Front. Bus. Res. China 2011, 5(1): 96–120
DOI 10.1007/s11782-011-0123-6

RESEARCH ARTICLE

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The Role of Citizenship Behavior in Personal Learning and Work–Family Enrichment

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Abstract Extending the research on work–family interface in the Chinese context, the present study examines how organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) may enrich the quality of OCB performers' family life through personal learning. Results from a sample of 385 supervisor-subordinate dyads in China show that OCB is positively associated with work-to-family enrichment. This association is fully mediated by one type of personal learning, namely personal skill development. The findings are discussed with respect to their theoretical contributions and practical implications in Chinese contexts.

Keywords organizational citizenship behavior, personal learning, work–family enrichment

1 Introduction

The phenomenal growth of both basic and applied research on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) attests to the importance of OCB from both a theory and a practice point of view (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac and Woehr, 2007). OCB is defined as an extra-role behavior that fuels the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context, facilitating organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1997). Previous research on OCB has shed light on individual outcomes in the work domain. The benefits of performing OCB include higher salary

Received July 14, 2010

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attainment (Allen, 2006), promotion rate (Allen, 2006; Hui, Lam and Law, 2000), appraisal evaluation (Allen and Rush, 1998), and job performance (Bommer, Dierdorff and Rubin, 2007). Clearly, prior work has broadened our understanding of the outcomes of OCB and the implications of such behavior for OCB performers.

Despite this interest, there is a paucity of research examining the impact of OCB on work-to-family outcomes, i.e., how work roles enrich family roles. This research area is particularly important because this cross-role relationship can influence job satisfaction, marital satisfaction, life satisfaction, individual stress, well-being, and mental health (Hanson, Hammer and Colton, 2006; Hill, 2005; Tiedje, Wortman, Downey, Emmons, Biernat and Lang, 1990). Recently, Bolino and Turnley (2005) have sought to understand the effect of OCB on personal consequences using a university alumni sample. Their work mainly applies the scarcity approach, which suggests that displaying OCB requires extra resources, such as time and energy of employees, thereby leading to work–family conflict.

Although the above findings are fruitful, the expansion approach that has long been studied in sociology is underestimated. Indeed, personal resources can be expanded through a series of daily activities (Marks, 1977). Empirical research has provided more considerable support for the expansion model than for the scarcity model (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Nordenmark, 2004). OCB performers provide services for other employees and the organization and, in turn, may obtain reciprocated benefits. Various interactions can actually enrich rather than drain personal resources away (Sieber, 1974). Not surprisingly, researchers have called for attention to systematically examining the process of work–family enrichment with the argument that work and family roles can be allies, and that acquired resources from one role can be utilized in another role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). To echo this call, this study explores how OCB may enrich the quality of OCB performers' family life. Additionally, according to work–family enrichment theory (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) and empirical findings (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts and Pulkkinen, 2006), skills are a case in point to illustrate this process. This study thereby applies a type of personal learning, namely personal skill development, to exploring the mechanism of this cross-role relationship. More specifically, this research seeks to determine whether personal skill development mediates the relationship between OCB and work-to-family enrichment.

This study contributes to the literature on OCB, personal learning, and work–family enrichment in several ways. First, it takes a first step toward understanding the role of OCB in personal learning. Researchers have called for studies of mechanisms that OCB links to individual outcomes (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). Personal learning is a key predictor of turnover, job satisfaction, role ambiguity (Lankau and Scandura, 2002), job attitude, job identity, and career growth (Hall, 1986). As these variables also draw attention of

OCB research (e.g., Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998), understanding the influence of OCB on personal learning can guide researchers to develop theories and mechanisms for OCB. In practical terms, employees may be encouraged to display OCB when they understand what benefits they can exactly obtain. Second, this study extends the theory of work–family enrichment by applying personal learning to explore the resource generation process that has not been discussed deeply (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Third, given that nearly all work–family enrichment and scale development studies were conducted in Western developed countries (e.g., Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne and Grzywacz, 2006; Grzywacz and Bass, 2003; Hill, 2005) and there have been calls for samples outside the United States recently (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood and Lambert, 2007), we use a Chinese sample to increase the generalizability of work–family enrichment research findings. Because cultural differences may affect work–family outcomes (Yang, Chen, Choi and Zou, 2000), the investigation could show evidence that the family life of employees in Oriental developing countries can also be enriched by personal resources accrued in the workplace.

