



Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs?

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Abstract:	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 the job in some way or if it is a distraction, akin to "moonlighting." In this manuscript, several theoretical perspectives from the multiple domain literature – particularly, compensation, enhancement, and resource drain – are employed across 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 was therefore associated with better performance on the job. Implications of these findings for future theorizing on volunteering are discussed.

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Finding Meaning through Volunteering: Why Do Employees Volunteer and What Does It Mean for Their Jobs?

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**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 the job in some way or if it is a distraction, akin to "moonlighting." In this manuscript, several theoretical perspectives from the multiple domain literature – particularly, compensation, enhancement, and resource drain – are employed across 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 was therefore associated with better performance on the job. Implications of these findings for future theorizing on volunteering are discussed.

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4 Volunteering is prevalent and growing in the United States. At the start of his first term,
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6 President Barack Obama initiated the “United We Serve” campaign designed to encourage
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8 Americans to get involved by volunteering in their communities. By all accounts, that is exactly
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10 what has begun to happen. The most recent national survey estimated that 62.8 million
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12 Americans, or 26.3% of the population, donated their time or skills to a charitable or volunteer
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14 organization in 2010 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). In addition, reports suggest that the level
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16 of volunteering is on the rise (Brudney & Gazley, 2006). Despite these trends, a focus on other
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18 activities – such as regular employment and domestic work – has historically overshadowed the
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20 role of volunteering in social science research (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Recently, however,
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22 interest in the role of volunteering has ignited, particularly for organizational scholars (e.g.,
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24 Booth, Won Park, & Glomb, 2009; Grant, 2012; Jones, 2010). Given the greater number of
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26 employees who are volunteering, understanding its implications for the workplace seem critical.
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32 Drawing on prior conceptualizations, volunteering can be defined as *giving time or skills*
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34 *during a planned activity for a volunteer group or organization* (e.g., charitable groups, non-
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36 profit groups, etc.). This definition incorporates three key components of volunteering: (1) it is
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38 an active giving of time and/or skills rather than more passive support through monetary
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40 donations (Wilson, 2000), (2) it is a planned (proactive) activity as opposed to a spontaneous
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42 (reactive) act of helping (Clary & Snyder, 1999), and (3) it occurs in the context of a volunteer or
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44 charitable organization (Musick & Wilson, 2008; Penner, 2002). Like other volitional activities,
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46 volunteering can be conceptualized according to its direction and intensity of effort (Latham &
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48 Pinder, 2005; Mitchell & Daniels, 2003). In this sense, direction represents the initial decision to
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50 volunteer (as opposed to engaging in some other activity) and intensity represents the extent or
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52 level of volunteering effort. In accordance with most of the existing volunteering research, the
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54 focus of this manuscript is on volunteering intensity. It is also worth noting that this definition of
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4 volunteering adopts a behavioral perspective (Musick & Wilson, 2008; Wilson, 2000). Although
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6 some prior definitions of volunteering have included other aspects, such as “benefitting others”
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8 and “longevity,” those aspects tap into motives for and commitment to volunteering. Taking a
9
10 behavioral view of volunteering, they are relegated to either antecedents or consequences.
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14 Adopting a multiple domain perspective, one can conceptualize volunteering as a distinct
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16 domain in life, where domain refers to a specific sphere or area of activity. Traditionally,
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18 research on multiple domains has largely focused on understanding the relationship between the
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20 work domain and the family domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Westring & Ryan, 2010). In
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22 particular, multiple domain scholars have examined whether these domains represent a source of
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24 conflict or enrichment for one another (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell,
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26 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Volunteering is a sphere of activity that is
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28 becoming increasingly salient for individuals, who identify with it and distinguish it from other
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30 activities in their lives (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002).
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35 Despite increasing interest in the topic of volunteering for organizational scholars, the
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37 nature of the relationship between volunteering and the workplace remains unclear. Adopting the
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39 multiple domain perspective facilitates the examination between the volunteer domain and the
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41 work domain. As noted above, that literature advises that understanding the relationship between
42
43 two domains involves an exploration of mutual influence – both how the workplace influences
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45 volunteering and how volunteering in turn influences the workplace. In regard to the former, one
46
47 of the most commonly cited reasons for volunteering is the sense of meaningfulness derived
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49 from the activity (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Geroy,
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51 Wright, & Jacoby, 2000; Trunk, 2007). That is, people look to volunteering in order to fulfill a
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53 desire for significance and value in their lives (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995). This
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55 ability to find meaning in volunteering echoes the idea that one’s job can be a source of meaning
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4 (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski,
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7 2010). Further, the sense of meaningfulness that can be derived from these activities is a form of
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9 intrinsic motivation that guides subsequent behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Spreitzer, 1995). The
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11 question therefore becomes: How is volunteering shaped by the degree to which volunteers see
12
13 their job as meaningful? There is conflicting speculation on this relationship in the volunteering
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15 literature. The more traditional view suggests that employees volunteer in search of more of the
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17 intrinsic value they find in their jobs (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997),
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19 whereas a more contemporary view suggests that employees may consider volunteering as a
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21 chance to make up for what is lacking in their jobs (e.g., Grant, 2012).
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25 In regard to the ultimate impact of volunteering in the workplace, little is known about
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27 the performance implications of employees who volunteer. In particular, is volunteering
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29 beneficial to the job in some way or is it more akin to employee “moonlighting” and thus a
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31 distraction that harms job performance? A few recent studies have demonstrated that
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33 volunteering is positively associated with certain workplace attitudes, such as organizational
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35 identification (Bartel, 2001) and commitment (Jones, 2010). However, the job performance
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37 implications of volunteering remain unclear. There is little empirical evidence regarding this
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39 relationship (for an exception see Jones, 2010 in regard to citizenship behavior), and the
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41 possibility of negative implications has not yet been considered.
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46 The purpose of this manuscript is to examine the intersection of the volunteer and work
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48 domains, focusing on the potential mutual influences outlined above. To do so, various
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50 theoretical perspectives from the multiple domain literature are employed, including
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52 enhancement, compensation, and resource drain (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Champoux, 1978;
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54 Evans & Bartolomé, 1984; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974), over the course of two field studies.
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56 Study 1 focuses on the nature of the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering.
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4 By operationalizing the mechanisms of the compensation lens (as wanderlust) and the
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6 enhancement lens (as voracity), this study captures conflicting speculations about the job
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8 meaningfulness-volunteering relationship. Study 2 builds on Study 1 by incorporating volunteer
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10 meaningfulness, which allows the compensation lens to be reinterpreted as an interactive effect
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12 to explain the job meaningfulness–volunteering relationship. In addition, Study 2 examines the
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14 implications of volunteering for job performance. The potential for mixed effects on job
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16 performance are explored by contrasting the enhancement lens (as job absorption) with the
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18 resource drain lens (as job interference). Figure 1 depicts an overall conceptual model, showing
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20 how Study 1’s conceptualization of compensation and enhancement relates to Study 2.
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32 This manuscript offers theoretical contributions to both the volunteering and multiple
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34 domain literatures. In regard to volunteering, this research responds to the call for organizational
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36 scholars to join the conversation on volunteering started by practitioners (Grant, 2012). Indeed,
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38 this manuscript represents one of the first empirical attempts to explore the relationship between
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40 employees’ volunteering and the work domain (see also Booth et al., 2009; Jones, 2010), and
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42 builds on existing knowledge in two ways. First, in terms of the motivation to volunteer, this
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44 manuscript shifts the conversation away from volunteers (e.g., demographics) and volunteer
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46 organizations (e.g., reputation) as predictors of volunteering and toward the role of the
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48 workplace. As Wilson (2000) pointed out in a review of the volunteering literature, although
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50 such characteristics are useful predictors of volunteering, more examination is needed of other
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52 contextual factors, such as the work domain. Second, this manuscript is the first to examine the
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54 potential for mixed performance implications of volunteering. Given that more than half of
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4 volunteers are also employed (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011), a more clear understanding of
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6 the potential benefit versus harm of employee volunteering should help companies decide how to
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8 react to this growing trend. Furthermore, by pulling relevant theoretical perspectives about
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10 multiple domains into the volunteering literature, this manuscript brings theory to a literature that
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12 is criticized for its shortage of solid conceptual foundations (Tschirhart, 2005).
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16 In regard to the multiple domain literature, this manuscript helps to clarify and build the
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18 theoretical perspectives in that literature. Despite the theoretical richness of the multiple domain
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20 literature, these perspectives have been criticized for being too abstract and difficult to translate
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22 into testable constructs (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1980). Indeed, Rice et
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24 al. (1980: 61) go so far as to describe the various perspectives as “pretheoretical metaphors”
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26 rather than theoretical lenses. By operationalizing the mechanisms underlying these perspectives
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28 and considering these perspectives in combination, this study pioneers the road to more rigorous
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30 examination of that theorizing. Moreover, by focusing on volunteering as a domain, this
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32 manuscript extends the scope of the multiple domain perspective, which has recently been
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34 criticized for limiting itself primarily to job and family issues (e.g., Westring & Ryan, 2010).
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36 Finally, by modeling the potential for beneficial and detrimental effects of volunteering on job
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38 performance, this research contributes to the debate about the relative synergies and conflicts of
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40 multiple domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).
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46 **STUDY 1: THEORY AND HYPOTHESES**

