

FINDING MEANING THROUGH VOLUNTEERING: WHY DO EMPLOYEES VOLUNTEER AND WHAT DOES IT MEAN FOR THEIR JOBS?

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Volunteering is prevalent and on the rise in the United States, but little research has examined the connection between individuals' volunteering and their jobs. In the absence of that research, it remains unclear whether employees volunteer to build on meaningful work experiences or to compensate for the lack of them. Similarly, it remains unclear whether volunteering is beneficial to jobs in some way or if it is a distraction, akin to moonlighting. In this research, several theoretical perspectives from the multiple domain literature—particularly, compensation, enhancement, and resource drain—were employed in two studies to examine the intersection between volunteering and work domains. Results suggested that volunteering was associated with both volunteer and job meaningfulness, and that the pull of meaningful volunteer work was even stronger when employees had less meaning in their jobs. The results further revealed benefits of volunteering for employers. Volunteering was related to job absorption but not job interference, and it was therefore associated with better job performance. Implications of these findings for future theorizing on volunteering are discussed.

Volunteering is prevalent and growing in the United States. At the start of his first term, President Barack Obama initiated the “United We Serve” campaign designed to encourage Americans to get involved by volunteering in their communities. By all accounts, that is exactly what has begun to happen. The most recent national survey estimated that 62.8 million Americans, or 26.3 percent of the population, donated their time or skills to a charitable or volunteer organization in 2010 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). In addition, reports suggest that the level of volunteering is on the rise (Brudney & Gazley, 2006). Despite these trends, a focus on other activities—such as regular employment and domestic work—has historically overshadowed the role of volunteering in social science research (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Recently, however, interest in the role of volunteering has ignited, particularly for organizational scholars (e.g., Booth, Won Park, & Glomb, 2009; Grant, 2012; Jones,

2010). Given the greater number of employees who are volunteering, understanding its implications for the workplace seem critical.

Drawing on prior conceptualizations, volunteering can be defined as *giving time or skills during a planned activity for a volunteer group or organization* (e.g., charitable groups, nonprofit groups.). This definition incorporates three key components of volunteering: (1) it is an active giving of time and/or skills rather than more passive support through monetary donations (Wilson, 2000), (2) it is a planned (proactive) activity as opposed to a spontaneous (reactive) act of helping (Clary & Snyder, 1999), and (3) it occurs in the context of a volunteer or charitable organization (Musick & Wilson, 2008; Penner, 2002). Like other volitional activities, volunteering can be conceptualized according to its direction and intensity of effort (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Mitchell & Daniels, 2003). In this sense, direction represents an initial decision to volunteer (as opposed to engaging in some other activity), and intensity represents the extent or level of volunteering effort. In accordance with most of the existing volunteering research, the focus of this article is on volunteering intensity. It is also worth noting that this definition of volunteering adopts a behavioral perspective (Musick & Wilson, 2008; Wilson, 2000). Although some prior def-

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initions of volunteering have included other aspects, such as “benefiting others” and “longevity,” those aspects tap into motives for and commitment to volunteering. In a behavioral view of volunteering, they are relegated to either antecedents or consequences.

Adopting a multiple domain perspective, one can conceptualize volunteering as a distinct domain in life, where “domain” refers to a specific sphere or area of activity. Traditionally, research on multiple domains has largely focused on explaining the relationship between the work and family domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Westring & Ryan, 2010). In particular, multiple domain scholars have examined whether these domains represent a source of conflict or enrichment for one another (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Volunteering is a sphere of activity that is becoming increasingly salient for individuals, who identify with it and distinguish it from other activities in their lives (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002).

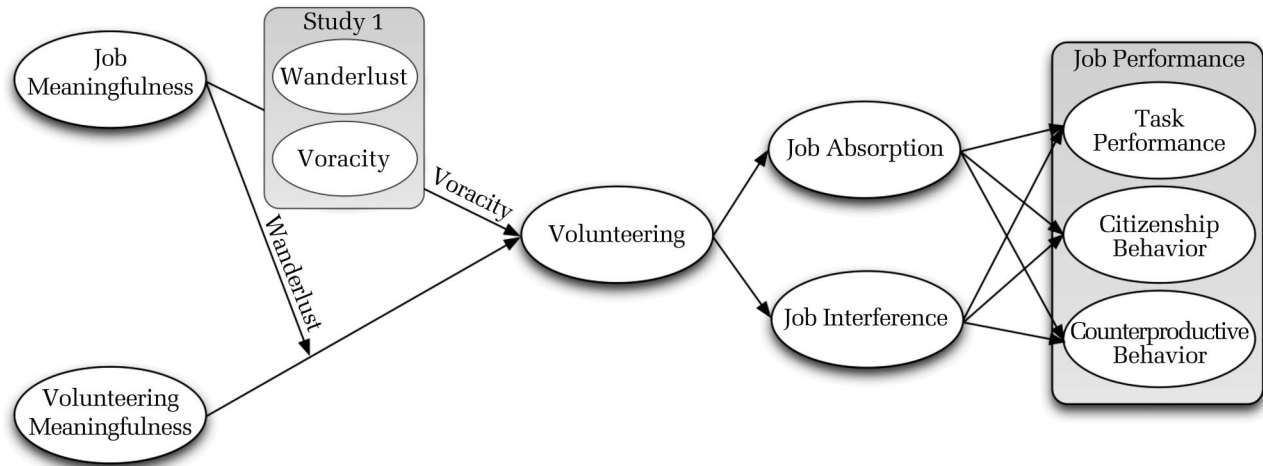
Despite increasing interest in the topic of volunteering for organizational scholars, the nature of the relationship between volunteering and the workplace remains unclear. Adopting the multiple domain perspective facilitates an examination of the volunteer and work domains. As noted above, that literature advises that understanding the relationship between two domains involves an exploration of mutual influence—both how an individual’s workplace influences volunteering and how volunteering in turn influences his/her workplace. In regard to the former, one of the most commonly cited reasons for volunteering is the sense of meaningfulness derived from the activity (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Geroy, Wright, & Jacoby, 2000; Trunk, 2007). That is, people look to volunteering in order to fulfill a desire for significance and value in their lives (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995). This ability to find meaning in volunteering echoes the idea that a job can be a source of meaning (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). Further, the sense of meaningfulness that can be derived from these activities is a form of intrinsic motivation that guides subsequent behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Spreitzer, 1995). The question therefore becomes, How is volunteering shaped by the degree to which volunteers see their jobs as meaningful? There is conflicting speculation on this relationship in the volun-

teering literature. The more traditional view suggests that employees volunteer in search of more of the intrinsic value they find in their jobs (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997), whereas a more contemporary view suggests that employees may consider volunteering as a chance to make up for what is lacking in their jobs (e.g., Grant, 2012).

In regard to the ultimate impact of volunteering on workplaces, little is known about the performance implications for employees who volunteer. In particular, is volunteering beneficial to jobs in some way, or is it more akin to employee moonlighting and thus a distraction that harms job performance? A few recent studies have demonstrated that volunteering is positively associated with certain workplace attitudes, such as organizational identification (Bartel, 2001) and commitment (Jones, 2010). However, the job performance implications of volunteering remain unclear. There is little empirical evidence concerning this relationship (for an exception, see Jones [2010] in regard to citizenship behavior), and the possibility of negative implications has not yet been considered.

The purpose of this article is to examine the intersection of the volunteer and work domains, focusing on the potential mutual influences outlined above. To do so, it employs various theoretical perspectives from the multiple domain literature, including enhancement, compensation, and resource drain (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Champoux, 1978; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974), over the course of two field studies. Study 1 focuses on the nature of the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering. By operationalizing the mechanisms of the compensation lens (as “wanderlust”) and the enhancement lens (as “voracity”), this study captures conflicting speculations about the job meaningfulness–volunteering relationship. Study 2 builds on Study 1 by incorporating the meaningfulness of volunteering, which allows the compensation mechanism to be reinterpreted as an interactive effect to explain the job meaningfulness–volunteering relationship. In addition, Study 2 examines the implications of volunteering for job performance. The potential for mixed effects on job performance is explored by contrasting the enhancement lens (as “job absorption”) with the resource drain lens (as “job interference”). Figure 1 depicts an overall conceptual model, showing how Study 1’s conceptualization of compensation and enhancement relates to Study 2.

