© *Academy of Management Journal*
2025, Vol. 00, No. 00, 1–26.
https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2024.0445

IMPACT, INTERRUPTED: HOW AND WHEN THWARTED PROSOCIAL IMPACT UNDERMINES EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AND RETENTION

JORDAN D. NIELSEN
Purdue University

KINSHUK SHARMA
University of North Texas

DANIEL D. GOERING
Missouri State University

To attract and motivate employees, many organizations convey a compelling mission and design jobs with the apparent opportunity to make a prosocial difference. Yet, this opportunity may not always be fully realized despite the best efforts of employees. In our research, we examine experiences of "thwarted prosocial impact"—the belief that the organization is limiting the prosocial impact one could have through their work. Drawing from psychological contract theory and the relational job design literature, we suggest that thwarted prosocial impact undermines the performance and retention of individual employees because it leads employees to perceive that their ideological contract with the organization is not being sufficiently fulfilled. Further, we theorize that these deleterious effects are particularly strong for those with high levels of contact with beneficiaries in their jobs. We test these ideas in a large sample of fully employed alumni from a public university. Results indicate that thwarted prosocial impact predicts low levels of ideological contract fulfillment, particularly for those in high-beneficiary-contact jobs. These effects were associated with lower coworker-rated boosterism behavior and greater self-rated counterproductive behavior directed at the organization. Through serial mechanisms of ideological fulfillment and counterproductive work behavior, thwarted impact significantly predicted voluntary turnover one year later.

> "I had one client's wife call in tears because their application did not get in on time and they were in an area that was becoming increasingly unstable. I felt very bad for her and her family because I could not help, and I was angry with the firm for not paying attention when I gave a better solution that could have prevented the stress for the client as well as the additional cost for the company."
>
> —Immigration specialist at a law firm[1]

People experience myriad positive outcomes when they realize how their work can positively impact others (Bolino & Grant, 2016). This opportunity to make a difference for others through work has been suggested to be a fundamental "currency" underlying the relationship between employees and employers (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Research supports this idea: when impact on others is made salient to employees, they experience greater motivation, job performance, and well-being (Grant, 2008b; Grant & Hofmann, 2011; Grant & Sonnentag, 2010; Sonnentag & Grant, 2012). To draw more deeply on the power of this motivational force, organizations often seek to design jobs so that employees have the potential to make an impact (Grant, 2007) and try to frame work in a way that emphasizes the broader context for employees' actions (Carton, 2018).

Unfortunately, this potential may not always be realized. Many jobs are embedded in a meaningful organizational mission and offer the opportunity for significant, frequent, and broad impact in theory

[1] This epigraph is a quote taken from responses we received from a preliminary open-ended survey question about thwarted impact experiences using a sample from the Prolific platform. For more, see the online appendix (click here).

Correspondence regarding this article should be sent to Jordan D. Nielsen at jniel@purdue.edu.

Accepted by Laura Little

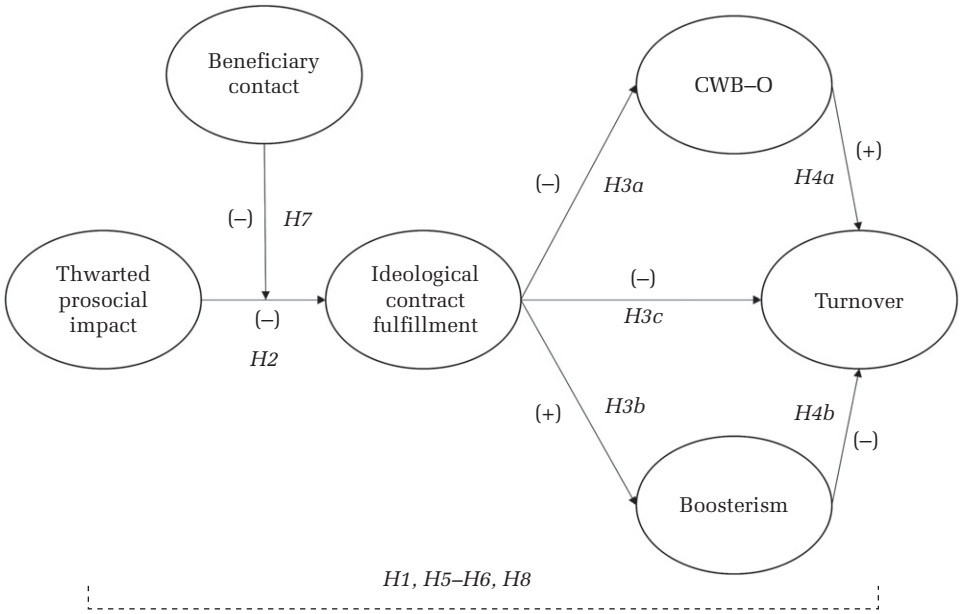
(Grant, 2008a). However, organizations often introduce or tolerate barriers that prevent job experiences from living up to the expectations people have for their role in that mission. For example, the immigration specialist in the epigraph above had devised a new process that would expedite the immigration process for her clients, only to be thwarted by a supervisor she considered to be arrogant and uncaring. As a result, the employee felt she could not make the difference that her job was designed to make for people. This is far from a rare or isolated incident. Indeed, one recent survey found that a large proportion of employees feel they are unable to have the sort of impact they expect to have in their jobs—especially front-line managers and employees (Dhingra, Samo, Schaninger & Schrimper, 2021). In many of these instances, the issue is not that employees lack job opportunity for impact (Grant, 2007) or access to people who can provide social cues about impact (Grant, 2012). Rather, organizations often introduce and maintain coercive bureaucratic features such as procedures and rules that aim to control rather than complement employees (Adler & Borys, 1996). The result is that employees encounter "road blocks and pitfalls" (House, 1971: 324), which lead them to believe that the organization is limiting the prosocial impact one has through their job—a phenomenon we refer to as "thwarted prosocial impact."

The critical premise of the thwarted prosocial impact concept is that, in addition to being motivated by existing experiences of impact, employees are also likely to be affected by whether the current level of impact can or should be improved on. Whereas organizations hope to harness the myriad benefits of designing prosocial impact into their employees' work, when such impact is thwarted, it may undermine employee work outcomes, or even the organization's bottom line (Gartenberg, Prat & Serafeim, 2019). However, although an understanding of its effects and boundary conditions would help managers avoid such potential pitfalls, current theory is limited in explaining what effects thwarted prosocial impact may have. Given that thwarted prosocial impact relates to unrealized expectations of the organization, one potential key to explaining the consequences of thwarted prosocial impact may be found in focusing on the types of promises that employees perceive their employer to have made. Of particular relevance may be the suggestion from management scholars that employees can see their employer through an *ideological* lens—that is, as being obligated to contribute to a cause (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). In fact, empirical investigations have shown that the average employee agrees that their employer has obligations to a cause (Bingham, 2005; Yang, Brans & Vantilborgh, 2022).

In this research, we argue that this ideological dimension of the employment relationship may help to explain how thwarted prosocial impact influences employee outcomes, and what conditions may exacerbate or ease these effects (see Figure 1 for our conceptual model). Drawing on psychological contract theory and the literature on relational job design, we propose that thwarted prosocial impact undermines retention (i.e., higher turnover) and certain aspects of organization-focused job performance—specifically, higher counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization (CWB–O) and lower boosterism—by reducing perceptions of ideological contract fulfillment. We further propose that the relationship of thwarted prosocial impact with ideological contract fulfillment is exacerbated for employees in jobs with high levels of contact with beneficiaries (e.g., clients, customers), theorizing that such contact magnifies the negative effect of thwarted prosocial impact by making its implications for beneficiaries more salient to employees, thus driving down ideological contract fulfillment beliefs to a greater extent. In a large sample of alumni from a U.S. university, we test these ideas and examine the effects of thwarted prosocial impact on organization-focused behaviors—namely, self-rated counterproductive work behavior, coworker-rated boosterism behavior, and voluntary turnover—one year later.

Our research makes important contributions to the literatures on prosociality in organizations and psychological contracts. First, we introduce thwarted prosocial impact as a construct in the prosociality literature that is distinct from and enhances our understanding of existing constructs. Believing that one's work is socially valuable has not always been found to predict performance (Nielsen & Colbert, 2022). By demonstrating that thwarted prosocial impact undermines performance and retention, our research suggests one possible explanation for why focusing only on current impact levels may be insufficient: even if they perceive high levels of impact, many employees may be tormented by the belief that they could have had an even greater impact. Second, we explain how thwarted impact undermines performance and retention—that is, by interfering with ideological contract fulfillment. In doing so, we elucidate how organizations can better fulfill heightened post-pandemic employee expectations (Bolino, Henry & Whitney, 2024; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro & Cnop-Nielsen, 2025)

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Model



and we also answer calls for more research about the *ideological* aspect of psychological contracts, which has been "broadly overlooked" (Coyle-Shapiro, Pereira Costa, Doden & Chang, 2019) despite its introduction to the literature over 20 years ago. Finally, beneficiary contact has typically been considered a motivating relational job characteristic. However, our research provides a nuanced understanding of beneficiary contact by demonstrating that a high degree of contact might backfire if organizations fail to allow employees to fully express the prosocial potential of their jobs.

DELINEATING THWARTED PROSOCIAL IMPACT

Content Domain in the Prosociality Literature

A key premise of the literature on prosociality in organizations is that many workers want to have a noticeable impact on beneficiaries, or those an employee believes their work-related actions can affect positively (Grant, 2007). Supportive of this premise, job opportunity for prosocial impact and perceived prosocial impact have been shown to be important motivational factors in the workplace (e.g., Grant, 2008a; Sonnentag & Starzyk, 2015). Although thwarted prosocial impact ("thwarted impact" from here on) exhibits some content overlap with job opportunity for impact and perceived prosocial impact, it is also distinct from these concepts. All three concepts focus on the impact that a worker has on others through their job. "Job opportunity for impact" is defined by the extent to which the job has the potential to impact others (Grant, 2008a), and focuses on characteristics at the job level for potential impact. "Perceived prosocial impact," on the other hand, is the perception that one has realized an impact on others through their actual job experiences (Bolino & Grant, 2016).[2]

In contrast to these constructs, we define the concept of "thwarted impact" as the belief that one's organization is limiting the prosocial impact that one would otherwise have through their job. Whereas job opportunity for impact describes a job characteristic focused on the potential for impact in a set of tasks, thwarted impact includes a belief that such potential has not been realized. Similarly, the overlap of perceived prosocial impact with thwarted impact may be relatively small for two reasons. First and foremost, thwarted impact involves an organizational attribution (i.e., the organization is at fault) that is not a part

[2] As noted by Bolino and Grant (2016: 636), the construct of task significance from the job design literature is also an important characteristic to recognize, though it appears to entirely overlap with perceived prosocial impact if thought of in perceived terms (which is typically the case, being operationalized via self-reports).

of the perceived prosocial impact construct, which focuses only on the salience and degree of impact. Second, being highly aware of the impact one is making does not mean that this level of impact is deemed sufficient. Thus, high levels of perceived prosocial impact could apply to both high or low levels of thwarted impact—that is, even a person who perceives high prosocial impact could still believe that the impact would be higher if not for certain organizational factors.

How Organizations Thwart Impact

Understanding thwarted impact requires an explanation of how organizations might create the conditions that make this perception more likely among employees. That is, how exactly do organizations manage to block employees from realizing the impact that would be possible in their jobs?

When the organization limits impact, this means that employees are prevented from taking a course of action that would provide a prosocial benefit. The literature on bureaucracy in organizations helps explain how these limitations might develop. Most contemporary organizations continue to rely on hierarchy, specialization, and formalized processes, which are core features of bureaucracy (Monteiro & Adler, 2022). Adler and Borys (1996) outlined two basic types of bureaucracy that tend to develop. In an enabling form, formal procedures and structures can complement positive employee attitudes and help employees to master tasks more efficiently. Conversely, in a coercive form, bureaucracy is used to control employees who are viewed by managers as disliking work (cf. theory X; McGregor, 1960). This latter form views rules and procedures as a substitute for positive employee attitudes. Because of its prevalence, scholars have pointed out the negative effects of coercive bureaucracy on employee attitudes related to prosocial motives, similar to those underlying thwarted impact (Giauque, Ritz, Varone & Anderfuhren-Biget, 2012; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Steijn & van der Voet, 2019). For example, Moynihan and Pandey (2007) found that employees at state agencies reported lower public service motivation when they perceived a high level of red tape. Coercive bureaucracy thus appears to be a primary culprit in creating organizational conditions that undermine prosocial motives.

