

**THE SPILLOVER EFFECT OF EMPLOYEES' PARTICIPATION IN
CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY PROGRAMS FROM WORK TO
THEIR PERSONAL LIVES**

by

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

The Spillover Effect of Employees' Participation in Corporate Social Responsibility

Programs from Work to Their Personal Lives

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There has been a growing interest in studying the influence of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on employees. Previous studies focused on the consequences of CSR on employees within the organizational context. In this dissertation, I propose that CSR affects employees' behaviors outside of the organizational context too. I hypothesized that when employees participate in CSR programs, they experience positive outcomes, which enables them to be more socially responsible and transfer such behaviors to other roles outside the work context.

I then introduce organizational identification as a mediator that can influence employees' behavior beyond the work context. I assert that organizational identification affects how employees perceive their identities, as a result of exercising these new socially responsible roles. The results demonstrate that when employees are involved in socially responsible behaviors at work and view themselves as members of a socially responsible organization, they develop a similar view of themselves outside of work, and hence, they demonstrate similar behaviors outside of work.

I also examine positive affective residue as a mediator that explains the positive relationship between socially responsible behavior at work and outside of work. The results demonstrate that when employees participate in socially responsible programs at

work, they experience a positive affective residue that strengthens their identification with their organization and motivates them to repeat and transfer similar experiences outside of work. Consequently, employees who participate in CSR programs at work will be more involved in socially responsible programs outside of work.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The rise of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has stimulated a significant amount of researcher interest. Aguinis and Glavas (2012) divided CSR into three research streams. The first is focused on institutional-level issues related to CSR, such as institutional and stakeholder pressures that influence organizations' socially responsible corporate behavior (Campbell, 2007; Clarkson, 1995). The second stream of research focuses on organizational issues related to CSR, such as the relationship between types of CSR programs and corporate reputation, as perceived by consumers (Ellen, Webb & Mohr, 2006; Yoon, Gürhan-Canli & Schwarz, 2006). The third stream, which has not received a great amount of attention, focuses on micro issues related to the consequences of CSR on employees' attitudes and behaviors within the organizational context, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to leave (Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss & Angermeier, 2011; Kim, Lee, Lee & Kim, 2010; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008). This dissertation falls within the last stream and sheds light on important issues currently unaddressed in the literature regarding the effects of CSR on employees' lives outside of work. More specifically, the primary goal of this dissertation is to focus on the effects of participation in two types of CSR programs--work volunteering programs (WVP) and work donation programs (WDP)--on employees' decisions to engage in similar behaviors outside of their work setting.

I begin by introducing a model which proposes that participation in CSR programs at work will motivate employees to participate in similar behaviors outside of work. My model builds upon role accumulation theory, identity theory, and affective

residue theory. Using role accumulation theory, I theorize that when employees participate in CSR programs that they consider to be part of their roles as members of a socially responsible organization, they experience positive outcomes such as new perspectives and positive emotions. These outcomes then enhance individuals' behaviors in other roles, including those outside the workplace. Behaviors, perspectives, and emotions can transfer from one domain into another based on the permeability of role boundaries. Therefore, some behaviors might transfer and others might not. For instance, a parent might start to adopt socially responsible behaviors in the home after adopting them at work, even though this person will still behave as a parent at home, not a manager.

I then suggest that CSR programs provide employees with new perspectives related to their identity that influence employees to transfer their socially responsible behaviors from work to home, or another non-work area. Based on the assumption that individual identities are malleable, I expect that identification with an organization and its values will affect individual identity, and thereby influence behavior outside of work. Employees who participate in CSR programs will identify with their organization and its socially responsible values. Hence, employees will start to behave in more socially responsible ways outside of work as a result of their identification with their socially responsible organization.

I also hypothesize that positive affective residue attached to CSR experiences plays an important role in motivating employees to repeat their socially responsible behaviors outside of work. As employees experience positive affective residue at work due to their participation in CSR programs, they will repeat similar behaviors outside of

work in order to attain similar positive emotions. Although organizational identification is considered a cognitive connection between employees and their organizations, emotions could also play a role in developing that connection (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Therefore, experiencing positive affective residue as a result of participating in CSR programs will strengthen the relationship between participating in CSR programs at work and organizational identification.

This dissertation contributes to several streams of research. I first link CSR literature to work-family literature by identifying CSR influences on employee behavior outside of work and highlighting the positive consequences of organizational identification that occur outside the context of work. Previous literature has explained how organizational identification can motivate people to perform better for their organization while potentially resulting in work-home conflict (Dukerich, Kramer & Parks, 1998). I provide a different view: I theorize that organizational identification can also help motivate employees to be more socially responsible citizens in their communities. In other words, organizational identification will facilitate better employee performance outside of the organization, to the extent that organizational identification leads to work-family enrichment, rather than conflict.

Second, I contribute to the CSR and work-family literature by including the influence of positive affective residue. Generally, the emotional perspective has not been given attention in the CSR literature. Positive affective residue, in particular, has not been studied within the CSR context. I illustrate how positive affective residue enriches the relationship between the work and non-work domains that are traditionally assumed to deplete employee resources through their conflicting demands.

In the next section of this paper, Chapter 2, I introduce the reader to the relevant CSR and work-family literature. I then present the primary model of the dissertation and describe Study 1 in detail. In Study 1, I test the main relationship between participation in volunteering programs at work and outside of work. Chapter 3 focuses on Study 2, where I test the model in Study 1 with a different sample as well as the spillover relationship between participation in work donation programs and donating outside of work. Chapter 4 presents organizational identification as a cognitive mediator that affects the relationship between participation in CSR programs and participation in socially responsible programs outside of work. In Chapter 5, I describe, positive affective residue and test it as a process variable that explains how the spillover effect occurs. I also hypothesize that affective residue moderates the relationship between participation in CSR programs and organizational identification. In Chapter 6, I present Study 3, which tests the entire dissertation model. In Chapter 7, I present several post hoc analyses which focus on the moderation effects of organizational identification, empathy, matching recipient organizations, and industry on the dissertation's main model. In addition, I separate the results based on age and type of recipient organization for volunteering and donations. In the final chapter, Chapter 8, I explain how my study findings relate to the current literature and pave the way for future research.

Chapter 2

Corporate Social Responsibility

When defining CSR, I adopt Carroll's (1979) definition, which encompasses four categories: economic, legal, ethical and discretionary. An organization typically seeks to be profitable, but it should also conduct its business within the legal rules and ethical principles. In addition, the organization should work to be a good corporate citizen and give back to its community. The discretionary aspect includes philanthropy, volunteering and charity programs to signal a company's adoption of CSR values and engagement in creating a social impact (Carroll, 1979).

Explicit CSR consists of the policies, strategies and programs that are voluntarily implemented by the organization and that provide value to society and business (Matten & Moon, 2008). These programs are considered institutionalized activities that provide organizations with a variety of benefits to both internal and external stakeholders (Pirsch, Gupta & Grau, 2007). These programs are usually sponsored by the organization and involve the employees who wish to volunteer their time, skills and/or money to support the community (Bartel, 2001).

CSR programs are implemented in different forms. Some take the form of volunteering programs. For example, Chevron employees in Contra Costa, California helped the Food Bank load food and distribute it to local agencies (Chevron, 2009) and employees from Home Depot in Atlanta, Georgia, renovated Spink Collins Park (Home Depot, 2009). Other organizations focus on charitable donations to non-profit organizations that focus on social issues such as poverty or the environment.

The growth in CSR programs has motivated researchers to investigate the consequences of adopting CSR and CSR programs. Many studies have focused on the relationship between social responsibility and financial performance (Orlitzky, Schmidt & Rynes, 2003; Pava & Krausz, 1996). Previous studies have focused on the effects of CSR on different types of stakeholders, from shareholders and top management to employees and customers. Some researchers have placed their focus on how employees affect the organization's CSR policies (Buchholtz, Amason & Rutherford, 1999; Glac, 2010). Others have focused on CSR's influence on employees--specifically, the influence of CSR on employees' organizational citizenship behavior (Hasen et al., 2011; Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera & Williams, 2006), turnover intentions (Hansen et al., 2011; Riordan, Gatewood & Bill, 1997), organizational commitment (Collier & Esteban, 2007; Kim et al., 2010; Maignan, Ferrell & Hult, 1999; Peterson, 2004; Rupp et al., 2006; Turker, 2009), job satisfaction (Rupp et al., 2006; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008), employers' attractiveness to prospective employees (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Backhaus, Stone & Heiner, 2002; Turban & Greening, 1997) and organizational identification (Bartel, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Larson, Flaherty, Zablah, Brown & Wiener, 2008; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008; Rupp et al., 2006). While other research provides evidence of CSR's influence on consumers' intentions and behaviors (Ellen et al., 2006; Lichtenstein, Drumwright & Braig, 2004; Maignan et al., 1999; Marin & Ruiz, 2007; Marin, Ruiz & Rubio, 2009; Mohr & Webb, 2005; Mohr, Webb & Harris, 2001; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

These studies have illustrated how CSR influences employee and customer intentions and behaviors within one domain, either at work or in their personal lives.

However, little research has focused on the spillover effect of CSR programs to employees' lives outside of the context of work. Therefore, in this study, I focus on the influence of CSR programs on employees' personal lives. More specifically, my research question is: Do employees become more socially responsible citizens as a result of participating in CSR programs?

Work and non-work as interrelated domains

Work and family domains were traditionally viewed as separate domains that do not affect each other (Eby, Maher & Butts, 2010). This view was based on the assumption that individuals behave in ways specific to the social norms that are implicitly expected within each role (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Social identity and social categorization theories (Tajfel, 1982; Turner, 1985) also strengthen the segmentation perspective. They assume that people develop categories to classify themselves and others based on socially constructed groups as a way to perceive and understand life. Such a view creates boundaries around domains or social groups, as a means to simplify the world around us and to guide our behavior according to social norms or socially constructed roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Hence, each domain will have its own role identity, expectations and behaviors. However, there is an increasing research interest in how work and non-work domains interact with and affect each other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

The domain integration perspective is a growing research stream that provides an alternate perspective to the segmentation view. It states that the boundaries between domains are permeable such that a person can enact different roles, some of which are not related to the domain that the individual is presently in. For example, a manager might adopt his or her role as a parent when thinking or talking to an employee. On the other

hand, a parent might act as a manager when he or she is at home. Therefore, different roles can exist within one domain; these roles are facilitated by the permeability of the domain and the role boundaries (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000). This may lead to conflicting roles or demands from different domains. The trend in the work-family relationship research is primarily to focus on the conflicting demands between these two domains and the negative consequences resulting from the conflicts (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

The work family conflict literature is primarily based on the assumption that individuals have limited resources and competing demands from different domains (Rothbard, 2001). The tension between limited resources and conflicting demands would place the individual in a difficult situation that might lead to stress and other negative psychological effects, which also affects the individual's involvement as an employee at work or as a family member at home (Rothbard, 2001). Two meta-analyses have shown that work-family conflict is related to job satisfaction, burnout, job performance, absenteeism, turnover intentions, job commitment and involvement (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). Although, the work/non-work relationship does not always lead to conflict and negative consequences. Contrary to the conflict view, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) shows that individuals who have more than one role volunteer more than others. For example, married couples volunteer more than single individuals. Full-time employees volunteer more than part-time and unemployed individuals (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Therefore, the relationship between different domains of life does not necessarily lead to resource depletion, but may also lead to enrichment.

Enrichment is a positive spillover in which one domain positively affects the individual's mood, values or behaviors in the other domain. This positive spillover relationship has received more attention in the literature in recent years (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Given that the work-family spillover assumes that work and home life are interrelated domains, each domain may positively affect the affective, cognitive and behavioral experiences that occur in the other domain (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). Hence, mood spillover might happen from family to work, and vice versa (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). For example, a positive mood from the family domain might affect work performance as a result of enhancing cognitive functioning resulting in positive interactions with others at work. Rewards at work can affect a person's mood, which could lead to having a positive mood at home (Judge & Ilies, 2004). Skills attained at work might also be exhibited within the family domain. Values attained and behaviors exercised at work might also affect an individual's values and behaviors within the family or home domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Therefore, mood, emotions, skills and behavior could act as resources to enrich roles in other domains.

Benefits of multiple roles

Multiple roles do not only give people responsibilities, they also provide individuals with different resources and rewards that could help or change behaviors in different domains. Sieber (1974) proposed role accumulation theory which highlights the importance of role resources and supports the assumptions of domain enrichment.

Role accumulation theory suggests that engaging in different roles leads to role enrichment, in which roles complement each other by providing different resources that can change or improve people's performance in their roles. These resources could include privileges, social relationships, views and/or perspectives (Sieber, 1974). Engagement in different roles also provides personal enrichment resulting in new perspectives and views that could influence behavior in different domains. For example, Sumer and Knight (2001) found that work and non-work roles complement each other through a positive spillover of knowledge, perspectives and skills. In their study, employees stated that the perspectives, knowledge and skills that they attained from one domain affected their behavior in another domain (Sumer & Knight, 2001). Hence, based on the theory's assumptions, individuals may change their behaviors in different domains as a result of their experiences, as well as the knowledge, views and perspectives they gain from one of their roles.

