

The Impact of Non-Work Role Commitment on Employees' Career Growth

Prospects

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Drexel University

by

Christy H. Weer

in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2006

© Copyright 2006

Christy H. Weer. All Rights Reserved.

Dedications

In Loving Memory of My Dad

J. Richard Harris, Sr.

Acknowledgments

There are a number of people who have helped me through the last five years, and without their support, I would not have been able to complete this academic journey. First, I would like to thank my dissertation chair, mentor, and friend, Dr. Jeffrey H. Greenhaus. Dr. Greenhaus is a true scholar. To his students, he is nurturing, yet demanding and firm in his expectations. He has a quiet sense of encouragement which makes all those around him strive for excellence. Dr. Greenhaus challenged me to think beyond the obvious and consider the possibilities. I thank him for his generosity of time and knowledge, and his immense patience as I moved through the PhD program. I have learned so much from Dr. Greenhaus and am very grateful to have had the opportunity to work under him.

Next, I would like to thank Dr. Frank Linnehan, my mentor from day one. Dr. Linnehan is a prolific researcher and a gifted teacher. He has an uncanny ability to approach research from a theoretical perspective without ever losing sight of the practicality of the findings. Throughout my program – from the first day I stepped into his office in the summer of 2001, to the candidacy exam and throughout the entire dissertation process, Dr. Linnehan never stopped believing in me, and more importantly, forced me to believe in myself. For this, I will forever be indebted to him.

I thank Murugan Anandarajan, Donna DeCarolis, and John Schaubroeck, my committee members, for all the time and energy they devoted to helping me through the dissertation process. Their insightful comments and suggestions enhanced the quality of my dissertation immensely, and I truly appreciate their help and guidance.

I would like to extend a special thank you to my dear friend and colleague, Dr. Yi Yang. Through tears of worry and laughter of joy, a bond was created that will never be broken. I am a far better person for having spent my doctoral years in the company of Yi.

My thank yous would not be complete without a hardy thank you to my Ph.D. student colleagues, Nihal Colakoglu, Narasimha Paravastu, Sameer Dutta, Melissa Fender, Stuart Napshin and Maliha Zaman, who provided constant support throughout my doctoral studies. It was a pleasure sharing the PhD penthouse with them, and I will cherish all of the memories.

I owe a lot of the last five years to my dear friend, John Kirk. John was a constant source of support throughout the program. Not only did John provide the data source for this dissertation, he provided valuable insight into the ‘reality’ of the study. John spent considerable time and effort helping me to create and implement the survey instruments, and I can’t thank him enough. His intellectual curiosity often led him to joke that he lived a PhD program vicariously through me. What he didn’t know was that I continued to live in the ‘business world’ vicariously through him.

I also owe an anonymous thank you to the Law Firm HR Directors and supervisors who so graciously helped with data collection. Words can’t express my gratitude for the time and effort they devoted to distributing and completing the survey instruments. Without their help, the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible.

I want to extend a big thank you to the Harris family for their constant love and support. My dad, Richard Harris, although no longer with us, instilled in me the value of hard work. Phyllis Harris, my mom, always with her ‘do the best you can do’ attitude

never let me even consider giving up, even during the most difficult times. Rick, my wise old brother, whose every-so-often phone calls to find out how ‘the paper was going’ has always been, and continues to be, my ‘rock.’ Thank you all from the bottom of my heart.

And last, but certainly not least, I must thank my husband and soul mate, George, and my two children, Loryn Ava and Landon Mitchel. They are my inspiration and my hope. This journey would not have started, let alone been completed without them. Words can’t express my love and appreciation for my family.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiv
Abstract	xv
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Overview of the Gaps in the Literature and Scope of the Current Study	5
Theoretical Contributions and Practical Significance	10
Overview of Forthcoming Chapters	13
Chapter 2: Literature Review	14
Overview	14
Non-work Role Commitment	16
What Are Roles?	16
Role Accumulation	17
Non-work Role Commitment in the Present Study	21
Career Growth Prospects – Structural and Content Advancement	23
Structural Advancement	24
Content Advancement	25
The Mediators of the Relationship between Non-work Role Commitment and Career Growth Prospects	27
Non-work Demands – Time and Energy	27
Resource Acquisition	29
Work Engagement	32
Job Performance	35
Managerial Perceptions of Employee Work Commitment	38

Managerial Perceptions of Employee Organizational Commitment	39
Managerial Perceptions of Employee Career Commitment	41
The Moderators of the Relationship between Non-work Role Commitment and Career Growth Prospects	43
Career Commitment.....	44
Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment.....	44
Summary and Focus of the Present Study	47
Chapter 3: Research Model and Hypotheses	49
Research Questions.....	49
Hypothesized Relationships.....	50
<i>The Conflict Path</i>	50
The Demands Associated with Non-work Role Commitment	50
The Impact of Non-work Demands on Work Engagement	53
The Influence of Organizational Environment on the Relationship between Non-work Demands and Work Engagement.....	56
The Relationship between Work Engagement and Job Performance.....	59
<i>The Enrichment Path</i>	60
The Resources Acquired from Non-work Role Commitment	60
The Relationship between the Resources Acquired from Non-work Role Commitment and Job Performance	63
The Influence of Career Commitment on the Relationship between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance.....	65
The Relationships Between Job Performance, Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Work Commitments	68
Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Organizational and Career Commitments	68

Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Organizational and Career Commitments	71
The Relationships Between Managerial Perceived Work Commitments and Career Growth Prospects	73
The Relationship Between Job Performance and Career Growth Prospects Contributions to the Literature.....	76
Contributions to the Literature.....	78
Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology	79
Research Design.....	79
Data Collection Procedure	80
Pilot Study.....	81
Main Study.....	81
Collecting Paired-Data Using a Web-Based Survey	82
Sample.....	84
Demographics of Respondents	84
Measurement of Variables	85
Tests of Reliability and Validity.....	85
Employee Measures	86
Non-work Role Commitment	86
Resource Acquisition	87
Non-work Role Demands	88
Work Engagement	90
Perceptions of a Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment	91
Career Commitment.....	93
Supervisor Measures.....	93

Job Performance.....	93
Managerial Perceived Work Commitment	95
Managerial Perceived Organizational Commitment.....	95
Managerial Perceived Career Commitment.....	96
Career Growth Prospects	97
Structural Growth Prospects	98
Content Growth Prospects	98
Additional Variables of Interest.....	99
Hypothesis Testing.....	100
Hypothesis 1.....	100
Hypotheses 2 and 2a	101
Hypothesis 3.....	102
Hypotheses 4a and 4b	102
Hypotheses 5 and 5a	102
Hypotheses 6a and 6b and Hypotheses 7a and 7b	103
Hypotheses 8a, 8b and 9	104
Chapter 5: Results	105
Correlational Analysis	105
Intercorrelations Among Model Variables	106
Tests of Hypotheses	106
Hypothesis 1: The Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Non-work Demands	107
Hypothesis 2: The Relationship Between Non-work Role Demands and Work Engagement.....	107

Hypothesis 2: Post Hoc Analysis	108
Hypothesis 2a: The Moderating Effect of a Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationships Between Non-work Role Demands (Time and Energy) and Work Engagement.....	108
Hypothesis 2a: Post Hoc Analysis	109
Hypothesis 3: The Relationship Between Work Engagement and Job Performance	110
Hypotheses 4 and 4a: The Relationships Between Non-work Role Commitment, Non-work Demands and Resource Acquisition.....	110
Hypothesis 5: The Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance	112
Hypothesis 5a: The Moderating Effect of Career Commitment on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance	112
Hypothesis 5a: Post Hoc Analysis	113
Hypotheses 6 and 7: The Relationships of Job Performance and Work Engagement with Managerial Perceived Work Commitment	114
Hypotheses 8 and 9: The Relationships of Managerial Perceived Work Commitment and Job Performance with Career Growth Prospects	114
Model of Career Growth Prospects – Structural Equation Modeling (AMOS) ..	115
Forthcoming Chapter	117
Chapter 6: Discussion	118
Gaps in the Literature and Study Research Questions.....	118
Discussion of Findings.....	119
The Conflict Path	119
The Enrichment Path.....	124
The Relationships of Job Performance and Work Engagement with Managerial Perceived Work Commitment	127

The Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects	128
Theoretical Contributions of the Study.....	130
Contributions to Practice.....	133
Limitations of the Research and Opportunities for Future Research.....	134
References	139
Appendix A – Study Measures: Staff	179
Appendix B – Study Measures: Supervisor	191
Appendix C – Invitation to Participation Letter	196
Vita.....	

List of Tables

Table 1 – Summary of Hypotheses.....	153
Table 2 – Demographic Summary	154
Table 3 – Factor Structure of Managerial Perceived Work Commitment Scale	155
Table 4 – Factor Structure of Career Growth Prospects.....	156
Table 5 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Variables.....	157
Table 6a – The Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Non-work Time Demands.....	160
Table 6b – The Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Non-work Energy Demands.....	161
Table 7 – The Moderating Effect of Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Non-work Role Demands and Work Engagement	162
Table 8 – Post Hoc Analysis – The Moderating Effect of Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Physical & Emotional Energy and Work Engagement.....	163
Table 9 – The Relationship Between Work Engagement and Job Performance	164
Tables 10a-e – The Mediating Effect of Non-work Demands (Time and Energy) on the Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Resource Acquisition	165
Table 11 – The Relationship Between Resource Acquisition Job Performance	168
Table 12 – The Moderating Effect of Career Commitment on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Information and Contacts) and Job Performance	169
Table 13 – Post-Hoc Analysis – The Moderating Effect of Job Tenure on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Info., and Contacts) and Manager-Rated Job Performance (2 item measure)	170
Table 14 – The Relationships Between Job Performance, Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment	171

Table 15a – The Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects - Content	172
---	-----

Table 15b – The Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects - Structural	173
--	-----

List of Figures

Figure 1 – General Model of Career Growth Prospects	174
Figure 2 – Revised Model of Career Growth Prospects	175
Figure 3 – The Moderating Effect of a Non-Work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Time Demands and Work Engagement	176
Figure 4 – The Moderating Effect of a Non-Work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Emotional Energy Demands and Work Engagement.....	177
Figure 5 – The Moderating Effect of Job Tenure on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Information and Contacts) and Job Performance.....	178

Abstract

The Impact of Non-work Role Commitment on Employees' Career Growth Prospects

Christy H. Weer

Jeffrey H. Greenhaus, Ph.D.

The primary purpose of this study is to develop and test a model that examines the relationship between an individual's commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects. Based on two competing theoretical frameworks—work-non-work conflict and work-non-work enrichment—the current study seeks to determine the conditions under which commitment to roles outside of work may either promote or detract from one's career growth prospects.

Paired data were gathered from 186 legal secretaries and their supervisors. From the conflict perspective, the findings suggest that the energy required to participate in non-work roles has mixed effects on an individual's ability to engage in work. Specifically, the emotional demands associated with non-work roles detract from an individual's ability to engage (as well as perform) at work, while the physical energy associated with non-work role participation actually enhances work engagement. Organizations perceived as supportive of individuals' personal life help mitigate the negative effects of the emotional energy demands on work engagement. The data also indicated that the time devoted to non-work roles negatively impacts work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as highly supportive, whereas the time devoted to non-work roles enhances work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as less supportive.

From the enrichment perspective, results indicated that overall, the resources acquired from non-work role participation hindered individuals' job performance; however, a specific set of resources (the interpersonal and task related skills and social capital) enhanced job performance, at least for individuals who were employed in their current jobs for a substantial period of time.

The study further indicated that job performance acted as a cue from which a manager may base perception of an employee's commitment to his or her work. Moreover, both job performance and managerial perceived work commitment influenced an individual's content career growth prospects such that effective performers and employees perceived as committed to their work were deemed more likely to receive opportunities to grow and learn within their current job as compared to less effective performers or employees perceived as less committed to their work.

Chapter 1: Introduction

In her seminal work, Kanter (1977) shattered the myth that an individual's work life and personal life were two separate and non-overlapping worlds. Until this time, organizational research was conducted under the assumption that events or decisions in one's personal life did not enter one's work world, and if they did, they surely were not an intrinsic part of the operation of that world (Kanter, 1977). However, research has not only confirmed what Kanter (1977) first advocated, but has demonstrated that in order to understand the needs, motivations, and expectations of individuals at work, one can not be regarded as simply a worker, but as a spouse, parent, and member of the community as well (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999).

Widespread demographic, social and organizational changes have raised new issues for research on the implications of multiple role involvement for employees' careers. There are more women, single parents and dual-earner couples in the workforce than ever before. Moreover, due to the aging population, many of these employees have responsibility not only for the care of children, but for elderly dependents as well (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998). In addition, new economic forces, such as global competition and advances in technology and telecommunication, are creating an unprecedented need for committed employees (Brett & Stroh, 2003). As a result, today's employees are faced with increasing personal and organizational responsibilities, making it difficult to balance the demands of their personal lives with successful careers.

Coupled with these changes has come a shift in the expectations and values of the workforce. Unlike generations of the past, which considered the achievement of work-life balance a hard earned luxury, today's employees are committed to successfully

meeting both work and non-work responsibilities. It has been suggested that employees are no longer willing to give their lives to an organization, but are redefining themselves in terms of how their careers fit into their total lives (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Although much has been written about the effects of combining work and non-work roles, we know relatively little about the ways in which participation in multiple life roles affects career outcomes. Given the importance that today's employees place on achieving balance between their work and non-work roles, an examination of the ways in which active involvement in personal life impacts career outcomes is necessary.

Research examining the interface between work and non-work has historically focused on the negative consequences of combining multiple life roles. The "scarcity" hypothesis was based on two premises – that individuals have limited amounts of resources (e.g., time and energy), and that social organizations are greedy and demand all of an individual's allegiance (Goode, 1960). According to the scarcity model, people do not have enough resources to fulfill their role obligations. Therefore, the more roles one accumulates, the greater the probability of exhausting one's supply of time and energy and of confronting conflicting obligations, resulting in role strain and psychological distress (Goode, 1960). Indeed, significant research has been devoted to examining the costs associated with combining work and non-work roles and researchers have extensively documented the negative effects of inter-role conflict on employees' attitudes and well-being (Frone, 2000).

Despite the recognized costs, the literature also suggests beneficial outcomes associated with role accumulation. The "role expansion" hypothesis was conceptualized when theorists began to question the prevailing belief that participation in multiple roles

inevitably produces role overload, conflict, and stress. The major theorists advocating an “expansion” hypothesis were Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974), who emphasized the benefits rather than the obligations that could accrue for individuals involved in multiple roles. Marks (1977), in opposition with Goode (1960), argued that time and energy are human resources which are flexible and can be personally constructed and controlled. He believed that individuals who are psychologically committed to multiple roles find enough time and energy to actively participate in all roles. Sieber (1974) focused on the rewards associated with role accumulation, and identified four types of rewards - role privileges, overall status security, resources for status enhancement and role performance, and personality enhancement and ego gratification - that may make the accumulation of roles more rewarding than stressful. Extending the works of these early theorists, Greenhaus & Powell (2006) recently proposed a theory of work-family enrichment. According to the authors, resources acquired through role participation can be transferred to enhance the quality of life in other roles.

Despite a long history of research examining the positive implications of employees’ involvement in multiple life roles, with few exceptions, this research has focused solely on the impact of combining work and family roles on outcomes of physical health and psychological well-being. Indeed, significant research has documented beneficial physical and psychological effects for women of adding the worker role, and for men, active involvement in the family role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Moreover, this research has suggested a number of conditions under which participation in both work and family has beneficial effects for individuals involved in these roles.

Recently, research on multiple role involvement has begun to include the examination of the implications of participation in multiple roles on work-related outcomes. Although quite limited, this research has suggested that employees' active involvement in roles outside of work can have beneficial effects for their work-related attitudes and behaviors. For example, active involvement in marital and parental roles has been found to enhance employees' job performance and organizational based self-esteem (Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004). Moreover, commitment to multiple life roles has been found to enhance interpersonal and task-related managerial skills (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). However, beyond these initial studies, we know little about the implications of employees' involvement in their personal lives on work-related outcomes, particularly their careers.

The purpose of this study is to extend the research on multiple role involvement by examining the impact of commitment to non-work roles on career outcomes. Moreover, because career growth prospects have been suggested as an important factor in determining an employee's sense of personal growth (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000) this study examines the impact of commitment to non-work roles on two indicators of career growth prospects – structural (hierarchical) advancement and content (within current job) advancement.

In sum, dramatic changes in the composition of the workforce, including the increase of women, single parents, and dual earner couples, has led to considerable research on employees' involvement in multiple life roles. This research has made considerable progress in helping us understand the ways in which combining work and non-work roles affects the well-being of employees' juggling their work and personal

lives. However, we know relatively little about the ways in which commitment to roles outside of work affects career outcomes (Singh, Greenhaus, & Parasuraman, 2002). The current study attempts to extend existing research by drawing on both the conflict and enrichment theories, as well as the careers literature to develop and test a model which examines *the impact of commitment to non-work roles on career growth prospects*. More specifically, this study seeks to explain *the conditions under which commitment to non-work roles can have beneficial and harmful effects on two important facets of career growth prospects – structural and content advancement*.

The following sections provide a brief explanation of the gaps in the literature with respect to the impact of commitment to non-work roles on career growth prospects, the proposed linkages among the variables in the model, and the theoretical and practical implications of the study for individuals as well as organizations. Finally, an overview of forthcoming chapters is offered.

Overview of the Gaps in the Literature and Scope of the Current Study

The aim of the current research is to broaden our understanding of the impact of commitment to non-work roles on employees' career growth prospects. Although considerable research has examined various facets of the interface between work and non-work, this research seeks to address three specific gaps in the literature.

First, the vast amount of research on multiple role involvement has focused on the impact of combining work and non-work roles on physical and psychological health (see Barnett & Hyde, 2001 for a review). Only recently has research begun to examine the impact of non-work role participation on work-related outcomes (Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). Moreover, a review of the

literature revealed no study examining the ways in which commitment to non-work roles impacts employees' career growth prospects. Given the importance that employees are placing on integrating their personal lives into their careers, and the recognition that employees seek to actively manage their work and non-work boundaries, the necessity to examine the ways in which participation in non-work roles impacts career outcomes is evident.

The current study attempts to fill this gap in the literature by developing and testing a model which examines the impact of commitment to non-work roles on employees' career growth prospects. Moreover, rather than simply examining the negative *or* positive consequences through the conflict or enrichment perspective, this study extends existing research by assessing the co-occurrence of these processes. Although it has been speculated that that these seemingly opposing processes can and do co-exist, empirical evidence is quite limited (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992a, 1992b, 1993, 1995; Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004; Rothbard, 2001). An examination of both the positive and negative implications is critical to a better understanding of the ways in which our personal and work lives are meaningfully connected (Lobel, 1991).

From the conflict perspective, it is suggested that the *time and energy (demand requirements)* necessary to be actively involved and committed to non-work roles detracts from an individual's ability to fully engage in the work role. *Work engagement*, is defined as the degree to which an individual is physically, cognitively and emotionally invested in the work role (Kahn, 1990). It has been suggested that one's ability to fully engage at work has a significant impact on *job performance* (Kahn, 1990), in that the

more fully engaged an employee, the more meaning he or she experiences in performing task behaviors, and the better the performance (Kahn, 1992). From the conflict perspective, the demands associated with non-work roles are assumed to detract from an individual's ability to fully engage in work, and therefore, job performance suffers. In turn, low levels of work engagement and job performance negatively impact two important career outcomes – *structural and content advancement* – through a perceived lack of commitment to both the organization and to the individual's career. Moreover, because management's evaluation of job performance has been found to play a significant role in the assessment of the employee's potential within an organization (Mobley, 1982; Stumpf & London, 1981), it is likely that poor job performance will also directly hinder the employee's opportunities for career growth.

From the enrichment perspective, however, rather than robbing an employee of resources, commitment to non-work roles provides opportunities to acquire additional *resources (resource acquisition)*. Enhanced interpersonal and task-related skills, broadened perspectives, increased self-esteem and confidence, and social capital are resources that can be gained through commitment to non-work roles and transferred to the work role to enhance job performance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Therefore, from the enrichment perspective, commitment to non-work roles leads to enhanced job performance through the generation and transference of resources. In turn, management's recognition of high quality job performance should signify the employee's commitment and identification with the organization, as well as to their profession, and ultimately career growth opportunities should be enhanced.

As illustrated, the demands and resources associated with non-work roles and the ways in which they are managed are the driving forces of the relationship between non-work role commitment and career outcomes. Over-taxing demands or an inability to transfer the supply of resources acquired from non-work roles can negatively impact an employee's career prospects within an organization. On the other hand, the effective management of the demands and the transference and full application of the resources can ultimately enhance one's career growth prospects. However, we know little about the conditions that might foster the promotion of such positive outcomes. Given that traditional organizational assumptions rest on the notion that employees' commitment to activities outside of work naturally detract from their ability to effectively perform their work role, this study addresses a second gap in the literature by identifying select organizational and personal characteristics which may promote positive career outcomes from commitment to non-work roles.

The literature suggests that perceptions of a *non-work supportive organizational environment* can help reduce the stress that workers experience from the demands associated with juggling multiple roles. Individuals who perceive their organizations as supportive of their non-work participation are said to sense greater control over their work and non-work demands (Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). It is expected that employees who work for organizations that are supportive of their personal lives will have a greater sense of control over their work and non-work lives, experience less conflict between their work and non-work roles, and as a result reap career benefits.

In addition, the literature has suggested that the transference of resources generated from one role to another is an intentional decision (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Because individuals place a high value on performing well in a role that is central to their self-concept, employees are more likely to transfer the resources acquired from non-work roles to the work role if they are highly committed to their careers and if they seek growth within their careers. Therefore, career committed individuals may enjoy greater career benefits from their commitment to non-work roles because they are likely to transfer resources to enhance their job performance. In sum, this study seeks to fill a gap in the literature by examining two conditions – a supportive non-work organizational environment and career commitment – under which non-work role commitment can have a positive impact on career growth prospects.

The third gap in the literature this study seeks to fill involves the measurement of a wide array of non-work roles and specific sets of demands and resources associated with those roles. With few exceptions, the multiple role literature has primarily focused on work and family, and only recently has research begun to look beyond the characteristics of work and family to include additional life roles that have the potential to impact an individual's work and career outcomes (Voydanoff, 2004a, Voydanoff, 2004b). The current study will extend this research by incorporating five non-work roles, including family (spouse and parent), community involvement, religious involvement, leisure activities and the student role. Moreover, rather than examining sheer occupancy of non-work roles, this study will assess the level of commitment to each role. By incorporating a broader spectrum of roles, and assessing the level of commitment to each

role, this study seeks to obtain a more realistic and comprehensive view of the impact of non-work role commitment on career outcomes.

In sum, research is just beginning to examine the impact of non-work role commitment on work and career-related outcomes. However, the literature lacks both a theoretical model and an empirical assessment of the consequences of commitment to non-work roles on career prospects. In an attempt to fill these gaps, this study seeks to test a model that identifies several factors – non-work role demands, resources acquisition, work engagement, job performance, and managerial perceived career and organizational commitment – that mediate the effects of commitment to non-work roles on two important career outcomes – structural and content advancement. In addition, the model in the proposed study includes two moderating variables - non-work supportive environment and career commitment – which may reduce the negative effects and facilitate beneficial career outcomes from commitment to non-work roles.

Theoretical Contributions and Practical Significance

Kanter (1977) noted almost three decades ago that the myth of separate work and non-work worlds was virtually shattered. Since that time research has sought to examine the myriad of ways in which these seemingly distinct roles are intertwined. Historically, this research focused on the negative consequences of combining work and non-work roles. However, more recently, research has begun to help us understand the ways in which our work and personal lives are positively connected. The vast majority of this work centered on the health related consequences of occupying multiple roles; however, the ways in which employees' commitment to roles outside work impacts their careers has yet to be examined.

The major theoretical contribution of this study is the development and empirical testing of a model that examines the impact of employees' commitment to non-work roles on their career growth prospects. The development of this model will contribute to theory building in a number of ways. First, the vast amount of research on multiple role involvement has taken either a negative, scarcity driven approach, or a positive, enhancement focused approach. Despite the competing arguments presented in the scarcity and expansion hypotheses, recent research has suggested that these opposing views are not necessarily incompatible (Rothbard, 2001). However, with few exceptions (Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004), research has failed to examine both the positive and negative perspectives within one study. This study seeks to contribute to the literature by testing the co-occurrence of the scarcity and enhancement hypotheses. By examining these processes within one study, a better understanding of the ways in which our commitment to personal life roles can either hinder or enhance our career prospects will be achieved.

Moreover, with the ever increasing responsibilities placed on individuals who wish to be actively involved in their personal lives, yet achieve success within their careers this study seeks to examine the conditions under which commitment to non-work roles has beneficial effects on career growth prospects. The literature suggests that employees who work for organizations that support their personal lives may likely reap greater career-related benefits because they will experience less conflict between their work and non-work roles. In addition, the literature suggests that individuals who are committed to their careers may achieve greater career benefits from their non-work roles, as they are more likely to transfer resources to enhance performance in roles that are

important to them. Thus, testing a model with these contingency variables will offer insight on conditions that may promote career-related benefits.

Finally, this study seeks to contribute methodologically to the literature, by examining the impact of commitment to a wide array of non-work roles on career outcomes. Moreover, this study seeks to measure specific sets of demands and resources that have been previously identified in the literature, but have yet to be empirically examined in this context.

Gaining a better understanding of the ways in which our personal life impacts career outcomes has practical importance well. For many organizations, meeting the personal needs of employees has become a strategic imperative. Global competition for human resources has made an organization's ability to facilitate work-life balance an important competitive factor in attracting talent (Poelmans, 2005). Gaining a better understanding of the ways in which employees' personal lives impact their careers will offer employers insight into policies and programs necessary for employees to successfully integrate their work and personal lives.

For individuals committed to multiple life roles, this study can offer insight into the challenges, as well as the benefits, their personal lives impose on their careers. Undoubtedly, there are hurdles involved in juggling one's career with the ever increasing responsibilities of personal life; however, this study seeks to understand whether the benefits outweigh the costs.

Overview of Forthcoming Chapters

In order to fully examine and understand the impact of commitment to non-work roles on career growth prospects, Chapter 2 provides a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature on the variables examined in the current study.

Chapter 3 presents a contingency model that describes the process by which commitment to non-work roles impacts career growth prospects. The rationale for each of the proposed linkages in the model is provided in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 discusses the proposed methodology of the study, including data collection procedures, characteristics of the target sample, measures that will be used to assess the constructs, and the statistical techniques that will be used for data analysis.

Chapter 5 presents the study's results, followed by Chapter 6, which discusses and integrates the major findings of the study. The final chapter also highlights the contributions made to the literature, discusses the limitations of the study, and suggests areas for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Overview

With the ever increasing responsibilities placed on individuals who wish to be actively involved in their personal lives, yet achieve success within their careers, the importance of examining the ways in which commitment to non-work roles impacts employees' career growth prospects is evident. Moreover, because the underlying assumption for many organizations is that active participation in roles outside of work detracts from an individual's ability to succeed in the work role, an inquiry into the conditions under which commitment to non-work roles is associated with career prospects is particularly important.

Figure 1 presents the model tested in the current study. In order to examine the impact of commitment to non-work roles on employees' career growth prospects, this study suggests a mediated model based on two theoretical perspectives.

Insert Figure 1 about here

The conflict perspective suggests that commitment to roles outside of work places time and energy demands on individuals, which may detract from their ability to engage in, and therefore perform effectively in, the work role. From this perspective, lack of work engagement and diminished job performance hinder career growth prospects through a manager's negative appraisal of the employee's commitment to both the organization and his or her career. From the enrichment perspective, commitment to non-work roles provides resources that facilitate an employee's ability to perform in the

work role. Enhanced performance, in turn, influences a manager's perception of the employee's organizational and career commitment, which ultimately has positive implications for the employee's career growth prospects. In addition, the proposed model includes two moderated relationships, which posit that the impact of commitment to non-work roles on career prospects depends on two factors – the employee's commitment to his or her career and the level of the organization's support for employee participation in non-work roles.

Chapter 2 defines and discusses the key variables in the model. The chapter begins with a discussion of the term *roles and the role episode*, followed by a review of the literature on *role accumulation*, which includes a review of conflict and enrichment theoretical perspectives. These sections provide the foundation for a discussion and definition of the independent variable – *non-work role commitment*. Next, a discussion of the dependent variable – *career growth prospects* is offered. The mediating variables – *demands requirements, resource acquisition, work engagement, job performance, managerial perceived organizational commitment, and managerial perceived career commitment* - are then reviewed and defined. In addition, this chapter discusses the two moderator variables in the study – *non-work supportive organizational environment* and *career commitment*. Theoretical rationale and empirical support for the linkages among the variables are presented in Chapter 3.

Non-work Role Commitment

What Are Roles?

In order to fully explain the concept of non-work role commitment as adopted in this study, it is important to first discuss the notion of a role and the role episode. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) were among the first to discuss the notion of roles as the basis of individual behavior and social structure.

“The life of an individual can be seen as an array of roles which he plays in the particular set of organizations and groups to which he belongs. These groups and organizations, or rather the subparts of each which affect the person directly, together make up his objective environment. Characteristics of these organizations and groups (company, union, church, family, and the rest) affect the physical and emotional state of the person, and are major determinants of his behavior (p. 11).”

A role has generally been defined as an expected pattern or set of behaviors that exist in the minds of people (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Every role for which an individual participates includes a set of activities or potential behaviors (Kahn et al., 1964). These behaviors are guided by the expectations set forth by the role set, which includes those individuals with whom the individual is associated by virtue of his or her participation in a particular role. All members of a person's role set depend upon the focal person's performance in some way, and therefore develop beliefs and attitudes about what and how a role should be performed. The content of these role expectations include preferences with respect to specific acts, such as what the person should do and how the role behaviors should be performed. Role senders communicate role expectations

through role pressures, which are intended to bring about conformity with the expectations of the senders (Kahn et al, 1964).

The focal person's response to role pressures depends on the focal person's perception of the sent expectations. It is this received role, specifically, the focal person's perceptions and cognitions of what was sent that is the immediate influence on each member's behavior and the immediate source of his or her motivation for role performance.