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48 The multiple domain literature evokes various mechanisms that connect different domains in life
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50 (for a review, see Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). At a broad level, the majority of this research
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52 compares and contrasts the ability of multiple domains to benefit or harm one another. The
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54 potential for benefit between domains has been explored through mechanisms such as
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56 enrichment and spillover (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The potential for harm between domains
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4 has been explored through mechanisms such as resource drain and conflict (Greenhaus &
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6 Beutell, 1985). Outside of this contrast, researchers have introduced the complementary ideas
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8 that people may intentionally separate domains (segmentation), that relationships between
9
10 domains may come from some other common cause (congruence), and that people can
11
12 purposefully seek to offset experiences in one domain with another (compensation). At the root
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14 of these mechanisms is the idea that various types of resources – material, psychological, social,
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16 etc – from one domain are capable of influencing another. The specific form of this influence
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18 (i.e. the mechanism) depends largely on the research question.
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23 Study 1 focuses on the link between employees' sense of meaningfulness in their jobs
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25 and volunteering. Do employees volunteer (a) to make up for a lack of meaningfulness in their
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27 jobs or (b) because meaningfulness in their jobs has whetted their appetite for the activity? Both
28
29 options are plausible and – as the sections below will describe – correspond theoretically with
30
31 the compensation and enhancement perspectives, respectively. Yet they offer starkly different
32
33 pictures of the motives for volunteering and would point to very different practical implications.
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36 **Does Volunteering Compensate for a Lack of Meaningfulness at Work?**

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38 Compensation refers to individuals' increased involvement in one life domain in order to
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40 make up for what they see as lacking in another (Champoux, 1978; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984;
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42 Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). When individuals are fulfilled in a certain way by one domain –
43
44 for example, the workplace – they are less likely to desire experiences in another domain to
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46 fulfill that purpose. Vice versa, when individuals' desires are not fulfilled in one domain, they
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48 are likely to seek opportunities in another domain to fulfill those desires and enhance
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50 satisfaction. In the current context, this approach suggests that there is a negative relationship
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52 between job meaningfulness and volunteering (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).
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57 The underlying notion of this perspective – that something is missing in one's job – can
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4 be captured through the concept of wanderlust. The term wanderlust originates from the German
5 words *Wandern* (to hike) and *Lust* (to desire). In the broadest sense, wanderlust reflects
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7 individuals' desires to wander, travel, or experience new things (American Heritage, 2007). The
8
9 implied core of this definition is a sense of discontentment or restlessness with one's current
10
11 situation that sparks the desire to wander elsewhere. Although not referenced directly, the
12
13 concept of wanderlust has been evoked for decades in research on extramarital relationships.
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15 According to that literature, people often claim that infidelity is a reaction to dissatisfaction or
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17 unmet desires in their marriages (e.g., Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Roscoe, Cavanaugh, &
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19 Kennedy, 1988). Applied to the present context, employees looking beyond the workplace to fill
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21 some unmet desire in their job can also be described as experiencing wanderlust.
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28 Theorizing on the compensation lens highlights the possibility that employees may
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30 respond to a sense of wanderlust from their jobs by turning to alternative activities such as
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32 volunteering (Grant, 2012; Kando & Summers, 1971). In a set of interviews with employed
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34 volunteers, Geroy and colleagues (2000: 284) reported a participant stating that volunteering
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36 provides "good feelings that you don't always get in the workplace." Similarly, Gora and
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38 Nemerowicz (1985) uncovered qualitative data that hints at the role of wanderlust during a series
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40 of interviews with emergency squad volunteers. Wilson (2000: 222) later reflected on those
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42 volunteers' comments, noting that "some volunteers are quite explicit about seeking
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44 compensation for deprivations they experience in their paid employment."
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49 This compensation effect may be particularly true in regard to the desire for
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51 meaningfulness. Meaningfulness is not only a primary driver of volunteering behavior (Clary et
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53 al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000), but is also a fundamental desire in life (Heine et al., 2006;
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55 Vallerand, 1997). Applied to meaningfulness, the compensation lens suggests that when
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57 individuals' jobs are meaningful, this core desire is satisfied (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Kulik,
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4 Oldham, & Hackman, 1987) and they are not likely to experience wanderlust. Vice versa, when
5 one's job is not meaningful, individuals are more likely to experience wanderlust. As a result,
6 they volunteer – an activity commonly perceived as meaningful (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al.,
7 2000) – to compensate for that perceived deprivation. In support of this perspective, Van
8 Tongeren and Green (2010) conducted a series of laboratory studies that demonstrated that
9 individuals primed with a sense of meaninglessness turned to alternative sources to find it.

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18 *Hypothesis 1: Job meaningfulness has a negative indirect effect on volunteering through*
19 *wanderlust.*

20 21 22 23 **Does Meaningfulness Gained at Work Enhance Volunteering?**

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

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53 The underlying mechanism of this perspective – that a desire can become so “deeply
54 ingrained” that people crave more of it – can be captured through the concept of voracity. At its
55 core, the term voracity references one's appetite – describing a state where people crave great
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4 quantities of food (American Heritage, 2007). Over time, use of the term has expanded to
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6 describe eagerness or hunger for anything in life. Evidence of voracity can be found in research
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8 on substance abuse, which demonstrates a more extreme and darker side of the construct with its
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10 typical focus on drugs and alcohol. Nevertheless, people with some sort of substance abuse
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12 experience an intense desire or craving for something that is reminiscent of voracity and propels
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14 them to seek more of it (Field, Munafò, & Franken, 2009; Leeman, Corbin, & Froome, 2009).
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16 Similarly, individuals who crave some aspect of their job so much that they pursue it outside of
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18 the workplace can also be described as experiencing voracity.
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23 Traditionally, sociologists have indirectly touted the role of voracity – through the
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25 enhancement perspective – in regard to volunteering (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson &
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27 Musick, 1997; see also Wilson 2000). In this stream of work, employees' jobs are considered a
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29 resource that fosters psychological factors that can be transferred to volunteering. Indeed, Wilson
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31 and Musick (1997: 252) stated that individuals' jobs can “set the conditions that make volunteer
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33 work feasible, by cultivating resources and psychological predispositions that induce people to
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35 reach out into the community and give their time.” These authors speculate that individuals' jobs
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37 provide them with intrinsic rewards that trigger a desire for more of those types of activities
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39 (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; see also Wilson, 2000). That is, people who get something positive
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41 out of their job experiences are more likely to seek similar activities, such as volunteering, that
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43 can provide the same sort of positive experiences.
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49 As with wanderlust, this process may be particularly relevant to meaningfulness.
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51 Drawing from speculations in the volunteering literature, people with meaningful job
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53 experiences may carry a desire for such experiences outside of the workplace, which may lead
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55 them to volunteering activities in particular (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Herzog &
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57 Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Indeed, Herzog and Morgan (1993) suggested that
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4 individuals who gain intrinsic value from their jobs, such as a sense of meaningfulness, build an
5 attachment to those types of experiences that translates into volunteering. More specifically,
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7 people enjoy feeling like their jobs are significant and valuable (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003;
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9 Spreitzer, 1995), and this experience fosters the desire to engage in other activities that similarly
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11 provide that sense of significance.
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16 *Hypothesis 2: Job meaningfulness has a positive indirect effect on volunteering through*
17
18 *voracity.*
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20 **STUDY 1: METHOD**

21 **Participants and Procedures**

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24 Participants were employed students recruited from introductory business courses in
25 universities in the southeast. They were asked to complete two surveys that were separated by
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27 approximately four weeks. This form of temporal separation is one of two common “procedural
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29 remedies” used in the literature to combat common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). As noted
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31 by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), the practice of temporal separation can
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33 remove several sources of common method variance by reducing biases in participants’ retrieval
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35 and reporting of responses. In the first survey, participants were asked to rate the level of
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37 meaningfulness in their jobs, as well as specific personality characteristics (e.g., prosocial
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39 identity) and demographic information (e.g., age and tenure). In the follow-up survey, they were
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41 asked to assess their job-related reasons for volunteering – wanderlust and voracity – as well as
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43 their level of volunteering.
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51 Two hundred and thirty two individuals registered for the study and indicated that they
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53 had volunteered within the past year. Of those individuals, 208 completed the second survey,
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55 resulting in a response rate of 89.7%. Fifty-four percent of the participants were female and, on
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57 average, participants were 25 years old ($SD = 7.31$). They worked an average of 31.6 hours a
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4 week ($SD = 12.96$) and volunteered an average of 2.84 hours per week ($SD = 3.69$).
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6 7 **Measures**