We argue that one notable drawback of coercive bureaucracy is that it prevents employees from efficiently serving the interests of beneficiaries. Organizational designs are continually subject to breakdowns, where established procedures and rules may fail to lead to the most efficient solution. Adler and Borys (1996: 70) suggest that organizations under a coercive logic will "fear the opportunism of employees" more than they value an improvement in procedures:

> In the coercive logic of procedure design, any deviation from standard procedure is seen as suspect. Procedures are designed to highlight to superiors whether subordinates' actions are in compliance. The procedures are not designed to help subordinates determine whether the process is operating well. (Adler & Borys, 1996: 71)

As a result, employee suggestions for change or adjustment are ignored or treated with low priority. Rather than emphasizing transparency and flexibility at the employee level, the purpose of procedures becomes opaque to the employee, and the procedures themselves become a list of rigid duties from which any deviation requires a superior's approval. In this context, it becomes difficult to adapt one's task performance to the precise needs of clients, customers, or even internal beneficiaries. Returning once more to the epigraph at the beginning of this paper, the immigration specialist describes a situation dominated by logic of coercion, where the employee has a solution that deviates from the norm but would be better for the client at a lower cost to the firm; yet, the current bureaucracy—embodied by a supervisor who appears to view the rules as a control rather than an enabling tool—instead fails to allow for improvement.

Blau's (1955) seminal work on bureaucracy found "that 'good' procedures are those seen as valuable resources that help professionals meet clients' needs" (Adler & Borys, 1996: 69). "Bad" bureaucracy disrupts that help, creating conditions for thwarted impact. To more fully understand the implications of this thwarted impact, below, we develop theory about its consequences, drawing from the literatures on psychological contracts and relational job design.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Thwarted Impact and Work Outcomes

To explain the consequences of thwarted impact, we draw from a social exchange lens that views the phenomenon through its effect on an employee's relationship with the organization. Blau's (1964) development of social exchange theory followed closely from his earlier work on bureaucracy cited above. In theorizing about the consequences of thwarted impact, we note how these two lines of inquiry are connected. That is, as thwarted impact is fostered via coercive bureaucracy, it shapes the way that members

of the organization will behave toward the organization. Thwarted impact is a destructive phenomenon because it detracts from the prosocial impact people could realize in their work. As Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, and Hall (2017) explain, these types of dysfunctional experiences are likely to be reciprocated toward the organization in kind.

Although employees can and do point to specific policies, rules, or processes as the reason for their thwarted impact, it is likely that their reactions are directed toward the "organization" as a social entity in and of itself. Employees often anthropomorphize their employers, which allows them to make better sense of their place in the organization and the organization's place in the world (Ashforth, Schinoff & Brickson, 2020). Moreover, scholars have argued that this process leads people to see the organization as a moral agent who can be held accountable for acts that violate ideological expectations (Ashforth et al., 2020: 43–46). Thus, thwarted impact may be more likely to predict behaviors that focus on the organization versus those that target specific individuals (cf. Turnley, Bolino, Lester & Bloodgood, 2003). In the present study, we focus on three behaviors in particular: (1) "boosterism," a citizenship behavior directed toward the organization that benefits it as a whole (OCB–O); (2) counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization (CWB–O); and (3) voluntary turnover.

"Boosterism" behavior is a dimension of citizenship behavior that centers on promoting the organization as a whole, particularly to those outside of the organization. Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) describe these behaviors as "organization member proficiency," which involves talking to others about the organization in a positive way, defending the organization's reputation, and presenting a positive image of the organization. Although such behaviors are not directly related to one's task performance, they contribute to the organization by influencing customers, clients, or the general public to think about the organization in positive terms. This can facilitate several functions for the organization, such as recruiting and selection, retention, marketing, and community relations (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009). However, when employees perceive a high level of thwarted impact, they may choose to enact these behaviors less frequently and with less favorability. As an employee comes to see the organization as limiting the good that can be done through their job, they are likely to consider the organization as less deserving of praise.

"CWB–O" involves employees intentionally behaving in ways that disrupt the flow of the tasks assigned to them (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), including wasting time, ignoring instructions, taking excessively long breaks, or stopping work earlier than expected. Such behaviors detract from organizational goal achievement, and thus undermine productivity and innovation (Carpenter, Whitman & Amrhein, 2021; Harari, Reaves & Viswesvaran, 2018). An employee who perceives high levels of thwarted impact may be more likely to engage in such behaviors, because the thwarted impact undermines the perceived purpose behind their work effort, making the implications of one's counterproductive work behaviors, such as withdrawal and loafing, less concerning and more justified in their minds. Employees may come to view agents of the organization—or the anthropomorphized organization itself—as a place of hypocrisy, leading to a sense of disingenuousness that drives them to undermine organizational functioning (Cha & Edmondson, 2006).

Finally, thwarted impact may also explain whether an employee remains in the organization at all. In addition to shaping performance-related behaviors such as the psychological withdrawal indicative of CWB–O, thwarted impact may also be predictive of quitting, which is the culminating physical withdrawal behavior. In particular, employees may feel a sense of unfairness and neglect that prompts voluntary exit from their employer. Employees who see the organization as limiting the prosocial impact of their work may thus struggle to see their employer as a worthy partner in the employment relationship. Eventually, they may begin to search for alternative employers where perhaps they might find opportunities for impact that are less thwarted. As such alternatives solidify and are considered more strongly, employees will be more likely to leave voluntarily. Taking the above together, we therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1. Thwarted impact will be (a) negatively associated with boosterism behavior, (b) positively associated with CWB–O, and (c) positively associated with voluntary turnover.

Ideological Contract Fulfillment as an Explanation

Psychological contracts and the ideological dimension. As we consider the likely consequences of thwarted impact, a more granular focus on social exchange theory helps provide richer explanation for these hypothesized effects. In particular, we draw from a branch of the social exchange literature

focused on psychological contracts. Psychological contracts theory asserts that employee behavior can be explained by the employee's perceived relationship with the organization, as reflected by their belief that promises, implicit or explicit, have been kept—or not kept—by the organization (Robinson, 1996). An employee forms this belief by drawing on their interactions with others through verbal or written agreements (explicit promises) and other patterns of behavior (implicit promises).

To date, most efforts at understanding psychological contracts have focused on dimensions characterized by transactional and relational exchanges. Transactional exchanges reflect an economic orientation characterized by instrumental motives where an employee fulfills their role responsibilities in return for reasonable compensation, safety, and some minimum short-term guarantee of employment. Relational exchanges reflect a different type of "currency"—a socioemotional orientation characterized by collectivistic motives where an employee demonstrates commitment to the organization in return for social support and longer-term job security. Although some workers describe their relationship with the organization in primarily transactional or relational terms, many individuals experience a mix of both (Hui, Lee & Rousseau, 2004). The extent to which an employee believes the organization has met its obligations reflects psychological contract fulfillment.

Although a large body of literature has examined psychological contract beliefs, scholars have focused on transactional and relational exchanges (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007) while paying little attention to a third dimension—*ideological* exchange. Beyond economic and socioemotional concerns, the ideological dimension of psychological contracts is characterized by prosocial motives based on principle, where the employee enthusiastically participates in the organization in return for a demonstrated commitment by the organization to a particular social cause (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). The pursuit of this cause is the primary inducement on which an ideological contract is based. With transactional and relational exchanges, the beneficiary is oneself; however, with ideological exchange, the beneficiary is another, whether that be a segment of society reflected in one's client base (e.g., bringing the arts to those in lower socioeconomic conditions), or perhaps others within one's own organization (e.g., an organization that emphasizes servant leadership toward subordinates).

As with the psychological contract more broadly, ideological elements of the psychological contract are psychologically constructed based on the idiosyncratic experiences of the employee. With ideological currency, the promises made by the organization and the employee to each other tend to be "implicitly exchanged at the nexus of the individual–organization relationship" (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003: 574). Specifically, employees are exposed to ideological messaging through recruiting practices that highlight organizational mission statements (which are often grandiose and noble), along with ongoing messaging about organizational purpose and values. Through these experiences in the organization's selection and socialization processes, employees internalize the ideological element of the psychological contract that emphasizes an employee's responsibility to contribute toward the organization's pursuit of the cause. In return, the organization is viewed as being obligated to support the cause, giving the employee a legitimate claim that they are doing work that truly furthers the cause.[3]

To our knowledge, no study has empirically examined what experiences or conditions predict the fulfillment of ideological contracts. However, according to the conceptual literature, organizations can create conditions that promote the perceived fulfillment of ideological promises by cultivating internal practices and policies that efficiently link employee time and attention toward ideological objectives (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003: 574). When organizations have developed procedures and norms that prioritize and emphasize the cause, employees are more likely to feel that the ideological dimension of the psychological contract is being fulfilled. Unfortunately, coercive bureaucratic conditions are a prevalent aspect of many organizations, and create an opportunity for thwarted impact to arise among employees. Thwarted impact thus is antithetical to the conditions that promote ideological contract fulfillment.

Ideological contract fulfillment occurs when employees feel that they are receiving ideological rewards, such as confidence that one is contributing to a valued cause, serving an organization that is doing

[3] Values congruence (e.g., person–organization fit) is closely related to ideology in organizations. Ideological contracts imply at least some level of congruence between organization and employee values, given that ideological exchange is premised on the fact that the organization is advancing an ideal that the employee cherishes (Blau, 1964). However, ideological contract fulfillment reflects more precisely the fact that promises have been made that are related to a specific cause, and those promised ideological obligations are being met through opportunities for involvement, internal practice and policies, public advocacy, and other indicators (Bingham, 2005).

so, public advocacy for the cause, or support for the cause even at the expense of revenue (Bingham, 2005). However, thwarted impact leads people to view these rewards as being obstructed. Faced with thwarted impact, employees are likely to experience a sense of empathic distress, feeling they are unable to help beneficiaries sufficiently (Klimecki, Leiberg, Ricard & Singer, 2014; Singer & Klimecki, 2014). As this inability to help is blamed on coercive features of the organization, employees come to see the ideological contract as going unfulfilled. Indeed, these features send the message to employees that the current organizational context is incompatible with contributing to the cause in the ways they have been implicitly promised. Psychological contract theory suggests that employee perceptions of ideological rewards are likely to be stifled when an organization reneges on ideological commitments or when the cause is seen as being displaced or diluted by other interests (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). The perception of thwarted impact reflects personal experiences with such conditions, where reneging and goal displacement is evident in their direct individual work experiences. Therefore, we expect high levels of thwarted impact to undermine perceptions of ideological contract fulfillment. We thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. Thwarted impact will be negatively related to ideological contract fulfillment.

Consequences of Thwarted Impact through Ideological Contract Fulfillment

An unfulfilled ideological contract may help explain how thwarted impact leads employees to engage in less boosterism, more CWB–O, and higher rates of voluntary turnover.

In an ideological contract, greater effort and persistence are directed to the organization by employees when they are confident those efforts are contributing toward or aligned with the efforts and persistence of their employer. Broadly speaking, ideological contract fulfillment is thus expected to inspire reciprocation by the employee. When organizations initiate undesirable actions, employees are likely to respond by initiating undesired actions in response, particularly counterproductive work behaviors; and, when organizations withhold desirable actions, employees are likely to respond by withholding their own desired actions, particularly citizenship behaviors and ultimately their physical presence on the job (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Ideological fulfillment itself likely explains both of these patterns, with the organization both doing too many "bad" things, and not doing enough "good" things (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

Because the organization is seen as the one doing (or not doing) the fulfillment, employee responses will likewise target the organizational dimensions of these behaviors more than the interpersonal dimensions; and, as employees come to view the personified organization as a culpable moral agent of thwarted impact, psychological contract beliefs are likely to drive their negative reactions (Ashforth et al., 2020). In many cases, employees may see the supervisor as the most proximal culprit, but, as agents of the organization, supervisors tend to be seen as the embodiment of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2010) and thus these perceptions are likely to generalize to the organization as a whole. Whereas employees exchange transactional currency in the form of mere compliance, and exchange relational currency in the form of commitment and loyalty, ideological currency focuses on the exchange of performance-related behavior that furthers the cause. Specifically, ideologically infused efforts from employees take the form of "advocacy, perhaps outside the organization" and ideologically driven employees "perform [their] role … even if it involves some sacrifice" (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003: 576). That is, because the ideological contract takes on a covenantal character focused on furthering transcendent values (Graham & Organ, 1993), it includes a particular focus on (a) employee behaviors that advocate for the organization and its cause, as well as (b) persistence in performance effort even when things get most difficult. We propose that these two fundamental aspects of ideological contracts relate to boosterism and CWB–O, respectively. Moreover, they both relate to voluntary turnover behavior.