In essence, the role episode as described above is based on four concepts: 1) role expectations, which are evaluative standards applied to the behavior of any person who occupies a given role; 2) sent role, which consists of communications stemming from role expectations and sent by members of the role set as attempts to influence the focal person; 3) received role, which is the focal person's perception of the expectations of the role-senders; and 4) role behavior, which is the response of the focal person to the complex of information and influence he or she has received (Katz & Kahn, 1978). An individual's participation in social roles is made up of a series of role episodes. The following section reviews the literature on role accumulation, which refers to an individual's participation in multiple life roles.

Role Accumulation

Research with respect to role accumulation has taken two distinct paths. Historically, role accumulation has been examined from a negative, conflict-ridden perspective. Early theoretical writings portrayed individuals' involvement in multiple life roles as detrimental to their health and well-being. Goode (1960), Slater (1963), and Coser (1974) provided three highly influential works from which much of the early

empirical research on role accumulation was based. These authors were concerned with the impact of the demands placed on multiple role players. Goode (1960) argued that individuals have limited resources (e.g. energy and skills) which must be allocated among alternative roles, and that individuals involved in multiple roles face over-demanding role obligations resulting in what he called “role strains.” Therefore, Goode concluded that individuals must choose among those role alternatives which provide the least amount of role strain. Similarly, Slater (1963) argued that involvement in multiple roles requires “spreading out one’s energy among a number of objects,” and because people do not have enough energy for every role, compromises must be made. Coser (1974, p. 3) argued that in today’s “modern nontotalitarian societies, people are expected to play many roles on many stages, thus parceling out their available energies.” In sum, the conflict perspective argues that because individuals have finite resources, such as time, energy and skills, the greater the number of roles for which an individual is involved, the greater the demands and role incompatibility, and therefore, the greater the role conflict.

Challenging the conflict-ridden view of role accumulation, theorists began to acknowledge the benefits rather than the obligations that could accrue for individuals involved in multiple roles. Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) provided the foundation from which researchers began to document the beneficial effects of role accumulation. Marks (1977) questioned the scarcity approach to time and energy that was the foundation of the prevailing conflict perspective. Rather than limited and finite, he viewed the supply of energy as abundant and expandable, and suggested that participation in some roles may actually create energy that can be used in other roles. Marks argued that psychological commitment was the key to one’s successful involvement in multiple roles, and

suggested that individuals who were psychologically committed to multiple roles find enough time and energy to participate effectively in all roles.

Siebert (1974) explained the beneficial outcomes of role accumulation by focusing on the rewards that individuals receive when they accumulate multiple roles. He proposed four types of rewards or positive outcomes associated with role accumulation: (1) role privileges, (2) overall status security, (3) resources for status enhancement and role performance, and (4) personality enrichment and ego gratification. Role privileges referred to the rights and benefits, such as the authority to make decisions that accrue to individuals as the number of roles in which they participate increases. Sieber argued that as individuals increase the number of role in which they participate, they also increase the number of privileges to a point where the role privileges may exceed the role obligations. Status security referred to an individual's increasing ability to "fall back on" or rely on the gratifications of one role to compensate for failure in another role. Sieber's (1974) third reward, resources for status enhancement and role performance, focused on the increase in information and social contacts as role participation increases. Finally, personality enrichment and ego gratification referred to an individual's expanded personality to include new ideas and views as a result of involvement in multiple roles. In essence, Siebert argued that the more roles in which an individual participates, the greater the opportunities for the individual to accrue rewards.

Based on these theoretical perspectives, two broad streams of empirical research have emerged. The first, and more extensive, has focused on examining the consequences of individuals' participation in multiple roles on their physical health and mental well-being. A primary focus of these studies has been on identifying the

implications for women of adding the work role, and for men, adding the family role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Much of this research has conceptualized role involvement as simply role occupancy, and therefore operationalized the construct through a single item asking respondents to indicate whether or not they occupy specific roles (Amatea & Fong, 1991; Kandel, Davies, & Raveis, 1985; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Pietromonaco, Manis, Frohardt-Lane 1986; Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Thoits, 1983; Verbrugge, 1983; Waldron & Jacobs, 1989). Role involvement has also been conceptualized as an individual's behavioral and psychological commitment to a role (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993; Voyandoff & Donnelly, 1999). Behavioral commitment has been measured in terms of the number of hours spent in role participation, whereas psychological commitment has been operationalized as the centrality of a role to one's self identity and the salience of the role in relation to other activities (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993).

In addition to differences in the conceptualization and measurement of role involvement, role accumulation studies have also differed in the number and types of roles included. The vast majority of studies have focused solely on the roles of work and family (Amatea & Fong, 1991; Barnett, Davidson, Marshall, 1991; Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992; Barnett, Marshall & Sayer, 1992; Barnett, Marshall & Singer, 1992; Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993; Tiedje, et al 1990; Waldron & Jacobs, 1989; Verbrugge, 1983). However, a handful of studies have included additional roles such as student, religious member, neighbor, friend, and volunteer (Pietromonaco, Manis, & Frohardt-Lane, 1986; Reitzes & Mutran, 1994; Thoits, 1983). Despite conceptual and operational differences, there is overwhelming evidence that participation in multiple roles benefits individuals' health and well-being.

A second, less explored, stream of research examines the consequences of participation in multiple life roles on role-related outcomes. A specific focus of this research involves the impact of non-work role commitment on work-related outcomes. Although in its infancy, this research has indicated that an individual's commitment to non-work roles can promote positive work-related outcomes, such as increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kirchmeyer, 1992a). Moreover, research has indicated that individuals highly committed to personal life roles have enhanced interpersonal and managerial task-related skills, (Ruderman, et al., 2002), enjoy higher levels of career satisfaction and organizational-based self-esteem and have higher performance evaluations (Ohlott et al., 2004) than their less committed counterparts.

It is this second stream of research that the current study seeks to extend. We have initial evidence that commitment to non-work roles may have beneficial effects for the work role; however, we know little about the process by which these outcomes occur. Moreover, although initial studies have examined the implication of non-work role commitment on work-related attitudes and performance, we know little about the implications for one's career. The following section discusses the non-work role commitment construct as utilized in the present study.

Non-Work Role Commitment in the Current Study

The current study is interested in assessing the effects of an individual's commitment to a wide array of personal life roles on his or her career growth prospects. Non-work role commitment in the current study is defined as *the summation of an individual's psychological commitment to a wide array of non-work roles*. Two issues

need clarification in this definition – the meaning of psychological commitment and the use of the term “wide array of non-work roles.”

Rather than simply assess role occupancy, the current study seeks to identify the degree to which an individual is psychologically committed to a wide array of personal life roles. Psychological commitment reflects the importance of a role to an individual’s self-identity, and reflects both the significance of the role and the fact that not everyone who occupies a role is equally invested in it (Greenberger & O’Neil, 1993). The literature suggests that individuals have multiple identities that provide meaning and purpose in life (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1985), and that our identities are often organized in a hierarchy of centrality such that some roles are perceived to be more important than other roles as a source of self-definition (Thoits, 1983). The literature further suggests that individuals tend to commit to roles which enhance their valued self-identities. Therefore, the more important a role is to one’s self-identity, the more likely one is to commit to that role.

The current study seeks to assess an individual’s commitment to a wide array of non-work roles. A measure of commitment will be created based on an individual’s psychological commitment to the following five roles: the family role, including spouse and parent, community involvement, religious involvement, leisure activities, and the student role. The inclusion of these roles is based on a recent study of managerial women which identified these as key life roles (Ruderman et al., 2002). Moreover, these five roles have been suggested as the primary social roles that make up the lives of most adults (Frone, 2003).

Career Growth Prospects – Structural and Content Advancement

The purpose of this study is to examine the ways in which commitment to non-work roles may impact one's career. The literature suggests that commitment to roles outside of work may either positively or negatively impact career growth prospects, depending on certain individual and organizational characteristics.

Broadly defined, career growth refers to opportunities employees may receive, such as increased responsibilities, challenging assignments, and learning experiences which foster career development and growth. Based on this, career growth prospects in the current study is defined as *the likelihood that an employee will be offered increased responsibilities, challenging assignments, and learning opportunities which promote career growth and development within his or her current organization*. The literature suggests two distinct means by which an employee may receive opportunities for career growth. One is through hierarchical advancement or promotion (structural advancement); another is through experiences within his or her current position aimed at enhancing work motivation and job performance (content advancement). These two components of career growth are consistent with the literature on career plateauing, which suggests that individuals may be either structurally plateaued or content plateaued (Davenport, 1993; Joseph, 1992; Milliman, 1992). In structural plateauing, an individual is unable to rise further in the organization's hierarchy (FERENCE, Stoner, & Warren, 1977), whereas in content plateauing there is a low likelihood of increased responsibilities or challenges associated with one's current job (Bardwick, 1986). Similarly, the two components or indicators of career growth prospects included in the current study are: 1) structural advancement, which represents increased responsibilities

and challenges through hierarchical advancement, and 2) content advancement, which reflects increased responsibilities and challenges that are offered within one's current job.

The following sections discuss these components in greater detail.

Structural Advancement

An important indicator of an employee's career growth prospects is the likelihood that he or she will be promoted within his or her organization. Structural advancement refers to *the likelihood that an employee will be offered an opportunity to advance hierarchically within the current organization*. Promotions are important for individuals in that they represent status, recognition, responsibility, higher pay, and opportunities for even further advancement (London & Stumpf, 1983). Moreover, the literature on career plateauing indicates that individual's who are structurally plateaued, that is, unable to rise further in the organization's hierarchy, exhibit lower levels of motivation and perform less well than their non-plateaued counterparts (Orpen, 1983; Ettington, 1992).

The literature on promotion decisions has examined a wide range of individual, organizational, and situational variables in an attempt to identify those characteristics that enhance the likelihood that an individual will be promoted (Metz & Tharenou, 2001; Tharenou, 2001). Much of this research has focused on objective predictors of promotability, such as demographic and human capital characteristics. However, as will be discussed further in Chapter 3, research has also examined the influence of subjective information, such as performance and commitment perceptions on the likelihood that an employee will be deemed promotable (Allen & Rush, 1998; Allen, Russell, & Rush, 1994; Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995).

Promotability has been assessed primarily by single-item measures asking managers to rate the likelihood or potential of an employee being promoted within a specified period of time, or during the employee's career within the company (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1993; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). In addition, readiness for promotion ratings have been obtained from official organizational records when such information is required during annual performance appraisal processes (Van Scotter, Motowildo, & Cross, 2000). Multi-items scales have also been developed to assess the degree to which the manager feels a subordinate meets the criteria for promotion, the employee seems likely to rise higher in the organization, and the possibility of the employee being the successor of the responding manager (Robertson, Barron, Gibbons, MacIver, & Nyfield, 2000; Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997).

Content Advancement

Although promotions tend to be the most commonly thought of indicator of career growth, changes in organizational trends over the last two decades, including organizational delayering, downsizing, and employee outsourcing, have limited opportunities for hierarchical advancement (Heslin, 2005). Due to the lack of promotional opportunities, organizations are beginning to emphasize the importance of offering developmental experiences within employees' current jobs. Indeed, there is increasing recognition that on-the-job experiences are a potent form of career development (Hunt, 1991; Keys & Wolfe, 1988; Wexley & Baldwin, 1986).

Much of the research on within job career developmental experiences has focused on identifying specific features of jobs that stimulate development (Brutus, Ruderman,

Ohlott, & McCauley, 2000; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994). This research has indicated that the degree of challenge present in a job may be the most important factor for it to be considered “developmental.” McCauley et al. (1994) suggest that challenging experiences stimulate development by providing employees with the opportunity to learn and acting as a motivator for learning. These authors argue that a challenging job allows one to experience with new learning strategies, behaviors, and alternative ways of thinking.

Similarly, the literature on career plateauing suggests that challenging jobs, which provide increased responsibilities and encourage continuous learning are important for individual motivation and performance (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000). Moreover, enriched jobs that provide high levels of responsibility allow employees to remain competent, motivated and involved (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000).

Although significant research has identified specific features of jobs (i.e., challenge, increased responsibilities, and opportunities for learning) that stimulate development, we know relatively little about who may, or why an employee may be offered developmental experiences. Limited research has examined the influence of demographic characteristics, such as age and gender on the likelihood that a manager will offer an employee developmental experiences (Shore, Cleveland, Goldberg, 2003). As will be argued in Chapter 3, perceptions that managers form about employees may also influence the likelihood that an employee will be offered developmental experiences within one’s current job.

The Mediators of the Relationship between Non-Work Role Commitment and Career Growth Prospects

The relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects is complex, as the two competing theoretical bases used in this study – conflict and enrichment - would suggest both positive and negative implications. The following sections discuss and define the mediating variables that link non-work role commitment with career growth prospects. Specifically, the negative link suggests that the demands associated with non-work role commitment limit an individual's ability to fully engage in work, and therefore, job performance suffers. In turn, low levels of work engagement and job performance negatively impact career growth prospects through a manager's perception of an employee's lack of commitment to both the organization and to the employee's career. On the other hand, the positive link suggests that commitment to non-work roles provides opportunities to acquire resources which can be transferred to enhance job performance. In turn, enhanced job performance signifies to management that the employee is committed to his or her organization and career, and ultimately, career growth opportunities are enhanced.

Non-work Demands – Time and Energy

As discussed earlier in the chapter, individuals participate in a number of roles which make up their social structure. Each role in which an individual participates includes a set of activities or potential behaviors. Members of an individual's role set develop beliefs and attitudes about what the focal person should and should not do as part of his or her role participation. Role senders communicate role expectations through role pressures. These role pressures include demands, such as time and energy, which are

communicated from the role sender to the focal person. The literature suggests that demands associated with participation in some roles may negatively impact an individual's ability to participate in other roles (Voyandoff, 2004a, 2004b, 2005). Specifically, the time and energy devoted to non-work roles may hinder an individual's ability to engage in work, which may subsequently affect his or her job performance (Kahn, 1990, 1992). These linkages are elaborated in Chapter 3. The following section is devoted to a discussion of the *demands* construct.

Demands have been generally defined as “the degree to which the environment contains stimuli that peremptorily require attention and response” (Jones & Fletcher, 1996, p.34). More specifically, job demands have been defined as those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e. cognitive or emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The current study adapts the definition offered by Voydanoff (2005), who defined role demands as the structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations, and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort. Thus, consistent with the aim of the current study, non-work role demands *refer to those claims associated with non-work role commitment to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort.*

The demands of time and energy in the role accumulation literature are explained from the “scarcity” perspective. As discussed previously, early theoretical writings proclaimed the overdemanding nature of multiple roles and the resultant stress and strain for individuals involved in these roles. The fundamental assumption of the “scarcity”

approach is that individuals have finite amounts of time and energy, which are necessary ingredients for participation in multiple roles. And, because each role requires these limited resources, individuals face stress, strain, and conflict as a result of their inability to devote adequate resources to each role. Consistent with this notion, a number of studies have found that the number of weekly hours devoted to family activities is positively related to the extent to which family interferes with work, whereas the number of hours devoted to work is positively related to the extent to which work interferes with family (Frone, 2003).

To reiterate, demands in the current study are defined as *those claims associated with non-work role commitment to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort*. Consistent with this definition, the current study examines three specific demands – 1) the physical time, 2) the physical energy, and 3) the emotional energy individuals spend engaged in non-work role activities. The time demand is objective in that it refers to the cumulative amount of time per week individuals spend physically involved in non-work roles. The energy component is subjective in that it requires an assessment of the cumulative level of physical and emotional energy that individuals expel in their non-work role activities.

Resource Acquisition

The model in the current study suggests that in addition to placing demands on individuals, commitment to non-work roles also provides opportunities for individuals to acquire resources which may be used to enhance their job performance and ultimately their career growth prospects. The following section provides a discussion and definition of the resource acquisition construct.

Role theory suggests that specific roles are characterized by pre-determined socially-structured responsibilities that, when met, are rewarded with role-specific privileges (Kahn et al., 1964). That is, to the extent that individuals satisfy the role-related responsibilities set by social expectations, they will receive desired and valued resources. Consistent with prior research (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), the current study defines a resource as *an asset that may be drawn upon when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation*.

To reiterate, Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) were among the first to suggest that individuals may acquire resources from their commitment to multiple roles. Marks argued that energy may be created from roles for which individuals are psychologically committed. Sieber, on the other hand, identified four specific types of rewards – role privileges, overall status security, resources for status enhancement and role performance, and personality enrichment and ego gratification - that are likely to accrue as the number of roles in which an individual participates increases.

More recently, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) identified five types of resources individuals may acquire from their participation in the work or family role: skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social capital, flexibility, and material resources. In general, skills refer to a broad set of task-related cognitive and interpersonal skills, while perspectives refers to ways of viewing or handling situations, such as respecting individual differences (Ruderman et al., 2002), which may be enhanced as a result of role participation. Psychological and physical resources include positive self-evaluations, such as self-esteem, as well as physical health. Social capital refers to the influence and information gained from interpersonal relationships created

from role participation. Flexibility refers to the individual's autonomy in meeting role requirements. Finally, material resources include money and gifts that may be obtained from role involvement.

Qualitative research has also identified a number of resources individuals acquire from their participation in personal roles. For example, in a qualitative study of 61 female managers, Ruderman et al., (2002) identified six types of resources resulting from participation in non-work roles: 1) opportunities to enrich interpersonal skills, 2) psychological benefits, 3) emotional support and advice, 4) enhanced handling of multiple tasks, 5) broadened personal interests, and 6) enhanced leadership skills.

Opportunities to enrich interpersonal skills, defined as understanding, motivating, respecting, and developing others, was the most frequently mentioned resource. Specifically, respondents indicated that their participation in non-work roles, such as mother, friend, volunteer, and religious lay counselor allowed them to enhance their communication, listening, and people skills. The psychological benefits accrued through involvement in non-work roles include increased self-esteem and confidence. For example, respondents indicated that their commitment to roles outside of work provided opportunities to take risks and handle hardships, which helped them feel more capable of handling future challenges. Emotional support and advice from friends and family also enriched the lives of these women. Specifically, women indicated that their friends often offered sound advice and cheered them on during hard times. These women also indicated that their participation in numerous non-work roles helped them learn to multi-task. The final resource identified by these woman managers included learning about leadership through personal experiences. Involvement in roles such as community and

religious organizations, involvement in family businesses, and volunteer assignments provided ways for these women to gain experience with leadership positions and become comfortable in authoritative roles.

As indicated in the preceding paragraphs, theoretical as well as empirical research has identified a variety of resources that may be generated from role participation.

Drawing from this literature, the resources included in the current study include: 1) interpersonal and task-related skills, 2) broadened views and perspectives, 3) increased self-esteem and confidence, and 4) social capital. Both Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and Ruderman et al., (2002) identified interpersonal and task-related skills, broadened views and perspectives, and increased self-esteem and confidence as resources likely to be generated from non-work role participation. In addition, it is likely that individuals will gain social capital in terms of information and influence from interpersonal relationships created from participation in non-work roles.

Work Engagement

As stated earlier, the study's model specifies that an individual's ability to engage in work is influenced by the demands associated with non-work role commitment. In turn, work engagement is posited to impact job performance, as well as managerial perceived organizational and career commitments. These linkages will be discussed in Chapter 3. The following section provides a review and definition of the work engagement construct.

The definition of work engagement used in this study is based upon previous research (Kahn, 1990, 1992), which considers work engagement to be the "*harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and*

express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (p. 694). Thus, work engagement is *the degree to which an individual is physically, cognitively, and emotionally invested in the work role*. In order to be fully engaged in work, an individual must possess and be capable of driving physical, emotional, and psychological energies into their work role performances (Kahn, 1990).

Work engagement was first conceptualized by Kahn (1990), who suggested that individuals use varying degrees of their selves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally, in the roles they perform, and the more people draw on their selves to perform their roles, the more effective their role performance and the more content they are as actors within these roles (Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) identified three conditions necessary for individuals to be fully engaged in work: psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability. Psychological meaningfulness refers to “the feeling that one is receiving a return on investments of one’s self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy” (p. 704). That is, individuals experience meaningfulness when they feel worthwhile, useful, and valuable at work (Kahn, 1990). Employees feel psychologically safe when they are able to show their true self within the work setting without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career. Kahn’s (1990) third condition, psychological availability, refers to one’s sense of having the physical, emotional, or psychological resources to engage in work. It involves an individual’s ability to engage in work, given the distractions he or she experience as a participant in other life roles (Kahn, 1990).

Rothbard (2001) examined the degree to which engagement in one role impacts an individual’s engagement in another role. Rothbard (2001) identified two components

of work engagement- attention and absorption. Attention refers to cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role, while absorption refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role. Similarly, Schaufeli and his colleagues suggest that work engagement can be characterized as persistent, positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Salanova, Banzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of difficulties. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Absorption refers to being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Consistent in all of these definitions is the notion that work engagement refers to the degree to which an individual is physically, emotionally and cognitively invested in the work role.

Work engagement can be distinguished from other related constructs, such as job involvement, work identification, and work commitment (Bielby, 1992; Lawler & Hall, 1970; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Thoits, 1983). Job involvement refers to "the degree to which the job situation is central to the person and his identity" (Lawler & Hall, 1970: 310-311), identification represents the importance or salience of a role to an individual (Stryker & Serpe, 1982), whereas commitment represents the individual's attachment to a role (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Identification and commitment represent reasons why one might become psychologically engaged in a role (Rothbard, 2001). Moreover,

engagement differs from job involvement, identification and commitment in that it requires the active use of emotions and behaviors, in addition to cognitions.

Job Performance

As previously mentioned, job performance in the current model is a function of the resources generated from non-work role commitment and work engagement. In turn, job performance is specified to positively influence managerial perceived organizational and career commitments, as well as career growth prospects.

Job performance, as a construct, has received considerable research attention within the industrial/organizational psychology and management literatures. Historically, research on job performance has focused on identifying its individual and situational correlates. Several theoretical and empirical reports over the past 20 years have presented causal models of performance that explain relationships between basic traits such as cognitive ability and personality and job performance. Research within the work-non-work literature has focused primarily on the influence of work-family conflict on job performance and the impact of human resource policies designed to mitigate the negative effects of conflict on employee performance (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Job performance has been generally defined as behaviors or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization in question (Campbell, 1990). Consistent with Motowidlo (2003, p.39), the current study adopts a more specific definition and considers job performance as *“the total value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time.”*

There have been two major focuses in job performance research. First, as previously mentioned, extensive research has been devoted to identifying antecedents of

job performance, specifically the complex relationships between ability and individual personality traits. A second, more recent focus has been on attempting to better understand the underlying nature of the construct. Specifically, research has sought to understand what exactly constitutes job performance. Scholars have taken both single and multi-dimensional approaches within numerous organizational contexts. The most widely researched single dimensions of job performance include task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behaviors.

The vast majority of job performance research has focused on evaluating individuals' performance on task requirements. Task performance has been defined as "the proficiency with which incumbents perform activities that are formally recognized as part of their jobs; activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 73). More succinctly, task performance involves the accomplishment of duties and tasks that are specified in a job description (Murphy, 1989).

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) have been recognized as another dimension of job performance (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). OCB has been defined as individual behavior that is discretionary in nature, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). OCBs differ from task performance in that they are not a requirement of the job, and individuals are not necessarily rewarded for displaying citizenship behaviors. However, aggregated over time these behaviors enhance organizational effectiveness. Examples of organizational

citizenship behaviors include helping a co-worker solve a problem, and guiding employees to follow the policies and procedures of the organization.

Counterproductive behaviors, which negatively impact organizational effectiveness, are another widely recognized dimension of job performance.

Counterproductive behavior (Sackett, 2002) refers to intentional behavior on the part of the organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests. Examples of counterproductive behaviors include violence on the job, social loafing, and the propensity to withhold effort, all of which can negatively impact job performance.

Taking a more comprehensive view of job performance, scholars have also proposed elaborate, multi-dimensional models. Two of the most widely discussed taxonomies of job performance include: 1) Campbell's Multifactor Model (1990), and 2) Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) task versus contextual performance model. Campbell (1990) defined eight behavioral dimensions of performance that he claimed "are sufficient to describe the top of the latent hierarchy in all jobs in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. These dimensions include: 1) job-specific task proficiency, 2) non-job-specific task proficiency, 3) written and oral communications, 4) demonstrating effort, 5) maintaining personal discipline, 6) facilitating team and peer performance, 7) supervision, 8) management and administration.

Concerned that job performance research tended to focus too heavily on task performance, while excluding other employee behaviors that contributed to organizational effectiveness, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggested a two-dimensional typology. In addition to task performance, which refers to those behaviors

that directly facilitate or hinder the production of organizational good and services, contextual performance contributes to organizational effectiveness through its effect on the organizational, social, and psychological context of work (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual task performance has been compared to organizational citizenship behavior in that neither are formally required by the organization, yet when displayed, benefit the organization.

To reiterate, job performance in the current study is defined as the total value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time (Motowidlo, 2003). Past research has indicated that manager's value subordinates who engage in behaviors that extend beyond specific job requirements. Therefore, job performance in the current study includes both task-specific and contextual dimensions of performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Managerial Perceptions of Employee Work Commitment

It has been suggested that managers believe that employees' commitment to non-work roles detracts from their commitment to work. Work commitment is a multi-dimensional construct which encompasses five dimensions: affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement, work ethic endorsement (Morrow, 1993). The literature suggests that each dimension, as a subset of the larger work commitment construct, should be analyzed separately as well as in relation to other forms of commitment as the five dimensions may share some of the same predictors or outcomes, but are also unique in reflecting different aspects of work commitment (Morrow, 1993).

The two indicators of work commitment examined in this study are organizational commitment and career commitment. Although there is considerable research examining these constructs from the employee's point of view, this study focuses on a manager's perceptions of an employee's organizational and career commitment. Nevertheless, it is important to discuss the organizational commitment and career commitment constructs to understand the focus of a manager's perception.

Managerial Perceptions of Employee Organizational Commitment

Changing employee loyalties and a focus on balancing work and personal life has led organizational commitment to become a central concept of importance for both individuals and organizations. Most of the organizational commitment research has focused on determining its situational and work-related antecedents and on testing its ability to predict work outcomes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational commitment has been found to be a consistent predictor of employee turnover, and organizations whose members have higher levels of commitment show higher performance and productivity and lower levels of absenteeism and tardiness (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Morris & Sherman, 1981). However, despite its apparent importance in the literature, organizational commitment in the work-non-work literature has received only negligible attention (Kirchmeyer, 1992a, Kirchmeyer, 1992b).

Historically, two approaches have been taken in organizational commitment research. The "side-bet" approach (Becker, 1960), examines organizational commitment from a calculative view and suggests that commitment to an organization is based on the accumulation of investments valued by the individual that would be lost or deemed worthless if he or she were to leave the organization. According to this view, the

individual is bound to the organization by extraneous factors such as income and hierarchical position, and internal factors such as interpersonal relationships (Cohen, 2003). The second approach, which originated from the works of Porter and his associates (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982), sees organizational commitment as affective or attitudinal. These authors defined organization commitment as a state in which the individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate those goals. Three criteria are inherent in this conceptualization: 1) a desire to maintain membership in the organization, 2) a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization, and 3) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (Porter et al., 1974).

Integrating the works of Becker (1960) and Porter et al. (1974), Meyer and Allen (1984) offered a two-dimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment. These authors defined organizational commitment as a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization. Accordingly, the first dimension was termed affective commitment, and was defined as “positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in, the work organization.” Affective commitment refers to an employee remaining with an organization because he or she *wants* to do so. The second dimension was termed continuance commitment, and was defined as “the extent to which employees feel commitment to their organizations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving” (Meyer & Allen, 1984, p. 375). Continuance commitment refers to an employee remaining with an organization because he or she *has* to do so. More

recently, the authors added a third dimension, termed normative commitment, which refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees with strong normative commitment remain in an organization because they feel like they *ought* to do so. Much of the empirical research since has supported the three dimensional conceptualization offered by Allen & Meyer (1990).

Despite extensive research examining the organizational commitment construct, the focus has been on employees' own perceptions of their level of commitment. However, as will be discussed further in Chapter 3, the current study argues that managers hold opinions about employees' commitment based on cues such as their work engagement and job performance. Therefore, the current study defines managerial perceptions of employees' organizational commitment as *a manager's perception of an employee's emotional attachment to his or her current organization*. The affective dimension of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984) was chosen because it reflects the perception that an employee wishes to remain with the organization because of an emotional attachment to it and identification with its goals. Affective commitment is important to managers because it reflects an employee's commitment to the organization because he or she *wants* to do so, rather than because he or she *has* or *ought* to.

Managerial Perceptions of Employee Career Commitment

Relative to organizational commitment, career commitment has received far less scholarly attention. Morrow (1983, p. 490) emphasized the importance of career commitment as "it is one of the few commitment concepts that attempts to capture the notion of devotion to a craft, occupation, or profession apart from any specific work environment, over an extended period of time."

The concept of career commitment evolved from interest in the ongoing evaluation of one's career choices and was originally defined in the literature by Hall (1971) as the strength of one's motivation to remain in a chosen career role.

Greenhaus and his colleagues made an important contribution to our understanding of the concept of career commitment by defining and developing a 28-item scale for what he termed career salience. Career salience was defined as "the importance of work and a career in one's total life," and reflected three broad dimensions: relative priority of one's career compared to other specific sources of life satisfaction; general attitude toward work, which referred to viewing work with positive affect and anticipation; and concern with career advancement and planning for a career (Greenhaus, 1971, p. 209; 1973; Greenhaus & Simon, 1977; Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981).

The conceptualization offered by Greenhaus has been criticized in that its definition and measurement of career salience overlaps with other commitment constructs, particularly job involvement (Blau, 1985; Morrow, 1983). Arguing that in order to make career commitment distinct from other commitment constructs, Blau (1985) suggested that the focus should be more specific than "work in general" and have broader referents than "job" and "organization." Based on this, Blau (1985) conceptualized the most frequently cited definition of career commitment as "one's attitude toward one's profession or vocation" (p. 178). This definition was based on two dimensions of London's (1983) career motivation theory: career identity and career resilience. Career identity refers to the centrality of a person's career to his or her identity, while career resilience involves a person's resistance to career disruption in a less than optimal environment (London, 1983). Later, Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993)

revised this definition to reflect one's attitudes toward one's occupation rather than profession or vocation.

