

## RESEARCH REPORT

# Assisting Upon Entry: Helping Type and Approach as Moderators of How Role Conflict Affects Newcomer Resource Drain

Peter A. Bamberger  
Tel Aviv University

Dvora Geller  
College of Management Academic Studies

Etti Doveh  
Technion–Israel Institute of Technology

We extend recent research on the costs and benefits of helping to help providers by asking whether and under what conditions newcomer help giving may amplify or mitigate the role-conflict-based resource drain such individuals may experience in the context of their initial socialization. Drawing from conservation of resources (COR) theory, we propose that whether providing assistance to peers enhances or weakens newcomer help providers' resilience to such conflict-based resource drain (i.e., exhaustion) depends on both the type of help given (instrumental vs. emotional) and the orientation (more vs. less empowering) that newcomers adopt when providing it. We test our propositions on the basis of time-lagged data collected from newly hired call center representatives at the end of their first and sixth months on the job. Results largely support our predictions, with instrumental assistance mitigating, and emotional assistance exacerbating, the role-conflict-based resource drain experienced by newcomer help providers. Moreover, these amplifying effects of emotional help provision on the conflict-exhaustion relationship are largely eliminated among those newcomer help providers reporting a more empowering approach to help provision.

**Keywords:** helping, newcomers, organizational citizenship behavior, conservation of resources theory, emotional exhaustion

Assisting others can be both beneficial and costly to help providers (Lanaj, Johnson, & Wang, 2016). While some studies suggest that helping offers economic (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009), psychological (Lam, Wan, & Roussin, 2016; Uy, Lin, & Ilies, 2016), and even physiological (Carter, 1998; Poulin, Brown, Dillard, & Smith, 2013) benefits, others suggest that helping may adversely impact work goal progress and well-being (Bergeron, Shipp, Rosen, & Furst, 2013; Bolino &

Grant, 2016). Yet despite such divergent outcomes, most of these studies suggest that the benefits and costs of helping are resource-related, with benefits gleaned when helping boosts providers' resources, and costs incurred when helping depletes them (Bergeron, 2007; Lanaj et al., 2016; Uy et al., 2016).

Although recent studies have begun to identify some of the factors underlying these divergent provider outcomes (Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016), our understanding of the factors conditioning the utility of helping to providers remains limited for two reasons. First, research has primarily focused on how individual differences condition the implications of helping for providers. Hence, while these studies emphasize the potential importance of the characteristics of helping (Koopman et al., 2016), little is known as to whether and how different types of and approaches to helping influence its impact on those providing it. This is concerning because individual differences explain only a small portion of the variance in provider outcomes (Lanaj et al., 2016) and offer managers little to work with in affecting such outcomes.

Second, with the exception of Uy et al. (2016), who show that helping others can mitigate providers' short-term stressor-strain relations, research on helping's consequences to the provider has focused largely on the direct effects of help provision, neglecting its potential buffering effects. Accordingly, we know little about whether and how different types of and approaches to helping may interact with stressful job conditions in affecting longer-term pro-

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Peter A. Bamberger, Department of Organizational Behavior, Coller School of Management, Tel Aviv University; Dvora Geller, Department of Management and Organizational Studies, School of Business Administration, College of Management Academic Studies; Etti Doveh, Faculty of Industrial Engineering and Management, Technion–Israel Institute of Technology.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Peter A. Bamberger, Coller School of Management, Tel Aviv University, P.O. Box 39040, Ramat Aviv, 6997801, Israel. E-mail: [peterb@post.tau.ac.il](mailto:peterb@post.tau.ac.il)

vider outcomes. This is particularly relevant with respect to newcomers, who often face conflicting role demands associated with their need to quickly demonstrate task mastery (DeVaro, 2006; Louis, 1980) while simultaneously integrating socially and demonstrating organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Cain, Dana, & Newman, 2014; Methot, Lepak, Shipp, & Boswell, 2017). The urgent need to simultaneously master task responsibilities and establish a positive social reputation can place intense resource demands on newcomers, making them vulnerable to role-conflict-based resource depletion (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac, & Roussel, 2011). Surprisingly, despite the fact that OCB is increasingly viewed as part of the job (Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008), with newcomers under pressure to demonstrate it upon job entry (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006), we still know little as to the kinds of helping strategies newcomers adopt in the face of conflicting role demands, and the effects of different helping types and approaches on their longer-term well-being.

The current study addresses both of these concerns by drawing from COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988) to examine how different types of and approaches to helping may interact with newcomer role conflict (RC) in affecting the longer-term depletion of psychological resources. Conflicting role demands require newcomers to split resources across a variety of tasks, problems, and interactions, with resources allocated toward one set of demands being unavailable for others (Vandenberghe et al., 2011). Aside from the direct drain on resources stemming from these demands themselves, the need to regulate the allocation of resources across conflicting demands can place a significant secondary drain on psychological resources (Ellis et al., 2015; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Against this backdrop, we examine how two distinguishing characteristics of helping behavior—namely, (a) the degree to which help is more emotional versus instrumental in nature (Cohen & Wills, 1985), and (b) the degree to which the help is aimed at empowering recipients to act more autonomously in the future (Nadler, 2002)—may moderate such depletion processes. Using data from call center newcomers, our findings extend theory regarding the trade-off effects of helping on provider well-being.

We begin by examining the link between newcomer RC and emotional exhaustion, a key indicator of “depleted work-related emotional and motivational resources” (Halbesleben, Wheeler, & Paustian-Underdahl, 2013, p. 493). We then theorize about how the two characteristics of helping behavior studied here—that is, its emotional versus instrumental quality, and whether it is offered with an orientation promoting mastery and autonomy on the part of the recipient (what we call an empowering orientation)—may amplify or attenuate this relationship. After presenting the study’s method and results, we conclude with a discussion of the findings and suggestions for future research.

### RC and Newcomer Emotional Exhaustion

RC—the incompatibility of different expectations and demands associated with a given role (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970)—is a pervasive problem for those employed in service work (Chung & Schneider, 2002), and has consistently been found to be associated with exhaustion (Toker & Biron, 2012). From a resource perspective, RC has been identified as threatening two resources viewed as central

to newcomer adjustment, namely, self-efficacy and social support (Ellis et al., 2015). RC can threaten or diminish newcomers’ sense of self-efficacy in that those facing conflicting demands may come to believe that they cannot effectively perform their job, no less achieve mastery (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Similarly, RC can threaten or drain newcomers’ sense of social support in that, according to the COR model, as more conflict is experienced in one domain (e.g., between output vs. quality in the task domain), resources are less available to invest in other domains such as developing a base of support with peers (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

While most studies have examined how stressor levels at a particular point in time link to or impact on exhaustion (e.g., Uy et al., 2016), COR theory and findings suggest that no less impactful is *continuing* or *increasing* exposure to such stressors. Increases in exposure to stressors can initiate or exacerbate a spiral of resource depletion, leading to heightened levels of exhaustion (Hobfoll, 1988; Toker & Biron, 2012). This is particularly relevant for newcomers in that they are often exposed to increasing role demands and conflict during socialization (Bauer, Morrison, & Calister, 1998; Vandenberghe et al., 2011), and such early stress-related experiences often have a disproportionate impact on subsequent outcomes (Ashforth, 2012; Ellis et al., 2015). Given that the resource-draining effects of RC are likely to be cumulative rather than immediate, and that it may take significant time for such experiences to “jell” and manifest as a recognizably heightened level of exhaustion (Ashforth, 2012, p. 172; see also Ganster & Rosen, 2013), we posit the following change-based main effect subject to moderation by help provision:

*Hypothesis 1:* An increase in provider RC over the initial months of employment is associated with an increase in provider emotional exhaustion over this same period.