Resources associated with roles include social connections. Kingston and Nock (1992) found that married women with part-time jobs outside the home were more involved in their communities than full-time homemakers. Engagement in the community was influenced by the social connections female part-time employees developed at work. The jobs provided these women with access to social connections, a resource that changed their behavior in another domain.

In addition to social connections, participation in CSR programs also provides positive other outcomes to individuals. Clary et al. (1998) found that volunteers benefit from their experiences, and such benefits, which could be viewed as resources, encourage the volunteers to repeat their engagement in socially responsible programs. People

continue their participation because involvement provides resources that develop their perspectives, views and career/life goals. Clary and colleagues (1998) also found that individuals engage in volunteerism in order to learn, utilize their knowledge in different environments, develop new social connections, strengthen their current social connections, create opportunities for career achievement, and express their values and concern for others.

Employees who engage in socially responsible programs may also develop new perspectives, either toward their identity or toward the cause or group they are helping. For example, Snyder, Omoto, and Crain (1999) found that volunteers who participated in an AIDS awareness campaign became more aware of AIDS issues and developed different perspectives towards people with AIDS.

I assert that when an organization adopts CSR values and sponsors CSR programs, its employees, who participate in such programs, will start to adopt socially responsible values and perspectives through both their daily work activities and participation in these CSR programs. Employees will become more acquainted with the significance of CSR issues. The socially responsible behaviors that employees engage in as part of their roles at work provide them with resources that affect their behaviors in other roles and domains. As a result of participating in socially responsible programs at work, employees will start to engage in similar behaviors outside of work.

Based on the work-family enrichment literature and role accumulation theory, I contend that participation in CSR programs will enrich the participants' perspectives and views, and thus, will affect their behaviors beyond the organizational context. Hence, the

CSR programs that employees engage in at work have a spillover effect into their lives outside of work.

Hypothesis 1: Employee participation in work volunteering programs is positively related to frequency of volunteering outside of work.

Study 1

Methods

Participants and procedures

Students recruited at a northeastern university in the United States were given a survey which asked if they had work experience and had participated in work volunteering programs (WVP). The survey then asked about personal volunteering experiences outside the context of work volunteer programs. Of the 122 students who completed the survey, 28 participated in work volunteer programs and 62 had volunteering experiences. 45% of the sample was female and 74% of the sample was between 18 and 24 years old.

Measures

Participation in work volunteering programs. Participants were asked “Did you participate in volunteering programs through your current/previous employer(s)?” This is a dichotomous variable, where the options were “Yes” or “No.”

Volunteering outside of work. Two measures of volunteering outside of work were used. One measure was perceptual and asked for the study participant’s sense of frequency of volunteering. The second measure was a self-report of hours volunteered.

Frequency of volunteering. This measure consists of three statements using a 5-point Likert scale where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The statements are “I frequently volunteer in my personal time,” “I do not volunteer in my personal time,” and “I rarely volunteer in my personal time.” The Cronbach’s alpha measure was .71.

Volunteering hours outside of work. Participants were asked the number of hours they had volunteered in the last year that were not part of the work volunteer programs.

Results and Discussion

Means, standard deviations and correlations are illustrated in Table 1. As hypothesized, a statistically significant correlation exists between participating in work volunteer programs and the frequency and number of hours of volunteering outside of work.

 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

The hypotheses were tested using regression analyses. In Hypothesis 1, I predicted that there is a positive relationship between participation in work volunteering programs and volunteering outside of work in both frequency and hours volunteered. As shown in Tables 2 and 3, there is a statistically significant relationship between participating in work volunteer programs and volunteering frequency (β .48, $p < .01$) and volunteering hours outside of work (β .30, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported using two measures of volunteering (frequency and hours volunteered).

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

As expected, when individuals were exposed to volunteering experiences at work, they reported higher levels of involvement in volunteering outside of work. CSR programs also have another important element--charitable donations--that is often paired with volunteering. In Study 2, I test the relationship between donating at work and outside of work with a population of adults who have work experience.

Chapter 3

Volunteering and donations

Volunteering and donating are theorized as very similar behaviors (Lee, Piliavin & Call, 1999). Some studies consider volunteering and donations to be forms of helping and prosocial behaviors (Grant & Dutton, 2012). Some researchers developed synonymous terms for these behaviors, such as volunteering time and money or donating time and money (i.e. Bryant, Jeon-Slaughter, Kang & Tax, 2003; Duncan, 1999; Feldman, 2010).

Previous research has illustrated that volunteering and donations have similar antecedents (Lee, Piliavin & Call, 1999). Based on a national charity survey dataset, Lee, Piliavin & Call (1999) found that parental modeling, personal norms and previous experiences predict both volunteering and donations. Bryant and colleagues (2003) found that requests for participation are also an important predictor of both donation and volunteering behaviors. Bekkers (2010) found individual decisions to volunteer and donate were influenced by similar social and psychological incentives.

Based on role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974), I expect that donating outside of work is also related to participation in work donation programs. According to Sieber (1974) different roles provide resources to individuals such as views, skills, social connections, etc. In Study 1, I showed that the frequency of volunteering outside of work is related to participation in work volunteering programs. Since volunteering and donation experiences have been shown to have similar antecedents (Lee, Piliavin & Call, 1999), I expect that when individuals participate in donating programs at work they attain resources that affect their donating behavior outside of work.

Hypothesis 2: Employee participation in work donation programs is positively related to the frequency of donating outside of work.

Study 2

Methods

Participants and Procedures

An online survey was designed using Qualtrics and administered on Amazon Turks. Several studies analyzed Mturk results and compared these results with conventional data collection methods (McGeer, 2004; Snyder & Rand, 2003). These researchers found Mturk results conform to the psychometric standards associated with published research papers and that utilizing Mturk is as reliable as traditional data collection methods (McGeer, 2004). The sample was also found to be representative of the population of the U.S. (Snyder & Rand, 2003).

In this study, my criteria were participants who are located in the U.S. and who have higher than a 90% approval rating from Mturk; this is a score the individual receives based on the quality of the work he or she submitted for previous requests. The participants were given \$1 as compensation to complete the survey. The average time for survey completion was 36 minutes and 20 seconds. The sample was 44% female. Approximately 20% of the study participants were younger than 25 years old, 60% study were between 25 and 44 years old and 20% were above 44 years old. About 67% of participants had a college degree, 16% had a high school degree and 17% had a graduate

degree. The average work experience was 4 years and 4 months. The total number of participants in this study was 96.

Independent variables

Participation in volunteering programs at work. I used three items to evaluate the individual's frequency of participation in volunteering programs. The items included: "I frequently volunteer through my employer(s)," "I do not volunteer through my employer(s)," and "I rarely volunteer through my employer(s)." Respondents used a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= "Strongly disagree" and 5= "Strongly agree." The Cronbach's alpha score was .73.

Participation in donation programs at work. I used three items to assess the individual's frequency of participation in donation programs: "I frequently donate through my employer(s)," "I do not donate through my employer(s)," and "I rarely donate through my employer(s)." Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= "Strongly disagree" and 5= "Strongly agree." The Cronbach's alpha score was .79.

Dependent variables

Frequency of volunteering outside of work. Three items were used to evaluate the participant's frequency of participation in volunteering programs in their personal time. The questions were: "I frequently volunteer in my personal time," "I do not volunteer in my personal time," and "I rarely volunteer in my personal time." Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= "Strongly disagree" and 5= "Strongly agree." The Cronbach's alpha score was .71.

Frequency of donating outside of work. Three questions asked the participant about the frequency of participation in donation programs in their personal time: “I frequently donate in my personal time (not at work),” “I have not donated in my personal time (not at work),” and “I rarely donate in my personal time (not at work).” Responses were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The Cronbach’s alpha score was .78.

Results

The means, standard deviations and correlations are presented in Table 4. There is a strong correlation between people who volunteered and donated at work, and there is a moderate correlation between people who volunteered and donated outside of work. As with Study 1, there is a statistically significant correlation between volunteering at work and outside of work. The correlation between donating at work and donating outside of work is also statistically significant. Interestingly, the correlation between the different behaviors in a similar domain is higher than the correlation between similar behaviors in different domains. For instance, the correlation between work volunteering and work donations, different behaviors in the same domain, is statistically significant and very strong. Yet, the correlation between work volunteering and volunteering outside of work, the same behaviors in different domains, is also statistically significant, but not as strong as the correlation between work volunteering and work donations.

 INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

As illustrated in Table 5, the relationship between the frequency of volunteering at work and outside of work was found to be statistically significant ($\beta .42, p<.01$). This result aligns with that of Study 1 and supports Hypothesis 1.

I also hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between donating at work and donating outside of work. As shown in Table 6, the relationship is statistically significant ($\beta .26, p<.05$) and supports Hypothesis 2.

 INSERT TABLE 5 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 6 HERE

Conclusions

In Study 2, I collected data from a different sample than in Study 1 and the results of Study 2 were found to align with those of Study 1. The results illustrated that there is a positive statistical significant relationship between participation in work volunteering and donation programs and participation in similar programs outside of work. This study supports the previous literature that showed that although volunteering and donating seem to be two different behaviors, they could have similar antecedents.

Lee, Piliavin, & Call (1999) illustrated that previous volunteering and donating experiences influence intentions to volunteer and donate. Their sample was based on the National Charity Survey. However, their focus was mainly on volunteering and donating participation that occur outside of work. Study 2 supports Lee, Piliavin, & Call's (1999) study and shows that even past experiences that occur in different domains have spillover effects. That is, Study 2 showed that employees' participation in work volunteering and

donation programs is related to their participation outside of work. Study 3 goes a step further to identify positive outcomes that employees attain as result of their participation in CSR programs. These outcomes act as mediators that can explain how the spillover effect occurs. After introducing and testing mediators, I present a post hoc analysis to test if the dissertation model is still supported, even after including the controls and several additional constructs that could affect the spillover relationship.

Chapter 4

The mediation of organizational identification

Organizational identification is an important construct that has been studied in the organizational behavior literature (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley, 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989), because it provides a strong explanation of why certain positive and negative affective and behavioral reactions occur within and outside of the organizational context.

Organizational identification is the degree to which individuals define themselves by the same attributes that they perceive in their organizational identity, which is what they believe is “distinctive, central and enduring” (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994, p.239). Organizational identification is developed through different activities that organizations create, or through symbols or rituals that influence employees’ behavior and interpretation within their organization’s domain (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984). An employee’s perception of organizational identity may be the same as, or different from, the way outsiders think about the organization (Dutton et al., 1994). Organizational identity differs from the construct of construed external image, which is the employee’s perception of how outsiders view the organization. In this dissertation, I focus on identification with the perceived organizational identity, rather than the construed external image. In other words, identification in this paper refers to employees’ own beliefs about the organization, rather than how customers perceive the organization.

Identification develops through a cognitive connection to the organization or through value congruence that occurs between the employee and the organization (Dutton et al., 1994). It occurs in different degrees among employees (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Some employees might have a stronger identification with the organization than others.

Two primary factors affect the strength of the identification: (1) the salience of organization membership to the employee's identity, and (2) the level of similarity perceived between the employee and the characteristics of the organization (Ashforth et al., 2008).

The process of identification is considered either a top-down process or a bottom-up process (Ashforth et al., 2008). The top-down process occurs when an employee identifies with organizational distinctiveness or prestige (Dutton et al., 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Smidts, Pruyn & Van Riel, 2001). On the other hand, the bottom-up process, which I adopt in my theory, develops through feelings, emotions, thoughts and actions that individual's experience. The process of identification is also developed through the enactment of a role and the sense-making process that occurs while enacting that role.

As Weick (1995) states, individuals usually learn about their identities through enacting them into the environment and observing their consequences. By enacting different roles, people undergo a process that forms and maintains their identities (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). Previous research has illustrated that engaging in CSR programs influences the way employees perceive their organizations as well as their organizational identification (Bartel, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Larson et al., 2008; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008).

The link between employees' engagement in CSR programs and organizational identification can develop for a variety of reasons. Bartel (2001) found that employees who participate in CSR programs engage in a social comparison process that makes their membership to their organizations more salient to their identities. Kim et al. (2010) found

that when employees participate, either in designing CSR programs or in implementing them, they feel more attached to their organizations. This attachment affects their identification with the organizations. For these reasons, I expect that participating in work volunteering or donation programs is positively related to organizational identification.

Hypothesis 3: Participation in work volunteering programs relates positively to organizational identification.

Hypothesis 4: Participation in work donation programs relates positively to organizational identification.

The spillover effect of organizational identification

Previous research has primarily focused on the consequences of organizational identification within the organization's context, although organizational identification could be triggered outside the organization's context. Rousseau (1998) categorized identification into two categories: situated and deep identification. Both provide a sense of membership to a social or collective group, yet, they differ in the strength of identification and in the domains activated.