As with organizational commitment, the vast majority of empirical research on career commitment has focused on self-reported ratings of employees' commitment to their careers. Career commitment has been found to be positively related to skill development and job performance, and negatively related to job withdrawal cognitions and actual turnover (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Bedeian, Kemery, & Pizzolatto, 1991; Blau, 1985, 1989). Because this study is interested in a manager's perception of an employee's commitment to his or her career, the current study extends the definition offered by Blau (1985) to define managerial perceived career commitment as a *manager's perception of an employee's emotional attachment to his or her profession or vocation*. Again, this definition is consistent with Allen and Meyer's (1984) conceptualization of affective commitment in that it refers to a manager's perception that an employee is attached to and wishes to remain in his or her career because he or she *wants* to, rather than *has to* or *ought to*.

The Moderators of the Relationship between Non-Work Role Commitment and Career Growth Prospects

As discussed in the previous sections, the purpose of the current study is to understand the ways in which an employee's commitment to roles outside of work impacts his or career prospects. Currently, we know relatively little about the impact that non-work role participation has on individuals' careers. Despite assertions from the popular press that devotion to life roles other than work detracts from one's career, prior theoretical and empirical works have suggested that this may not be the case, and that

quite possibly commitment to non-work roles may actually promote employees' careers. The current study suggests two conditions under which non-work role commitment may enhance an employee's career growth prospects – that is, the likelihood that an employee will be promoted and/or receive growth opportunities within his or her current position.

Career Commitment

The current study predicts that an employee's commitment to non-work roles will generate resources that may be applied to promote his or her job performance. Research has suggested that the transference of resources across roles is an intentional decision (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). As will be discussed further in Chapter 3, one condition that may influence the likelihood that an individual will invest resources acquired from their non-work role participation into their work role is the degree to which they are committed to their careers.

A review of the career commitment literature was offered in the previous section, and therefore will not be reviewed again here. However, it is important to point out that the use of career commitment as a moderator variable in the current study reflects the individual's own "*attitude toward his or her profession or vocation* (Blau, 1985). That is, the individual's attachment to and willingness to remain in his or her present career (Blau, 1989).

Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment

Virtually all of the research on organizational support within the work-non-work literature has focused exclusively on the supportiveness of an organization for work-family issues, without taking into account other facets of an employee's personal life. These studies have suggested that employees who work for family-supportive

organizations experience low work-family conflict, positive work attitudes, and low turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Glass & Estes, 1996; Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

Much of the research on organizational support for family involvement has been examined from the perspective of the organization's culture. Work-family culture has been defined as "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999, p. 394). Research has suggested that the supportiveness of an organization's culture for work-family issues impacts employees' usage of family-friendly benefits. Moreover, Allen (2001) argues that it is not simply the availability of family-friendly benefits, but employees' perceptions of the organization's support which influences employees' decisions to utilize family-friendly policies and benefits.

Thomas and Ganster (1995) distinguished two elements of a family-supportive environment: family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervision. Family-supportive policies refer to formal organizational programs and initiatives designed to help employees achieve greater work-family balance. Family supportive supervision refers to the sensitivity, empathy, and flexibility provided by a supervisor to assist a subordinate in achieving work-family balance (Parker & Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Extending this work, Thompson et al., (1999) identified three components of work-family culture. The first component refers to the extent to which organizations place time demands or expectations on employees which may interfere with family

responsibilities. The second component of work-family culture refers to the extent to which employees' perceive negative career consequences associated with their utilizing work-family benefits. Often employees are concerned that taking advantage of these benefits will jeopardize their careers due to the perception that they are more committed to their personal lives than their careers. The third component represents the extent to which organizational managers are supportive and sensitive to employees' family responsibilities (Thompson et al., 1999). Extending the works of Thomas and Ganster (1995) and Thompson et al. (1999), Allen (2001) identified a fourth dimension of a family-supportive organizational environment –global perceptions of organizational support for family.

Despite an increase in research involving family-supportive organizational environment, little attention has been given to an organization's support for non-work roles beyond family. The current study is interested in examining the impact of an organization's support for non-work roles on an employee's ability to juggle non-work and work demands. Borrowing from the previously identified work on work-family supportive environment, a non-work supportive work environment is defined in the current study as *the extent to which an employee perceives his or her organization as supportive and valuing the integration of the employee's work and non-work life.*

Consistent with this research the supportiveness of an organization's environment for non-work participation will be assessed by: 1) the degree to which the employee perceives the organization as allowing the employee flexibility in scheduling work around non-work activities, 2) the level of perceived supervisory support for non-work activities, 3) the level of perceived organizational support for non-work activities, 4) the

degree to which the employee perceives negative career consequences associated with their utilizing work-non-work benefits.

Summary and Focus of the Present Study

The purpose of the current research is to help us better understand the processes by which commitment to non-work roles impacts individual's career prospects. The current study suggests a mediated model by which non-work role participation can either positively or negatively impact career outcomes. The negative link suggests that an individual's involvement in non-work roles requires excessive time and energy which detracts from one's ability to engage in the work roles. In turn, lack of engagement hinders job performance. From this view, an employee's career growth prospects are negatively impact through a manager's perception that the employee is uncommitted to the organization or to his or her career. On the other hand, the positive link suggests that an individual's involvement in non-work roles provides resources that promote effective performance in the work role. Enhanced job performance signifies enhanced career growth prospects through management's perception of high levels of organizational and career commitment.

In addition to examining the process by which non-work commitment impacts career outcomes, the current study seeks to understand the conditions under which non-work participation may positively impact career growth prospects. The current study suggests two variables - career commitment and non-work supportive organizational environment – which moderate the relation between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects.

This study also contributes methodologically to the literature by measuring specific sets of demands and resources that have previously been identified in the literature, but have yet to be empirically examined in the current context.

Chapter 3: Research Model and Hypotheses

Chapter 3 presents a model that examines the consequences of an individual's participation in non-work life roles on his or her career. Specifically, the model attempts to explain why and under what conditions commitment to non-work roles impacts an employee's career growth prospects. The chapter begins with a review of the research questions addressed in this study. The model is then presented along with the hypothesized relationships among the variables in the model. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the potential contributions of the study to the literature.

Research Questions

The overarching purpose of the current study is to broaden our knowledge as to the ways in which an individual's commitment to non-work roles impacts his or her career growth prospects. Based on two theoretical frameworks – conflict and enrichment - the current study seeks to determine the conditions under which commitment to roles outside of work may promote positive implications for one's career growth prospects, specifically, the likelihood that an employee will be promoted and/or receive developmental experiences in the current job.

The conflict perspective suggests that the demands associated with non-work role commitment negatively impact an employee's ability to fully engage in his or her work, thereby hindering job performance. In turn, low work engagement and poor job performance are expected to negatively impact a manager's perception that the employee is committed to his or her career as well as the organization, and therefore have negative implications for career growth prospects. The enrichment perspective, however, views commitment to non-work roles as providing resources which can be used to enhance job

performance. Enhanced job performance, then, prompts management to perceive an employee as committed to the organization, as well as to his or her career, and in turn, career growth prospects are enhanced. It is further expected that career commitment and a non-work supportive environment moderate the relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects. Specifically, career committed employees are expected to reap the greatest benefits of the resources acquired through non-work role participation, while individuals employed by organizations that support their involvement in personal life roles are expected to be able to better juggle their work and non-work responsibilities. In sum, this study seeks to answer the following two research questions:

1. What is the relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects?
2. Under what conditions does non-work role commitment enhance an employee's career growth prospects?

The following sections discuss the relationships among the various components of the model in greater detail and offer theoretical rationale and empirical support for the hypothesized relationships.

Hypothesized Relationships

The Conflict Path

The Demands Associated with Non-work Role Commitment

As discussed in Chapter 2, Kahn et al., (1964) were among the first to discuss the notion of roles as the basis of society. The authors argued that each role in which an individual participates includes a set of activities or potential behaviors. Role senders

communicate the expectations for these behaviors through role pressures, from which the focal person is supposed to enact a given role.

In addition to the role pressures communicated from external role senders, individuals also place role demands upon themselves. The literature suggests that individuals place more demands upon themselves in roles for which they are highly committed (Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St. Claire, 1992; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). In support of this, in a study of 640 undergraduates, Burke and Reitzes (1991) found that role commitment significantly impacted the time students were willing to invest in role performances. Specifically, students who were more highly committed to the student role spent more time in the role than individuals less highly committed, which subsequently contributed to better performance.

The literature further suggests that psychological commitment reflects the importance of the role for one's self-identity, and as such individuals hold higher demand expectations for roles which enhance their self-identity (Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Lobel & St. Claire, 1992; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). According to social identity theory, individuals have multiple identities that provide meaning and purpose in life (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Moreover, social identities are often organized in a hierarchy of centrality such that some roles are perceived to be more important than other roles as a source of self-definition (Thoits, 1991). Therefore, because individuals seek to reaffirm their own self-identity, they are willing to invest resources in roles which enhance the valued attributes of that identity (Kahn et al., 1964). In support of this, empirical findings have indicated that the importance of a particular role to an individual's identity has implications for one's

investment in that role (Lobel & St. Claire, 1992; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). For example, Rothbard and Edwards (2003) examined the relationship between identification with work and investment in that role. Results indicated that individuals for whom the work role was important to their self-identity invested more time in work than individuals for whom work was less important. In a similar study, Lobel and St. Claire (1992) examined the degree to which role salience influenced role investment and found that individuals with high career identity salience were willing to expend extra effort at work. Moreover, Greenhaus and Powell (2003) examined factors impacting an individual's decision to participate in competing work or family activities and found that the salience of a role significantly impacted the likelihood that an individual would choose to invest in one role over another.

In sum, in addition to the pressures received from external role senders, individuals may create pressures on themselves based on their perceptions of what it means to be a participant of a role (Kahn et al., 1964). Prior research has observed a positive relationship between the importance of a role to one's self-identity and the demands associated with that role. That is, individuals are more likely to conform to role demands and invest time and energy into roles which contribute to, and enhance, their self-identity. Therefore, individual's who are psychologically committed across a number of non-work roles will have greater demands (i.e. time and energy) than individuals who are less psychologically committed across roles. Following this logic, it is reasonable to expect that the more highly committed individuals are to a greater number of roles, the greater the associated demands. Therefore, based on the above rationale, the following hypothesis is offered:

H1: There is a positive relation between non-work role commitment and non-work demand requirements.

The previous section discussed the demands associated with psychological commitment to non-work roles. The following section discusses the impact of those demands on an individual's engagement in work.

The Impact of Non-work Demands on Work Engagement

To reiterate, work engagement in the current study refers to one's psychological, cognitive, and emotional investment in the work role. It has been suggested that an individual's ability to engage in work can be significantly impacted by the non-work aspects of his or her life (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1989; Kahn, 1990). Although little scholarly attention has examined the impact of non-work demands on work engagement, role theory provides a theoretical basis for this discussion.

Role theory suggests that role senders have specific expectations for role behavior, and that role pressures influence the focal person toward conformity with the expectations of the role sender. However, members of multiple role sets may hold quite different role expectations toward the focal person. At any given time, various role senders may impose pressures or demands toward different kinds of behavior. Roles become more complex when they require the focal person to be simultaneously involved in two or more subsystems, since each is likely to have its own priorities (Kahn et al., 1964). When the pressures from multiple role senders are over-demanding or incompatible interrole conflict may result (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964).

The notion of role conflict is rooted in scarcity theory, which assumes that personal resources, such as time and energy, are finite and that the devotion of greater

resources to one role necessitates the devotion of lesser resources to other roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Thus, individuals who participate in multiple life roles are likely to experience conflict between these roles. At least two sources of inter-role conflict have been identified in the literature. Time-based conflict exists when the time devoted to one role makes it difficult to fulfill the requirements of another role. Time-based conflict can take one of two forms. First, time-based conflict can result from the physical time pressures associated with involvement in multiple roles. That is, multiple roles compete for a person's time because, in general, the physical time spent in activities in one role can not be spent in activities in another role. For example, time demands due to membership in organizations outside of work, such as school and community activities, are likely to limit the time available for the work role. Indeed a number of studies have shown that the number of hours devoted to family activities is positively related to levels of family-to-work conflict (Frone, 2003). Second, even when individuals are able to meet the physical time requirements of multiple roles, mental pressures or preoccupations with roles may cause conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For instance, involvement in outside interests may distract an individual's attention so that he or she is unable to effectively participate at work. Strain-based conflict, a second type of conflict identified in the literature, exists when the strain resulting from membership in one role affects one's participation in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, participation in outside roles can cause an individual to feel anxious or tired, which can negatively affect his or her engagement in work.

Extensive research within the work-family literature has shown that the demands associated with family life can cause family to work conflict, and that this conflict can

lead to negative work-related outcomes. For example, family-to-work conflict has been linked to work-related absenteeism and tardiness, and poor job performance (Frone, 2003). Although we know little about the impact of non-work demands on work engagement, findings from an initial study indicate that non-work demands can also have negative implications for an individual's ability to engage in work.

Kahn (1990) conducted a qualitative study to assess the determinants of role engagement and found that an important factor influencing individuals' availability to engage in work was their participation in personal life roles. Because engagement requires the possession of sufficient physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary for investing one's self in role performances, individuals who were extensively involved in non-work roles lacked the resources necessary to be fully engaged. For example, respondents indicated that at times the demands from their personal lives caused them to be too preoccupied to focus on their work-role performances. As an example, a draftsman applying to architecture schools indicated, that he couldn't concentrate on his job because he was thinking about the college application process (Kahn, 1990). In another instance, a respondent indicated that the energy he used in outside activities significantly impaired his ability to express and employ himself in his work (Kahn, 1990).

In sum, work engagement requires individuals to be physically, emotionally, and psychologically invested in the work role. Because the demands associated with non-work roles require significant levels of resources, the resources devoted to non-work roles can limit the resources necessary to be fully engaged at work. Specifically, the time and energy required by non-work role participation may impede on the resources

available for the work role, thereby hindering the individual's ability to fully engage in work. Therefore:

H2: There is a negative relation between non-work demands and work engagement.

As Hypothesis 2 predicts, the demands associated with non-work role commitment may impede an employee's ability to fully engage in work. However, research has suggested that characteristics of the work-place may influence an employee's ability to juggle work and non-work demands. One such characteristic is the supportiveness of an organizations' environment for participation in personal life roles. A hypothesis regarding this moderated relationship is offered next.

The Influence of Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Non-work Demands and Work Engagement

As the preceding hypothesis indicates, it is expected that the time and energy devoted to non-work roles may hinder an employee's ability to fully engage in work. However, the literature suggests that the supportiveness of an organization's environment for non-work role participation may significantly impact an employee's ability to juggle their work and non-work demands. Specifically, a work environment that supports an employee's participation in non-work roles may mitigate the negative consequences of non-work role demands on work engagement by reducing the interrole conflict resulting from the competing work and non-work demands.

Research assessing the supportiveness of an organization's environment for non-work participation has tended to focus exclusively on the organization's support for an employee's involvement in the family role. Moreover, this research has primarily

focused on the direct impact of supportiveness on reports of work-family conflict and employee attitudes, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). These findings indicate that perceptions of a supportive organizational environment can indeed reduce conflict resulting from competing family and work demands, thereby mitigating negative work related consequences (Allen, 2001; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). As discussed in Chapter 2, one component of a non-work supportive environment involves the employee's perception that an organization is flexible in allowing him or her to schedule work around non-work activities. Research has suggested that organizations that allow employees to schedule work time around non-work responsibilities may help employees more fully engage in work by reducing the time-based family-work conflict. In support of this, Major, Klein, & Ehrhard (2002) examined employee's use of flexible scheduling and found that an employee's ability to take time off from work during his or her normal shift to take care of personal responsibilities indicated significantly reduced interrole conflict. Moreover, findings indicate that family supportive practices, particularly flexible schedules and supportive supervision, significantly impacted employees' perceptions of their ability to control their work and family domains. Specifically, employees who worked for family-supportive organizations felt a greater sense of control over their work and family responsibilities, which in turn reduced their perceptions of conflict and strain and increased their job satisfaction (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

In another study, Thompson et al. (1999) surveyed 276 managers and professionals and found that perceptions of a supportive work-family organization

significantly affected their reported work-family conflict. When employees perceived fewer negative career consequences associated with devoting time to family matters they reported lower levels of conflict between their family and work roles.

Based on the above findings, it is reasonable to expect that individuals' employed by organizations that support their non-work role participation may be better able to cope with their non-work demands than their less-supported counterparts, thereby mitigating the negative impact of non-work demands on their ability to engage at work. For example, employees who perceive their organizations as being flexible in allowing them to schedule work around non-work responsibilities, as well as those who perceive their supervisors as supportive of their non-work pursuits may be better able to juggle their work and non-work demands and more fully engage in work. Moreover, an employee's perception that the organization is supportive of his or her participation in non-work roles, may help alleviate the stress and strain associated with non-work demands, and thereby enable him or her to fully engage in work.

In sum, research indicates that the level of organizational support for participation in non-work activities significantly impacts an employees' ability to successfully juggle work and non-work responsibilities. A review of the literature revealed no empirical study assessing the degree to which perceptions of a non-work supportive organizational environment impact the relationship between non-work role demands, and an individual's ability to engage in work. However, it is plausible that a non-work supportive environment, where employees feel that they will not be penalized for using the support, may weaken the negative impact of the demands associated with non-work commitment on work engagement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

H2a: Perceptions of a non-work supportive organizational environment moderate the relation between non-work demands and work engagement, such that a non-work supportive environment will significantly weaken the negative relation between non-work demands and work engagement.

The Relationship Between Work Engagement and Job Performance

To reiterate, job performance in the current study is defined as the total value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time (Motowildo, 2003). Much of the research on job performance has focused on identifying its individual and situational correlates. Recently, it has been speculated that work engagement may be an important condition for effective work performance (Kahn, 1990, 1992).

Research has emphasized the decision to participate in the work role as a fundamental necessary condition for role performance (March & Simon, 1958; Naylor, Pritchard, Ilgen, 1980). However, Kahn (1990, 1992) argues that it is not sheer participation, but rather engagement that is necessary for effective job performance. He suggests that people can use varying degrees of their selves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally, in the roles that they perform, and the more people draw on their selves, the better their role performances. Initial research examining the impact of engagement on job performance has provided empirical support for this assertion. For example, the literature suggests that individuals fully engaged are more attentive and absorbed in their work. Work engaged individuals put forth greater effort, innovation, and creativity on behalf of the organization than their less engaged counterparts (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Moreover, findings indicate that work engagement is linked with positive work affect, which has positive implications for job performance (Rothbard, 2001).

In sum, despite the limited number of studies that have assessed the impact of work engagement on job performance, initial empirical evidence suggests that work engagement may be an important factor influencing job performance. Specifically, individuals who are more fully engaged in their work will have enhanced performance, as compared to their less engaged counterparts. Therefore:

H3: There is a positive relation between work engagement and job performance.

The Enrichment Path

The Resources Acquired From Non-work Role Commitment

To reiterate, a resource is an asset that may be drawn upon when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As discussed in Chapter 2, role theory suggests that participation in social roles provides individuals with opportunities to acquire role-specific resources (Kahn et al., 1964).

Theory and empirical research have identified a number of resources that individual's may acquire as a result of non-work role participation, including interpersonal and task-related skills, psychological resources, such as self-esteem and confidence, broadened perspectives, and social capital (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002; Voydanoff, 2004a; Voydanoff, 2004b). In her recent work, Voydanoff (2004a; Voydanoff, 2004b) identified two types of resources that may be acquired through role participation. Enabling resources, such as interpersonal and task-related skills, are associated with the structure or the content of domain activities, and therefore are developed through role activity. For example, individuals may develop planning and administrative skills through managing a household (Ruderman et al., 2002). In support of this, in a qualitative study designed to identify resources acquired

from personal life role commitment, sixty-one female managers indicated that parenthood and involvement in other relationships outside of work helped them develop interpersonal skills such as listening, questioning, and communicating skills. Moreover, these women indicated that their active participation in non-work roles helped them become more efficient, focused, and organized as they juggled their various role commitments.

Another enabling resource that may be acquired through non-work participation is social capital (Voydanoff, 2005). Focusing on resources acquired from involvement in community relations, Voydanoff argued that individuals may gain information and influence from social integration, or the interconnectedness with others and with social institutions. Inasmuch, respondents in Ruderman et al.'s (2002) study indicated that their experiences in roles outside of work provided them opportunities to gain social capital in the form of valuable advice and insights from their friends and family members.

Voydanoff's (2004a, 2004b) second type of resource involves psychological rewards. In Sieber's (1974) early work on the benefits of role accumulation, he proposed that individuals' involved in multiple roles have opportunities to acquire certain rewards or privileges. Among these rewards were psychological benefits, such as self-esteem. These psychological resources are derived from participation in meaningful activities or role for which individuals gain a sense of accomplishment and value. Empirical research has supported the notion that individuals may gain enhanced psychological resources from their non-work role participation. For example, twenty-three percent of Ruderman et al's., (2002) study stated that their commitment to non-work roles provided psychological benefits. Taking risks and successfully coping with challenges helped

build their strength and confidence and self-esteem. Inasmuch, participation in non-work roles that were meaningful and self-valued provided these women with opportunities to build their self-esteem and confidence.

The fourth resource that individuals are expected to acquire from non-work role participation involves broadened perspectives. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest that individuals may learn to respect individual differences (Ruderman et al., 2002) or be more understanding of other people's problems (Crouter, 1984) through experiences gained from non-work role participation. In support of this, respondents in Ruderman et al.'s (2002) study indicated that raising children and participating in relationships outside of work helped them to respect individual differences. For example, one respondent mentioned that raising her children helped her to recognize that each child requires special attention and has individual needs. Moreover, another respondent indicated that having commitments outside of work enabled her to view situations more objectively (Ruderman et al., 2002).

In sum, the above discussion provided theoretical rationale and empirical evidence that interpersonal and task-related skills, broadened perspectives, self-esteem and confidence, and social capital are resources that may be acquired through an individual's commitment to non-work roles. These resources have been identified in the literature and qualitatively found to develop through role commitment. However, we know little about the process by which these resources are generated and it is plausible that individuals acquire resources not only directly through role participation, but also as a result of their investment of time and energy in roles for which they are highly committed. For example, it is reasonable to expect that individuals who exert significant

time and energy into a role, such as community involvement, may acquire greater information from their social interaction with other volunteers than individuals who invest little time and energy in role activities.

Despite a lack of empirical evidence, based on the above rationale, the following hypotheses are offered:

H4a: There is a positive relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.

H4b: Time and energy investment partially mediate the relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.

The Relationship Between The Resources Acquired From Non-Work Role Commitment and Job Performance

The previous section hypothesized that the more highly committed individuals are to non-work roles, the greater the resources that are acquired from those roles. This discussion focused on within role resource acquisition. The literature further suggests that the resources acquired from role participation can be transferred across or between roles to enhance performance in other roles. Specifically, resources acquired from non-work role participation can be transferred to enhance performance in the work role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Theories depicting the processes by which participation in one role may enhance performance in another role have focused primarily on the roles of work and family (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz, 2002). For example, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) provide a theory of work-family enrichment, in which they argue that experiences in one role (work or family) can enhance the quality of life in another role (family or work). According to these authors, one way in which enrichment can occur is through

the direct application of a resource generated in one role to another role, thereby enhancing performance in the second role. For example, communication skills developed through community volunteering can be used to more effectively communicate at work. In addition, feelings of self-esteem and confidence derived from personal experiences, such as parenting, can enhance feelings of confidence at work (Ruderman, 2002).

Empirical studies provide evidence that participation in non-work roles can, indeed, enrich experiences in the work role. For example, marriage and the presence of children have been positively linked to income, advancement, and job satisfaction - three widely used indicators of career success (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Jacobs, 1992; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Landau & Arthur, 1992; Melamed, 1996; Pfeffer & Ross, 1992; Schneer & Reitman, 1993). Evidence more specifically supporting the argument that participation in non-work roles can enhance job performance comes from two recent studies. Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman (2004) examined the effects of family role commitment on managers' job performance, and found that parental role commitment enhanced managers' performance evaluations as well as their self-efficacy at work. Moreover, Ruderman et al., (2002) provide compelling evidence of the benefits of participation in non-work roles on work performance. Using results of the qualitative study previously discussed, the authors examined the relationships between the managers' non-work role commitment and their managerial effectiveness as rated by their bosses, peers, and subordinates. Not only did results from the qualitative study show that many of the managers believed their own commitment to non-work life roles helped them to be more effective managers, results from a quantitative study indicated that their colleagues perceived managers with greater non-work role commitment as

having better interpersonal and task-related managerial skills than their less committed counterparts (Ruderman et al., 2002).

In sum, theory and empirical research indicate that the resources gained from experiences in personal life roles can be used to enhance performances at work.

Therefore, based on the above rationale, the following hypothesis is offered:

H5: There is a positive relation between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance.

The previous section hypothesized that the resources generated from non-work role participation can be transferred to enhance job performance. However, theory indicates that the transference of some resources from one role to another may be an intentional decision, and therefore, individuals may differ with respect to their propensity to intentionally apply specific resources. One variable that may influence this decision is the level of commitment an individual has for his or her career.

The Influence of Career Commitment on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance.

To reiterate, career commitment refers to the degree to which an individual is attached to his or her profession or vocation. As discussed in previous hypotheses, the literature suggests that individuals commit to roles that are important for one's self-identity. Individuals categorize themselves into multiple social categories, which are then arranged into a hierarchy based on the salience of each category (Stryker, 1968). Identity salience is important because the importance we attach to each identity impacts the level of effort we put into each role and how well we perform in that role (Burke &

Reitzes, 1981). Accordingly, individuals who are highly committed to their careers are likely to invest significant effort into effective role performances.

Expectancy theory can help explain why a career committed individual may be more likely to intentionally transfer a resource to enhance job performance than an individual for whom the career role is less salient. Expectancy theory proposes that an individual is most likely to engage in a behavior when the behavior is thought to lead to the attainment of a highly valued outcome (Vroom, 1964). In the current context, the decision to transfer a resource acquired from non-work role participation is most likely for individuals for whom job performance is important. The literature suggests that individuals invest in roles which enhance their self-identity, and therefore, career committed individuals are likely to intentionally transfer a resource acquired from non-work role participation to enhance their job performance because enhanced performance can be used to re-affirm or enhance an important self-identity.

In sum, social identity theory suggests that the more important a role is to one's self-identity, the more likely an individual is to invest in that role. Since career commitment reflects the importance of one's career to their self-identity, individuals who are highly committed to their careers are likely to intentionally apply the resources generated from non-work role participation to enhance their work role performance. However, it is important to point out that the transference of a resource may be more or less deliberate depending on the resource. For example, while individuals may willingly choose to invest the skills and social capital acquired from non-work role participation into their work role, the transference of perspectives and psychological resources (i.e.

self-esteem and confidence) may not reflect a conscious, deliberate process (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Therefore, both a hypothesis and research question are offered:

H5a: Career commitment moderates the relation between the relationships of interpersonal and task-related skills and social capital acquired from non work role participation with job performance such that the relationships are stronger for individuals with high career commitment.

RQ1: Does career commitment moderate the relationships between all of the other resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance? More specifically, is it an intentional decision to apply broadened perspectives and self-esteem to enhance job performance?

As the preceding sections hypothesized, an individual's ability to engage and perform in the work role is determined by the demands and resources generated from his or her commitment to non-work life roles. It is expected that the more roles for which an individual is highly committed, the greater the demands and the greater the resources. Moreover, it is expected that career commitment and a non-work supportive environment moderate these relationships such that individuals who are highly committed to their careers are more likely to transfer the resources gained from non-work role participation than their less committed counterparts, and therefore have enhanced job performance. In addition, individuals employed by organizations that support their participation in non-work roles are likely to be better able to manage their non-work demands than their less-supported counterparts, enabling them to more fully engage in work.

The following sections discuss the ways in which work engagement and job performance impact an employee's career growth prospects. The following hypotheses suggest that job performance and work engagement influence a manager's perception of the employee's commitment to both the organization and his or her career, which

ultimately impact the likelihood he or she will be grow through either hierarchical promotion or within current job experiences.

The Relationships Between Job Performance, Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Work Commitments

Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Organizational and Career Commitments

Work-related commitment has been linked with a number of positive outcomes for both organizations and individuals. Therefore, not surprisingly, significant research has focused on ways of developing and enhancing commitment among employees (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). The vast majority of this research has focused on self-reported measures of commitment; however, scholars have asserted that individuals such as supervisors and peers who are well-acquainted and work in close proximity with employees provide an important perspective and should be able to evaluate diverse and disparate work-related behaviors and attitudes (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

To reiterate from Chapter 2, work commitments in the current study include organizational and career components and are examined from the perspective of the manager. Specifically, managerial perceived organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which a manager perceives the employee to be emotionally attached to the organization and to identify with the organization's goals. Managerial perceived career commitment refers to the degree to which a manager perceives the employee to be emotionally attached to his or her profession or vocation. These definitions are consistent with Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective dimension of commitment in that they refer to the perception that the employee remains with the organization and/or within their career field because he or she wants to, rather than has or ought to.

A review of the literature revealed relatively little scholarly attention assessing managerial perceptions of employee commitment. However, attribution theory may be used as a theoretical basis for explaining this relationship. Attribution theory (Heider, 1958) focuses on how people make casual explanations. The theory is concerned with the ways in which people explain, or attribute, the behavior of others. It explores how individuals attribute causes to events and how this cognitive perception affects their motivation. The theory suggests that individuals automatically make attributions based on relevant cues and automatically categorize a focal person by that category. Feldman (1981, 1986) in his information-processing theory suggests that humans have limited information processing capabilities, and therefore shortcuts are taken when attaching meaning to and making attributions about the individual traits and behaviors of others (e.g. DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984; Feldman, 1981, 1986). According to the theory, individuals process information through a series of stages including attention, categorization, recall, and information integration. Raters attend to information that is salient and then mentally assign employees into categories based on those salient characteristics or attributes (e.g. DeNisi et al, 1984). According to Feldman (1981, 1986), person categorization occurs early in the relationship between an employee and a manager and is essential to perception, information storage, and organization. Specifically, managers form expectations about employees based on a categorization process which is influenced by extraneous cues and observable behaviors. Once the categorization of an employee as, for example, committed has occurred, it influences the information the manager attends to, remembers, and recalls (Feldman, 1981, 1986).