Though scarce, studies of ideological contracts seem to support the idea that low fulfillment will lead to low performance, broadly speaking. A few studies have found that ideological fulfillment explains employee outcomes above and beyond relational fulfillment (Bal & Vink, 2011; Bingham, 2005) and that it may strengthen the effect of job attitudes on task performance (Kim, Shin, Vough, Hewlin & Vandenberghe, 2018). More recently, a breach of the ideological contract in physicians was shown to indirectly predict proactive behaviors aimed at better serving patients, through the self-affirmation of core values (Deng, Coyle-Shapiro, Zhu & Wu, 2023). However, this study also found that breach of the ideological contract was positively associated with rumination, and negatively associated with professional identification. Thus, it may be that employees with unfulfilled ideological contracts in some cases "double

down" on their commitment to make an impact—but they may not be able to avoid experiencing a strained relationship with their organization or profession.

Because ideological exchange focuses, in part, on employees advocating for the cause to others outside the organization, an unfulfilled contract due to thwarted impact may lead to lower levels of boosterism. When employees feel that their employer has lived up to their promises of meaningfully contributing toward their mission, employees, in turn, are likely to reciprocate by talking positively about the organization to friends and family outside of work. Such conversations reflect boosterism behavior where the employee conveys a positive image of their employer to others, conveying a sense of authentic pride (Carver, Sinclair & Johnson, 2010) that one has an employment relationship with an organization that is "making a difference" in a way one values.

Similarly, an unfulfilled ideological contract can help explain why an employee with high thwarted impact perceptions would engage in more CWB–O. Ideological exchange from the employee involves performing their role, even if it entails sacrifice (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003), and thwarted impact disrupts this exchange. When thwarted impact undermines the ideological contract, it undermines what is often a core purpose behind the employee's work effort. When work becomes particularly demanding, those who perceive low fulfillment are unlikely to be willing to make sacrifices to maintain their job efforts. In contrast, high fulfillment is likely to lead employees to put in acceptable time and effort, and to fulfill their role even when it is hardest.

Fulfillment may also explain how thwarted impact is associated with voluntary turnover. The ideological contract provides a direct reflection of the unfairness and neglect caused by thwarted impact, which could culminate in a higher likelihood of quitting. (Clinton & Guest, 2014; Robinson, 1996). Additionally, it may be that the lower levels of boosterism and higher levels of CWB–O explained by fulfillment increase the probability of quitting, because both reflect a weakened relationship with the organization. Those engaging in low boosterism may be more likely to leave their organization for a new employer with whom they can engage in a form of exchange that transcends the self. Similarly, counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization generally take the form of withdrawal which has been shown to gradually escalate into physical withdrawal through a progression of gradually more withdrawn behavior (Johns, 2001; Kozlowsky, Sagie, Krausz & Singer, 1997), eventually ending in quitting.

Finally, in addition to influencing turnover through fulfillment, thwarted impact may also influence turnover through the effect that fulfillment has on boosterism and counterproductive behavior (i.e., serial mediation). A lack of boosterism behavior and increased counterproductive behavior directed toward the organization both reflect a weakened relationship with the organization, and these factors increase the likelihood that an employee turns over voluntarily. Boosterism behavior reflects a strong bond with the organization rooted in shared values and authentic pride (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) where an employee voluntarily and informally takes on the role of an ambassador (Boğan & Dedeoğlu, 2022). However, low boosterism behavior reflects a weak bond that is more transactional than ideological. Given that many people desire a relationship with their organization that includes components beyond being transactional (Rousseau, 1989; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003), those engaging in low boosterism may be more likely to leave their organization for a new employer with whom they can engage in a form of exchange that transcends the self. Similarly, counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization generally take the form of withdrawal (Carpenter & Berry, 2017), such as daydreaming, loafing, and inattention. Such behaviors have been shown to gradually escalate into physical withdrawal through a progression of gradually more withdrawn behavior (Johns, 2001; Kozlowsky et al., 1997), eventually ending in quitting. Taken together, we thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3. Ideological contract fulfillment is positively associated with (a) boosterism and negatively associated with (b) CWB–O and (c) voluntary turnover.

Hypothesis 4. (a) Boosterism behavior will be negatively related and (b) CWB–O will be positively related to voluntary turnover.

Hypothesis 5. Ideological contract fulfillment mediates the effects of thwarted impact on (a) boosterism, (b) CWB–O, and (c) voluntary turnover.

Hypothesis 6. The effect of thwarted impact on voluntary turnover is serially mediated via fulfillment and (a) boosterism and via fulfillment and (b) CWB–O.

Beneficiary Contact as an Exacerbating Factor

In addition to considering how ideology shapes the employee–employer relationship, the literature on prosociality in organizations has paid careful

attention to how employees process social information (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). This social information processing perspective holds that the other people that make up one's social environment provide influential cues that shape the salience of an employee's beliefs about their work. For example, Griffin (1983) found that cues (e.g., explicit verbal messaging) from supervisors influenced the way people perceived changes in tasks, beyond any objective changes in the tasks. Similarly, other leadership scholars have found that certain behavioral leadership styles lead to more favorable perceptions of work (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Purvanova, Bono & Dzieweczynski, 2006).

Grant (2007) applied this social information processing perspective to the question of how employees can be motivated by interactions with job beneficiaries, labeling this idea "relational job design." Although messaging from leaders has been identified as a particularly influential social cue for work generally, prosociality scholars have found that beneficiaries are the most significant source of social cues when it comes to perceptions of prosocial impact (Grant, 2007). Grant and colleagues (Grant, 2012; Grant, Campbell, Chen, Cottone, Lapedis & Lee, 2007) and Bellé (2013, 2014) all found that respectful (positive) contact with beneficiaries makes perceptions of impact stronger, and even negative contact with beneficiaries has been found to have motivating effects in some circumstances (Nielsen & Colbert, 2022). Even when contact with beneficiaries has been studied from a more neutral standpoint (not necessarily positive or negative), it has increased the salience of impact-related perceptions among employees (Grant, 2012; Grant et al., 2007). Overall, this literature has led to the conclusion that interacting with beneficiaries can elevate the perceived impact of work and can thus facilitate persistence in one's work.

However, whereas close contact with beneficiaries may increase the salience of realized prosocial impact, we suggest that this salience may also at times "backfire" by magnifying the negative reactions employees have when they feel they are being prevented from making the kind of impact they expect to make. Specifically, we propose that contact with beneficiaries strengthens the negative effect of thwarted impact on ideological contract fulfillment. Drawing from the social information processing perspective and prior literature on beneficiary contact, we expect that individuals who interact to a greater extent with customers, clients, or other beneficiaries are likely to react more strongly to the belief that the organization is limiting the impact one would otherwise have on those beneficiaries. That is, the empathic distress experienced by an employee who encounters chronic thwarted impact is likely to be intensified for those who work closely with beneficiaries. Interacting with beneficiaries, even if it is mere contact (without verbal interaction or positive or negative cues), produces an affective bond that makes employees consider beneficiary well-being more regularly and intensely (Grant et al., 2007). An employee who interacts more regularly and deeply with beneficiaries is also likely to experience a recurring, close-up view of the implications of thwarted impact—how the stymied impact on others is impeding the ideological promises made by the organization. Ideological contracts may be more salient to these employees in the first place, given that their interactions with beneficiaries likely remind them of the mission and aims of the organization. Thus, instances of thwarted impact will engender greater empathic distress attributed to the organization and are more likely to be seen as an indication that the organization is providing less ideological currency than the employee felt they were promised. At low levels of beneficiary contact, employees who perceive thwarted impact will still believe that ideological obligations are being unfulfilled; but at high levels, the thwarted impact will cause an even stronger reaction. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 7. The relationship between thwarted impact and ideological contract fulfillment will be moderated by beneficiary contact, such that at high levels of contact the relationship will be more negative.

Hypothesis 8. Thwarted impact will exhibit indirect effects, conditional on beneficiary contact, for (a) boosterism, (b) CWB–O, and (c) voluntary turnover. The effects will be stronger at high levels of beneficiary contact.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

In order to test the above hypotheses, we conducted a three-wave, time-lagged field survey of alumni from a university in the Midwestern United States. Data were collected as part of a larger effort examining the meaning of work. Alumni were considered eligible if they currently worked full-time at the start of the study. Given the infancy of the concept of thwarted impact, we focused on a more context-generic (vs. context-specific) sampling strategy. As the alumni were employed in varied occupations across multiple

industries, this sample provided a more generalizable snapshot of the effects of thwarted impact.

We employed a time-lagged survey design to avoid sources of common method variance, particularly mood and recency effects (Spector, 2006). Specifically, each wave of data collection was separated by about two weeks, with the exception of the voluntary turnover data, which were collected one year after the third survey ended. In the first focal employee survey, we collected data on thwarted impact, beneficiary contact, covariates, and demographic variables. The second survey included the measure of ideological contract fulfillment. In this survey, we also asked the participants to provide the name and contact information of one of their coworkers. Finally, the third survey included measures of employee CWB–O. At this point in time, we invited coworkers to complete a survey including a measure of boosterism behavior. As extant literature has shown that coworkers do not observe the full extent of one's counterproductive behavior, and that coworker ratings of counterproductive work behavior exhibit little incremental variance beyond self-reports (Berry, Carpenter & Barratt, 2012), we did not ask coworkers to rate CWB–O—in part, to reduce survey fatigue on coworkers.

Initially, we invited 72,549 alumni to participate via e-mail. At Time 1, 1,491 people (2%) enrolled in the study and provided enough data to use in a full information maximum likelihood (FIML) analytical approach. Table 1 (below) reports the specific sample size available for each relationship in our data. Respondents were asked to invite a coworker to participate, which led to a total of 228 completed coworker evaluations. Overall, the final sample was 57% women with an average age of 42.42 years (SD = 12.21 years). The average tenure in their current job was 8.78 years (SD = 8.08 years), and 38% of the participants reported that at least some part of their job included managerial responsibilities. Analysis of the response rates showed that those who did not complete the third survey and those for whom we could not gather turnover data were slightly younger and shorter tenured than those who provided these data. Although these differences were small, our conclusions related to performance and turnover may overrepresent slightly older and longer-tenured individuals.

To collect the voluntary turnover data, we sent a survey to all the participants one year after the third employee survey. Because some participant contact information included a work e-mail, we wanted to make sure that any nonresponse for those participants (n = 101) was not due to the fact that they had turned over and lacked access to the old work e-mail. In order to address this issue, we followed two steps for those who did not respond and for whom we had work e-mail addresses. First, we examined LinkedIn profiles of those participants. We particularly noted who had changed jobs and how they had discussed the job transition in their posts. We also sent LinkedIn messages to some participants to confirm voluntary turnover status. Second, we searched through the website of the company that employed them during the first round of surveys. We were able to find enough information for 96 out of the 101 such employees. Altogether, we were able to gather voluntary turnover data for 786 people, out of which 114 (14.5%) had turned over voluntarily after one year.[4]

Measures

Unless specifically indicated, all measures were rated on a scale from "1" (*strongly disagree*) to "5" (*strongly agree*).

Thwarted impact. We developed six items to measure thwarted impact that were reflective of our definition of the construct. We then examined the content validity of this scale, recruiting 113 participants from the Prolific platform who lived in the United States, were fully employed, and had received a bachelor's degree (78% women; mean age = 34.8 years, SD = 10.7). We used the Hinkin and Tracey approach as outlined by Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, and Hill (2019), asking participants to indicate the extent to which each item was a good fit or not with the provided definition (i.e., "When an employee believes that organizational factors are limiting one's impact on other people through one's job"). We included two orbiting constructs to provide comparisons: namely, hindrance stressors and job opportunity for impact. Using the non-normed benchmarks from Colquitt and colleagues (2019), our results showed that all six items exhibited a moderate to strong definitional correspondence (average htc = .87) and very strong definitional distinctiveness (htd = .46). For more details, including specific item-level results, please see the online appendix.