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9 **Volunteering.** To date, volunteering has typically been measured with either the self-
10 reported number of hours volunteered or the sole existing volunteering scale in the literature
11 (Gillath, Shaver, Mikulincer, Nitzberg, Erez, and Van Ijzendoorn, 2005), neither of which
12 sufficiently captures the intensity of volunteering. Relying on the self reported number of hours
13 to measure volunteering has problems that center around the overall coarseness of that measure.
14 The raw amount of time invested in volunteering does not equate to the intensity of effort in that
15 time. Some volunteers may stay on-site for many hours but only put in minimal exertion, while
16 others may show up for shorter sessions and work diligently the entire time. On top of that,
17 volunteers may have trouble retrospectively recalling the number of hours they volunteered with
18 accuracy (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, even if volunteers could recall perfectly and
19 volunteered with the same level of intensity, reporting the number of hours is still a one-item
20 measure preventing the assessment of reliability due to the absence of measurement repetition
21 (see Hinkin, 1995). For these and other reasons, other literatures that measure intensity have
22 moved away from the number of hours toward scale-based measures (e.g., Bennett & Robinson,
23 2000; Brown & Leigh, 1996; Lee & Allen, 2002). That said, the only existing volunteering scale
24 might also be problematic (Gillath et al., 2005). It is not only rather long (26 items), but also
25 focuses on specific activities that may not be relevant to all respondents or that may or may not
26 fit the definition of volunteering (e.g., “research project without credit,” “pro bono professional
27 activities,” and “unpaid internship”). Moreover, its specific nature may not adequately capture
28 respondents who engage in volunteering in other ways.
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55 As a result, a volunteering scale was developed following Hinkin and Tracey’s (1999)
56 suggestions for measure creation and validation (see also Hinkin, 1998). First, twelve
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4 volunteering items were created to reflect the definition of volunteering provided above: “giving
5 time or skills during a planned activity for a volunteer group or organization (e.g., charitable
6 groups, nonprofit groups, etc....).” Next, an independent sample of undergraduate students ($N =$
7 782) was recruited from a large southeastern university to quantitatively assess the content
8 validity of those items. Those students received an online survey that provided the volunteering
9 definition, followed by the twelve volunteering items. They were asked to rate each of the items
10 on the extent to which they believed the item corresponded with the definition provided on a
11 scale ranging from 1 = The Item is a Very Poor Match to the Concept Defined Above to 5 = The
12 Item is a Very Good Match to the Concept Defined Above. Hinkin and Tracey (1999) suggested
13 that researchers rely on those ratings to make determinations about item inclusion. All items with
14 ratings above the mean were included in the final measure. This resulted in the following five-
15 item volunteering scale: “I give my time to help a volunteer group,” “I apply my skills in ways
16 that benefit a volunteer group,” “I devote my energy toward a volunteer group,” “I engage in
17 activities to support a volunteer group,” and “I employ my talent to aid a volunteer group.”

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After narrowing the scale to the most content-valid items, a second study was conducted
to examine its factor structure and convergent validity. An independent sample of eighty-one
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 ($SD = 4.2$) and worked 31 hours a week ($SD = 9.3$). The mean volunteering score
was 2.51 ($SD = 1.09$). A confirmatory factor analysis of the volunteering items demonstrated
good fit ($\chi^2 = 17.26$; CFI = .98; IFI = .98; SRMR = .012), supporting a unidimensional measure.

To assess convergent validity, participants were asked 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

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4 devote to volunteer activities in the past 12 months?”). The scale measure of volunteering was
5
6 positively and strongly correlated with both alternative measures of volunteering ($r = .64$ in both
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8 cases). All together, these results provide initial evidence of the construct validity of the
9
10 developed volunteering measure. When administered to the sample of employed students in
11
12 Study 1, participants were given a response scale ranging from 1 = Almost Never to 5 = Very
13
14 Often. The coefficient alpha was .96.
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18 **Wanderlust and voracity.** Measures of wanderlust and voracity were also created for
19
20 this study following Hinkin’s (1998) procedures for measurement validation. Items were
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22 generated using the definitions of the constructs, where wanderlust is defined as volunteering
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24 because it provides something that is missing in one’s job, and voracity is defined as
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26 volunteering because it provides something that people have and value in their job. All items
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28 began with the tagline, “I volunteer to…” Following this tagline, the wanderlust items were:
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30 “discover something that was missing from my job,” “compensate for a lack of something in my
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32 job,” “make up for something that I don’t get in my job,” “expose myself to something that isn’t
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34 a part of my job,” and “find something that is absent in my job.” Similarly, following the tagline,
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36 the voracity items were: “get more of what I like out of my job,” “enhance what I appreciate
37
38 about my job,” “gain more of what I value in my job,” “acquire more of what I enjoy about my
39
40 job,” and “obtain more of what I find pleasurable about my job.”
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46 Following Hinkin and Tracey’s (1999) content validation recommendations, a separate
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48 sample of 593 undergraduate students from a large southeastern university was recruited to
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50 quantitatively evaluate the content validity of those items. Participants were asked to evaluate the
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52 extent to which the items reflected the definition of the constructs provided, using a scale that
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54 ranged from 1 = The Item is a Very Poor Match to the Concept Above to 5 = The Item is a Very
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56 Good Match to the Concept Above. All five items for wanderlust and voracity exhibited a
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4 “good” match to the concept as defined (average ratings greater than 4.0), and were thus retained
5
6 in the final measure. An additional sample – consisting of 80 working undergraduate students
7
8 from the same southeastern university – was again recruited to examine the factor structure of
9
10 the wanderlust and voracity scales. A confirmatory factor analysis of wanderlust and voracity as
11
12 two separate factors demonstrated good fit (χ^2 (df = 34) = 76.94; CFI = .95; IFI = .95; SRMR =
13
14 .036), and fit significantly better than a model with wanderlust and voracity loading on one
15
16 factor (χ^2 (df = 35) = 554.27; CFI = .63; IFI = .63; SRMR = .27). Taken together, these results
17
18 support the content validity, factor structure, and internal consistency of the wanderlust and
19
20 voracity scales, providing some evidence of their construct validity. When administered to the
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22 sample of employed students in Study 1, participants were given a response scale ranging from 1
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24 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. The coefficient alphas were .93 and .97, respectively.
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30 **Job meaningfulness.** Participants were asked to evaluate the meaningfulness of their job
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32 using Spreitzer’s (1995) three-item measure, using a response scale ranging from 1 = Strongly
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34 Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Sample items included, “The work I do is meaningful to me”
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36 and “The work I do is very important to me.” The coefficient alpha was .93.
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40 **Control variables.** Several control variables were included as correlates of volunteering,
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42 given their prevalence in prior volunteering research (e.g., Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2002). In
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44 particular, this included prosocial identity, age, and gender. Prosocial identity was measured with
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46 a three-item scale by Grant, Dutton, and Rosso (2008). Sample items included, “I see myself as
47
48 caring” and “I see myself as generous.” The coefficient alpha was .74. Considering the
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50 workplace context of this study, one might be tempted to also include citizenship behaviors
51
52 given some of the overlap in content with volunteering (e.g., discretionary and other-focused).
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54 However, there are key distinctions between the two concepts -- namely citizenship behaviors
55
56 are directed internally and benefit the company (Organ, 1988), while volunteering is directed
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4 externally toward some volunteer entity and it is unclear whether it benefits the company.
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6 7 **STUDY 1: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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9 Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations are shown in Table 1. The
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11 hypotheses were tested with structural equation modeling in LISREL Version 8.80. The
12
13 measurement model provided good fit to the data (χ^2 (df = 211) = 368.47; CFI = .98; IFI = .98;
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15 RMSEA = .059), as did the latent structural model (χ^2 (df = 218) = 456.02; CFI = .96; IFI = .96;
16
17 RMSEA = .072). The path coefficients are presented in Table 2. In regard to the controls,
18
19 prosocial identity was significantly related to volunteering, but age and gender were not.
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23 Hypothesis 1 predicted that job meaningfulness would have a negative indirect
24
25 relationship with volunteering through wanderlust. The indirect effect was tested with the
26
27 RMediation application (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). This method of testing mediation has
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29 been shown to have more accurate Type I error rates and offers a more powerful test than
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31 traditional tests of indirect effects like the Sobel test (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood,
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33 2007; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). The indirect effect was calculated by
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35 multiplying the path coefficient from job meaningfulness to wanderlust (b = -.10) by the path
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37 coefficient from wanderlust to volunteering (b = .17), as presented in Table 2. The result was not
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39 significant when submitted to the RMediation test, thus Hypothesis 1 was not supported. This
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41 finding goes against the more contemporary view that employees attempt to compensate for
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43 lower levels of job meaningfulness by increasing volunteering.
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49 Hypothesis 2 predicted that job meaningfulness would have a positive indirect
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51 relationship with volunteering through voracity. The indirect effect (.03) – calculated by
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53 multiplying the path coefficient from job meaningfulness to voracity (b = .19) by the path
54
55 coefficient from voracity to volunteering (b = .17) – was significant when submitted to the
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57 RMediation test (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported. This result
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4 provides support for the enhancement perspective – that meaningfulness experienced in one’s job
5 creates a form of “hunger” or “voracity” for more meaningful experiences, and that this hunger
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7 ultimately translates into more intense volunteer activity. This pattern confirms some of the
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9 initial thinking of volunteer researchers in regard to the impact that work factors may have on
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provides support for the enhancement perspective – that meaningfulness experienced in one’s 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 volunteer researchers in regard to the impact that work factors may have on volunteer behavior (e.g., Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Wilson & Musick, 1997).