The present study may have practical implications to Chinese companies because work–family issues are particularly important for Chinese employees and human resource management. Unlike understandings of family in the United States (Rothausen, 1999), the common understanding of family in China is an extended family that includes grandparents, unmarried brothers and sisters, and uncles and aunts with nephews and nieces (Tsui, 1989). Given the scarcity of resources throughout China's history, such a concept of an extended family encourages the family to protect personal resources and fulfill members' various needs (Fukuyama, 1995). Hence, Chinese people hold a strong belief that family is the core of their lives. Given the distinctive work and family contexts in Chinese societies, Chinese people also experience different patterns of work–family interface. Although Chinese are family-oriented, scholars have found that managers in the mainland, Hong Kong, and Taiwan of China, and Singapore consistently assign low importance to personal and family time (Shenkar and Ronen, 1987). These surprising findings are attributable to the fact that the Chinese tradition regards work as more important than leisure. Work is perceived as a contributor, as opposed to a competitor, to family benefit (Shenkar and Ronen, 1987). Therefore, how to enrich employees' family life by exporting work resources is a critical topic for Chinese researchers and managers. Understanding the OCB impact on employees may offer implications beneficial for multinational firms pursuing to propel work–life balance of their culturally diverse employees.

To provide a foundation for studying the relationships, this paper will first review the expansion theory and work–family enrichment theory, and discuss the

hypotheses, followed by the methods used to test these hypotheses. Lastly, the results and discussion will be presented.

2 Theories and Hypotheses

This study applies the expansion (Marks, 1977) and work–family enrichment approaches (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) to examining how OCB leads to personal learning and work-to-family enrichment. Over the past 30 years, the expansion approach has attracted scholars' great attention (e.g., Ahrens and Ryff, 2006; Barnett and Hyde, 2001; Marks, 1977; Schultheiss, 2006). In fact, there are two competing models for work–family spillover. From the approach of scarcity, individuals are assumed to have limited personal resources. Long work hours and inflexible work schedules lead employees to drain time and energy away, making it difficult to fulfill requirements of a family role and causing work-to-family conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). In contrast, the theory of expansion suggests that human resources are flexible and thus, the energy potential of people at any given time is physiologically abundant rather than scarce (Marks, 1977). Drained energy is caused by imbalance of role commitment levels when individuals over-commit one role but under-commit another role. Put differently, too much time and energy spent in one role leads an individual not able to cope with the need and requirement of another role (Marks, 1977). For example, an employee with high levels of job commitment and low levels of family involvement may work overtime and bring his or her work to home. This behavior decreases family time and attention to family members which, in turn, augments the difficulty meeting the requirement of a family role, potentially inducing work–family conflict. As the level of personal resources largely depends on role quality and commitment, and time demands and flexibility, multiple roles do not necessarily cause conflict (Barnett and Hyde, 2001; Froberg, Gjerdingen and Preston, 1986; Nordenmark, 2004). Indeed, multiple roles can offer opportunities for resources and burdens, and success and failure. Some roles may be displayed without any energy loss, and at the same time, create resources for improving other role performances (Marks, 1977).

The expansion theory posits that multiple roles are beneficial to individuals through accumulated personal resources when the use of time is flexible and individuals increase satisfaction and subjective energy levels during and after performing the role (Marks, 1977). Accumulated personal resources include buffering, social support, increased self-efficacy, and self-complexity (Barnett and Hyde, 2001; Sieber, 1974). For instance, young and junior employees choose a senior colleague with rich experiences as an informal mentor in the workplace. This decision leads the employees to become protégés and to obtain psychosocial support, which buffers work–family conflict (Nielson, Carlson and Lankau,

2001).

Because cultural norms and roles in the family and workplace have changed sharply, increased attention to the expansion theory has directed researchers to rethink the positive relationship between work and family roles, and the two competing approaches (Barnett and Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). Research has indicated that work–family conflict and enrichment can exist at the same time, depending on the process by which experiences of one role influence another domain (Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). A review of past work–family studies has shown that the relationship between work–family conflict and enrichment is not definitely negative. In fact, positive and insignificant relationships have been found in some work–family studies (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Along with this line of thought, although Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that OCB has negative effects on personal resources, it is also possible that OCB can enhance personal resources through the expansion mechanism. This investigation based on the expansion theory can be viewed as a complementary study rather than a competing study to provide a comprehensive picture for the work–family interface.

Finally, the theory of work–family enrichment could guide us to realize the process by which personal learning generated in the workplace enhances the family life of OCB performers. Positive work–family spillover has long been investigated in empirical studies (e.g., Small and Riley, 1990). Recently, work–family enrichment theory has been developed, in which work–family enrichment is defined as the extent to which experiences in one role improves the quality of life in another role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Enrichment can be bi-directional such that work roles can enrich family roles and family roles can enrich work roles at the same time. This study focuses on the process by which work experiences enrich consequences in the family role because OCB is a work-related behavior and personal learning is acquired in the workplace. Distinguished from the work–family spillover and enhancement approaches, work–family enrichment theory emphasizes resources derived from work and posits that those resources can contribute to the high performance of a family role directly by applying relevant resources to perform family duties through the instrumental path or indirectly by enhancing positive affect in the workplace, which then promotes the family performance through the affective path (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Two important resources are skills and perspectives. Skills generated by work may include knowledge, wisdom, inter-personal skills, coping skills, and multitasking skills, while perspectives refer to the ways of perceiving or handling situations.

On the basis of the above theories, this study proposes that employees who exhibit OCB are expanding their resources which, in turn, could have positive impacts on their personal learning, ultimately enriching their family life.