To explore correlations with orbiting constructs and explore the adequacy of the factor structure compared to other constructs, we then included these items in a *pilot sample* of full-time employees in the

[4] We analyzed the data including only respondents who completed the survey. Results were virtually identical to the analysis that also included data from LinkedIn and company websites.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Voluntary turnover	0.15	0.35									
2 Boosterism (coworker rating)	4.55	0.53	−.19* (160)	**.80**							
3 CWB–O	2.41	1.17	.14** (475)	−.05 (205)	**.80**						
4 ICF	3.61	0.94	−.10 (540)	.30** (226)	−.15** (685)	**.94**					
5 Thwarted impact	2.83	1.25	.13** (786)	−.24** (228)	.16** (720)	−.45** (844)	**.96**				
6 Beneficiary contact	4.34	0.98	.05 (786)	.09 (228)	−.09* (720)	.04 (844)	.12** (1,389)	**.92**			
7 Hindrance stressors	2.44	0.69	.11** (683)	−.22** (224)	.20** (691)	−.45** (805)	.54** (1,148)	.06 (1,148)	**.87**		
8 Job opportunity for impact	4.32	0.84	−.00 (683)	.17* (224)	−23** (691)	.23** (805)	−.17** (1,148)	.33** (1,148)	−.25** (1,148)	**.92**	
9 Gender[a]	0.57	0.49	.03 (680)	−.15* (222)	−.04 (688)	−.06 (801)	.07* (1,144)	.06 (1,144)	.01 (1,144)	.07* (1,144)	
10 Tenure	8.78	8.08	−.06 (682)	.05 (224)	−.14** (691)	−.02 (804)	−.05 (1,147)	.06* (1,147)	.01 (1,147)	.11** (1,147)	−.07* (1,147)

Notes: CWB–O = counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization, ICF = ideological contract fulfillment. *N* for each correlation is written in parentheses under the coefficient. Alpha reliabilities are reported in bold along the diagonal for those variables to which it applies.

[a] For gender, "1" = female, "0" = male.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

United States (n = 324; 45% women; mean age = 34.5 years, SD = 9.7; mean tenure = 7.3 years, SD = 7.1).[5] We note that this sample was previously included in published work by Nielsen and Colbert (2022: Study 3); however, none of the variables examined in this article were examined previously (i.e., there is overlap in cases, but no overlap in variables). In an exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction, all six items exhibited strong loadings (ranging from .83 to .94), and exhibited no cross-loading higher than .10 with items from the other scales (i.e., hindrance stressors, job opportunity for impact, task significance, perceived prosocial impact, and beneficiary contact). Thwarted impact exhibited a weak correlation with prosocial impact (r = .01), as well as job opportunity for impact (r = .09), task significance (r = .03), and beneficiary contact (r = .09), and exhibited a moderate correlation with hindrance stressors (r = .49).[6]

Participants in the main study were asked to what extent they agreed with the six items, which are as follows: "There are barriers in my organization that prevent me from having a bigger impact on others through my job," "Certain things about my organization keep me from making a more important impact on others," "I could make a more significant impact on others through my work if not for certain organizational factors that get in the way," "My organization gets in the way of me making a larger impact on others through my work," "I could make a bigger impact on others through my job if my organization would get out of the way," and "There are some things in my organization that limit the impact that I could have on others through my job." The scale exhibited strong reliability (α = .96).

Ideological contract fulfillment. Following Bingham (2005), we measured ideological contract

[5] For a more comprehensive description of this pilot study, see the online supplemental appendix (click here).

[6] Initially, we suspected that perceived prosocial impact would be a mechanism that helps explain the effects of thwarted impact. Upon developing a more precise conceptualization for thwarted impact, our view evolved to a position wherein perceived prosocial impact would be relatively independent of thwarted impact. This pilot study played a key role in providing empirical support for this idea, showing a null correlation between the two constructs. These findings led us to search for other possible mechanisms, with a psychological contract lens suggesting ideological contract fulfillment.

fulfillment by first asking respondents to write out the cause or mission of their organization in their own words:

> In a few words, please describe your organization's cause or mission. That is, who does your organization state that they aim to benefit, and how?

This prompt was followed by seven items focused on the ideological obligations of the organization, such as "opportunities for involvement in the cause," "internal practices/policies that advance these company ideals," and "commitment of resources toward advancing the stated cause." Respondents indicated the extent to which the employer had fulfilled these obligations (rated on a scale of 1 = "My company has provided much less than my company is obligated to provide" to 5 = "My company has provided much more than what my company is obligated to provide"; $\alpha = .94$).

Bingham (2005) provided initial content validity checks on the ideological fulfillment items using subject matter experts. However, although this research showed that ideological, relational, and transactional fulfillment were best represented as three separate factors, it did not assess whether respondents can clearly distinguish between ideological fulfillment items and the items corresponding to the other contract dimensions. Moreover, there is no research that has compared ideological fulfillment items with other orbiting constructs such as values congruence. To address these measurement concerns, we conducted two separate content validity studies. We used the strong average correlation norming benchmarks for both. First, we compared ideological with relational and transactional fulfillment. Results showed moderate definitional correspondence (*htc* = .83) and very strong definitional distinctiveness (*htd* = .31). Second, we compared ideological fulfillment with values congruence and organizational integrity. Results again showed a moderate definitional correspondence (*htc* = .84) and a very strong definitional distinctiveness (*htd* = .40). For more information on the samples used in these studies, see the online appendix.

Beneficiary contact. Beneficiary contact was measured using a four-item scale ($\alpha = .92$) from Grant (2012): "My job involves a great deal of interaction with the people who benefit from my work," "On the job, I frequently communicate with the people affected by my work," "The job requires spending a great deal of time with the people who benefit from my work," and "The job involves interaction with the people affected by my work."

Boosterism. To measure boosterism, coworkers responded to the three-item scale of organization member proficiency from Griffin et al. (2007). Items include "presents a positive image of the organization to other people (e.g., clients or customers)," "defends the organization if others criticize it," and "talks about the organization in positive ways" ($\alpha = .80$).

Counterproductive work behavior targeted at the organization. CWB–O was measured using an abbreviated scale of five items taken from Carpenter and Berry (2017) and Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006). Specifically, we included items pertaining to withdrawal behavior, which has been shown to be "a facet in the hierarchical model of CWB" (Carpenter & Berry, 2017: 834). Withdrawal items align particularly well with our theoretical argument that high (low) levels of ideological contract fulfillment will motivate people to give consistently high (low) levels of effort. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they had engaged in certain activities in the last year (1 = *never*, 2 = *once a year*, 3 = *twice a year*, 4 = *several times a year*, 5 = *monthly*, 6 = *weekly*, 7 = *daily*). The items we used include "put little effort into your work," "neglected to follow your boss's instructions," "intentionally worked slower than you could have worked," "spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working," and "stopped working early when you shouldn't have" ($\alpha = .80$).

Voluntary turnover. We measured voluntary turnover using the following dichotomous item: "Do you still work for the same organization you worked for in July 2021?" The participants responded to the question with either "yes" or "no." To establish the voluntary nature of turnover, we also asked a follow-up question—"Did you leave the organization by choice?"—to those participants who answered "no" to the initial question. As described previously, for those who did not respond to the survey, we also used publicly available information or archival data to code whether the turnover was voluntary. Voluntary turnover was coded as "1," whereas no turnover and involuntary turnover were coded as "0."

Covariates. We included two covariates in our analysis. First, we measured hindrance stressors, so that we could examine whether thwarted impact explains variance in ideological contract fulfillment above and beyond general hindrances. Second, we included job opportunity for impact, to examine whether thwarted impact explains variance in fulfillment above and beyond the perception that one's job has the potential to make an impact on others. Hindrance stressors were measured using a 10-item scale ($\alpha = .87$) from LePine, Zhang, Crawford, and Rich (2016) that asked how often participants experienced

things like "administrative hassles," "inadequate resources to accomplish task," and "disputes with coworkers." Job opportunity for impact was measured using a three-item scale ($\alpha = .92$) from Grant (2008a) (e.g., "My job gives me the chance to make a significant positive difference in others' lives").

Constraints for exploratory analysis. Finally, we were interested in examining the specific types of barriers that explained employees' global thwarted impact ratings. Therefore, we included an adapted version of the organizational constraints scale (Spector & Jex, 1998), with the intent to do a post-hoc analysis exploring the specific constraints that explain the most variance in global thwarted impact ratings. We asked respondents how often the positive impact they can have on the others is limited or prevented because of each specific constraint (11 items total, such as "certain organizational rules," "your supervisor," "conflicting job demands"; 1 = *less than once per month or never*, 5 = *several times per day*). This scale is a causal indicator scale, and therefore the coefficient alpha is not an appropriate metric to report.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities of the study variables are reported in Table 1. We used a structural equation modeling approach in *Mplus 8.6* employing FIML. We first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis, estimating a seven-factor model that included each of the latent variables. Following Cortina, Chen, and Dunlap (2001), we modeled thwarted impact and beneficiary contact (i.e., the components of the hypothesized interaction) with single indicators. To reduce the ratio of sample size-to-parameters, we modeled the 10-item hindrance stressor scale with five parcels as indicators, and the other constructs were modeled with each of their items as indicators. The seven-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 648.94$, $df = 256$, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .03; CFI = .97; SRMR = .04), and all loadings were statistically significant. We compared this hypothesized model to a six-factor model ($\chi^2 = 3127.15$, $df = 263$; RMSEA = .09; CFI = .78; SRMR = .14) that combined hindrance stressors and thwarted impact ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2478.21$, $df = 7$, $p < .01$), and a six-factor model ($\chi^2 = 4809.55$, $df = 263$; RMSEA = .11; CFI = .64; SRMR = .28) that combined job opportunity for impact and thwarted impact ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4160.61$, $df = 7$, $p < .01$). Results indicated that the alternative models exhibited significantly worse fit.

To test Hypotheses 1a to 1c, we first estimated a simple structural model that included thwarted impact and the three outcome variables (i.e., boosterism, CWB–O, and turnover), with paths from thwarted impact to each and covariance paths included between the outcomes. This simple structural model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 76.62$, $df = 40$; RMSEA = .03; CFI = .97; SRMR = .05). We report the standardized path estimates with which we tested our hypotheses. We also note that, because one of the outcome variables was binary (i.e., turnover), estimates of effects on this variable use logistic regression techniques. Structural paths showed significant relationships between thwarted impact and each outcome, exhibiting a negative relationship with boosterism ($\beta = -.26$, $SE = 0.07$, $p < .01$), a positive relationship with CWB–O ($\beta = .17$, $SE = 0.07$, $p < .01$), and a positive relationship with voluntary turnover ($\beta = .13$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypotheses 1a to 1c were supported.

Next, we estimated the full model including mediating mechanisms and the moderator. To estimate moderation in the structural model, we mean centered the scale scores for thwarted impact and beneficiary contact, and formed an indicator for the interaction factor by taking a product of those variables (Cortina et al., 2001; Mathieu, Tannenbaum & Salas, 1992). Direct effects were modeled from thwarted impact to voluntary turnover, boosterism, and counterproductive work behavior. The structural model (see Table 2) fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 745.36$, $df = 305$, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .03; CFI = .97; SRMR = .05). First, we estimated the total effects (the sum of the direct and indirect effects) of thwarted impact on each outcome as a supplementary analysis related to Hypothesis 1. For all total and indirect effects estimates, we used 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals. Consistent with the simple model reported above, the total effects of thwarted impact on boosterism ($c = -.041$ [$-.078$, $-.014$]), CWB–O ($c = .146$ [.072, .222]), and voluntary turnover ($c = .035$ [.013, .058]) were each significant in the expected direction.

Hypothesis 2 posited that thwarted impact would be negatively related to ideological contract fulfillment. Supportive of this hypothesis, we found a significant negative effect on ideological contract fulfillment ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .01$). Hypotheses 3 to 6 focused on the mediating role of ideological contract fulfillment. Results showed a significant positive relationship between ideological contract fulfillment and boosterism behavior ($\beta = .27$, $SE = 0.08$, $p < .01$) and a significant negative relationship with CWB–O ($\beta = -.12$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .02$), supporting Hypotheses 3a and 3b. In contrast, the relationship

TABLE 2
Standardized Path Coefficients for Full Model

Predictor	Outcome			
	Ideological contract fulfillment	**Boosterism**	**CWB–O**	**Turnover**
Thwarted impact	**−.30 (0.04), $p < .01$***	−.12 (0.08), $p = .16$	.12 (0.05), $p = .01$*	.08 (0.05), $p = .08$
Beneficiary contact	.01 (0.05), $p = .87$			
Thwarted impact × Beneficiary contact	**−.10 (0.05), $p = .03$***			
Ideological contract fulfillment		**.27 (0.08), $p < .01$***	**−.12 (0.05), $p = .02$***	**−.01 (0.06), $p = .90$**
Boosterism				**−.10 (0.09), $p = .23$**
CWB–O				**.12 (0.06), $p = .04$***
Hindrance stressors	−.26 (0.05), $p < .01$*			
Job opportunity for impact	.12 (0.04), $p < .01$*			

Notes: n = 1,491 employees, 228 coworkers. Simple model effects used to test Hypothesis 1 (see page 13) are as follows: on boosterism (β = −.26, SE = 0.07, $p < .01$); on CWB–O (β = .17, SE = 0.07, $p < .01$); and on voluntary turnover (β = .13, SE = 0.04, $p < .01$). Total effects of thwarted impact in the full model are as follows: on boosterism (c = −.041 [−.078, −.014]); on CWB–O (c = .146 [.072, .222]); and on voluntary turnover (c = .035 [.013, .058]). Standard errors reported in parentheses. CWB–O = counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization. Bolded estimates were used to test hypotheses.