That stated, there are a few limitations of the current study. Perhaps most importantly, this study did not account for the perceived meaningfulness of the volunteer task itself. It is quite possible, following theoretical perspectives such as job design and empowerment (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Spreitzer, 1995), that volunteering is also influenced by the meaningfulness of the volunteer tasks. 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.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

STUDY 2: THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Study 2 seeks to build on the finding from Study 1 – that job meaningfulness is positively related to employee volunteering – in two distinct ways. First, Study 2 considers the role of volunteer meaningfulness in the job meaningfulness-volunteering relationship, which allows for an alternative conceptualization of the enhancement and compensation perspectives. Instead of

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4 being operationalized directly – as wanderlust and voracity – in Study 1, Study 2 examines these
5 perspectives as combinations of job and volunteer meaningfulness. In particular, the
6 enhancement perspective can be examined as the relationship between job meaningfulness and
7 volunteering, controlling for volunteer meaningfulness. This addition addresses the assumption
8 inherent in Study 1 that employees deem volunteer experiences as meaningful. As a result, Study
9 2 represents a more rigorous test of the enhancement perspective. Incorporating volunteer
10 meaningfulness also allows for an alternative approach to testing the compensation perspective,
11 by considering the interactive nature of job and volunteer meaningfulness that is implied in some
12 of that theorizing (Grant, 2012; Heine et al., 2006).
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25 Second, Study 2 considers the work domain implications of employee volunteering. This
26 expansion addresses the multiple domain literature's recognition of the mutual influences of
27 activities in different domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). That is, in addition to work
28 influencing volunteering, volunteering should influence work. Indeed, theorizing on multiple
29 domains provides the foundation that volunteering can simultaneously detract from and enrich
30 on-the-job attitudes and behaviors (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In
31 particular, the resource drain and enhancement perspectives set up the potential for mixed effects
32 of volunteering on job performance. The sections below will first examine the role of volunteer
33 meaningfulness, alongside job meaningfulness, for employee volunteering before turning to the
34 performance implications of volunteering.
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48 **Why do Employees Volunteer?**

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50 As suggested by traditional volunteering researchers and as demonstrated in Study 1,
51 certain psychological resources, such as a sense of meaningfulness, may accumulate from the
52 work domain and motivate employees' volunteering. The basis of this theorizing stems from the
53 notion of voracity – that employees' exposure to meaningfulness at work becomes so ingrained
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4 in their being that it leaves them craving meaningful experiences outside of work as well (Burke
5 & Greenglass, 1987; Evans & Bartolomé, 1984). Inherent in this theorizing, then, is the
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7
8 assumption that volunteering is considered a meaningful experience. This is a reasonable
9
10 assumption, based on anecdotal evidence. Indeed, as noted at the outset, a desire for meaningful
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12 experiences is one of the most highly cited reasons for volunteering, particularly among working
13
14 individuals (e.g., e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Prouteau & Wolff, 2008; Trunk,
15
16 2007). This assumption is also consistent with several work domain literatures that propose that
17
18 people engage in activities that provide meaning to their lives (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988;
19
20 Heine et al., 2006; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). However, this relationship has not yet been
21
22 tested, nor has volunteer meaningfulness been examined in conjunction with job meaningfulness.
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25 Given the enhancement perspective that exposure to meaningfulness on the job will create a
26
27 desire for more meaningful activities like volunteering, both job meaningfulness and volunteer
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29 meaningfulness should positively relate to volunteering when considered simultaneously.
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34 *Hypothesis 3: Volunteer meaningfulness is positively related to volunteering, controlling*
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36 *for job meaningfulness.*
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39 *Hypothesis 4: Job meaningfulness is positively related to volunteering, controlling for*
40
41 *volunteer meaningfulness.*
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44 Departing from the more traditional conceptualization of the compensation lens that was
45
46 used in Study 1 (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), recent speculation about how this perspective
47
48 applies to the volunteering-work intersection has adopted an interaction approach (Grant, 2012).
49
50 Interpreted in this light, the compensation perspective states that discontent in one domain of life
51
52 prompts individuals to increase involvement in other domains of life *to the extent that this*
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54 *pursuit has the potential to compensate for those feelings of discontent* (Burke & Greenglass,
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56 1987; Champoux, 1978). This explanation also implies that individuals who are fulfilled by their
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4 current activities have less incentive to increase involvement in another activity, even if it offers
5
6 the desired characteristics for fulfillment (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).
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9 Recent theorizing on this perspective has been applied specifically to the topic of
10
11 meaningfulness (Grant, 2012; Heine et al., 2006). On the one hand, when jobs are assessed as
12
13 meaningful, employees' internal desire for such experiences is fulfilled and their search for
14
15 alternative meaningful experiences less intense. As a result, the meaningfulness in volunteering
16
17 should become less impactful. On the other hand, when job meaningfulness is low, employees'
18
19 desire for such experiences is not fulfilled. In this case, the compensation perspective theorizes
20
21 that these individuals are likely to increase involvement in activities – such as volunteering – that
22
23 provide the opportunity for any missing feelings of meaningfulness. Because the search for
24
25 meaningfulness is more intense in this scenario, meaningfulness in volunteering should become
26
27 more impactful.
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32 *Hypothesis 5: The relationship between volunteer meaningfulness and volunteering is*
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34 *moderated by job meaningfulness, such that the relationship is more positive when job*
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36 *meaningfulness is low than when job meaningfulness is high.*
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39 **What are the Consequences of Employee Volunteering?**

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41 Despite recent interest in the impact of employee volunteering on the work domain (e.g.,
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43 Bartel, 2001; Booth et al., 2009; Jones, 2010), the job performance implications of volunteering
44
45 remain unclear. As noted at the outset, the direction of the effect of volunteering on job
46
47 performance is debatable – some may be tempted to classify volunteering as a distraction that
48
49 could harm performance while others may be inclined to classify it as a beneficial activity that
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51 challenges employees to focus their attention on each task at hand and be more effective on the
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53 job. With this debate in mind, Study 2 builds further on Study 1 by asking: How does
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55 volunteering impact employee on-the-job behavior?
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4 Traditionally, multiple domain research has focused on the negative implications of
5 activities in multiple domains. Although this perspective has taken many names – depletion,
6 resource drain, conflict, etc. (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Rothbard,
7 2001) – the underlying mechanisms all stem from the strain on one’s resources (Marks, 1977;
8 Sieber, 1974). Essentially, activity in one domain inevitably drains resources from others,
9 creating conflict between the domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
10 This perspective assumes that psychological resources are finite (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974).
11 Devoting more of these resources to one activity leaves fewer resources available for another
12 (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). This suggests that volunteering consumes some of employees’
13 finite resources, creating tension between domains.
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27 The potential drain of volunteering on employees’ work lives can be conceptualized as
28 job interference, which, drawing from the work-family literature, is where volunteering interferes
29 with the ability to do one’s job (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Although there is no research to
30 date on volunteering as a source of job interference specifically, indirect evidence can be gleaned
31 from studies that focus on family as a source of interference and, more generally, from research
32 on role conflict. In general, that research suggests that individuals with more interference from
33 multiple roles – and thus fewer resources – are more likely to suffer in terms of job performance.
34 Job performance is considered to have three related facets: task performance, citizenship
35 behavior, and counterproductive behavior. An increase in job interference may be detrimental in
36 terms of all three facets. Task performance reflects in-role behaviors focused on accomplishing a
37 job’s core tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Employees who
38 face more job interference are left with fewer psychological resources to devote to the
39 responsibilities of their job. For example, Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian (1996) reported that
40 employees who grappled with family interfering with work had lower sales figures.
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4 In comparison to task performance, citizenship and counterproductive behaviors are
5 considered more discretionary behaviors, where citizenship behaviors reflect positive
6 discretionary actions that contribute to the company's functioning (Organ, 1988) and
7 counterproductive behavior reflects negative discretionary actions that ultimately harm the
8 company (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Although these discretionary behaviors can be directed
9 toward the organization or coworkers within the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991), this
10 manuscript is more concerned with employee acts that directly impact the organization.
11 Individuals with more interference from multiple roles are less likely to engage in discretionary
12 behaviors that help the company, and are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviors that
13 ultimately harm the company (Chen & Spector, 1992; Haun, Steinmetz, & Dormann, 2001). For
14 example, managing demands from multiple roles has been shown to deter people from voicing
15 their opinions to better their organization and from being a team player (Haun et al., 2001). Such
16 conflict can also foster negative reactions, such as frustration, that manifest as counterproductive
17 behaviors like sabotage, aggression, and theft (e.g., Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector,
18 1999). Integrating this logic with the theorizing above suggests that there is a detrimental indirect
19 effect of volunteering on job performance.

