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DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31979/etd.n63q-2nk8>

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND AFFECTIVE
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MODERATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology

San José State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Mariem Laaraj

May 2023

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The Designated Thesis Committee Approves the Thesis Titled

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A MODERATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

by Mariem Laaraj

The present research aimed to investigate the moderating effect of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationship between perceived overqualification, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and affective organizational commitment. A sample of 110 employees from a variety of occupational backgrounds in the United States participated in the study by completing an online survey. Results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses showed that POS did not act as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. However, perceived overqualification was found to be significantly and negatively related to affective organizational commitment. Results also showed that POS was negatively related to perceived overqualification and positively related to OCB and affective organizational commitment. Organizational strategies to maximize POS were suggested.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to praise Allah the Almighty, the Most Gracious, and the Most Merciful for all His blessings.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to all the individuals who have supported me throughout my academic journey. I would like to start by expressing my deepest appreciation to my incredible committee, Dr. Megumi Hosoda, Dr. Howard Tokunaga, and Dr. Jacquelyn Brady for their unparalleled support and encouragement throughout my academic journey.

I would like to extend my warmest thanks to my advisor, Dr. Megumi Hosoda, for her insightful feedback, unwavering support, and guidance. Megumi's expertise has been invaluable in shaping and refining my research, and I am grateful for her dedication and commitment to the success of this study.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends for their unwavering support and encouragement throughout this journey. Their love and understanding have been a source of comfort and inspiration, and I am grateful for their constant encouragement and support. I would like to extend my heartfelt thanks to my parents, Allal and Karima, this dissertation is as much mine as it is yours. Your love, support, and encouragement have been instrumental in my success, and I could not have made it this far without both of you. To my siblings, Abdessamad and Sara, your kind words of encouragement have inspired me to be the best older sister I can be. To Jack and Jackie, your belief in me has given me the confidence to pursue my goals and chase my dreams, and I am so grateful for the impact you have had on my life. And lastly, to my friend, Marhaba, your love and support means the world to me, and I will always cherish the memories we made together.

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Introduction

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and affective organizational commitment are commonly studied work behaviors and attitudes, respectively (Kazemipour & Mohd Amin, 2012). OCBs are behaviors that often go beyond one's job description and include behaviors such as helping others and taking additional responsibilities (Bolino et al., 2013). Affective organizational commitment refers to an individual's emotional attachment to and identification with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Both OCB and affective organizational commitment are frequently studied because they are associated with various positive outcomes. For example, OCB has been positively associated with job performance and organizational effectiveness, and negatively associated with turnover intentions and actual turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Similarly, affective organizational commitment has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and OCB, and negatively related to turnover, withdrawal cognitions, and work-family conflict (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Given the positive outcomes associated with OCB and affective organizational commitment, researchers have examined predictors of these variables. For example, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction), personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness), and leader behaviors (e.g., transformational leadership, transactional leadership) predict OCBs. Likewise, a meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (2002) found that some personality traits (e.g., locus of control) and contextual variables (e.g., organizational justice, perceived organizational support, transformational leadership) predict affective organizational commitment.

Although many variables predict both OCBs and affective organizational commitment,

one other common predictor of these two variables is perceived overqualification. Perceived overqualification is defined as the extent to which employees believe they have more skills, abilities, and work experiences than their job requires (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). Studying perceived overqualification as a predictor of both OCB and affective organizational commitment is important because perceived overqualification affects various populations ranging from temporary workers to employees rehired after a layoff, immigrants, older and younger workers, individuals with disabilities, and workers employed in a declining industry (Erdogan et al., 2011).

Research has shown that perceived overqualification is negatively related to OCB and affective organizational commitment (Arvan et al., 2019; Maynard et al., 2006). Given the negative relationship between these variables, it is important to examine variables that might mitigate such a relationship. I propose that perceived organizational support (POS) acts as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. POS refers to employees' general beliefs that their organization values their contributions and cares about their overall well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). I argue that the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment will be less negative when POS is high than when it is low. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to examine POS as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, and affective organizational commitment.

The sections below define OCB and affective organizational commitment, followed by several consequences of these variables. Several common predictors of OCB and affective

organizational commitment will be discussed. Perceived overqualification is then introduced and research findings on the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment will be reviewed. Research on the moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and outcomes is then reviewed. Finally, POS is introduced as another moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment, along with the rationale for the moderated relationships and hypotheses that were tested in the present study.

Definition of OCB

Organ (1988) originally defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). However, over the years, researchers have shown concern about defining OCB in this way. More specifically, they have been concerned with the assertion that OCBs are discretionary and are not rewarded by the organization (Bolino et al., 2004). For example, what is discretionary differs from person to person and from situation to situation. Furthermore, employees and supervisors often have difficulty differentiating extra-role behaviors from in-role duties (Bolino et al., 2004). Given these concerns, Organ (1997) redefined OCB as “performance that supports a social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (p. 95). These behaviors are usually discretionary actions, not easily enforceable, and exceed the minimum requirements of the job (Bolino et al., 2004; Organ, 1997). Examples of this behavior include helping others, volunteering for extra work, or socializing with new employees (Bolino et al., 2004).

Types of OCB

Over years, more than 30 dimensions of OCB have been identified. One of the most utilized conceptualizations of OCB is the seven dimensions by Mackenzie and Podsakoff (1997), consisting of (i) helping behaviors, (ii) sportsmanship, (iii) organizational loyalty, (iv) organizational compliance, (v) individual initiative, (vi) civic virtue, and (vii) self-development.

According to Mackenzie and Podsakoff (1997), *helping behavior* refers to assisting others with work-related problems and contributing to the prevention of these problems. *Sportsmanship* refers to employees' willingness to tolerate work's inevitable inconveniences and impositions without complaining and keeping a positive attitude even when things do not go as planned. *Organizational loyalty* refers to protecting, promoting, and defending the organization against external threats while spreading goodwill and promoting the organization's image. *Organizational compliance* refers to when a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures and their scrupulous adherence to them even when no one is watching.

Individual initiatives refer to extra-role behavior that takes on acts of creativity and innovation aimed at improving the employee's task and the performance of the organization. This is an extra-role only in the sense that it involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor.

Civic virtue refers to a macro-level interest in, or commitment to the organization, including such behaviors as taking an active role in meetings, monitoring the organization's

environment for potential threats, and looking out for its best interests. Finally, *self-development* refers to an employee's voluntary behaviors to improve their skills, knowledge, and abilities, such as taking training courses.

