.
16. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.
17. I have confidence in my own opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think. (R)
18. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important. (R)

**(R) = Reverse coded items.**

Citation: Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719–727.

APPENDIX G  
POSITIVE AFFECT AND NEGATIVE AFFECT SCHEDULE



**Instructions:** Below is a list of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer that indicates to what extent you generally feel this way. (Items are on a 5-point scale ranging from 1= “Very slightly or not at all” to 5= “Extremely”).

1. Interested
2. Distressed
3. Excited
4. Upset
5. Strong
6. Guilty
7. Scared
8. Hostile
9. Enthusiastic
10. Proud
11. Irritable
12. Alert
13. Ashamed
14. Inspired
15. Nervous
16. Determined
17. Attentive
18. Jittery
19. Active
20. Afraid

Citation: Watson, D., Clark, L., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and Validation of Brief Measures of Positive and Negative Affect: The PANAS Scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070.

APPENDIX H  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



May 26, 2020

**CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD**  
Protocol Change/Modification  
IRB-FY2020-315  
Status: Approved

Michelle BaleshIsmael Diaz  
CSBS - Psychology, Users loaded with unmatched Organization affiliation.  
California State University, San Bernardino  
5500 University Parkway  
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Michelle Balesh Ismael Diaz:

The protocol change/modification to your application to use human subjects, titled "The Impact of Negative Affect on Psychological Well-Being through Affective Commitment, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBI/OCBO), and Employee Burnout." has been reviewed and approved by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). A change in your informed consent requires resubmission of your protocol as amended. Please ensure your CITI Human Subjects Training is kept up-to-date and current throughout the study.

**Changes include 1 SONA credit for CSUSB students.**

You are required to notify the IRB of the following by submitting the appropriate form (modification, unanticipated/adverse event, renewal, study closure) through the online Cayuse IRB Submission System.

- 1. If you need to make any changes/modifications to your protocol submit a modification form as the IRB must review all changes before implementing in your study to ensure the degree of risk has not changed.**
- 2. If any unanticipated adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research study or project.**
- 3. If your study has not been completed submit a renewal to the IRB.**
- 4. If you are no longer conducting the study or project submit a study closure.**

You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application identification number (above) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

*Donna Garcia*

Donna Garcia, Ph.D, IRB Chair  
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

DG/MG

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