### Helping, Resource Gain/Loss, and Provider Stressor-Strain Relations

Because helping is both resource-generating and -consuming, it may have both attenuating and amplifying effects on newcomers’ conflict-based resource drain. Helping may attenuate conflict-based resource drain by serving as a basis for resource restoration in several ways. For example, because successful performance in one domain often has a generalized spillover effect on individuals’ perceptions of competence, a newcomer may experience his or her ability to help another as a sign of mastery, thus enhancing provider self-efficacy (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005; Sonnentag & Grant, 2012). Resources may also accrue on the basis of “reciprocity credits” (Batson, 1998), which allow social exchange partners to be more tolerant of temporary imbalances in their relations and facilitate relational commitment, a key basis for social support (Flynn, 2003; Lawler, Thye, & Yoon, 2000). Finally, by assisting peers, providers may earn respect from both coworkers and supervisors (Flynn, 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2009), thus potentially enhancing both self-efficacy and support resources.

In contrast, helping may also exacerbate the depleting effects of RC on newcomer resources. This may occur because resources allocated toward helping work peers are unavailable for task performance or for other, non-work-related activities (Bergeron, 2007; Koopman et al., 2016). Accordingly, by helping others, employees may not only draw from their own resource armamen-

tarium, but also place important resource-producing arrangements under threat. For example, extensive helping activity may limit newcomers' ability to master tasks and meet task-related deadlines and objectives, thus potentially weakening newcomers' sense of self-efficacy and/or generating frustration among those whose help or support they might need in the future. In this way, helping others may not only generate primary resource loss (as resources are used to assist others), but secondary resource loss as well, with both forms of resource loss potentially resulting in resource depletion (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989). Such resource loss may be particularly troublesome for those experiencing increasing RC in that if they wish to help others, they must do so in the context of an already challenged resource state. Also, providing assistance in the context of increasing RC may further intensify resource outflow because as resources are depleted, individuals often adopt less efficient loss-control strategies, resulting in patterns of increasingly rapid resource depletion (i.e., loss spirals; Baumeister, 2014; Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003).

The discussion above suggests that how helping others may ultimately moderate the impact of continuing or increasing RC on provider resource drain likely depends on the net gain/loss of resources associated with such behavior. Accordingly, we next examine how the type of help given, and the approach applied when providing it, may affect helping's resource implications.

### Type of Help Provided: Instrumental Versus Emotional

Instrumental helping (IH) involves the problem-focused provision of concrete, tangible, or goal-oriented aid (Mikulincer & Florian, 1997). IH is aimed at helping the recipient complete a task or meet a goal (Blau, 1981; Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986). In contrast, emotional helping (EH) involves the sharing of feelings and/or demonstration of sympathy, caring, empathy, affection, understanding, friendship, and group belonging (Toegel, Kilduff, & Anand, 2013). Although studies have found a high correlation between the two (e.g.,  $r = .69$  in Shakespeare-Finch & Obst, 2011; see also Brown, 1986), there is consistent evidence of their discriminant validity (Cutrona & Russell, 1987; Shakespeare-Finch & Obst, 2011). Moreover, meta-analytic findings indicate that IH and EH have differential consequences, at least for the recipients of help. For instance, there is a stronger inverse association between nontangible (i.e., emotional) help (relative to instrumental help) and recipient strain (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999; Shakespeare-Finch & Obst, 2011). These different forms of helping also seem to have differential buffering effects on recipients' stressor-strain relations (Cohen & Syme, 1985; Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Both IH and EH allow for potential resource gain on the part of help providers. For example, to the extent that the assistance provided allows for problem resolution or results in expressions of gratitude from the recipient, the provider may experience a sense of mastery or self-efficacy (Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011). Additionally, IH and EH may both strengthen the provider's support network (Flynn, 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2009). However, all else being equal, resource gains to the provider are likely to be greater when providing instrumental help, as opposed to emotional help. Specifically, because IH tends to be more tangible, visible, and problem-focused, it is likely to result in more immediate, recognizable, and work-relevant benefits to the recipient, making it

easier for the recipient and others to attribute situational improvement to the provider. The provider is thus more likely to be recognized and potentially even rewarded, whether through efficacy-boosting status or material benefits, and, at minimum, to enjoy gratitude and reciprocal support from the recipient (Cutrona, 1990; Frost & Robinson, 1999; Mikulincer & Florian, 1997). In contrast, EH often has delayed effects or needs to be provided over the longer term in order to yield any recognizable benefit, breaking the immediate and visible connection between any improvement experienced by the recipient and the assistance offered (Bacharach, Bamberger, & McKinney, 2000; Golan & Bamberger, 2015). Indeed, recipients may even be unaware that EH is being provided, making them unlikely to provide efficacy-boosting recognition or reciprocal support (Toegel et al., 2013).

Aside from offering providers greater potential for resource gain relative to EH, IH is also likely to demand a smaller investment of resources (McGuire, 2007). This is because EH is often highly effortful (Strazdins & Broom, 2007), demanding that providers manage their own feelings and actions (in other words, engage in emotional labor) in an effort to change the other person's affect or behavior (Hochschild, 1983, 1989). This can result in resource depletion and exhaustion (Pugliesi, 1999; Wharton, 1999). Indeed, several studies including two meta-analyses (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011) have found emotional labor to consistently predict emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, to the degree that EH is also associated with more *continuous* demands on providers' resources (McGuire, 2007), providers have less opportunity to recoup resources utilized in assisting others and thus may experience net resource loss (Frost & Robinson, 1999). Figley (1995, 2002) refers to this as "compassion fatigue." In the broader context of conflicting role demands experienced by newcomers, these arguments suggest that while IH may offer providers the potential to recoup RC-drained resources, and to do so at relatively low cost (i.e., a net resource gain), EH may not only offer less potential to recoup RC-drained resources, but also require greater investment of resources. Accordingly, we propose:

*Hypothesis 2a (b):* IH (EH) moderates the impact of increasing provider RC on the change in provider emotional exhaustion such that this effect will be attenuated (amplified) under conditions of higher levels of instrumental (emotional) helping.