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41 *Hypothesis 6: Volunteering has a negative indirect relationship with job performance*
42 *(i.e., a negative indirect effect on task performance and citizenship behavior, and a*
43 *positive indirect effect on counterproductive behavior) through job interference.*

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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 why job meaningfulness may enhance
volunteering. As noted in Study 1, the enhancement perspective proposes that psychological

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4 resources accumulate from experiences in one domain and expand to others (Marks, 1997;
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6 Sieber, 1974), resulting in positive influences from one domain to another. The same logic
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8 applies to volunteering experiences enhancing job performance. When examining the work
9
10 domain implications for volunteering, the most relevant resource was meaningfulness (Clary et
11
12 al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Trunk, 2007). In regard to the performance implications of
13
14 volunteering for the work domain, one of the most relevant resources is one's attention and
15
16 energy. For example, Sonnentag (2003) hypothesized that non-work leisure activities act as a
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18 form of recovery that provides employees psychological resources so that they can be more
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20 engaged and productive at work. Of particular relevance, she found that the "charging" nature of
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22 leisure activities allowed employees to better concentrate on their jobs while at work.
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28 This state of concentration or focus on work activities is referred to as job absorption
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30 (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakkar, 2002). Kahn's (1990) initial
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32 theorizing on job absorption echoes the sentiment above that activities outside of work, such as
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34 volunteering, can act as a "charge" for employees, providing them the psychological resources
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36 needed to perform better on the job. In regard to task performance, employees who are absorbed
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38 in their jobs are focusing their attention and effort on their job responsibilities, indicating that
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40 they should perform tasks well (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002). To the extent that absorbed
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42 individuals are more invested in their jobs, they should also want to behave in ways that help, as
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44 opposed to harm, their workplace. In describing the engagement process, Kahn (1992) suggested
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46 that individuals absorbed in their jobs are more likely to collaborate with their coworkers for the
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48 good of the organization. These individuals should be more likely to go beyond the boundaries of
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50 their job description and engage in citizenship behaviors, such as suggesting ideas for
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52 improvement and attending voluntary work functions. Likewise, employees who are absorbed in
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54 their jobs are more likely to question unproductive and unethical behavior (Kahn, 1992). This
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4 implies that they are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviors, such as taking long
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6 breaks, showing up late for work, and ignoring their boss's instructions. Integrating this logic
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8 with the above theorizing suggests that there is a beneficial indirect effect of volunteering on job
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10 performance because it encourages higher levels of absorption on the job.
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13 *Hypothesis 7: Volunteering has a positive indirect relationship with job performance*
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15 *(i.e., a positive indirect effect on task performance and citizenship behavior, and a*
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17 *negative indirect effect on counterproductive behavior) through job absorption.*
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20 **STUDY 2: METHOD**

21 **Participants and Procedures**

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25 Participants volunteered through two local umbrella volunteer organizations, the United
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27 Way and the Junior League, from one county in the southeast United States. In particular, they
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29 volunteered for organizations such as Meals on Wheels, the Humane Society, Boys and Girls
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31 Club, the American Cancer Society, March of Dimes, and Habitat for Humanity – as well as in
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33 other volunteer activities, such as one-time events (e.g., Relay for Life, United Way's Day of
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35 Caring, and Race for the Cure). On average, participants were 43 years old ($SD = 11.91$ years)
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37 and 72.7% were female. In regard to their jobs, participants worked an average of 45.21 hours a
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39 week ($SD = 8.36$) and had an average tenure of 9.10 years ($SD = 9.14$).
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44 At one of the volunteer organizations' regular meetings, potential participants were given
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46 the general purpose of the study and an overview of participation requirements. Participants were
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48 asked to (a) complete a survey, and (b) provide names and email addresses for two coworkers
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50 who could complete a survey on their behalf. Including the coworker survey introduced source
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52 separation as a remedy for common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). In particular, this
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54 practice reduces self-reporting biases, such as consistency motifs and leniency biases (Podsakoff
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56 et al., 2003). Of the 300 individuals approached, 226 agreed to participate in the study,
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4 representing a 76.5% response rate. Participants were only included in the analyses if they had a
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6 full set of self-reported responses and responses from at least one coworker. This resulted in a
7
8 final sample size of 172 employed volunteers, which represents a final response rate of 57.3%.
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10 The following two sections provide the details of the measures provided to the participants and
11
12 the coworkers in the surveys. Unless otherwise noted, all items used a response scale ranging
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14 from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.
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17 18 **Participant Measures**

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20 ***Volunteering.*** Volunteering was measured using the five-item volunteering scale
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22 developed for Study 1. Participants used the response scale ranging from 1 = Almost Never to 5
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24 = Very Often. The coefficient alpha was .97.
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28 ***Volunteer meaningfulness.*** Participants were asked to evaluate volunteer
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30 meaningfulness using an adaptation of Spreitzer's (1995) three-item scale. Sample items
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32 included, "The volunteer work I do is meaningful to me" and "My volunteer work is very
33
34 important to me." The coefficient alpha was .94.
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38 ***Job interference.*** Job interference was measured with a five-item scale adapted from
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40 Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) family-work conflict measure. Sample items included, "The demands
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42 of volunteering interfere with work-related activities" and "I have to put off doing things at work
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44 because of time demands from my volunteer activities." The coefficient alpha was .88.
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47 ***Job absorption.*** Absorption in one's job was measured with the six-item absorption scale
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49 from Rich, LePine, & Crawford (2010). Sample items included, "At work, I focus a great deal of
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51 attention on my job" and "At work, I am absorbed by my job." The coefficient alpha was .94.
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54 ***Control variables.*** As with Study 1, common correlates of volunteering – prosocial
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56 identity, age, and gender – were included as controls (Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2002). Prosocial
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58 identity was measured with the three-item scale by Grant et al. (2008) used in Study 1. The
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4 coefficient alpha was .84.
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6 7 **Coworker Measures**

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9 Participants were asked to recommend two coworkers who could complete a survey
10 about their work environment and work-related behaviors. In order to get the most accurate
11 responses possible, participants were instructed to choose coworkers who were in the best
12 position to assess the participant's job responsibilities and behaviors (and not simply the
13 coworkers who liked them the best). Of the 173 participants included in the analyses, 115 had
14 complete responses from both coworkers, and the remaining 59 had complete responses from
15 one coworker. For participants with two coworkers, averages of their responses were calculated
16 and used in the analyses. To determine the level of consistency between coworker ratings, within
17 group agreement (r_{wg}) was calculated (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). This measure typically
18 assumes a uniform distribution (where each response is equally likely). However, in the case of
19 content with socially desirable responses, there is often a negatively skewed distribution (where
20 responses of 4's and 5's are more likely than 1's and 2's). Building on James et al.'s (1984)
21 prescriptions, LeBreton and Senter (2008) provided values to adjust the r_{wg} formula for this
22 tendency, which can be used for a more stringent test of agreement. Following their advice, r_{wg}
23 was calculated for coworker-rated performance based on a moderately skewed distribution.
24 Specific r_{wg} values are given below; all of which exceeded the conventional threshold of .70.
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46 ***Job meaningfulness.*** Coworkers were asked to evaluate the meaningfulness provided by
47 the participants' job, using Spreitzer's (1995) three-item scale. Sample items included, "The
48 work they do is meaningful to them" and "The work they do is very important to them." The
49 coefficient alpha was .91 and the r_{wg} was .87.
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55 ***Job performance.*** Job performance was measured as a second-order variable comprised
56 of task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (Rotundo & Sackett,
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4 2002). Task performance was measured with a five-item scale adapted from MacKenzie,
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7 Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991). Sample items included, “All things considered, my coworker is
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9 outstanding at their job” and “My coworker is one of the best at what they do.” The coefficient
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11 alpha was .95 and the r_{wg} was .83.

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Citizenship behavior was assessed with Lee and Allen’s (2002) eight-item scale designed
to capture citizenship behavior directed toward the company. Sample items included, “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.” All items used a response
scale ranging from 1 = Never to 7 = Always. The coefficient alpha was .94 and the r_{wg} was .88.