Situated identification is triggered contextually and is not expected to influence identity or behavior in different domains (Rousseau, 1998). Deep identification is a form of identification that influences the self-concept, not only within a specific context, but also in different domains (Rousseau, 1998). Therefore, deep identification is relevant to the conceptualization of identification for this study. Deeply identifying with the organization's socially responsible identity will affect how employees view themselves at home or outside of work. The deep identification process affects the individual's self-concept through the mechanisms discussed in the following section.

Identification and self-concept

Individual identification with an organization influences a person's self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The self-concept is defined as "the totality of self-descriptions and self-evaluations subjectively available to an individual" (Hogg & Abrams, 1988, p. 24). It consists of identities that evolve as a result of the individual's membership to different social groups or as a part of roles that the individual enacts within a social group or organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Identification with an organization affects an individual's self-concept through self-enhancement, self-distinctiveness and self-continuity (Ashforth, 2001; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Gollidge & Scabini, 2006). Self-enhancement implies that individuals define themselves based on certain social groups to improve how they perceive themselves and enhance their self-esteem (Haslam & Ellemers, 2005). People are also motivated to distinguish themselves from others by expressing their values or displaying behaviors to highlight their distinctiveness. In addition, people are motivated to maintain their view of themselves over time and across different domains (Ashforth, 2001). Self-continuity is a consistent perception of one's self-identity that guides individuals to behave in a consistent manner that aligns with how they identify themselves socially (Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Gollidge & Scabini, 2006). All of these three motives imply that individuals will maintain a positive view of the self through differentiating themselves from other social groups by adopting attributes or characteristics of their social group (Ashforth, 2001).

The research on social identification highlights the prototypical behaviors that group members exhibit by being members of a social group (Hogg & Terry, 2000). When

employees work for a socially responsible organization and identify with it, they are likely to adopt the same characteristics, values or behaviors as their organization exhibits particularly those that are considered prototypical behavior of a socially responsible group. Hence, if identification with a socially responsible organization and its values provides employees with self-enhancement and distinctiveness, the employees will continue to identify with similar values and behave consistently across different domains.

Therefore, aligning with the previously mentioned research findings, I expect that employees who participate in CSR programs (i.e., volunteering and donations) will identify with their organizations. As a result of organizational identification, employees will also maintain their positive self-views by practicing similar behaviors in other domains. In other words, they will express a higher preference for socially responsible values (for example, volunteering) and participate in socially responsible programs outside of work. Consequently, organizational identification and its mechanisms influence an employee's self-concept.

I expect that the identification and involvement in socially responsible programs, such as volunteering and donations, will shape an individual's self-concept, which will increase socially responsible behaviors outside of work. When employees highly identify with an organization, their self-concepts are shaped by what they perceive as distinctive, central and enduring characteristics of the organization. Therefore, when employees participate in CSR programs, they perceive their organizations as socially responsible. Social responsibility will also become a more salient component in an employee's self-concept. Employees will identify with socially responsible issues, which will become more relevant to them.

In summary, employees exhibit behaviors outside of work that are consistent with their socially responsible behavior at work, due to maintaining a consistent self-concept or self-continuity motivation.

Hypothesis 5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between participation in work volunteering programs and volunteering outside of work.

Hypothesis 6: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between participation in work volunteering donation programs and donating outside of work.

Chapter 5

Work setting and affective reactions

The effects of affective states on thoughts and behaviors have led to a growing interest in studying the role of emotions at work (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Affective states fall into two categories: emotions and mood (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This study focuses on the influence of emotional reaction on behavior, rather than mood.

Emotions differ from mood in three aspects (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotions are greater in intensity and occur over shorter durations of time. Emotions are more responsive to contextual triggers than moods. Furthermore, emotions can disrupt an individual's cognitive processes. Most importantly, emotions are attached to an object, such as an experience or a behavior (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For example, we are happy because we attended an interesting event, received a gift, received positive feedback or did something uplifting. In contrast, mood is not attached to an object; people might express being in a good or bad mood without mentioning a reason. For example, I might say that I am in a bad or good mood today, without stating what caused the state.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) stated that employees have affective or emotionally rich experiences as a result of their workplace events. Based on the type of emotions experienced, people could either attach positive or negative affective residue. Such attached emotions or affective residue have shown to influence employees' behavior, attitudes and decisions (Grant & Dutton, 2012; Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012).. Previous literature has illustrated that work settings and experiences contain emotional reactions and consequences such as emotion experiences within groups (Barsade, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001) and between leaders and subordinates (Atwater & Carmeli,

2009). Such emotional reactions develop affective residue and could influence the employees' future behaviors (Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012). Furthermore, volunteering and donating experiences are also rich with positive emotions (Clary et al. 1998; Grant & Dutton, 2012; Harbaugh, Mayr, & Burghart, 2007). For example, people who volunteer and help others experience positive affective reactions that positively influence their future volunteering or donating behavior (Clary et al. 1998; Grant & Dutton, 2012). Indeed, the link between volunteering and positive emotions was also identified at the neural level. Volunteering and giving donations were found to stimulate areas in the brain that are related to experiencing pleasure and reward (Harbaugh, Mayr, & Burghart, 2007). Since volunteering and helping others are positively related to positive emotions, I expect that employees who participate in socially responsible programs will have positive affective residue attached to their experiences.

Hypothesis 7: Participation in work volunteering programs relates positively to positive affective residue.

Hypothesis 8: Participation in work donation programs relates positively to positive affective residue.

According to Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall and Zhang (2007), affective residue, or the attachment of information to certain behaviors according to previous experiences, can influence future decisions and behaviors. Affective residue can also create a spillover effect. It does not only influence behavior within the domain in which it was triggered,

but also could affect emotions and behaviors in a different domain (Cardenas, Major & Bernas, 2004; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). For example, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that employees who deal with abusive supervisors continue to be in a negative emotional state and display negative affect and aggressive behaviors towards their family partners.

Baumeister et al. (2007) stated that the attachment of affective reactions to objects provides those objects with a long-term effect on individuals. The effect can have consequences even in different domains. Emotional attachment to experiences or behaviors, i.e., affective residue, is a significant aspect of this study, because such a residue provides people with information and serves as a learning mechanism that will enable emotions to have a long-term effect on individual behaviors.

Affective residue has a long term-effect because it acts as a learning mechanism that motivates individuals either to approach or avoid similar experiences (Baumeister et al., 2007). When individuals are engaged in certain behaviors, they attach present emotions to those behaviors. If an experience was pleasurable, then positive emotions will be linked to that behavior. On the other hand, if the experience was unpleasant, then negative emotions will be attached to the behavior. As a result, people may anticipate emotions that they would experience if similar behaviors were conducted in the future. This attribution and anticipation process would motivate people to perform and repeat similar behaviors (Baumeister et al., 2007). For example, Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth (2012) found that a newcomer's attachment of a positive emotion to an interaction with a supervisor led to more interaction seeking behavior. On the other hand, when negative emotions were attached to interactions with a supervisor, newcomers were more likely to avoid the supervisor.

Viewing emotions and affective residue as sources of information and learning mechanisms provides a different perspective to the emotion literature than the episodic view, which limits the effects of emotions to the context that triggered them. The effect of affective residue crosses domain boundaries, because emotions implicitly affect cognition (Baumeister et al., 2007; Mellers, Schwartz & Ritov, 1999; Mellers & McGraw, 2001). Therefore, emotions triggered in people's experiences will affect their decisions in a different time, place or domain (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Emotions that occur during volunteering or donation experiences influence future behavior. For example, Clary et al. (1998) showed that volunteering experiences are rich in emotions that play an important role in motivating employees to repeat their experiences. Grant and Dutton (2012) found that people volunteered and donated more after recalling their volunteering and giving experiences and the positive emotions that they felt at those moments. In their experiment, participants who were asked to recall their volunteering and donating experiences volunteered more than participants who did not remember similar experiences. This indicates that affective residue has a long term effect and motivates individuals to behave in a similar manner, even in a different context. As mentioned previously, affective residue could motivate individuals to either approach or avoid experiences based on the type of emotions attached. For example, the first interactions between newcomers and managers affect newcomers' future behaviors and performances Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth, (2012).

In this study, I expect employees who participated in work volunteer programs and work donation programs will repeat similar behaviors outside of work to continue experiencing the positive emotions that arise from their socially responsible activities.

Hypothesis 9: Positive affective residue will mediate the relationship between participation in work volunteering programs and volunteering outside of work.

Hypothesis 10: Positive affective residue will mediate the relationship between participation in work donation programs and donating outside of work.

The moderation of positive affective residue

I propose the relationship between emotions and organizational identification is intertwined (Ashforth et al., 2008). Although identification with the organization is considered a cognitive construct (Dutton et al., 1994), the emotional content is important for its development (Ashforth et al., 2008, Kessler & Hollbach, 2005). When being part of a social group or an organization provides positive emotions, an individual starts to identify with the organization (Kessler & Hollbach, 2005). The positive emotions experienced during participation in CSR programs could play a role in strengthening the employee's identification with his or her employer. I expect that the relationship between employee participation and organizational identification will be stronger when employees experience positive affective residue associated with past participation in CSR programs at work.

Hypothesis 11: Positive affective residue will moderate the relationship between participation in work volunteering programs and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 12: Positive affective residue will moderate the relationship between participation in work donation programs and organizational identification.

Figure 1 illustrates the study's model. To simplify the figure, every arrow represents two hypotheses: one designated for participation in volunteering programs and another for participation in donation programs.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

Chapter 6

Study 3

Methods

Procedure and Participants

For Study 3, I created an online survey and then using a professional research company, I gained access to full-time employees who worked for organizations that sponsor volunteering and donation programs. The survey lasted approximately 10 minutes and 15 seconds. Each participant was given \$10 when the survey was completed.

The survey began with screening questions that asked the participant about participation in volunteering and donation programs at work and volunteering and donation programs outside of work. A total of 260 individuals with valid responses participated in the survey. Ultimately, the sample consisted of 252 subjects who participated in work volunteer programs, 224 subjects that volunteered outside of work, 230 subjects that participated in work donation programs, and 240 subjects who donated money outside of work. The sample was 47% male. In terms of age distribution, 44% of the sample was between 18 and 34 years, 25% was between 34 and 44 years old and 31% was 35 years old or above. In terms of education, 74% of the sample had a college degree and 11% had a master's degree.

Independent variables

Participation in volunteering programs at work. I used the same measure as in Study 2. It consisted of three questions that ask the participant about the frequency of their participation in volunteering programs. The questions include: "I frequently volunteer through my employer(s)," "I do not volunteer through my employer(s)" and "I

rarely volunteer through my employer(s).” Each question’s answer entailed a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The Cronbach alpha score was .73.

Participation in donation programs at work: I used the measure used in Study 2. It has three items that ask the participant about the frequency of participation in donation programs. The items are “I frequently donate through my employer(s)”; “I do not donate through my employer(s)”; “I rarely donate through my employer(s)”. Each item’s answer entailed a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The Cronbach’s alpha score was .79.

Mediating variables

Organizational identification. I used a scale developed by Smidts and colleagues (2001). The measure consists of five items measured on five-point scale, where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. The items were based on the concept of social identity (Tajfel, 1978). The scale includes both cognitive and affective elements. The items include: "I feel strong ties with," "I experience a strong sense of belonging to", "I feel proud to work for," "I am sufficiently acknowledged in" and "I am glad to be a member of." The Cronbach’s alpha score was 0.84.

Positive affective residue. Positive affective residue was measured with a scale developed by Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth (2012). It consists of 8 items with a Cronbach’s alpha score of .92. The measure was adapted for volunteering and donating behavior. There were 8 items for each behavior. Scale items included, “Whenever I participate in volunteering programs, I feel happy,” “I feel enthusiastic after participating in volunteering programs,” “Participating in volunteering programs brings joy to me,”

“It's always a pleasure to participate in volunteering programs,” “Donating at work brings joy to me,” and “I feel delighted when I donate at work.” The item responses entailed a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.”

Dependent variables

Participation in volunteering programs outside of work. I used the same measure as the one used in Study 2. It consists of three items that evaluate the participant's frequency of volunteering in his/her personal time. The items are: “I frequently volunteer in my personal time,” “I do not volunteer in my personal time,” and “I rarely volunteer in my personal time.” Each item's answer entailed a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The Cronbach's alpha score was .71.

Participation in donation programs outside of work. I used the same measure as the one used in Study 2. Three items evaluated the participant's frequency of donating in their personal time. The items are: “I frequently donate in my personal time (not at work),” “I have not donated in my personal time (not at work),” and “I rarely donate in my personal time (not at work).” Each item's answer entailed a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly disagree” and 5= “Strongly agree.” The scale has a Cronbach's alpha score of .78.

Control variables. I controlled for gender, education and age. Age and education are shown to be important factors that affect participation in socially responsible programs; the more educated and the older the individual, the higher the possibility that the individual will participate in such programs (Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Women are also more likely to volunteer their time and money than men (Wilson, 2000).