Based on Feldman's social information processing theory, Shore, Barksdale, and Shore (1995) provided an early framework for assessing managerial perceptions of employee commitment. The authors argued that observable characteristics of the employee, such as job performance, serve as cues from which managers make judgments about employees' commitment to the organization. In support of this, results from their empirical study indicated that job performance significantly influenced a manager's perception of an employee's affective commitment to the organization. Specifically, managers viewed employees who went above and beyond the requirements of their jobs as more highly committed to their organizations than employees who failed to perform their jobs as well (Shore, Barksdale, and Shore, 1995). Similar support was provided by Allen and Rush (1998) who examined the degree to which contextual performance contributed to perceived affective organizational commitment. Managers perceived employees who engaged in organizational citizenship behaviors as more highly committed to their organizations than their counterparts who engaged in fewer citizenship behaviors.

In sum, theoretical and empirical evidence supports the notion that managerial perceptions of commitment are influenced by extraneous cues and observable behaviors. Specifically, this research suggests that an employee's performance on the job may act as a cue from which managers base their perceptions of the individual's commitment to the organization. Moreover, despite a lack of empirical evidence, it is plausible that job performance may also act as a cue from which managers may base perceptions of an employee's commitment to his or her career. Because career committed individuals have a strong devotion or emotional attachment to their careers, and desire growth and advancement in their profession, the extent to which an employee fulfills his or her job

requirements may serve as a cue from which managers may make inferences about the employee's motivation to commit to his or her career. Therefore, based on the above rationale, the following hypotheses are offered:

H6a: There is a positive relation between job performance and managerial perceived organizational commitment.

H6b: There is a positive relation between job performance and managerial perceived career commitment.

Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Organizational and Career Commitments

The previous section discussed the expected relationships between job performance and managerial perceived work commitments. Although a review of the literature revealed no study examining the influence of work engagement on perceptions of organizational and career commitment, based on the above discussed theoretical rationale and empirical evidence, similar relationships are expected.

To reiterate, attribution theory (Heider, 1958) focuses on how people make casual explanations, and suggests that people actively search for explanations for the behaviors they observe. According to Feldman (1981, 1986), managers' form opinions and expectations about subordinates based on a categorization process which is influenced by extraneous cues and observable behaviors. Such behaviors may be reflected in an employee's work engagement. Work engagement requires physical, emotional and cognitive investment in role performances. An individual's ability to employ and express his or her whole self in role performances is likely to bring about behaviors that provide cues from which a manager's impression of the employee may be based. For example, empirical evidence suggests that individuals who are fully engaged in work put forth greater effort and have more positive work affect than their less engaged counterparts.

Despite a lack of empirical evidence, it is likely that managers' use these cues as bases for forming opinions about employees work commitment. Specifically, employees who are more fully engaged in their work will be perceived as more committed as they display behaviors, such as effort and enthusiasm that are organizationally beneficial.

Thus, the following hypotheses are offered:

H7a: There is a positive relationship between work engagement and managerial perceived organizational commitment.

H7b: There is a positive relationship between work engagement and managerial perceived career commitment.

The preceding sections hypothesized the relationships between job performance and work engagement, and managerial perceived organizational and career commitments. These relationships were based on attribution theory (Heider, 1958) which suggests that individuals make causal attributions with respect to observed behavior. Moreover, social information processing theory (Feldman, 1981, 1986) suggests that humans have limited information processing capabilities, and therefore, use short-cuts when judging others. Managers categorize employees based on salient characteristics, and once an individual is categorized, subsequent retrieval of information and corresponding judgments tend to be based on the prototypical characteristics of the category (Feldman, 1986). Moreover, once the categorization of an employee as, for example committed occurs, it influences what the manager notices about the employee's behavior and attributions made for the observed behavior (Feldman, 1986).

The literature further suggests that person categorization is linked with the type of exchange relationship that develops between the manager and employee (Feldman, 1981, 1986), and this relationship can affect managerial behaviors toward employees. The

following sections provide rationale for the ways in which managerial perceptions of employee commitment may affect the employee's career growth prospects. Specifically, the following sections discuss the relationships between managerial perceptions of organizational and career commitments and two indicators of career growth prospects – promotability and career development experiences. Based on similar rationale, the final hypothesis discusses the direct linkage between job performance and career growth prospects.

The Relationships Between Managerial Perceived Work Commitments and Career Growth Prospects

The current study examines two indicators of career growth prospects – structural and content advancement. Structural advancement refers to the likelihood that an employee will be offered an opportunity to advance hierarchically within the current organization. Content advancement refers to the likelihood that the manager will offer an employee opportunities to broaden one's career through new challenges and increased responsibility within his or her current position. Both of these indicators reflect a manager's willingness to invest in the employee's career.

As indicated in a previous section, attribution theory (Heider, 1958) focuses on how people make casual explanations. The theory suggests that people actively search for explanations for the behavior they observe. The resulting causal attributions, in turn, determine the cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses to the focal person (Heider, 1958). In the attribution model of leadership (Green & Mitchell, 1979), subordinate performance observed by a manager is translated into the manager's behavioral response based on his or her attributions as to the causes of the subordinate's behavior. Feldman

(1981, 1986) suggests that managers have expectations about employees based on the categorizations of each person, which are largely influenced by behaviors observed by the manager. Once the categorization of an employee, as for example committed, occurs it influences the information the manager attends to, remembers, and recalls. Feldman (1981, 1986) further contends that this person categorization is linked with the type of relationship that develops between the manager and employee, such that it sets in motion an exchange relationship which can directly influence managerial treatment of employees.

Leader-member exchange theory can be used to explain the relationship between that develops between the manager and the subordinate. The central focus of leader-member exchange theory is the relationship and interaction between the supervisor and the subordinate. The theory argues that due to time and resource constraints, supervisors do not interact with subordinates uniformly. Rather, they develop a special relationship with an “in-group” set of employees (Graen & Scandura, 1987). “In-group” subordinates can be counted on by their supervisors to perform unstructured tasks, volunteer for extra work, and take on additional responsibilities. In turn, supervisors exchange personal and positional resources such as providing the “in group” with special privileges, such as higher levels of responsibility, decision influence, and access to resources for which “out-group” employees are not offered (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The limited empirical research examining commitment perceptions on subsequent managerial behaviors has utilized leader-member exchange to explain the relationship. These studies have provided initial evidence that commitment judgements may indeed act as cues from which managers classify employees into either “in group” or “out group”

categories, and furthermore influence managerial behavior toward employees. For example, Shore et al., (1995) assessed the degree to which managers' evaluations of employees' organizational commitment influenced promotability assessments. The authors found that perceived affective commitment was positively related to promotability ratings, such that managers who perceived their employees as having high affective commitment to the organization were likely to view these individuals as being more promotable than employees perceived as less committed. Moreover, employees perceived as highly committed were assessed as having greater managerial potential than their less-committed counterparts (Shore et al., 1995).

Similarly, Allen, Russell, and Rush (1994) found a positive relation between perceived organizational commitment and reward recommendations. Specifically, employees perceived a highly committed were more likely to be recommended admission into a fast-track executive training program, recommended as a mentor, and awarded a salary increase than employees perceived as less committed to the organization. Moreover, in a separate study, Allen and Rush (1998) found that perceptions of organizational commitment had a positive relation with reward recommendations such that employees perceived as being more committed to the organization were recommended more highly for salary increases and promotions than employees who were perceived as less committed.

In sum, theory and empirical research indicate that managerial perceptions of employee commitment do indeed impact subsequent evaluations and behaviors toward employees. Highly committed employees are seen as vital to the organization, and therefore, employers may find it desirable to offer more rewards to their committed

employees (Powell, 1993). Moreover, managers who perceive employees as highly committed are likely to view these individuals as desiring, as well as deserving opportunities to develop their careers. Empirical studies thus far have focused specifically on perceptions of organizational commitment without consideration of other forms of commitment. However, because managers who perceive employees as committed to their careers acknowledge that these employees are devoted to their careers and seek to grow and develop within their chosen profession perceptions of career commitment may also influence a manager's evaluations and behaviors toward employees. Therefore, theory and empirical evidence would suggest the following hypotheses:

H8a: There is a positive relationship between managerial perceived organizational commitment and career growth prospects.

H8b: There is a positive relationship between managerial perceived career commitment and career growth prospects.

The Relationship Between Job Performance and Career Growth Prospects

It was argued in the previous sections that an employee's job performance and work engagement provide behavioral cues from which management may make perceptions of an employee's commitment to his or her organization as well as his or her career. In turn, these commitment perceptions influence management's behavior toward and treatment of employees, such that individuals who are perceived as more committed are more likely to be offered career enhancing assignments.

The literature also suggests that job performance may directly influence an individual's career growth prospects. Using similar rationale that was offered for previous hypotheses, research has indicated that an individual's job performance provides

a significant cue from which management may make assessments regarding career growth decisions. Research indicates that past performance is a significant indicator of future performance and that employees who use their knowledge, skills, and abilities to contribute to the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization are often rewarded through advancement and growth opportunities (Beehr, Taber, & Walsh, 1980; Gemmill & DeSalvia, 1977; Van Scotter, Motowildo, & Cross, 2000). Using leader-member exchange theory, it is likely that job performance provides a significant cue from which to categorized an employee as “in-group” or “out-group. To reiterate, “in-group” employees are high performers, are committed and loyal to their organization, and volunteer for additional duties. In turn, these employees are offered special privileges such as increased responsibility and decision latitude.

As an example, in a recent longitudinal study of Air Force mechanics, Van Scotter, Motowildo, and Cross (2000) examined the degree to which job performance influenced promotability ratings and career advancement. Results indicated that in a one year period, employees with high job performance ratings had advanced into higher ranks than employee who had low job performance ratings. Moreover, higher performers were rated as being more promotable than their lower performing counterparts.

In sum, the literature indicates that job performance may significantly influence promotion decisions. Specifically, empirical research has found that employees with enhanced job performance are more likely to be recommended for promotions than their lower performing counterparts. Extending these findings, it is reasonable to expect that job performance will also influence the likelihood that a manager will offer employees within job career enhancing experiences. Therefore:

H9: There is a positive direct relation between job performance and career growth prospects.

Contributions to the Literature

The current study contributes to the literature in a number of ways. First, this study examines the impact of an individual's commitment to a wide array of non-work roles on their career growth prospects. In examining this relationship, this study seeks to identify the demands and resources associated with non-work role commitment, and the effects of these demands and resources on an employee's ability to engage in work and their job performance, respectively. Next, this study contributes to the literature by examining the impact of job performance and work engagement on managerial perceptions of employee organizational and career commitment, and ultimately the impact of perceived commits on career growth prospects. Finally, this study seeks to identify the conditions under which an employee's commitment to non-work roles can promote positive career related outcomes.

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

Chapter 4 discusses the research design and methodology adopted in this study. The chapter provides an overview of the research design, sample characteristics, and procedures for data collection. In addition, Chapter 4 presents the measures used in the study, as well as the data analysis techniques used to test the hypotheses.

Research Design

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between an individual's commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects. A cross-sectional, correlational design is used. In cross-sectional research, data are collected at one point in time from any given sample of a population (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). Although this limits the researcher's ability to reach causal conclusions, cross-sectional research has significant time and cost advantages. For this reason, cross sectional research has been deemed appropriate for studies that collect data on many variables from a large group of respondents (Judd et al., 1991).

Correlational research attempts to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. In correlational research, the independent variables are observed in their naturally occurring state as opposed to being manipulated as in an experiment. A number of advantages of correlational research have been identified in the literature, including the researcher's ability to examine independent variables that are not easily manipulated, and the ability to examine complex multivariate research models.

Despite these advantages, it is important to note several disadvantages that have been identified with cross-sectional, correlational research designs. For example, as

opposed to longitudinal research, in which data are collected over multiple time periods, cross-sectional studies collect data at only one point in time, and therefore, the researcher can not predict the temporal sequence of the variables in question. As a result, the causality of relationships can not be inferred. A potential weakness with correlational research is common method variance as the majority of studies using this type of research design rely on responses from a single rater. However, common method variance is limited in the current study because data are collected from two sources - supervisors and subordinates.

Despite these potential weaknesses, the current study uses a cross sectional, correlational design for several reasons. First, this is the first study to assess the relationship between an individuals' commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects, and of central concern is the need to establish the presence of relationships prior to examining the causality among the relationships. Second, this study examines the relationships among a complex set of variables that are not easy to manipulate or control under a laboratory setting. Finally, given the time and cost efficiencies it provides, this type of research design is the most appropriate for the current study.

Data Collection Procedure

This section discusses the data collection process used in the current study. This process includes developing the survey instrument, conducting pilot tests of the survey, and distributing the questionnaire to respondents for completion. A general overview of the pilot tests and the survey distribution process is described below, followed by a discussion of the measures used in the study.

Pilot Study

Conducting a pilot test is an important step in the survey design process, and involves testing the questionnaire with a small number of respondents before conducting the main study. The purpose of the pilot study is to test the questionnaire for readability and clarity, and to identify any potential technical problems regarding the use of the Internet as a means for data collection. The pilot study took place in two phases. In the first phase, a sample of 10 PhD students was asked to complete paper and pencil versions of the survey questionnaires. As a group, the pilot respondents were timed while completing the questionnaires, and were asked to provide feedback regarding the clarity and readability of the survey items. Minor wording changes resulting from the initial pilot test were implemented prior to phase two of pilot testing.

After the initial pilot test, the revised staff survey questionnaire was tested a second time using a small sample of legal secretaries. This sample, which was representative of the final sample, provided feedback on both the paper and pencil version of the survey as well as the web-based version. The respondents were asked to comment on the clarity and readability of the survey, as well as the ease of use of the online survey. In addition, one supervisor provided feedback on the supervisor version of the survey. Again, minor changes were made to enhance the clarity, and usability of the survey instruments.

Main Study

Once the final versions of the survey instruments were developed, the next step was to obtain the research sample. The target population included legal secretaries and their supervisors from Philadelphia area law firms. Because this study sought to

determine the relationship between a respondent's non-work role participation and his or her career growth prospects, it was necessary that the sample population have adequate opportunities for both upward and lateral advancement. The researcher was advised that opportunities for advancement did indeed exist for this group of potential respondents, and therefore, legal secretaries were deemed to be an appropriate sample for this study.

The process began with a meeting with several HR Directors of Philadelphia area law firms. At this meeting, the researcher provided an overview of the study and requested that the HR Directors consider participating. A second, follow-up meeting was held with those that were interested in participating in the study. Ultimately, five law firms agreed to participate.

The next steps in the data collection process involved the design and completion of the on-line surveys.

Collecting Paired-Data Using a Web-Based Survey

A review of the literature revealed little guidance as to how to collect paired data using on-line surveys. Therefore, the researcher had to develop a method to collect data while maintaining the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents. After receiving IRB approval for the study, the following steps were taken to collect data:

1. I assigned each firm a series of six digit confidential code numbers based on the number of secretaries in that particular firm. The first digit of the code number referred to the firm number (101001) (1 to 5), the next two digits referred to the secretary's supervisor within that particular firm (101001), and the final three digits (0101001) referred to the secretary's number.

2. I then developed a letter inviting each secretary to participate in the study. A unique confidential code number (discussed above) was placed on the top right-hand corner of each letter. The letter was placed in a sealed envelope, which was also labeled with the confidential code number.

The invitation letter (see Appendix C) included an overview of the study, explained who was being asked to participate, emphasized the voluntary nature of the study and assured complete anonymity. In addition, the letter informed the secretary that he or she would be receiving an email from firm management providing a link to the survey. It also explained the importance of the code number and asked that the secretary hold onto the letter because he or she would be required to enter the code number on the survey questionnaire.

3. Next, the researcher delivered an Excel spreadsheet with a list of the firm's confidential code numbers, and a packet of invitation letters to each firm. The HR Director of each firm assigned each secretary a code number from the series of codes provided to that particular firm and then distributed the letters to the secretaries. The HR Director documented each secretary's code number so that he or she could refer to it when rating each secretary. A total of 311 invitation letters were distributed to five firms.
4. Several days later, each HR Director sent a follow-up email to the secretaries encouraging participation. This email included the hyper-link to the survey website.
5. At the same time that the email containing the secretary survey hyperlink was sent to the secretaries, the researcher sent a separate email to each of the HR Directors

which included the hyper-link to the supervisor survey. Each HR Director was asked to complete one survey rating each of the secretaries participating in the study. This was an important step in the data collection process as the purpose of the study was to assess the supervisors' perceptions of the secretaries' performance, commitment and career growth prospects.

6. Two weeks after the surveys were administered, the HR Directors sent a reminder email to the secretaries reminding them of the study and again providing them with the survey link.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of legal secretaries and their supervisors. The required sample size was dependent on a number of factors including the desired power, effect size, and significance level. For a power of .80, a small effect size of .10, and a significance level of .05, a sample of 193 respondents was necessary (Cohen, 1988). Five weeks after the surveys were administered, 297 supervisor surveys (95% response rate) and 193 secretary surveys (63% response rate) had been received. A total of 186 usable, matched-pair (supervisor and subordinate) surveys had been received, reflecting an overall 60% response rate.

Demographics of Respondents

The demographic summary statistics for the study's respondents are reported in Table 2. The average age of the secretaries was 46 years. Virtually all of the respondents were female (98%) and the vast majority were Caucasian (85%). Sixty-eight percent of respondents were married. The highest level of education completed for the majority of

the sample (56%) was a high school degree, while 24% completed an Associate's degree, 16% had a Bachelor's degree and 2% had a Master's or Professional degree.

Measurement of Variables

The variables used in this study were assessed using measures that were either newly developed for the current study (i.e., resource acquisition, managerial perceived career commitment) or adapted from previous research (i.e., non-work role commitment, non-work demands, job performance, work engagement, managerial perceived organizational commitment, career commitment, non-work supportive organizational environment, and the two indicators of career growth prospects (structural and content). The following sections discuss the measurement instruments, as well as the results of the validity and reliability analyses. A complete listing of the study measures is provided in Appendices A & B.

Tests of Reliability and Validity

The reliability of the constructs was assessed using factor analysis. Factor analysis was conducted to ascertain the dimensionality of the constructs and to examine the extent to which each dimension explained its associated construct (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). A factor analysis produces a series of eigenvalues, which are examined to determine the number of dimensions, or factors, that exist. Eigenvalues greater than one are considered significant (Hair, et al., 1995). To further assess the dimensionality of the constructs, scree plots were produced which show the relation between the factors and the percentage of variance explained by each.

A test of the internal validity of the items was conducted using Cronbach's alpha to assess the reliability of the scales. Alpha coefficients of .70 or higher (Nunnally, 1978;

Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) indicate that the items in the scale are internally consistent with one another and that the scale is sufficiently reliable.

Each of the hypotheses was tested using regression analysis. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to examine the overall fit of the data to the model.

Employee Measures

Non-work Role Commitment

Non-work role commitment refers to the summation of an individual's psychological commitment to a wide array of non-work roles. Relatively few measures have been developed to assess an individual's commitment to non-work life roles. Moreover, even less attention has been given to measuring psychological commitment specifically.

Ruderman et al., (2002) measured commitment to personal life roles using Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby's (1986) Life Role Salience scale. Greenberger and O'Neil (1993) developed a 16-item scale to measure commitment to spousal, parental and worker roles. Similarly, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) developed a scale to assess individual's involvement in family. However, virtually all of items in these scales incorporate the amount of physical time an individual spends involved in role activities as the indicator of commitment. Because the current study is interested in examining an individual's psychological commitment, these scales were not relevant for use in this study.

Therefore, the current study adapted a scale developed by Godshalk (1997), which focuses specifically on an individual's psychological commitment to non-work life roles. Because psychological commitment reflects the importance, or centrality, of a role

to an individual's self-identity (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993), respondents were asked to indicate the importance of specific non-work activities in their overall lives. The original scale included eleven activities representing an individual's psychological involvement in three primary life roles: family (spouse and parent), community, and self-preservation. Internal consistency for the original measure was acceptable ($\alpha=.74$). The current study modified the original measure to better reflect each of the five non-work life roles examined in the current study. Appendix A lists the five items included in this measure.

Respondents were asked, "For those activities in which you participate, please indicate the IMPORTANCE of each in your life." Responses were indicated on a 5 point scale (1 = Unimportant to 5 = Very important). A 'Do not participate' option was provided for each role. A summary measure of commitment to non-work roles was created with the roles in which respondents did not participate counting as missing data. It was important to create a summary measure, rather than an average measure as the purpose of the study was to assess the degree to which a respondent was committed to a variety of non-work roles. The summary measure captured not only the number of roles in which an individual participated, but the degree to which the role was important in the individual's life as well. Higher scores indicated stronger commitment to non-work roles.

Resource Acquisition

To reiterate, the current study defines a resource as an asset that may be drawn upon when needed to solve a problem or cope with a challenging situation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Because there has been no previously developed scale to measure resource acquisition as it is conceptualized in this study, a new measure was developed.

In order to assess the degree to which individuals acquire resources from their non-work role participation, respondents were asked to consider the degree to which participating in each non-work activity provided them with the five specific resources examined in the current study (i.e., skills, self-confidence, information and advice, social contacts, and new ways of looking at people and situations). For example, with respect to the community role, respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point scale (1=Not at all to 5=To a very great extent), “To what extent has volunteering in your community increased your skills (i.e., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills)”, and “To what extent has volunteering in your community increased your self-confidence?” Appendix A details each item.

Five separate factor analyses were conducted to examine the resource acquisition variable. For each role, five items representing each of the five resources were entered into a factor analysis. One factor emerged for each role (family: eigenvalue = 3.451; community: eigenvalue = 4.322; religion: eigenvalue = 4.012; student: eigenvalue = 4.527; leisure: eigenvalue = 3.662). The scales for each role produced strong reliabilities: family $\alpha = .89$; community $\alpha = .96$; religion $\alpha = .94$; student $\alpha = .97$; leisure $\alpha = .91$. The mean of the resources from each role was calculated and a summation score was created across roles. Therefore, scores varied based on the number of roles in which a secretary participated as well as the degree to which resources were acquired. Higher scores indicated greater resource acquisition.

Non-work Role Demands

The demands associated with non-work role participation included in this study were time and energy demands. Following previous research on time allocation, the

current study assesses non-work time demands by asking participants to estimate the number of hours in an average week (including weekends) they spend involved in the role activities identified in the previous question. Time demands were calculated as the sum of the number of hours spent in non-work activities.

Energy demands reflect the cumulative level of physical and emotional energy that individuals exert in their non-work role activities. Energy was measured by adapting four items of May, Gilson, and Harter's (2004) work engagement scale. This measure was deemed appropriate for the current study for two reasons. First, a review of the literature revealed no established scale to assess the level of energy individuals' exert in non-work role activities. Second, several of the items included in the May et al. (2004) work engagement scale are consistent with the notion of energy demands as used in the current study. For example, in order to assess the degree to which individuals exert emotional energy in non-work activities, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement (1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree) with the following two questions: "I really put my heart into... (specific non-work activity)", and "I often feel emotionally detached when...(specific non-work activity)" (*reverse scored*). These questions were followed by each of the non-work activities listed in the previous questions (family activities, volunteering in my community, religious activities, student, and leisure activities).

To assess the degree to which individuals' exert physical energy in non-work activities, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement (1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree) with the following questions: "I exert a lot of energy when...(specific non-work activity)", and "I really exert myself to my fullest

when...(specific non-work activity)". These two questions were followed by each of the non-work activities. The time and energy demand items are provided in Appendix A.

Similar to the measure of resource acquisition, five separate factor analyses were conducted to examine energy demands. For each role, four items representing each of the four energy demands were entered into a factor analysis. One factor of energy demands emerged for each role (family: eigenvalue = 2.285; community: eigenvalue = 2.643; religion: eigenvalue = 2.349; student: eigenvalue = 2.712; leisure: eigenvalue = 2.187). The mean of the energy expended from each role was calculated and a summation score was created across roles. Therefore, scores differed among secretaries depending on the number of roles in which he or she participated and the degree to which physical and emotional energy was expended in each role. Higher scores indicated greater energy demands.

In addition to creating an overall score (including both physical and emotional energy), separate variables were created for physical energy and emotional energy. As with the overall score, the mean of physical energy was calculated for each role and then a summation score across roles was created. Similarly, the mean of emotional energy was calculated for each role and then a summation score across roles was created. Higher scores indicated greater energy demands.

Work Engagement

Work engagement refers to the degree to which an individual is physically, cognitively, and emotionally invested in the work role. Relatively few measures of work engagement exist in the literature. However, the 13-item scale developed by May et al., (2004) was appropriate for the current study. This scale is based on Kahn's (1990)

original work engagement construct, which was theorized to have three distinct dimensions (physical, cognitive, and emotional). May et al. (2004) conducted an exploratory principal components factor analysis of 24 items. Because three separate and reliable scales representing cognitive, emotional and physical engagement did not emerge from the data, an overall scale with 13 items was used. This scale demonstrated good reliability ($\alpha = .77$) and had balance across the three forms of engagement (cognitive engagement – 4 items, emotional engagement – 4 items, and physical engagement – 5 items). Sample items included, “Performing my job is so absorbing that I forget about everything else” (cognitive), “I get excited when I perform well on my job” (emotional), and “I exert a lot of energy performing my job”. Responses were made using a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree).

Similar to the May et al. (2004) study, an exploratory factor analysis of the 13 items did not reveal separate and reliable scales representing the three dimensions of engagement. Rather, three factors emerged that were unable to be interpreted. Therefore, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using AMOS 6.0. Although the CMIN (χ^2) Goodness of Fit statistic ($\chi^2 = 123.24$, $df = 65$, $p < .001$) suggested that a one factor structure may not be entirely adequate, a review of several other widely used Goodness of Fit statistics revealed sufficient support for a one factor structure (GFI = .906; AGFI = .869; RMSEA = .07). Thus, the mean of all 13 items were used with an adequate reliability of .74. A full listing of the items is provided in Appendix A.

Perceptions of a Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment

A perception of a non-work supportive organizational environment refers to an employee’s perception regarding the extent to which the organization is supportive of his

or her participation in personal life roles. It is important to point out that this is an individual level variable and therefore, individuals may have varying perceptions of the level of support an organization provides based on their experiences and backgrounds.

This variable was measured by adapting a 14-item scale developed by Allen (2001). The items included in the original scale were derived to assess employees' perceptions regarding the extent that the work environment was family-supportive. However, because the current study is interested in perceptions of not only family, but of a wide array of non-work life roles, the word 'family' was replaced with 'non-work' or 'personal' as appropriate.

Six of the original 14 items were used in the current study. These six items were selected based on their high factor loadings on the original scale, as well as the wording of the items, which was consistent with the current study. Respondents were asked, "To what extent do you disagree or agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your firm (*remember, these are not your own personal beliefs- but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your firm*)."

Sample items that followed these instructions included, "In my firm, it is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their personal life (*reversed*)," "In my firm, work should be the primary priority in a person's life (*reversed*), and "In my firm, individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work (*reversed*). The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. Responses to the six items were averaged to provide a score that represented respondents' perceptions of the supportiveness of their organization's environment, with higher scores indicating more favorable perceptions.

The scale had strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$). A listing of these items is provided in Appendix A.

Career Commitment

As a moderator variable in the current study, career commitment refers to an employee's attachment to and willingness to remain in his or her present career (Blau, 1989). A number of career commitment scales have been developed in the literature (e.g., Blau, 1985, 1988, 1993; Carson & Bedeian, 1994). The current study adapted Blau's (1985) well established Career Commitment Scale, which was designed to tap an individual's emotional attachment to his or her career. The original scale was developed to assess employees' commitment to the nursing career field, and therefore, the current study altered the item wording to reflect the legal profession. Sample items include, "I definitely want a career for myself as a legal secretary," "If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to be a legal secretary (*reversed*)," and "This is the ideal vocation for me." Responses were made on a 5-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree). Responses to the items were averaged to provide a score that represented respondents' career commitment, with high scores indicating greater career commitment. The scale had strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$).

Supervisor Measures

Job Performance

Job Performance was defined in the current study as the total value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time (Motowidlo, 2003). Because the current sample includes individuals in the legal profession, specifically, legal secretaries, a copy of the general job

performance guidelines was obtained from the administrator of a local law firm.

According to this source, these job performance guidelines are used by these five firms to assess the quality of the administrative staff's work.

There are four primary categories in which the job performance of legal secretaries is evaluated: 1) typing and transcription, 2) proofreading/editing, 3) administration, and 4) work styles. Four items assess employees' typing and transcription performance. Sample items include, "Transcribes tapes using appropriate format, correct spelling and proper punctuation," and "Completes typing assignments in a timely manner." Three items assess employees' proofreading/editing performance. These items are, "Edits typed material for clarification and sentence structure," "Proofreads typed material for misspellings, typos and other errors," and "Composes routine correspondence." Six items assess employees' administrative job performance. Sample items include, "Prepares routine legal documents according to standard format (e.g., deposition notices)," "Handles inquiries and conveys information to/from clients, attorneys and staff," and "Handles files and correspondence for firm committees and/or professional associations in a timely fashion." Finally, six items reflect employees' work style performance. Sample items include, "Anticipates "crunches" and arranges for necessary secretarial and staff help," "Seeks out and assumes new responsibilities," and "Even under pressure, maintains pleasant manner with co-workers." These items were measured using the scale included with the sample evaluation form: E-Area where exceptional skill is evident, M-Meets high performance standards of job, A-Average, N-Not meeting job standards or potential, NA-Not pertinent to job.