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Figure: Integration of Study 1 into Study 2



This work offers theoretical contributions to both the volunteering and multiple domain literatures. In regard to volunteering, I respond to the call for organizational scholars to join the conversation on volunteering started by practitioners (Grant, 2012). Indeed, these studies represent one of the first empirical attempts to explore the relationship between employees' volunteering and their work domain (see also Booth et al., 2009; Jones, 2010) and build on existing knowledge in two ways. First, in terms of the motivation to volunteer, this article shifts the conversation away from volunteers (e.g., demographic characteristics) and volunteer organizations (e.g., reputation) as predictors of volunteering and toward the role of the volunteers' workplace. As Wilson (2000) pointed out in a review of the volunteering literature, although such characteristics are useful predictors of volunteering, more examination is needed of other contextual factors, such as the work domain. Second, this article is the first to examine the potential that volunteering has mixed performance implications. Given that more than half of volunteers are also employed (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011), a clearer understanding of the potential benefit or harm of employee volunteering should help companies decide how to react to this growing trend. Furthermore, by pulling relevant theoretical perspectives about multiple domains into the volunteering literature, this research brings theory to a literature that has been criticized for its shortage of solid conceptual foundations (Tschirhart, 2005).

In regard to the multiple domain literature, this article helps to clarify and build its theoretical per-

spectives. Despite this literature's theoretical richness, these perspectives have been criticized for being too abstract and difficult to translate into testable constructs (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1980). Indeed, Rice et al. went so far as to describe the various perspectives as "pretheoretical metaphors" (1980: 61) rather than theoretical lenses. By operationalizing the mechanisms underlying these perspectives and considering these perspectives in combination, this research pioneers the road to more rigorous examination of that theorizing. Moreover, by focusing on volunteering as a domain, this article extends the scope of the multiple domain perspective, which has recently been criticized for limiting itself primarily to job and family issues (e.g., Westring & Ryan, 2010). Finally, by modeling the potential for beneficial and detrimental effects of volunteering on job performance, this research contributes to the debate about the relative synergies and conflicts of multiple domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

STUDY 1: THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

The multiple domain literature evokes various mechanisms that connect different domains in life (for a review, see Edwards and Rothbard [2000]). At a broad level, the majority of this research compares and contrasts the ability of multiple domains to benefit or harm one another. The potential for benefit between domains has been explored through mechanisms such as enrichment and spillover (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The potential for harm between domains has been explored through

mechanisms such as resource drain and conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Outside of this contrast, researchers have introduced the complementary ideas that people may intentionally separate domains (segmentation), that relationships between domains may come from some other common cause (congruence), and that people can purposefully seek to offset experiences in one domain with another (compensation). At the root of these mechanisms is the idea that various types of resources—material, psychological, social, and so forth—from one domain are capable of influencing another. The specific form of this influence (i.e., the mechanism) depends largely on the research question.

Study 1 focuses on the link between employees' sense of meaningfulness in their jobs and volunteering. Do employees volunteer (a) to make up for a lack of meaningfulness in their jobs or (b) because meaningfulness in their jobs has whetted their appetite for volunteering? Both options are plausible and, as the sections below will describe, correspond theoretically with the compensation and enhancement perspectives, respectively. Yet they offer starkly different pictures of the motives for volunteering and point to very different practical implications.

Does Volunteering Compensate for a Lack of Meaningfulness at Work?

Compensation refers to individuals' increased involvement in one life domain to make up for what they see as lacking in another (Champoux, 1978; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984; Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). When individuals are fulfilled in a certain way in one domain—for example, their workplace—they are less likely to desire experiences in another domain to fulfill that purpose. Vice versa, when individuals' desires are not fulfilled in one domain, they are likely to seek opportunities in another domain to fulfill those desires and enhance satisfaction. In the current context, this approach suggests a negative relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

The underlying notion of this perspective—that something is missing in an individual's job—can be captured through the concept of *wanderlust*. The term originates from the German words *Wandern* (to hike) and *Lust* (to desire). In the broadest sense, wanderlust reflects individuals' desires to wander, travel, or experience new things (according to the 2007

American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language). The implied core of this definition is a sense of discontentment or restlessness with a current situation that sparks the desire to wander elsewhere. Although not referenced directly, the concept of wanderlust has been evoked for decades in research on extramarital relationships. According to that literature, people often claim that infidelity is a reaction to dissatisfaction or unmet desires in their marriages (e.g., Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Roscoe, Cavanaugh, & Kennedy, 1988). Applied to the present context, employees looking beyond the workplace to fulfill some unmet desire can also be described as experiencing wanderlust.

Theorizing taking a compensation lens highlights the possibility that employees may respond to a sense of wanderlust by turning from their jobs to alternative activities such as volunteering (Grant, 2012; Kando & Summers, 1971). In a set of interviews with employed volunteers, Geroy and colleagues reported a participant stating that volunteering provides “good feelings that you don't always get in the workplace” (2000: 284). Similarly, Gora and Nemerowicz (1985) uncovered qualitative data that hint at the role of wanderlust during a series of interviews with emergency squad volunteers. Wilson later reflected on those volunteers' comments, noting that “some volunteers are quite explicit about seeking compensation for deprivations they experience in their paid employment” (2000: 222).

This compensation effect may be particularly true in regard to the desire for meaningfulness. Meaningfulness is not only a primary driver of volunteering behavior (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000), but also a fundamental desire in life (Heine, Proulx, & Vohs, 2006; Vallerand, 1997). Applied to meaningfulness, the compensation lens suggests that when individuals' jobs are meaningful, this core desire is satisfied (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987), and they are not likely to experience wanderlust. Vice versa, when their jobs are not meaningful, individuals are more likely to experience wanderlust. As a result, they volunteer—an activity commonly perceived as meaningful (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000)—to compensate for that perceived deprivation. In support of this perspective, Van Tongeren and Green (2010) conducted a series of laboratory studies that demonstrated that individuals primed with a sense of meaninglessness turned to alternative sources to find it.

Hypothesis 1. Job meaningfulness has a negative indirect effect on volunteering through wanderlust.

Does Meaningfulness Gained at Work Enhance Volunteering?

Enhancement conveys that experiences generated in one domain positively influence individuals' attitudes and behaviors in another domain (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984; Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). Blum elaborated on this effect, stating that it occurs because "attitudes acquired during work become so deeply ingrained that they are often carried into the life off the job" (1953: 101). This perspective has also been referred to as "spillover" (e.g., Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984) because the transfer of attitudes from one domain to another can be visualized as spilling over. However, in its basic form, spillover can refer to the transfer of either beneficial or harmful influences (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). I use the term "enhancement" because it more aptly conveys the expected beneficial transfer between domains. Applied to the current context, this approach suggests a positive relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

The mechanism underlying this effect—that a desire for something can become so deeply ingrained that people crave more of it—can be captured through the concept of *voracity*. At its core, the term refers to appetite, describing a state in which people crave great quantities of food (per 2007 *American Heritage*). Over time, use of the term has expanded to describe eagerness or hunger for anything in life. Evidence of voracity can be found in research on substance abuse, which demonstrates a more extreme and darker side of the construct in relation to drugs and alcohol. Nevertheless, people with substance abuse issues experience an intense desire or craving that is reminiscent of voracity and propels them to seek more of it (Field, Munafò, & Franken, 2009; Leeman, Corbin, & Froome, 2009). Similarly, individuals who crave some aspect of their job so much that they pursue it outside of the workplace can also be described as experiencing voracity.