### Help-Giving Orientation

While some individuals, when helping others, tend to offer immediate, short-term solutions, others tend to be more capacity-building, offering tools that empower recipients to become more self-reliant (Nadler, 2002). The notion that help providers may maintain traitlike tendencies toward offering one form of help over another is consistent with research on logics of action by help-seekers (Nadler, 1998). This research suggests that implicit beliefs regarding the likely consequences of help-seeking shape stable behavioral tendencies governing the degree to which help is sought with the ultimate aim of acquiring mastery and autonomy, as opposed to expedience and short-term performance (Geller & Bamberger, 2012). Such help-seeking orientations may develop on the basis of experience at a very early age (Arbreton, 1998). Similarly, individuals are likely to develop and maintain stable and enduring schemalike structures governing how they *provide* help



(Nadler, 2002). Indeed, in an experimental study, Bamberger and Levi (2009) showed that individuals varied with regard to the degree to which the help they offered was more or less empowering, and that these helping orientations were insensitive to the type of help solicited by their peers or pay contingencies.

How is a more or less empowering approach to helping likely to influence the impact of helping on newcomers' conflict-based resource drain? We propose that while in the short-term a more empowering approach may demand more resources, in the long-run such an approach offers the basis for resource restoration. More specifically, help provided on the basis of a more empowering orientation is likely to demand a greater *initial* outlay of resources by the help provider. This is because, in contrast to helping aimed at providing an immediate solution, more empowering forms of helping tend to be more time- and energy-consuming (Bamberger & Levi, 2009). However, for several reasons, more empowerment-oriented helping may also be more resource-restorative to the help provider. First, while both IH and EH of any sort may enhance self-efficacy, as discussed above (Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011; Sonnentag & Grant, 2012), research suggests that building mastery in others is particularly linked to one's own self-efficacy (Burns & Darling-Hammond, 2014). Second, because a more empowering approach boosts long-term mastery and autonomy on the part of the recipient, help provided on this basis—and particularly EH—is likely to generate a deeper sense of relational commitment (Lawler et al., 2000). This, in turn, may offer the help provider a more boundaryless form of reciprocity credit, potentially extending beyond the workplace (Sonnentag & Grant, 2012). Finally, because mentorship skills are generally valued in organizations (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004), more empowering help—and particularly IH—is more likely to attract others' recognition, hence enhancing provider self-efficacy. In short, a more empowering approach to help provision is likely to be more resource-restorative, both for EH and for IH. In line with this reasoning, we posit:

*Hypothesis 3a (b):* The attenuating (amplifying) effect of IH (EH) on the RC-emotional exhaustion relationship will be stronger (weaker) among those help providers who report employing a more empowering helping orientation.

## Method

### Sample and Procedure

The research reported here was part of a larger study (Geller & Bamberger, 2009, 2012) which was approved by a steering committee comprised of union and management representatives from the company studied. Potential participants were 314 members of a new cohort of customer service agents (CSAs) who began work on the same day, and who were assigned to 23 preexisting work groups in four call centers owned by an Israeli telecom provider. The CSAs worked independently and were individually incentivized. However, they could consult with peers during breaks, slow call periods, and even midcall if necessary. Newcomer CSAs provide a particularly good sample for the current study because, aside from the fact that newcomers in any job may be especially susceptible to both RC and exhaustion (Dunford, Shipp, Boss, Angermeier, & Boss, 2012; Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Boudrias, 2013; Vandenberghe et al., 2011), CSAs—pressured to boost

productivity while maximizing service—may be particularly exposed to conflict-based stressors (Wilk, 2008).

While socialization periods vary by person and context (Ashforth, 2012), consistent with other socialization studies (e.g., Bauer & Erdogan, 2011), we defined this period as covering 6 months from job entry (the same as the firm's newcomer probation period). Accordingly, using a time-lagged study design, data were collected twice: 4 weeks after job entry (T1;  $n = 227$ , response rate = 72%), and again 5 months later (T2;  $n = 185$ , retention rate = 82%). Of the 227 participants in the T1 sample, 70% were female. Mean age was 24 years ( $SD = 2.7$ ). Mean years of education was 12.7 ( $SD = 0.5$ ). Mean work group size was 18.77 workers ( $SD = 1.66$ ).

### Measures

**RC.** RC was assessed at T1 and T2 using a six-item version of Rizzo et al.'s (1970) measure (7-point response scale), validated by Westman (1992;  $\alpha = .78$  at T1 and .81 at T2).

**IH and EH.** IH and EH were measured at T1 in that, as noted by Ashforth (2012, p. 164), early socialization experiences tend to have a "disproportionate" impact on subsequent work outcomes. Using a self-report, sociometric approach (Bowler & Brass, 2006), participants were given a roster with the names of all other members of their group, and were asked to indicate for each name the degree (1 = *very little* to 7 = *to a great extent*) to which, since starting their job, they (a) "gave advice or tangible assistance to this person with regard to some technical or practical work-related problem" (instrumental help), and/or (b) "lent an ear or counseled this person with respect to some emotional, interpersonal or personal issue" (emotional help). We aggregated each subject's assessments of each type of help given to peers within their work group, and used the mean scores of their self-reports as indicators for their IH and EH. The convergent validity of these two single-item measures was assessed by correlating them with the IH and EH measures developed by Shakespeare-Finch and Obst (2011) using a sample of 88 part-time MBA students. Our single-item EH measure correlated with Shakespeare-Finch and Obst's five-item EH scale ( $\alpha = .85$ ) at 0.59 ( $p < .01$ ), and our single-item IH measure correlated with their five-item IH scale ( $\alpha = .85$ ) at 0.49 ( $p < .01$ ).

**Empowering helping orientation.** Empowering helping orientation was assessed at T1. We adapted Geller and Bamberger's (2012) help-seeking orientation measure, rewriting the items to reflect a help-giving orientation. Participants indicated their agreement with four statements (see Appendix A) on a 7-point scale ( $-3 =$  *strongly disagree*;  $+3 =$  *strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha was .65, a level deemed "minimally acceptable" by DeVellis (1991). Using a separate sample of 88 part-time MBA students, we assessed the test-retest reliability of this measure over 6 weeks. With 70 of the 88 students participating at both times, the correlation between scores was 0.67 ( $p < .01$ ), indicating moderate to high stability.

**Emotional exhaustion.** Emotional exhaustion was measured at T1 and T2 using the Exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996;  $\alpha = .89$  at T1 and .92 at T2). A sample item: "I feel burned out from my work" (1 = *never*; 7 = *every day*).