A factor analysis using varimax rotation was conducted on all 19 job performance items. Two factors emerged with the first factor accounting for 76% of the variance (eigenvalue = 14.483). The second factor accounted for only 6 percent of the variance (eigenvalue = 1.171). Due to the fact that 17 of the 19 items loaded on the first factor and the very high intercorrelations between the four categories of job performance (ranged from .755 to .907), all 19 items were included in the measure of job performance. Again, responses to the 19 items were averaged to provide a score that represented supervisor ratings of secretaries' job performance. The scale had a very high reliability ($\alpha = .98$).

In addition to the 19 item measure of job performance, a two item general measure of job performance was assessed. The two items were "Overall, how would you rate the quality of the employee's job performance," and "Overall, how would you rate the quantity of work the employee produces." Supervisors indicated their assessment of the employee's job performance using a 5-point scale (1=Far below expectations to 5=Far exceeds expectations). The measure had high internal consistency ($\alpha = .93$) and was highly correlated with the 19 item job performance measure (.82, $p = .001$).

Managerial Perceived Work Commitment

Managerial Perceived Organizational Commitment

Managerial perceived organizational commitment is defined as a manager's perception of an employee's emotional attachment to his or her current organization. Although there have been many well-established organizational commitment scales, such as the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Organizational Commitment Scales by Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991), and the Organizational Commitment Scales by Mowday

et al. (1982) and Porter et al. (1974), only one manager-rated scale has been developed in the literature.

The present study adopted the scale developed by Shore et al. (1995), which assesses a manager's perception of an employee's affective commitment to the organization. The scale, which is based on Allen and Meyer's (1984) ACS and Mowday et al.'s (1982) OCQ, consists of 4 items including, "The employee views the organization's problems as his or her own" and "The employee really cares about the fate of this organization." Responses to the 4 items were averaged to produce a score that represented managerial perceptions of the secretaries' organizational commitment. The Shore et al. scale had an acceptable alpha coefficient ($\alpha=.87$). All four items are listed in Appendix B.

Managerial Perceived Career Commitment

In the present study, managerial perceived career commitment refers to a manager's perception of an employee's emotional attachment to his or her profession or vocation (Blau, 1985). Although there have been several career commitment measures developed in the literature (i.e., Blau, 1985, 1988, 1993; Carson & Bedeian, 1994), no scale was found that assessed managerial-perceived career commitment. Therefore, a 6-item measure was developed specifically for this study.

Similar to the measure used to assess managerial perceived organizational commitment, managerial perceived career commitment was assessed by adapting the affective occupational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1993). However, because the current study is interested in assessing a manager's perception of his or her subordinates' career commitment rather than the secretary's own attitude, items

from the original scale were adapted. In addition, because this scale was originally developed to assess employees' commitment to the nursing career field, the current study alters the item wording to reflect the legal profession. Sample items included, "Being a legal secretary appears to be important to the employee's self-image," "The employee appears to be proud to be a legal secretary" and "The employee appears to be enthusiastic about being a legal secretary." Responses to the items were averaged to produce a score that represented managerial perceptions of the secretaries' career commitment. The original scale showed adequate reliability ($\alpha=.85$).

In order to validate the measures of managerial perceived organizational commitment and managerial perceived career commitment, a factor analysis of the 10 commitment items was conducted. When the items were entered in the factor analysis, two factors emerged. The first factor had an eigenvalue equal to 7.336 and was comprised of 8 of the 10 items; the second factor had a much lower eigenvalue equal to 1.415. The two work commitment variables were very highly correlated (.83, $p = .000$). Therefore, due to the high loading on one factor, and the high correlation between the constructs, one composite measure including all 10 managerial perceived work commitment items was created. The composite work commitment scale showed a very strong internal consistency ($\alpha=.96$). Table 3 shows the factor loadings for this scale.

Career Growth Prospects

Career growth prospects in the current study refers to the likelihood that an employee will be offered increased responsibilities, challenging assignments, and learning opportunities that promote career growth and development. Drawing from the literature on career plateauing, two indicators of career growth are included in this study:

1) structural growth and 2) content growth. The following sections discuss the measurement of these variables.

Structural Growth Prospects

To reiterate from Chapter 2, structural growth prospects reflect the likelihood that responsibilities and challenges will be received via hierarchical advancement (i.e., promotion). This variable was measured using an adapted measure of structural plateauing developed by Milliman (1992), which asks respondents to indicate their agreement or disagreement with 6 items pertaining to the likelihood that they would advance hierarchically within their current organization. Sample items from this measure included, “I expect to be promoted in my company”, and “I expect to advance to a higher level in my company.”

Because the aim of the current study was to determine the manager’s perception of the likelihood that his or her subordinate will advance hierarchically in the organization, rather than the secretary’s perception, the wording of the original items was altered accordingly. For example, the above items were altered to “It is likely that this employee will be promoted within the organization”, and “This employee is unlikely to obtain a higher level job in this organization” (reversed). A complete list of these items is provided in Appendix 2. Managers indicated their agreement or disagreement with items using a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree to 5= Strongly agree). The scale showed strong reliability ($\alpha = .95$).

Content Growth Prospects

Content growth prospects reflect the likelihood of increased responsibilities and challenges within one’s current job. This variable was assessed using an adapted

measure of content plateauing developed by Milliman (1992). The original measure asked respondents to assess their expected level of future increases in responsibility and growth potential. Sample items from this measure included, “I will learn and grow in my current job”, and “I expect to be continually challenged in my current job”.

Again, because the current study was interested in assessing the manager’s, rather than the secretary’s perception of content advancement prospects, the wording of the items was altered accordingly. For example, the above items were amended to read “It is likely that this employee will learn and grow within his or her current job”, and “It is likely that this employee will be continually challenged in his or her current job”. Managers indicated their agreement or disagreement with items using a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree to 5= Strongly agree). The scale showed strong reliability ($\alpha = .88$). Appendix B provides a listing of these items.

To determine the distinctions between the structural and content career growth constructs, factor analysis was conducted. All 11 career growth items were entered into the factor analysis and two factors emerged. Factor 1 was comprised of items 1,3,5,7,9,11 with an eigenvalue of 5.251. The variance explained by this factor was 48%. This factor represented the Structural Career Growth variable. Factor 2 was comprised of items 2,4,6,8,10 with an eigenvalue equal to 3.394. The variance explained by this factor was 31%. This factor represented the Content Career Growth variable. Table 4 shows the factor loadings for this scale.

Additional Variables of Interest

Data were collected on several additional variables for either control purposes or for use in future analysis. Demographic and background characteristics were collected

from both supervisors and secretaries to provide a descriptive profile of the composition of the respondents. Moreover, the demographic and background data helped to identify potential confounding variables that were controlled for during hypothesis testing.

Supervisors were asked to provide their age, gender, race, education level, organizational and job tenure, and the length of time they have supervised the particular employee for whom they are completing the survey. Similarly, secretaries were asked to provide their age, gender, race, educational level, and organizational and job tenure, as well as their marital status. Appendices A & B provide listings of these items.

In addition, since supervisory ratings were provided by five managers from five different firms, it was likely that differences in performance ratings may exist. As such, an ANOVA test was performed to examine differences in supervisor ratings of performance. As expected, there were significant differences in performance ratings ($F = 4.477, p < .01$). Given these rating differences, four dummy variables were created to control for supervisor evaluations.

Data on additional variables was also collected for use in future analysis. These variables include employee-rated organizational commitment, work-family enrichment, work-family conflict, employee-rated job performance, and employee rated career growth prospects (structural and content advancement).

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relation between non-work role commitment and non-work demands. To test this relationship, two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted – one for time demands and one for energy demands. In both analyses, the control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number

of roles enacted) were entered in Step 1, followed by non-work role commitment in step two. The regression coefficient for non-work role commitment and the significance level of the change in R^2 were examined in both models to test Hypothesis 1.

Hypotheses 2 and 2a. Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relation between non-work role demands and work engagement. To test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of roles enacted) were entered into the regression model in Step 1, followed by each of the non-work role demands (time and energy) in step 2. The regression coefficients for each of the non-work demands and the significance level of the change in r^2 were examined to test Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that perceptions of a non-work supportive organizational environment moderate the negative relationship between non-work role demands and work engagement, such that the relationship would be significantly weaker for individuals who perceive their organization's environment as supportive of their non-work role participation. In order to test this relationship, the independent (non-work role demands) and moderating variables (non-work supportive organizational environment) were centered by subtracting the mean from each variable. Next, interaction terms were created by multiplying each of the non-work demands (time and energy) by non-work supportive organizational environment. Perceptions of a non-work supportive organization was then entered in Step 3, followed by the interaction terms between each of the non-work role demands and non-work supportive perceptions in Step 4. A significant beta coefficient for the interaction term was followed up with a plot of the interaction to test Hypothesis H2a.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive relation between work engagement and job performance. To test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of roles enacted) were entered into the regression model in Step 1, followed by work engagement in Step 2. The regression coefficient for work engagement and the significance level of the change in R^2 were examined to test Hypothesis 3.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b. Hypothesis 4a predicted a direct positive relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition. Hypothesis 4b predicted that non-work role demands mediate the relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition. In order to test these hypotheses, the control variables were entered in the first step of a regression model (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of roles enacted), followed by non-work role commitment in step 2. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), after establishing a significant relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition, the next step was to test relationship between non-work role commitment and non-work role demands. The significance of this relationship was determined by examining the regression coefficient for non-work role commitment and the change in R^2 . Similarly, the relationship between non-work demands and resource acquisition was then examined. Finally, an examination of the beta coefficient for non-work role commitment in step 3 of the regression model determined the level of support for Hypotheses 4a and 4b.

Hypotheses 5 and 5a. Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive relation between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance. To test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of

roles enacted) were entered into the regression model in Step 1, followed by resource acquisition in Step 2. The regression coefficient for resource acquisition and the significance level of the change in R^2 were examined to test Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5a predicted that career commitment would moderate the positive relationship between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance, such that the relationship would be significantly stronger for career committed individuals. In order to test this relationship, the independent variable (resource acquisition) and the moderator variable (career commitment) were centered by subtracting the mean from the variable. Next, an interaction term was created by multiplying resource acquisition by career commitment. Career commitment was entered in Step 3, followed by the interaction term between resource acquisition and career commitment in Step 4. A significant beta coefficient would be followed up with a plot of the interaction to test Hypothesis 5a.

Hypotheses 6a and 6b and Hypotheses 7a and 7b. Hypotheses 6a and 6b and Hypotheses 7a and 7b predicted positive relations between job performance and work engagement, with managerial perceived organizational commitment and managerial perceived career commitment. As discussed earlier, because managerial perceived organizational commitment and managerial perceived career commitment were collapsed into one composite construct, Hypotheses 6a and 6b and 7a and 7b were condensed into two hypotheses (H6 and H7) examining the relationships between job performance (H6), work engagement (H7) and managerial perceived *work commitment*. The control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of roles enacted) were entered in Step 1 of the regression model, followed by job performance and work

engagement in Step 2. The regression coefficients for job performance and work engagement and the significance levels of the changes in R^2 were examined to test Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7.

Hypotheses 8a, 8b and 9. Hypothesis 8a predicted positive relations between managerial perceived organizational commitment and the two indicators of career growth prospects (i.e., structural growth prospects and content growth prospects). Hypothesis 8b predicts positive relations between managerial perceived career commitment and the two indicators of career growth prospects (i.e., structural advancement and content advancement). Again, because one composite measure of work commitment was ultimately used in the analyses, Hypotheses 8a and 8b were condensed into one hypothesis (H8). Hypothesis 9 predicted a positive relationship between job performance and the indicators of career growth prospects. To test these relationships, two regression analyses were performed. In each analysis, the control variables (supervisor evaluations, job demands and number of roles enacted) were entered in Step 1 followed by job performance in step 2. The beta coefficients and the significance of the change in R^2 for job performance were examined for significance in each model. Managerial perceived work commitment was the entered in Step 3 of the regression models. The beta coefficients for work commitment in each of the regression models and the significance levels of the changes in R^2 were examined to test Hypothesis 8. The beta coefficient for job performance in step 3 was reexamined to test Hypothesis 9.

Chapter 5: Results

This chapter presents the results of the data analyses beginning with the correlation matrix of the demographic variables and the model variables. Next, the results of the hierarchical regression analyses testing the study's hypotheses are presented, including a number of Post Hoc analyses designed to provide insight into the non-significant findings and the findings that were contrary to what was expected. Finally, the results of the structural equation modeling (AMOS) analysis, which was used to test the overall study model are discussed.

Correlational Analysis

Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among all of the variables in the study. Correlational analyses help to determine which demographic variables must be controlled during hypothesis testing, as well as help to identify the existence of multicollinearity. As discussed in the previous chapter, an examination of the intercorrelations of the original model variables indicated high intercorrelations between managerial perceived organizational commitment and managerial perceived career commitment (.83, $p < .001$). This, coupled with the fact that a factor analysis of the 10 work commitment items produced a single factor, lead me to question the existence of two separate constructs, and suggested that these two constructs be collapsed into one managerial perceived work commitment variable.

The intercorrelations among the study's variables ranged from -.48 to .82. Larger than desirable intercorrelations were found between non-work role commitment and energy demands (.77, $p < .001$), and non-work role commitment and resource acquisition (.64, $p < .001$). It was thought that the high intercorrelations between these variables

could be due to the common basis of measurement for these constructs, which involves the number of roles in which an individual participates. Therefore, partial correlation analysis was conducted, and when role participation (i.e., number of roles) was controlled, the intercorrelations among these variables were significantly reduced (nonwork role commitment and energy: $r_p = .52$, $p < .001$; nonwork role commitment and resource acquisition: $r_p = .27$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the number of roles in which an individual participates was controlled during hypothesis testing.

Intercorrelations Among Model Variables

Correlational analysis revealed that the level of job demands was significantly correlated with several mediating and moderating variables in the model. Job demands was significantly related to work engagement (.34, $p < .001$), job performance (.22, $p < .01$), managerial perceived career commitment (.24, $p < .001$), non-work supportive organizational environment (.26, $p < .001$), and career commitment (.36, $p < .001$). Therefore, job demands were controlled in hypothesis testing.

Tests of Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of an individual's commitment to non-work roles on his or her career growth prospects. Each of the model hypotheses was tested using regression analysis. Tables 6-15 provide the regression models. The overall fit of the data to the model was then tested using structural equation modeling (AMOS).

Hypothesis 1: The Relationship Between Non-Work Role Commitment and Non-work Demands.

This hypothesis predicted that individuals who are more highly committed to a wide variety of non-work roles will experience greater demands on their time and energy than individuals who are less committed to non-work roles.

Two regression analyses were conducted to test Hypothesis 1 – one for time demands and one for energy demands – and the results are presented in Table 6. In both analyses, the control variables (4 dummy variables created to control for supervisor rating differences, job demands, and the number of roles enacted) were entered in Step 1 of the regression analysis, followed by non-work role commitment in Step 2. The hypothesized positive relationship between non-work role commitment and non-work demands was fully supported as the beta coefficients for time demands and energy demands were significant in the regression analyses (time: $\beta = .23$, $p < .05$, energy: $\beta = .55$, $p < .001$). Non-work role commitment accounted for 2% of the variance in time demands ($\Delta R^2 = .022$, $p < .05$) and 13% of the variance in energy demands ($\Delta R^2 = .13$, $p < .001$). These results provide support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2: The Relationship Between Non-work Role Demands and Work Engagement.

Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relationship between non-work role demands and work engagement. Specifically, the time and energy devoted to non-work roles would detract from one's ability to engage in work. To test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor rating differences, job demands, and number of roles participated) were entered into the regression analysis in Step 1, followed by each of the non-work role

demands (time and energy) in Step 2. The non-significant beta coefficients (Step 2) for time demands ($\beta = -.06, p < .447$) and energy demands ($\beta = .09, p < .428$), and the non-significant change in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .585$) indicated no support for Hypothesis 2.

Results for this analysis are presented in Table 7.

Hypothesis 2: Post Hoc Analysis

Because no support was found for Hypothesis 2, the hypothesis was reexamined using two separate dimensions of energy. As discussed in Chapter 4, both physical and emotional dimensions of energy were measured.

The data were reexamined to determine whether the results changed when the two dimensions of energy were analyzed separately (Table 8). After the control variables were entered in Step 1, emotional energy and physical energy (as well as time demands) were entered in the second step. As expected, emotional energy was negatively related to work engagement (emotional: $\beta = -.34, p < .05$). However, contrary to expectations, physical energy was positively related to work engagement (emotional: $\beta = .41, p < .01$). Additional post hoc analyses indicated that emotional energy was also negatively related to job performance ($\beta = -.41, p < .001$).

Hypothesis 2a: The Moderating Effect of a Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationships Between Non-work Role Demands (Time and Energy) and Work Engagement.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that the negative relationship between non-work demands and work engagement would be significantly weaker for individuals who perceive their organization's environment as supportive of their non-work role participation. After entering the control variables in Step 1 and each of the non-work role

demands (time and energy) in Step 2, non-work supportive perceptions was entered into the regression model in Step 3. The interaction between each of the non-work demands and non-work supportive perceptions were entered in Step 4.

As seen in Table 7, the variance accounted for by all variables in the model was 16% ($R^2 = .16$, $p < .001$), with the addition of the interaction terms in Step 4 accounting for 3% ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$) of the variance. The beta coefficient for the interaction term between time demands and a non-work supportive organizational environment was significant ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$); however, the regression coefficient for the interaction term between energy demands and a non-work supportive organizational environment was non-significant ($\beta = .10$, $p < .181$).

In order to determine whether the hypothesized direction of the interaction was supported, the significant interaction between time demands and a non-work supportive organizational environment was plotted. Contrary to predictions, Figure 3 indicates a negative relation between time demands and work engagement for individuals who perceive their organization as supportive of their involvement in non-work roles and a positive relation for individuals employed by less supportive organizations. Therefore, no support was found for H2a.

Hypothesis 2a: Post Hoc Analysis

In order to probe Hypothesis 2a more deeply, the interaction between each of the dimensions of energy (emotional and physical) and perceptions of a non-work supportive organizational environment was examined (Table 8). A significant beta coefficient for emotional energy X non-work supportive organizational environment emerged ($\beta = .29$, $p < .05$). In order to determine whether the direction of the interaction was as expected, the

interaction was plotted (Figure 4). As expected, the negative relation between emotional energy demands and work engagement was attenuated by a non-work supportive organizational environment.

Hypothesis 3. The Relationship Between Work Engagement and Job Performance.

Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive relation between work engagement and job performance. In order to test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor rating differences, job demands, and number of roles in which individuals participated) were entered into the regression model in Step 1, followed by work engagement in Step 2. An examination of the regression coefficient ($\beta = .01, p < .912$) and the lack of change in R^2 (.000) indicated no support for Hypothesis 3. The results of this regression are shown in Table 9.

In order to examine the relationship between work engagement and job performance more closely, a number of post-hoc analyses were performed. For example, it might be expected that the demanding nature of a job could influence the relationship between work engagement and job performance, however an analysis of the moderating effect of job demands revealed non-significant results ($\beta = .01, p < .928$). A number of similar analyses were conducted, however, no significant results were revealed.

Hypotheses 4 and 4a: The Relationships Between Non-work Role Commitment, Non-work Demands and Resource Acquisition.

Hypothesis 4 predicted a positive relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition. That is, the more extensively an individual is committed to non-work roles, the greater the resources that will be acquired from those roles. In order to test this relationship, the control variables (supervisor rating differences, job demands,

and number of roles in which individuals participated) were entered into the regression model in Step 1, followed by non-work role commitment in Step 2. An examination of the beta coefficient ($\beta = .28, p < .001$) and significant change in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .034, p < .001$) revealed support for Hypothesis 4 (Table 10a).

Hypothesis 4a predicted that non-work demands would mediate the relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition. In following Baron and Kenny (1986), the first step in testing a mediated effect is to establish a significant relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition ($\beta = .283, p < .001$). Next, the relationship between non-work role commitment and non-work role demands was examined for significance (time: $\beta = .23, p < .05$, energy: $\beta = .55, p < .001$) (Tables 10b & 10c). Finally, the relationships between each of the non-work demands and resource acquisition were examined. This analysis revealed a significant relationship between energy demands and resource acquisition ($\beta = .48, p < .001$), but not time demands ($\beta = .01, p < .775$) (Table 10d). Therefore, according to Baron and Kenny (1986), time demands could not mediate the relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.

To determine if energy demands mediate the relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition, energy demands was entered in Step 3 of the regression model. An examination of the results of the regression model (see Table 10e) indicate that energy demands fully mediate the relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition, as the beta coefficient of non-work role commitment lost significance (overall effect of non-work role commitment, $\beta = .283, p <$

.001, with energy demands controlled. in Step 3, $\beta = .03$, $p < .707$). Therefore, support was found for Hypothesis 4 and partial support was found for Hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 5. The Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive relation between resource acquisition and job performance (19 item measure). The control variables were entered in the first step of the regression model, followed by resource acquisition in Step 2. An examination of the beta coefficient ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .05$) and the change in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .020$, $p < .05$) indicated a significant relationship between resource acquisition and job performance (Table 11); however, the direction was contrary to my expectation. A negative relation was found between resource acquisition and job performance suggesting that the more resources acquired from non-work roles, the lower the job performance. Thus, no support was found for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5a. The Moderating Effect of Career Commitment on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance.

Hypothesis 5a predicted that career commitment moderates the relationship between three of the resources acquired from non-work roles (skills, information and social contacts) and job performance, such that the positive relationship would be stronger for career committed individuals. Specifically, it was expected that individuals who are highly committed to their careers would be more likely to apply the resources gained from non-work role participation (skills, information and social contacts) to enhance their job performance than individuals who are less committed to their careers. In order to test this relationship, the interaction term between a composite score of the three resources and career commitment was entered in Step 3 of the regression model.

An examination of the beta coefficient ($\beta = -.01, p < .857$) indicated no support for Hypothesis 5a. Table 12 provides the results of the regression analysis.

Hypothesis 5a: Post Hoc Analysis

In light of the unsupported hypotheses, additional potential moderating variables were examined. It might be expected that the length of time an individual is employed in his or her current job would have an impact on the relationship between the skills, information and social contacts acquired from non-work role participation and job performance. An examination of the moderating effect of job tenure revealed that the interaction term between the composite measure of the three resources and job tenure came close to significance ($\beta = .13, p < .071$) when measured by the 19-item composite measure of job performance, and was significant ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) when predicting job performance as measured by the general 2-item scale. Table 13 provides the results of these regressions analyses.

In order to determine whether the moderated effect was in the expected direction, the significant interaction between the three resources (skills, information and social contacts) and job tenure was plotted (Figure 5). As expected, a positive relationship between resource acquisition and job performance was found for individuals with high job tenure; however the relationship was negative for those with low job tenure.

The numbering of the following hypotheses has been altered due to the combining of the managerial perceived career commitment and managerial perceived organizational commitment variables.

Hypotheses 6 and 7. The Relationships of Job Performance and Work Engagement with Managerial Perceived Work Commitment.

Hypothesis 6 predicted a positive relation between job performance and managerial perceived work commitment. Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive relationship between work engagement and managerial perceived work commitment. The control variables were entered in Step 1 of the regression followed by job performance and work engagement in Step 2. As can be seen in Table 14, the beta coefficient for job performance ($\beta = .45, p < .001$) indicated support for Hypothesis 6. However, no support was found for Hypothesis 7 as the coefficient for work engagement was non-significant ($\beta = .09, p < .164$). The variance explained by all of the variables in the model was 47% ($R^2 = .47, p < .001$), with the addition of job performance and work engagement accounting for 18% of the variance.

Hypotheses 8 and 9. The Relationships of Managerial Perceived Work Commitment and Job Performance with Career Growth Prospects.

Hypothesis 8 predicted positive relations between managerial perceived work commitment and the two indicators of career growth prospects (i.e., structural growth and content growth). Hypothesis 9 predicted a positive direct effect of job performance on the two indicators of career growth prospects. To test these hypotheses, two regression analyses were performed (one for structural growth and one for content growth) (see Table 15). In each analysis, the control variables were entered in Step 1 followed by job

performance in step 2. The beta coefficients and the significance of the change in R^2 for job performance were examined for significance in each model (structural: $\beta = .07$, $p < .154$; $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $p < .154$; content: $\beta = .37$, $p < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .11$, $p < .001$). Managerial perceived work commitment was then entered in Step 3 of the regression models. An examination of the regression models indicated partial support for Hypothesis 8 as the beta coefficient for managerial perceived work commitment was significant for content career growth ($\beta = .345$, $p < .001$), but not for structural career growth ($\beta = .08$, $p < .180$).

Partial support was also found for Hypothesis 9 as the beta coefficient for job performance remained significant in Step 3 of the content career growth model ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$). The variance accounted for by all variables in the model was 45% ($R^2 = .45$, $p < .001$), with the addition of managerial perceived work commitment in the final step accounting for 7% of the variance ($\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .001$).

Model of Career Growth Prospects – Structural Equation Modeling (AMOS)

The current study proposed a mediated model that hypothesized a number of relationships between study variables. The examination of the linkages between each of the study variables was an integral part of the study. However, the overarching goal of this study was to examine the impact of non-work role commitment on individuals' career growth prospects. Therefore, the overall model of career growth prospects was explored using AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle, 1999). This model examined non-work demands, resource acquisition, work engagement, job performance, and managerial perceived work commitment as the mediating mechanisms between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects. The impact of a non-work supportive organizational environment and career commitment as moderating variables was also examined in

subsequent analyses. Due to the relatively small sample size (N=186 matched pairs), an observed variable model, rather than a latent variable model was examined.

Results of the general model of career growth prospects (without moderators) indicated significant positive relationships between non-work role commitment and time demands ($\beta = .409$, $p < .001$), energy demands and resource acquisition ($\beta = .387$, $p < .001$), job performance and managerial perceived work commitment ($\beta = .483$, $p < .001$) and managerial perceived work commitment and content career growth prospects ($\beta = .310$, $p < .001$). However, overall, the hypothesized model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 693.82$, $df = 156$, $p < .001$; GFI = .75; AGI = .61; RMSEA = .09).

Although the overall model was found to be non-significant, subsequent analyses were conducted to determine the impact of the hypothesized moderators. To examine the moderating effect of a non-work supportive organizational environment on the relationships between the non-work demands (time and energy) and work engagement, two models were run. The relationship between each of the non-work demands and work engagement was constrained in the lower group to that of the higher group. The chi-square statistic was examined to test the difference in the two models. Results of the analyses suggest that the supportiveness of an organization's environment for non-work role participation may indeed influence the relationships between non-work time demands and work engagement ($\Delta \chi^2 = 38.1$, $df = 1$) and non-work energy demands and work engagement ($\Delta \chi^2 = 41.0$, $df = 1$).

Similarly, to examine the moderating effect of career commitment on the relationship between resource acquisition and job performance, two models were run constraining the relationship in the lower group to that of that of the higher group. The

chi square statistic was examined to test the difference in the two models. Results indicated that career commitment did not significantly influence the relationship between the resources acquired from non-work role commitment and job performance ($\Delta \chi^2 = 3.05, df = 1$). Because the overall model was non-significant, no further analyses were performed.

Forthcoming Chapter

Chapter 5 discussed the results of the correlation and regression analyses conducted in the current study. The hierarchical regression analyses used to test the hypotheses revealed some interesting findings. While not all of the hypotheses were supported, the results offer interesting insights into the impact of non-work role commitment on career outcomes, and provide a number of avenues for future research. Chapter 6, the final chapter, provides a detailed analysis of the results of the study, discusses the contributions to the literature, and provides suggestions for future research.

Chapter 6: Discussion

Chapter 6 discusses and integrates the major findings of the study. The chapter begins with a review of the purpose of the study, including the research questions, followed by an exploration into the results of the hypotheses. A discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the research is provided. Next, the methodological limitations of the study are addressed, and the chapter concludes with a discussion of areas for future research.

Gaps in the Literature and Study Research Questions

A number of demographic, social and organizational changes have raised new issues for research on the implications of non-work role involvement for employees' careers. Increasing numbers of women, single parents and dual-earner couples are entering the workforce. Moreover, an aging population has led to an increase in responsibilities for many of these employees to include the care of elderly dependents (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998). Coupled with this, new economic forces, such as global competition and advances in technology, are creating an unprecedented need for committed employees (Brett & Stroh, 2003). As a result, today's employees are faced with increasing personal and organizational responsibilities, making it difficult to balance the demands of their personal lives with successful careers.

Although much has been written about the effects of combining work and non-work roles, we know relatively little about the ways in which employees' participation in non-work roles affects their career outcomes. Given the importance that today's employees place on achieving balance between their work and non-work roles, an

examination of the ways in which active involvement in personal life impacts career prospects is important.

This research presents a model describing the relationship between individuals' commitment to non-work roles and their career growth prospects. The model drew from theories of work non-work conflict and work non-work enrichment, as well as the careers literature to develop and test a model that examined *the relationship between commitment to non-work roles and career growth prospects*. More specifically, this study sought to explain *the conditions under which commitment to non-work roles may have beneficial and harmful effects on two facets of career growth prospects – structural and content growth*.

Discussion of Findings

A number of hypotheses were proposed to address the relationship between an individual's commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects. In general, the model predicted that participation in roles outside of work would provide opportunities to enrich one's career prospects, and/or detract from one's career prospects depending on certain individual and organizational variables.

The data in this study did not indicate an overall relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects. Nonetheless, a number of interesting relationships among the linking variables in the model were revealed. The following sections discuss these findings.

The Conflict Path. From the conflict perspective, it was expected that the demands associated with non-work role commitment would negatively impact an employee's ability to fully engage in his or her work, thereby hindering job performance.

In turn, low work engagement and poor job performance were expected to negatively affect a manager's perception that the employee is committed to his or her work, which would ultimately have negative implications for the individual's career growth prospects. It was further expected that the supportiveness of an organizations environment would moderate the relationship between non-work demands and work engagement such that individuals employed by organizations that support their involvement in personal life roles would be able to better juggle their work and non-work responsibilities than their less supported counterparts, and therefore, be able to more fully engage in their work.