Affective Organizational Commitment

The second outcome variable to be examined in this study is affective organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as the extent to which employees are dedicated to their employing organizations and are willing to work on their behalf and the likelihood that they will maintain membership (Mowday et al., 1982).

Organizational commitment is multidimensional and consists of three forms: affective, normative, and continuance (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective organizational commitment is defined as an employee's identification, involvement, and emotional attachment to a company (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Those who are committed to their organizations continue to work for their organization because they *want* to do so. Normative commitment is defined as an employee's perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Those with high levels of normative commitment continue to work for their organization because they feel they *ought* to stay in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment refers to perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. Those with high levels of continuance commitment continue to work for the organization because they *need* to do so. They are committed to their organization because the costs associated with leaving are too high (e.g., retirement plans, fringe benefits; Meyer & Allen, 1991). This study focused only on affective organizational commitment because it has been shown to have the strongest positive relationships with various work outcomes and behaviors compared to continuance

and normative commitment, especially with overall withdrawal cognition (e.g., turnover intention) (Meyer et al., 2002).

Predictors of OCB and Affective Organizational Commitment

OCB and affective organizational commitment have many common predictors. Among them are job satisfaction, leadership behavior, and organizational justice.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as the overall evaluative judgments one has about one's job (Judge et al., 2017). It encompasses both one's affective reactions (feelings) as well as one's cognitive evaluation (thoughts) related to the job (García-Bernal et al., 2005). Research has consistently shown that job satisfaction is positively related to OCB (e.g., Ahmed et al., 2012; Payne & Webber, 2006; Rifai, 2005). For example, Ahmed et al. (2012) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB among employees in the banking sector. They showed that job satisfaction played a positive role in displaying employees' OCB. Consistent with the above findings, the results of several meta-analyses demonstrated that job satisfaction was positively related to overall OCB (Dalal, 2015; LePine et al., 2002) and the various dimensions of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction is also considered to be an important predictor of affective organizational commitment. For example, Rifai (2005) conducted a study that examined the relationship between job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment among 383 full-time nurses of private hospitals in West Sumatera and Riau Province in Indonesia. Rifai (2005) hypothesized the higher the level of job satisfaction employees experienced, the higher the level of their affective organizational commitment would be. Consistent with the hypothesis,

the results demonstrated that job satisfaction had a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment. This result suggests that workers who feel satisfied with their job are likely to be affectively committed to their organization. Boles et al. (2007) also found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment among salespeople.

Chordiya et al. (2017) applied a cross-national comparative approach using data from India and the United States to examine factors influencing affective organizational commitment among employees. Their findings revealed job satisfaction had a significant and positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in both countries. Finally, a meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (2002) also showed a significant and positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment.

Leadership Behavior

Various leadership styles have also been shown to be related to OCB and affective organizational commitment. Among them are transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership occurs when leaders elevate the interests of their employees, encourage employees to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group, and generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and overall mission of the group (Bass,1990). Transformational leaders use four strategies to motivate their employees. These are (i) idealized influence, (ii) inspirational motivation, (iii) intellectual stimulation, and (iv) individualized consideration (Tharnpas & Boon-itt, 2015). According to Orabi (2016), idealized influence refers to leaders' ability to inspire followers to work harder to reach a certain goal, whereas inspirational motivation refers to the creation of a vision and positive

expectations that followers can achieve. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders improve followers' ability to solve challenges through creativity and innovation, whereas individualized consideration necessitates leaders recognizing and supporting each follower's needs.

Transformational leaders try to encourage their followers to be creative and innovative by creating a diverse and open environment. This type of leadership style plays an influential role in change and strategic planning as it helps the leader seek other paths to goals that stray from the norm. Individual consideration provides a supportive climate to group members with leaders creating a diverse and supportive environment where all members are listened to and treated with respect. This type of leader will act as a mentor and coach for team members and inspires them to reach their goals (Jandaghi et al., 2009; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

Transactional leadership occurs when leaders exchange promises of rewards and benefits with subordinates for their fulfillment of agreements with the leader (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders use behavioral principles of rewards and punishments to make clear the behaviors that are expected of their subordinates. For example, transactional leaders' contingent reward behavior refers to subordinates' receiving rewards contingent on their performance.

Research shows that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership are positively associated with employees' display of OCBs. For example, Dartey-Baah et al. (2019) examined the relationship between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and OCB among 209 employees from 45 different hospitality institutions (e.g., hotels, guesthouses, restaurants). Their findings showed that both

transformational and transactional leadership behaviors were positively related to employees' engagement with OCB. Similar results were obtained among 150 employees in the banking industry, showing the more transformational and transactional leadership styles supervisors showed, the more OCBs their subordinates displayed (Suliman & Al Obaidli, 2013). Results of a meta-analysis by Podsakoff et al. (2000) revealed that every aspect of transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively related to various types of OCBs (e.g., altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy).

There is also a positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment. For example, H.K. Kim (2014) examined transformational leadership and its relationship with affective organizational commitment in the public sector in South Korea. Results showed a positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment. Cho et al. (2019) compared the relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational) and affective organizational commitment for both U.S. and Korean employees. Results from this study revealed that there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment for both countries, but the relationship was stronger in the United States than in Korea. The relationship between transactional and affective organizational commitment was positive in the Korean sample but not in the United States. According to the authors, this finding is because employees in the United States appreciate transformational leaders who challenge them intellectually and treat them as individuals (Walumbwa et al., 2005). In contrast, because Korean culture is deeply rooted in Confucianism, which emphasizes hierarchical inequalities but values harmonious relationships, Korean employees are more

likely to comply with transactional leaders who clearly define roles, establish goals, and provide rewards in exchange for their commitment to the organization (Kim & Hong, 2017; H. Kim, 2014). Results from these studies suggest that transformational leadership is a predictor of OCB and affective organizational commitment.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is defined as the extent to which individuals perceive organizational events as being fair (Greenberg, 1987). There are several dimensions of organizational justice. Distributive justice is the perceived fairness of the outcomes one receives from a social exchange. Procedural justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the procedures and/or policies a company uses to arrive at decisions. Informational justice refers to the appropriateness of explanations offered for procedures (e.g., truthful, adequate, and candid explanations). Finally, interactional justice has to do with the amount of social sensitivity individuals receive and the degree to which they are treated with respect and dignity (Greenberg, 1987).

There is a positive relationship between the components of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, informational justice, interactional justice) and OCB. For example, Jafari and Bidarian (2012) investigated the relationship between organizational justice and OCB among university employees in Tehran. Results showed a positive relationship between the two such that, the more these employees perceived organizational fairness, the more OCBs they displayed.