Results

The means, standard deviation and zero-order correlations are provided in Table 7 and 8. A statistically significant correlation exists between participating in work volunteer programs, organizational identification, positive affective residue and participation in outside of work volunteering programs. There is also a statistically significant correlation between frequency in donating at work and organizational identification as well as positive affective residue and frequency of donating outside of work.

 INSERT TABLE 7 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 8 HERE

Results show that there is a positive relationship between the frequency of participation in work volunteer programs and the frequency of volunteering outside of work ($\beta .27, p<.01$), supporting Hypothesis 1. The results are illustrated in Table 9.

For Hypothesis 2, I predicted a positive relationship between the frequency of participation in work donation programs and the frequency of giving donations outside of work. Similar to Study 2, this study showed a statistically significant positive relationship between the frequency of donations at work and the frequency of donations outside of work ($\beta .66, p<.01$), as illustrated in Table 10. Hence, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

In Hypotheses 3 and 4, I tested the relationship between participation in CSR programs and organizational identification. Hypothesis 3 stated that participation in work volunteer programs is positively related to organizational identification. There is a

statistically significant positive relationship between frequency of volunteering at work and organizational identification ($\beta .25, p<.01$) supporting Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 predicted that participation in work donation programs is positively related to organizational identification. The result supports Hypothesis 4. There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the frequency of giving donations at work and organizational identification ($\beta .38, p<.01$).

I predicted in Hypotheses 5 and 6 that organizational identification will mediate the relationship between participation in CSR programs and volunteering and donating outside of work. I used Baron and Kenny's (1986) requirements to test the mediation relationship. They stated that there are three necessary requirements to ensure that a variable is a mediator. First, the independent variable should have a statistically significant relationship with the mediator variable. Second, the mediator variable should have a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable. Third, for full mediation, the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable should not be statistically significant when the mediator variable is included in the regression equation. If the independent variable remains statistically significant, then it is a partially mediated relationship.

For Hypothesis 5, I already tested the first requirement for mediation when conducting analyses for Hypothesis 3. I then tested Baron and Kenny's (1986) second requirement for mediation and the results in Table 9 indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between organizational identification and volunteering outside of work ($\beta .33, p<.01$). Last, I tested Baron and Kenny's (1986) third requirement for mediation. The results illustrate that the predictor variable, participation in work

volunteering programs, remains statistically significant ($\beta .19, p<.01$), even if the mediator, organizational identification, is added to the regression equation. This suggests that organizational identification could partially mediate the relationship between participation in work volunteering and volunteering outside of work. Furthermore, in Hypothesis 6, I predicted that organizational identification will mediate the relationship between participation in work donation programs and giving donations outside of work. I already tested the first requirement of mediation when conducting analyses for Hypothesis 4. I then tested the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable, as part of Baron and Kenny's (1986) second requirement for mediation analysis. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between organizational identification and giving donations outside of work ($\beta .36, p<.01$), as shown in Table 10. Then, I tested the relationship between the predictor variable and the dependent variable with the inclusion of the mediating variable, which is Baron and Kenny's (1986) third requirement for mediation analysis. The predictor variable, participation in work donation, remains statistically significant ($\beta .61, p<.01$) when the mediator, organizational identification, is added to the regression equation. Therefore, organizational identification partially mediates the relationship between participation in work donation programs and giving donations outside of work. Hence, Hypotheses 5 and 6 are partially supported. The results are provided in Table 9 for volunteering and Table 10 for donations.

In Hypotheses 7 and 8, I predicted that participation in work volunteering and donations programs will relate positively to positive affective residue. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between participation

in work volunteering and programs positive affective residue (β .39, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 7. In Hypothesis 8, I stated that participation in work donation programs is positively related to positive affective residue. The results show that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the frequency of giving donations at work and positive affective residue (β .44, $p < .01$). The results support Hypotheses 7 and 8 and meet Baron and Kenny's (1986) first requirement for mediation analysis.

 INSERT TABLE 9 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 10 HERE

In Hypotheses 9 and 10, I predicted that positive affective residue would mediate the relationship between participation in CSR programs at work and volunteering and donating outside of work. For Hypothesis 9, I predicted that positive affective residue will mediate the relationship between participation in work volunteer programs and volunteering outside of work. I already tested the first requirement for mediation in the analyses for Hypothesis 7. As illustrated in Table 9, I then tested the relationship between positive affective residue and frequency of volunteering outside of work. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between positive affective residue and volunteering outside of work (β .44, $p < .01$), which supports Baron and Kenny's (1986) second requirement for mediation. Finally, I tested the relationship between participation in work volunteering program and volunteering outside of work mediated by positive affective residue. Participation in work volunteering programs remains statistically significant (β .16, $p < .05$), even when positive affective

residue ($\beta .40$, $p < .01$) is added to the regression equation. Baron and Kenny's (1986) third requirement for mediation is partially supported. This result demonstrates that positive affective residue partially mediates the relationship between participation in work volunteer programs and volunteering outside of work (Table 9). The mediation relationship was also presented in Hypothesis 10. I already tested the first requirement for mediation in the analyses for Hypothesis 8. I then tested the relationship between positive affective residue and giving donations outside of work. The results indicate a statistically significant positive relationship between positive affective residue and giving donations outside of work ($\beta .53$, $p < .01$) (Table 10). Therefore, Baron and Kenny's (1986) second requirement for mediation is supported. Last, I tested positive affective residue as a mediator between participation in work donation programs and donating outside of work. The results (Table 10) illustrate that participation in work donation remains statistically significant ($\beta .54$, $p < .01$) even after entering positive affective residue ($\beta .25$, $p < .01$). Thus, Baron and Kenny's (1986) third requirement for mediation is partially supported. Therefore, positive affective residue partially mediates the relationship between participation in work donation programs and giving donations outside of work. Hence, Hypotheses 9 and 10 are partially supported.

In Hypotheses 11 and 12, I predicted that positive affective residue would moderate the relationship between participation in CSR programs and organizational identification. Hypothesis 11 predicted that positive affective residue will moderate the relationship between participation in work volunteer programs and organizational identification, i.e., positive affective residue will strengthen the relationship between these two variables. When I entered participation in work volunteer programs, positive

affective residue and the interaction term, the findings did not support the hypothesis.

The interaction term is not statistically significant (β .02, $p > .05$). Hence, Hypothesis 11 is not supported, as illustrated in Table 11.

Hypothesis 12 proposed that positive affective residue will moderate the relationship between the frequency of participation in work donation programs and organizational identification. After entering the variables, the interaction term was statistically significant (β .28, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 is supported, as illustrated in Table 12.

 INSERT TABLE 11 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 12 HERE

Conclusions

Study 3 supported the findings of Studies 1 and 2. Participation in work volunteering programs and work donation programs is related to participation in similar programs outside of work. Participation in work volunteering programs and work donation programs has a positive statistically significant relationship with organizational identification. In addition, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between organizational identification and volunteering and donating outside of work. However, organizational identification only partially mediates the relationship between participation in CSR programs and volunteering and donating outside of work.

Study 3 also found that participation in CSR programs is positively related to positive affective residue, which influences employees with regard to volunteering or donating outside of work. Positive affective residue also moderates the relationship between participation in work donation programs and donating outside of work. However, contrary to the hypotheses, positive affective residue does not moderate the relationship between participation in work volunteering programs and volunteering outside of work.

Previous studies in the work-family literature have primarily focused on the affective spillover effect between work and non-work domains; less focus has been placed on behavioral consequences. This study provided evidence of a behavioral spillover that is also mediated by affective and cognitive components. Specifically, this study's findings indicate that a relationship exists between a behavior that arose within the work domain and a behavior in a different domain.

Chapter 7

Post hoc analyses

For the post hoc analyses, several more variables were added to the regression as a means to better understand the phenomenon and rule out possible conflicting theories.

In order to capture nuances associated with the tested relationships, I asked several follow-up questions and collected data associated with several constructs. First, I specifically asked the participants if participation in volunteering and donation programs at work affected their participation more in similar programs outside of work. I also asked the participants to indicate if the work volunteering programs occurred during company time or not. The assumption is that if the work volunteer programs were not on company time, employees would experience weaker spillover effects, since they would have less time to volunteer outside of work.

I also examined the role of empathy. Empathy is a strong predictor of prosocial and helping behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Fisher et al., 2008; Kim & Johnson, 2013). Hence, it is logical to assume that empathy could play a role in the relationship between work volunteering programs and volunteering outside of work. Therefore, I added empathy as a control variable, rather than a mediator, into the research model, as this yields a better understanding of the strength of the predictor and mediating variables' effects.

I also tested the effects of negative affective residue. Some might assert that CSR could cause negative affective residue if individuals did not want to participate in CSR programs at work. Thus, I examined if participating in a CSR program created negative

affective residue and influenced the spillover effect of the socially responsible behavior from work to outside of work.

Some might also assert that the type of organization influences the spillover relation. Therefore I gauged whether participants that volunteer and donate at work for certain types of organizations also do so outside of work as well. For example, I analyzed whether volunteering or donating for environmental organizations at work is correlated with volunteering and donating for the same type of organizations outside of work. I also examined whether the industry of employing organization affected the relationships in my spillover model.

Research also suggests that age is an important predictor of volunteering and donations. Therefore, I also tested the effects of age by dividing the sample into two age groups: (1) between 18 and 34 and (2) above 35. I did this to determine if the spillover effect is stronger among certain age groups.

Finally, I tested the moderation effect of organizational identification, empathy, industry and matching recipient organizations, to determine if they play a role in moderating the relationship between the frequency of volunteering and donating at work and outside of work.

Post hoc variables

Causal questions. Two items were added to determine whether participation in volunteering and donation programs at work led to greater participation in similar programs outside of work. The item responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 5 = “Strongly Agree.” The questions were:

“Participating in volunteering programs at work caused me to volunteer more outside of work,” and “Donating at work caused me to donate more outside of work.”

Negative affective residue. To address concerns related to the possible occurrence of negative affective residue and its effect on the spillover relationship, I used Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth’s (2012) measure for negative affective residue. This scale is composed of 8 items, measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly Disagree” and 5 = “Strongly Agree.” The measure was adapted to the types of behavior explored in this study. This resulted in a total of 16 items, 8 for each behavior. The scale items included: “Whenever I participate in volunteering programs, I feel upset,” “I feel angry after participating in volunteering programs,” “I feel annoyed while participating in volunteering programs,” “Whenever donate at work, I feel upset,” “I feel angry after donating at work,” and “I feel annoyed when donating at work.” The Cronbach’s alpha score was .94.

Type of volunteer organization at work. I asked the participants to list the type(s) of organizations they volunteered for at work: “Please select the type(s) of organizations that you have volunteered for through your employer (check all that apply).” It was a check the box question, where the respondents could select one or more types. The types of organizations included “Human services organizations,” “Religious organizations,” “Education organizations,” “Political groups and campaigns,” “Environmental organizations” and “Other local, national or international organizations.”

Type of volunteer organization outside of work. The participant listed the type(s) of organizations they volunteered for outside of work: “Please select the type(s) of organizations that you have volunteered for in your personal time (i.e., not at

work) (check all that apply).” The types of organizations included: “Human services organizations,” “Religious organizations,” “Education organizations,” “Political groups and campaigns,” “Environmental organizations” and “Other local, national or international organizations.”

Type of donation organization at work. I also asked the participants to identify the type(s) of organizations they donated to at work: “Please select the type of organizations that you have donated to through your employer (check all that apply).” It was a check the box question, where the subjects could select one or more type(s). The type of organizations included: “Human services organizations,” “Religious organizations,” “Education organizations,” “Political groups and campaigns,” “Environmental organizations” and “Other local, national or international organizations.”

Type of donation organization outside of work. I asked the participants to list the type(s) of organizations they donated to outside of work: “Please select the type(s) of organizations that you donated to in your personal time (i.e., not at work donations) (check all that apply).” It was a check the box question, where the subjects could select one or more type(s). The organization types included “Human services organizations,” “Religious organizations,” “Education organizations,” “Political groups and campaigns,” “Environmental organizations” and “Other local, national or international organizations.”

Industry. There were 19 types of industries available to analyze in the study. To simplify the moderation effect results, I chose to analyze the top 8 industries that comprised 75% of my sample.

Matching recipient organizations (volunteering). I created a dummy dichotomous variable that categorized the participants into two groups. Individuals who

did not volunteer for the same type of organizations at work and outside of work received a value of “0” for non-matching recipient organizations. Individuals who volunteered for the same type of organizations at work and outside of work had a value of “1” for matching recipient organizations.

Matching recipient organizations (donating). I created similar dummy dichotomous variable for the donation model which categorized the participants into two groups. Individuals who did not donate to the same type of organizations at work and outside of work had a value of “0” for non-matching recipient organizations. Individuals who donated to the same type of organizations at work and outside of work had a value of “1” for matching recipient organizations.

Control variables

In addition to controlling for gender, age and education, I controlled for empathy and volunteering on company time.

Empathy. To address the role of empathy, I used a scale developed by Davis (1980). The scale consists of 7 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 5 = “Strongly Agree.” Some of the items included “When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them,” “When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them” and “I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.” The Cronbach alpha score was .74.