Traditionally, sociologists have indirectly touted the role of voracity—through the enhancement perspective—in regard to volunteering (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997; see also Wilson, 2000). In this stream of work, employees' jobs are

considered a resource that fosters psychological factors that can be transferred to volunteering. Indeed, Wilson and Musick stated that individuals' jobs can "set the conditions that make volunteer work feasible, by cultivating resources and psychological predispositions that induce people to reach out into the community and give their time" (1997: 252). These authors speculate that individuals' jobs provide them with intrinsic rewards that trigger a desire for more of those types of activities (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; see also Wilson, 2000). That is, people who get something positive out of their job experiences are more likely to seek similar activities, such as volunteering, that can provide the same sort of positive experiences.

As with wanderlust, this process may be particularly relevant to meaningfulness. Speculations in the volunteering literature suggest that people with meaningful job experiences may carry a desire for such experiences outside of their workplaces, which may lead them to volunteering activities in particular (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Indeed, Herzog and Morgan (1993) suggested that individuals who gain intrinsic value from their jobs, such as a sense of meaningfulness, build an attachment to those types of experiences that translates into volunteering. More specifically, people enjoy feeling like their jobs are significant and valuable (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995), and this experience fosters the desire to engage in other activities that similarly provide that sense of significance.

Hypothesis 2. Job meaningfulness has a positive indirect effect on volunteering through voracity.

STUDY 1: METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants were employed students recruited from introductory business courses in universities in the US Southeast. They were asked to complete two surveys that were separated by approximately four weeks. This form of temporal separation is one of two common procedural remedies used to combat common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). As noted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), the practice of temporal separation can remove several sources of common method variance by reducing biases in participants' retrieval and reporting of responses. In the first survey, partici-

pants were asked to rate the level of meaningfulness in their jobs, as well as specific personality characteristics (e.g., “prosocial identity”) and demographic information (e.g., age and tenure). In the follow-up survey, they were asked to assess their job-related reasons for volunteering—wanderlust and voracity—as well as their level of volunteering.

Two hundred thirty-two individuals registered for the study and indicated that they had volunteered within the past year. Of those individuals, 208 completed the second survey, resulting in a response rate of 89.7 percent. Fifty-four percent of the participants were female and, on average, participants were 25 years old (s.d. = 7.31). They worked an average of 31.6 hours a week (s.d. = 12.96) and volunteered an average of 2.84 hours per week (s.d. = 3.69).

Measures

Volunteering. To date, volunteering has typically been measured with either the self-reported number of hours volunteered or the sole existing volunteering scale in the literature (Gillath, Shaver, Mikulincer, Nitzberg, Erez, & Van Ijzendoorn, 2005), neither of which sufficiently captures the intensity of volunteering. Relying on a self-reported number of hours to measure volunteering has problems that center around the overall coarseness of that measure. The raw amount of time invested in volunteering does not equate with the intensity of effort in that time. Some volunteers may stay on a site for many hours but only put in minimal exertion, while others may show up for shorter sessions and work diligently the entire time. On top of that, volunteers may have trouble retrospectively recalling the number of hours they volunteered with accuracy (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, even if volunteers could recall perfectly and volunteered with the same level of intensity, number of hours is still a one-item measure, and assessment of reliability is not possible owing to the absence of measurement repetition (see Hinkin, 1995). For these and other reasons, other literatures that measure intensity have moved away from the number of hours toward scale-based measures (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Brown & Leigh, 1996; Lee & Allen, 2002). That said, the only existing volunteering scale might also be problematic (Gillath et al., 2005). It is not only rather long (26 items), but also focuses on specific activities that may not be relevant to all respondents or that may or may not fit the definition of volunteering (e.g., “research project without credit,” “pro bono professional activities,”

and “unpaid internship”). Moreover, its specific nature may not adequately capture respondents who engage in volunteering in other ways.

As a result, I developed a volunteering scale following Hinkin and Tracey’s (1999) suggestions for measure creation and validation (see also Hinkin, 1998). First, 12 volunteering items were created to reflect the definition of volunteering provided above: “giving time or skills during a planned activity for a volunteer group or organization (e.g., charitable groups, nonprofit groups, etc.)” Next, an independent sample of undergraduate students ($n = 782$) was recruited from a large southeastern university to quantitatively assess the content validity of those items. Those students received an online survey that provided the volunteering definition, followed by the 12 volunteering items. They were asked to rate the extent to which they believed each item corresponded with the definition provided (1 = “the item is a very poor match to the concept defined above” to 5 = “the item is a very good match to the concept defined above”). Hinkin and Tracey (1999) suggested that researchers rely on those ratings to make determinations about item inclusion. All items with ratings above the mean were included in the final measure. This resulted in the following five-item volunteering scale: “I give my time to help a volunteer group,” “I apply my skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group,” “I devote my energy toward a volunteer group,” “I engage in activities to support a volunteer group,” and “I employ my talent to aid a volunteer group.”

After the scale had been narrowed to the most content-valid items, a second study was conducted to examine its factor structure and convergent validity. An independent sample of 81 working undergraduate students from an introductory management course was recruited for this endeavor. Fifty-five percent of the participants were female and, on average, participants were 22.3 years old (s.d. = 4.2) and worked 31 hours a week (s.d. = 9.3). The mean volunteering score was 2.51 (s.d. = 1.09). A confirmatory factor analysis of the volunteering items demonstrated good fit ($\chi^2 = 17.26$, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, SRMR = .01), supporting the scale’s unidimensionality.

To assess convergent validity, I asked participants to complete two other measures of volunteering: Gillath et al.’s (2005) measure of specific volunteer activity frequency and an ad hoc one-item direct measure of volunteer hours (“Approximately how many hours did you devote to volunteer activities in the past 12 months?”). The scale measure of volunteering was positively and strongly correlated

with both alternative measures of volunteering ($r = .64$ in both cases). All together, these results provide initial evidence of the construct validity of the developed volunteering measure. When the scale measure was administered to the sample of employed students in Study 1, the response scale ranged from 1, "almost never," to 5, "very often." The coefficient alpha was .96.

Wanderlust and voracity. Measures of wanderlust and voracity were also created for this study following Hinkin's (1998) procedures for measurement validation. I generated items using the definitions of the constructs provided above: wanderlust is defined as volunteering because it provides something that is missing in a job, and voracity is defined as volunteering because it provides something that people have and value in their job. All items began with the tag line, "I volunteer to . . ." Following this tag line, the wanderlust items were "discover something that was missing from my job," "compensate for a lack of something in my job," "make up for something that I don't get in my job," "expose myself to something that isn't a part of my job," and "find something that is absent in my job." Similarly, following the tag line, the voracity items were "get more of what I like out of my job," "enhance what I appreciate about my job," "gain more of what I value in my job," "acquire more of what I enjoy about my job," and "obtain more of what I find pleasurable about my job."

Following Hinkin and Tracey's (1999) content validation recommendations, a separate sample of 593 undergraduate students from a large southeastern university was recruited to quantitatively evaluate the content validity of those items. Participants were asked to evaluate the extent to which the items reflected the definition of the constructs provided (1 = "the item is a very poor match to the concept above," to 5 = "the item is a very good match to the concept above"). All five items for wanderlust and voracity exhibited a good match to the concept as defined (average ratings greater than 4.0), and were thus retained in the final measure. An additional sample, consisting of 80 working undergraduate students from the same southeastern university, was again recruited to examine the factor structure of the wanderlust and voracity scales. A confirmatory factor analysis of wanderlust and voracity as two separate factors demonstrated good fit ($\chi^2[34] = 76.94$, CFI = .95, IFI = .95, SRMR = .04) and fit significantly better than a model with wanderlust and voracity loading on one factor ($\chi^2[35] = 554.27$, CFI = .63, IFI = .63,

SRMR = .27). Taken together, these results support the content validity, factor structure, and internal consistency of the wanderlust and voracity scales, providing some evidence of their construct validity. When these scales were administered to the sample of employed students in Study 1, the response scale was 1, "strongly disagree," to 5, "strongly agree." The coefficient alphas were .93 and .97, wanderlust and voracity respectively.