Counterproductive behavior was measured with Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) twelve-
item scale that assesses counterproductive behavior directed toward the company. Sample items
included, “They spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working,” and “They
dragged out work in order to get overtime.” All items used a response scale ranging from 1 =
Never to 7 = Always. The coefficient alpha was .89 and the r_{wg} was .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 it was controlled for when analyzing job performance. Sample items included, “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.” The coefficient alpha was .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

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4 was fully latent except for the interaction term and the independent variables that comprised the
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6 interaction term (job and volunteer meaningfulness). These exceptions were modeled as single
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8 indicators in order to test moderation following past recommendations, as described below
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10 (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992). This measurement
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12 model provided good fit to the data (χ^2 (df = 1201) = 2183.63; CFI = .94; IFI = .94; RMSEA =
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14 .059). Paths were then added to create the structural model as depicted in Figure 1, which also
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16 provided good fit to the data (χ^2 (df = 1237) = 2311.26; CFI = .93; IFI = .93; RMSEA = .061).
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21 Moderation was tested within structural equation modeling in accordance with prior
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23 recommendations (Cortina et al., 2001; Mathieu et al., 1992). Scale scores for the relevant
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25 independent variables (job and volunteer meaningfulness) were used as single indicators of latent
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27 variables, with error variances set to (1-alpha)*variance (Kline, 2005). These variables were
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29 mean-centered in order to reduce nonessential multicollinearity and product terms were then
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31 created (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Cortina et al., 2001). These product terms were
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33 used as a single indicators of the latent product variables, with the error variances set to (1-
34
35 alpha)*variance (Kline, 2005). The product term alphas were created using Equation 14 in
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37 Cortina et al. (2001): $[(\text{reliability}_X * \text{reliability}_Z) + r^2_{XZ}] / (1 + r^2_{XZ})$, where X is the independent
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39 variable, Z is the moderator, and r_{XZ} is the correlation between the two latent variables.
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46 Insert Table 3 and Figure 2 about here
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51 Hypotheses 3 through 5 focused on the role of job meaningfulness in volunteering.
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53 Hypothesis 3 and 4 predicted that volunteer meaningfulness and job meaningfulness would be
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55 positively related to volunteering, respectively. Looking first at the volunteer characteristics as
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57 controls, prosocial identity was significantly related to volunteering ($b = .14$), but age and gender
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4 were not. As shown in Figure 2, the relationship between volunteer meaningfulness and
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6
7 volunteering was positive and significant ($b = .47$), controlling for job meaningfulness.
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9 Similarly, the relationship between job meaningfulness and volunteering was positive and
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11 significant ($b = .15$), controlling for volunteer meaningfulness. Thus, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were
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13 supported.
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16 Hypothesis 5 predicted that job meaningfulness would moderate the relationship between
17
18 volunteer meaningfulness and volunteering. As shown in Figure 2, the job meaningfulness X
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20 volunteer meaningfulness product term was statistically significant. Figure 3 presents a graphic
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22 representation of this relationship (see Cohen et al., 2003, pp. 272-281 for a discussion of the
23
24 procedures used to plot the interaction). As predicted, the relationship between volunteer
25
26 meaningfulness and volunteering was more positive when job meaningfulness was low.
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30 Taken together, Hypotheses 3-5 provide evidence of an integration of the enhancement
31
32 and compensation perspectives. The positive trend between job meaningfulness and
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34 volunteering, controlling for volunteer meaningfulness, provides support for the enhancement
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36 lens. This result replicates the positive trend that was captured with the indirect effect through
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38 voracity in Study 1. Further, it demonstrates that the relationship remains when the variables are
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40 measured by different sources and when controlling for volunteer meaningfulness. This pattern
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42 suggests that, in general, employees' desire for meaningful experiences grows from their positive
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44 work experiences and translates into increased volunteering. At the same time, the nature of the
45
46 interaction between job and volunteer meaningfulness provides support for the compensation
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48 lens. Employees who report lower levels of meaningfulness in their jobs may also increase
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50 volunteering to the extent that it provide the desired sense of meaning.
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55 The remaining hypotheses (Hypothesis 6 and 7) predicted indirect relationships between
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57 volunteering and job performance. The relevant path coefficients are presented in Figure 2 and
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4 the indirect effects displayed in Table 4. The significance of these indirect effects was tested with
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6 RMediation (MacKinnon et al., 2004; 2007). Hypothesis 6 stated that volunteering would have a
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8 negative indirect relationship with job performance through job interference. As shown in Figure
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10 2, these relationships were not significant, therefore the indirect relationship was not significant
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12 and Hypothesis 6 not supported. Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive indirect relationship between
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14 volunteering and job performance through job absorption. The relationship between volunteering
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16 and job absorption was significant ($b = .21$), as was the relationship between job absorption and
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18 the job performance facets ($b = .14$ for task performance, $b = .14$ for citizenship behavior, and b
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20 $= -.24$ for counterproductive behavior). Confirming Hypothesis 7, the indirect relationships were
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22 also significant. Combined, the results for Hypotheses 6 and 7 suggest that volunteering is more
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24 beneficial for the work domain than it is harmful.
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32 Insert Table 4 and Figure 3 about here
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36 37 **GENERAL DISCUSSION**

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39 In response to the growing trend of volunteering in the United States (Brudney & Gazley,
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41 2006), organizational scholars are beginning to consider the intersection of volunteer and work
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43 domains (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Booth et al, 2009; Grant, 2012; Jones, 2010). Yet, as noted at the
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45 outset, the nature of the relationship between individuals' jobs and volunteering remains unclear.
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47 For example, how do their work experiences, such as meaningfulness, impact volunteering?
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49 Likewise, how does their volunteering impact work-related outcomes? Drawing from theorizing
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51 on multiple domains, this manuscript conducted two studies designed to address these questions
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53 (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).
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57 **Implications for Theory and Research**

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4 At a global level, the focus of these studies on the intersection of the volunteer and work
5 domains represents significant advancements in both literature streams. Given the growing
6 prevalence of volunteering in people's lives (Brudney & Gazley, 2006), it is prudent that
7 organizational scholars understand how the volunteer and work domains relate to one another. In
8 doing so, this manuscript responds to recent calls for researchers to join the discussion of
9 employee volunteering that is currently dominated by practitioners (Grant, 2012) and to
10 contribute theoretical perspectives to a literature that is currently lacking conceptual models
11 (Tschirhart, 2005). Relying on multiple domain perspectives to examine the links between
12 volunteering and work also extends the scope of that literature, which has been criticized for
13 limiting the discussion to work-family issues (e.g., Westring & Ryan, 2010).
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27 The pattern of results in these two studies offers specific contributions to the volunteering
28 and multiple domain literature streams as well. First, prior explorations of the antecedents of
29 volunteering have focused on the volunteer context and volunteer characteristics (Penner, 2002;
30 Wilson, 2000). In accordance with that research, this manuscript demonstrates that the
31 meaningfulness of volunteer activities can drive volunteering. There is no research, however, on
32 the role of the work domain – a factor that plays a large role in most volunteers' lives (Wilson,
33 2000) – in regard to volunteering. To address this gap, this manuscript assessed the importance
34 of job meaningfulness, an important factor of work, for volunteering. Although the two studies
35 examined this relationship differently – Study 1 directly operationalized the mechanisms
36 underlying the theorizing, while Study 2 examined the relationship in the presence of volunteer
37 meaningfulness – the results of both support a positive trend between meaningful job
38 experiences and volunteering. This type of behavioral influence across domains supports the
39 enhancement perspective. The results from Study 2 build on this finding to provide some support
40 for the compensation perspective when considered in tandem with this positive enhancement
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4 trend. That is, when jobs are less meaningful, employees are more likely to increase volunteering
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6 in order to gain that desired sense of meaning in life. Thus, in addition to employees volunteering
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8 in response to a growing desire for meaning from the work domain, they may also volunteer to
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10 compensate for jobs that do not provide enough meaning. Combined, these findings not only
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12 demonstrate the significant role of the work domain for volunteering, but also reinforce the
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14 previously demonstrated significance of volunteer organization characteristics as well as the
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16 importance of the connection between the two domains.
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21 These results advance knowledge about multiple domains by addressing two relatively
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23 unexplored aspects of that literature. Although the theoretical lenses in the multiple domain
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25 literature are well established, they have been criticized for being too abstract, making empirical
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27 tests of them difficult and rendering them more as metaphors than theories (Edwards &
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29 Rothbard, 2000; Rice et al., 1980). Study 1 represents one of the first attempts to operationalize
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31 the underlying mechanisms in two of these theoretical lenses, compensation (via wanderlust) and
32
33 spillover (via voracity). Additionally, the multiple domain literature implies that various
34
35 perspectives – such as compensation and enhancement – can coexist (e.g., Kando & Summers,
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37 1971). Study 2 represents one of the first empirical demonstrations of these perspectives
38
39 simultaneously and the potential for interactive effects between these perspectives.
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44 Second, the present model included the potential for volunteering to exhibit beneficial
45
46 and detrimental effects on job performance. Although organizational scholars have become
47
48 interested in the consequences of volunteering for the work domain, studies have not yet
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50 addressed the performance implications (for an exception see Jones, 2010) nor have they
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52 considered the potential for mixed effects of volunteering on job performance. The results show
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54 a positive indirect relationship between volunteering and job performance through job
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56 absorption. Contrary to predictions, however, volunteering does not appear to hinder job
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4 performance by interfering with one's job. These findings lend support for domain synergies in
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6 the debate on the relative synergies and conflicts of activities in multiple domains (see
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9 Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