**Control variables.** Five control variables were used. First, we controlled for gender, based on evidence that women tend to be more forthcoming with assistance than men (Snipes, Thomson, & Oswald, 2006). Second, to neutralize the effects on exhaustion of any help that

providers may have *received*, we also controlled for both instrumental and emotional help received from coworkers in the past month. Help received was measured using an approach identical to that used for help giving, with respondents asked to assess the degree to which they received (a) instrumental, and (b) emotional help during the previous month from those listed on their roster. Third, given that individuals with higher performance may experience less RC and exhaustion, and/or have greater slack resources (thus facilitating assistance to others), we also controlled for task performance at T1 as a potential confound. For this purpose, we used archival data regarding the average number of calls per hour that subjects handled in their first 2–4 weeks on the job. Fourth, given that supportive relations may be weaker for members of larger groups, thus resulting in a reduced tendency to help others (Darley & Latané, 1968), we also controlled for work group size.

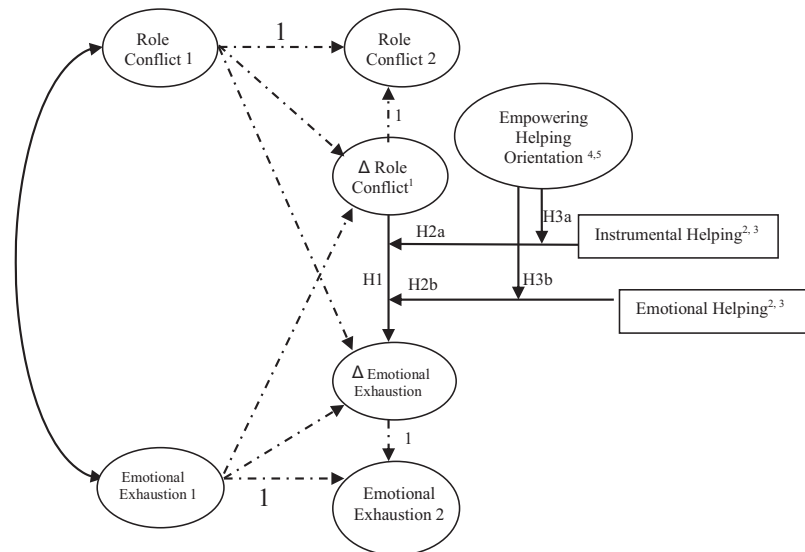
Finally, because participants were employed in work groups nested within four different call centers, we tested for potential clustering effects at both the work group and call center levels, estimating the ICC scores for each theoretical variable at each level. In all cases and at both levels, the ICC scores were either zero or extremely close to zero, and in no case did the estimate even approach marginal significance. Nevertheless, we controlled for the fixed effect of the call center (using Call Center 4 as the reference).

## Data Analysis

Following a test of the congeneric measurement model, we tested our hypotheses by combining a latent difference score (LDS) approach with a latent moderated structural (LMS) equations approach. This approach was adopted over conventional moderated-mediation analysis as it is more suited to the assessment of models incorporating change (Toker & Biron, 2012). The model that we tested is shown in Figure 1. More detailed information on the analyses conducted may be found in Appendix B.

## Results

Means, *SDs*, and correlations among the variables are presented in Table 1. Results of tests for congeneric fit are shown in Table 2. As shown in Model 1a of Table 2, a confirmatory factor analysis aimed at validating the five-factor equal form model yielded adequate fit with the data ( $\chi^2_{278} = 427.96$ ; root-mean-square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .05; comparative fit analysis [CFI] = .93; Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .92; standardized root-mean-square residual [SRMR] = .06), with all loadings being significant (standardized estimates varied between .45 and .87). In contrast, analyses of the other two equal form models (described in Appendix B) show a substantial loss of fit relative to the five-



**Figure 1.** Depiction of structural equation models tested. Following standard path notation, observed variables are denoted as squares and latent variables as circles; regression paths are indicated by one-headed arrows and correlations by two-headed arrows. Hypothesized regression paths are indicated by solid lines. For ease of presentation, the path coefficients corresponding to the exogenous variables (e.g., group size, gender, emotional/instrumental help received) are not presented. As required in estimating time-lagged models, our models include the correlations between the errors of corresponding items across T1 and T2 for role conflict and emotional exhaustion, but these correlations are also not depicted here for ease of presentation. While all of the models tested are incorporated into this figure for sake of parsimony, as indicated, we tested the following embedded models: 1 = Model 1 examines the main effect of  $\Delta$  role conflict on  $\Delta$  emotional exhaustion, 2 = Model 2 examines the main effects of instrumental and emotional helping on  $\Delta$  emotional exhaustion, 3 = Model 3 examines two 2-way interactions with instrumental and emotional helping, 4 = Model 4 examines a three-way interaction with instrumental helping only (i.e., direct effects of emotional helping as well as two-way interactions of Emotional Helping  $\times$  Role Conflict and Emotional Helping  $\times$  Empowering Orientation are *not* specified), 5 = Model 5 examines a three-way interaction with emotional helping only (i.e., direct effects of instrumental helping as well as 2-way interactions of Instrumental Helping  $\times$  Role Conflict and Instrumental Helping  $\times$  Empowering Orientation are *not* specified).

Table 1  
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of All Measures

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Unit size at T2	18.78	1.66														
2. Gender <sup>a</sup> at T1	.30	.46	-.07													
3. Emotional exhaustion, T1	4.09	1.40	-.16*	-.15*												
4. Emotional exhaustion, T2	3.90	1.46	-.31**	-.04	.66**											
5. Role conflict, T1	2.96	1.15	-.08	.07	.42**	.35**										
6. Role conflict, T2	2.89	1.14	-.03	-.12	.42**	.48**	.65**									
7. Emotional help received, T1	.34	.59	-.29**	-.00	.03	.08	.11	.03								
8. Instrumental help received, T1	.38	.52	-.28**	.02	.03	.08	.10	-.04	.79**							
9. Performance (calls), T1	12.73	3.07	-.38**	.06	-.18**	-.06	-.09	-.04	-.10	-.16*						
10. Emotional help provided (centered), T1	-.01	.49	-.27**	-.01	-.09	.07	.01	-.04	.64**	.49**	.02					
11. Instrumental help provided (centered), T1	-.00	.47	-.21**	.10	-.14*	.04	.01	-.03	.55**	.48**	.07	.81**				
12. Empowering orientation, T1	1.77	.89	.08	-.10	-.09	-.08	-.08	-.02	.09	.00	.02	.14*	.12			
13. Call center 1	.44	.50	.53**	-.05	-.07	-.24**	-.02	-.07	-.26**	-.28**	.41**	-.25**	-.22**	.06		
14. Call center 2	.23	.45	.17*	-.06	-.02	.04	-.02	.05	.13*	.13*	-.06	.27**	.24**	.00	-.58**	
15. Call center 3	.06	.23	-.21**	.04	.02	.09	.00	.05	.09	.10	.21**	-.01	.02	-.02	-.22**	-.16*

Note.  $n = 227$  for T1 measures and  $n = 185$  for T2 measure.

<sup>a</sup>For gender, 0 = female, 1 = male.