2.1 OCB and Personal Learning

Personal learning is defined as acquired knowledge, skills, or competencies leading to individual growth and development in terms of the interpersonal competencies of empathy, feedback, authenticity, empowerment, self-reflection, self-disclosure, and active listening (Lankau and Scandura, 2002). The fundamental principle of personal learning is that a person actively and automatically learns from solving problems with others.

Personal learning is critical because this self-directing ability can be generalized to other settings continuously. Protean careers (Hall, 1996) and boundaryless careers (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Eby, Butts and Lockwood, 2003) that highlight mutuality and interdependence in the workplace have become prominent in the modern world. Therefore, the boundary of teaching and learning in the work domain is not very clear (Hall, 1996). Employees cannot fully depend on the one-time learning in one organization and must develop their skills and enhance their experience relevant to work through continuous learning across positions and organizations. Self-directing learning, a higher-level mental process, is thus necessary for individuals to pursue (Rogers, 1983).

Research has divided personal learning into two dimensions—namely, relational job learning and personal skill development. Relational job learning refers to learning the context of work to see how self related to others (Lankau and Scandura, 2002). This kind of learning seems irrelevant to work–family spillover because it shed light on the work context. As a result, this study focuses only on personal skill development that is defined as acquired skills and abilities that enable better work relationships. This learning refers to the ability to read and manage the emotions, motivations and behaviors of oneself and others during social interactions or in a social-interactive context. People can develop personal skills through two-way communications, active listening, and problem solving in various interactions. Prior studies have demonstrated that a number of organizational, individual, and task variables affect learning. Examples include organizational culture (Guberman and Greenfield, 1991), training (Baldwin, Magjuka and Loher, 1991), learning goals (Dweck, 1986), and task interdependence (Karambayya, 1990). This study applies the behavioral approach to exploring how OCB influences personal skill learning.

On the basis of the expansion approach, it is possible that employees accumulate personal resources including personal skills by engaging in OCB. Based on the expansion theory, individuals can expand their personal resources through multiple roles and increased daily activity (Barnett and Hyde, 2001; Marks, 1977). Employees who display high levels of OCB are named good citizens because their behaviors can facilitate organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). This extra role leads employees to help others, attend informal meetings,

work beyond normal hours, and draw attention to updated information. As a result, OCB performers enlarge their role boundaries and work activities, actively learning from extended work environments. This enhanced learning can be explained by several reasons.

First, the extra role provides opportunities for employees to consider their roles and behave themselves in varying situations because the target of OCB performance is very broad, from individuals and groups to the whole organization (Organ, 1988). OCB performers spend time and energy to share their knowledge and skills with others, and in return, they obtain immediate feedback, referent and normative information from others (Morrison, 1993). Valuable feedback and information may exert positive impacts on good citizens to recognize the identity change process by encouraging them to reflect on their own roles in organizations. When the work boundary is extended, OCB performers may also introspect whether their beliefs, thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are suitable in various situations, how their work related to others and the organization, and how they should listen to and communicate with people with different values and backgrounds. This introspection may thus increase the likelihood to modify their identity, direction, and guidance of their life in the workplace, and to enhance their flexibility to adjust demands of diverse work roles to fit different settings.

Second, the expansion theory suggests that multiple roles encourage tolerance of discrepant viewpoints (Sieber, 1974). Good citizens often want to benefit others and the organization. To achieve the best consequence, they may need to realize the want, value, and belief of their colleagues and the organization before going extra miles. This need stimulates good citizens to perceive the gap of wants, values, and beliefs between themselves and others, and to find out reasons for the gap. OCB is an efficient way to broaden world view because OCB performance can be within the context of cross-gender, cross-position, cross-group, and cross-department relationships (Chen, Lam, Naumann and Schaubroeck, 2005) that stereotypes are mitigated and employees learn to value the experience of others from diversified backgrounds. Enhanced world view directs individuals to increase the tolerance of discrepancy that assists OCB performers to handle tasks and communicate with others effectively in the future.

Third and lastly, the expansion theory has proposed that people with multiple roles are more likely to act as a central gate-keeper for assessing resources from different sources and to enjoy wide and varied contacts with expanded relationships (Sieber, 1974). Likewise, research has suggested that OCB is likely to foster the formation of relationships between organization members across groups and departments (Bolino, Turnley and Bloodgood, 2002). Because good citizens often participate informal activities that are not required by the organization, they tend to meet other people and therefore establish network ties.

There are many resources such as information embedded in the network ties (Lin, 2001), and those resources might meet fundamental needs to yield personal learning. Moreover, the persons met in informal activities may not overlap those met in in-role meetings. As a result, good citizens can enlarge their networks to different work groups and departments, and increase the likelihood to become a structural hole between work groups and departments (Bolino et al., 2002). Employees who span structural holes could learn personal skills faster because they have higher opportunities to express and discuss their ideas with different kinds of people (Burt, 2004). Hence, we predict that:

H1 OCB is positively associated with personal skill development.