This study provided support for the notion that individuals extensively committed to non-work roles experience significantly more demands on their time and energy than individuals who are less extensively committed to non-work roles. Specifically, the more psychologically committed individuals are to non-work roles, the more time and energy they invest in those roles. This finding supports Kahn et al's (1964) theoretical research on the role episode, and is consistent with prior empirical research suggesting that individuals place more demands upon themselves and invest more of their personal resources in roles for which they are highly committed (Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St. Claire, 1992; Stryker & Serpe, 1994).

Interestingly, the relationships between the demands associated with non-work roles and work engagement varied by the type of demand. As expected, the emotional energy devoted to non-work roles hindered an individual's ability to engage in work. Moreover, post hoc analyses revealed that emotional energy devoted to non-work roles also hindered one's job performance. These findings lend support to scarcity theory, which suggests that the greater the resources devoted to one role, the fewer resources

available for other roles (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Moreover, these findings are consistent with previous research on strain-based conflict, which suggests that the strain resulting from membership in one role may negatively affect participation in other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Perhaps, emotional energy is indeed a limited resource and the more emotional energy individuals devote to one role, the less available for participation in other roles. Ultimately, without an adequate amount of emotional energy to devote to a particular role, for example the work role, one's ability to engage in and perform in that role may decline.

As expected, the supportiveness of an organization's environment for non-work role participation did mitigate the negative impact of non-work emotional energy demands on work engagement. This finding is consistent with previous research which has found that a supportive environment can reduce the conflict individuals experience from competing work and non-work demands, and mitigate negative work related consequences (Allen, 2001; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). For example, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that employees who worked for organizations that were supportive of their involvement in family life experienced a greater sense of control over their work and family responsibilities, which in turn reduced their perceptions of conflict and strain and increased their job satisfaction. Perhaps in the current study, individuals who perceived their organizations as supportive of their personal life experienced lower levels of stress and strain and were better able to juggle their work and non-work responsibilities than their less supported counterparts. Thus, these individuals were able to more fully engage in their work.

Surprisingly, the physical energy devoted to non-work roles was positively related to work engagement, suggesting that the physical energy put into non-work roles may actually enhance one's ability to engage in work. This finding lends support for Mark's (1977) expansion hypothesis, which views the supply of energy as abundant and expandable. Marks (1977) suggested that individuals who are psychologically committed to multiple roles find enough energy to participate effectively in all roles and that participation in some roles may actually create energy that can be used in other roles. Apparently, for these legal secretaries, being physically active in their personal lives provided them with the physical energy necessary to be highly engaged in their work.

Contrary to expectations, the data indicated that the time devoted to non-work roles negatively impacted work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as highly supportive, whereas the time devoted to non-work roles enhanced work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as less supportive. Although it was expected that a supportive organizational environment would help employees to better juggle their work and non-work responsibilities, thereby mitigating the negative implications of non-work time demands on work engagement (Allen, 2001; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999), it is possible that employees who perceive their organizations as supportive of their personal life take advantage of the support. Perhaps individuals who perceive their organizations as supportive use the generosity of the organization to their benefit and allow their personal issues and responsibilities to intrude on, and distract from, their engagement in work. It is further possible that employees who perceive their organizations as unsupportive of their non-work participation make significant efforts to leave their personal life outside of

work, and while at work, focus their efforts on their jobs to comply with the unsupportive nature of their organization.

Surprisingly, no relationship was found between work engagement and job performance. It was expected that one's ability to engage physically, cognitively and emotionally in the work role would enhance his or her job performance (Kahn, 1990, 1992). However, it is possible that the degree of engagement necessary for effective performance may vary by the type and or level of job. Kahn (1990, 1992) argued that people use varying degrees of their selves in the roles that they perform, and the more people draw on their selves, the better their role performances. However, from the limited amount of empirical evidence that has examined the relationship between engagement and performance, it appears that perhaps performance is enhanced through the creativity and innovation resulting from engagement (Kahn, 1990, 1992). It is plausible that for the current sample, engagement may not be a requirement for effective performance due to the types of duties and responsibilities associated with the job. In essence, perhaps secretarial duties do not require one to possess attributes such as creativity and innovation, and therefore, engagement in one's work is not necessary for successful performance.

In summary of the negative path, the data suggest that individuals extensively committed to non-work roles experience significantly more demands on their time and energy than individuals who are less extensively committed to non-work roles. Somewhat surprising, however, is the fact that the time and energy devoted to non-work roles has mixed effects on an individuals' ability to engage in work. The time and emotional energy devoted to non-work roles detracts from work engagement, while the

physical energy devoted to non-work roles actually enhances one's ability to engage in work. A non-work supportive organizational environment helps to mitigate the negative impact of emotional energy demands on work engagement, but has no effect on the impact of physical energy on work engagement. Interestingly, the time devoted to non-work roles was negatively related to work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as highly supportive, whereas the time devoted to non-work roles enhanced work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as less supportive.

The Enrichment Path. From the enrichment perspective, commitment to non-work roles was expected to provide resources that could be used to enhance job performance. Enhanced job performance would then prompt management to perceive an employee as committed to his or her work, and in turn, career growth prospects would be enhanced.

It was further expected that career commitment would moderate the relationship between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance, such that career committed employees were expected to be more motivated to transfer the resources to enhance their job performance than employees less committed to their career.

This study provided support for the idea that individuals acquire resources from their commitment to non-work roles. Specifically, the more extensively an individual is committed to non-work roles, the greater the resources (i.e., enriched interpersonal and task related skills, broadened perspectives, increased self-esteem and confidence, and social capital) acquired from those roles. This finding is consistent with role theory, which suggests that participation in social roles provides individuals with opportunities to

acquire role-specific resources (Kahn et al., 1964). Moreover, this finding also supports the early work of Marks (1977) who argued that resources may be created from roles for which individuals are psychologically committed. As Kahn, et al. (1964) would suggest, it is likely that in the current study, individuals psychologically committed to non-work roles meet the role-related responsibilities set by the social expectations of those roles, and as a result receive desired and valued resources.

This finding also supports recent empirical research which has identified specific sets of resources that may be generated from non-work role participation. For example, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that individuals may acquire similar resources, such as skills and perspectives, psychological resources, and social capital from their participation in family life. Moreover, Ruderman, et al. (2002) found that managerial women acquired resources including opportunities to enrich interpersonal skills, psychological benefits, and enhanced handling of multiple tasks from their participation in personal life roles. The findings of this study lend further support to the notion that individuals do indeed acquire resources from their commitment to non-work life roles.

As expected, the energy devoted to non-work roles partially mediated the relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition. This finding suggests that individuals acquire resources not only directly through role participation, but also as a result of their investment of energy in non-work roles.

Contrary to expectations, results indicated a negative rather than positive relationship between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance. That is, the greater the resources acquired from non-work role participation, the lower the job performance. This finding was surprising in light of the

significant amount of theoretical work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz, 2002) and empirical evidence indicating that participation in non-work roles can, indeed, enrich experiences in the work role (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Jacobs, 1992; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Landau & Arthur, 1992; Melamed, 1996; Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004; Pfeffer & Ross, 1992; Ruderman et al., 2002; Schneer & Reitman, 1993).

Also contrary to expectations, career commitment did not moderate the relationships of the resources of interpersonal and task related skills and social capital, with job performance. The initial rationale for career commitment as a moderator was that career committed individuals would be more motivated to transfer resources to enhance their job performance than individuals less committed to their career. Post hoc analyses conducted to investigate possible reasons for the lack of support revealed that job tenure played a significant role in the relationship between the non-work resources and job performance. Specifically, the interpersonal and task related skills and social capital acquired from non-work role participation were positively related to job performance for individuals with longer job tenure. Perhaps individuals who have been employed in their current positions for longer periods of time have greater knowledge of their job requirements, and are better able to transfer the resources that they believe are necessary to enhance their performance than employees who have been employed in their current positions for shorter periods of time. This finding suggests that rather than *motivation*, perhaps it is one's *ability* that influences the transference of resources from one role to another.

The Relationships of Job Performance and Work Engagement with Managerial Perceived Work Commitment

The expectation that job performance and work engagement would be positively related to managerial perceived work commitment was based on attribution theory (Heider, 1954), which focuses on how people make casual explanations. The theory is concerned with the ways in which people explain, or attribute, the behavior of others. It suggests that individuals make attributions based on relevant cues and observable behaviors and automatically categorize others by those cues. In the current study, job performance and work engagement were expected to represent two cues from which management would base their perceptions of an employee's work commitment. As expected, job performance was found to be positively related to managerial perceived work commitment; however, surprisingly, no relationship was found between work engagement and managerial perceived work commitment. One plausible explanation is that work engagement may not be as outwardly visible to a manager as job performance. Specifically, job performance is an easily observable, objective outcome, whereas work engagement is a more subtle cue that may not be as easily observed by management. It is also possible that the expected relation was not found due to the characteristics of the sample. Perhaps the ability to engage in work is not of critical importance for employees at the secretarial level. It is reasonable to believe that in the secretarial field, the extent to which an employee simply fulfills his or her job requirements may serve as the most important cue from which a manager may make inferences about the employee's motivation to commit to his or her work. Specifically, the degree to which tasks are performed effectively may be an important factor in determining commitment more so

than the degree to which employees are physically, cognitively and emotionally engaged in their job tasks.

The Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects.

Consistent with expectations, both job performance and managerial perceived work commitment were found to be positively related to content career growth prospects. Specifically, individuals with high levels of job performance and individuals for whom management perceives as committed to their work are more likely to receive opportunities to broaden their career through new challenges and increased responsibilities within their current position. These findings are consistent with previous research examining the exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates. For example, Feldman (1981) argues that once an employee is categorized, for example, as being committed to work, an exchange relationship develops between the manager and the employee (Feldman, 1981, 1986), and this relationship can affect managerial behaviors toward the employee. Moreover, Green and Mitchell's (1979) attribution model of leadership suggests that subordinate performance observed by a manager is translated into the manager's behavioral response based on his or her attributions as to the causes of the subordinate's behavior. Thus, in the current study, perhaps employees who are categorized as committed to their work are then perceived as deserving of opportunities for career growth. Moreover, perhaps employees seen as effective performers are deemed capable of handling increased responsibilities in terms of increased opportunities and challenges within their current job.

Contrary to expectations, neither job performance nor managerial perceived work commitment were significantly related to structural career growth prospects. This finding may be reflective of the study population in that opportunities for structural growth for these employees seem to be limited or non-existent. This is evidenced by a mean of 2.18 and standard deviation of 1.15, with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 5, for the structural growth variable. This is compared to a mean of 3.24 and standard deviation of .71 for the content growth variable.

In sum, although the data for the current study did not provide evidence for an overall relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects, a number of interesting and important relationships were discovered. It can be said that extensive psychological commitment to non-work roles provides individuals with both non-work role demands (time and energy) as well as resources. From the conflict perspective, the findings suggest that the energy required to participate in non-work roles has mixed effects on an individual's ability to engage in work. Specifically, the emotional demands associated with non-work roles detract from an individual's ability to engage (as well as perform) at work, while the physical energy associated with non-work role participation actually enhances work engagement. Organizations perceived as supportive of individuals' personal life help mitigate the negative implications of the emotional energy demands on work engagement. With respect to the time demands, the data indicated that the time devoted to non-work roles negatively impact work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as highly supportive, whereas the time devoted to non-work roles enhances work engagement for individuals who perceive their organizations as less supportive.

From the enrichment perspective, results indicated that overall, the resources acquired from non-work role participation hindered individuals' job performance; however, a specific set of resources (the interpersonal and task related skills and social capital) enhanced job performance, at least for individuals who were employed in their current jobs for a substantial period of time.

The study further indicated that job performance acted as a cue from which a manager may base perception of an employee's commitment to his or her work. Moreover, both job performance and managerial perceived work commitment influenced an individual's content career growth prospects such that effective performers and employees perceived as committed to their work were deemed more likely to receive opportunities to grow and learn within their current job as compared to less effective performers or employees perceived as less committed to their work.

Theoretical Contributions of the Study

The present study has contributed to the work/non-work and careers literatures in several ways. First, this study provided an initial look at the relationship between an individual's psychological commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects. The vast amount of research on multiple role involvement has focused on the impact of combining work and non-work roles on physical and psychological health (see Barnett & Hyde, 2001 for a review). Only recently has research begun to examine the impact of non-work role participation on work-related outcomes (Ohlott, Graves, & Ruderman, 2004; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). Moreover, much of the previous research has examined role participation based simply on role occupancy rather than role commitment. Based on this initial study, it can be said that an individual's

psychological commitment to personal life roles can, and does, have an impact on his or her career opportunities, perhaps not directly, but through several linking mechanisms.

This study has further contributed to the literature by testing the co-occurrence of the conflict and enrichment hypotheses. By examining these processes within one study, a better understanding of the ways in which commitment to personal life roles is related to career growth prospects was achieved. The findings from this study suggest that the processes of conflict and enrichment can, and do, co-exist. However, it appears that the negative implications of the conflict may outweigh the positive effects of enrichment.

The data indicated that the demands associated with non-work role participation (emotional energy and time) hindered an individual's ability to engage in work. Moreover, the demands (emotional energy) as well as the resources examined in this study negatively impacted job performance. In turn, job performance acted as a cue from which management based perceptions of an employee's commitment to his or her work, and ultimately, job performance and commitment perceptions influenced an employee's content career growth prospects.

Fortunately, there were indeed positive implications associated with non-work participation. It can be said that the physical energy one devotes to non-work role participation is positively related to work engagement and that certain resources (interpersonal and task related skills and social capital) are positively related to job performance, at least for employees with significant job tenure. However, based on the results of this study, it appears that the negative implications associated with non-work role commitment may indeed outweigh the positive.

A third contribution this study makes to the work / non-work literature is the examination of specific resources that may be acquired from non-work role participation. Several researchers have speculated a number of resources that may be acquired through an individual's participation in non-work roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Sieber, 1974; Voydanoff, 2004), however, this is one of the first studies to quantitatively assess specific resources (i.e., interpersonal and task-related skills, broadened perspectives, self-esteem and confidence, and social capital). The findings suggest that individuals do indeed garner specific resources from non-work role participation and that these resources have the potential to influence work related outcomes. Moreover, the findings of this study provide initial evidence that resources may be acquired not only directly through role participation, but also as a result of the investment of energy in non-work roles.

Similarly, this study also examined specific demands associated with non-work role commitment. Although the work / non-work literature often discusses the notion of energy usage or creation (Mark, 1977; Sieber, 1974), a review of the literature revealed little in the way of a measurement tool. Therefore, a 20 item measure was developed to ascertain the degree to which individuals expend energy in their non-work role participation. Findings from this newly developed scale indicated that individuals do indeed devote significant physical and emotional energy to roles for which they are psychologically committed. Moreover, both dimension of energy (physical and emotional) significantly influenced an individual's ability to engage in work. Interestingly, physical energy enhanced work engagement, while emotional energy detracted from it.

As for the careers literature, this study provides an initial look at the impact of psychological commitment to non-work roles on career growth prospects. As indicated previously, much of the multiple role literature has focused on health related outcomes rather than career related outcomes. This study provides a first step at better understanding the relationship between active participation in personal life and future career opportunities. Although the data in this study did not indicate an overall relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects, a number of interesting relationships were discovered. For example, it can be said that an individual's psychological commitment to non-work roles is positively related to his or her job performance through the resources acquired from non-work role commitment as well as through the emotional energy exerted in non-work roles. Further, job performance represented one cue from which management based their perceptions of an employee's work commitment. Moreover, both job performance and managerial perceived work commitment were found to be positively related to one's content career growth prospects.

Contributions to Practice

Several practical implications can also be derived from the findings of this study. First, the findings shed light on the positive implications of a non-work supportive organizational environment. For many organizations, meeting the personal needs of employees has become a strategic imperative. Global competition for human resources has made an organization's ability to facilitate work-life balance an important competitive factor in attracting talent (Poelmans, 2005). The results of this study indicated that the supportiveness of an organization may indeed help employees juggle work and non-work responsibilities. Specifically, organizations that support employees'

non-work involvement help mitigate the negative implications of non-work demands on employees' work engagement. Thus, an organizational environment that is supportive of an employee's personal life may indeed help the employee to better handle the stress and strain associated with juggling work and non-work roles, thereby helping him or her to be more highly engaged in work.

For individuals committed to multiple life roles, this study offers insight into the benefits as well as the challenges that their personal lives impose on their careers. For example, this study has identified a number of resources that individuals may acquire from their non-work role participation. Moreover, this study has articulated specific demands associated with participation in personal life. Perhaps this study will make employees cognizant of these resources and demands and the impact they may have on their performance and engagement at work.

Limitations of the Research and Opportunities for Future Research

As with all research, this study has methodological limitations. First, despite certain benefits, the cross-sectional research design of the study does not permit causal inferences to be made (Judd et al., 1991). The results of the cross-sectional research indicate the presence of concurrent relationships, and although directionality is theoretically grounded, only research of a longitudinal nature can assess the temporal nature of the relationships.

The use of surveys as a method of data collection can also be considered a limitation to the study as self-report questionnaires have the potential for allowing bias due to common method variance. However, both supervisor and subordinate data were obtained in this study, which helps reduce this limitation.

In addition, the sample utilized in the study may limit the generalizability of the findings. Since virtually all of the respondents were female, generalizing the findings to a male population should be done with caution. Future research should examine the research questions posed in this study under a more heterogeneous population as there has been ongoing debate with respect to the gender differences associated with multiple role involvement. For example, do the resources and demands resulting from non-work role commitment differ between men and women? Does the impact of the resources and demands on work outcomes vary by gender? Finally, does the overall impact of non-work commitment on career growth prospects differ for men and women?

Similarly, because the current sample was composed solely of secretarial employees in the legal profession, an examination of higher-level employees or employees in additional occupational fields could help us to better understand the implications of non-work role participation on the career growth prospects for those striving to climb the corporate ladder or pursuing careers in other professions.

Another limitation of the current study involves the relatively small sample size (N=186 matched pairs) which precluded the examination of a latent variable AMOS structural model. Rather, an observed variable model was tested, which failed to reveal a good fit between the data and the model.

The current study examined two potential moderators of the relationship between non-work role commitment and career growth prospects – perceptions of a supportive organizational environment and career commitment. Organizational support played a significant moderating role in the model and revealed some interesting findings for which future research should attempt to explain. Specifically, why did perceptions of a

supportive environment mitigate the negative implications of emotional energy demands on work engagement, but have an opposite effect on time demands?

Career commitment, as a moderator, did not play a significant role in the study model. Future research should explore additional individual and organizational variables that may influence the relationship between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance. For example, as Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest, perhaps the degree to which the resources acquired from non-work role participation are transferred to enhance job performance depends on the fit of the resource with the receiving role. Future research should examine additional moderators which may help us better understand the conditions under which the resources acquired from non-work participation may enhance job performance.

Another area for future research involves a deeper exploration into the resources that may be acquired from non-work role participation. While a number of resources have been identified in the literature as potentially being acquired from role participation, the current study examined only four of these resources. Other resources such as physical health, material resources, and emotional advice may indeed be acquired through non-work role participation, yet have not been examined in the literature (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ruderman, et al. 2002).

Another interesting area for future research involves a deeper examination of the work engagement construct. The current study defined work engagement as one's physical, emotional and cognitive investment in the work role (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Based on the results of the current study, the degree to which work engagement impacts organizational outcomes is questionable. Future research should examine the construct

more closely to determine if perhaps the degree to which engagement is necessary depends on the nature of the job. For example, would engagement play a more significant role in managerial or professional jobs where such attributes as creativity and innovation are requirements of effective job performance?

In addition, an examination of the work engagement construct from the manager's perspective would allow for a better understanding of whether or not the construct is distinct from other organizational constructs, such as job performance or work involvement, particularly in the eyes of the practitioner.

One final area for future research involves a closer examination of the managerial perceived work commitment construct. Initially, this study theorized that managerial perceived organizational commitment and managerial perceived career commitment were two distinct constructs. However, analyses of the two constructs revealed a very high correlation between the two. Moreover, a factor analysis of the 10 managerial perceived work commitment constructs revealed only one factor, which included 9 of the 10 items. Future research should examine managerial perceptions of work commitment to determine if two separate commitment constructs do indeed exist. It is possible that managers do not distinguish between the types of commitment and simply classify an employee as committed or uncommitted. This research would shed light on the differences between self-reported commitment and commitment as perceived by the practitioner.

In sum, the current study sought to determine the relationship between an individual's psychological commitment to non-work roles and his or her career growth prospects. Although an overall relationship was not found, several interesting

relationships were uncovered. From the findings, we can say that we do indeed invest significant time and energy into roles for which we are highly committed. However, we also acquire important resources from our participation in those roles. It can further be concluded that the demands influence our ability to engage in work and the resources influence our job performance, although not in the way expected.

Another important accomplishment of this study involves the findings regarding job performance, managerial perceived work commitment and career growth prospects. Specifically, managers perceive employees who performed effectively as more committed to their work than employees who performed less effectively. Moreover, high performers and committed employees (as perceived by their manager) are more likely to receive greater opportunities to growth within their current jobs. Specifically, these individuals are more likely to receive opportunities to grow and learn within their current positions.

List of References

1. Allen, T. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 414-435.
2. Allen, N., & Meyer, J. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
3. Allen, T., & Rush, M. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 247-260.
4. Allen, T., Russell, J., & Rush, M. (1994). The effects of gender and leave of absence on attributions for high performance, perceived organizational commitment, and allocation of organizational rewards. *Sex Roles*, 31, 443-464.
5. Amatea, E.S., Cross, E.G., Clark, J.E., & Bobby, C.L. (1986). Assessing the work and family role expectations of career-oriented men and women: The Life Role Salience Scales. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48, 831-838.
6. Amatea, E., & Fong, M. (1991). The Impact of Role Stressors and Personal Resources on the Stress Experience of Professional Women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 419-430.
7. Aryee, S. & Tan, K. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of career commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 40, 288-305.
8. Bardwick, J.M. (1986). *The plateauing trap: How to avoid it in your career...and your life*. New York: Amacon.
9. Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.
10. Barnett, R., Davidson, H., & Marshall, N. (1991). Physical symptoms and the interplay of work and family roles. *Health Psychology*, 10, 94-101.
11. Barnett, R., & Hyde, J. (2001). Women, men, work, and family: A new theoretical view. *American Psychologist*, 56, 781-796.
12. Barnett, R., & Marshall, N. (1993). Men, family-role quality, job-role quality and physical health. *Health Psychology*, 12, 48-55.

13. Barnett, R., Marshall, N., & Pleck, J. (1992). Men's multiple roles and their relationship to men's psychological distress. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 54, 358-367.
14. Barnett, R., Marshall, N., & Sayer, A. (1992). Positive-spillover effects from job to home: A closer look. *Women and Health*, 19, 13-41.
15. Barnett, R., Marshall, N., & Singer, J. (1992). Job experiences over time, multiple roles, and women's mental health: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62, 634-644.
16. Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27, 95-112.
17. Becker, H. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66, 32-40.
18. Bedeian, A.G., Kemery E.R., Pizzolatto, A.B. (1991). Career Commitment and Expected Utility of Present Job as Predictors of Turnover Intention and Turnover Behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 39, 331-343.
19. Beehr, T., Taber, T., & Walsh, J. (1980). Perceived mobility channels: Criteria for intraorganizational job mobility. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 26, 250-264.
20. Bielby, D. (1992). Commitment to work and family. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 18, 281-302.
21. Blau, G. (1985). The measurement and prediction of career commitment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 58, 277-288.
22. Blau, G. (1988). Further exploring the meaning and measurement of career commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 32, 284-297.
23. Blau, G. (1989). Testing the generalizability of a career commitment measure and its impact on employee turnover. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 35, 88-103.
24. Blau, G., Paul, A., & St. John, N. (1993). On developing a general index of work commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 42, 298-314.
25. Bond, J., Galinsky, E., & Swanberg, J. (1998). The 1997 national study of the changing workforce. New York: Families and Work Institute.
26. Borman, W., & Motowidlo, S. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

27. Borman, W., White, L., & Dorsey, D. (1995). Effects of rate task performance and interpersonal factors on supervisor and peer ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 168-177.
28. Brett, J., & Stroh, L. (2003). Working 61 plus hours a week: Why do managers do it? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 67-78.
29. Bretz, R., & Judge, T. (1994). Person-organization fit and theory of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 44, 32-54.
30. Brutus, S., Ruderman, M., Ohlott, P., & McCauley, C. (2000). Developing from Job Experiences: The Role of Organization-Based Self-Esteem. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11, 367-380.
31. Burke, P., & Reitzes, D. (1991). An identity theory approach to commitment. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54, 239-251.
32. Campbell, J. (1990). Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1 (2nd. Ed., pp. 687-732). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
33. Carson, K.D., & Bedeian, A.G. (1994). Career commitment: Construction of a measure and examination of its psychometric properties. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 44, 237-262.
34. Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.
35. Cohen, A. (2003). *Multiple commitments in the workplace*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
36. Coser, L. (1974). *Greedy Institutions*. New York: Free Press.
37. Crouter, A. (1984). Spillover from family to work: The neglected side of the work-family interface. *Human Relations*, 37, 425-441.
38. Davenport, L.A. (1993). An examination of the relationships between career plateauing and job attitudes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee.
39. DeNisi, A., Cafferty, T., & Meglino, B. (1984). A cognitive view of the performance appraisal process: A model and research propositions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33, 360-396.

40. Edwards, J., & Rothbard, N. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 178-199.
41. Ettington, D.R. (1992). Coping with career plateauing: “face the facts” vs. “hope springs eternal”. Presented at Academy of Management Meeting, Las Vegas, NV.
42. Feldman, J. (1981). Beyond attribution theory: Cognitive processes in performance appraisal. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66, 127-148.
43. Feldman, J. (1986). A note of the statistical correction of halo error. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 173-176.
44. Ference, T.P., Stone, J.A., & Warren, E.K. (1977). Managing the career plateau. *Academy of Management Review*, 2, 602-612.
45. Friedman, S., & Greenhaus, J. (2000). *Allies or enemies? What happens when business professionals confront life choices*, New York: Oxford University Press.
46. Frone, M. (2000). Work-family conflict and employee psychiatric disorders: The National Co-morbidity Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 888-895.
47. Frone, M. (2003). Work-family balance. In J.C. Quick, Ed. *Handbook of Occupational Health Psychology*, American Psychological Society, Washington, DC: 143-162.
48. Frone, M., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 65-78.
49. Frye, K., & Breugh, J. (2004). Family-Friendly Policies, Supervisor Support, Work-Family Conflict, Family-Work Conflict, and Satisfaction: A Test of a Conceptual Model. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 19, 197-220.
50. Gemmill, G., & DeSalvia, D. (1977). The promotion beliefs of managers as a factor in career progress: An exploratory study. *Sloan Management Review*, 18, 75-81.
51. Glass, J. L. & Estes, S. B. (1996). Workplace support, child care, and turnover intentions among employed mothers of infants. *Journal of Family Issues*, 17, 317-335.
52. Godshalk, V.M. (1997). The effects of career plateauing on work and non-work outcomes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Drexel University.

53. Goode, W. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 483-496.
54. Graen, G., & Cashman, J.F. (1975). A Role-Making Model of Leadership in Formal Organizations: A Developmental Approach. In J.G. Hunt and L.L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers*, Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
55. Graen, G., & Scandura, T. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 9, 175-208.
56. Green, S., & Mitchell, T. (1979). Attributional processes of leaders in leader-member interactions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 23, 429-458.
57. Greenberger, E., & O'Neil, R. (1993). Spouse, parent, worker: Role commitments and role-related experiences in the construction of adults' well-being. *Developmental Psychology*, 29, 181-197.
58. Greenhaus, J. (1971). An investigation of the role of career salience in vocational behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 1, 209-216.
59. Greenhaus, J. (1973). A factorial investigation of career salience. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 3, 95-98.
60. Greenhaus, J., & Beutell, N. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Journal*, 10, 76-88.
61. Greenhaus, J., Callanan, G., & Godshalk, V. (2000). *Career management* (3rd Edition). Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.
62. Greenhaus, J., & Parasuraman, S. (1993). Job performance attributions and career advancement prospects: An examination of gender and race effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 55, 273-297.
63. Greenhaus, J., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. (1990). Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 64-86.
64. Greenhaus, J., & Powell, G. (2003). When work and family collide: Deciding between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90, 291-303.
65. Greenhaus, J., & Powell, G. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 72-92.
66. Greenhaus, J. & Simon, W. (1977). Career salience, work values, and vocational indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 10, 104-110.

67. Greenhaus, J., & Sklarew, N. (1981). Some sources and consequences of career exploration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 18, 1-12.
68. Grzywacz, J. (2002). Toward a theory of work-family facilitation. Paper presented at the 2002 Persons, Processes, and Places: Research on Families, Workplaces and Communities Conference. San Francisco.
69. Grzywacz, J., & Marks, N. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 111-126.
70. Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black, W.C. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
71. Hall, D.T. (1971), A theoretical model of career sub-identity development in organizational settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 3, 50-76.
72. Hall, D.T., & Richter, J. (1989). Balance work life and home life: What can organizations do to help? *Academy of Management Executive*, 2, 212-223.
73. Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: Wiley.
74. Heslin, P. (2005). Conceptualizing and evaluating career success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 113-136.
75. Hunt, J.G. (1991). *Leadership: A new synthesis*. NY: Sage.
76. Ilgen, D., & Hollenbeck, J. (1991). The structure of work: Job design and roles. Dunnette, Jacobs, J. (1992). Women's entry into management. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37, 282-301.
77. Jones, F., & Fletcher, B. (1996). Taking work home: A study of daily fluctuations in work stressors, effects on mood and impacts on marital partners. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69, 89-106.
78. Joseph, J. (1992). Plateauism and its effect on strain as moderated by career motivation and personal resources. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa.
79. Judd, C., Smith, E., & Kidder, L. (1991). *Research methods in social relations* (6th ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

80. Judge, T., Boudreau, J., & Bretz, R. (1994). Job and life attitudes of male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 767-782.
81. Judge, T., & Bretz, R. (1994). Political influence processes and career success. *Journal of Management*, 20, 43-65.
82. Kahn, W. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 692-724.
83. Kahn, W. (1992). To be fully there: Psychological presence at work. *Human Relations*, 45, 321-350.
84. Kahn, R., Wolfe, D., Quinn, R., Snoek, J., & Rosenthal, R. (1964). *Organizational Stress*. New York: Wiley.
85. Kandel, D., Davies, M., & Raveis, V. (1985). The stressfulness of daily social roles for women: Marital, occupational and household roles. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 26, 64-78.
86. Kanter, R. (1977). *Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy*, New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
87. Katz, D. & Kahn, R. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd Ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
88. Kessler, R., & McRae, J. (1982). The effects of wives' employment on the mental health of married men and women. *American Sociological Review*, 47, 216-227.
89. Keys, B., & Wolfe, J. (1988). Management education and development: Current issues and emerging trends. *Journal of Management*, 14, 205-229.
90. Kirchmeyer, C. (1992a). Nonwork participation and work attitudes: A test of scarcity vs. expansion models of personal resources. *Human Relations*, 45, 775-795.
91. Kirchmeyer, C. (1992b). Perceptions of nonwork-to-work spillover: Challenging the common view of conflict-ridden domain relationships. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 13, 231-249.
92. Kirchmeyer, C. (1993). Nonwork-to-work spillover. A more balanced view of the experiences and coping of professional women and men. *Sex Roles*, 28, 531-552.
93. Kirchmeyer, C. (1995). Managing the work-nonwork boundary: An assessment of organizational response. *Human Relations*, 48, 515-536.