Donglong et al. (2020) studied the relationship between organizational justice and two dimensions of OCB among university faculty members in China: OCB-toward organizations

and OCB-toward individuals. OCB toward individuals (OCB-I) includes behaviors such as volunteering, helping, and collaboratively working with others, whereas OCB toward the organization (OCB-O) includes behaviors such as volunteering for extra work, sharing ideas, showing up on time, and going above and beyond the minimum requirements of the job role. A questionnaire was distributed to 257 university faculty members. Results showed that all three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) had positive associations with both OCB-O and OCB-I. A study by Colquitt and Greenberg (2003) also showed that all the dimensions of organizational justice were positively related to OCB. These results indicate that employees are more likely to display OCBs when they perceive that they are treated fairly in their organizations.

Organizational justice also plays an important role in predicting affective organizational commitment. For example, Primawidi and Mangundjaya (2020) studied the relationship between organizational justice and affective organizational commitment by collecting data from 42 employees working in a financial service company. The results of this study revealed a positive relationship between the two. Dhaouadi and Sliti (2022) collected data from 864 employees from a telecom sector in Tunis to investigate the relationship between organizational justice and affective organizational commitment. Their findings suggested that enhancing organizational justice could increase employees' affective commitment, which could have a positive impact on their performance and retention.

Results of several meta-analyses are consistent with these findings, suggesting that organizational justice is positively related to affective organizational commitment (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Meyer et al., 2002). Although the above literature shows that job satisfaction,

leader behavior, and organizational justice commonly predict OCB and affective commitment, one other common predictor of these variables is perceived overqualification.

Perceived Overqualification

Perceived overqualification refers to the perception of an employee considering themselves to possess more skills, experience, and education than required for their job role (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Lee et al., 2021). Overqualification has become prevalent among employees around the world. According to the International Labor Office (2018), roughly 20% of workers have qualifications that exceed the requirements needed for their jobs.

One of the most frequently used theoretical frameworks for describing the consequences of perceived overqualification is the person-environment (P-E) fit theory (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Luksyte et al., 2011). P-E fit theory refers to the degree of congruence between individuals and aspects of their work environment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). P-E fit theory is a multidimensional construct and one dimension of it is the person-job (P-J) fit. P-J fit is referred to as the congruence between a person's characteristics and those of a specific job. There are two types of P-J fit; demands-abilities fit, and needs-supplies fit. Demands-abilities fit is the compatibility between employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) and the requirements of a job, whereas needs-supplies fit captures how well the environment meets individuals' needs, desires, and preferences (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

P-J fit theory predicts that a greater degree of fit between a person and their job leads to more positive individual and organizational outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Perceived overqualification can be considered a poor P-J fit because employees feel that they have more skills, knowledge, and work experience than a job requires and that their desires

and needs are not met (Maynard et al., 2006). Consistent with the P-J fit theory, research shows that those who perceive to be overqualified are less likely to be satisfied with their job (Johnson & Johnson, 2000), have higher turnover intentions (Maynard et al., 2006), withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, lateness/tardiness, leaving the job, internal job transfer, turnover; Erdogan & Bauer., 2009), poorer psychological well-being (e.g., psychosomatic symptoms, depression) and reduced physical health, and conflict with family members (Harari et al., 2017; Johnson & Johnson, 1997; Maynard et al., 2006; McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011).

Relationship Between Perceived Overqualification, OCB, and Affective Organizational Commitment

Perceived overqualification has also been shown to be related to OCB and affective organizational commitment. For example, Chen et al. (2017) collected data from 538 full-time employees from diverse occupations in China to test the predicted effects of perceived overqualification on OCB. Results showed that there was a significant negative relationship between them such that the more employees perceived themselves to be overqualified for their jobs, the less likely they demonstrated OCB.

Yang and Li (2021) conducted a meta-analysis and hypothesized perceived overqualification to have a positive overall effect on negative extra-role behaviors (i.e., counterproductive behavior, turnover) and a negative effect on positive extra-role behavioral responses (i.e., OCBs). Counterproductive work behavior is employee behavior that goes against the goals and interests of the organization (e.g., theft, workplace bullying, aggression, absenteeism). Results supported their hypothesis that perceived overqualification had a significant and negative relationship with OCB, suggesting that workers who considered

themselves to possess more skills, education, experience, and skills than required from their job were less likely to display OCBs. There was a significant positive relationship between perceived overqualification and negative extra-role behaviors including counterproductive work behaviors and turnover, indicating employees with higher levels of perceived overqualification were more likely to undertake counterproductive work behavior or leave the organization. Similar results were obtained by Harari et al. (2017) who found that perceived overqualification was negatively related to the self-ratings of OCB, indicating employees who are high in perceived overqualification engage in a lower number of OCBs.

Perceived overqualification has also been shown to be negatively related to affective organizational commitment. Maynard et al. (2006) surveyed 238 employees to examine relations between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment. Results showed that perceived overqualification significantly predicted affective organizational commitment after controlling for demographic information of these employees (e.g., education level, year of degree completion, age, and gender). Lobene and Meade (2013) surveyed 170 full-time primary and secondary school educators in a suburban mid-Atlantic school system on perceived qualification and their affective organizational commitment to their school. Results revealed perceived overqualification to be negatively related to affective organizational commitment. That is, the more overqualified these school educators perceived themselves to be for their jobs, the less likely they were affectively committed to the organization.

Guo et al. (2015) conducted a cross-sectional study to examine the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment. Using a sample of

4,511 nurses from eight tertiary hospitals, results showed that there was a weak negative relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment, suggesting that the more these nurses perceived themselves to be overqualified for the job, the less affectively committed they were to the organization.

All of these studies above clearly show perceived overqualification to be related negatively to OCB and affective organizational commitment. Given the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment, researchers have attempted to identify factors that mitigate such negative relationships. The following section reviews the literature on moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment.

Moderators of the Relationship Between Perceived Overqualification and OCB and Affective Organizational Commitment

Zheng and Wang (2017) investigated the moderating role of organizational learning on the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment among 301 participants in China. Organizational learning is defined as the process of creating, retaining, and transferring knowledge within the organization and its members (Zheng & Wang, 2017). Zheng and Wang (2017) asserted that building a learning organization requires considerable effort, a series of steps should be taken, and widely distributed activities should be performed such as experimenting with new ideas or methods, analyzing information and ideas, and forming a system of education and training. They argued that perceived overqualification causes a feeling of deprivation due to excess KSAs, hence leading to less commitment to the organization, but organizational learning is likely to alleviate such a negative relationship.