Job meaningfulness. Participants were asked to evaluate the meaningfulness of their job using Spreitzer's (1995) three-item measure. Sample items include "The work I do is meaningful to me" and "The work I do is very important to me" (1, "strongly disagree," to 5, "strongly agree"; $\alpha = .93$).

Control variables. Several control variables were included as correlates of volunteering, given their prevalence in prior volunteering research (e.g., Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2002). In particular, this included prosocial identity, age, and gender. Prosocial identity was measured with a three-item scale ($\alpha = .74$) by Grant, Dutton, and Rosso (2008). Sample items include "I see myself as caring" and "I see myself as generous." Considering the workplace context of this study, one might be tempted to also include citizenship behaviors, given some of their overlap in content with volunteering (e.g., discretionary and other-focused). However, there are key distinctions between the two concepts—namely, citizenship behaviors are directed internally and benefit an employee's company (Organ, 1988), while volunteering is directed externally, toward some volunteer entity, and it is unclear whether it benefits the employee's company.

STUDY 1: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations are shown in Table 1. The hypotheses were tested with structural equation modeling in LISREL version 8.80. The measurement model provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2[211] = 368.47$, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, RMSEA = .06), as did the latent structural model ($\chi^2[218] = 456.02$, CFI = .96, IFI = .96, RMSEA = .07). The path coefficients are presented in Table 2. In regard to the controls, prosocial identity was significantly related to volunteering, but age and gender were not.

Hypothesis 1 predicts that job meaningfulness will have a negative indirect relationship with volunteering through wanderlust. I tested the indirect effect with the application RMediation (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011), a method of testing mediation

TABLE 1
Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations^a

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Job meaningfulness	3.49	0.92	.93					
2. Wanderlust	2.68	0.91	-.09	.93				
3. Voracity	2.69	0.93	.17*	.49*	.97			
4. Volunteering	3.10	0.86	.23*	.26*	.31*	.96		
5. Prosocial identity	4.04	0.55	.18*	.08	.08	.34*	.74	
6. Age	24.54	7.03	.17*	-.20	-.29*	-.03	.04	
7. Gender	1.45	0.50	.11	.04	-.01	.02	.18*	.06

^a $n = 208$. Coefficient alphas are on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$

that has been shown to have more accurate type I error rates and be more powerful than traditional tests such as the Sobel test (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). The indirect effect—calculated by multiplying the path coefficient from job meaningfulness to wanderlust ($b = -.10$) by the path coefficient from wanderlust to volunteering ($b = .17$)—was not significant when submitted to the RMediation test. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. This finding goes against the more contemporary view that employees attempt to compensate for lower levels of job meaningfulness by increasing volunteering.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that job meaningfulness will have a positive indirect relationship with volunteering through voracity. The indirect effect (.03)—calculated by multiplying the path coefficient from job meaningfulness to voracity ($b = .19$) by the path coefficient from voracity to volunteering ($b = .17$)—was significant when submitted to the RMediation test (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported. This result provides support for the enhancement perspective,

wherein meaningfulness experienced in a job creates a form of hunger or voracity for more meaningful experiences, and that this hunger ultimately translates into more intense volunteer activity. This pattern confirms some of the initial thinking of researchers in regard to the impact that work factors may have on volunteer behavior (e.g., Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997).

That stated, Study 1 has some limitations. Perhaps most importantly, this study did not account for the perceived meaningfulness of a given volunteer task itself. It is quite possible, following theoretical perspectives such as job design and empowerment (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Spreitzer, 1995), that the meaningfulness of volunteer tasks also influences volunteering. In fact, recent speculation about volunteering as a means of compensation for work has suggested that it depends on whether the volunteer activity provides what is perceived as lacking (Grant, 2012). Furthermore, the multiple domain literature highlights that domains have mutual influences on one another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Although this study provided evidence of one manner in which the work domain impacts the volunteer domain, it did not examine the possible impact of volunteering on the work domain. Study 2 was conducted to address these limitations.

TABLE 2
Study 1: Structural Equation Results^a

Independent Variable	Wanderlust	Voracity	Volunteering
Job meaningfulness	-.10	.19*	.16*
Wanderlust			.17*
Voracity			.19*
Prosocial identity			.34*
Age			.02*
Gender			-.06*
R^2	.01	.04*	.23*

^a $n = 208$.

* $p < .05$

STUDY 2: THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Study 2 builds on Study 1's finding that job meaningfulness is positively related to employee volunteering in two distinct ways. First, Study 2 examines the role of volunteering meaningfulness in the job meaningfulness–volunteering relationship, which allows for an alternative conceptualization of the enhancement and compensation perspectives. Instead

of being operationalized directly—as wanderlust and voracity—as in Study 1, these perspectives are treated in Study 2 as combinations of job and volunteer meaningfulness. In particular, the enhancement perspective can be examined as the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering, with volunteering meaningfulness controlled for. This addition addresses the assumption inherent in Study 1 that employees deem volunteer experiences to be meaningful. As a result, Study 2 represents a more rigorous test of the enhancement perspective. Incorporating volunteering meaningfulness also allows for an alternative approach to testing the compensation perspective, by addressing the interactive nature of job and volunteering meaningfulness that is implied in some of that theorizing (Grant, 2012; Heine et al., 2006).

Second, Study 2 examines the work domain implications of employee volunteering. This expansion addresses the multiple domain literature's recognition of the mutual influences of activities in different domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). That is, in addition to work influencing volunteering, volunteering should influence work. Indeed, theorizing on multiple domains provides the foundational idea that volunteering can simultaneously detract from and enrich on-the-job attitudes and behaviors (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In particular, the resource drain and enhancement perspectives set up the potential for mixed effects of volunteering on job performance. The sections below first examine the role of volunteering meaningfulness, alongside job meaningfulness, for employee volunteering before turning to the performance implications of volunteering.

Why Do Employees Volunteer?

As suggested by traditional volunteering researchers and as demonstrated in Study 1, certain psychological resources, such as a sense of meaningfulness, may accumulate from the work domain and motivate employees' volunteering. The basis of this theorizing is the notion of voracity—that employees' exposure to meaningfulness at work becomes so ingrained in their being that it leaves them craving meaningful experiences outside of work as well (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984). Inherent in this theorizing, then, is the assumption that volunteering is considered a meaningful experience. Anecdotal evidence suggests this is a reasonable assumption. Indeed, as noted at the outset, a desire for meaningful experiences is one of the most highly cited reasons for

volunteering, particularly among working individuals (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Prouteau & Wolff, 2008; Trunk, 2007). This assumption is also consistent with several propositions from work domain research that people engage in activities that provide meaning to their lives (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Heine et al., 2006; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). However, this relationship has not yet been tested, nor has volunteering meaningfulness been examined in conjunction with job meaningfulness. Given the enhancement perspective, according to which exposure to meaningfulness at work will create a desire for meaningful activities such as volunteering, both job meaningfulness and volunteering meaningfulness should positively relate to volunteering when considered simultaneously.

Hypothesis 3. Volunteering meaningfulness is positively related to volunteering when job meaningfulness is controlled.

Hypothesis 4. Job meaningfulness is positively related to volunteering when volunteering meaningfulness is controlled.

Departing from the more traditional conceptualization of compensation that was used in Study 1 (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), recent speculation about how this perspective applies to the volunteering-work intersection has adopted an interaction approach (Grant, 2012). Interpreted in this light, the compensation argument is that discontent in one domain of life prompts individuals to increase involvement in other domains of life to the extent that this pursuit has the potential to compensate for those feelings of discontent (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Champoux, 1978). This explanation also implies that individuals who are fulfilled by their current activities have less incentive to increase involvement in another activity, even if it offers the desired characteristics for fulfillment (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Recent theorizing on this perspective has been applied specifically to the topic of meaningfulness (Grant, 2012; Heine et al., 2006). On the one hand, when jobs are assessed as meaningful, employees' internal desire for meaningful experiences is fulfilled, and their search for alternative meaningful experiences less intense. As a result, the meaningfulness in volunteering should become less impactful. On the other hand, when job meaningfulness is low, employees' desire for such experiences is not fulfilled. In this case, the compensation argument

is that these individuals are likely to increase involvement in activities—such as volunteering—that provide the opportunity for any missing feelings of meaningfulness. Because the search for meaningfulness is more intense in this scenario, meaningfulness in volunteering should become more impactful.