Volunteering on company time. I asked the participants to indicate if the work volunteering programs occurred on company time. The responses were recorded with a 5-

point scale, where 1= “None of my volunteering through work happens on company time” and 5 = “All of my volunteering through work happens on company time.”

Results

There is a statistically significant correlation between work volunteering frequency and education, empathy and volunteering on company time, as shown in Table 13. This suggests that the higher the individual’s education and empathy levels, the more likely that the employee will participate in work volunteering programs. In addition, employees are more likely to participate when programs are offered on company time. Along with previous research on empathy, the results illustrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between volunteering outside of work and empathy.

Similar to the volunteering results, a statistically significant correlation exists between frequency of donating at work, education and empathy, as shown in Table 14. The higher the individual’s education and empathy levels, the more likely that he or she will donate at work. In addition, similar to the volunteering results, the correlation between empathy and donating outside of work was statistically significant. This result also supports the implicit assumption that volunteering and donating have very similar antecedents.

 INSERT TABLE 13 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 14 HERE

After controlling for gender, age, education, work volunteer programs on company time and empathy, the results yielded a statistically significant relationship

between, the causal question, participation in work volunteering programs and volunteering more outside of work (β .29, $p < .01$) and between, the causal questions, participation in work donation programs and donating more outside of work (β .28, $p < .01$). These findings support the paper's theory and validate the spillover effect from the work domain to a non-work context in regard to volunteering and donations.

After adding the controls, organizational identification was found to act as a full mediator between work volunteering and outside of work volunteering. Organizational identification was found to be statistically significant (β .18, $p < .01$), while work volunteering was not statistically significant (β .16, $p > .05$) (Table 15).

In the donation model, the organizational identification partial mediation effects disappears (β .05, $p > .05$) after adding the controls (Table 16). For positive affective residue, the partial mediation effect remains statistically significant, even after adding the additional controls.

In the volunteering model, both positive affective residue (β .27, $p > .01$) and work volunteering (β .15, $p < .05$) remain statistically significant (Table 15). The same effect happens in the donation model, where both positive affective residue (β .15, $p < .05$) and work donations (β .52, $p < .01$) remain statistically significant (Table 16).

Negative affective residue is not statistically significant (β -.06, $p > .05$), which means that it does not affect the relationship between participation in work volunteer programs and outside of work volunteer programs. Negative affective residue also does not mediate between participation in work donation programs and donating outside of work (β .08, $p > .05$) (Tables 15 and 16).

INSERT TABLE 15 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 16 HERE

To determine which mediating variable has the strongest effect, I added the three mediating variables into one model, after adding the controls and the independent variable participation in work volunteer programs. These three variables were organizational identification, positive affective residue and negative affective residue. Consequently, only positive affective residue remains statistically significant in the volunteering model (β .23, $p < .01$) and the donation model (β .14, $p < .01$) (Tables 15 and 16).

Results based on types of recipient organizations

As illustrated in Table 17, the correlation between volunteering for a type of organization (i.e., human services) at work and volunteering for the same type of organization outside of work is statistically significant. For example, the correlation between volunteering for human services at work and volunteering for human services outside of work is statistically significant. Interestingly, the highest correlation is always between similar types of organizations (i.e., volunteering for religious organizations at work and outside of work).

As shown in Table 18, the same type of correlation pattern occurs in the donation model. Similar types of organizations have statistically significant correlations. Different types of organizations also have statistically significant correlations. However, the correlation between similar types of organizations is always the highest. I believe this pattern supports the work to home spillover effect more than vice versa, because it seems

more likely that an employee would volunteer or donate to the same organization outside work than it does for an entire organization or group of employees to volunteer or donate to similar organizations.

 INSERT TABLE 17 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 18 HERE

Volunteering based on type of recipient organization

As illustrated in Table 17, the correlation between volunteering for a type of organization (i.e., human services) at work and volunteering for the same type of organization outside of work also is statistically significant. For example, the correlation between volunteering for human services at work and volunteering for human services and environmental organizations outside of work is statistically significant. Interestingly, the highest correlation is always the one between similar types of organizations (i.e., volunteering for religious organizations at work and outside of work).

The dissertation model is supported for certain types of recipient organizations. The spillover effect of work volunteering to outside of work volunteering only occurred in the cases of human service organizations (β .22, $p < .01$) (Table 19) and environmental organizations (β .19, $p < .05$) (Table 23). Organizational identification remains statistically significant and partially mediates the relationship when employees volunteer for human services organizations (β .19, $p < .05$).

Positive affective residue also stayed statistically significant as a partial mediator when employees volunteered for human services organizations (β .24, $p < .01$), as is

shown in Table 19. However, volunteering for other types of organizations does not ensure that employees will transfer their behavior outside of work, although they might experience positive affective residue from their experience.

The findings for political campaign volunteering are tentative, because only 12 participants stated that they volunteered for political organizations or campaigns at work. In contrast, 162 study participants volunteered for human services organizations at work, which was the highest number among all recipient organizations in the study.

 INSERT TABLE 19 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 20 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 21 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 22 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 23 HERE

Donations based on type of recipient organization

The donation model was better supported than the volunteering model. The spillover relationship occurred for all types of recipient organizations: human services (β .46, $p < .01$), religious (β .75, $p < .01$), educational (β .40, $p < .01$), political (β .96, $p < .01$), and environmental (β .51, $p < .01$). Organizational identification was a partial mediator when individuals donated to educational (β .29, $p < .01$) and political (β .63, $p < .01$)

organizations. Positive affective residue partially mediated the spillover relationship when employees donated to human services (β .21, $p < .05$) and environmental (β .24, $p < .05$) organizations. No mediation effect was statistically significant when employees donated to educational, religious or political organizations or campaigns.

As in the volunteering model, the type of organization with the highest number of study participants was human services, with 153 (59%,) of study participants stating that they donated to human services organizations at work. Political organizations or campaigns had the lowest number of study participants, with only 15 study participants stating that they donated to political organizations or campaigns at work.

 INSERT TABLE 24 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 25 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 26 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 27 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 28 HERE

Volunteering results based on age

I did a median split and divided the age variable into two groups. The first group contained participants who were between 18 and 34 years old; the second group contained participants who were 35 years old and older. My analyses indicated that

younger participants will be more likely to experience spillover effects as a result of their volunteering programs at work. The relationship between work volunteering and frequency of volunteering outside of work is statistically significant ($\beta .34, p<.01$) for participants between 18 and 34. This variable was not statistically significant for the older groups ($\beta .11, p>.05$) (Tables 29 and 30). Organizational identification was not statistically significant for either group. Positive affective residue partially mediated the spillover effect among participants that were between 18 and 34 years old.

 INSERT TABLE 29 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 30 HERE

Donation results based on age

Similar to the volunteering model, I divided the participants into two groups based on their ages: between 18 and 34 years of age and 35 years old and older. In the donation model, both groups experienced a spillover effect. The frequency of donating at work was statistically significant for the participants between 18 and 34 ($\beta .75, p<.01$) (Table 31) and for those that were 35 and above ($\beta .38, p<.01$) (Table 32). Organizational identification and positive affective residue were not statistically significant for either group. It is interesting to note that both variables organizational identification and positive affective residue act as partial mediators when empathy is removed from the model.

 INSERT TABLE 31 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 32 HERE

The moderation effect of organizational identification

The moderating effect of organizational identification on the relationship between the frequency of work volunteering and the frequency of outside of work volunteering is statistically significant (Tables 33 and 34). As shown in Figure 2, individuals with low and medium organizational identification levels volunteered more outside of work, as they have a higher frequency of work volunteering. It is surprising that individuals who highly identify with their organization have similar frequencies of volunteering outside of work, regardless of their participation level in work volunteering programs. This could imply that the strength of organizational identification influences the spillover, even if the individual has a low level of work volunteering participation.

In the donation model, organizational identification does not have a statistically significant moderation effect on the spillover ($\beta .03$, $p>.05$), as illustrated in Table 34. As shown in Figure 3, the higher the identification levels, the higher the frequency of donating both at work and outside of work.

 INSERT TABLE 33 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 34 HERE

INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

The moderation effect of empathy

I tested the moderation effect of empathy between volunteering and donating at work and volunteering and donating outside of work. Empathy has a statistically significant moderating effect on both volunteering and donations (Tables 35 and 36). As illustrated in Figures 4 and 5, Individuals with low empathy levels who engaged most in work volunteering programs exhibit similar levels of volunteering outside of work as individuals with a high empathy levels regardless of work volunteering experiences. Similarly, individuals with moderate empathy scores who engaged in donation programs at work exhibited similar levels of donating outside of work as individuals with high empathy levels regardless of work volunteering experiences.

INSERT TABLE 35 HERE

INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

INSERT TABLE 36 HERE

INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE

The moderation effect of industry

I tested the moderation effect of industry for both the volunteering and donation spillover effects from work to outside of work, as well as between volunteering and donations at work and organizational identification. However, it seems that the industry did not have a statistically significant moderation effect in both the volunteering and donation models (Tables 37, 38, 39 and 40). Most industries have a similar moderation effect and the pattern of the plotted lines in Figures 6 and 7 (for volunteering) are similar to the plotted lines in Figures 8 and 9 (for donations).

 INSERT TABLE 37 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 6 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 38 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 7 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 39 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 8 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 40 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 9 HERE

The moderation effect of matching recipient organizations

I tested the moderation effect of matching recipient organization between the frequency of work volunteering and the frequency of volunteering outside of work, between the frequency of work volunteering and organizational identification, and between organizational identification and frequency of volunteering outside of work. Matching recipient organization did not have a statistically significant effect on the mentioned relationships, as shown in Tables 41, 42 and 43 and Figures 10, 11, and 12.

 INSERT TABLE 41 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 10 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 42 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 11 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 43 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 12 HERE

In the donation model, I tested the matching recipient organization moderation effect between the frequency of work donations and the frequency of donating outside of

work (Table 44 and Figure 13), between the frequency of work donations and organizational identification (Table 45 and Figure 14), and between organizational identification and frequency of donating outside of work (Table 46 and Figure 15). Interestingly, only the moderating effect of matching recipient organizations on the relationship between work donations and the frequency of donations outside of work is statistically significant ($\beta .17, p<.01$) (Tables 44).

 INSERT TABLE 44 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 13 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 45 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 14 HERE

 INSERT TABLE 46 HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 15 HERE

Conclusions

The post hoc analysis provides a more detailed story about the circumstances in which the dissertation model most likely occurs. Organizational identification only remains statistically significant within the volunteering model; positive affective residue

is supported within the volunteering and donation models. Empathy's effect is very similar to the effect of positive affective residue; this highlights the strength of the emotional aspect of the spillover relationship. Contrary to my postulation, negative affective residue did not have a statistically significant effect.

When I divided the results based on recipient organization type, the results stayed statistically significant for participants who volunteered for human services organizations. The donation model spillover effect stayed statistically significant for all organization types. In terms of age, the spillover effect and the mediators were only statistically significant among the younger participants that were between 18 and 34 years old.

In sum, organizational identification moderated the relationship between volunteering at work and outside of work, empathy moderated the relationship between volunteering and donating at work and outside of work, and matching recipient organization moderated the spillover effect between donating at work and outside of work. Industry did not have a statistically significant moderation effect on either the volunteering or the donation spillover effect.

Chapter 8

Discussion

The previous research has highlighted the significant influence of CSR programs on employees within the work domain. However, less focus has been placed on the importance of such programs on employees' lives and their communities. This study will provide us with a bigger picture of CSR effects on employees within the work domain and outside the work domain, i.e., in the community.

The research question focused on the influence of work volunteering programs and work donation programs on employees' lives outside of work. In particular, the questions were: Does participation in CSR programs, such as volunteering and donations programs, relate to participation in similar programs outside of work? Is the relationship between these two types of participation positive or negative? Are there any mediators that help create such a spillover effect? Based upon theories from work family enrichment perspective (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), role accumulation (Sieber, 1974), organizational identification and affective residue (Baumeister et al., 2007), I developed new theory and conducted three studies to test my theory.

The study findings contribute to different streams of the management literature including CSR, work and non-work spillovers, organizational identification and affective residue. The study provides evidence that participation in CSR programs at work, such as volunteering and donating, can enrich an employee's life outside of work. I also found organizational identification and positive affective residue partially mediate the spillover effect. It was predicted that positive affective residue from participation will affect

employees' organizational identification; however, the data did not fully support moderation.

In terms of the spillover of volunteering programs, employees who reported a higher frequency and number of hours for work volunteering also volunteered more outside of work. Additionally, participation at work is related to organizational identification and positive affective residue. Both of these variables are related to volunteering outside of work, and both partially mediate the spillover effect from work to outside of work.

The interaction between participation in programs at work and positive affective residue did not lead to higher organizational identification. The post-hoc analysis indicated that after controlling for age, gender, education, volunteering on company time and empathy, participation in work volunteering programs positively affected employees' participation outside of work. Organizational identification and positive affective residue remained valid partial mediators; however, negative affective residue did not influence the spillover effect.