They hypothesized that organizational learning would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment such that the relationship would be weaker when the level of organizational learning is high than when it is low. Results showed the opposite of what they expected. More specifically, perceived overqualification was negatively related to affective organizational commitment when organizational learning was high. In other words, the more overqualified employees believed they were, the less committed they were to their organization when there was high organizational learning. There was no relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment when organizational learning was low.

They attributed these findings to the fact that organizational learning is usually an effective managerial practice, and just-sufficiently qualified and underqualified employees seem to gain more from it than overqualified individuals in terms of emotional commitment and performance because overqualified individuals already have more skills and better abilities. The scope for improvement of their skills and abilities through organizational learning might be limited, compared to those who are just sufficiently qualified or underqualified (Zheng & Wang., 2017).

Lobene and Meade (2013) examined the moderating effect of career calling on the relationship between perceived overqualification and several work outcomes including organizational commitment among 170 K-12 teachers in a public school system. A “calling” is “when an individual attempts to make the world a better place and experiences personal fulfillment through his or her work” (Lobene & Meade, 2013, p. 510). Calling is associated with the experience of wholeness, satisfaction, and fulfillment, and some sacrifices for some

forms of satisfaction (Lobene & Meade, 2013). Thus, individuals with a calling orientation frequently describe their work as being essential to their lives and identities. They see their profession as a means of self-expression and personal fulfillment.

The researchers argued that because the pursuit of a calling could involve personal sacrifice, it would buffer the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and undesirable work outcomes. They hypothesized that calling orientation would moderate the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment such that the relationship would be weaker when calling is high than when calling is low. However, their results showed that calling did not moderate the relationship between overqualification and affective organizational commitment.

The results of these studies indicate that moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment are not consistent. To my best knowledge, there are no studies that have examined moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB. This indicates that more research is needed to identify moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. I believe that perceived organizational support acts as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. The section below defines POS and provides a rationale for why and how POS moderates the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

Perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as the extent to which employees

believe their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). POS is the central construct of organizational support theory, which explains relationships between employers and employees based on social exchange theory (Baran et al., 2012). According to this theory, employees view the organization as having human-like characteristics through a personification process and take their favorable treatment or unfavorable treatment as an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them as an individual (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).

POS has been found to be positively associated with a variety of job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, organizational identification, job involvement, intention to stay) and job behaviors (e.g., OCB, task performance), and negatively associated with withdrawal activities (e.g., job search behavior, actual turnover, turnover intentions) and burnout (e.g., emotional exhaustion) (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Several reasons exist for the impact of POS on these attitudes and behaviors. First, POS is based on social exchange theory. Homans (1961) defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, between at least two parties. The purpose of this exchange is to maximize benefits and minimize costs. If employees think their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, POS invokes the norm of reciprocity and produces a felt obligation to help the organization reach its goals (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). As a result, employees feel obligated to respond in ways that benefit their organization and help it reach its goals, in the form of greater job attitudes, increased effort and performance, and reduced turnover intentions.

POS also fulfills the socioemotional needs of employees (i.e., needs for esteem,

affiliation, and emotional support). For example, POS conveys to employees that the organization judges employees as superior performers and is proud of their accomplishments, thus satisfying the need for esteem. POS conveys to employees that the organization is committed to them and accepts them as members of the organization, thus satisfying the need for affiliation. POS also conveys to employees that the organization provides emotional support and material aid when needed, which satisfies the need for emotional support. Finally, POS strengthens employees' expectations that their increased efforts on behalf of the organization will be noticed and rewarded, and consequently, employees develop performance-reward expectancies (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

All of these characteristics of POS convey to employees that they are valued members of the organization and help them develop a trusting relationship with them. Therefore, even if employees perceive themselves to be overqualified for their jobs, they are likely to display OCBs and be committed affectively to the organization when POS is high than when it is low. For this reason, POS is likely to act as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment.

This assertion is somewhat consistent with Bolino et al. (2015), who examined POS as a moderator of the relationship between OCB and citizenship fatigue. Citizenship fatigue is defined as “a state in which employees feel worn out, tired, or on edge attributed to engaging in OCB” (Bolino et al., 2015, p. 57). More specifically, citizenship fatigue is a state characterized by both a feeling of being worn out, tired, or on edge, and a belief that the employee is going beyond the call of duty (Bolino et al., 2015). They argued that employees who perform OCB would be less likely to experience citizenship fatigue if they work for an

organization that values their employees and provides them with both tangible and socioemotional resources (e.g., material aid, emotional support) and that employees would be more likely to experience citizenship fatigue if they work in the organization that does not value them. Data were collected from 273 employees working in private universities in Taiwan. Results showed that the relationship between OCB and citizenship fatigue was significant and positive when POS was low. This indicates that engaging in OCB is positively related to citizenship fatigue when employees feel their organization does not support them. However, they did not find a negative relationship between OCB and citizenship fatigue when POS was high.

These findings suggest that POS moderates the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB. Employees who believe they are overqualified are likely to perform better on the job, go above and beyond the organization's expectations, and demonstrate OCBs if they believe their organization is supportive, cares about them, and looks after their needs. POS instills a sense of indebtedness in employees' minds which motivates them to participate in extra-role OCB activities (Jain et al., 2013).

Likewise, the above evidence suggests that POS moderates the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment. POS helps increase employees' attachment to the organization by strengthening their effort-outcome expectancy so that greater effort toward meeting organizational goals will be rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The more organizations reward their employees for their hard work, value their contributions, and care about their well-being, the more committed employees will be to the organization even if they feel overqualified for their roles. Based on the norm of reciprocity,

employees who perceive their organization to support them feel obligated to reciprocate favorable treatment through behaviors such as additional effort and motivation. Thus, even if employees perceive themselves to be overqualified, if they perceive support from the organization, they will likely feel indebted to the organization and will therefore have higher levels of affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Even if employees feel overqualified for their job role, their OCB and affective organizational commitment will not be influenced if their company has high POS and provides them with support, rewards, encouragement, and security (Bolino et al., 2015; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Jain et al., 2013).

Therefore, the following hypotheses were tested in the present study:

Hypothesis 1: POS will moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB such that the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB will be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high.

Hypothesis 2: POS will moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment such that the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment will be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high.