Hypothesis 5. The relationship between volunteering meaningfulness and volunteering is moderated by job meaningfulness: The relationship is more positive when job meaningfulness is low than when job meaningfulness is high.

What Are the Consequences of Employee Volunteering?

Despite recent interest in the impact of employee volunteering on the work domain (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Booth et al., 2009; Jones, 2010), the job performance implications of volunteering remain unclear. As noted at the outset, the direction of the effect of volunteering on job performance is debatable—some may be tempted to classify volunteering as a distraction that could harm performance, while others may be inclined to classify it as a beneficial activity that challenges employees to focus their attention on each task at hand and be more effective on the job. With this debate in mind, I extended Study 1 by asking in Study 2: How does volunteering impact employee on-the-job behavior?

Traditionally, multiple domain research has focused on the negative implications of activities in multiple domains. Although this perspective has taken many names—depletion, resource drain, conflict, and more (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Rothbard, 2001)—the underlying mechanism in each perspective is a strain on individual resources (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Essentially, activity in one domain inevitably drains resources from others, creating conflict between the domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Under this perspective, psychological resources are assumed to be finite (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Devoting more of these resources to one activity leaves fewer resources available for another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Applied to the current context, this perspective suggests that volunteering consumes some of employees' finite resources, creating tension between domains.

The potential drain of volunteering on employees' work lives can be conceptualized as job interference, which, in the work-family literature, is interference by volunteering with an employee's ability to do his/her job (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Although there is no research to date on volunteering as a source of job interference specifically, indirect evidence can be gleaned from studies that focus on family as a source of interference and, more generally, from research on role conflict. In general, that research suggests that individuals with more interference from multiple roles—and thus fewer resources—are more likely to suffer in terms of job performance. Job performance is considered to have three related facets: task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior. An increase in job interference may be detrimental in terms of all three facets. Task performance reflects in-role behaviors focused on accomplishing a job's core tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Employees who face more job interference are left with fewer psychological resources to devote to the responsibilities of their job. For example, Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) reported that employees who grappled with family interfering with work had lower sales figures.

In comparison to task performance, citizenship and counterproductive behaviors are considered more discretionary behaviors; citizenship behaviors are positive discretionary actions that contribute to a company's functioning (Organ, 1988), and counterproductive behaviors are negative discretionary actions that ultimately harm the company (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Although these discretionary behaviors can be directed toward an organization or coworkers within the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991), this research is more concerned with employee acts that directly impact an organization. Individuals with more interference from multiple roles are less likely to engage in discretionary behaviors that help their company and are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviors that ultimately harm it (Chen & Spector, 1992; Haun, Steinmetz, & Dormann, 2001). For example, managing demands from multiple roles has been shown to deter people from voicing their opinions to better their organization and from being "team players" (Haun et al., 2001). Such conflict can also foster negative reactions, such as frustration, that manifest as counterproductive behaviors such as sabotage, aggression, and theft (e.g., Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999). Integrating

this logic with the theorizing above suggests that volunteering has a detrimental indirect effect on job performance.

Hypothesis 6. Volunteering has a negative indirect relationship with job performance—that is, a negative indirect effect on task performance and citizenship behavior, and a positive indirect effect on counterproductive behavior—through job interference.

Despite the negative consequences hinted at by interference arguments, there are also reasons to expect volunteering to have beneficial effects on job performance (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). The enhancement perspective was previously provided as justification for the view that job meaningfulness may enhance volunteering. As noted in Study 1, according to the enhancement perspective, psychological resources accumulate from experiences in one domain and expand to others (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974), resulting in positive influences from one domain to another. The same logic applies to volunteering experiences enhancing job performance. In Study 1, which examined the work domain implications of volunteering, the most relevant resource was meaningfulness (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Trunk, 2007). In regard to the performance implications of volunteering for the work domain, one of the most relevant resources is attention and energy. For example, Sonnentag (2003) hypothesized that nonwork leisure activities act as a form of recovery that provides employees psychological resources so that they can be more engaged and productive at work. Of particular relevance, she found that the “charging” nature of leisure activities allowed employees to better concentrate on their jobs while at work.

This state of concentration or focus on work activities is referred to as “job absorption” (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Kahn’s (1990) initial theorizing on job absorption echoes the statement noted above, that activities outside of work, such as volunteering, can “charge” employees, providing them the psychological resources needed to perform better on the job. In regard to task performance, employees who are absorbed in their jobs are focusing their attention and effort on their job responsibilities, indicating that they should perform tasks well (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002). To the extent that absorbed individuals are more invested in their jobs, they should also want to behave in ways that help, as opposed to harm, their

workplaces. In describing the engagement process, Kahn (1992) suggested that individuals absorbed in their jobs are more likely to collaborate with their coworkers for the good of their organization. These individuals should be more likely to go beyond the boundaries of their job descriptions and engage in citizenship behaviors, such as suggesting ideas for improvement and attending voluntary work functions. Likewise, employees who are absorbed in their jobs are more likely to question unproductive and unethical behavior (Kahn, 1992). This implies that they are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviors, such as taking long breaks, showing up late for work, and ignoring their boss’s instructions. Integrating this logic with the above theorizing suggests that volunteering has a beneficial indirect effect on job performance because it encourages higher levels of job absorption.

Hypothesis 7. Volunteering has a positive indirect relationship with job performance—that is, a positive indirect effect on task performance and citizenship behavior, and a negative indirect effect on counterproductive behavior—through job absorption.

STUDY 2: METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants volunteered through two local umbrella volunteer organizations, the United Way and the Junior League, from one county in the southeastern United States. In particular, they volunteered for organizations such as Meals on Wheels, the Humane Society, Boys and Girls Club, the American Cancer Society, March of Dimes, and Habitat for Humanity—as well as for other volunteer activities, such as one-time events (e.g., Relay for Life, United Way’s Day of Caring, and Race for the Cure). On average, participants were 43 years old (s.d. = 11.91 years), and 72.7 percent were female. In regard to their jobs, participants worked an average of 45.21 hours a week (s.d. = 8.36) and had an average tenure of 9.10 years (s.d. = 9.14).

At one of the volunteer organizations’ regular meetings, potential participants were given the general purpose of the study and an overview of participation requirements. Participants were asked to (a) complete a survey and (b) provide names and e-mail addresses for two coworkers who could complete a survey on their behalf. Including the coworker survey introduced source separation as a remedy for common method bias (Doty & Glick,

1998). In particular, this practice reduces self-reporting biases, such as consistency motifs and leniency biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Of the 300 individuals approached, 226 agreed to participate in the study, for a 76.5 percent response rate. Participants were only included in the analyses if they had a full set of self-reported responses and responses from at least one coworker. These criteria resulted in a final sample size of 172 employed volunteers, which represents a final response rate of 57.3 percent. The following two sections provide the details of the measures provided to the participants and the coworkers in the surveys. Unless otherwise noted, all items used a response scale ranging from 1, “strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree.”

Participant Measures

Volunteering. Volunteering was measured using the five-item volunteering scale developed for Study 1 (response scale: 1 = “almost never”; 5 = “very often”; $\alpha = .97$).

Volunteering meaningfulness. Participants were asked to evaluate volunteering meaningfulness using an adaptation of Spreitzer’s (1995) three-item scale. Sample items include “The volunteer work I do is meaningful to me” and “My volunteer work is very important to me”; $\alpha = .94$.