In terms of work donation programs, there is a positive relationship between donating at work and donating outside of work. Participation in work donation programs is related to organizational identification and positive affective residue. Both of these variables are also related to donating outside of work. Similar to the volunteering results, the interaction between participation and positive affective residue is statistically significant. The post-hoc analysis indicated that participation in work donation programs is positively related to employees' participation outside of work. This result was duplicated in the volunteering findings. In the volunteering and donation model, empathy

remains a statistically significant control variable across all volunteering and donation regression models. However, negative affective residue does not influence the spillover relationship.

To the best of the author's knowledge, this is one of the first studies that links volunteering and donation activity at work to similar activities that occur outside of work. The study also contributes to the spillover literature by demonstrating a behavioral spillover effect between these two domains. The primary trend in the spillover effect literature is focused on emotions, mood, and the affect spillover between these two domains; less focus is placed on the behavioral aspect.

Theoretical implications

This study contributes to the CSR literature by providing a micro perspective of the effects of CSR programs on employees. Previous CSR research has largely focused on macro issues, rather than micro issues (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Devinney, 2009; Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman & Siegel, 2013). After reviewing 599 journal articles and 108 books that focused on CSR issues, Cesario, Grant, and Higgins (2004) found that about 90% of the publications studied CSR from an institutional or organizational level and only 4% focused on the individual level. The lack of focus on CSR micro issues has led to a high demand for research that links CSR to organizational behavior issues (Isbell, 2004). This study responds to this growing need from a theoretical and empirical perspective by providing a micro perspective focused on employee participation in CSR programs and effects on behavior in the community outside of work.

The study also identified two mediators that link CSR programs to outcomes. Previous CSR literature has primarily focused on predictors, outcomes and moderators,

rather than on mediators (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004). These two mediators support Grant's (2012) conceptualization of why employees sustain their participation in socially responsible programs. He proposed two theories that could explain why employees repeat their volunteering experiences. Similar to my conceptualization of the influence of identification on self-concept, Grant (2012) proposed that when employees participate in CSR programs, they start to identify with socially responsible roles, which affects their perceptions of their identities and leads them to volunteer more.

Grant's (2012) second theory is a functional perspective that suggests that participation in CSR programs fulfills the needs that motivate employees to continue participating in similar activities. This theory follows the concept of positive affective residue, since employees learn that participation increases positive emotions which cause them to continue participating to achieve similar emotional states.

In terms of organizational identification, previous studies presented it as a consequence of CSR and participation in CSR programs. This study introduced identification with the organization as a mediator that changes how individuals perceive themselves and adjust their behaviors to align with their organization's CSR values. Another contribution this study provides to the literature is to demonstrate a positive consequence of organizational identification regarding an employee's life outside of work. Little focus has been given to such a perspective, in contrast to the large number of studies that reinforced the potential negative consequences of organizational identification (Dukerich et al., 1998).

Many studies have illustrated how organizational identification may lead to higher work involvement or engagement, which can deplete an employee's resources, leading to

a lower level of involvement at home, and hence, work family conflict (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Frone & Rice, 2012; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Rice, Frone & McFarlin, 1992). This trend framed organizational identification as an advantage for the organization, because employees become more involved and attached to their organization. However, the drawback of this advantage is that it happens at the expense of employees' personal lives (Dukerich et al., 1998). Consequently, this study provides a different perspective, where organizational identification leads to enriching employees' personal lives. As a result of organizational identification, employees start to view themselves differently and become more aligned with their organization's values that affect their behavior outside of the organization. They become more socially responsible citizens and more involved in volunteering and donation programs.

Organization identification does not always correspond to outcomes for society. As research on organizational corruption indicates, identification has a dark side. Identification frames meanings, events and organizational practices, such that employees who identify with their organization may not question legality or morality, especially when they highly identify with their organization. When an organization ignores CSR principles and institutionalizes illegal practices, or reinforces them through implicit or explicit sanctions, employees who identify with their organization might rationalize an act to make it seem legal or moral, or they may cover up the act (Ashforth & Anand, 2003; Dukerich et al., 1998). The power of identification, and its influence on how practices are perceived, could influence the normalization of corruption such that current employees reinforce corruption either through compliance or denial of responsibility (Ashforth & Anand, 2003). Newcomers are socialized to such practices as "prototypical

behaviors” that others expect them to enact at work (Ashforth & Anand, 2003).

Umphress, Bingham and Mitchell (2010) found that organizational identification is related to unethical pro-organizational behaviors when it interacts with employees’ believe in reciprocity, in their relationship with their organization. Thus, my model presupposes an ethical organization with CSR activities and those that identify with the organization will engage in positive behaviors outside the organization.

In terms of the emotional perspective, none of the previous micro CSR studies have tackled the affect or emotional perspective of the CSR phenomenon (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004). Hence, the emotional aspect related to participation in CSR programs is one of the study’s contributions to the literature. This study did not focus on the short term effect of the emotional reaction to CSR. Rather, it focused on the long term effect that occurs in the form of affective residue (Handley et al., 2009). In addition, previous research has discussed that affective residue could play a role in spreading corruption within the organization (Smith-Crowe & Warren, 2014). I illustrated how affective residue could also influence positive behaviors that go beyond the organizational context.

This dissertation’s findings also support the micro CSR literature which relies upon social influence and needs theories (i.e. Bartel, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Rupp et al., 2006) to explain the influence of CSR practices on employees. I added additional theoretical lenses (role accumulation, identity and emotions) and framed these theories within the spillover perspective. The findings illustrated that spillover from CSR programs affected external stakeholders who might not be targeted by a company’s CSR programs. This effect occurs indirectly through a company’s influence on its employees. The employees volunteer or donate more as a result of their positive experiences at work.

Although CSR programs are a multi-domain phenomenon, the main focus in the micro CSR literature has been on the effects of CSR on employees within the organizational context, and less on its effects beyond that (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Bartel, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Peterson, 2004a; Peterson, 2004b; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008). This study highlighted the effect of CSR programs on employees, who are internal stakeholders, and on employees' communities, which comprise some of the organization's external stakeholders. Therefore, viewing CSR programs from a multi-domain perspective is another contribution to the literature.

The study findings contribute to the work-life spillover literature by illustrating how certain work experiences, such as volunteering and donations, in particular, could enrich life outside of work. The work-life relationship literature has identified two paths and four types of gained resources where enrichment occurs (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The paths are instrumental and affective. The instrumental path occurs when a role in a domain provides resources to another role in a different domain (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The affective path occurs when a role enriches another role in a different domain indirectly through improving the individual's affect (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The present findings support the literature, since participating in CSR programs at work affects employees' behavior outside of work by providing resources.

These resources are divided into four types: (1) developmental -- through gaining knowledge, skills or perspectives that enrich other roles; (2) affective -- through changing attitudes or emotions; (3) capital -- by gaining assets, such as developing social networks

or financial gains and (4) efficiency -- by performing other roles more efficiently (Carlson et al., 2006).

The findings in this study illustrate that participation in CSR programs leads to developmental and affective gains. The developmental gains occur when the employees' perceptions of themselves change through organizational identification. When employees participate in CSR programs and identify with their socially responsible organizations, they start to define themselves differently, which changes their behavior in other domains. Affective gains occur when employees have a positive affective residue linked to their participation experiences.

I also contribute to the work-family literature by demonstrating a behavioral consequence that spills over from the work to the non-work domain. The primary trend in work-family literature, within the organizational behavior domain, focuses on affect, rather than behavior (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson & Whitten, 2014; Ilies, Wilson & Wagner, 2009; Livingston & Judge, 2008). In other words, previous literature focused on how behaviors in work/non-work domains affect the individual's affect and well-being in the other domain. Less focus has been given to studying the effects of behaviors that occur in one domain on behaviors in other domains.

These findings also support Geers, Handley, and McLarney's (2003) role accumulation theory and Edwards and Rothbard's (2000) conceptualization of work-life spillover effect. This study contributes to work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and positive organizational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003) literature through focusing on positive aspects that occur at work and affect employees' personal lives positively outside of work.

Limitations and Future studies

The study is not without limitations. The possibility of a reverse causal relationship cannot be eliminated; however, I designed the survey questions such that they specifically ask the participants about their reactions after participating in CSR programs. In addition to the frequency questions, I added a question that asks participants if their work volunteering/donation experiences caused them to participate more outside of work.

The causal relationship cannot be claimed in the dissertation, since I used a cross-sectional design to collect the data in the three studies. Although I tried to collect data from different samples, common source bias cannot be completely avoided. This bias can inflate correlations between study variables and casts doubt on the causal direction between them (Doty & Glick, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

I attempted to tackle common source bias by designing two types of questions for the primary research model. I used the self-reporting questions, but also tried to test if there was a statistically significant relationship between a subjective question that assesses how frequently the participant volunteers and an objective question that asks the participants to indicate the number of hours volunteered in the last 12 months. Another approach that could provide evidence of a causal relationship would be to design a longitudinal study that surveys the participants in two phases. For instance, future research could survey recent graduates before and after joining an organization that sponsors CSR programs so that the change in hours of participation and frequency will be more apparent and easily identified.

This dissertation was not developed within a single organizational context, although three data collections from three samples provided similar results. To further test the external validity of the findings, I recommend that future studies test the paper's model within an organizational setting. Furthermore, the sample for the third study consisted of employees from organizations that sponsor volunteering and donation programs at work. The dissertation theory is constructed to focus on organizational influence through CSR programs and organizational identity on employees' behaviors beyond the work domain. In essence, the focus is on organizations in which CSR is a fundamental part of the organization's perceived identity. In addition, CSR principles are conveyed to the employees through different communication mediums. Future studies should test the importance of firms' CSR identities to the spillover relationship.

Future studies could also shed light on the factors that weaken the spillover relationship from work to outside of work. There may be some aspects of CSR programs or an organization which do not motivate employees to experience the spillover effect. One of the possible issues may be related to how employees perceive their employers. Weak or no spillover could happen when employees feel that their employer is not authentic with its CSR programs or that the decision to implement CSR programs is only based on public relations or marketing reasons. Therefore, organizational identification would not play role in the spillover effect, since CSR will not be a major part of how employees perceive their organizations' identities. Another possible issue is the level of involvement that organizations require from their employees that might also affect the spillover relationship. For example, there might be a curvilinear relationship between the number of hours that the organization asks its employees to participate and the degree of

involvement within the employees' community where a few hours or too many hours might not create the spillover effect and does not motivate the employee to engage more in such programs.

I presented two mechanisms that influence the work to non-work spillover relationship: identification and affective residue. In terms of future studies, there are other mediating mechanisms that could also help to explain the relationship, such as awareness and meaning of one's role in his or her community that socially responsible organizations might convey to their employees. CSR programs are potentially a rich source for new ideas and information for employees. The direct involvement of employees and their contact with charitable programs could provide them with perspectives that they had not thought about previously. In addition, employees might find new perspectives through CSR programs. They might perceive helping others as a calling that affects their behavior, their decisions outside of work and their engagement in volunteering programs within their communities.

It is also important to note that some researchers consider CSR programs as part of the work domain (Caligiuri, Mencin & Jiang, 2013; Grant & Dutton, 2012; Kim et al., 2010), where others consider it to be a separate domain (Bartel, 2001; Rodell, 2013). This study adopted the first perspective and considered participation in CSR programs as behaviors that occur within the work domain and volunteering and donating outside of work as behaviors that occur within the home or non-work domain.

The study presented two behavioral consequences, volunteering and donating, related to participation in CSR programs. Future research can identify other consequences that could spillover to an employee's home domain (e.g., environmental behavior or

green consumerism). Since many CSR programs have environmental components, such programs may cause employees to be more aware of environmental issues and their importance to their daily lives, which might affect their behavior in other domains. Furthermore, it would be interesting to detect if participation in CSR programs could lead to multiple socially responsible behaviors. For example, volunteering for environmental programs like cleaning seashores or parks may affect employees' consumption of eco-friendly products or donations to organizations that focus on environmental issues.

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Appendix A

The screening questions:

- Do you participate in volunteering programs through your EMPLOYER (i.e., participating in any volunteering program offered by your employer either during work hours or outside of work hours)?
- Do you participate in donation programs (cash, food, clothes etc...) through your EMPLOYER (i.e., participating in donation programs through your employer)?
- Do you participate in volunteering programs IN YOUR PERSONAL TIME (i.e., participating in volunteering programs outside of work and are NOT offered by your employer)?
- Do you give donations in YOUR PERSONAL TIME (i.e., participating in donation programs that are NOT offered by employer)? Do your company's volunteering programs happen on company time?

Socially responsible behaviors at work:

Please answer all of the following questions.

1. I frequently volunteer through my employer(s)
 2. I do not volunteer through my employer(s)
 3. I rarely volunteer through my employer(s)
- Do the volunteering programs happen on company time?
 - In the past 12 months, for how many hours have you, approximately, volunteered through your employer?

Please answer all of the following questions.