* $p < .05$

between ideological contract fulfillment and voluntary turnover was not significant (β = −.01, SE = 0.06, p = .90), thus Hypothesis 3c was not supported. Boosterism was not significantly related to turnover (β = −.10, SE = 0.09, p = .23), but CWB–O was positively related to turnover (β = .12, SE = 0.06, p = .04); thus, Hypothesis 4a was not supported but Hypothesis 4b was supported.

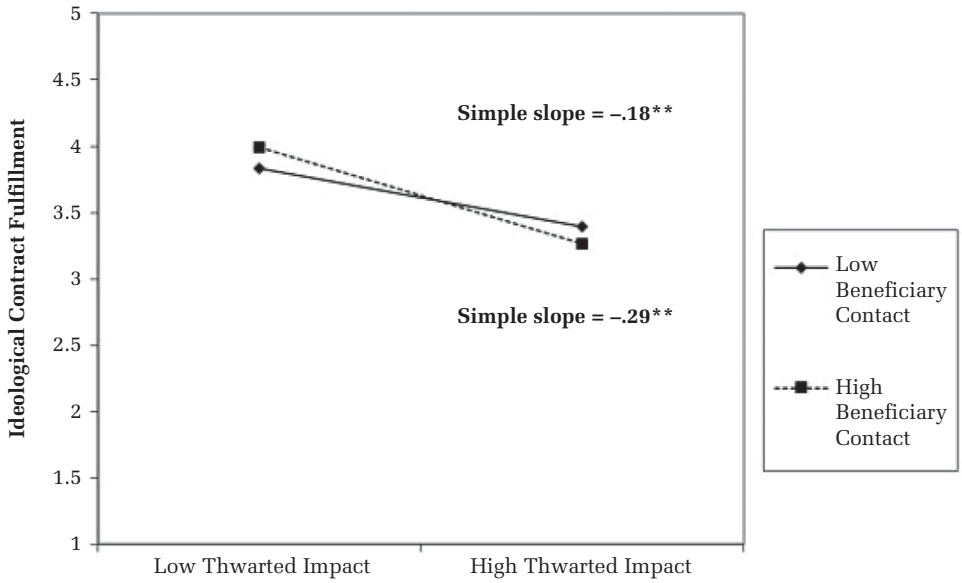
To more comprehensively examine the mediating role of fulfillment (Hypotheses 5 and 6), we next examined the indirect effects of thwarted impact on each outcome, again using bootstrapped confidence intervals as described above.[7] The indirect effect via fulfillment on boosterism was significantly negative (ab = −.017 [−.031, −.007]); and the indirect effect via ideological contract fulfillment on CWB–O was significantly positive (ab = .035 [.007, .073]). Thus, Hypothesis 5a and 5b were supported. For turnover, we examined the three indirect effects implied in our model. First, we found that the simple indirect effect via ideological contract fulfillment was not significant (ab = .001 [−.010, .010]), as suggested by the nonsignificant relationship between fulfillment and turnover reported above. Thus, Hypothesis 5c was not supported. Finally, the serial indirect effect via fulfillment and boosterism was positive but not significant (abb = .002 [−.001, .008]); and the serial indirect effect via fulfillment and CWB–O was positive and significant (abb = .0012 [.0001, .0039]). Thus, Hypothesis 6a was not supported, but Hypothesis 6b was supported as thwarted impact exhibited a positive indirect effect on turnover via fulfillment and CWB–O, but not the other paths.

Hypothesis 7 posited that beneficiary contact would moderate the relationship between thwarted impact and ideological contract fulfillment. Results showed a significant interactive effect on fulfillment (β = −.10, SE = 0.05, p = .03), supporting the hypothesis. We plotted the interaction effect (see Figure 2) to facilitate interpretation and test simple slopes. Following common practices, we used one-standard deviation below and above the mean to construct the "low" and "high" lines for the interaction plots. The plot was consistent with the hypothesized pattern of interaction effects—that is, beneficiary contact strengthens the negative effect of thwarted impact on fulfillment. At low levels of beneficiary contact, the relationship was significantly negative ($b = -0.18$, $t = -4.88$, $p < .01$); and, at high levels of beneficiary contact, the negative effect was enhanced ($b = -0.29$, $t = -7.64$, $p < .01$).

Finally, Hypothesis 8 examined whether beneficiary contact moderated the indirect effects of thwarted impact on outcomes. To test this hypothesis, we estimated the indices of moderated mediation associated with the indirect effect paths (Hayes, 2015). Similar to the interaction coefficient in simple moderation, a significant index of moderated mediation (IMM) suggests that the level of the moderator variable systematically influences the indirect effect between the predictor and the outcome. Results indicated that the effect of thwarted impact on

[7] We also tested a model without the moderator (i.e., beneficiary contact). Coefficient estimates including indirect effects were virtually unchanged.

FIGURE 2
Interactive Effect of Thwarted Prosocial Impact and Beneficiary Contact on Ideological Contract Fulfillment



** $p < .01$

boosterism via ideological contract fulfillment was significantly moderated by beneficiary contact (IMM = −.005, 95% CI [−.013, −.001]). At low levels of beneficiary contact, the indirect effect was negative (−.012, 95% CI [−.026, −.004]), and, at high levels, the effect was more negative (−.022, 95% CI [−.040, −.008). We also found that the indirect effect of thwarted impact on CWB–O via ideological contract fulfillment was significantly moderated by beneficiary contact (IMM = .011, 95% CI [.001, .029]). At low levels of beneficiary contact, the indirect effect was positive (.024, 95% CI [.005, .062]) and, at high levels of beneficiary contact, the indirect effect was more positive (.045, 95% CI [.007, .093]). Thus, Hypothesis 7a and 7b were supported.

To estimate the IMM for the serial indirect effects on turnover, we followed guidance from Hayes (2015) on conditional process analysis with serial mediation, multiplying the interaction effect by the effect of ideological contract fulfillment on CWB–O, which was then multiplied by the effect of CWB–O on turnover. Our results indicated that the indirect effect of thwarted impact on turnover via ideological contract fulfillment and CWB–O was moderated by beneficiary contact (IMM = .0038, 95% CI [.0002, .0155]). At low levels of beneficiary contact, the indirect effect was positive (.0085, 95% CI [.0012, .0324]), and, at high levels, the effect was more positive (.0159, 95% CI [.0012, .0541]). Thus, Hypothesis 7c was supported. The results of the indirect effects analyses are reported in Table 3.

We also tested our model without covariates, following suggested best practices regarding control variables (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). The model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 261.22$, $df = 142$, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .02; CFI = .98; SRMR = .04), and the results warranted no change in conclusions from the model that included covariates. Specifically, thwarted impact exhibited a stronger effect on ideological contract fulfillment (β = −.48, $SE = 0.03$, $p < .01$), and the interaction effect remained the same (β = −.10, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .03$). Ideological contract fulfillment exhibited similar effects on boosterism (β = .26, $SE = 0.08$, $p < .01$), CWB–O (β = −.12, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .03$), and voluntary turnover (β = −.01, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .94$); and boosterism (β = −.10, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .23$) and CWB–O (β = .12, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .04$) exhibited similar effects on turnover. All the indices of moderated mediation and conditional indirect effects showed similar results.

Specific Sources of Thwarted Impact

Our research focuses on global ratings of thwarted impact and their consequences for employees. However, one might wonder what the specific barriers are that explain our respondents' thwarted impact ratings. In other words, what exactly is it about their organization that leads the employees to develop

TABLE 3
Indirect Effects of Thwarted Impact across Levels of Beneficiary Contact

Paths	Indirect effect
TI → ICF → Boost	**−.017 [−.031, −.007]**[a]
−1 *SD*	−.012 [−.026, −.004][a]
+1 *SD*	−.022 [−.040, −.008][a]
IMM	**−.005 [−.013, −.001]**[a]
TI → ICF → CWB–O	**.035 [.007, .073]**[a]
−1 *SD*	.024 [.005, .062][a]
+1 *SD*	.045 [.007, .093][a]
IMM	**.011 [.001, .029]**[a]
TI → ICF → Turnover	**.001 [−.010, .010]**
−1 *SD*	.000 [−.007, .007]
+1 *SD*	.001 [−.013, .014]
IMM	**.201 [−.3.251, 4.527]**
TI → ICF → Boost → Turnover	**.002 [−.001, .008]**
−1 *SD*	−.011 [−.028, −.040][a]
+1 *SD*	−.022 [−.042, −.008][a]
IMM	**.0007 [−.0003, .0036]**
TI → ICF → CWB–O → Turnover	**.0012 [.0001, .0039]**[a]
−1 *SD*	.0009 [.0001, .0036][a]
+1 *SD*	.0016 [.0001, .0052][a]
IMM	**.00038 [.00002, .00156]**[a]

Notes: TI = thwarted impact, ICF = ideological contract fulfillment, Boost = boosterism behavior, CWB–O = counterproductive work behaviors directed toward the organization, IMM = index of moderated mediation. +/− 1 *SD* corresponds to level of the moderator for conditional effects (i.e., beneficiary contact). Bolded estimates correspond to hypothesis tests for Hypotheses 5, 6, and 8.

[a] 95% CI does not include zero.

thwarted impact beliefs? As the "organization" could broadly refer to many different types of barriers, we conducted an exploratory, post-hoc analysis to examine this question. Specifically, we regressed global thwarted impact ratings on the set of 11 constraints from Spector and Jex (1998) (see Table 4). In addition, we ran a relative weight analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015) to examine the percent of variance explained by each constraint. Results indicated that the total set of constraints explained almost half of the variance in global thwarted impact ratings ($R^2 = .45$), and five of the constraints were significant predictors of thwarted impact. In order of magnitude, these effects and their respective relative weights were as follows: "certain organizational rules" (β = .39, $p < .001$; weight = 35%); "conflicting job demands" (β = .20, $p < .001$; weight = 14%); "other employees" (β = .13, $p < .001$; weight = 11%); "your supervisor" (β = .11, $p < .001$; weight = 12%); and "lack of equipment or supplies" (β = .09, $p = .01$; weight = 5%). Thus, "certain organizational rules" uniquely accounts for over a third of the explained variance in thwarted impact relative to the other predictors, providing credence to the underlying role of coercive bureaucracy to generate thwarted impact.