The Present Study

Perceived overqualification is negatively associated with desirable work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment) and positively associated with undesirable work outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions). Factors that mitigate such relationships show inconsistent findings and more research is needed in this area. Thus, the

major purpose of the study was to examine POS as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. It was expected that the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective commitment would be less negative when POS is high than when it is low. This study contributes to the existing literature because no study has looked at POS as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment.

Method

Participants

A total of 158 participants responded to an online survey. Participants were selected from a convenience sample of my personal and professional networks (e.g., Gmail, LinkedIn, Facebook, Instagram) as well as the extended networks of the participants. Criteria for inclusion in the study were that participants (a) were 18 years or older, (b) were currently employed, (c) had more than 3 months of tenure at their current organization, and/or (d) did not have a substantial amount of incomplete data. Based on these criteria, the final sample consisted of 110 participants.

The demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1. The sample consisted of 44 females (40.0%), 65 males (59.1%), and one non-binary/third gender (.9%). The age of the sample was somewhat young, with 25 to 34 years (30.0%), 35 to 44 years (24.5%), and 18 -24 (20.0%). In terms of ethnicity, most participants reported that they were White/Caucasian (53.6%), followed by multiple ethnicities/other (13.6%), Asian/Pacific Islander (11.8%), and Black or African American (10.9%).

Organizational tenure ranged from 3 months to more than 12 years, with 34.5% of participants reporting that they had been at their current organization between 1 and 3 years, followed by 3 months to 1 year (21.8%) and 4 to 6 years (19.1%). When asked to indicate their work arrangement, most participants reported that they were working in an office (54.5%), followed by hybrid (26.4%) and remote (19.1%). Participants were employed in various industries, including computer software/electronics (14.5%), engineering/architecture (14.5%), health/pharmaceutical (10.9%), and “Other” (26.4%).

Table 1*Demographic and Background Characteristics of Respondents*

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Female	44	40.0%
Male	65	59.1%
Non-binary/Third Gender	1	0.9%
Age		
18-24	22	20.0%
25-34	33	30.0%
35-44	27	24.5%
45-54	14	12.7%
55-64	11	10.0%
Over 64	3	2.7%
Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaskan Native	1	0.9%
Asian/Pacific Islander	13	11.8%
Black or African American	12	10.9%
Hispanic	3	2.7%
White/Caucasian	59	53.6%
Multiple Ethnicity/Other	15	13.6%
Choose to not self-identify	7	6.4%
Tenure		
3 months to 1 year	24	21.8%
1-3 years	38	34.5%
4-6 years	21	19.1%
7-9 years	10	9.1%
10-12 years	3	2.7%
More than 12 years	14	12.7%
Work Arrangement		
In-person	60	54.5%
Remote	21	19.1%
Hybrid	29	26.4%

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Industry		
Computer Software/Electronics	16	14.5%
Education	9	8.2%
Engineering/Architecture	16	14.5%
Entertainment, Media, Recreation	1	0.9%
Finance/Insurance	6	5.5%
Food Service	1	0.9%
Healthcare/Pharmaceutical	12	10.9%
Legal	2	1.8%
Manufacturing	9	8.2%
Real Estate	2	1.8%
Sales/Retail	7	6.4%
Other	29	26.4%

Note. *N* = 110

Measures

Perceived Overqualification

Perceived overqualification is defined as the extent to which employees believe they have more skills, abilities, and work experience than their job requires (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). Perceived overqualification was measured by the scale developed by Johnson et al. (2002). The scale consisted of 10 items. Sample items included "My formal education overqualifies me for my present job" and "My talents are not fully utilized on my job." Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 7 = *Strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha for the 10 items was .69, indicating somewhat poor reliability. Inspection of these items showed that the removal of one item "Some continuing education related to my job would improve my job performance" increased reliability. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha was computed for the remaining 9 items, and it was .76, indicating good reliability. Responses were averaged to

obtain a composite score. Higher scores indicated higher levels of perceived overqualification.

Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective organizational commitment refers to individuals' emotional attachment to and identification with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective organizational commitment was measured using six items from Rhoades et al.'s (2001) scale of organizational commitment. Sample items included "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization" and "I am proud to tell others I work at my organization." Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 7 = *Strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha was .89, indicating high reliability. Responses were averaged to create an overall score of affective organizational commitment. The higher the score, the more affectively committed the participant felt toward their organization.

OCB

OCBs refer to behaviors that often go above and beyond one's job description and include behaviors such as helping others and taking additional responsibilities (Bolino et al., 2013). OCB was measured using 12 items from Podsakoff et al.'s (1997) scale of OCB. Sample items included "Take steps to try to prevent problems with other colleagues" and "Help each other out if someone falls behind in their work." Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 7 = *Strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha was .84, indicating good reliability. Responses were averaged to obtain a composite score, and higher scores indicated

higher levels of OCBs.

POS

POS is defined as the extent to which employees believe that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).

Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) nine-item scale on POS was used in this study. Sample items included "The organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me" (reverse coded). Participants rated these nine statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 7 = *Strongly agree*), indicating the degree to which each statement applied to them. Cronbach's alpha was .82, indicating good reliability. Responses were averaged to obtain a composite score. High scores indicated higher levels of POS.

Demographic Information

Participants responded to six demographic items. Items included gender, age, ethnicity, organizational tenure, work arrangement, and industry.

Procedure

Qualtrics, an online survey software, was used to collect data for the survey. Participants were recruited through my social and professional platforms (e.g., LinkedIn, Gmail, Facebook, Instagram). The invitation to participate included a brief description of the study, an anonymous link to the survey, and a request that participants share the survey link with their extended networks. Participants were directed to a consent notice after clicking the link to the survey, which provided information on the purpose of the study, procedures to be followed, potential risks and benefits, confidentiality parameters, their right to participate or

withdraw at any time, and appropriate points of contact if they had questions, concerns, or complaints about the study.

Those who agreed to participate were then directed to the survey which contained a total of 37 items regarding their demographic characteristics, perceived overqualification, affective organizational commitment, OCB, and POS. Participants who did not consent to the survey, reported themselves as younger than 18, were unemployed, and/or indicated having been employed at their current organization for less than three months were directed to the end of the survey and thanked for their time. The survey took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Instructions were displayed at the top of each section to notify participants of the type of questions that would be asked. Participants were thanked for their time at the end of the survey. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program Version 28.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 displays the means and standard deviations for the measured variables. Participants reported a neutral level of perceived overqualification ($M = 3.78$, $SD = 1.01$). Participants indicated that they were somewhat affectively committed to their organizations ($M = 4.56$, $SD = 1.47$) and displayed moderately high levels of OCB ($M = 5.32$, $SD = .82$), indicating that participants were willing to go above and beyond in the workplace, and perceived that their organizations were moderately supportive ($M = 4.63$, $SD = .81$).