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11 It should also be noted that this research represents an initial step toward establishing the
12
13 validity of a volunteering scale. A measure of volunteering has not yet been validated and
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15 published in a top management or psychology journal. Existing research has instead relied on
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17 one item ad-hoc measures of volunteer frequency or a measure of specific – and thus limited –
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19 volunteer activities (Gillath et al., 2005). The scale items created were shown to be content valid
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21 using quantitative methods (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999), and three independent samples (i.e. the
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23 validation sample, Study 1, and Study 2) supported its factor structure and reliability. Moreover,
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25 the correlation patterns in those samples revealed nomological validity, in terms of convergent,
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27 discriminant, and predictive validity. Thus, while scale development is always an iterative
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29 process, the initial evidence on the psychometric properties of this scale is strong.
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34 **Limitations and Future Research**

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36 As with any study, these studies are subject to some limitations that should be noted. One
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38 limitation is the potential for common method bias in self-reported relationships, which can
39
40 inflate correlations and raise questions about causal direction (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As
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42 discussed above, two common procedural steps are often taken to reduce this risk: temporal
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44 separation and source separation (Doty & Glick, 1998). Whenever possible, one of these
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46 methods was employed and, in some cases, relationships using one method were then replicated
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48 using the other. Although the possibility of reverse causality cannot be completely ruled out,
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50 there was theoretical reasoning to presume the hypothesized causal order was correct. In order to
51
52 truly assess the causal direction between the volunteering and work domains, a cross-lagged
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54 panel design is needed. In the absence of such a design, the validity of the hypothesized causal
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4 order can be supported by theoretical reasoning paired with a comparison to alternative orderings
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6 of the volunteering and work domain relationships. To do so, the respective ordering of
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8 volunteering and work domains in Study 1 and Study 2 were reversed. In each case, the fit of the
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10 hypothesized model was either better or equivalent to the fit of the alternative models. Future
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12 research should consider using a panel design to both explore the direction of the causal
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14 relationship between these domain as well as the potential for reciprocal effects.
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18 Another potential limitation is the current focus on intensity in the volunteering definition
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20 and measure. Although this is consistent with most of the existing volunteering research (see
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22 Wilson, 2000), it is not the only way to conceptualize volunteering. For example, as noted at the
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24 outset, volunteering can also be thought of as direction of effort toward a volunteer activity. This
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26 initial “decision to volunteer” is itself an important criterion, yet it requires different
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28 measurement and theoretical questions. For example, why do employees volunteer versus engage
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30 in some work domain activity? And, why do employees choose their specific volunteer activities
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32 and do these choices relate in some way to their experiences in the work domain? Relatedly,
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34 some researchers also include “longevity” – commitment to the volunteering organization – in
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36 the definition of volunteering (e.g., Penner, 2002). Although this is a valid concern for volunteer
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38 organizations that want to maintain their staff, it can also be operationalized and examined
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40 independently of direction and intensity.
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46 Although this manuscript focused on job meaningfulness as a predictor of volunteering,
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48 there are likely other workplace drivers of the behavior, as well. In an inductive study of
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50 employee volunteers, Geroy et al. (2000) concluded that, after meaningfulness, the primary
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52 reasons that employees volunteered was to gain skills that could be used at work and to make
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54 contacts that could be used at work. Further, volunteer organizations are currently concerned
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56 with the idea of skill-based volunteering, where volunteers apply skills they already have in
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4 order to be useful to the organization. It may also be fruitful to explore the interaction between
5 such workplace drivers and individual volunteer characteristics. Prior volunteering research has
6 indicated that certain characteristics, such as a prosocial nature, are important predictors of
7 volunteering (Carlo et al., 2005; Penner, 2002), and organizational research has long
8 demonstrated that individual and situational factors interact (Bandura, 1986).
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16 On a related note, a potential limitation of this manuscript is the argument that work and
17 volunteer domains are arbitrarily delineated. As the activities of working and volunteering are
18 very similar – they both involve giving time and effort to a planned event – the main
19 differentiating factor is that they occur in different spheres. However, given the rising popularity
20 of corporate volunteer programs (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007), there is
21 increasing potential for overlap between the two domains. This overlap, much like that between
22 work and family in a family business venture, opens the door for interesting research on the
23 “blurring” of domains. For example, the degree of overlap between volunteering and the
24 workplace in corporate volunteer programs may alter employees’ interpretations of both
25 activities. Is volunteering then considered an in-role behavior? Do employees’ opinions of their
26 employer change – for good or for bad – based on the company’s involvement? Drawing from
27 the role segmentation literature (e.g., Kreiner, 2006), it might also be helpful to examine personal
28 preferences for such segmentation or integration.
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46 A limitation specific to Study 2 is the reliance on coworker ratings of job performance.
47 Although it may be preferable to obtain supervisor ratings of these constructs, recent research
48 has suggested that coworkers may be as, if not more, reliable sources of performance ratings than
49 self-reports (e.g., Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). To help ensure the
50 accuracy of these reports, the survey instructions emphasized the importance of choosing
51 coworkers who were in the best position to evaluate the participant’s work experiences and
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4 behaviors. In addition, collecting data from two coworkers provided the opportunity to assess the
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6 level of agreement between coworker evaluations. As an added precaution, coworkers'
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8 opportunity to observe participant job performance was controlled in those analyses. Future
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10 research may consider obtaining supervisor reports of job performance, as well as expanding the
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12 conceptualization of job performance. Although the current study demonstrates a relationship
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14 between volunteering and organizationally directed behaviors, it is also likely that volunteering
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16 would influence on-the-job behaviors directed at coworkers.
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20 **Practical Implications**

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22 The results of this study offer a number of practical implications. The most
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24 straightforward of which is that employee volunteering need not be harmful, and may even
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26 facilitate, job performance. Being aware of this result should allow employers to better handle
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28 scenarios of employee volunteering when they arise. One avenue through which this information
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30 may be beneficial is in the selection process. Although employers may be inclined to shy away
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32 from hiring employees who are involved in their community for fear that it will distract them
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34 from their work, the results suggest that volunteers may be better performers. This is particularly
35
36 relevant for jobs that favor agreeable and extraverted employees, because individuals with these
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38 traits are also more likely to volunteer (Carlo, Okun, Knight, & de Guzman, 2005). Furthermore,
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40 understanding the benefits of volunteering may encourage employers to join the growing trend of
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42 formalizing corporate support of volunteering (Aguilera et al., 2007).
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48 Managers may also benefit from understanding the role of job meaningfulness in
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50 volunteering. It might be natural for a manager to be skeptical about employees' extracurricular
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52 activities – wondering if these activities are pulling employees away from the workplace or if
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54 they are signals that an employee is thinking about leaving (e.g., Greenhaus & Parasuraman,
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56 1986). However, the current results suggest that the opposite is more likely – that employee
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4 volunteering is an indication that their jobs have inspired them. In the alternative scenario, where
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6 employees believe they are lacking desired meaning in their jobs, volunteering may serve to
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8 compensate for that deficit. In that case, managers may consider encouraging volunteering that
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10 offers the opportunity for employees to fulfill those desires. That way, managers may be able to
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12 maintain employee attitudes and motivation when they might otherwise have suffered from such
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14 deficiencies in the job, as well as retain employees who may otherwise have left for another job
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16 (see Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
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20 **Conclusion**

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22 As employees become more and more involved in volunteering, it is important for
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24 researchers and managers to understand the nature of the relationship between the volunteer and
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26 work domains. The present studies represent one of the first steps in this endeavor,
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28 demonstrating mutual effects of an individual's job on volunteering and vice versa. In particular,
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30 these studies show that work experiences – namely job meaningfulness – spark an increase in
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32 volunteering, and that employees may rely on meaningful volunteer opportunities to compensate
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34 for lower levels of meaningfulness on the job. Likewise, volunteering appears to be beneficial for
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36 an individual's job performance.
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TABLE 1

Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations

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

Note. $n = 208$. Coefficient alphas are listed on the diagonal. * $p < .05$.

TABLE 2

Study 1 Structural Equation Results

Independent Variable	Dependent 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*

Note. $n = 208$. * $p < .05$

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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	11
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 listed on the diagonal. ^b Citizenship and counterproductive behavior were measured on a 7 point scale.

* $p < .05$.