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

factor model (e.g., RMSEA  $> .08$ , CFI and TLI  $< .90$ , and SRMR  $> .10$  in both models). Results for tests of the longitudinal invariance models (each incorporating additional invariance constraints, but none incorporating complete invariance) are shown at the bottom of Table 2. In Models 2a–2c we tested, respectively, the partial metric invariance, partial scalar invariance, and partial invariant residual variance models described in Appendix B. As these models were all nested, we ran comparative fit tests; the results indicated nonsignificant differences between the equal form (Model 1a) and both the least (Model 2a:  $\Delta\chi^2_1 = 9.18$ ;  $p = .24$ ) and most (Model 2c:  $\Delta\chi^2_{21} = 22.496$ ;  $p = .37$ ) constrained models. Neither of the  $\chi^2$  difference tests comparing Models 2a with 2b ( $\Delta\chi^2_3 = 3.07$ ;  $p = .69$ ) and 2b with 2c ( $\Delta\chi^2_5 = 10.243$ ;  $p = .33$ ) were significant. Given the nonsignificant decreases in fit, these tests suggest the invariance of intercepts and variances over time.

Hypothesis test results are shown in Table 3. As can be seen in Model 1, consistent with  $H_1$ , we found a positive association between  $\Delta RC$  and  $\Delta exhaustion$  (est. = .705,  $p < .01$ ). As

Model 2 indicates, we found no evidence of a *direct* association between either IH (est. = 0.079; *ns*) or EH (est. = 0.068; *ns*) and  $\Delta exhaustion$ . Still, as this model manifested adequate fit (RMSEA = .049; CFI = .90; TLI = .89; SRMR = .07), it provides a baseline against which to assess Model 3, incorporating the two interactions suggested by  $H_{2a}$  and  $H_{2b}$ . As shown in Model 3, both IH and EH moderated the link between  $\Delta RC$  and  $\Delta exhaustion$ . Consistent with  $H_{2a}$ , IH had an *attenuation* effect (est. =  $-2.645$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Consistent with Hypothesis 2b, EH *amplified* the positive effect of  $\Delta RC$  on  $\Delta exhaustion$  (est. = 1.897;  $p < .05$ ). Following Appendix B, we assessed the fit of this model by comparing it with that of Model 2, nested within it. The results ( $\Delta 2 \log$  likelihood = 11.56,  $p < .01$ ) indicate that although Model 2 (excluding the two interactions) fits the data well, the elimination of the interactions would result in a significant decline in the model fit. Wald test results (see Table 3) further support the contribution offered by specifying IH and EH as moderators of the RC-exhaustion link.

Table 2  
Fit Indices for Measurement Model Analyses

Factor and model	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Equal form models						
Model 1a: Five factors	427.957***	278	.049	.93	.92	.059
Model 1b: Three factors	742.382***	285	.084	.78	.75	.106
Model 1c: One factor	1,018.98***	288	.106	.65	.61	.114
Longitudinal partially invariant models						
Model 2a: Partial metric invariance (b)	437.136***	285	.048	.928	.918	.062
Model 2b: Partial scalar invariance (c)	440.210***	290	.048	.929	.92	.062
Model 2c: Partial invariant residual variance (d)	450.453***	299	.047	.928	.922	.063

Note.  $N = 227$ . For tests of invariance (Models 2a–2c), each model was tested against a model that is nested within it. The chi-squared difference test for comparing Models 1a to 2c was not statistically significant ( $\Delta\chi^2_{21} = 22.496$ ;  $p = .37$ ). Similarly, none of the chi-squared difference tests comparing Models 1a to 2a ( $\Delta\chi^2_1 = 9.179$ ;  $p = .24$ ), Models 2a to 2b ( $\Delta\chi^2_3 = 3.074$ ;  $p = .69$ ), and Models 2b to 2c ( $\Delta\chi^2_5 = 10.243$ ;  $p = .33$ ) were significant. Taken together, these tests suggest the invariance of loadings, intercepts and variances. RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table 3

Results of the Latent Moderated Structural Equation Analysis of the Difference in Emotional Exhaustion From T1 to T2

Variable	Model 1		Model 2: main effects only		Model 3: two-way interaction		Model 4: three-way interaction with instrumental helping		Model 5: three-way interaction with emotional helping		Model 6: reduced 3-way interaction with emotional helping	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Call center 1	-.135	.38	-.143	.38	-.140	.36	-.090	.35	-.069	.36	-.112	.37
Call center 2	-.028	.43	-.043	.43	-.106	.40	-.039	.40	-.070	.40	-.088	.42
Call center 3	-.055	.45	-.037	.45	-.205	.45	-.010	.45	.000	.46	.146	.46
Unit size at T2	-.201*	.09	-.195*	.09	-.213*	.09	.221**	.08	-.203*	.09	-.190*	.09
Gender <sup>a</sup>	.160	.20	.156	.20	.053	.19	-.033	.20	-.011	.20	.050	.20
Instrumental help received	.010	.26	-.012	.26	.164	.27	.062	.27	.116	.29	.211	.32
Emotional help received	-.045	.27	-.105	.31	-.289	.31	-.257	.31	-.310	.31	-.356	.35
Performance (calls)	.082*	.04	.081	.04	.090**	.03	.083*	.03	.082*	.03	.083*	.04
Emotional exhaustion, T1	-.340**	.09	-.338*	.09	-.343**	.09	-.349**	.08	-.343**	.09	-.322**	.09
Role conflict, T1	.258	.15	.259	.15	.253	.15	.231	.15	.279	.15	.278	.15
Δ Role conflict	.705**	.22	.705**	.22	.711**	.22	.778**	.22	.727**	.23	.718**	.24
Instrumental help provided (centered)			.079	.37	-.295	.42	.038	.43	-.209	.41		
Emotional help provided (centered)			.068	.38	.360	.41	.278	.41	.449	.41	.241	.35
ΔRole Conflict × Instrumental Help provided							-2.645**	.85	-2.062*	.83	-2.314*	.90
ΔRole Conflict × Emotional Help provided							1.897*	.85	1.567	.84	1.582	.92
Empowering orientation							-.106	.12	-.076	.15	-.030	.15
ΔRole Conflict × Empowering Orientation												
Emotional Help Provided × Empowering Orientation							-.037	.24	-.095	.33	-.442	.33
Instr. Help Provided × Empowering Orientation												
ΔRole Conflict × Emotional Help × Empowering Orientation												
ΔRole Conflict × Instrumental Help × Empowering Orientation												
R <sup>2</sup>	.37		.37		.51		.77	.67	.83		.95	
χ <sup>2</sup> (df)	549.69 (367)		593.70 (409)									
RMSEA; SRMR	.052; .071		.049; .071									
CFI; TLI	.903; .892		.90; .892									
Log likelihood	-5,536.53		-5,805.49		-5,811.27		-6,934.60		-6,935.67		-6,939.46	

Note.  $n = 185$ . Wald test results based on Models 2 and 3: The null hypothesis that the coefficients for IH and for its interaction with Δ RC are simultaneously equal to 0 is rejected (Wald test estimate = 9.71,  $df = 2$ ,  $p = .008$ ). The null hypotheses with respect to emotional help (Wald test est. = 5.34,  $df = 2$ ,  $p = .069$ ), and the combination of the two (i.e., instrumental help and emotional help and their respective interactions with Δ role conflict; Wald test est. = 9.99,  $df = 2$ ,  $p = .041$ ) are similarly rejected. RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual.