2.2 Personal Learning and Work–Family Enrichment

This study speculates that personal skill development can enrich the family role of OCB performers. Based on work–family enrichment theory, skills and perspectives are resources that can be transferred to the family context from the instrumental path directly (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Another study also evidences that employees whose work demands related to high-level cognitive and interpersonal resources could utilize these resources in the family domain (Greenberger, O'Neil and Nagel, 1994). The transferable level is high because enhanced personal skills in the workplace are compatible with the requirement of the family role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). High-quality family relationships can be gained when family members use skills of empathy, empowerment, and active listening. These kinds of skills are definitely important to all relationship development. Recent research has argued that "balance-supporting" resources including interpersonal skills and new perspectives on work roles are highly relevant to work–family enrichment (Greenhaus and Singh, 2007). Personal skills generated in the workplace are one of those "balance-supporting" resources because it enhances the ability of individuals to read and manage one's and others' emotions, motivations, and behaviors across work and family domains.

As personal learning is a lifelong process in which skills and perspectives are acquired from different roles and experiences continuously (Hall, 1996), it is not surprising that personal skills can be applicable in family roles. For example, from the view of buffering, individuals may learn how to understand and encourage a colleague who cannot achieve the work target in the work domain. When they go back home and know that their spouses and children get failure in the workplace and school respectively, employees can use similar personal skills to comfort their family members. From the perspective of appreciation, managers learn the importance of appreciating individual differences and of recognizing the special need of each employee. When performing family roles, they tend to give each family member the special attention he or she wants and to appreciate

the uniqueness of each family member. As appreciation is involved with care and love needed by all people (Schultheiss, 2006), both parties can enjoy positive affect outcomes, having higher likelihood to enjoy high-quality family relationships. To sum up, employees who enhance their personal skills in the work domain are more likely to enrich their family life. Hence, we predict that:

H2 Personal skill development is positively associated with work-to-family enrichment.

2.3 OCB, Personal Learning, and Work–Family Enrichment

As mentioned above, OCB performers acquire their personal resources by broadening their work boundaries. OCB is powerful for employees to achieve diversified personal resources because OCB can target toward different kinds of individuals, groups, departments, and organizations that are potential sources for good citizens to accumulate their personal resources (Organ, 1988). Resources generated from various channels have a higher opportunity to be applied to different situations than resources generated from a narrow scope of sources (Sieber, 1974). As a result, personal resources extracted from OCB performance should be highly transferable from work to family by meeting the requirement of the family domain. For example, when OCB performers help younger colleagues to solve job related problems, OCB performers learn and understand the thought and behavior of younger colleagues from mutual communications. Then OCB performers can utilize these personal skills to communicate with their children or/and younger siblings, which could enhance their family life. Another instance is involved in a work–family sharing regarding values, goals, and understandings. OCB performers tend to share their ideas, thoughts, and information with others in additional informal activities during their personal time (Organ, 1988). The opportunity of sharing personal life in these informal activities seems to be higher than that in the workplace because the informal environment is more comfortable for individuals to be themselves through the increased psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999). This personal life sharing could include guidelines and implications of how individuals understand the work–family value and goal of other persons. By transferring a work–family lens, OCB performers increase the likelihood of enriching their family life. We thus predict that:

H3 OCB is positively associated with work-to-family enrichment.

Work–family enrichment theory describes that resources derived from the work role mediates work activities and work-to-family enrichment (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). There are two paths for this mediating effect of resources. The instrumental path refers to the mechanism that employees apply resources directly from the work domain to the family domain. The affective path refers to

the mechanism that employees receive additional resources to improve their job performance, resulting in positive effect. Then this positive effect in work facilitates their functioning in families. As discussed above, the degree to which employees demonstrate OCB might influence the degree to which they learn personal skills that are flexible resources applied to establish various relationships. Given that OCB performers can enjoy higher levels of work–family quality, we further expect that personal skill development play the role of a mediator between OCB and work-to-family enrichment. Of course, displaying OCB is not the only way to enhance employees' personal skills applied in the family domain. However, being good citizens to obtain personal skills may be an effective way to enrich the quality of employees' family life. We predict that:

H4 The relationship between OCB and work-to-family enrichment is mediated by personal skill development.

3 Methods

3.1 Sample and Procedure

Surveys were conducted to examine the above hypotheses. Data were collected from a private company for manufacturing construction materials in Hangzhou of Zhejiang province in 2007. Previous OCB field research has primarily used samples from the service industry (e.g., Hui, Lam and Schaubroeck, 2001; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine, 1999; Morrison, 1996). This emphasis on the service industry causes a concern that the findings could not be generalized to other industries. Recent OCB research has focused on the manufacturing industry (Bommer et al., 2007), and scholars have called for OCB research on different industries (e.g., Aryee and Chay, 2001).