94. Kossek, E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139-149.
95. Landau, J. & Arthur, M. B. (1992). The relationship of marital status, spouse's career status, and gender to salary level. *Sex Roles*, 27, 665-681.
96. Lawler, E., & Hall, D. (1970). Relationships of job characteristics to job involvement satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54, 305-312.
97. Lobel S. (1991). Allocation of investment in work and family roles: Alternative theories and implications for research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 16, 507-521.
98. Lobel, S., & St. Clair, L. (1992). Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*. 35, 1057-1069.
99. London, M., & Stumpf, S. (1983). Effects of candidate characteristics of management promotion decisions: An experimental study. *Personnel Psychology*, 42, 241-259.
100. Major, V. S., Klein, K. J., & Ehrhart, M. G. (2002). Work time, work interference with family, and psychological distress. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 427-436.
101. March, J., & Simon, H. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
102. Marks, S. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936.
103. Marvin D (Ed); Hough, Leaetta M (Ed). (1991). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, Vol. 2 (2nd ed.). (pp. 165-207).
104. Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W., & Leiter, M. (2001) Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397-422.
105. Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.
106. May, D., Gilson, R., & Harter, L. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 11-37.

107. McCauley, C., Ruderman, M., Ohlott, P., & Morrow, J. (1994). Assessing the developmental components of managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 544-560.
108. Melamed, T. (1996). Validation of a stage model of career success. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 45: 35-65.
109. Metz, I., & Tharenou, P. (2001). Women's career advancement: The relative contribution of human and social capital. *Group & Organization Management*, 26, 312-342.
110. Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1984). Testing the side bet of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 372-378.
111. Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resources Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
112. Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1993). Organizational commitment: Evidence of career stage effects? *Journal of Business Research*, 26, 49-61.
113. Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
114. Milliman, J.F. (1992). Causes, consequences, and moderating factors of career plateauing. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.
115. Mobley, W. (1982). Supervisor and employee race and sex effects on performance appraisals: A field study of adverse impact and generalizability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 598-606.
116. Morris, J. H. & Sherman, J. D. (1981). Generalizability of an organizational commitment model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, (3), 512-526.
117. Morrow, P. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 486-500.
118. Morrow, P. (1993). *The Theory and Measurement of Work Commitment*, JAI Press, Inc., Greenwich, CT.
119. Motowidlo, S. (2003). Job performance. In Borman, W. and Ilgen, D. (Eds), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology*, 12, pp. 39-53.

120. Mowday, R., Porter, L., & Steers, R. (1982). *Organizational linkage: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
121. Murphy, K. (1989). Dimensions of job performance. In R. Dillon and J. Pelligrino (eds.), *Testing: Applied and Theoretical Perspectives* (pp 218-47). New York: Praeger.
122. Murphy, K., Cleveland, J. (1995) *Understanding Performance Appraisal : Social, Organisational, and Goal-Based Perspectives*. London : Sage.
123. Naylor, J., Pritchard, R., & Ilgen, D. (1980). *A theory of behavior in organizations*. New York, Academic Press.
124. Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
125. Nunnally, J.C., & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
126. Ohlott, P., Graves, L., Ruderman, M. (2004). Commitment to family roles: Effects of managers' work attitudes and performance. Paper presented at the 2004 Academy of Management Conference of the Society. New Orleans, LA.
127. Organ, D. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The gold soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
128. Orpen, C. (1983). The career patterns and work attitudes of plateaued and Nonplateaued managers. *International Journal of Manpower*, 4, 32-37.
129. Parker, L. B. & Allen, T. D. (2001). Work/family benefits: Variable related to employees' fairness perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 453-468.
130. Pfeffer, J., & Ross, J. (1982). The effects of marriage and a working wife on occupational and wage attainment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 27, 66-80.
131. Pietromonaco, P. Manis, J., & Frohardt-Lane, K. (1986). Psychological consequences of multiple social roles. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 10, 373-382.
132. Poelmans, S. (2005). *Work and family: An international research perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
133. Porter, L., Steers, R., Mowday, R., & Boulian, P. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 603-609.

134. Powell, G. (1993). *Women and men in management* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
135. Reitzes, D., & Mutran, E. (1994). Multiple roles and identities: Factors influencing self-esteem among middle-aged working men and women. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 57, 313-325.
136. Robertson, I., Baron, H., Gibbons, P., MacIver, R., & Nyfield, G. (2000). Conscientiousness and managerial performance. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 73, 171-180.
137. Rothbard, N. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46, 655-684.
138. Rothbard, N. & Edwards, J. (2003). Investment in work and family roles: A test of identity and utilitarian motives. *Personnel Psychology*, 56, 699-730.
139. Ruderman, M., Ohlott, P., Panzer, K., & King, S. (2002). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45, 369-386.
140. Sackett, P. (2002). The structure of counterproductive work behaviors: Dimensionality and relationships with facets of job performance. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment*, 10, 5-11.
141. Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293-315.
142. Schaufeli, W., Salanova, M., Banzales-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A confirmative analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92.
143. Schneer, J.A., & Reitman, F. (1993). Effects of alternate family structures on managerial career paths. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 830-843.
144. Shore, L., Barksdale, K., & Shore, T. (1995). Managerial perceptions of employee commitment to the organization. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1593-1615.
145. Shore, L., Cleveland, J., & Goldberg, C. (2003). Work attitudes and decisions as a function of manager age and employee age. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 529-537.
146. Sieber, S. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulation. *American Sociological Review*, 39, 567-578.

147. Singh, R., Greenhaus, J., & Parasuraman, S. (2002). The impact of family life on career decisions and outcomes. In Cooper, C. L., & Burke, R. J. (Eds.), *The new world of work: Challenges and opportunities* (pp. 95-112). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.
148. Slater, P. (1963). Social limitations on libidinal withdrawal. *American Sociological Review*, 28, 339-364.
149. Smith, C., Organ, D., & Near, J. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 653-663.
150. Stryker, S. (1968). Identity salience and role performance: The importance of symbolic interaction theory for family research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 30, 558-564.
151. Stryker, S., & Serpe, (1982). Commitment, identity salience and role behavior: Theory and research example. In W. Ickes & E. S. Knowles (Eds.) *Personality, Roles, and Social Behavior*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
152. Stryker, S., & Serpe, (1994). Identity salience and psychological centrality: Equivalent, overlapping, or complementary concepts. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 51, 16-35.
153. Stumpf, S., & London, M. (1981). Capturing rater policies in evaluating candidates for promotion. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, 752-766.
154. Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1985). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel and W. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, 2: 7-24. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
155. Tiedje, L., Wortman, C., Downey, G., Emmons, C., Biernat, M., & Lang, R. (1990). Women with multiple roles: Role-compatibility perceptions, satisfaction, and mental health. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 52, 63-72.
156. Thacker, R., & Wayne, S. (1995). An examination of the relationship between upward influence tactics and assessments of promotability. *Journal of Management*, 21, 739-757.
157. Tharenou, P. (2001). Going up? Do traits and informal social processes predict advancing in management? *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 1005-1017.
158. Thoits, P. A. (1983). Multiple identities and psychological well-being: A reformulation of the social isolation hypothesis. *American Sociological Review*, 48, 174-187.

159. Thoits, P. (1991). On merging identity theory and stress research. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54, 101-112.
160. Thomas, L., & Ganster, D. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 6-15.
161. Thompson, C., Beauvais, L., & Lyness, K. (1999). When work-family benefits are not enough: The influence of work-family culture on benefit utilization, organizational attachment, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54, 392-415.
162. Van Scotter, J., Motowidlo, S., & Cross, T. (2000). Effects of task performance and contextual performance on systematic rewards. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 526-535.
163. Verbrugge, L. (1983). Multiple roles and physical health of women and men. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 24, 16-20.
164. Voyandoff, P. (2001). Incorporating community into work and family research: A review of basic relationships. *Human Relations*, 54, 1609-1637.
165. Voydanoff, P. (2004a). Implications of work and community demands and resources for work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 9, 275-285.
166. Voydanoff, P. (2004b). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage & Family*, 66, 398-412.
167. Voydanoff, P. (2005). Work demands and work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: Direct and indirect relationships. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26, 707-726.
168. Voydanoff, P., & Donnelly, B. (1999). Multiple roles and psychological distress: The intersection of the paid worker, spouse, and parent roles with the roles of the adult child. *Journal of Marriage & the Family*, 61, 725-738.
169. Vroom, V. (1964). Ego-involvement, job satisfaction, and job performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 15, 159-177.
170. Waldron, I., & Jacobs, J. (1989). Effects of multiple roles on women's health: Evidence from a national longitudinal study. *Women and Health*, 15, 3-19.
171. Wayne, S., Liden, R., Graf, I., & Ferris, G. (1997). The role of upward influence tactics in human resource decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 50, 979-1006.

172. Wexley, K., & Baldwin, T. (1986). Management Development. *Journal of Management*, 12, 277-294.

Table 1. Summary of Hypotheses

<u>Negative Path</u>
H1: There is a positive relation between non-work role commitment and non-work role demands.
H2: There is a negative relation between non-work demands and work engagement.
H2a: Perceptions of a non-work supportive organizational environment moderates the relation between non-work role demands and work engagement, such that a non-work supportive environment will significantly weaken the negative relation between non-work demands and work engagement.
H3: There is a positive relation between work engagement and job performance.
<u>Positive Path</u>
H4a: There is a positive relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.
H4b: Time and energy demands mediate the relation between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.
H5: There is a positive relation between the resources acquired from non-work role participation and job performance.
H5a: Career commitment moderates the relation between the interpersonal and task-related skills, information and advice, and social capital acquired from non-work role participation and job performance such that the relationship will be significantly stronger for individuals with high career commitment.
H6: There is a positive relation between job performance and managerial perceived work commitment.
H7: There is a positive relation between work engagement and managerial perceived work commitment.
H8: There is a positive relation between managerial perceived work commitment and career growth prospects.
H9: There is a positive relation between job performance and career growth prospects.

Table 2. Demographic Summary

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Age	182	45.57	9.94	22-69

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	2	1.1
	Female	182	98.4
Highest Level of Education	High School Degree / GED Equivalent	104	56.2
	Associate's Degree	44	23.8
	Bachelor's Degree	29	15.7
	Master's Degree	4	2.2
	Professional Degree (e.g., Law, Medicine)	3	1.6
	Marital Status	Married/Living with Partner	125
	Not Married/Not Living with Partner	58	31.4
Race	African American	13	7.0
	Asian	3	1.6
	Caucasian	158	85.4
	Hispanic	4	2.2
	Native American	1	0.5
	Other	3	1.6
Job Tenure	Less than 3 Months	4	2.2
	3 Month < 1 Year	20	10.8
	1 Year <3 Years	29	15.7
	3 Years < 5 Years	25	13.5
	5 Years < 10 Years	47	25.4
	10 Years or Longer	59	31.9
Tenure with Supervisor	3 Months < 1 Year	21	11.4
	1 Year <3 Years	26	14.1
	3 Years < 5 Years	78	42.2
	5 Years < 10 Years	34	18.4
	10 Years or Longer	19	10.3

Table 3. Factor Structure of Managerial Perceived Work Commitment Scale

Item Label	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. The employee appears to be highly committed to this firm.	.917	
2. Being a legal secretary appears to be important to the employee's self-image.	.887	
3. The employee appears to be emotionally attached to this firm.	.920	
4. The employee appears to view this firm's problems as his or her own.	.898	
5. The employee appears to be proud to be a legal secretary.	.894	
6. The employee appears to really care about the fate of this firm.	.935	
7. The employee appears to identify with being a legal secretary.	.896	
8. The employee appears to be enthusiastic about being a legal secretary.	.868	
9. The employee appears to regret having entered the legal secretary field.		.228
10. The employee appears to dislike being a legal secretary.		.158
Eigenvalue	7.336	1.415
Variance Explained	73%	14%

Table 4. Factor Structure of Career Growth Prospects

Item Label	Factor 1	Factor 2
	Structural Growth	Content Growth
1. It is likely that this employee will be promoted within this firm.	.865	.076
2. It is likely that this employee will be continually challenged in his or her current job.	-.346	.798
3. This employee has reached a point where it is unlikely that he or she will move higher in this firm.	.945	-.089
4. It is likely that this employee will learn and grow within his or her current job.	.006	.848
5. The likelihood that this employee will move ahead in this firm is limited.	.954	-.098
6. It is likely that this employee's responsibilities within his or her current job will increase significantly in the future.	.294	.740
7. It is likely that this employee will advance to a higher level in this firm.	.856	.117
8. It is likely that this employee's job will continually require him or her to expand his or her abilities and knowledge.	.080	.885
9. This employee is unlikely to obtain a higher level job in this firm.	.838	-.157
10. It is likely that this employee's job will constantly challenge him or her.	-.249	.852
11. In this firm, the opportunities for upward movement are limited for this employee.	.952	-.044
Eigenvalue	5.251	3.394
Variance Explained	48%	31%

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Variables (n=185)¹

	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Supervisor 1	.36	.48						
2. Supervisor 2	.18	.39	-.36**					
3. Supervisor 3	.06	.24	-.19**	-.12				
4. Supervisor 4	.29	.46	-.48**	-.31**	-.16*			
5. Job demands	3.29	.84	-.04	-.01	.07	-.01		
6. Number of roles	2.94	.83	.10	-.03	-.01	-.04	.05	
7. NW supportive environment	3.72	.73	.07	-.21**	.11	.02	.26**	.08
8. Career commitment	2.91	.72	-.15*	-.09	.01	.22**	.36**	.02
9. Non-work role commitment	14.02	3.75	.11	.04	-.07	-.04	-.02	.75**
10. Non-work demands-time	26.68	17.17	.09	.05	-.02	-.09	-.00	.21**
11. Non-work demands-energy	13.37	4.18	.11	.09	-.09	-.10	.03	.70**
12. Resource acquisition	10.40	3.97	.07	.11	-.01	-.12	.03	.67**
13. Work engagement	3.62	.44	-.00	-.09	-.00	.03	.34**	-.10
14. Job performance	3.15	.64	.20**	-.17*	-.14	.11	.22**	.03
15. Job performance (2 item)	3.64	.84	.06	-.05	-.07	.16*	.23**	.05
16. Mgr perceived work commit.	3.95	.80	.39**	-.08	-.03	-.12	.24**	.18*
17. Content career growth	3.24	.71	.26**	.11	-.23**	-.39**	.15	.06
18. Structural career growth	2.18	1.15	-.74**	.63**	.03	.24**	.06	.02

¹Correlations include Pearson, phi, and point-biserial coefficients.

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

Table 5. Continued

	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.
1. Supervisor 1								
2. Supervisor 2								
3. Supervisor 3								
4. Supervisor 4								
5. Job demands								
6. Number of roles								
7. NW supportive environment								
8. Career commitment	.42**							
9. Non-work role commitment	.01	-.07						
10. Non-work demands-time	-.06	-.16*	.27**					
11. Non-work demands-energy	.08	-.01	.77**	.25**				
12. Resource acquisition	.06	.05	.64**	.21**	.72**			
13. Work engagement	.09	.31**	-.13	-.08	-.03	-.04		
14. Job performance	-.06	.03	-.09	.02	-.13	-.11	.09	
15. Job performance (2 item)	-.02	.08	-.05	.06	-.08	-.04	.08	.82**
16. Mgr perceived work commit.	.13	.13	.11	.04	.06	.09	.13	.54**
17. Content career growth	.03	-.08	.02	-.06	.00	.04	.09	.34**
18. Structural career growth	-.10	.10	.01	.00	.03	.08	.01	.10

¹ Correlations include Pearson, phi, and point-biserial coefficients.

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

Table 5. Continued

	15.	16.	17.
1. Supervisor 1			
2. Supervisor 2			
3. Supervisor 3			
4. Supervisor 4			
5. Job demands			
6. Number of roles			
7. NW supportive environment			
8. Career commitment			
9. Non-work role commitment			
10. Non-work demands-time			
11. Non-work demands-energy			
12. Resource acquisition			
13. Work engagement			
14. Job performance			
15. Job performance (2 item)			
16. Mgr perceived work commit.	.59**		
17. Content career growth	.42**	.35**	
18. Structural career growth	-.15*	-.10	.06

¹ Correlations include Pearson, phi, and point-biserial coefficients.

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

Table 6a. Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Non-work Time Demands

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	-.011	.003
Role Participation	.209**	.036
Supervisor 1	.104	.079
Supervisor 2	.101	.071
Supervisor 3	.017	.018
Supervisor 4	.005	-.014
<i>Step 2</i>		
Non-work Role Commitment		.229*
R ²	.058	.058
Change in R ²	.080*	.022*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Time Demands

Table 6b. Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Non-work Energy Demands

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.006	.033
Role Participation	.701***	.293***
Supervisor 1	.090	.025
Supervisor 2	.156*	.084
Supervisor 3	-.038	-.035
Supervisor 4	.022	-.023
<i>Step 2</i>		
Non-work Role Commitment		.546***
R ²	.519***	.645***
Change in R ²	.519***	.126***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Energy Demands

Table 7. The Moderating Effect of Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Non-work Role Demands and Work Engagement

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
<i>Step 1</i>				
Job Demands	.331***	.332***	.336***	.333***
Role Participation	-.106	-.156	-.156	-.157
Supervisor 1	-.084	-.084	-.084	-.097
Supervisor 2	-.133	-.141	-.144	-.154
Supervisor 3	-.066	-.061	-.060	-.044
Supervisor 4	-.061	-.062	-.063	-.056
<i>Step 2</i>				
Time Demands		-.056	-.057	-.099
Energy Demands		.085	.086	.109
<i>Step 3</i>				
Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment			-.015	.010
<i>Step 4</i>				
Time Demands X Non-work Supportive Organization				-.173*
Energy Demands X Non-work Supportive Organization				.097
R ²	.126**	.132	.132	.163*
Change in R ²	.126**	.005	.000	.032*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Work Engagement

Table 8. Post-Hoc Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Physical & Emotional Energy and Work Engagement

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
<i>Step 1</i>				
Job Demands	.331***	.314***	.310***	.302***
Role Participation	-.106	-.121	-.120	-.110
Supervisor 1	-.084	-.033	-.032	-.054
Supervisor 2	-.133	-.148	-.144	-.158
Supervisor 3	-.066	-.055	-.056	-.034
Supervisor 4	-.061	-.047	-.046	-.036
<i>Step 2</i>				
Time Demands		-.037	-.035	-.077
Emotional Energy Demands		-.340*	-.346**	-.383*
Physical Energy Demands		.412**	.415**	.470**
<i>Step 3</i>				
Non-work Supportive Organizational Environment			.016	.069
<i>Step 4</i>				
Time Demands X Non-work Supportive Organization				-.164*
Emotional Energy Demands X Non-work Sup. Org.				.289*
Physical Energy Demands X Non-work Sup. Org.				-.166
R ²	.126**	.170**	.170	.215*
Change in R ²	.126**	.044**	.000	.045*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Work Engagement

Table 9. The Relationship Between Work Engagement and Job Performance

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.240**	.237**
Role Participation	-.009	-.008
Supervisor 1	.341**	.342**
Supervisor 2	.029	.030
Supervisor 3	-.046	-.046
Supervisor 4	.268*	.268*
<i>Step 2</i>		
Work Engagement		.008
R ²	.152	.152
Change in R ²	.152	.000

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Tables 10 a-e. Mediating Effect of Non-work Demands (Time and Energy) on the Relationship Between Non-work Role Commitment and Resource Acquisition

10a: Relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition.

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.002	.016
Role Participation	.674***	.462***
Supervisor 1	.067	.033
Supervisor 2	.165*	.128
Supervisor 3	.032	.033
Supervisor 4	-.004	-.027
<i>Step 2</i>		
Non-work Role Commitment		.283**
R ²	.479***	.479**
Change in R ²	.170**	.044*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Resource Acquisition

10b: Relationship between non-work role commitment and non-work time demands.

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	-.011	.003
Role Participation	.209**	.036
Supervisor 1	.104	.079
Supervisor 2	.101	.071
Supervisor 3	.017	.018
Supervisor 4	.005	-.014
<i>Step 2</i>		
Non-work Role Commitment		.229*
R ²	.058	.080*
Change in R ²	.058	.022*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Time Demands

Tables 10 a-e. (continued)

10c: Relationship between non-work role commitment and non-work energy demands

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.006	.033
Role Participation	.701***	.293**
Supervisor 1	.090	.025
Supervisor 2	.156*	.084
Supervisor 3	-.038	-.035
Supervisor 4	.022	-.023
<i>Step 2</i>		
Non-work Role Commitment		.546***
R ²	.519**	.645***
Change in R ²	.519**	.126***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Energy Demands

10d: Relationship between non-work demands and resource acquisition.

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	-.008	.000
Role Participation	.682***	.326***
Supervisor 1	.058	.026
Supervisor 2	.175*	.097
Supervisor 3	.032	.050
Supervisor 4	-.005	-.015
<i>Step 2</i>		
Time Demands		.014
Energy Demands		.484***
R ²	.484***	.594***
Change in R ²	.484***	.107***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Resource Acquisition

Tables 10 a-e. (continued)

10e: Relationship between non-work role commitment and resource acquisition mediated by energy demands.

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
<i>Step 1</i>			
Job Demands	.002	.016	.001
Role Participation	.674	.462	.328***
Supervisor 1	.067	.033	.021
Supervisor 2	.165*	.128	.089
Supervisor 3	.032	.033	.050
Supervisor 4	-.004	-.027	-.017
<i>Step 2</i>			
Non-work Role Commitment		.283**	.033
<i>Step 3</i>			
Energy Demands			.459***
R ²	.479***	.513**	.588***
Change in R ²	.479***	.034**	.075***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Resource Acquisition

Table 11. The Relationship Between Resource Acquisition and Job Performance

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.240**	.241**
Role Participation	-.009	.122
Supervisor 1	.341**	.354**
Supervisor 2	.029	.061
Supervisor 3	-.046	-.040
Supervisor 4	.268*	.266*
<i>Step 2</i>		
Resource Acquisition		-.195*
R ²	.152***	.172*
Change in R ²	.152***	.020*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Job Performance (19 item measure)

Table 12. The Moderating Effect of Career Commitment on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Information and Contacts) and Job Performance

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
<i>Step 1</i>				
Job Demands	.240**	.235**	.268**	.268**
Role Participation	-.009	-.020	-.019	-.019
Supervisor 1	.341**	.322**	.314**	.314*
Supervisor 2	.029	.013	.005	.003
Supervisor 3	-.046	-.051	-.053	-.052
Supervisor 4	.268*	.261*	.274	.276*
<i>Step 2</i>				
Resource Acquisition: Skills, Information, Contacts		.061	.067	.068
<i>Step 3</i>				
Career Commitment			-.090	-.088
<i>Step 4</i>				
Resource Acquisition: Skills, Information, Contacts X Career Commitment				-.013
R ²	.152***	.155	.162	.162
Change in R ²	.152***	.003	.006	.000

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Job Performance (19 item measure)

Table 13. Post-Hoc Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Job Tenure on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Info., and Contacts) and Manager-Rated Job Performance (2 item measure)

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
<i>Step 1</i>				
Job Demands	.241**	.236**	.204**	.211**
Role Participation	.030	.019	.012	.004
Supervisor 1	.346**	.327**	.305*	.313**
Supervisor 2	.212*	.195	.194	.224*
Supervisor 3	.070	.066	.040	.056
Supervisor 4	.395**	.388**	.375**	.397**
<i>Step 2</i>				
Resource Acquisition: Skills, Information, Contacts		.062	.091	.064
<i>Step 3</i>				
Job Tenure			.178*	.177*
<i>Step 4</i>				
Resource Acquisition: Skills, Information, Contacts X Job Tenure				.152*
R ²	.126**	.129	.159**	.180*
Change in R ²	.126**	.004	.029**	.022*

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Job Performance (2 Item Measure)

Table 14. The Relationships Between Job Performance, Work Engagement and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>
<i>Step 1</i>		
Job Demands	.260***	.122*
Role Participation	.135*	.150**
Supervisor 1	.683***	.536***
Supervisor 2	.306**	.306***
Supervisor 3	.177*	.204**
Supervisor 4	.315**	.199*
<i>Step 2</i>		
Job Performance		.451***
Work Engagement		.085
R ²		.465***
Change in R ²	.286***	.179***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Managerial Perceived Work Commitment

Table 15a. The Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects - Content

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
<i>Step 1</i>			
Job Demands	.154*	.066	.013
Role Participation	.054	.057	.009
Supervisor 1	-.112	-.237*	-.421***
Supervisor 2	-.131	-.141	-.243**
Supervisor 3	-.361***	-.344***	-.413***
Supervisor 4	-.534***	-.632***	-.700***
<i>Step 2</i>			
Job Performance		.367***	.209**
<i>Step 3</i>			
Managerial Perceived Work Commitment			.348***
R ²	.274***	.388***	.454***
Change in R ²	.274***	.114*	.066***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Content Career Growth

Table 15b. Relationships of Job Performance and Managerial Perceived Work Commitment with Career Growth Prospects - Structural

Predictors	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
<i>Step 1</i>			
Job Demands	.045	.030	.018
Role Participation	.071	.072	.061
Supervisor 1	-.441***	-.463***	-.504***
Supervisor 2	.528***	.526***	.504***
Supervisor 3	.032	.035	.020
Supervisor 4	.191**	.174*	.159*
<i>Step 2</i>			
Job Performance		.065	.030
<i>Step 3</i>			
Managerial Perceived Work Commitment			.076
R ²	.705***	.708	.712
Change in R ²	.705***	.004	.003

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Dependent Variable: Structural Career Growth