<sup>a</sup> For gender, 0 = female; 1 = male.

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

We also conducted simple slopes analyses to ascertain the nature of these interactions and to assess the degree to which they manifest a pattern consistent with that suggested by our hypotheses. Estimating the simple slopes of the ΔRC-Δexhaustion association for those providing high (+1 *SD*) and low levels (-1 *SD*) of IH, we found that for low levels of IH, the relationship between ΔRC and Δexhaustion is positive and significant (est. = 1.94,  $p < .001$ ; Figure 2a). In contrast, when IH is high, this relationship is attenuated (est. = -0.52, *ns*). This same analysis with respect to EH (Figure 2b) indicates that for low EH, the relationship between ΔRC and Δexhaustion is nonsignificant (est. = -0.219, *ns*). In contrast, for high EH this relationship is positive and significant, indicating *amplification* (est. = 1.64,  $p < .01$ ). In sum, these findings indicate strong support for  $H_{2a}$  and  $H_{2b}$ .

Finally,  $H_{3a}$  and  $H_{3b}$  proposed that the attenuating/amplifying effect of IH ( $H_{3a}$ ) and EH ( $H_{3b}$ ) on the association between ΔRC

and Δexhaustion is strengthened/weakened among those who report a more empowering helping orientation. To test these hypotheses, we first supplemented Model 3 with additional parameters, notably the three-way interaction of ΔRC, empowering orientation, and either IH (Model 4) or EH (Model 5). In neither model was the three-way interaction term significant. In order to maximize statistical power (Dawson & Richter, 2006), in testing the three-way interaction of empowering orientation with IH (EH) and ΔRC, we excluded the direct effect of EH (IH) and its two-way interaction with ΔRC. The reduced three-way interaction model with IH indicated a nonsignificant estimate for the three-way interaction. However, the reduced three-way interaction model with EH (Model 6) indicated a significant estimate (-1.78,  $p < .05$ ), consistent with  $H_{3b}$ . Simple slopes analysis (see Figure 3a and 3b) offers further support for  $H_{3b}$ . More specifically, among those with a *less* empowering helping orientation, the ΔRC-



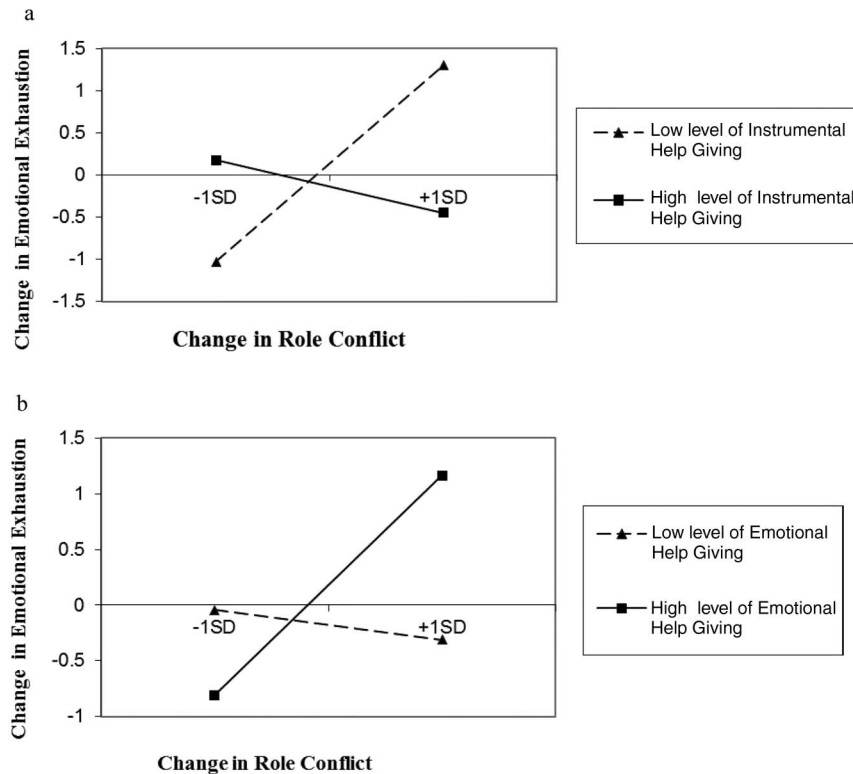


Figure 2. (a) The differential effect of change in role conflict on change in emotional exhaustion, depending on the level of instrumental help provided. (b) The differential effect of change in role conflict on change in emotional exhaustion, depending on the level of emotional help provided.

$\Delta$ exhaustion relationship was significant and positive for those reporting higher (albeit not lower) levels of EH (est. = 2.02;  $p < .05$ ). In contrast, among those with a *more* empowering orientation, the RC-exhaustion relationship was unaffected by higher EH (est. = -0.50, *ns*), suggesting that a more empowering approach to helping buffers the amplification effect of EH on the association between  $\Delta$ RC and  $\Delta$ emotional exhaustion. Accordingly, these findings show tentative support for  $H_{3b}$ , but not for  $H_{3a}$ .

## Discussion

The results presented above are consistent with our notion that the degree to which helping enhances or weakens newcomer help providers' resilience to RC-based resource drain is contingent on both the type of help given and the helping orientation of those providing it. Although we found no evidence of a direct association between either form of helping and change over time in emotional exhaustion, as posited,<sup>1</sup> we found IH to attenuate, and EH to amplify, the positive association between changes in RC and emotional exhaustion over the initial employment period. Additionally, we found partial support for the idea that an empowering helping orientation moderates the degree to which helping moderates the impact of a change in RC on change in emotional exhaustion. More specifically, in the context of a reduced model that did not take IH into account, we found a significant amplifying effect of EH on the provider RC-exhaustion relationship among those reporting a less empowering orientation, but no significant

effect of EH among those with a more empowering orientation. Finally, in a post hoc analysis,<sup>2</sup> we found the models presented above to be invariant by gender, suggesting that the help-related parameters tested are unimpacted by gender norms about prosocial behavior, and that the implications of help provision on intrapsychic stress are no different for men than for women.

Overall, our findings are consistent with predictions gleaned from a resource-based perspective on helping. Although we did not directly measure shifting resource levels, given that exhaustion reflects resource depletion (Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996), our results

<sup>1</sup> The fact that EH and IH both had nonsignificant direct effects on the change in exhaustion is not surprising given that prior studies (e.g., Koopman et al., 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016) indicate that helping's effect on discrete levels of same day/subsequent exhaustion varies as a function of individual differences.