Two sets of questionnaires were designed for two kinds of respondents, namely supervisors and subordinates. This arrangement aimed to decrease the common source error (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). Supervisors evaluated OCB performance of one to three subordinates. OCB was rated by supervisors because they can evaluate their subordinates in diversified ways (Organ, 1988). Meanwhile, subordinates reported their personal skill development, work-to-family enrichment, and control variables.

The company had about 12 000 employees. As OCB research has focused on white-collar or/and well-educated respondents (e.g., Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Hui et al., 2000), and work–family enrichment research on professionals and managerial employees (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1995; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer and King, 2002), this study chose all technical workers, totally 1 128 people as our target respondents to extend OCB and work–family enrichment research to

blue-collar employees. Survey packets were distributed to the technical workers and their supervisors during work hours. Data collectors were trained and led by a Chinese professor. Survey questionnaires were coded and an officer from human resources department helped record the identity numbers and the respondents' names in order to match supervisor-subordinate dyads. The data collectors stressed the confidentiality of the responses, and pointed out that only the researchers could access the responses.

The respondents sent back their answered questionnaires by mail within one month after the delivery. Finally, 474 and 451 complete and usable surveys were returned by subordinates and their supervisors with a response rate of 42.0% and 40.0%, respectively. The total number of matching pairs of supervisor-subordinate dyads was 385. These 385 dyads comprised the sample for the study. About 62.6% and 37.4% of subordinate respondents were male and female, respectively. The average age was 24.78 years (S.D. = 5.66 years) and tenure was 3.92 years (S.D. = 3.35 years). Approximately 43.4% graduated from technical schools and 34.3% from high schools.

3.2 Measures

As all items were originally written in English, back-translation was conducted by two Chinese doctoral students in the management field to examine the quality of the translation (Brislin, 1980) with the exception of OCB and personal learning for which we applied the Chinese version from Lam, Hui and Law (1999) and from Liu, Liu, Kwan and Mao (2009), respectively. The results satisfactorily reported that all important words existed in the back-translation. A five-point scale ranging from (1) "Strongly Disagree" to (5) "Strongly Agree" was utilized for all constructs.

OCB was measured with 15 items of three dimensions developed by Podsakoff and associates (1990). Altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue were chosen to represent OCB because these three dimensions are the common OCB dimensions in China and the West (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004). A sample item included "Helps orient new people even though it is not required." Cronbach's alphas for altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue were 0.87, 0.88, and 0.94, respectively in the present study. As our main concern for OCB is the construct rather than the dimensions and recent research has argued that OCB is best viewed as a single factor (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Hoffman et al., 2007), we combined the scores for each dimension of OCB to form an overall composite measure, and used the three aggregate scores as an indicator for OCB. Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.79.

Personal skill development scale with six items was originally developed by Lankau and Scandura (2002) and adopted in this study. An example of the items

included "I have learned how to communicate effectively with others in the workplace." Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.82.

Work-to-family enrichment was measured with nine items of three dimensions developed by Carlson et al. (2006). The three dimensions are work-to-family development, work-to-family affect, and work-to-family capital. A sample item included "My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member." Cronbach's alphas for work-to-family development, work-to-family affect, and work-to-family capital were 0.74, 0.75, and 0.62, respectively. Similar to OCB, our main interest is the construct rather than the dimensions. In addition, the theory of work–family enrichment is developed at construct levels. We thus averaged the scores for the three dimensions to create a composite measure, obtaining Cronbach's alpha 0.70.

Control variables. We controlled for subordinate demographic variables including gender, age, education levels, organization tenure, and marital status because those variables may provide unexpected influences on the findings of work–family enrichment (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Moreover, some researchers have argued that learning goals should be included as a control variable in studies of learning (e.g., Dweck, 1986). To control for the potential influence of learning goals in the analyses, we assessed learning goal orientation using Button, Mathieu and Zajac's (1996) eight-item measure. A representative item was "The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me." Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.90. Furthermore, scholars have suggested that role involvement may influence the cross-role enrichment. To restrain this influence, we controlled for family involvement using Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Collins' (2001) three-item scale. A sample item was "Most of the important things that happen to me involve my family." Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.78.

4 Results

A correlation matrix of all the variables used in this study, and the means and standard deviations for those variables are provided in Table 1.

We employed structural equation modeling (SEM) to test our measurement models. LISREL 8.54 was used to conduct the second order factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Overall model fit was examined by various fit indices including root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), incremental fit index (IFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), and comparative fit index (CFI). The requirements of a reasonable model fit are met if RMSEA is below 0.08 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993) and IFI, NNFI, and CFI above 0.90 (Bentler and Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 1998).