Job interference. Job interference was measured with a five-item scale adapted from Netemeyer et al.’s (1996) family-work conflict measure. Sample items include “The demands of volunteering interfere with work-related activities” and “I have to put off doing things at work because of time demands from my volunteer activities”; $\alpha = .88$.

Job absorption. Job absorption was measured with the six-item absorption scale from Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010). Sample items include “At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job” and “At work, I am absorbed by my job”; $\alpha = .94$.

Control variables. As with Study 1, common correlates of volunteering—prosocial identity, age, and gender—were included as controls (Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2000). Prosocial identity was measured with the three-item scale by Grant et al. (2008) used in Study 1 ($\alpha = .84$).

Coworker Measures

Participants were asked to recommend two coworkers who could complete a survey about their work environment and work-related behaviors. To

get the most accurate responses possible, I instructed participants to choose coworkers who were in the best position to assess the participants’ job responsibilities and behaviors (and not simply the coworkers who liked them the best). Of the 173 participants included in the analyses, 115 had complete responses from both coworkers, and the remaining 59 had complete responses from one coworker. For participants with two coworkers, averages of their responses were calculated and used in the analyses. To determine the level of consistency between coworker ratings, I calculated within-group agreement (r_{wg}) (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). This measure implies uniform distribution (i.e., each response is equally likely). However, in the case of content with socially desirable responses, distribution is often a negatively skewed (responses of 4 and 5 are more likely than 1’s and 2’s). Building on James et al.’s (1984) prescriptions, LeBreton and Senter (2008) provided values to adjust the r_{wg} formula for this tendency that can be used for a more stringent test of agreement. Following their advice, I based calculation of within-group agreement of coworker-rated performance on a moderately skewed distribution. Values (given below) all exceeded the conventional threshold of .70.

Job meaningfulness. Coworkers were asked to evaluate the meaningfulness provided by the participants’ jobs, using Spreitzer’s (1995) three-item scale. Sample items include, “The work they do is meaningful to them” and “The work they do is very important to them”; $\alpha = .91$; $r_{wg} = .87$).

Job performance. Job performance was comprised of task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Task performance was measured with a five-item scale adapted from MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991). Sample items include “All things considered, my coworker is outstanding at their job” and “My coworker is one of the best at what they do”; $\alpha = .95$; $r_{wg} = .83$).

Citizenship behavior was assessed with Lee and Allen’s (2002) eight-item scale designed to capture citizenship behavior directed toward an employee’s company. Sample items include “My coworker attends functions that are not required but that help our employer’s image” and “My coworker offers ideas to improve the functioning of our employer” (1 = “never” to 7 = “always”; $\alpha = .94$; $r_{wg} = .88$).

Counterproductive behavior was measured with Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) 12-item scale that assesses counterproductive behavior directed to-

ward a company. Sample items include “They spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working” and “They dragged out work in order to get overtime” (1 = “never” to 7 = “always”; $\alpha = .89$; $r_{wg} = .98$).

Opportunity to observe performance. Coworkers are likely to vary in the degree to which they are able to observe each other’s job performance. Accordingly, coworkers were asked to evaluate their opportunity to observe these behaviors using three items based on Judge and Ferris (1993), and I controlled for this opportunity when analyzing job performance. Sample items include “I regularly have the opportunity to observe my coworker’s job performance” and “Most of the time, I am able to monitor my coworker’s job performance” ($\alpha = .81$).

STUDY 2: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations are presented in Table 3. The data were analyzed with structural equation modeling in LISREL version 8.80. The first step in this analysis was to examine the adequacy of the measurement model. The measurement model was fully latent except for the interaction term and the independent variables that comprised the interaction term (job and volunteer meaningfulness). These exceptions were modeled as single indicators to test moderation following past recommendations, as described below (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001; Mathieu,

Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992). This measurement model provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2[df = 1,201] = 2,183.63$; CFI = .94, IFI = .94, RMSEA = .06). Paths were then added to create the structural model as depicted in Figure 1, which also provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2[df = 1,237] = 2,311.26$; CFI = .93, IFI = .93, RMSEA = .06).

Moderation was tested within structural equation modeling in accordance with prior recommendations (Cortina et al., 2001; Mathieu et al., 1992). Scale scores for the relevant independent variables (job and volunteering meaningfulness) were used as single indicators of latent variables, with error variances set to this formula (Kline, 2005): $[1 - \alpha] \times \text{variance}$. These variables were mean-centered to reduce nonessential multicollinearity, and product terms were then created (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Cortina et al., 2001). These product terms were used as single indicators of the latent product variables, with the error variances again set to the formula above. I created the product term alphas using Equation 14 in Cortina et al. (2001): $[(reliability_X \times reliability_Z) + r^2_{XZ}]/[1 + r^2_{XZ}]$, where X is the independent variable, Z is the moderator, and r_{XZ} is the correlation between the two latent variables.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses 3 through 5 focus on the role of job meaningfulness in volunteering. Hypotheses 3 and 4 predict that volunteering meaningfulness and job

TABLE 3
Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations^a

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Volunteering	3.92	0.89	.97									
2. Volunteer meaningfulness	4.29	0.80	.48*	.94								
3. Job meaningfulness	4.54	0.49	.17*	.03	.91							
4. Job absorption	4.27	0.60	.19*	.15*	.18*	.94						
5. Job interference	2.12	0.81	-.07	-.14	-.03	-.11	.88					
6. Task performance	4.49	0.54	.21*	.11	.48*	.18*	-.11	.95				
7. Citizenship behavior ^b	5.83	0.81	.23*	.17*	.55*	.16*	.01	.58*	.94			
8. Counterproductive behavior ^b	1.31	0.43	-.19*	-.12	-.51*	-.23*	-.02	-.66*	-.55*	.89		
9. Opportunity to observe performance	3.83	0.65	.03	-.04	.21	-.04	-.14	.31*	.25	-.06	.81	
10. Prosocial identity	4.37	0.61	.24*	.19*	.14	.31*	-.10	.05	.12	-.05	-.02	.84
11. Age	42.95	11.86	.19*	.11	.08	.16*	-.11	.01	.08	-.05	-.03	.16*
12. Gender	1.27	0.44	.06	.07	-.17	-.01	.11	-.04	-.04	.01	.04	-.13
												.17*

^a $n = 171$. Coefficient alphas are on the diagonal.

^b Citizenship and counterproductive behavior were measured on a seven-point scale.

* $p < .05$

meaningfulness will each be positively related to volunteering. Looking first at the volunteer characteristics as controls, I found that prosocial identity was significantly related to volunteering ($b = .14$), but age and gender were not. As shown in Figure 2, the relationship between volunteering meaningfulness and volunteering was positive and significant ($b = .47$), in analyses controlling for job meaningfulness. Similarly, the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering was positive and significant ($b = .15$) in those controlling for volunteering meaningfulness. Thus, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were supported.