TABLE 4
Effects of Specific Constraints on Global Ratings of Thwarted Impact

	β	Relative	Raw
Poor equipment or supplies	−.04	3.51	0.02
Certain organizational rules	.39**	34.67	0.16
Other employees	.13**	11.12	0.05
Your supervisor	.11**	11.57	0.05
Lack of equipment or supplies	.09*	5.07	0.02
Inadequate training	.01	3.26	0.02
Interruptions by other people	−.03	3.80	0.02
Lack of necessary information	.04	4.57	0.02
Conflicting job demands	.20**	13.84	0.06
Inadequate help from coworkers	.02	5.29	0.02
Incorrect instructions	−.05†	3.30	0.02

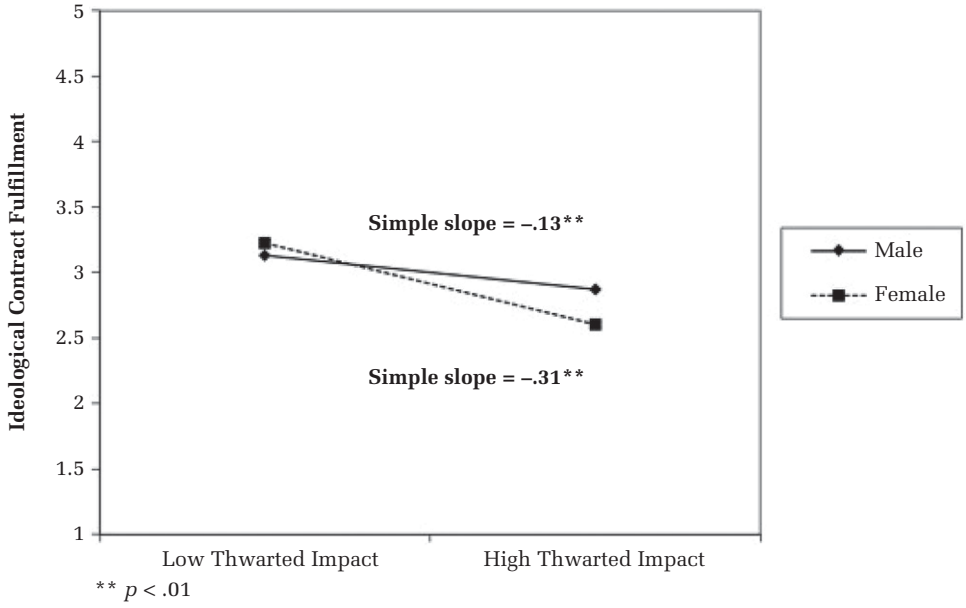
Notes: n = 1,340. $R^2 = .45$. Relative = % of R^2 attributable to the predictor, Raw = % of variance explained in the outcome for each predictor.

** $p < .01$
* $p < .05$
† $p < .10$

Exploring Gender as a Moderating Factor

As part of a post-hoc analysis, we examined whether gender influenced the way people tend to react to chronic thwarted impact. We discovered that the interaction between gender and thwarted impact was significant (β = −.18, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$), specifically indicating that the effect on ideological contract fulfillment was more negative for women on average. We plotted this interaction (see Figure 3) which showed a more negative simple slope for women (β = −.31, $p < .001$) than for men (β = −.13, $p < .001$). When both the beneficiary contact interaction and the gender interaction were included simultaneously in the model, the interaction effects remained significant (further tests showed no evidence for a three-way interaction). We found that this interactive effect yielded significant differences in conditional indirect effects on CWB–O (IMM = .0295 [.0074, .0656]), and boosterism (IMM = −.0135 [−.0330, −.0052]). Further, the serial indirect effects on voluntary turnover through both CWB–O (IMM = .0011 [.0001, .0039]) and boosterism (IMM = .0020 [.00002, .0073]) were significant. In summary, the effects of thwarted impact on each of the outcomes in our study were significantly stronger for women than for men. We discuss possible explanations for this finding later on.

FIGURE 3
Interactive Effect of Thwarted Prosocial Impact and Gender on Ideological Contract Fulfillment



Supplemental Data about Mediating Mechanisms

We collected additional cross-sectional data to help address lingering questions about the role of ideological contract fulfillment as a key mediating mechanism in our model. First, although our pilot study showed a null correlation between thwarted impact and perceived prosocial impact, we collected more data to formally compare the effect of thwarted impact on this variable compared to ideological contract fulfillment. Specifically, we administered two surveys to a combined sample of full-time working alumni and full-time working students from a university in the Midwestern United States (n = 141). The first survey measured thwarted impact and the second survey, one week later, measured ideological contract fulfillment and perceived prosocial impact. The zero-order correlation between thwarted impact and perceived prosocial impact was −.11 (p = .22) compared to −.38 ($p < .001$) with ideological contract fulfillment. Taken together with our pilot sample, which found a null correlation between the two (r = .01), these data suggest that the true relationship may be negative, but weakly so. In a structural model (χ^2 = 29.66, df = 24, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .03; CFI = .99; SRMR = .03), we found that thwarted impact was negatively associated with ideological contract fulfillment (β = −.43, $p < .01$), but was not significantly associated with perceived prosocial impact (β = −.11, p = .28). The difference in the coefficients was found to be significant using bootstrapped confidence intervals (diff. = −.27 [−.40, −.13]), suggesting that ideological contract fulfillment may mediate the thwarted impact effects above perceived prosocial impact.

Second, to examine how the effect of thwarted impact on ideological contract fulfillment compared to its effect on transactional and relational fulfillment, we conducted one survey of registered nurses from the Prolific platform (n = 115). We concluded that using a single occupation would allow for a more contextualized understanding of the differences in contract dimensions, and we were confident that nurses would express a range of all three types of fulfillment. Moreover, nurses are often subject to coercive bureaucratic features in their jobs (e.g., van Loon, 2017). We examined a model of thwarted impact predicting the three fulfillment types (χ^2 = 258.35, df = 155, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .08; CFI = .95; SRMR = .06). Results showed that thwarted impact had the highest path coefficient with ideological contract fulfillment (β = −.50, $p < .001$), followed by relational (β = −.37, $p < .001$), and then transactional (β = −.23, p = .03). We estimated the difference in path coefficients using bootstrapped confidence intervals. Results showed that the ideological path was significantly stronger than the transactional path (diff. = −.22 [−.36, −.07]), but not the relational path (diff. = −.12 [−.24, .02]). Thus, it may be that thwarted impact

exhibits similar effects on ideological and relational contract fulfillment, but a weaker effect for transactional contract fulfillment. For more details of these supplemental samples, see the online appendix.

DISCUSSION

We set out to study the effects of thwarted impact on employee performance and retention, helping to shed light on a novel aspect of prosociality in organizations that enhances our understanding of how the desire to help others through one's job shapes work behavior. In a three-wave field study utilizing both self-reports and coworker ratings, thwarted impact was negatively associated with behaviors directed toward the organization (lower levels of boosterism and higher levels of CWB–O) due to perceptions that the ideological contract between the organization and the employee had not been sufficiently fulfilled. In addition, thwarted impact had an indirect effect on voluntary turnover via fulfillment and CWB–O, and the effects of thwarted impact were particularly strong for employees who interact a great deal with beneficiaries in their job. Below, we discuss the implications of this research as well as how future research might build on these findings.

Theoretical Implications

Research over the last few decades has demonstrated that managers can unlock powerful motivational forces among their employees by designing jobs in a way that allows them the opportunity to make a significant difference for others (Blustein, Lysova & Duffy, 2023; Grant, 2007). However, our research shows that this literature has overlooked the idea that employees may also be affected by whether the current level of prosocial impact can be improved upon, omitting the consideration of thwarted impact in the literature. First, our research supports the contention that thwarted impact is a distinct construct due to its focus on organizational attributions and comparisons with the ideal—that is, what *would* be the case for prosocial impact if the organization would remove barriers. Our pilot research and supplemental data both found that thwarted impact exhibited small to null correlations with other constructs related to prosociality: job opportunity for impact and perceived prosocial impact. With respect to the latter construct, an interesting implication of this finding is that a person's current perception of prosocial impact has little bearing on whether they feel the organization is limiting that impact. This may be because whereas perceived prosocial impact only focuses on absolute impact made by the individual, thwarted impact focuses on it with respect to the perceived expectations. Thus, these two constructs appear to be weakly negatively related, suggesting that thwarted impact provides nonredundant information related to prosocial motivation in the workplace. Similarly, with respect to job opportunity for impact, there is a fairly weak relationship ($r = -.17$ in the main study). This would seem to support our argument that job opportunity for impact is distinct from thwarted impact, in that it focuses on job-level characteristics that provide the potential for impact rather than a perception of realized impact.

Beyond delineating the construct of thwarted impact, our research develops theory to explain its negative effects, including why those negative effects occur and for whom they are most likely to be strongest. Although the concept of ideological contract fulfillment has been extant in the literature for some time, few scholars have worked to understand the specific factors that explain ideological fulfillment perceptions and its consequences. Our research represents one of the first efforts to show how ideological contract perceptions explain the process through which particular organizational experiences (i.e., thwarted impact) shape important employee behavioral patterns. Indeed, this is the first study, to our knowledge, that examines antecedent conditions to ideological contract fulfillment. Beyond this, the present research shows that ideological fulfillment helps to explain why thwarted impact can have a damaging effect on employee performance and retention. If employees think the organization is limiting the impact one could have on beneficiaries, they are likely to see the organization as reneging or ignoring its obligation to fulfill its mission as promised—which undermines powerful intrinsic motivational forces, leading to less boosterism, higher CWB–O, and subsequently greater risk of quitting.[8] A key theoretical implication of our research is thus that thwarted impact negatively affects organizations by damaging the quality of ideological exchange between employer and employee. More broadly, our research shows that ideological exchange may be a concept to which scholars and managers have not paid sufficient attention.

[8] We also examined whether overall turnover (i.e., including involuntary exits) was predicted in our data. We found that the model results were nearly identical, suggesting that thwarted impact not only inspires quitting but may also prompt attitudes and behaviors that lead them to get fired.

In illuminating the antecedents to ideological contract fulfillment, our research also identifies a key boundary condition for the effects of thwarted impact—namely, beneficiary contact. Current understanding of beneficiary contact focuses on how its introduction can be a powerful motivator, particularly in jobs that lack much contact naturally (Grant, 2008b; Grant et al., 2007). Moreover, we know that naturally occurring contact with beneficiaries can enhance the effect of charismatic leadership practices (Grant, 2012). However, our research shows that naturally occurring contact also enhances *negative* effects related to impact on others, illustrating that having a closer generalized relationship to beneficiaries in one's job magnifies the effects of both positive *and* negative factors related to making a difference. It would seem that those more distant from beneficiaries are able to notice or experience instances of thwarted impact, but that they are less likely to associate these experiences with ideological contract perceptions. In contrast, those who interact more regularly or intensely with customers and clients see thwarted impact experiences as significantly limiting fulfillment of the ideological contract. As we argued in our hypothesis development, this may mean that those in high-contact jobs have a more salient view of the big picture—it is more obvious to them that instances of thwarted impact are truly impeding the mission of the organization. Developing this logic more deeply, this salience may exist because low-(high)-contact employees have weaker (stronger) ideological expectations, thus making them less (more) sensitive to ideologically relevant work experiences (cf. Grant, Dutton & Rosso, 2008). If true, despite noticing high levels of thwarted impact, the less-central ideological contracts of low-contact employees would still seem to be fulfilled. Finally, we found that beneficiary contact significantly increased the negative effect of thwarted impact; however, even those in low-contact jobs still experienced a negative effect, on average. Overall, this suggests that thwarted impact is still a potentially serious issue even for those who are more removed from client or customer interactions, but that those in high-contact jobs (who likely represent a much greater number of employees in the workforce) are affected the most.

Our study offers preliminary insights into the specific organizational factors that thwart employees' prosocial impact. Our exploratory analysis indicates that organizational rules and procedures are the most influential factor limiting employees' perceptions of their prosocial impact, suggesting that structural elements—rather than solely interpersonal dynamics—may play a primary role in shaping these perceptions. This finding aligns with prior literature suggesting that an organization's bureaucratic policies, when overly rigid, can unintentionally restrict employees from having the prosocial impact employees hope to have and thus stymy the fulfillment of inherent, ideological promises (Adler & Borys, 1996). While supervisory actions also emerged as a contributing factor of thwarted impact, our findings suggest they may play a more supportive role. Our findings thus affirm that a relatively enabling bureaucratic structure—perhaps focused on greater employee autonomy—is fundamental for empowering employees to reach their full prosocial potential (Grant, 2012; Grant & Parker, 2009).

We found that the effects of thwarted impact on ideological contract fulfillment were stronger for women, on average, than for men, which leads us to speculate about why. One possibility is that women may be more predisposed to the empathic distress that comes from thwarted impact. This would be consistent with evidence from neuroscience that there are differences in empathic responses between men and women that stem from both cultural and biological sources (Christov-Moore, Simpson, Coudé, Grigaityte, Iacoboni & Ferrari, 2014). Studies have shown that men tend to feel less distress when exposed to another's discomfort or upsetting life experiences (Batson et al., 1996; Gleichgerrcht & Decety, 2013). In addition, women may have been more likely to be subjected to experiences of mistreatment in the past (specifically, sex-based mistreatment; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani & Beus, 2018), which could cause them to be more sensitive to violations of the ideological contract at work.