<sup>2</sup> In order to test whether our results differ for men and women, we ran a post hoc analysis of gender as a three-way interaction term on the basis of Model 3 in Table 3 (i.e., the model incorporating two, 2-way interactions; namely  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  IH and  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  EH). This model (taking into account these two 2-way interactions) generated the same findings with respect to the two 2-way interactions reported in the paper (i.e.,  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  IH and  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  EH), however, the two 3-way interactions were *not* significant. Recognizing that the nonsignificance may stem from the absence of sufficient power to run two 3-way interactions simultaneously, we tried running each three-way interaction model separately (i.e., retaining the two 2-way interactions with gender, but running the 3-way interactions of  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  IH  $\times$  Gender and  $\Delta$ RC  $\times$  EH  $\times$  Gender separately). In neither case did we find a significant three-way interaction.



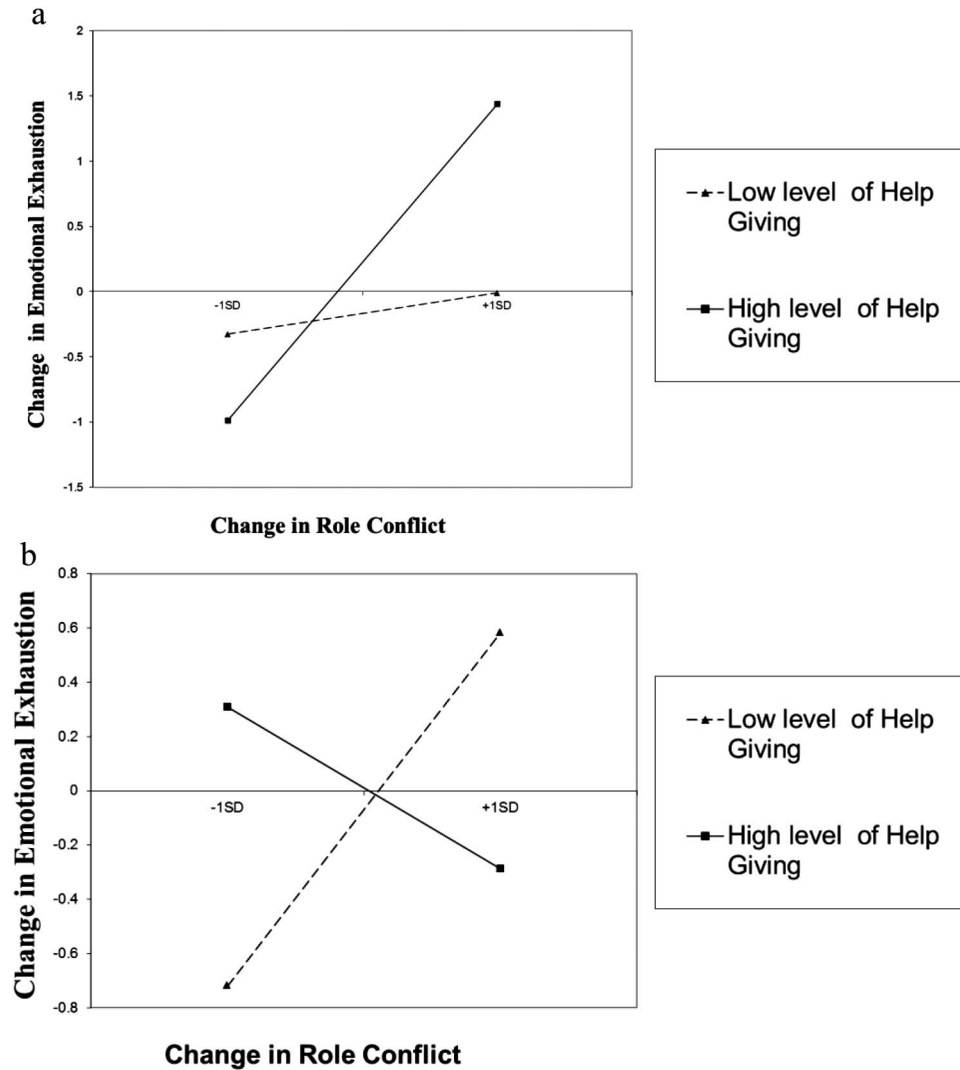


Figure 3. (a) The differential effect of change in role conflict on change in emotional exhaustion, depending on the level of emotional help provided under a less empowering helping orientation. (b) The differential effect of change in role conflict on change in emotional exhaustion, depending on the level of emotional help provided under a more empowering helping orientation.

suggest that in the case of IH, resources gained from assisting others more than compensate for any helping-based resource loss, with this net gain mitigating the impact of primary or secondary resource loss associated with newcomer RC. In the case of EH, the findings suggest that the higher cost of providing such assistance to others (and the more limited returns to the provider of doing so) are likely to limit the extent to which EH might generate a resource gain sufficient to compensate for RC-based resource drain over the course of socialization. Indeed, this higher cost of EH appears to further drain provider resources, thus amplifying RC-based resource drain on the part of the newcomer help provider. However, it is precisely with regard to EH that provider helping orientation may matter. More specifically, our findings suggest that the more empowering the provider's approach to EH, the less severe is EH's exacerbating effect on RC-based resource drain.

In this context, our findings offer a number of important theoretical contributions. First, they show that beyond any direct and

immediate effect of helping on provider resources and outcomes, as found by others (Koopman et al., 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016), helping may also have important indirect and longer-term effects, mitigating or amplifying RC-based resource drain over the course of newcomers' initial months on the job. This is important in that it suggests that the impact of helping may be contingent upon help providers' underlying resource state. It also reinforces the potential merit of investigating the compounding effects of helping over longer periods of time (Methot et al., 2017).

Second, our findings extend the recent findings of Koopman et al. (2016) and Lanaj et al. (2016) by providing an initial response to the question posed by both sets of researchers, namely, how the nature and character of the help itself may impact providers' resources and well-being. Understanding how different types of and approaches to helping have differential resource-grounded implications for those giving assistance to others is important in that it may allow us to further explain previous inconsistent find-

ings regarding the implications of helping for provider well-being. Similarly, our finding that helping orientation serves as a boundary condition for the reverse-buffering effect of EH on provider stressor-strain relations is important in that it suggests that, at least for some forms of helping, the way in which it is provided may be no less important than its frequency or intensity.