1. I have frequently donated through my employer(s).
2. I have not donated through my employer(s).
3. I have rarely donated through my employer(s).

Organizational identification developed by Smidts, Pruyn, and Van Riel (2001)

- I experience a strong sense of belonging to my employer
- I am sufficiently acknowledged in my employer
- I feel proud to work for my employer
- I am glad to be a member of my organization.
- I feel strong ties with my organization

Positive Affective residue (Work Volunteering Programs)

1. Whenever I participate in volunteering programs, I feel happy.
2. I feel enthusiastic after participating in volunteering programs.
3. Participating in volunteering programs brings joy to me.
4. It's always a pleasure to participate in volunteering programs.
5. Thoughts and memories about my participation in volunteering programs make me smile.
6. I have pleasant memories about my participation in volunteering programs.
7. I feel delighted when I participate in volunteering programs.
8. I gladly volunteer at work.

Positive Affective residue (Work Donation Programs)

1. Whenever I participate in donation programs, I feel happy.
2. I gladly donate at work.
3. I feel enthusiastic after donating at work.
4. I have pleasant memories about donating at work.
5. Donating at work brings joy to me.
6. It's always a pleasure to donate at work.
7. I feel delighted when I donate at work
8. Thoughts and memories about my donations at work make me smile

Volunteering outside of work

1. I frequently volunteer in my personal time.
2. I do not volunteer in my personal time.
3. I rarely volunteer in my personal time.

Donating outside of work

1. I frequently donate in my personal time (not at work).
2. I have not donated in my personal time (not at work)
3. I rarely donate in my personal time (not at work)

Post hoc analysis questions

1. Participating in volunteering programs **AT WORK** caused me to volunteer **MORE OUTSIDE OF WORK**.
2. Donating **AT WORK** caused me to donate **MORE OUTSIDE OF WORK**.
3. Do your company's volunteering programs happen on company time?

Negative Affective residue (Work Volunteering Programs)

1. Whenever I participate in volunteering programs, I feel I feel upset.
2. I feel angry after participating in volunteering programs.
3. I feel annoyed while participating in volunteering programs.
4. Thoughts and memories about my participation in volunteering programs make me angry.
5. I feel very tense when I participate in volunteering programs.
6. I have unpleasant memories about my participation in volunteering programs.
7. Participation in volunteering programs makes me anxious.
8. Participation in volunteering programs irritates me.

Negative Affective residue (Work Donation Programs)

1. Whenever donate at work, I feel upset.
2. I feel very tense when I donate at work
3. Thoughts and memories my donations at work make me angry.
4. I have unpleasant memories about donating at work
5. I feel angry after donating at work .
6. Donating at work irritates me.
7. I feel annoyed when donating at work.
8. Donating at work makes me anxious.

Empathy: Davis (1980)

I feel that after participating in volunteering programs:

1. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.
2. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them. (-)
3. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
4. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.
5. Sometimes I don't feel sorry for other people when they are having problems. (-)
6. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal. (-)
7. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

Volunteered at work for

Please select the type of organizations that you have volunteered for through your employer (check all that apply):

- Human service organizations
- Religious organizations
- Education organizations
- Political groups and campaigns
- Environmental organizations
- Other local, national or international organizations

Volunteered outside of work for

Please select the type of organizations that you have volunteered your personal time (i.e. Not at work) (check all that apply):

- Human service organizations
- Religious organizations
- Education organizations
- Political groups and campaigns
- Environmental organizations
- Other local, national or international organizations

Donated at work to

Please select the type of organizations that you have donated **to** through your employer (check all that apply):

- Human service organizations
- Religious organizations
- Education organizations
- Political groups and campaigns
- Environmental organizations
- Other local, national or international organizations

Donated outside of work to

Please select the type of organizations that you donated to in your personal time (i.e. Not at work donations) (check all that apply):

- Human service organizations

- Religious organizations
- Education organizations
- Political groups and campaigns
- Environmental organizations
- Other local, national or international organizations

Appendix B

Table 1
Study 1: Correlation, Mean and Standard Deviation

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2
1. Work Volunteering Frequency	1.25	.432		
2. Outside of work Volunteering Frequency	3.40	.82	.48**	
3. Outside of work Volunteering Hours	41.13	178.92	.30*	.11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 2
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Participation
and Outside of Work Volunteering Participation Frequency

Variable	1
Work Volunteering	0.48**
R ²	0.23
F	16.51**
(d.f.)	(1,55)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 3
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Participation
and Outside of Work Volunteering Participation Hours

Variable	1
Work Volunteering	0.30*
R ²	0.09
F	5.17*
(d.f.)	(1, 54)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 4
Study 2: Correlations, Mean, and Standard Deviation

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1. Work Volunteering Frequency	2.44	1.21			
2. Work Donation Frequency	2.68	1.30	.70**		
3. Volunteering outside of work	3.36	1.13	.42**	.29**	
4. Donating outside of work	3.37	1.23	.28**	.29**	.52**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Frequency and
Outside of Work Volunteering Frequency

Variable	1
Work Volunteering	0.42**
R ²	0.17
F	15.36**
(d.f.)	(1,74)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 6
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations Frequency and
Outside of Work Donations Frequency

Variable	1
Work Donations	0.26*
R ²	0.07
F	5.17*
(d.f.)	(1, 74)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

a Standardized betas are reported

Table 7
Study 3: Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations

Variables	M	S.D.	1	2	3
1. Work Volunteering	4.36	0.69			
2. Organizational Identification	1.80	0.89	.23**		
3. Positive Affective residue	4.36	0.55	.25**	.62**	
4. Volunteering Outside of work	3.13	0.41	.38**	.30**	.39**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 8
Donation Variables Correlation, Mean and Standard Deviation

Variables	M	S.D	1	2	3
1. Work Donations	4.42	0.70			
2. Organizational Identification	1.81	0.88	.39**		
3. Positive Affective residue	4.26	0.67	.47**	.55**	
4. Donating Outside of work	4.54	0.64	.45**	.30**	.33**

$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 9
Regression Analysis of the predictors of Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.06	-0.08	-0.08
Age	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.15*	0.14*
Education	0.10	0.03	0.13*	0.08	0.12	0.08
Work Volunteering		0.27**		0.19**		0.16*
Organizational Identification			0.33**	0.29**		
Positive Affective residue					0.44**	0.40**
R ²	0.02	0.09	0.13	0.17	0.21	0.24
F	1.54	5.00**	8.01**	8.18**	13.91**	12.66**
(d.f.)	(3, 214)	(4, 208)	(4, 214)	(5, 208)	(4, 208)	(5, 208)
Change in R ²		0.07	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.02

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 10
Regression Analysis of the predictors of Frequency of Donating Outside of Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.02	0.05
Age	0.08	0.01	0.10	0.03	0.21	0.09
Education	0.09	0.04	0.12	0.05	0.15	0.08**
Work Donations		0.66**		0.61**		0.54**
Organizational Identification			0.36**	0.12*		
Positive Affective residue					0.53**	0.25**
R ²	0.02	0.45	0.15	0.46	0.28	0.49
F	1.53	41.70**	9.86**	34.90**	19.54**	39.58**
(d.f.)	(3, 228)	(4, 206)	(4, 231)	(5, 210)	(4, 206)	(4, 205)
Change in R ²		0.43	-0.30	0.31	-0.18	0.22

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 11
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Frequency of Volunteering at Work
and Organizational Identification moderated by Positive Affective Residue

Variable	1	2	3	4
Gender	.06	.05	-.02	-.02
Age	-.09	-.09	-.01	-.01
Education	-.07	-.12	-.06	-.06
Work Volunteering		.28**	.09	.09
Positive Affective residue			.60**	.61**
Work Volunteering * Positive Affective residue				.02
R ²	.02	.09	.40	.40
F	1.36	5.95**	32.17**	26.74**
(d.f.)	(3, 245)	(4, 245)	(5, 245)	(6, 245)
Change in R ²		0.07	0.31	0.00

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 12
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations and
Organizational Identification moderated by Positive Affective Residue

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.06	0.00	0.00
Age	-0.06	0.04	0.05
Education	-0.06	-0.03	0.00
Work Donations		0.17**	0.31**
Positive Affective Residue		0.48**	0.49**
Work Donations * Positive Affective Residue			0.28**
R ²	0.01	0.33	0.39
F	0.87	21.66**	23.00**
(d.f)	(3, 221)	(5, 221)	(6, 221)
Change in R ²		.32	.06

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 13
Volunteering Post hoc results: Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations

Variables	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.53	0.50									
2. Age	2.95	1.37	-.18**								
3. Education	4.32	1.40	.060	-.060							
4. Empathy	4.27	0.58	.080	-.040	-.080						
5. On Company Time	2.59	1.09	.030	-.080	.050	-.080					
6. Volunteering at work	4.36	0.69	.020	.060	.18**	.18**	.13*				
7. Organizational Identification	1.80	0.89	.070	-.080	-.030	.41**	.060	.23**			
8. Positive Affective residue	4.36	0.55	.17**	-.16*	-.050	.60**	.000	.25**	.62**		
9. Negative Affective residue	1.49	0.67	-.020	-.070	-.070	-.40**	.100	-.14*	-.16**	-.27**	
10. Volunteering outside of work	3.13	0.41	0.01	0.07	0.12	.38**	-0.03	.38**	.30**	.39**	-.31**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 14
Donation Post hoc results: Correlation, Mean and Standard Deviation

Variables	M	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	1.53	0.50								
2. Age	2.95	1.37	-.19**							
3. Education	4.30	1.41	0.06	-0.06						
4. Empathy	4.27	0.58	0.08	-0.04	-0.08					
5. Donating at work	4.42	0.70	0	0.06	.13*	.30**				
6. Organizational Identification	1.81	0.88	0.08	-0.09	-0.04	.41**	.39**			
7. Positive Affective residue	4.26	0.67	.19**	-.26**	-0.06	.51**	.47**	.55**		
8. Negative Affective residue	1.35	0.65	0	0.02	-0.03	-.52**	-.37**	-.24**	-.27**	
9. Donating Outside of work	4.54	0.64	0.04	0.05	0.12	.41**	.45**	.30**	.33**	-.24**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 15
Post Hoc Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering and Volunteering Outside of Work Frequency with the Mediating and Control Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08	-0.06	-0.08
Age	0.09	0.07	0.09	0.11	0.07	0.11
Education	0.16*	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.11	0.12
On Company Time	0.01	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03	-0.04
Empathy	0.42**	0.38**	0.31**	0.23**	0.36**	0.21**
Work Volunteering		0.19**	0.16	0.15*	0.19**	0.15*
Organizational Identification			0.18**			0.07
Positive Affective residue				0.27**		0.23*
Negative Affective residue					-0.06	-0.03
R ²	0.20	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.23	0.28
F	9.84**	9.90**	9.75**	10.84**	8.56**	8.51**
(d.f.)	(5,208)	(6,208)	(7,208)	(7,208)	(7,208)	(9,208)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 16
Post Hoc Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations and Out of Work Donations Frequency with the Mediating and Control Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.05
Age	0.11	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.04	0.08
Education	0.15**	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.10
Empathy	0.50**	0.25**	0.24**	0.19**	0.29**	0.22**
Work Donations		0.57**	0.55**	0.52**	0.59**	0.53**
Organizational Identification			0.05			0.00
Positive Affective residue				0.15*		0.14*
Negative Affective residue					0.08	0.06
R ²	0.27	0.50	0.50	0.51	0.51	0.52
F	20.54**	41.20**	34.42**	35.93**	34.72**	26.94**
(d.f.)	(4,231)	(5,210)	(6,210)	(6,210)	(6,210)	(8,210)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 17
Correlations between Types of Organization volunteered for at Work and Outside of Work

Organization Types		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Work Volunteering	1. Human service											
	2. Religious	.13*										
	3. Educational	0.12	.19**									
	4. Political groups	0.1	.27**	.22**								
	5. Environmental	0.05	0.1	.13*	.12*							
	6 .Other	-.12*	0.04	0.01	0.06	0						
Outside of Work Volunteering	7. Human service	.37**	0.03	0.09	0	.19**	-0.05					
	8 .Religious	0.07	.56**	.16**	.15*	0.07	0.06	0.11				
	9. Educational	0.08	.23**	.50**	.18**	.21**	0.07	.21**	.17**			
	10. Political groups	0.03	.17**	0.06	.33**	0.02	0.09	0.04	.20**	0.07		
	11. Environmental	.13*	0.1	0.08	.15*	.53**	0.1	.22**	0.1	.19**	.14*	
	12. Other	-0.06	0.01	0.06	0.06	-0.01	.44**	0	0.04	0.08	.17**	0.08

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 18
Correlation between Types of Organizations donated to at Work and Outside of Work