Practical Implications

For managers, a primary implication of our research is that they should monitor the extent to which employees—particularly those with high beneficiary-contact jobs—are experiencing thwarted impact. Organizations have long been encouraged to conduct job analysis to assess the design of jobs, and the job opportunity for impact is an important job characteristic to consider for creating the potential for employees to make a difference (Grant, 2008a). However, our research suggests that organizations also need to assess the extent to which this potential impact is actually being realized. Managers should engage in regular discussions with employees to get a sense for how much their efforts to serve customers, clients, patients, or students are being stifled by unnecessary organizational

policies or procedures or a lack of resources. Managers might consider making this a common component of a "stay" interview (Finnegan, 2018), particularly for high-contact employees. The solicitation of voice has been discussed at length among organizational researchers as a key to bringing about positive change (Park, Tangirala, Hussain & Ekkirala, 2022). Thus, taking the time to solicit voice from high-contact employees is a key step to understanding if there are barriers to impact that can be addressed. Such voice solicitation might be included in talent management approaches with these employees. We have developed a measure that managers might use to monitor thwarted impact levels in employee surveys, but periodic in-person check-ins and clear in-person communication are likely to also be important for detecting and addressing potential issues related to thwarted impact.

Another key implication of our research is that employees demand authenticity from organizations. If the organization makes or implies promises about ideology, then one priority for managers should be to design processes and policies in a way that aligns with those promises and the values expressed through them. This is not an easy task, given that mission statements and ideological obligations are often pursued with scarce resources, which means that leaders must make fundamental tradeoffs between quality and quantity. For example, physicians are seldom able to spend 30 minutes with patients; salespeople likewise often must allocate their attention across various clients; and customer support specialists are generally expected to propose a solution to customers as quickly as possible, when sometimes a slower and more methodical approach is necessary. Sometimes, the constraints placed on employees are legal in nature, and thus difficult to remove without placing the organization in a situation of significant risk. A key step for manager may be to assess which constraints are necessary and unnecessary, given that the former is likely to be more tolerable for employees than the latter (Kundro, Croitoru & Helgason, 2024). Clear communication from leadership about which constraints are necessary and why may be critical to weakening the demotivating effects of thwarted impact on the employees, similar to what scholars have found regarding informational justice in organizations (Ellis, Reus & Lamont, 2009; Kernan & Hanges, 2002).

Limitations, Strengths, and Future Research

Our research focused on a field survey approach and thus does not provide strong causal inferences; however, the one-year time lag for turnover does support one aspect of causality—namely, temporal precedence. We also included more brief time lags between survey waves that help to address common method variance concerns related to mood or recency effects. Future research might focus on how interventions influence thwarted impact. Our exploratory analysis suggests that interventions focused on rules and procedures may make the biggest difference. Such an intervention could simply make it easier for employees to serve beneficiaries. However, another potential intervention might focus on simply explaining or justifying current policy so that employees understand the costs or risks involved. Perhaps some of the negative effects of thwarted impact might be attenuated when there is clearer explanation of the issue by management, something likely to be contingent on whether the barriers are truly necessary. In our current research, we do not address the possibility that some employees may perceive the ideological dimension of the psychological contract in an overidealized way. For example, an employee may perceive ideological promises from the organization in a way that would neglect budgetary constraints to an impossible degree. More generally, some employees may simply see a problem and expect a solution where no obvious solution can realistically currently be found. To better understand this issue, we encourage future research to examine thwarted impact beyond the perspective that treats the employee as a "victim," focusing on how leaders manage employee expectations in a way that maintains authentic, mission-driven work while allowing for realistic constraints. Finally, interventions focused on beneficiary contact have shown that introducing contact to those in jobs who tend to lack it can have a powerful motivating effect (Grant, 2012; Grant et al., 2007). However, our research also suggests that such interventions might also make employees more reactive to thwarted impact. Thus, future research might examine the possibility of beneficiary contact interventions exacerbating thwarted impact concerns.

In our supplemental data, we found that thwarted impact may affect ideological contract beliefs as much as relational contract beliefs, suggesting that the ideological dimension may not be the only explanation for thwarted impact effects. This raises the idea that thwarted impact may shape work behavior through more than just ideological concerns, but also those focused on whether the organization cares about its employees as individuals. For example, employees may simultaneously interpret thwarted impact as evidence that the organization lacks

concern both for its customers and clients, and also for its employees. Moreover, past research on psychological contracts has found that contract beliefs may influence more distal work attitudes like affective commitment to the organization (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson & Wayne, 2008). Future research should thus continue to examine the precise explanations for why thwarted impact undermines performance and retention.

Our sampling approach exhibits some strengths but also some limitations. For example, our approach yielded a relatively large sample. However, the study had a low response rate, which, although similar to other studies of university alumni, could have potentially skewed our results if the nonresponse was related to our study variables. In addition, our study includes an occupationally diverse sample, which suggests that our findings may generalize to many different industries and organizational contexts. However, it may be that our model applies more readily to the service industries than it does to manufacturing or other contexts. A future study might be better able to systematically examine how industry shapes the relationships in our model (e.g., education, government, or healthcare industries' greater coercive bureaucratic elements may moderate these relationships). Similarly, researchers might investigate whether a non- or a for-profit context makes a difference for the relationships in our model. On the one hand, employees in a nonprofit organization may have stronger ideological expectations and react more strongly to thwarted impact. On the other hand, nonprofits may also have more constraints that are deemed "necessary," which could attenuate thwarted impact effects (Kundro et al., 2024). Similarly, our research was situated in a Western context (Pitesa & Gelfand, 2023) and so the empirical findings may differ from organizations in other contexts. At least one study has found that the ideological dimension of psychological contracts shapes behavior in other contexts (Deng et al., 2023); and meta-analytic evidence suggests that prosocial motives have an even stronger effect on employees in collectivistic cultures (Liao, Su, Ptashnik & Nielsen, 2022). However, future research is needed to examine whether and how thwarted impact shapes behavior in such contexts.

We measured boosterism in our study from a third party (coworkers); however, coworker ratings of boosterism may be deficient if they lack the opportunity to view an employee's behavior outside of work. In our research, we prioritized this limitation over the potential for same source effects that would come with self-reports. However, future research might use domestic partner reports of boosterism to avoid both limitations (Nielsen & Gish, 2024). Future research might also examine outcomes beyond boosterism specifically, to include a broader set of OCB–O behaviors (Lee & Allen, 2002).

In our exploratory analysis of specific thwarted impact sources, we found that one of the significant predictors was one's supervisor, suggesting that a supervisor's behavior may be a common factor that leads to thwarted impact beliefs. As representatives of the organization, supervisors may often bear the brunt of the blame for thwarted impact. Recent research has examined how prosocial motives may lead some employees to maintain proactive behaviors even when their manager discourages such behavior (Lebel & Patil, 2018). Future research might examine whether thwarted impact leads to reactionary behaviors that target the supervisor, such as less helping, resistance, or social undermining (Tepper, Uhl-Bien, Kohut, Rogelberg, Lockhart & Ensley, 2006). Or perhaps in contrast, given that leaders are constrained by the same, shared bureaucratic structures, they may feel the pain of collective thwarted impact and use their unit-level resources to engage in unit-level reactionary behaviors (Carpenter et al., 2021).

This research has focused on attributions to the organization, but there may be other relevant factors that make employees feel like they are not having the impact they would like to have. For example, future research might examine how experiences with those outside the organization—such as beneficiaries or the general public—can generate thwarted impact perceptions (Patil & Lebel, 2019; Vough, Cardador, Bednar, Dane & Pratt, 2013). In addition, future research efforts might examine more closely how employees are affected by the inability to help their beneficiaries due to broader issues related to society, individual differences, or mortality. There is a vast literature on empathic distress ("compassion fatigue") that focuses on how workers can stave off burnout (Cavanagh et al., 2020). Future research might examine the trauma experienced by these workers and whether it can potentially be a source of growth (Maitlis, 2020; Melinte, Turliuc & Măirean, 2023).

Finally, our turnover data included people who had started their jobs at a wide variety of time points prior to our study. This characteristic (known as left-censoring) made our data somewhat ill suited for a hazard analysis that could speak not just to the likelihood of turnover after one year, but also to the question of how soon, or at what point, an employee would be likely to turnover, given their levels of thwarted impact. Future research might use hazard

analysis with a lower risk of bias instead sampling newcomer employees and examining the effects of thwarted impact on turnover.

CONCLUSION

Our research shows that, when employees see their organizations as limiting the prosocial impact one can have through work, it can have a detrimental effect on performance and ultimately their willingness to remain in the organization. In addition to sharpening our understanding of the role of prosociality in organizations, our research also indicates that managers have an important opportunity to improve motivation and retention in their organizations by addressing employees' concerns about organizational factors seen as thwarting their efforts to better benefit customers and clients.

REFERENCES

Adler, P. S., & Borys, B. 1996. Two types of bureaucracy: Enabling and coercive. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 41: 61–89.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. 1989. Social identity theory and the organization. ***Academy of Management Review***, 14: 20–39.

Ashforth, B. E., Schinoff, B. S., & Brickson, S. L. 2020. "My company is friendly," "mine's a rebel": Anthropomorphism and shifting organizational identity from "what" to "who." ***Academy of Management Review***, 45: 29–57.

Bal, P. M., & Vink, R. 2011. Ideological currency in psychological contracts: The role of team relationships in a reciprocity perspective. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 22: 2794–2817.

Batson, C. D., Sympson, S. C., Hindman, J. L., Decruz, P., Todd, R. M., Weeks, J. L., Jennings, G., & Burns, C. T. 1996. "I've been there, too": Effect on empathy of prior experience with a need. ***Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin***, 22: 474–482.

Bellé, N. 2013. Experimental evidence on the relationship between public service motivation and job performance. ***Public Administration Review***, 73: 143–153.

Bellé, N. 2014. Leading to make a difference: A field experiment on the performance effects of transformational leadership, perceived social impact, and public service motivation. ***Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory***, 24: 109–136.

Bernerth, J. B., & Aguinis, H. 2016. A critical review and best-practice recommendations for control variable usage. ***Personnel Psychology***, 69: 229–283.

Berry, C. M., Carpenter, N. C., & Barratt, C. L. 2012. Do other-reports of counterproductive work behavior provide an incremental contribution over self-reports? A meta-analytic comparison. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 97: 613–636.

Bingham, J. B. 2005. Multiple obligations: Distinguishing the dimensionality and confirming the role of ideology within the psychological contract framework. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University.

Blau, P. M. 1955. ***The dynamics of bureaucracy***. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Blau, P. M. 1964. ***Exchange and power in social life***. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Blustein, D. L., Lysova, E. I., & Duffy, R. D. 2023. Understanding decent work and meaningful work. ***Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior***, 10: 289–314.

Boğan, E., & Dedeoğlu, B. B. 2022. How and when perceived CSR effects interpersonal helping and loyal boosterism: A moderated mediation model. ***International Journal of Hospitality Management***, 102: 103154.

Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. 2016. The bright side of being prosocial at work, and the dark side, too: A review and agenda for research on other-oriented motives, behavior, and impact in organizations. ***Academy of Management Annals***, 10: 599–670.

Bolino, M. C., Henry, S. E., & Whitney, J. M. 2024. Management implications of the COVID-19 pandemic: A scoping review. ***Journal of Management***, 50: 412–447.

Carpenter, N. C., & Berry, C. M. 2017. Are counterproductive work behavior and withdrawal empirically distinct? A meta-analytic investigation. ***Journal of Management***, 43: 834–863.

Carpenter, N. C., Whitman, D. S., & Amrhein, R. 2021. Unit-level counterproductive work behavior (CWB): A conceptual review and quantitative summary. ***Journal of Management***, 47: 1498–1527.

Carton, A. M. 2018. "I'm not mopping the floors, I'm putting a man on the moon": How NASA leaders enhanced the meaningfulness of work by changing the meaning of work. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 63: 323–369.

Carver, C. S., Sinclair, S., & Johnson, S. L. 2010. Authentic and hubristic pride: Differential relations to aspects of goal regulation, affect, and self-control. ***Journal of Research in Personality***, 44: 698–703.

Cavanagh, N., Cockett, G., Heinrich, C., Doig, L., Fiest, K., Guichon, J. R., Page, S., Mitchell, I., & Doig, C. J. 2020. Compassion fatigue in healthcare providers: A systematic review and meta-analysis. ***Nursing Ethics***, 27: 639–665.

Cha, S. E., & Edmondson, A. C. 2006. When values backfire: Leadership, attribution, and disenchantment in a values-driven organization. ***Leadership Quarterly***, 17: 57–78.

Christov-Moore, L., Simpson, E. A., Coudé, G., Grigaityte, K., Iacoboni, M., & Ferrari, P. F. 2014. Empathy: Gender effects in brain and behavior. ***Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews***, 46: 604–627.