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Pearson Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas for the Measured Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived overqualification	3.78	1.01	(.76)			
2. Affective organizational commitment	4.56	1.47	-.31 **	(.89)		
3. OCB	5.32	.82	-.13	.36 **	(.84)	
4. POS	4.63	.81	-.25 **	.63 **	.42 **	(.82)

Note. Reliability Coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) are in the parentheses along the diagonal.

** $p < .01$, $N = 110$

Pearson Correlations

Pearson correlations were calculated to examine the strength and nature of the relationships among the measured variables. The Pearson correlations are displayed in Table 2. Interestingly, there was no significant correlation between perceived overqualification and OCB, $r(108) = -.13$, $p = .17$, suggesting that one's perception of being overqualified was not related to their display of OCBs. However, there was a negative and moderate relationship

between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment, $r(107) = -.31$, $p < .01$, such that those employees who perceived themselves to be more overqualified for their jobs were less likely to experience emotional attachment to their organization.

Perceived overqualification was also negatively related to POS, $r(108) = -.25$, $p < .01$, such that those employees who believed to be more overqualified for their jobs were less likely to perceive that their organization valued their contributions and cared about their well-being.

Results also showed that affective organizational commitment had a moderate and positive relationship with OCB, $r(108) = .36$, $p < .01$, and a strong and positive relationship with POS, $r(108) = .63$, $p < .01$. These relationships showed that those employees who were emotionally attached and identified with their organization were more likely to display extra-role behaviors such as helping others and believed that their organization cared about their well-being and valued their contributions to the organization. There was a moderate and positive relationship between OCB and POS, $r(108) = .42$, $p < .01$, such that employees who went above and beyond their job description were more likely to perceive that their organization valued their work and cared about their wellbeing, and vice versa.

Overall, these results showed that employees who perceived themselves to be more overqualified were less likely to affectively commit to their organization and believe their company cared about their overall well-being. Employees who experienced higher levels of affective organizational commitment were more likely to display OCB and have higher POS. Similarly, those who experienced higher levels of OCB also experienced higher levels of POS.

Tests of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated that POS would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, such that the relationship would be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high. To test this hypothesis, a hierarchical multiple regression (MRC) analysis was conducted, using three steps.

Perceived overqualification was entered into the first step to see if it had a significant relationship with OCB. In the second step, the moderating variable of POS was entered. In the third step, the cross-product of perceived overqualification and POS was entered to test for a moderating effect. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Perceived Overqualification and POS Predicting OCB

Predictors	OCB		
	R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1. Perceived overqualification	.017	.017	-.131
Step 2. POS	.174 ***	.157 ***	.410 ***
Step 3. Perceived overqualification X POS	.174 ***	.000	-.033

Note: $N = 110$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The first step of the analysis showed that perceived overqualification did not predict OCB and accounted for only 1.7% of the variance in OCB, $R^2 = .017$, $R^2_{adj} = .008$, $F(1,107) = 1.87$, $p = .17$. This means that perceived overqualification did not significantly contribute to the prediction of the participants' OCB. In the second step, POS was shown to account for an

additional 15.7% of the variance in OCB above and beyond the effect of perceived overqualification, $\Delta R^2 = .157$, $F(1,106) = 20.19$, $p < .001$. This result means that POS contributed to predicting OCB above and beyond perceived overqualification.

Results of the third step showed that added effect of the interactions between perceived overqualification and POS was not significant. The interaction effect explained no additional variance in OCB above and beyond the effects of perceived overqualification and POS, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1,105) = .00$, $p = .95$. Overall, results did not show that POS moderated the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, thus Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that POS would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment such that the relationship would be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high. Again, to test this hypothesis, a hierarchical MRC analysis was conducted, using three steps. Perceived overqualification was entered into the first step to see if it had a significant relationship with affective organizational commitment. In the second step, the moderating variable of POS was entered. In the third step, the cross-product of perceived overqualification and POS was entered to test for a moderating effect. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 4.

The result of the first step of the analysis showed that perceived overqualification significantly predicted affective organizational commitment and accounted for 9.3% of the variance in affective organizational commitment, $R^2 = .093$, $R^2_{adj} = .085$, $F(1,107) = 11.01$, $p < .01$. This means that perceived overqualification significantly contributed to the prediction of participants' affective organizational commitment.

In the second step, POS was shown to account for an additional 32.7% of the variance in affective organizational commitment above and beyond the effect of perceived overqualification, $\Delta R^2 = .327$, $F(1,106) = 59.80$, $p < .001$. This result means that POS contributed to predicting affective organizational commitment above and beyond perceived overqualification.

Results from the third step showed that the added effect of the interaction between perceived overqualification and POS was not significant. The interaction effect explained no additional variance in affective organizational commitment above and beyond the effects of perceived overqualification, $\Delta R^2 = .000$, $F(1,105) = .07$, $p = .79$. Overall, these results showed that POS did not moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment, thus Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 4

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Perceived Overqualification and POS Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment

		Affective Organizational Commitment			
Predictors		R^2	ΔR^2	β	
Step 1.	Perceived overqualification	.093 **	.093 **	-.305	**
Step 2.	POS	.420 ***	.327 ***	.591	***
Step 3.	Perceived overqualification X POS	.421	.000	-.121	

Note: $N = 110$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

In sum, the results of the present study showed that POS did not moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB (Hypothesis 1) and affective

organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2). However, results showed that perceived overqualification predicted directly affective organizational commitment. POS predicted both OCB and affective organizational commitment above and beyond perceived overqualification.

Discussion

Perceived overqualification has consistently been shown to be associated negatively with a variety of attitudes and behavior that organizations value, including job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, OCB, and performance, as well as well-being and physical health (Maynard et al., 2006; McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011).

Although past studies have examined some variables (e.g., organizational learning, career calling) as moderators of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment, little attention has been given to POS as a moderator of these relationships. I thought that if employees perceive their organizations value them and care about their well-being, they may still go above and beyond the call of duty and are affectively committed to the organization even if they feel overqualified for their job. Thus, in the present study I proposed that POS would act as a moderator of these relationships. Therefore, the major purpose of this study was to examine POS as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, and affective organizational commitment.

Summary of Findings

Hypothesis 1 stated that POS would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB such that the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB would be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high. This hypothesis was not supported as there was no significant interaction between perceived overqualification and POS on OCB.