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender										
2. Age	0.01									
3. Education levels	–0.12*	0.11*								
4. Organization tenure	0.05	0.77**	–0.02							
5. Marital status	0.07	0.66**	0.02	0.51**						
6. Learning goal orientation	–0.01	0.04	0.07	–0.03	0.07	(0.90)				
7. Family involvement	–0.09	–0.14**	0.03	–0.14**	–0.08	0.07	(0.78)			
8. OCB	–0.10	–0.00	0.06	–0.05	–0.04	0.17**	0.13*	(0.79)		
9. Personal skill development	0.05	0.05	–0.03	0.05	–0.01	0.24**	0.12*	0.35**	(0.82)	
10. Work-to-family enrichment	–0.11*	–0.07	0.09	–0.11*	–0.05	0.23**	0.36**	0.26**	0.36**	(0.70)
Mean	1.37	24.78	3.50	3.92	1.38	4.43	2.94	3.52	4.51	3.80
S.D.	0.48	5.66	0.88	3.35	0.52	0.66	0.81	0.72	0.51	0.58

Note: $N = 385$; Cronbach's alpha appears along the diagonal; Gender is coded: 1 = male, 2 = female; Education levels are coded:1 = no formal education, 2 = primary school, 3 = high school, 4 = technical school, 5 = bachelor degree, 6 = postgraduate degree; Marital status is coded:1 = single, 2 = married, 3 = divorced; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

In order to examine whether OCB and work-to-family enrichment can be viewed as three-dimension constructs in the present study, we ran second-order models. The overall second-order models to the data were well fitted with χ^2 (87) = 256.82, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.07; IFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.98; NNFI = 0.98 for OCB, and with χ^2 (24) = 68.99, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.07; IFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.97; NNFI = 0.96 for work-to-family enrichment. Hence, OCB and work-to-family enrichment can be treated as second-order latent variables in the further analysis.

To assure that there was sufficient discrimination between the constructs, we ran a CFA with all the constructs in one model. The model of all the constructs yielded acceptable fit with χ^2 (220) = 436.27, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.05; IFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.97; NNFI = 0.96. We also conducted a one-factor model for all constructs, yielding unacceptable fit with χ^2 (230) = 3 203.86, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.18; IFI = 0.73; CFI = 0.73; NNFI = 0.71. Hence, all constructs and dimensions can be applied to test the hypotheses.

Hierarchical Regression Modeling (HRM) was used to test all the four hypotheses. The results of those analyses are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 presents the relationship between OCB and personal skill development. Consistent with our prediction, even after we included the control variables, OCB was positively related to personal skill development ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$) in Model 2, supporting H1.

Table 2 Regression Analyses of OCB-Personal Skill Development Relationship

	Dependent variable: Personal skill development	
	Model 1	Model 2
Control variables		
Gender	0.06	0.08
Age	0.10	0.07
Education levels	–0.05	–0.05
Organization tenure	0.05	0.07
Marital status	–0.11	–0.09
Learning goal orientation	0.24**	0.19**
Family involvement	0.13*	0.09
Independent variable		
OCB		0.32**
F	5.01**	10.35**
R^2	0.07	0.17
ΔR^2	—	0.10**

Note: $N = 385$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Then we examined H2 regarding the relationship between personal skill development and work-to-family enrichment. Table 3 indicates the predictors of work-to-family enrichment. As predicted, personal skill development ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$) was positively associated with work-to-family enrichment in Model 3, providing support for H2. In addition, as expected, the relationship between OCB and work-to-family enrichment in Model 2 was significantly positive ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H3.

Table 3 Regression Analyses of Direct and Mediation Effects

	Dependent variable: Work-to-family enrichment			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Control variables				
Gender	–0.07	–0.06	–0.09*	–0.08
Age	0.02	0.01	–0.01	–0.01
Education levels	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06
Organization tenure	–0.07	–0.06	–0.08	–0.08
Marital status	–0.02	0.00	0.02	0.02
Learning goal orientation	0.20**	0.17**	0.13**	0.12**
Family involvement	0.33**	0.31**	0.30**	0.29**
Independent/mediating variables				
OCB		0.18**		0.09
Personal skill development			0.31**	0.28**
F	12.32**	12.91**	17.52**	16.06**
R^2	0.17**	0.20**	0.26**	0.26**
ΔR^2		0.03**	0.09**	0.09**

Note: $N = 385$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

H4 predicts that personal skill development will act as a mediator between OCB and work-to-family enrichment. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), four conditions must be held: (1) the predictor is significantly related to the mediator in the first equation; (2) the predictor must be significantly associated with the outcome in the second equation; (3) the mediator must have a significant relationship with the outcome in the third equation; (4) the predictor has no effect when the mediator is controlled. As mentioned above, the first three conditions have been accepted. To test the mediating effect, we put OCB and personal skill development into the same model. Consistent with our expectation, Model 4 of Table 3 displays the finding that OCB had no significant effect on work-to-family enrichment ($\beta = 0.09$, *ns*) when personal skill development was

still significantly related to work-to-family enrichment ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$). Suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), this result revealed that personal skill development fully mediated the relationship between OCB and work-to-family enrichment. However, because the test of mediating effects proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) has limitations, we used the Sobel Test to compare the strength of the indirect effect of OCB on work-to-family enrichment to the point null hypothesis (Preacher and Hayes, 2004) and found significant difference ($z = 4.315$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, H4 was supported as well.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Theoretical Contributions

This study has examined the possibility that performing OCB could affect employees' personal learning and work-to-family enrichment. Consistent with the hypotheses, the findings show that OCB is positively associated with personal skill development and work-to-family enrichment. In addition, personal skill development fully mediates the effects of OCB on work-to-family enrichment. In sum, good citizens seem to obtain personal benefits.