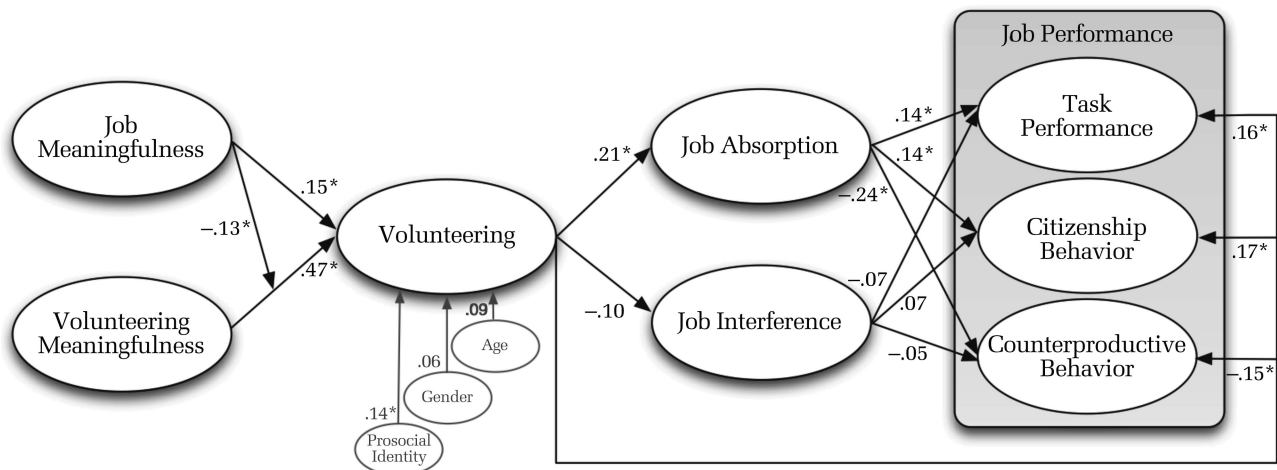
Hypothesis 5 predicts that job meaningfulness will moderate the relationship between volunteering meaningfulness and volunteering. As shown in Figure 2, the job meaningfulness by volunteering meaningfulness product term was statistically significant. Figure 3 represents this relationship (see Cohen et al. [2003: 272–281] for a discussion of the procedures used to plot the interaction). As predicted, the relationship between volunteer meaningfulness and volunteering was more positive when job meaningfulness was low.

Taken together, Hypotheses 3–5 provide evidence of an integration of the enhancement and compensation perspectives. The positive trend of the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering when volunteering meaningfulness is controlled provides support for the enhancement lens. This result replicates the positive trend that

was captured with the indirect effect through vocacity in Study 1. Further, it demonstrates that the relationship remains when the variables are measured by different sources and volunteer meaningfulness is controlled. This pattern suggests that, in general, employees' desire for meaningful experiences grows from their positive work experiences and translates into increased volunteering. At the same time, the nature of the interaction between job and volunteer meaningfulness provides support for the compensation lens. Employees who report lower levels of meaningfulness in their jobs may also increase volunteering to the extent that it provides the desired sense of meaning.

The remaining hypotheses (Hypotheses 6 and 7) predict indirect relationships between volunteering and job performance. The relevant path coefficients are presented in Figure 2 and the indirect effects displayed in Table 4. The significance of these indirect effects was tested with RMediation (MacKinnon et al., 2004, 2007). Hypothesis 6 states that volunteering will have a negative indirect relationship with job performance through job interference. As shown in Figure 2, these relationships were not significant, therefore the indirect relationship was not significant and Hypothesis 6 not supported. Hypothesis 7 predicts a positive indirect relationship between volunteering and job performance through job absorption. The relationship between volunteering and job absorption was significant ($b = .21$), as was the relationship between job

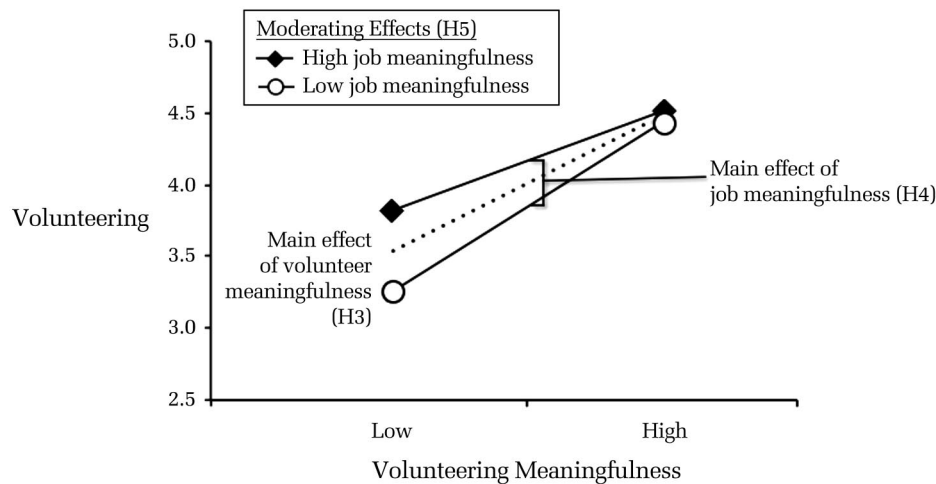
FIGURE 2
Summary of Study 2 Results^a



^a Path coefficients are unstandardized. Coworkers' opportunity to observe performance was controlled in the regressions for task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (path coefficient were $.38^*$, $.34^*$, and $-.13$, respectively).

* $p < .05$, one-tailed

FIGURE 3
Moderating Effect of Job Meaningfulness on the Relationship of
Volunteering Meaningfulness to Volunteering



absorption and the job performance facets ($b = .14$ for task performance, $b = .14$ for citizenship behavior, and $b = -.24$ for counterproductive behavior). Confirming Hypothesis 7, the indirect relationships were also significant. Combined, the results for Hypotheses 6 and 7 suggest that volunteering is more beneficial for the work domain than it is harmful.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In response to the growing trend of volunteering in the United States (Brudney & Gazley, 2006), organizational scholars are beginning to consider the intersection of volunteer and work domains (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Booth et al., 2009; Grant, 2012; Jones, 2010). Yet, as noted at the outset, the nature of the relationship between individuals' jobs and volunteering remains unclear. For example, how do their work experiences,

such as meaningfulness, impact volunteering? Likewise, how does their volunteering impact work-related outcomes? Drawing from theorizing on multiple domains, I conducted two studies designed to address these questions (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Implications for Theory and Research

At a global level, the focus of these studies on the intersection of the volunteer and work domains represents significant advancement in both literature streams. Given the growing prevalence of volunteering in people's lives (Brudney & Gazley, 2006), it is prudent that organizational scholars understand how the volunteer and work domains relate to one another. In doing so, this research responds to recent calls for researchers to join the discussion of employee volunteering that is currently dominated by practitioners (Grant, 2012) and to contribute theoretical perspectives to a literature that is currently lacking conceptual models (Tschirhart, 2005). Relying on multiple domain perspectives to examine the links between volunteering and work also extends the scope of that literature, which has been criticized for limiting the discussion to work-family issues (e.g., Westring & Ryan, 2010).

The pattern of results in these two studies offers specific contributions to the volunteering and multiple domain literature streams as well. First, prior explorations of the antecedents of volunteering have focused on volunteer context and volunteer characteristics (Penner,

TABLE 4
Study 2: Total and Indirect Effects of Volunteering
on Job Performance^a

Dependent Variable	Total Effect	Mediator	Indirect Effect
Task performance	.19*	Job absorption	.03*
		Job interference	.01
Citizenship behavior	.20*	Job absorption	.03*
		Job interference	.01
Counterproductive behavior	-.20*	Job absorption	-.05*
		Job interference	.00

^a $n = 171$.

* $p < .05$, one-tailed

2002; Wilson, 2000). In accordance with that research, this article demonstrates that the meaningfulness of volunteer activities can drive volunteering. There is no research, however, on the role of the work domain (a factor that plays a large role in most volunteers' lives [Wilson, 2000]) in regard to volunteering. To address this gap, I assessed the importance of job meaningfulness, an important factor of work, for volunteering. Although the two studies examined this relationship differently—Study 1 directly operationalized the mechanisms underlying the theorizing, while Study 2 examined the relationship in the presence of volunteering meaningfulness—the results of both support a positive trend between meaningful job experiences and volunteering. This type of behavioral influence across domains supports the enhancement perspective. The results from Study 2 build on this finding to provide some support for the compensation perspective when considered in tandem with this positive enhancement trend. That is, when jobs are less meaningful, employees are more likely to increase volunteering to gain that desired sense of meaning in life. Thus, in addition to employees' volunteering in response to a growing desire for meaning stemming from the work domain, they may also volunteer to compensate for jobs that do not provide enough meaning. Combined, these findings not only demonstrate the significant role of the work domain for volunteering, but also reinforce the previously demonstrated significance of volunteer organization characteristics as well as the importance of the connection between the two domains.