The lack of support for this hypothesis could be due to the lack of a relationship between

perceived overqualification and OCB. Although there was a negative relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, the relationship was not statistically significant.

Because there was no relationship between them, it may be that POS could not influence the nature of the relationship between them. Perhaps it makes no difference on the display of OCB whether the organization supports them or cares about their well-being even if they are overqualified for their job.

Hypothesis 2 stated that POS would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment such that the relationship would be more negative and stronger when POS is low than when POS is high. This hypothesis was not supported as there was no significant interaction between perceived overqualification and POS on affective organizational commitment.

One explanation for the lack of support for this hypothesis could be that perceived overqualification was so demotivating to employees, they became less affectively committed to their organization. This might be true, regardless of the level of POS. Perhaps the effect of perceived overqualification on affective organizational commitment was too strong for POS to have a mitigating effect, thus POS may not make any difference in affective organizational commitment. Also, perception of overqualification might indicate the lack of POS such that even if organization provides high levels of support for its employees, overqualified individuals do not think they experience gain from POS. In addition, the lack of support for both hypotheses could be due to POS not being a good moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. I will discuss this further in the theoretical implication section.

Results also showed that there was a negative relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment. These results indicate that employees who perceived themselves to be more overqualified for their jobs were less likely to experience emotional attachment to their organization.

Although results did not show that POS acted as a moderator, it was negatively related to perceived overqualification. This finding suggests that employees who believed to be more overqualified for their jobs were less likely to perceive that their organization valued their contributions and cared about their well-being. Finally, the results of the present study demonstrated that POS was positively related to OCB and affective organizational commitment, suggesting that if employees perceived that their organizations cared about them, they were more likely to display extra-role behavior that helps other employees and their organizations and become affectively committed to their organization.

Theoretical Implications

There have been limited studies exploring the moderating role of POS on the relationships between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. One potential reason that POS did not act as a moderator of this relationship might be due to the concept of POS. Past studies showed that variables such as organizational learning and career calling (Lobene & Meade, 2013) acted as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions, affective commitment, job satisfaction, performance). Knowledge skills (e.g., creation, retention, transfer) are also commonly examined within organizational learning. These moderators are related to one's job. In comparison, POS is a broad organizational concept. Perhaps, the

variables that moderate the relationship between overqualification and work-related attitudes and behavior might need to be job-related characteristics such as job autonomy or job characteristics rather than the perception that one's organization values them or not.

Due to this, it might be more beneficial to examine job-related moderators such as supervisor support or autonomy. Future studies could examine supervisor support as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification, OCB, and affective organizational commitment and focus on supervisors' ability to give employees more autonomy, as it helps employees feel more in control of their work as well as assigning challenging tasks and responsibilities to meet workers qualification.

In the current study, OCB was not significantly predicted by perceived overqualification. This result is not consistent with past findings (e.g., Chen et al., 2017; Harari et al., 2017; Yang & Li, 2021). For example, Chen et al. (2017) found a significant negative relationship between perceived overqualification and OCBs among Chinese employees. Yang and Li (2021) also found that perceived overqualification had a significant and negative relationship with OCB among employees. Finally, a meta-analysis by Harari et al. (2017) showed that perceived overqualification was negatively related to the self-ratings of OCB. These findings indicate that the more employees perceived themselves to be overqualified for their jobs, the less likely they demonstrated OCBs. According to Chen et al. (2017), anger toward job arrangement was found to mediate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB, in which higher perceived overqualification led to stronger anger toward job arrangement, which in turn led to fewer displays of OCB. In other words, overqualified

employees were less likely to display OCB because they felt angry toward their job arrangement.

Although perceived overqualification was negatively related to OCB in the present study, the relationship was not statistically significant. One reason for the lack of a significant relationship between them in the present study is that I conducted the study during the COVID-19 pandemic, which increased remote work. Because most studies examining this relationship had participants who worked in person (Chen et al., 2017; Lobene & Meade., 2013; Johnson & Johnson., 2000; Harari et al.,2017), I thought the lack of consistency might be due to the different types of work arrangements (i.e., remote, hybrid, in-person) employees worked in when taking the survey in the present study. It is possible that perceived overqualification might have not affected OCB because some employees were working from home thus, having fewer opportunities to display OCBs compared to those who worked in person.

Therefore, I conducted an additional analysis to examine the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB among those who worked in person, those who worked remotely, and those who worked hybrid (in-person and remote). All the results were not statistically significant. However, a negative relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB was obtained for those who worked in-person, $r(58) = -.21, p = .11$ and those who worked remotely, $r(19) = -.21, p = .37$. There was a positive relationship between them for those who worked hybrid, $r(26) = .13, p = .50$. These results tend to show that the more perceived overqualification, the less display of OCB among those who worked in-person as well as those who worked remotely. These findings are somewhat consistent

with past findings.

The finding that perceived overqualification had a negative and moderate relationship with affective organizational commitment is consistent with past findings (e.g., Guo et al, 2022; Lebene & Meade, 2013; Meynard et al., 2006). For example, Maynard et al (2006) found that perceived overqualification significantly predicted affective organizational commitment after controlling for demographic information (e.g., education level, years after obtaining the highest educational degree, age, gender). Lebene and Meade (2013) also found school educators who felt overqualified for their role were less committed to their schools. Finally, Guo et al. (2022) found a weak negative relationship between perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment among nurses. These findings, along with the current finding, indicate that perceived overqualification seems to be a consistent predictor of affective organizational commitment across various jobs.

Practical Implications

Even though the study's results did not support the hypotheses that POS would moderate the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and perceived overqualification and affective organizational commitment, the study's findings have several practical implications. First, the finding that perceived overqualification had a negative relationship with affective organizational commitment suggests that organizations might consider assessing perceived overqualification via a yearly survey to evaluate whether an employee's skills, experience, and education best match their job requirements. If an employee perceives themselves to be overqualified, the employer could alter the requirements to fit their qualification which can then help the employer feel more valued by

the organization since they feel that their skills are being acknowledged and utilized in their work and they are more likely to show affective commitment to their organization.

The finding that perceived overqualification was negatively related to POS suggests that if individuals feel they are overqualified for their jobs, they are less likely to feel that their organization values them and cares about their well-being. To deal with this, organizations should establish fair selection in the hiring process so their hiring teams would be less likely to hire overqualified individuals for the job (Eisenberger et al., 2020). Hiring managers should match the skills the candidate possesses with open job roles within the organization that best matches their qualification. During the hiring process, recruiters should take time to see if the candidate matches the skills, experience, and education required for the specific role they are hiring for, and if the recruiter sees that the candidate is overqualified for that role, they can suggest a different position that best matches their skills, experience, and education or give them more responsibility and autonomy in their role. Doing this is likely to provide employees with a sense of being valued and they are likely to perceive support from their organization.