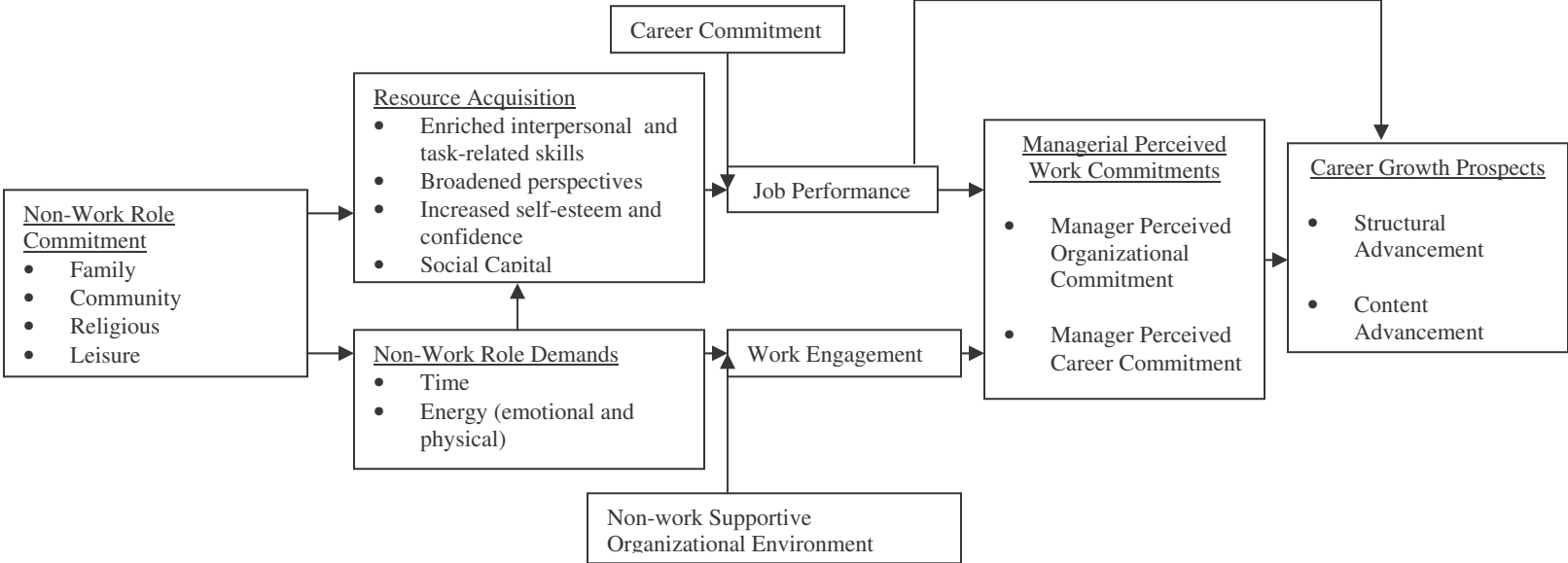


Figure 1. General Model of Career Growth Prospects

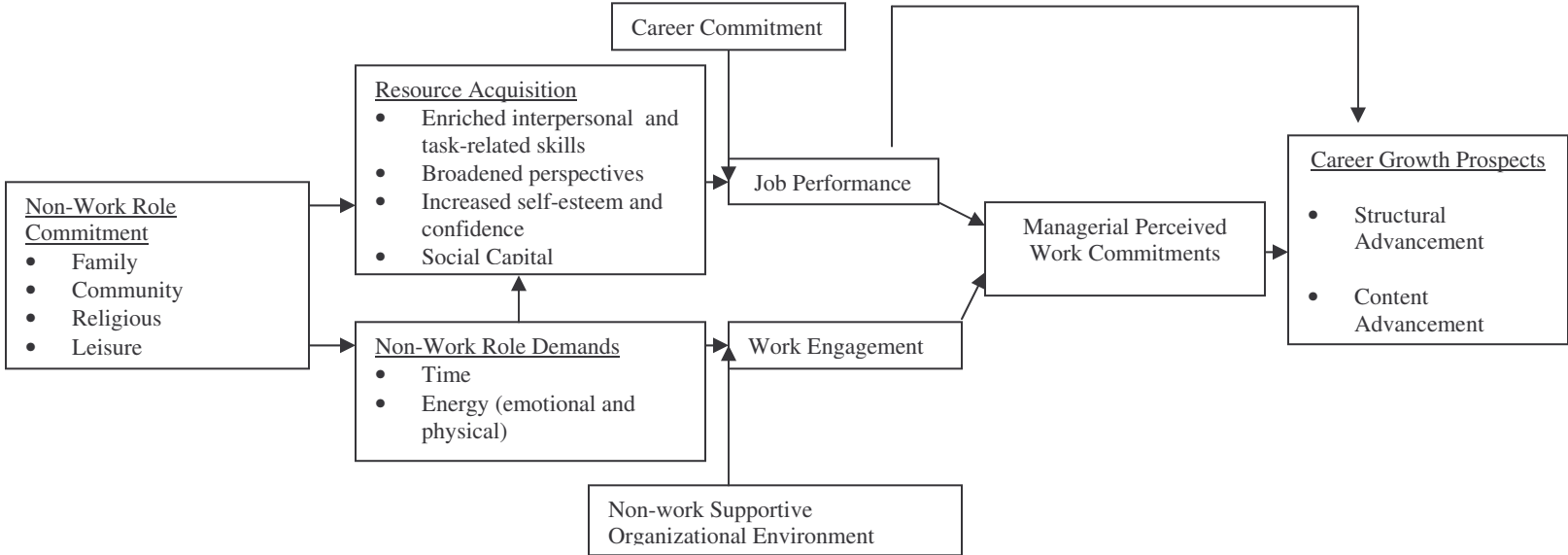


Figure 2. Revised Model of Career Growth Prospects

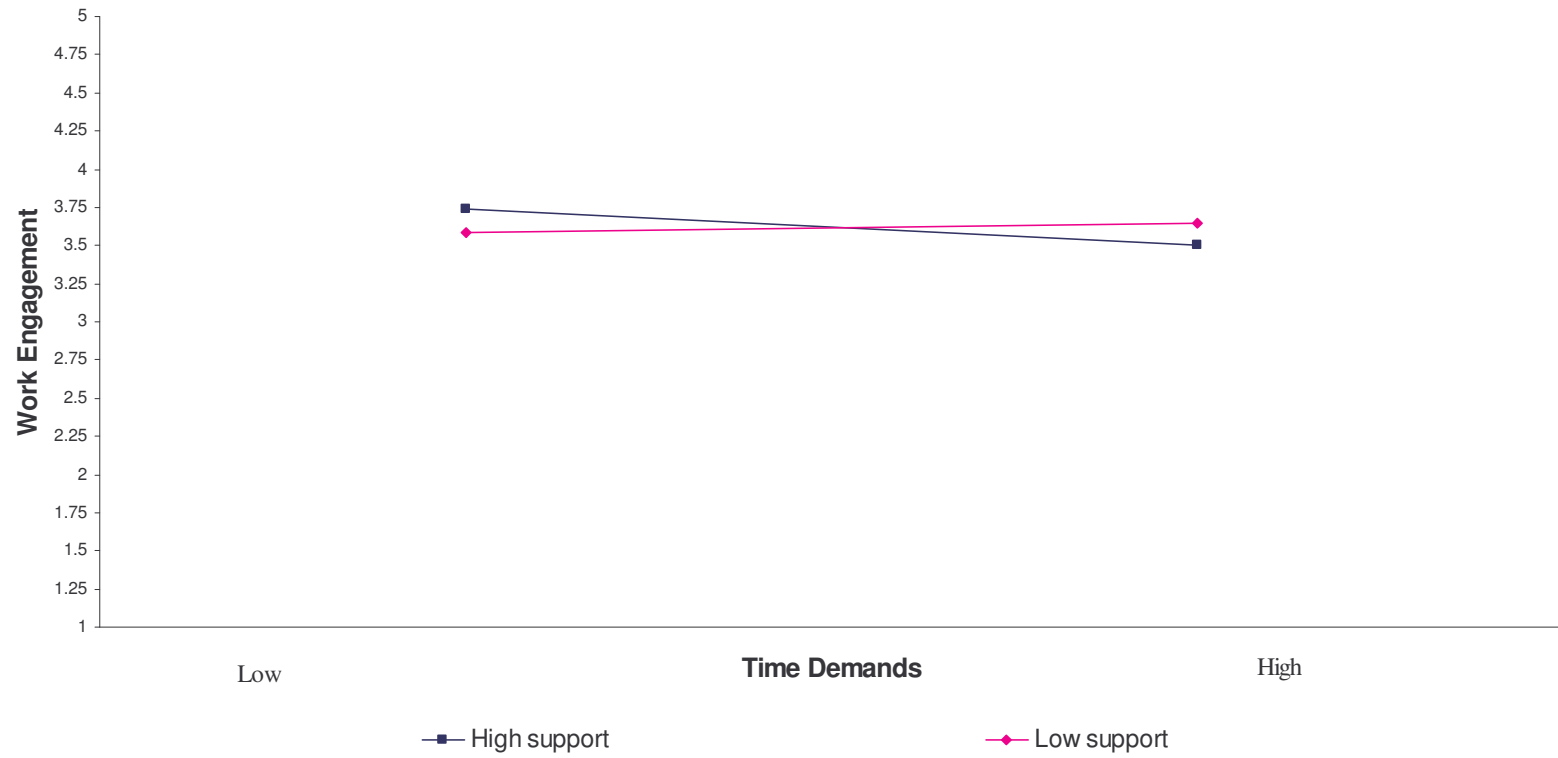


Figure 3: The Moderating Effect of a Non-Work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Time Demands and Work Engagement

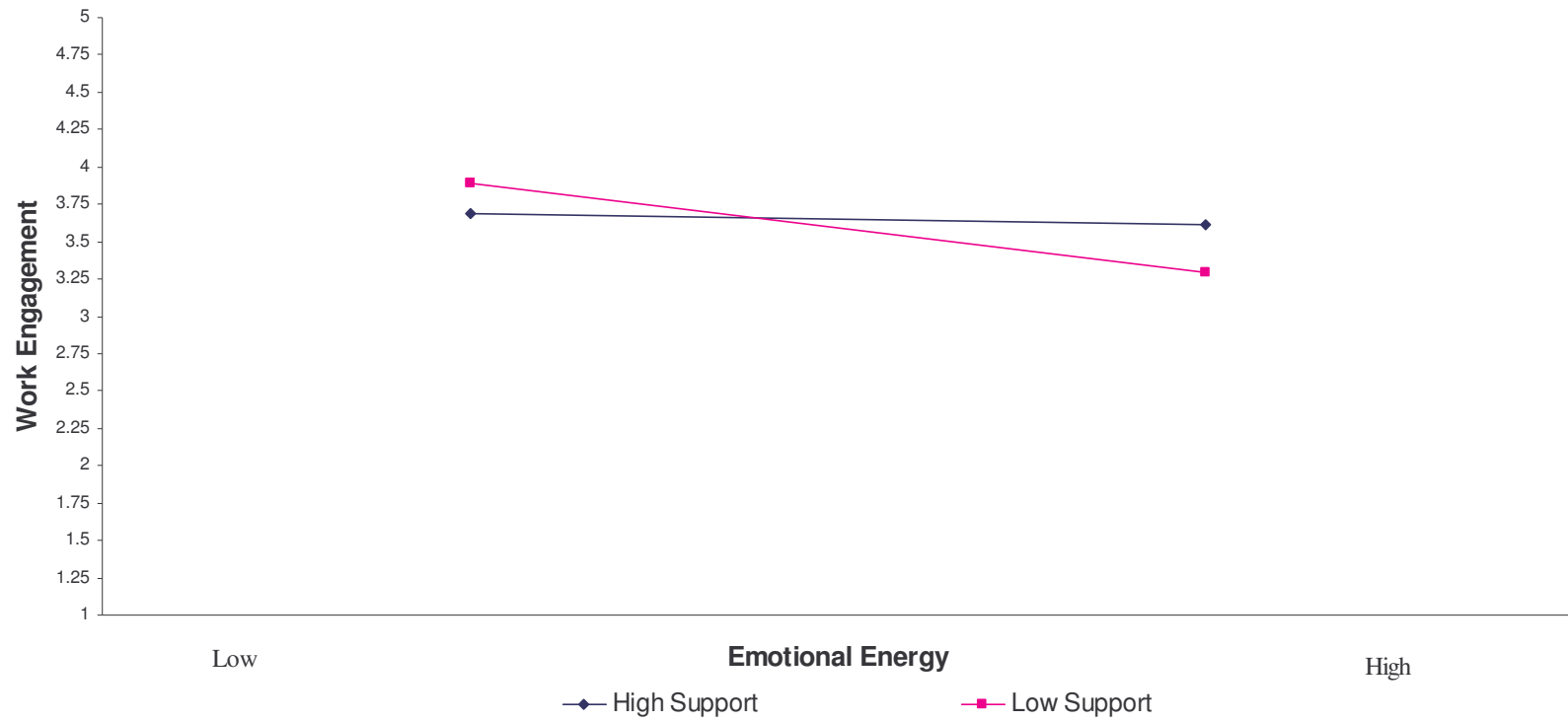


Figure 4: The Moderating Effect of a Non-Work Supportive Organizational Environment on the Relationship Between Emotional Energy Demands and Work Engagement

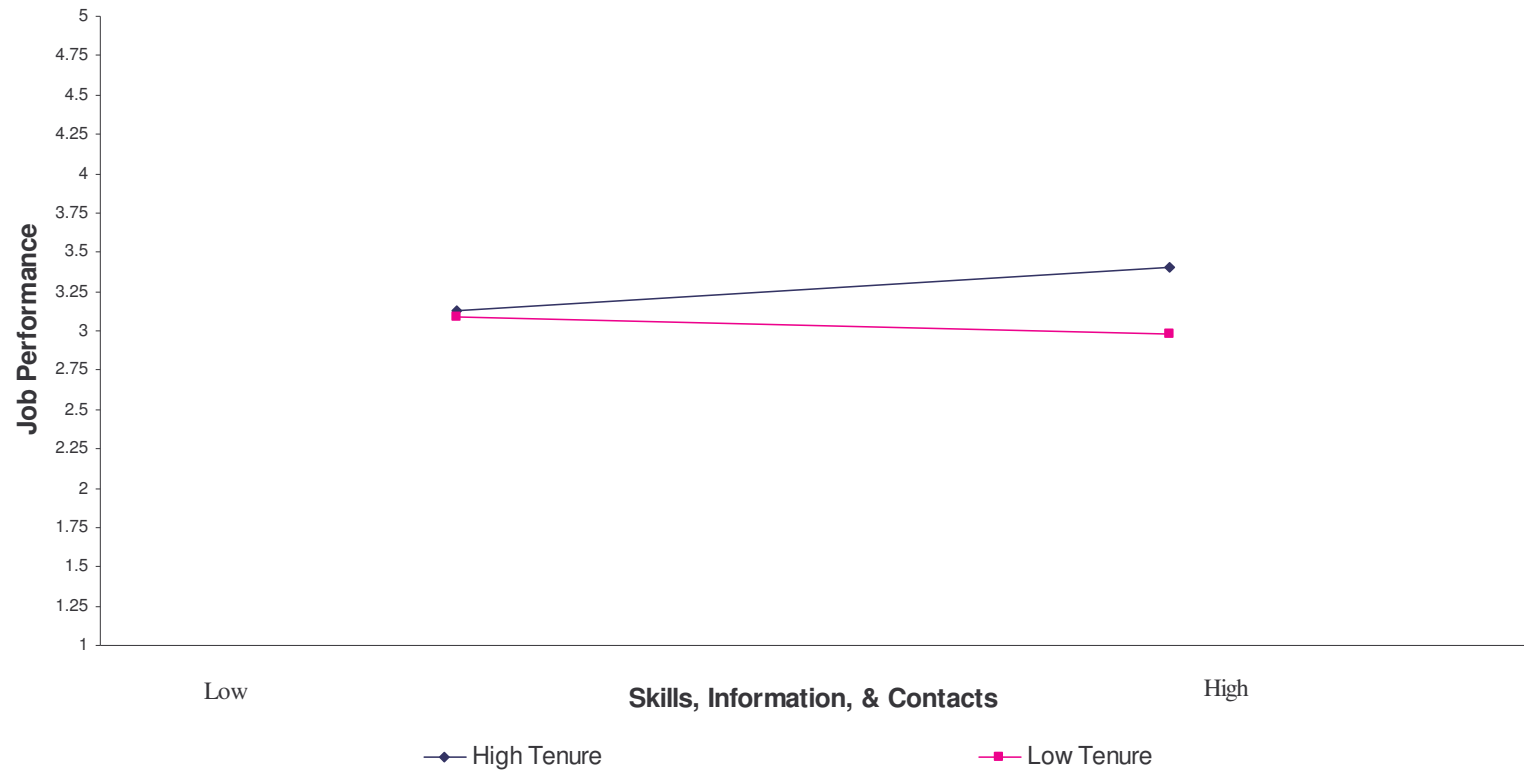


Figure 5: The Moderating Effect of Job Tenure on the Relationship Between Resource Acquisition (Skills, Information and Contacts) and Job Performance

Appendix A – Study Measures: Staff

Non-Work Role Commitment

Adapted from Godshalk (1997)

Non-work role commitment refers to the summation of an individual's psychological commitment to a wide array of non-work roles. Psychological commitment reflects the importance, or centrality, of a role to an individual's self-identity (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993).

Please indicate the importance of each of these activities in your life by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response. If you do not participate in the activity, please click 'Do not participate.'

Rating Scale:

- 1=Unimportant
- 2=Of little importance
- 3=Moderately important
- 4=Important
- 5=Very important
- 6=Do not participate

1. Participating in family activities (i.e., activities with immediate or extended family)	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Volunteering in your community	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Participating in religious activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Being a student	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Participating in leisure activities (e.g., sporting activities, recreational activities, hobbies, spending time with friends)	1	2	3	4	5	6

Resource Acquisition

For those activities in which you participate, please indicate the extent to which each statement describes you personally by placing a check next to the category which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Not at all

2=To a little extent

3=To a moderate extent

4=To a great extent

5=To a very great extent

1. To what extent has participating in family activities... <i>(If you do not participate in family activities, please skip to question 2)</i>					
a. increased your skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills).	1	2	3	4	5
b. increased your self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
c. provided you with information and advice.	1	2	3	4	5
d. increased your social contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
e. provided you with new ways of looking at people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5
2. To what extent has volunteering in your community... <i>(If you do not volunteer in community activities, please skip to question 3)</i>					
a. increased your skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills).	1	2	3	4	5
b. increased your self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
c. provided you with information and advice.	1	2	3	4	5
d. increased your social contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
e. provided you with new ways of looking at people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5
3. To what extent has participating in religious activities... <i>(If you do not participate in religious activities, please skip to question 4)</i>					
a. increased your skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills).	1	2	3	4	5
b. increased your self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
c. provided you with information and advice.	1	2	3	4	5

d. increased your social contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
e. provided you with new ways of looking at people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5
4. To what extent has being a student... <i>(If you are not a student, please skip to question 5)</i>					
a. increased your skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills).	1	2	3	4	5
b. increased your self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
c. provided you with information and advice.	1	2	3	4	5
d. increased your social contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
e. provided you with new ways of looking at people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5
5. To what extent has participating in leisure activities... <i>(If you do not participate in leisure activities, please skip to question 2)</i>					
a. increased your skills (e.g., interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills).	1	2	3	4	5
b. increased your self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
c. provided you with information and advice.	1	2	3	4	5
d. increased your social contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
e. provided you with new ways of looking at people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5

Non-Work Role Demands – Time
Adapted from Godshalk (1997)

Please indicate the activities in which you participate outside of work by placing a check in the box next to the activity. Next, for those activities in which you participate, please indicate the number of hours in an average week (including weekends) you spend in each of the activities.

Activity	Participate	Number of Hours in an Average Week
Participating in family activities (i.e., activities with immediate or extended family)	Yes No	_____Hours (to the nearest hour)
Volunteering in your community	Yes No	_____Hours (to the nearest hour)
Participating in religious activities	Yes No	_____Hours (to the nearest hour)
Being a student	Yes No	_____Hours (to the nearest hour)
Participating in leisure activities (e.g., sporting activities, recreational activities, hobbies, spending time with friends)	Yes No	_____Hours (to the nearest hour)

Non-Work Role Demands – Energy
Adapted from May, Gilson, and Harter (2004)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following statements by placing a check next to the category which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

<i>I really put my heart into...</i>					
1. participating in family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. volunteering in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
3. participating in religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. being a student.	1	2	3	4	5
5. participating in leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>I often feel emotionally detached when...</i>					
1. I participate in family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I volunteer in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I participate in religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am a student.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I participate in leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>I exert a lot of energy when...</i>					
1. I participate in family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I volunteer in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I participate in religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am a student.	1	2	3	4	5

5. I participate in leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5
I really exert myself to my fullest when...					
1. participating in family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. volunteering in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
3. participating in religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. being a student.	1	2	3	4	5
5. participating in leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5

Work Engagement
May, Gilson, and Harter (2004)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following statements by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

1. Performing my job is so absorbing that I forget about everything else.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I avoid working overtime whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I really put my heart into my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I often think about other things when performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I often take work home to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get excited when I perform well on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am rarely distracted when performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I avoid working too hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I often feel emotionally detached from my job.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Time passes quickly when I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I exert a lot of energy performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I stay until the job is done.	1	2	3	4	5

Supportive Non-Work Organizational Environment

Adapted from Allen (2001)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE that each of the following statements represents the PHILOSOPHY OR BELIEFS OF YOUR FIRM (remember, these are not your own personal beliefs – but what you believe is the philosophy of your firm). Select the category which most closely corresponds to your perception.

Rating Scale:

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

In my firm...

1. work should be the primary priority in a person's life.	1	2	3	4	5
2. employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon.	1	2	3	4	5
4. individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. it is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
6. employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well.	1	2	3	4	5

Career Commitment
Adapted from Blau (1995)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following statements by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

1. If I could get another job, different from being a legal secretary and paying the same amount, I would probably take it.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I definitely want a career for myself as a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
3. If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to be a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If I had the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work as a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I like this vocation too much to give it up.	1	2	3	4	5
6. This is the ideal vocation for me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am disappointed that I ever entered the legal secretary profession.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I spend a significant amount of personal time reading work-related journals or books.	1	2	3	4	5

Job Demands

Adapted from Karasek (1979)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following statements by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Strongly disagree

2=Disagree

3=Neutral

4=Agree

5=Strongly agree

1. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have a lot to say about what happens in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In my job, I have very little freedom to decide how I work.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic and Background Variables - Staff

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your gender?
 1. Male
 2. Female
3. Which of the following best describes your race?
 1. African American
 2. Asian
 3. Caucasian
 4. Hispanic
 5. Native American
 6. Other
4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 1. High school diploma/GED equivalent
 2. Associate's Degree
 3. Bachelor's Degree
 4. Master's Degree
 5. Professional Degree (e.g. Law, Medicine)
5. What is your current marital status?
 1. Married or living with a partner
 2. Not married and not living with a partner
5. How long have you been employed by your current firm?
 1. Less than 3 months
 2. 3 months to less than 1 year
 3. 1 year to less than 3 years
 4. 3 years to less than 5 years
 5. 5 years to less than 10 years
 6. 10 years or longer
6. How long have you occupied your current position?
 1. Less than 3 months
 2. 3 months to less than 1 year
 3. 1 year to less than 3 years
 4. 3 years to less than 5 years
 5. 5 years to less than 10 years
 6. 10 years or longer

7. How long have you reported to your current supervisor?
 1. Less than 3 months
 2. 3 months to less than 1 year
 3. 1 year to less than 3 years
 4. 3 years to less than 5 years
 5. 5 years to less than 10 years
 6. 10 years or longer

Appendix B – Study Measures: Supervisor

Job Performance

Part 1. Specific Ratings of Job Performance

Please indicate the extent to which the employee fulfills each of the following job responsibilities by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

E=Area where **E**xceptional skill is evident

M= **M**eets high performance standards of job

A=Average

N= Not meeting job standards or potential

NA=Not applicable to job

<i>Typing/ Transcription:</i>					
1. Transcribes tapes using appropriate format, correct spelling and proper punctuation	E	M	A	N	NA
2. Types statistical items accurately and quickly	E	M	A	N	NA
3. Completes typing assignments in a timely manner	E	M	A	N	NA
4. Operates word processing applications efficiently	E	M	A	N	NA
<i>Proofing/Editing:</i>	E	M	A	N	NA
5. Proofreads typed material for misspellings, typos and other errors	E	M	A	N	NA
6. Edits typed material for clarification and sentence structure	E	M	A	N	NA
7. Composes routine correspondence	E	M	A	N	NA
<i>Administration:</i>	E	M	A	N	NA
8. Prepares routine legal documents according to standard format (e.g., deposition notices)	E	M	A	N	NA
9. Collates and distributes documents (with cover letters, attachments, checks, etc.) to clients, courts, attorneys and other parties	E	M	A	N	NA

10. Maintains tickler file	E	M	A	N	NA
11. Handles inquiries and conveys information to/from clients, attorneys and staff	E	M	A	N	NA
12. Handles files and correspondence for firm committees and/or professional associations in a timely fashion	E	M	A	N	NA
13. Assists in reviewing billing reports (typos, descriptions, etc.) and other problems	E	M	A	N	NA
<i>Work Styles:</i>	E	M	A	N	NA
14. Resourceful in obtaining information when requested	E	M	A	N	NA
15. Informs you of anticipated delays in completing assignments	E	M	A	N	NA
16. Seeks out and assumes new responsibilities	E	M	A	N	NA
17. Anticipates “crunches” and arranges for necessary secretarial and staff help	E	M	A	N	NA
18. Even under pressure, maintains pleasant manner with co-workers	E	M	A	N	NA
19. Is reliable in coming to work	E	M	A	N	NA

Part 2 . General Ratings of Job Performance

Please click on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Far below expectations

2=Somewhat below expectations

3=Meets expectations

4=Exceeds expectations

5=Far exceeds expectations

1. Overall, how would you rate the quality of the employee's job performance	1	2	3	4	5
2. Overall, how would you rate the quantity of work the employee produces	1	2	3	4	5

Managerial Perceived Work Commitments

Adapted from Meyer and Allen (1991)

Adapted from Blau (1995)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following statements by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Not at all

2=To a little extent

3=To a moderate extent

4=To a very great extent

5=To a very great extent

11. The employee appears to be highly committed to this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Being a legal secretary appears to be important to the employee's self-image.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The employee appears to be emotionally attached to this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The employee appears to regret having entered the legal secretary field.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The employee appears to view this firm's problems as his or her own.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The employee appears to be proud to be a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The employee appears to really care about the fate of this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The employee appears to dislike being a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The employee appears to identify with being a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The employee appears to be enthusiastic about being a legal secretary.	1	2	3	4	5

Career Growth Prospects
Adapted from Milliman (1992)

Please indicate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following statements by clicking on the circle which most closely corresponds to the appropriate response.

Rating Scale:

1=Not at all

2=To a little extent

3=To a moderate extent

4=To a very great extent

5=To a very great extent

1. It is likely that this employee will be promoted within this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is likely that this employee will be continually challenged in his or her current job.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This employee has reached a point where it is unlikely that he or she will move higher in this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is likely that this employee will learn and grow within his or her current job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The likelihood that this employee will move ahead in this firm is limited.	1	2	3	4	5
6. It is likely that this employee's responsibilities within his or her current job will increase significantly in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is likely that this employee will advance to a higher level in this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is likely that this employee's job will continually require him or her to expand his or her abilities and knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
9. This employee is unlikely to obtain a higher level job in this firm.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It is likely that this employee's job will constantly challenge him or her.	1	2	3	4	5
11. In this firm, the opportunities for upward movement are limited for this employee.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic and Background Variables - Supervisor

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your gender?
 1. Male
 2. Female
3. Which of the following best describes your race?
 1. African American
 2. Asian
 3. Caucasian
 4. Hispanic
 5. Native American
 6. Other
4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 6. High school diploma/GED equivalent
 7. Associate's Degree
 8. Bachelor's Degree
 9. Master's Degree
 10. Professional Degree (e.g. Law, Medicine)
5. How long have you been employed by your current firm?
 7. Less than 3 months
 8. 3 months to less than 1 year
 9. 1 year to less than 3 years
 10. 3 years to less than 5 years
 11. 5 years to less than 10 years
 12. 10 years or longer
6. How long have you occupied your current position?
 7. Less than 3 months
 8. 3 months to less than 1 year
 9. 1 year to less than 3 years
 10. 3 years to less than 5 years
 11. 5 years to less than 10 years
 12. 10 years or longer
7. How long has this employee reported to you?
 7. Less than 3 months
 8. 3 months to less than 1 year
 9. 1 year to less than 3 years
 10. 3 years to less than 5 years
 11. 5 years to less than 10 years
 12. 10 years or longer

Appendix C – Invitation to Participate Letter

Confidential Research Code Number

Dear Legal Secretary,

This letter is an invitation for you to participate in a research study conducted by researchers at Drexel University. (Firm name) has agreed to participate in this study, which seeks to understand a number of issues that are relevant to the careers of legal secretaries. You will be asked to complete an on-line survey that includes a variety of questions about your interests and activities outside of work, as well as your attitudes toward and perceptions of your career. The survey should take about 15 minutes of your time and your responses will be completely anonymous and confidential.

Within the next week, you will receive an email from (firm name) that will include a hyper-link to the study survey. The first item of the survey will ask you to enter the 6-digit Confidential Research Code Number located on the top right hand corner of this letter. We ask that you keep this letter handy so that you will be able to accurately enter this number on the survey. Please note that it is vitally important that you enter this number correctly. Firm management has also been invited to participate in this study and this code will allow the researchers to correlate responses. Please note, however, neither firm management nor anyone else in the firm will have access to your responses. Moreover, because we will not know your identity, your responses are truly anonymous.

We ask that you please consider participating in this study. Although your participation in this study is highly valued, it is absolutely voluntary. Please note that all analyses and reports will be in aggregate form and therefore will be based on groups of respondents, rather than individuals.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Jeffrey H. Greenhaus, Professor of Management
Christy H. Weer, Doctoral Candidate in Management

Vita

Christy Harris Weer

EDUCATION

- Ph.D., Organization and Strategy, 2006
Department of Management
LeBow College of Business, Drexel University
 - MBA, 1996
Salisbury University, Salisbury, MD
 - BA, Business Management, 1993
Washington College, Chestertown, MD
-

JOURNAL ARTICLES

Weer, C.H., Greenhaus, J.H., Colakoglu, S.N., & Foley, S. (In Press). The Role of Maternal Employment, Role-Altering Strategies, and Gender in College Students' Expectations of Work-Family Conflict. *Sex Roles*.

Foley, S., Linnehan, F., Greenhaus, J.H., & Weer, C.H. (2006). The impact of gender similarity and racial similarity on family-supportive supervision. *Group and Organization Management*, 31, 420-441.

Linnehan, F., Weer, C.H., & Uhl, J. (2005). African-American students' early trust beliefs in work-based mentors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(3), 501-515.

INVITED BOOK CHAPTERS

Weer, C.H. (2006). Organizational citizenship behavior. In J. H. Greenhaus & G.A. Callanan (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of career development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weer, C.H. (2006). Job sharing. In J. H. Greenhaus & G.A. Callanan (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of career development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Linnehan, F., Weer, C.H., & Stonely, P. (2006). High school guidance counselors: Facilitators or preemptors of social stratification in education? Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Atlanta, GA.

Weer, C.H., Greenhaus, J.H., Colakoglu, S.N., & Foley, S. (2004). The Role of Gender, Maternal Employment, and Coping Strategies in College Students' Expectations of Work-Family Conflict. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference (Shared Interest Track), New Orleans, LA.

Foley, S., Linnehan, F., Greenhaus, J.H., & Weer, C.H. (2003). The impact of gender similarity and racial similarity on family-supportive supervision. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Seattle, WA.

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Member, Academy of Management

Reviewer – GDO Division, Academy of Management, 2004 Annual Meeting

Reviewer – Careers Division, Academy of Management, 2005 Annual Meeting

Session Discussant – Academy of Management, 2005 Annual Meeting

Reviewer – Careers Division, Academy of Management, 2006 Annual Meeting

Session Chair – Academy of Management, 2006 Annual Meeting

Associate Editor, *Careers Forum*, 2003, 2004, 2005

Member, Society of Human Resource Management

TEACHING/RESEARCH ASSISTANT EXPERIENCE

Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA:

- 2005 Teaching Excellence Award, LeBow College of Business, Drexel University
- Teaching Experience: Organizational Behavior
 - 18 Recitation Sections, 2004 - 2006
 - Summer Lectures, 2002 - 2005
 - Co-Taught Pilot On-line Lecture, 2005
- Teaching Assistant: Organizational Behavior, 2001-2004
Strategic Human Resource Management, 2004-2005
- Research Assistant: Strategic Leadership Institute, 2003-2004

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- 1993-1997: Avon-Dixon Insurance Agency, Easton MD
Customer Service Representative
- 1997-1998: Zutz Insurance Agency, Wilmington, DE
Senior Account Manager
- 1998-2001: USI/Colburn Insurance, Philadelphia, PA
Large Law Firm Professional Liability Insurance
Sales & Risk Management
Pinnacle Sales Club Member, 2001