This article makes contributions to the growing literature on OCB in at least three ways. First, prior research on OCB has mainly emphasized individual outcomes in the work domain (e.g., Allen, 2006; Allen and Rush, 1998; Hui et al., 2001). Little research has examined how OCB influences employees' personal consequences. Although researchers have shed light on the relationship between OCB and work–family interface, the primary approach is either scarcity (Bolino and Turnley, 2005) or negative spillover (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino and Rosner, 2005; Tompson and Werner, 1997). This study contributes to our understanding of the positive impacts of OCB on personal resources using the expansion theory (Marks, 1977).

Second, this study provides theoretical foundation to examine the relationship between OCB and individual positive outcomes in the organization. Scholars have raised a call for theoretical support to understand this relationship (Organ et al., 2006). Not surprisingly, recent research has used a resource allocation framework to illustrate how performing OCB can have negative influences on career outcomes (Bergeron, 2007). Similar to the scarcity approach, however, the basic assumption of this resource allocation framework is that time is limited. This scarcity approach helps researchers understand the negative relationship between OCB and career outcomes, and on another hand, downplays the expansion approach. In fact, whether time experienced as scarce depends on cultural agreements (Marks, 1977). In addition, time is not a resource class but a factor affects resource exchange (Foa and Foa, 1976). The present study extends

the extant OCB literature by applying the theory of expansion to explain the mechanism of OCB and personal learning. This expansion approach may help researchers understand how OCB performers expand their resources by reviewing personal learning as one of the resources generated by OCB performance. Past research has found that OCB is related to career advancement and service quality leadership but has not given theoretical support to explain the links (Hui et al., 2001; Van Scotter, Motowidlo and Cross, 2000). According to the expansion theory, it is conceivable that OCB performance can be exchanged for various resources, spurring individuals to become a good leader or to expand individual career growth. We hope that the present study offers a springboard for future OCB research on individual outcomes from the expansion approach.

Third, this investigation increases our understanding of OCB impacts on learning at individual levels. Past researchers have paid attention to the relationship between OCB and learning but focused on organizational levels (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2004). As learning is highly related to individual attainment (Dweck, 1986), job performance, job adaptability, job attitudes, job identity (Hall, 1986), self-confidence, creativity, and ability to make wise choices (Rogers, 1983), investigating the relationship between OCB and personal learning may provide insights into the process by which OCB affects the personal growth of OCB performers.

Moreover, the contributions of this article to the extant literature of work–family enrichment are threefold. First, this study extends work–family enrichment theory by providing empirical findings for realizing resource generation. Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) study focuses on cross-role relationships and does not discuss how employees can generate resources. Our study portrays the process by which employees can increase their personal resources, extending work–family enrichment theory to include resource generation.

Second, our findings show that personal resources can be applied in the family domain, consistent with the theoretical argument (Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). Personal skills are flexible and transferable resources which provide positive impacts on the family life of employees. Further studies may consider whether personal skills acquired in the family can be applied in the workplace.

Third, the job nature of all respondents was blue-collar workers and some respondents were singles without children. This sampling approach is to echo a recent call on work–family research that more diverse samples of family should be adopted (Casper et al., 2007). In fact, the number of single workers is increasing sharply because the age of first marriage for both men and women is on the rise (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2009). This trend also exists in the United States (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). Past work–family research tend to ignore this kind of respondents in spite of their unique work–family issues

(Casper et al., 2007). The present study addresses this research gap to encourage researchers to understand the fact that the effects of work–family enrichment can be found in the sample of single employees because single employees can also have parents and siblings at home or use electronic communications to alleviate the barrier of physical distance when the employees do not live with their family members.

5.2 Limitations and Directions for Future Studies

The contributions of this study must be considered in light of its limitations. Although the use of the expansion approach can increase our understanding of OCB and work–family issue, this study does not apply the scarcity approach. Regarding OCB as a double-edged sword, recent OCB research has raised a concern of considering both benefits and costs of OCB performance (Bergeron, 2007). Along with similar lines, work–family researchers have argued that it is necessary to realize the relationship between work–family conflict and work–family enrichment in a single study (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). Past empirical research has shown that the correlation of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment is not necessarily negative or significant (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Hence, OCB may induce work–family conflict and work–family enrichment at the same time. The relationship between work–family conflict and work–family enrichment may depend on contexts or degrees of resources transferred (Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). Besides, a scarcity model may better explain family outcomes for demonstrating OCB under different conditions such as single parents, blended families, and employees with strong responsibility for elder care than those implied in the sample characteristics (mostly young and single). Additional research should be undertaken from both expansion and scarcity approaches in the future.