The finding that POS predicted both OCB and affective organizational commitment, regardless of participants' perception that they were overqualified for their jobs suggests that organizations should implement organizational support systems within their workplaces. There are many different ways employees can recognize POS within their organization (Eisenberger et al., 2020). For example, employees recognize POS through fairness, manager support, and job rewards. Organizations should advocate and create systems for fairness so that employees can feel that they are being compensated fairly for their work, are given a fair

workload, have equal access to tools and resources to encourage their development, and are treated with respect. Organizations should also develop specific management support systems for employees. Managers should offer employees motivation and reassurance that the work they are providing the organization is both effective and meaningful. POS produces employees' expectations that their increased efforts on behalf of the organization will be noticed and rewarded. From this, employees develop performance-reward expectancies. Providing proper job rewards for employees who go beyond their job requirements can help employees feel supported in the workplace and that their extra effort is appreciated. By providing job rewards, employees can better understand the value of their work and that the company values not only the work they have completed but the time it took to complete as well.

Companies can improve their employees' perception of organizational support by creating a system where employees could easily express their concerns and leave feedback to their employers. They should also create surveys focused on management concerning how managers and those in higher positions can help improve their support of employees. Managers should also provide employees with incentives for their work, as this can help them understand how much the organization values their hard work and improve the quality and productivity of their work.

Supervisors often act as representatives of the organization and are the key to conveying to employees that the organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions. Managers can help enhance POS by engaging in supportive behaviors and promoting human resource policies that foster POS (Eisenberger et al., 2020). Organizations

can train managers to be more supportive and organizational leaders can create a more supportive organizational culture. Because POS helps fulfill employees' socio-emotional needs (need for esteem, affiliation, and emotional support, and social approval), organizations should judge employees as superior performers and be proud of their accomplishments, be committed to them, accept them as welcome members, provide emotional support and material aid, and force managers to help ensure that the employee behaviors are successfully meeting the organization's norms and standards by setting weekly checkpoints.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

One strength of the present study is that it was the first to examine the moderating effect of POS on the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. Although the results of the study did not support POS having a moderating effect, future studies should seek to examine job-related moderators to examine the relationship between perceived overqualification, OCB, and affective organizational commitment as there is currently a gap in the literature regarding these types of studies. The fact that participants in this study came from a variety of industries is another strength. Since participants from a variety of industries were included, it is possible that the results can be generalized to different industries rather than just one profession.

Despite the several strengths of the study, this study also has several limitations. First, over 50% of participants in the study identified themselves as White/Caucasian. The lack of ethnic diversity in the sample may mean that the results may not be generalized across different ethnicities. Future research should accommodate the language needs of under-

served ethnic minorities. Simply translating a survey into multiple languages may allow more participants from diverse backgrounds to fully understand the study they are part of and the questions they are being asked to answer.

Researchers should also offer paper surveys for those who do not have access to technological devices. These surveys can be distributed within the community. Furthermore, 54.5% of the sample worked in person. Due to the recent pandemic and more people working remotely or hybrid, the lack of work arrangement diversity in the sample may mean that the results may not be generalized across the different types of work arrangements. Future research should try and get equal numbers of participants from different types of work arrangements to ensure a more accurate analysis when comparing the three types of work arrangements.

An additional weakness of this study is that it utilized a cross-sectional design. The relationship between perceived overqualification, OCB, affective organizational commitment, and were measured at one point in time. Utilizing a cross-sectional design also means that a casual statement cannot be made. For example, based on the results of the current study, it cannot be said that higher levels of overqualification lead to less affective organizational commitment or that higher levels of POS lead to more OCB and affective organizational commitment in the workplace. As a result, these variables could have been affected by something that recently occurred at an employee's organization such as a change in leadership, promotion, relocation, or policy decision that would affect their opinion towards the organization short term.

In the future, researchers should create a longitudinal study of other moderators to

examine the relationship among perceived overqualification, OCB, and affective organizational commitment. Utilizing a longitudinal study would prevent single events like managerial change and promotion from greatly impacting the study as multiple responses over time would be collected from each participant. This can be accomplished by giving employees the same survey periodically over the year. This will allow organizations to check on their employees proactively, gain unique insights, and track changes in their experience working for the company over time.

Conclusion

The current study aimed to examine POS as a moderator of the relationship between perceived overqualification and OCB and affective organizational commitment. Even though POS was not found to have a moderating effect, this study still contributes to the literature as it showed that perceived overqualification predicted affective organizational commitment. This study also found that POS predicted both OCB and affective organizational commitment. Additional research still needs to be done to examine the relationship between how POS affects the relationship between perceived overqualification, OCB, and affective organizational commitment or identify other moderating variables.

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Appendix

Survey Items

Perceived Overqualification (Johnson, Morrow, & Johnson,2002)

1. My formal education overqualifies me for my present job.
2. My work experience is more than necessary to do my present job.
3. Frankly, I am overqualified for the job I hold.
4. My talents are not full I have mastered nearly every aspect of my job.
5. Some continuing education related to my job would improve my job performance.
6. My job frequently provides me with new challenges.
7. My job provides me with the opportunity to learn new things.
8. The day-to-day content of my job seldom changes.
9. My job has a lot of potential for change and growth.

Affective Organizational Commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli., 2001)

1. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
2. I feel personally attached to my organization.
3. I am proud to tell others I work at my organization.
4. Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me
5. I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire.
6. I really feel that the problems faced by my organization are also my problems.

Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger al.,1986)

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
7. The organization shows very little concern for me.
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
9. My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Podsakoff et al.,1997)

1. Help each other out if someone falls behind in his/her work.
2. Willingly share your expertise with other members of the organization.
3. Try to act like peacemakers when other colleagues have disagreements.
4. Take steps to try to prevent problems with other colleagues.
5. Willingly give of their time to help colleagues who have work-related problems.

6. Touch base with other colleagues before initiating actions that might affect them.
Encourage each other when someone is down.
7. Provide constructive suggestions about how colleagues can improve their effectiveness.
8. Are willing to risk disapproval to express their beliefs about what's best for the crew.
9. Attend and actively participate in team meetings.
10. Always focus on what is wrong with our situation, rather than the positive side.
11. Consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
12. Always find fault with what other colleagues are doing