These results advance knowledge about multiple domains by addressing two relatively unexplored aspects of that literature. Although the theoretical lenses in the multiple domain literature are well established, they have been criticized for being too abstract, making empirical tests of them difficult and rendering them more as metaphors than theories (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Rice et al., 1980). Study 1 represents one of the first attempts to operationalize the underlying mechanisms in two of these theoretical lenses, compensation (via wanderlust) and spillover (via voracity). Additionally, the multiple domain literature implies that various perspectives—such as compensation and enhancement—can coexist (e.g., Kando & Summers, 1971). Study 2 represents one of the first empirical demonstrations of these perspectives simultaneously and the potential for interactive effects between these perspectives.

Second, the present model included the potential for volunteering to exhibit beneficial and detrimental effects on job performance. Although organizational scholars have become interested in the consequences of volunteering for the work domain, studies have not yet addressed the performance implications (for an exception, see Jones [2010]), nor have they considered the potential for mixed effects of volunteering on job performance. The results show a positive indirect relationship between volunteering and job performance through job absorption. Contrary to predictions, however, volunteering does not appear to hinder job performance by interfering with an individual's job. These findings lend support for domain synergies in the debate on the relative synergies and conflicts between activities in multiple domains (see Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

It should also be noted that this research represents an initial step toward establishing the validity of a volunteering scale. A measure of volunteering has not yet been validated and published in a top management or psychology journal. Existing research has instead relied on one-item ad hoc measures of volunteer frequency or a measure of specific—and thus limited—volunteer activities (Gillath et al., 2005). The scale items created were shown to be content valid using quantitative methods (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999), and three independent samples (i.e., the validation sample, Study 1, and Study 2) supported its factor structure and reliability. Moreover, the correlation patterns in those samples revealed nomological validity, in terms of convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity. Thus, while scale development is always an iterative process, the initial evidence on the psychometric properties of this scale is strong.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any study, these studies are subject to some limitations that should be noted. One limitation is the potential for common method bias in self-reported relationships, which can inflate correlations and raise questions about causal direction (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As discussed above, two common procedural steps are often taken to reduce this risk: temporal separation and source separation (Doty & Glick, 1998). Whenever possible, one of these methods was employed and, in some cases, relationships using one method were then replicated using the other. Although the possibility of reverse causality cannot be completely ruled out, there was theoretical reason to presume the hypothesized causal order was correct.

To truly assess the causal direction between the volunteering and work domains, a cross-lagged panel design is needed. In the absence of such a design, the validity of the hypothesized causal order can be supported by theoretical reasoning paired with a comparison to alternative orderings of the volunteering and work domain relationships. To do so, the respective orderings of volunteering and work domains in Study 1 and Study 2 were reversed. In each case, the fit of the hypothesized model was either better or equivalent to the fit of the alternative models. Future research might use a panel design to explore both the direction of the causal relationship between these domains and the potential for reciprocal effects.

Another potential limitation is the current focus on intensity in the volunteering definition and measure. Although this focus is consistent with most of the existing volunteering research (see Wilson, 2000), it is not the only way to conceptualize volunteering. For example, as noted at the outset, volunteering can also be thought of as direction of effort toward a volunteer activity. This initial “decision to volunteer” is itself an important criterion, yet it requires different measurement and theoretical questions. For example, why do employees volunteer versus engage in some work domain activity? Why do employees choose their specific volunteer activities, and do these choices relate in some way to their experiences in their work domain? Relatedly, some researchers also include “longevity”—commitment to a particular volunteer organization—in the definition of volunteering (e.g., Penner, 2002). Although this is a valid concern for volunteer organizations that want to maintain their staff, longevity can also be operationalized and examined independently of direction and intensity.

Although this article focuses on job meaningfulness as a predictor of volunteering, other workplace drivers of the behavior likely exist as well. In an inductive study of employee volunteers, Geroy et al. (2000) concluded that, after meaningfulness, the primary reasons that employees volunteered were to gain skills that could be used at work and to make contacts that could be used at work. Further, volunteer organizations are currently concerned with the idea of skill-based volunteering, in which volunteers apply skills they already have to be useful to their volunteer organizations. It may also be fruitful to explore the interaction between such workplace drivers and individual volunteer characteristics. Prior volunteering research has indicated that certain characteristics, such as a prosocial nature, are important predictors of volunteering (Carlo et al., 2005; Penner, 2002), and organizational research has long demon-

strated that individual and situational factors interact (Bandura, 1986).

On a related note, a potential limitation of this research is that work and volunteer domains can be argued to be arbitrarily delineated. As the activities of working and volunteering are very similar—they both involve giving time and effort to a planned event—the main differentiating factor is that they occur in different spheres. However, given the rising popularity of corporate volunteer programs (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007), there is increasing potential for overlap between the two domains. This overlap, much like that between work and family in a family business venture, opens the door for interesting research on the blurring of domains. For example, the degree of overlap between volunteering and working in corporate volunteer programs may alter employees’ interpretations of both activities. Is volunteering then considered an in-role behavior? Do employees’ opinions of their employer change—for good or for bad—in view of the company’s involvement? The role segmentation literature (e.g., Kreiner, 2006) suggests it might also be helpful to examine personal preferences for such segmentation or integration.

A limitation specific to Study 2 is the reliance on coworker ratings of job performance. Although it may be preferable to obtain supervisor ratings of these constructs, recent research has suggested that coworkers may be as, if not more, reliable sources of performance ratings than self-reports (e.g., Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). To help ensure the accuracy of these reports, the survey instructions emphasized the importance of a participant’s choosing coworkers who were in the best position to evaluate the participant’s work experiences and behaviors. In addition, collecting data from two coworkers provided the opportunity to assess the level of agreement between coworker evaluations. As an added precaution, coworkers’ opportunity to observe participant job performance was controlled in those analyses. Future research may consider obtaining supervisor reports of job performance, as well as expanding the conceptualization of job performance. Although the current study demonstrates a relationship between volunteering and organizationally directed behaviors, it is also likely that volunteering would influence on-the-job behaviors directed at coworkers.

Practical Implications

The results of this study offer a number of practical implications. The most straightforward of these is

that employee volunteering need not be harmful, and may even facilitate, job performance. Being aware of this result should allow employers to better handle scenarios of employee volunteering when they arise. One area in which this information may be beneficial is selection. Although employers may be inclined to shy away from hiring employees who are involved in their community for fear that such involvement will distract them from their work, the results suggest that volunteers may be better performers. This is particularly relevant for jobs that favor agreeable and extraverted employees, because individuals with these traits are also more likely to volunteer (Carlo et al., 2005). Furthermore, understanding the benefits of volunteering may encourage employers to join the growing trend of formalizing corporate support of volunteering (Aguilera et al., 2007).

Managers may also benefit from understanding the role of job meaningfulness in volunteering. It might be natural for a manager to be skeptical about employees' extracurricular activities—wondering if these activities are pulling employees away from the workplace or if they are signals that an employee is thinking about leaving (e.g., Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). However, the current results suggest that the opposite is more likely—that employee volunteering is an indication that their jobs have inspired them. In the alternative scenario, where employees believe they are lacking desired meaning in their jobs, volunteering may serve to compensate for that deficit. In that case, managers may consider encouraging volunteering that offers the opportunity for employees to fulfill those desires. That way, managers may be able to maintain employee attitudes and motivation when they might otherwise have suffered from such deficiencies in their jobs, as well as retain employees who may otherwise have left for other jobs (see Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

CONCLUSION

As employees become more and more involved in volunteering, it is important for researchers and managers to understand the nature of the relationship between the volunteer and work domains. The present studies represent one of the first steps in this direction, demonstrating mutual effects of an individual's job on volunteering and vice versa. In particular, these studies show that work experiences—namely, job meaningfulness—spark an increase in volunteering, and that employees may rely on meaningful volunteer opportunities to compensate for lower levels of meaningfulness

on the job. Likewise, volunteering appears to be beneficial for an individual's job performance.

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