Second, based on work–family enrichment theory, there are five kinds of resources which can facilitate work-to-family enrichment, including psychological resources such as positive affect and respect from other people (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Although our findings show that personal skill development fully mediates the relationship between OCB and work-to-family enrichment, we are not certain about the effects of personal skill development when those resource variables are included. Conceptually, it is possible that other resources can also play the role of mediator. Therefore, it may be necessary to incorporate additional variables related to resource variables to investigate how much personal skill development can account for the work-to-family enrichment outcome.

The cross-sectional design is another limitation of this study. One may criticize this study, since the findings were not derived from a longitudinal design,

given the independent and dependent variables were assessed once. We recognize that the causal relationships between the antecedent and the consequences should be explained with caution. It is possible that employees with higher levels of work–family enrichment are more likely to perform OCB and to learn faster. However, this possibility may not be high because of the following two reasons. First, OCB is a behavior, whereas personal learning is a process or result relating to ability, and work–family enrichment always acts as a final outcome from the workplace to the family domain. Logically, behaviors should lead to abilities, which influence the family outcome. Second, our hypothesis development was guided by well-developed theories and the research of multiple roles and work–family spillover has long been studied. Another critique may be about confounding variables, because it is possible that individual characteristics play the role of a predictor in both OCB and work–family enrichment. For example, people with high levels of altruistic values might contribute themselves in work and family domains, thereby obtaining relatively high scores of OCB and work-to-family enrichment. To reduce the likelihood of confounding effects, this study controlled for family involvement that was significantly related to OCB and work–family enrichment. The relationship of family involvement links with OCB and work–family enrichment may be because people who are family-oriented view the workplace as a family and therefore perform high levels of OCB (Restubog and Bordia, 2006). By controlling for family involvement, the effect of confounding variables was alleviated. Regardless of the above reasons, longitudinal designs in future research would help confirm assumptions underlying our investigation.

Finally, this special sample of respondents clearly cannot represent all employees. Particularly, the respondents in this study were young, blue-collar and less well educated compared to the conventional sample of work–family studies. Past national studies have provided empirical evidence that age and occupation have impacts on work-to-family positive spillover (Grzywacz, Almeida and McDonald, 2002). More specifically, older employees have higher levels of work-to-family positive spillover while service workers report more work-to-family positive spillover than blue-collar workers. Although the above findings imply that the results of this study are likely generalized to older and service workers, we still need to explain our findings with caution. On the other hand, the family structure of some respondents was not the same as that of past studies such as dual-income families with children. Empirical studies have reported that parents experience higher levels of work–family conflict than nonparents (Galinsky, Bond and Friedman, 1996) and that the number of children contributes to positive work-to-family spillover (Kinnunen et al., 2006). Even though this study could not find significant effects of marital status on work–family enrichment, other unidentified family characteristics may affect the

findings. As a result, replications of this work with more representative sample would be helpful.

5.3 Managerial Implications

Despite these limitations, our theoretical model and empirical findings have important implications for managers in Chinese contexts. As an increasing number of Chinese organizations rely on OCB to maintain competitive advantages in the face of unpredictable competition (Farh et al., 2004), it is essential for companies to keep in mind that OCB can also promote employees' work-to-family enrichment. As work-to-family enrichment is of strategic importance to employees and human resource management, OCB again draws our attention as a stimulus to organizational success in Chinese contexts. In addition, OCB can also promote the personal skills of employees. Organizations depending extensively on personal skill outcomes may benefit from OCB and encourage employees to create learning and work–family balances within their environments.

Our work suggests an important way by which Chinese organizations can facilitate employees' personal skill development and work-to-family enrichment. It is beneficial for the organizations to take steps to increase the level of employees' OCB. Research indicates that perceptions of psychological contract among Chinese employees can lead them to perform OCB (Hui, Lee and Rousseau, 2004). Therefore, organizations should consider the expectations of employees, generate a fair work climate, and carry out transparent procedures. Moreover, recent investigation also evidences that mentoring functions as perceived by Chinese protégés can promote their OCB exhibition (Kwan, Liu and Yim, in press). Hence, organizations should establish mentoring programs and encourage mentors to provide more mentoring functions to their protégés.

5.4 Conclusion

Despite these limitations, the present study has addressed some important issues regarding OCB outcomes, and revealed personal skill development as a key mediator that can explain the relationship between OCB and work–family enrichment. Many studies have indicated that OCB facilitates organizational effectiveness and individual career success (Organ et al., 2006). The personal benefits, however, have not been highlighted. If displaying OCB has positive implications for employees' family life, employees will be more likely to go the extra mile in work domains. In practical terms, employers may need to find ways of encouraging employees to work beyond in-role duty and of transferring their employees' personal resources from work to family.

Acknowledges The authors would like to thank Jun Liu for data collection, and Chun Hui, Jeffrey Greenhaus and John Schaubroeck for their helpful comments on early drafts of this paper.

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