Clinton, M. E., & Guest, D. E. 2014. Psychological contract breach and voluntary turnover: Testing a multiple mediation model. ***Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology***, 87: 200–207.

Colquitt, J. A., Sabey, T. B., Rodell, J. B., & Hill, E. T. 2019. Content validation guidelines: Evaluation criteria for definitional correspondence and definitional distinctiveness. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 104: 1243–1265.

Cortina, J. M., Chen, G., & Dunlap, W. P. 2001. Testing interaction effects in LISREL: Examination and illustration of available procedures. ***Organizational Research Methods***, 4: 324–360.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. M., Pereira Costa, S., Doden, W., & Chang, C. 2019. Psychological contracts: Past, present, and future. ***Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior***, 6: 145–169.

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. 2017. Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. ***Academy of Management Annals***, 11: 479–516.

Deng, H., Coyle-Shapiro, J., Zhu, Y., & Wu, C. H. 2023. Serving the cause when my organization does not: A self-affirmation model of employees' compensatory responses to ideological contract breach. ***Personnel Psychology***, 76: 1161–1186.

Dhingra, N., Samo, A., Schaninger, B., & Schrimper, M. 2021. April 5: Help your employees find purpose—or watch them leave. McKinsey.

Dulac, T., Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., Henderson, D. J., & Wayne, S. J. 2008. Not all responses to breach are the same: The interconnection of social exchange and psychological contract processes in organizations. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 51: 1079–1098.

Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. E., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., & Steiger-Mueller, M. 2010. Leader–member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 95: 1085–1103.

Ellis, K. M., Reus, T. H., & Lamont, B. T. 2009. The effects of procedural and informational justice in the integration of related acquisitions. ***Strategic Management Journal***, 30: 137–161.

Finnegan, R. P. 2018. ***The power of stay interviews for engagement and retention*** (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management.

Gartenberg, C., Prat, A., & Serafeim, G. 2019. Corporate purpose and financial performance. ***Organization Science***, 30: 1–18.

Giauque, D., Ritz, A., Varone, F., & Anderfuhren-Biget, S. 2012. Resigned but satisfied: The negative impact of public service motivation and red tape on work satisfaction. ***Public Administration***, 90: 175–193.

Gleichgerrcht, E., & Decety, J. 2013. Empathy in clinical practice: How individual dispositions, gender, and experience moderate empathic concern, burnout, and emotional distress in physicians. ***PloS One***, 8: e61526.

Graham, J. W., & Organ, D. W. 1993. Commitment and the covenantal organization. ***Journal of Managerial Issues***, 5: 483–502.

Grant, A. M. 2007. Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. ***Academy of Management Review***, 32: 393–417.

Grant, A. M. 2008a. Designing jobs to do good: Dimensions and psychological consequences of prosocial job characteristics. ***Journal of Positive Psychology***, 3: 19–39.

Grant, A. M. 2008b. The significance of task significance: Job performance effects, relational mechanisms, and boundary conditions. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 93: 108–124.

Grant, A. M. 2012. Leading with meaning: Beneficiary contact, prosocial impact, and the performance effects of transformational leadership. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 55: 458–476.

Grant, A. M., Campbell, E. M., Chen, G., Cottone, K., Lapedis, D., & Lee, K. 2007. Impact and the art of motivation maintenance: The effects of contact with beneficiaries on persistence behavior. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 103: 53–67.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E., & Rosso, B. D. 2008. Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 51: 898–918.

Grant, A. M., & Hofmann, D. A. 2011. Outsourcing inspiration: The performance effects of ideological messages from leaders and beneficiaries. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 116: 173–187.

Grant, A. M., & Parker, S. K. 2009. 7 redesigning work design theories: The rise of relational and proactive perspectives. ***Academy of Management Annals***, 3: 317–375.

Grant, A. M., & Sonnentag, S. 2010. Doing good buffers against feeling bad: Prosocial impact compensates for negative task and self-evaluations. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 111: 13–22.

Griffin, R. W. 1983. Objective and social sources of information in task redesign: A field experiment. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 28: 184–200.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. 2007. A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in

uncertain and interdependent contexts. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 50: 327–347.

Harari, M. B., Reaves, A. C., & Viswesvaran, C. 2018. Creative and innovative performance: A meta-analysis of relationships with task, citizenship, and counterproductive job performance dimensions. In J. Ramos, N. Anderson, J. M. Peiró, & F. Zijlstra (Eds.), ***Creativity and Innovation in Organizations***: 19–35. New York: Routledge.

Hayes, A. F. 2015. An index and test of linear moderated mediation. ***Multivariate Behavioral Research***, 50: 1–22.

Hui, C., Lee, C., & Rousseau, D. M. 2004. Psychological contract and organizational citizenship behavior in China: Investigating generalizability and instrumentality. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 89: 311–321.

House, R. J. 1971. A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 16: 321–339.

Johns, G. 2001. In praise of context. ***Journal of Organizational Behavior***, 22: 31–42.

Kernan, M. C., & Hanges, P. J. 2002. Survivor reactions to reorganization: Antecedents and consequences of procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 87: 916–928.

Kim, S. S., Shin, D., Vough, H. C., Hewlin, P. F., & Vandenberghe, C. 2018. How do callings relate to job performance? The role of organizational commitment and ideological contract fulfillment. ***Human Relations***, 71: 1319–1347.

Klimecki, O. M., Leiberg, S., Ricard, M., & Singer, T. 2014. Differential pattern of functional brain plasticity after compassion and empathy training. ***Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience***, 9: 873–879.

Kozlowsky, M., Sagie, A., Krausz, M., & Singer, A. 1997. Correlates of employee lateness: Some theoretical consideration. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 82: 79–88.

Kundro, T. G., Croitoru, N., & Helgason, B. A. 2024. Moral or lawful? When legal constraints reverse the motivational benefits of moral considerations. ***Organization Science***, 35: 1849–1865.

Lebel, R. D., & Patil, S. V. 2018. Proactivity despite discouraging supervisors: The powerful role of prosocial motivation. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 103: 724–737.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. 2002. Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 87: 131–142.

LePine, M. A., Zhang, Y., Crawford, E. R., & Rich, B. L. 2016. Turning their pain to gain: Charismatic leader influence on follower stress appraisal and job performance. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 59: 1036–1059.

Liao, H., Su, R., Ptashnik, T., & Nielsen, J. 2022. Feeling good, doing good, and getting ahead: A meta-analytic investigation of the outcomes of prosocial motivation at work. ***Psychological Bulletin***, 148: 158–198.

Maitlis, S. 2020. Posttraumatic growth at work. ***Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior***, 7: 395–419.

Mathieu, J. E., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Salas, E. 1992. Influences of individual and situational characteristics on measures of training effectiveness. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 35: 828–847.

McCord, M. A., Joseph, D. L., Dhanani, L. Y., & Beus, J. M. 2018. A meta-analysis of sex and race differences in perceived workplace mistreatment. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 103: 137–163.

McGregor, D. 1960. ***The human side of enterprise***. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Melinte, B. M., Turliuc, M. N., & Măirean, C. 2023. Secondary traumatic stress and vicarious posttraumatic growth in healthcare professionals: A meta-analysis. ***Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice***, 30: 337–351.

Monteiro, P., & Adler, P. S. 2022. Bureaucracy for the 21st century: Clarifying and expanding our view of bureaucratic organization. ***Academy of Management Annals***, 16: 427–475.

Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. 2007. Finding workable levers over work motivation: Comparing job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. ***Administration & Society***, 39: 803–832.

Nielsen, J. D., & Colbert, A. E. 2022. It's not always sunny in relationally rich jobs: The influence of negative beneficiary contact. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 65: 1894–1922.

Nielsen, J. D., & Gish, J. J. 2024. When old and new selves collide: Identity conflict and entrepreneurial nostalgia among ex-entrepreneurs. ***Personnel Psychology***, 77: 165–195.

Park, H., Tangirala, S., Hussain, I., & Ekkirala, S. 2022. How and when managers reward employees' voice: The role of proactivity attributions. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 107: 2269–2284.

Patil, S. V., & Lebel, R. D. 2019. "I want to serve but the public does not understand": Prosocial motivation, image discrepancies, and proactivity in public safety. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 154: 34–48.

Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. 2006. Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 49: 327–340.

Pitesa, M., & Gelfand, M. J. 2023. Going beyond Western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) samples and problems in organizational research. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 174: 104212.

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. 1997. Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 82: 262–270.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. 2009. Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 94: 122–141.

Purvanova, R. K., Bono, J. E., & Dzieweczynski, J. 2006. Transformational leadership, job characteristics, and organizational citizenship performance. ***Human Performance***, 19: 1–22.

Robinson, S. L. 1996. Trust and breach of the psychological contract. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 41: 574–599.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. 1995. A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 38: 555–572.

Rousseau, D. M. 1989. Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. ***Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal***, 2: 121–139.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. 1978. A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 23: 224–253.

Shore, L. M., Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Cnop-Nielsen, A. 2025. Elevating health significance post-pandemic: Is the employee-organization relationship in a period of change? ***Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior***, 12: 269–294.

Singer, T., & Klimecki, O. M. 2014. Empathy and compassion. ***Current Biology***, 24: R875–R878.

Sonnentag, S., & Grant, A. M. 2012. Doing good at work feels good at home, but not right away: When and why perceived prosocial impact predicts positive affect. ***Personnel Psychology***, 65: 495–530.

Sonnentag, S., & Starzyk, A. 2015. Perceived prosocial impact, perceived situational constraints, and proactive work behavior: Looking at two distinct affective pathways. ***Journal of Organizational Behavior***, 36: 806–824.

Spector, P. E. 2006. Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? ***Organizational Research Methods***, 9: 221–232.

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. 2006. The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal? ***Journal of Vocational Behavior***, 68: 446–460.

Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. 1998. Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal conflict at work scale, organizational constraints scale, quantitative workload inventory, and physical symptoms inventory. ***Journal of Occupational Health Psychology***, 3: 356–367.

Steijn, B., & van der Voet, J. 2019. Relational job characteristics and job satisfaction of public sector employees: When prosocial motivation and red tape collide. ***Public Administration***, 97: 64–80.

Tepper, B. J., Uhl-Bien, M., Kohut, G. F., Rogelberg, S. G., Lockhart, D. E., & Ensley, M. D. 2006. Subordinates' resistance and managers' evaluations of subordinates' performance. ***Journal of Management***, 32: 185–209.

Thompson, J. A., & Bunderson, J. S. 2003. Violations of principle: Ideological currency in the psychological contract. ***Academy of Management Review***, 28: 571–586.

Tonidandel, S., & LeBreton, J. M. 2015. RWA web: A free, comprehensive, web-based, and user-friendly tool for relative weight analyses. ***Journal of Business and Psychology***, 30: 207–216.

Turnley, W. H., Bolino, M. C., Lester, S. W., & Bloodgood, J. M. 2003. The impact of psychological contract fulfillment on the performance of in-role and organizational citizenship behaviors. ***Journal of Management***, 29: 187–206.

van Loon, N. M. 2017. From red tape to which performance results? Exploring the relationship between red tape and various dimensions of performance in healthcare work units. ***Public Administration***, 95: 60–77.

Vough, H. C., Cardador, M. T., Bednar, J. S., Dane, E., & Pratt, M. G. 2013. What clients don't get about my profession: A model of perceived role-based image discrepancies. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 56: 1050–1080.

Yang, Y., Brans, I., & Vantilborgh, T. 2022. Going above and beyond for your beliefs: The effects of ideological psychological contract breach and fulfillment on prosocial rule breaking. ***Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal***, 34: 515–538.

Zhao, H. A. O., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B. C., & Bravo, J. 2007. The impact of psychological contract breach on work-related outcomes: A meta-analysis. ***Personnel Psychology***, 60: 647–680.

Jordan D. Nielsen (jniel@purdue.edu) is an associate professor in the Mitch Daniels School of Business at Purdue University. He received his PhD in organizational behavior and human resource management from the University of Iowa. His research examines meaning, purpose, and identity as sources of motivation and well-being in the workplace.

Kinshuk Sharma (kinshuk.sharma@unt.edu) is an assistant professor in the management area at the G. Brint Ryan College of Business, University of North Texas. He earned his PhD from the Krannert Graduate School of

Management, Purdue University. His research focuses on trust and its repair, social capital, and impact.

Daniel D. Goering (danielgoering@missouristate.edu) is an associate professor in the Department of Management at Missouri State University. He received his PhD in organizational behavior and human resource management from the University of Iowa. He has a passion for bridging research and practice; his research explores emerging challenges in the world of work.