Third, alongside research on the buffering role of received support (House, 1981; Viswesvaran et al., 1999), our findings, like those of Uy et al. (2016), indicate that providing assistance may also buffer the stressor-strain relationship at work. However, extending the findings of Uy et al. (2016), we also show that this buffering effect depends on the type of assistance provided, with emotional help manifesting a potentially *reverse*-buffering effect. These moderating effects are important in that stressors have been found to have a robust impact on a variety of outcomes beyond exhaustion, including turnover (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) and task performance (Shirom, Gilboa, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Interestingly (and consistent with the findings of Uy et al., 2016), in a second post hoc analysis we found that, when added as interactions to Model 3 of Table 3, neither emotional nor instrumental help received moderated the association between change in RC and change in exhaustion.<sup>3</sup>

Finally, our study contributes to research on newcomer socialization by showing that newcomer adjustment may be enhanced to the extent that newcomers are offered opportunities to provide instrumental help to others. This is important in that our understanding of stress processes among newcomers remains limited (Ellis et al., 2015), and in that newcomers are typically viewed in the literature as help recipients rather than providers. Our findings suggest that newcomer adjustment scholars might pay closer attention to what newcomers can offer others, and not only what they need to receive from them.

In this regard, our results may also have significant practical implications. First, they suggest that those seeking to enhance newcomers' resilience to conflicting role demands and improve their well-being may do well by providing them with opportunities to offer others IH. Second, while organizations may not be able to discourage newcomers from providing EH to one another, efforts might be made to encourage them to do so on the basis of a more empowering logic. Such an approach might allow newcomers to offer their peers emotional help without experiencing the amplifying effects of EH on provider stressor-strain relations.

### Limitations and Future Research

An important limitation of this study is that all measures (with the exception of performance) were based on self-reports. However, given that both RC and exhaustion were assessed at two points in time, and that our analyses involved complex models, the risk of common method bias is most likely minimal (Siemens, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). Still, because self-reports may provide a biased perspective of one's actions or prosocial impact, future research should attempt to capture helping on the basis of peer and/or manager assessments. Additionally, given the reduced form of Model 6 and the marginal reliability of the empowering orientation measure, our findings regarding the three-way interaction of this variable with EH and RC should be considered with caution. Although model trimming may be useful to maximize test power and reduce the risk of Type II error (Dawson & Richter, 2006),

given the correlation between EH and IH, to truly assess the impact of helping orientation on the moderating role of EH, it is certainly preferable to take IH into account.

Despite these limitations, our findings offer some initial insights into how helping characteristics and approach may impact the well-being of those newcomers doing the helping. We encourage helping scholars to test the generalizability of our findings with newcomers in earlier and later stages of socialization, as well as among veteran employees, and to explore other helping characteristics that may condition the effects of other resource-related work conditions and situations on other provider outcomes.

<sup>3</sup> While the inclusion of these two additional interaction effects resulted in nonsignificance for the  $\Delta RC \times EH$  interaction effect (estimate = 1.42,  $p = .2$ ), the  $\Delta RC \times IH$  interaction effect remained robust (estimate = -2.35,  $p = .007$ ).

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## Appendix A

### Empowering Helping Orientation Measure

1. I tend to give others the kind of help that will allow them to manage the problem better on their own in the future.
2. The help that I provide others at work is based on the belief that the best way to help someone manage a workplace problem is to give them the tools they need so that they can solve it on their own.
3. When a person encounters a problem at work, I try to offer them a new perspective, allowing them to try to solve it on their own.
4. When a person encounters a problem at work, I offer advice aimed at helping them improve their approach to dealing with the issue.

(Appendices continue)

## Appendix B

### Analytic Approach

We analyzed a latent moderated structural (LMS) equations model containing two latent difference scores (LDSs), specifying each of these LDSs as a function of their respective T1 and T2 latent variables. As noted by Selig and Preacher (2009, p. 147), “using latent variables has the advantage of addressing the problem of measurement error, thus disattenuating relationships among the constructs.” To test our hypotheses, we conducted confirmatory factor and structural equation modeling analyses using Mplus 7.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998–2015).

The first step in our analyses was to test the congeneric measurement model. This was done on the basis of two sets of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). First, in order to validate the five-factor structure implied by the latent variables noted above (i.e., role conflict [RC] at T1 and T2, emotional exhaustion at T1 and T2, and empowering helping orientation), we tested the fit of the five-factor model and compared it with two alternative models, namely a three-factor model (in which the items for RC and emotional exhaustion at both times were each collapsed into a single factor) and a one-factor model (in which all items from all five latent variables were collapsed into a single factor). However, because LDSs are meaningless unless measures are largely longitudinally invariant (Geiser, Eid, Nussbeck, Courvoisier, & Cole, 2010), we conducted a second series of CFAs in which the longitudinal invariance of RC and emotional exhaustion were assessed. First we tested a partial metric invariance model in which two loadings of RC were freed with all other loadings specified as invariant between T1 and T2. We then tested a partial scalar invariance model in which, in addition to the constraints of the partial metric invariance model, two intercepts of RC and two intercepts of emotional exhaustion were freed, with all other intercepts specified as invariant between T1 and T2. Finally, we tested a partial invariant residual variance model in which, in addition to the constraints of the partial scalar invariance model, error variances for one indicator each of RC and emotional exhaustion were specified as freed, with the residual variance of all other items specified as invariant between T1 and T2.

In estimating the LMS equations in which these latent differences were embedded, we used the MPlus syntax for the LDS model accompanying the models and analyses in Selig and Preacher (2009; syntax may be found at <http://quantpsy.org/supp.htm>). Following this approach, and consistent with Bidee, Vantilborgh, Pepermans, Griep, and Hofmans (2016), we defined two

latent variables by: (a) fixing the loadings of the paths from each change ( $\Delta$ ) variable to its respective T2 latent variable as 1, with the residual's variance set at zero, (b) specifying the T2 latent variables as a function of their respective T1 latent variables, with weightings fixed to 1 and with the residual's variance set at zero, and (c) regressing the two change variables on their respective latent variables at T1. We imposed measurement invariance by holding the loadings of the factor indicators equal over time. Selig and Preacher (2009, p. 149) note that the LDS approach offers an important advantage over the more conventional cross-lagged approach in that the latter “does not allow the researcher to use development, or change in a construct, as a cause or effect of other variables in the model.”

Congeneric fit was assessed using conventional absolute fit indices, namely, the  $\chi^2$  likelihood ratio, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR), and two relative fit indices, namely, comparative fit analysis (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). Model misspecification was detected by a statistically significant  $p$  value of less than .05 on the  $\chi^2$  test. CFI and TLI values lower than .9, RMSEA values greater than .05 and SRMR values greater than .08 were also used to indicate that the proposed model did not fit the data (Kline, 2011).

As explained in Maslowsky, Jager, and Hemken (2015), the model fit indices generally used to interpret the fit of structural equation models, such as CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and  $\chi^2$ , have not been developed for LMS equation models. However, an alternative two-step method for assessing the overall fit of each LMS model may be used instead (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Muthen, 2012). According to this approach, CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and  $\chi^2$  values are obtained from a model without the interaction term (null model). Then, using a log likelihood ratio test, the relative fit of the null model and the alternative model in which the interaction is estimated are compared. The log likelihood ratio test is used to determine whether the more parsimonious null (i.e., no-interaction) model represents a significant loss in fit relative to the more complex interaction model.

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