TABLE 4

**Study 2 Total and Indirect Effects of Volunteering on
Job Performance and Life Satisfaction ^a**

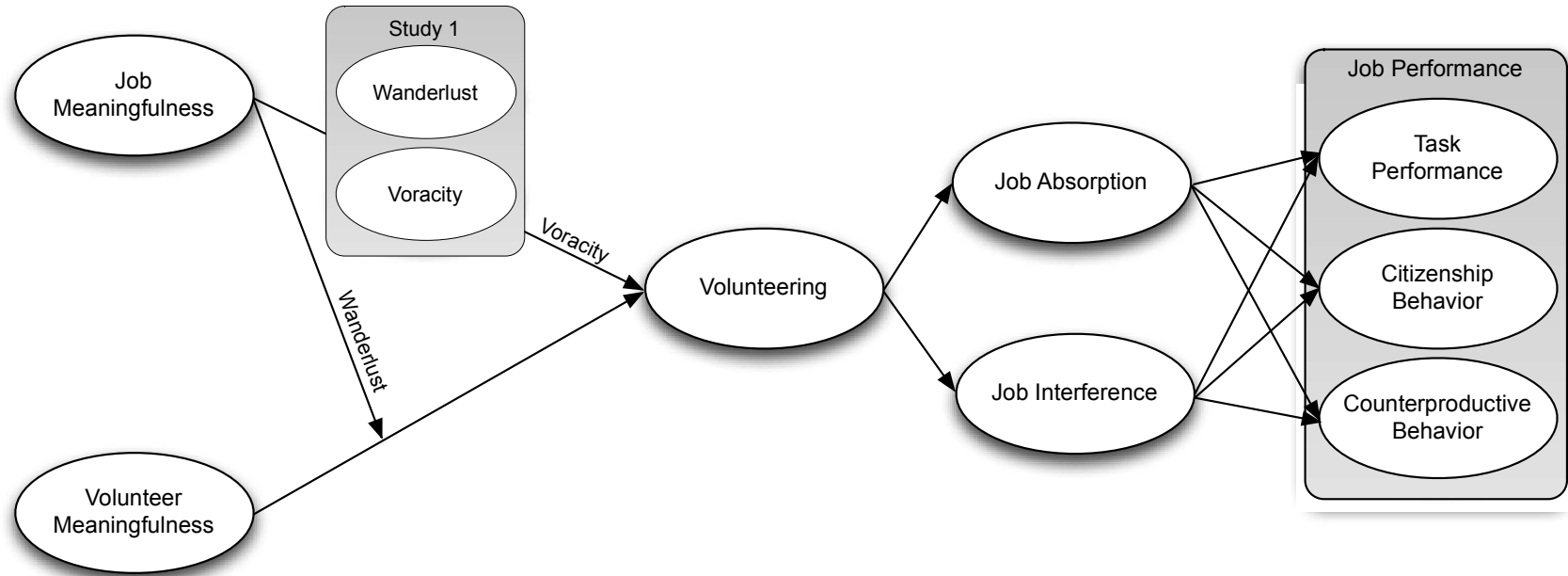
Dependent Variable	Total Effect	Mediator	Indirect Effect
Task Performance	.19*	Job Absorption	.03*
		Job Interference	.01
Citizenship Behavior	.20*	Job Absorption	.03*
		Job Interference	.01
Counterproductive Behavior	-.20*	Job Absorption	-.05*
		Job Interference	.00

^a $n = 171$. * $p < .05$, one-tailed.

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FIGURE 1

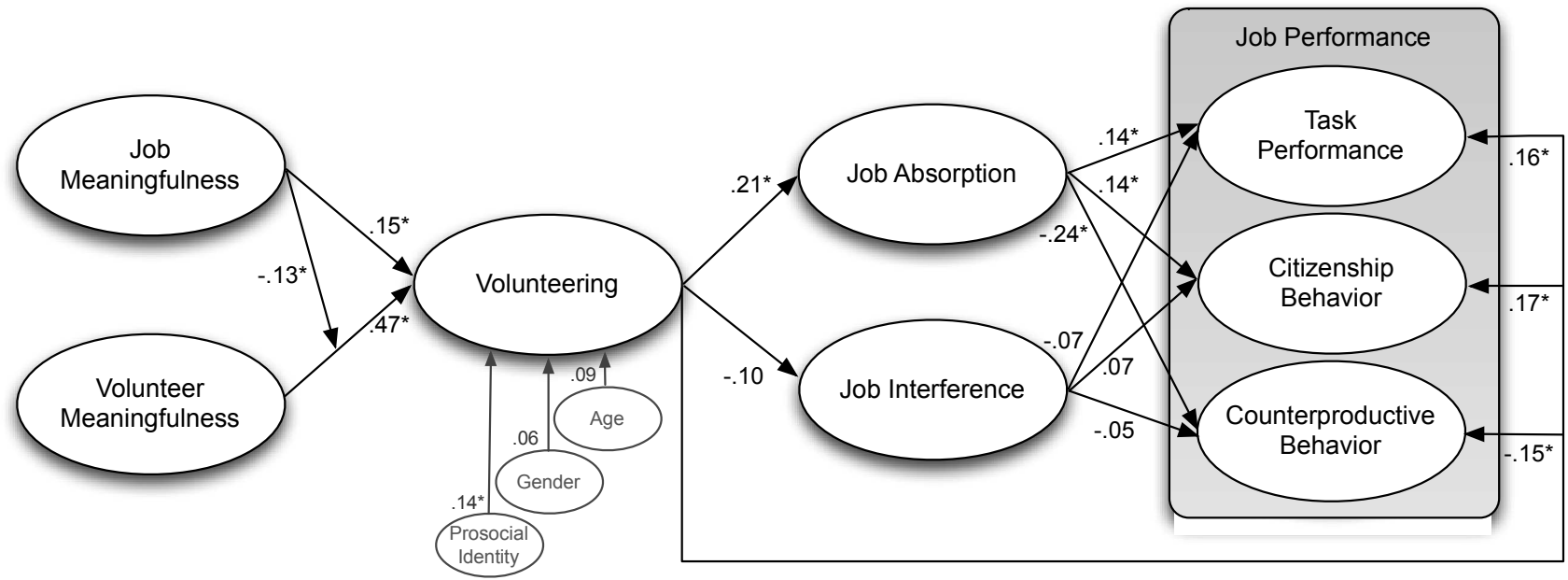
Conceptual Figure: Integration of Study 1 into Study 2



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FIGURE 2

Summary of Study 2 Results ^a



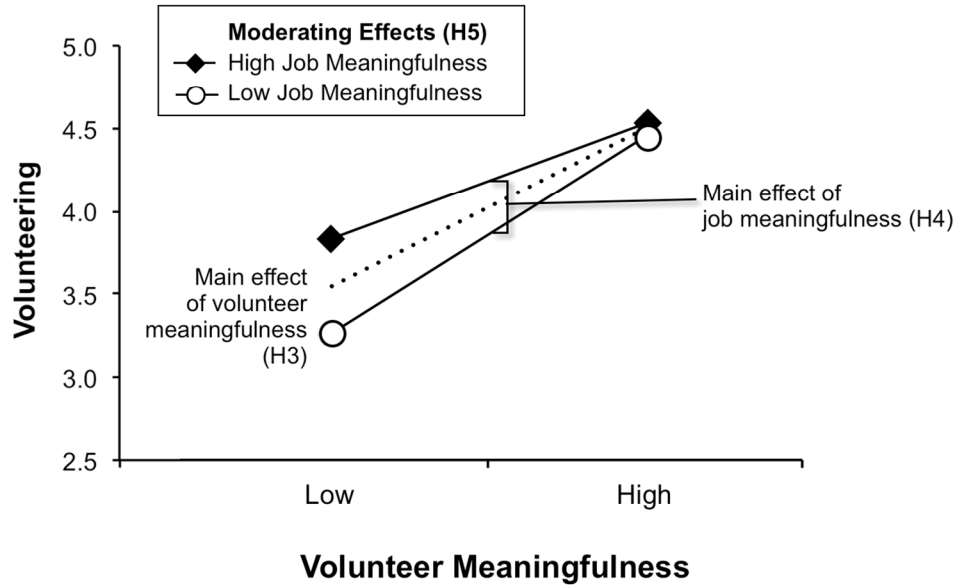
^a Path coefficients are unstandardized. Coworkers' opportunity to observe performance was controlled in the regressions for task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (path coefficient were .38*, .34*, and -.13, respectively).

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

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FIGURE 3

Moderating Effect of Job Meaningfulness on the Volunteer Meaningfulness-Volunteering Relationship



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Biographical Sketch

Jessica B. Rodell (jrodell@uga.edu) is an assistant professor in the Department of Management at the University of Georgia’s Terry College of Business. She received her Ph.D. and MBA from the University of Florida’s Warrington College of Business Administration. Her research interests include employee volunteering, organizational justice, and emotions.