	Organization Types	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Work donations	1. Human service											
	2. Religious	0.03										
	3. Educational	.19**	.25**									
	4. Political groups	0.03	.29**	0.09								
	5. Environmental	.21**	0.06	.26**	0							
	6 .Other	-0.06	0.03	0.12	0.09	0.1						
Outside of work donations	7. Human service	.45**	0.06	.12*	0.02	.17**	-0.07					
	8 .Religious	0.04	.38**	.24**	.14*	0.11	0.08	0.1				
	9. Educational	.14*	.17**	.51**	0.1	.13*	0.09	.20**	.21**			
	10. Political groups	0.09	0.06	0.12	.24**	0.09	0.11	.14*	0.11	.19**		
	11. Environmental	.14*	.17**	.24**	0.08	.56**	0.08	.22**	0.11	.23**	.26**	
	12. Other	-0.08	-0.05	0.08	0.08	-0.01	.49**	0.03	0	0.02	0.11	0.03

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 19
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that volunteered for
Human Services Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.05	-0.07	-0.07	-0.07	-0.08	-0.07
Age	0.10	0.08	0.10	0.11	0.07	0.11
Education	0.18	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.15
On Company Time	-0.02	-0.08	-0.09	-0.07	-0.07	-0.08
Empathy	0.44**	0.39**	0.33**	0.26**	0.36**	0.25**
Work Volunteering		0.22**	0.18*	0.18*	0.21**	0.17*
Organizational Identification			0.19*			0.11
Positive Affective residue				0.24**		0.16
Negative Affective residue					-0.08	-0.03
R ²	0.22	0.26	0.29	0.30	0.27	0.30
F	8.94**	9.28**	9.08**	9.37**	8.13**	7.46**
(d.f.)	(5,162)	(6, 162)	(7, 162)	(7, 162)	(7, 162)	(9, 162)
Change in R ²		0.04	0.03	0.01	-0.03	0.04

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 20
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that volunteered for
Religious Services Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.08	-0.08	-0.11	-0.15	-0.10	-0.16
Age	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.04	-0.02	0.01
Education	0.26	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.25	0.28
On Company Time	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.00	0.05	0.01
Empathy	0.49*	0.47**	0.40*	0.27	0.40*	0.23
Work Volunteering		0.07	0.01	-0.01	0.03	-0.04
Organizational Identification			0.21			0.04
Positive Affective residue				0.38*		0.34
Negative Affective residue					-0.15	-0.12
R ²	0.23	0.23	0.27	0.32	0.25	0.33
F	2.62*	2.17**	2.19*	2.86	1.97*	2.22
(d.f.)	(5,49)	(6, 49)	(7, 49)	(7, 49)	(7, 49)	(9, 49)
Change in R ²		0.00	0.03	0.06	-0.08	0.09

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 21
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that volunteered for
Educational Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00
Age	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.06
Education	0.11	0.07	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.09
On Company Time	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02
Empathy	0.47**	0.45**	0.38**	0.30**	0.46**	0.33**
Work Volunteering		0.14	0.10	0.10	0.14	0.10
Organizational Identification			0.15			0.00
Positive Affective residue				0.27*		0.29*
Negative Affective residue					0.03	0.08
R ²	0.23	0.25	0.26	0.30	0.25	0.30
F	5.40**	4.85**	4.44**	5.24**	4.12**	4.07**
(d.f.)	(5,94)	(6, 94)	(7, 94)	(7, 94)	(7, 94)	(9, 94)
Change in R ²		0.02	0.01	0.03	-0.05	0.05

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 22
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that volunteered for
Political Campaigns at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00
Age	0.10	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.06
Education	0.26	0.07	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.09
On Company Time	0.14	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02
Empathy	0.78*	0.45**	0.38**	0.30**	0.46**	0.33**
Work Volunteering		0.14	0.10	0.10	0.14	0.10
Organizational Identification			0.15			0.00
Positive Affective residue				0.27*		0.29*
Negative Affective residue					0.03	0.08
R ²	0.61	0.25	0.26	0.30	0.25	0.30
F	2.20*	4.85**	4.44**	5.24**	4.12**	4.07**
(d.f.)	(5,12)	(6, 12)	(7, 12)	(7, 12)	(7, 12)	(9, 12)
Change in R ²		-0.36	0.01	0.03	-0.05	0.05

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 23
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that volunteered for
Environmental Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.03
Age	0.19	0.16	0.18	0.17	0.16	0.18
Education	0.06	0.05	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.09
On Company Time	0.15	0.13	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.11
Empathy	0.44**	0.40**	0.35**	0.32**	0.40**	0.33**
Work Volunteering		0.19*	0.15	0.16	0.19	0.15
Organizational Identification			0.16			0.13
Positive Affective residue				0.14		0.08
Negative Affective residue					0.01	0.04
R ²	0.23	0.26	0.28	0.27	0.26	0.28
F	5.12**	5.07**	4.76**	4.60**	4.30**	3.68**
(d.f.)	(5,93)	(6, 93)	(7, 93)	(7, 93)	(7, 93)	(9, 93)
Change in R ²		0.03	0.02	-0.01	-0.01	0.02

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 24
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that donated to Human
Service Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.02
Age	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.05
Education	0.15	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.11
Empathy	0.43**	0.27**	0.26**	0.17*	0.31**	0.20*
Work Donations		0.46**	0.44**	0.41**	0.48**	0.43**
Organizational Identification			0.05			-0.01
Positive Affective residue				0.21*		0.20*
Negative Affective residue					0.09	0.07
R ²	0.18	0.37	0.37	0.39	0.38	0.40
F	8.40**	17.49**	14.60**	15.93**	14.83**	11.96**
(d.f.)	(4,153)	(5, 153)	(6, 153)	(6, 153)	(6, 153)	(8, 153)
Change in R ²		0.19	0.00	0.02	-0.02	0.02

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 25
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that donated to Religious Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.10	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.05
Age	0.04	0.01	0.02	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03
Education	0.33*	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.12	0.10
Empathy	0.62**	0.13	0.12	0.16	0.09	0.12
Work Donations		0.75**	0.73**	0.76**	0.74**	0.72**
Organizational Identification			0.05			0.07
Positive Affective residue				-0.09		-0.12
Negative Affective residue					-0.09	-0.08
R ²	0.40	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.72
F	6.35**	17.85**	14.58**	14.84**	14.87**	10.97**
(d.f.)	(4,42)	(5, 42)	(6, 42)	(6, 42)	(6, 42)	(8, 42)
Change in R ²		0.31	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 26
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that donated to
Educational Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.03
Age	0.15	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.13	0.11
Education	0.12	0.05	0.09	0.06	0.09	0.11
Empathy	0.48**	0.32**	0.20*	0.28*	0.47**	0.41**
Work Donations		0.40**	0.30**	0.41**	0.46**	0.34**
Organizational Identification			0.29**			0.30**
Positive Affective residue				0.06		-0.12
Negative Affective residue					0.28*	0.25*
R ²	0.26	0.39	0.44	0.39	0.43	0.48
F	7.70**	11.06**	11.36**	9.18**	10.98**	9.71**
(d.f.)	(4,92)	(5, 92)	(6, 92)	(6, 92)	(6, 92)	(8, 92)
Change in R ²		0.13	0.05	-0.05	0.04	0.05

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 27
Regression that test the dissertation model within participants that donated to
political organizations or campaigns at work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-0.13	0.07	-0.33	-0.19	-0.03	-0.34
Age	0.15	-0.09	0.22	0.05	-0.04	0.21
Education	0.11	-0.02	0.17	-0.02	0.15	0.22
Empathy	0.54	-0.12	-0.34	-0.36	-0.47	-0.51
Work Donations		0.96**	0.61*	0.77*	1.10*	0.72
Organizational Identification			0.63*			0.51
Positive Affective residue				0.43		0.06
Negative Affective residue					-0.41	-0.21
R ²	0.36	0.69	0.84	0.75	0.76	0.85
F	1.52	4.50**	7.72*	4.55*	4.74*	5.05
(d.f.)	(4,15)	(5, 15)	(6, 15)	(6, 15)	(6, 15)	(8, 15)
Change in R ²		0.34	0.14	-0.09	0.01	0.09

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 28
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants that donated to
Environmental Organizations at Work

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	0.13	0.16	0.15	0.12	0.16	0.12
Age	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.11	0.04	0.11
Education	0.20*	0.14	0.16	0.18	0.14	0.18*
Empathy	0.48**	0.29**	0.27**	0.19	0.31**	0.20
Work Donations		0.51**	0.46**	0.45**	0.52**	0.44**
Organizational Identification			0.12			0.04
Positive Affective residue				0.24*		0.22
Negative Affective residue					0.04	0.01
R ²	0.27	0.49	0.50	0.52	0.49	0.52
F	7.60**	15.61**	13.33**	14.50**	12.91**	10.65**
(d.f.)	(4,87)	(5, 87)	(6, 87)	(6, 87)	(6, 87)	(8, 87)
Change in R ²		0.22	0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.03

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 29
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants who volunteered at Work
and are between 18 and 34 years old

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-.01	.01	.02	.03	.02	.04
Age	.12	.07	.09	.08	.07	.07
Education	-.08	-.15	-.15	-.15	-.15	-.17
On Company Time	.08	.06	.05	.06	.06	.05
Empathy	.45**	.35**	.32**	.19	.39**	.23*
Work Volunteering		.34**	.31**	.27*	.35**	.28**
Organizational Identification			.13			-.04
Positive Affective residue				.32**		.37**
Negative Affective residue					.08	.14
R ²	.21	.31	.32	.37	.31	.39
F	4.57	6.44	5.79	7.24	5.57	5.87
(d.f.)	(5,92)	(6, 92)	(7, 92)	(7, 92)	(7, 92)	(9, 92)
Change in R ²		.10	.01	.05	-.06	.07

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 30
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants who volunteered at Work
and are 35 years old and above

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	-.09	-.09	-.11	-.13	-.09	-.12
Age	-.05	-.05	-.02	-.02	-.06	-.02
Education	.28**	.26**	.28**	.26**	.24*	.26**
On Company Time	-.06	-.09	-.11	-.10	-.09	-.11
Empathy	.41**	.39**	.29**	.23*	.32**	.16
Work Volunteering		.11	.08	.09	.10	.07
Organizational Identification			.23*			.15
Positive Affective residue				.25*		.16
Negative Affective residue					-.17	-.16
R ²	.23	.24	.28	.28	.26	.31
F	6.47	5.66	5.94	5.87	5.45	5.30
(d.f.)	(5,115)	(6, 115)	(7, 115)	(7, 115)	(7, 115)	(9, 115)
Change in R ²		.01	.04	.00	-.01	.05

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 31
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants who donated at Work and
are between 18 and 34 years old

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	.03	.05	.05	.04	.04	.04
Age	.08	.03	.04	.04	.04	.05
Education	.08	.04	.04	.03	.04	.02
Empathy	.43**	.15*	.13	.11	.11	.06
Work Donations		.75**	.72**	.69**	.74**	.69**
Organizational Identification			.08			.05
Positive Affective residue				.12		.10
Negative Affective residue					-.08	-.08
R ²	.19	.66	.67	.67	.67	.67
F	5.57	33.57	28.28	28.62	28.20	21.51
(d.f.)	(4,101)	(5,101)	(6,101)	(6,101)	(6,101)	(8,101)
Change in R ²		.47	.01	.00	.00	.01

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 32
Regression of the Dissertation Model within participants who donated at Work and are 45 years old and above

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	.07	.09	.09	.07	.08	.07
Age	.04	.00	.00	.03	.00	.03
Education	.18*	.14	.14	.16*	.14	.16*
Empathy	.56**	.36**	.35**	.29**	.42**	.36**
Work Donations		.38**	.37**	.34**	.44**	.41**
Organizational Identification			.03			-.04
Positive Affective residue				.15	.00	.13
Negative Affective residue					.16	.14
R ²	.34	.40	.40	.41	.42	.42
F	16.21	15.21	12.59	13.13	13.34	10.11
(d.f.)	(4,129)	(5,129)	(6,129)	(6,129)	(6,129)	(8,129)
Change in R ²		.06	.00	.01	.00	.01

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 33
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Frequency of Work Volunteering
and Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work moderated by Organizational
Identification

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	-0.05	-0.06	-0.03
Age	0.10	0.11	0.12
Education	0.10	0.09	0.10
Work Volunteering		0.19**	0.23**
Organizational Identification		0.29**	0.30**
Work Volunteering* Organizational Identification			-0.21**
R ²	0.02	0.17	0.21
F	1.59	8.16**	9.00**
(d.f)	(3, 211)	5, 211)	(6, 211)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 34
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations Frequency and
Frequency of Donating Outside of Work moderated by Organizational
Identification

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.08	0.07	0.07
Age	0.07	0.03	0.03
Education	0.10	0.05	0.05
Work Donations		0.61**	0.62**
Organizational Identification		0.12**	0.11
Work Donations * Organizational Identification			0.03
R ²	0.02	0.46	0.46
F	1.48	34.90**	29.03**
(d.f)	(3, 210)	(5, 210)	(6, 210)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 35
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Frequency and
Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work moderated by Empathy

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	-0.05	-0.07	-0.04
Age	0.10	0.08	0.09
Education	0.10	0.12	0.14**
Work Volunteering		0.18**	0.30**
Empathy		0.38**	0.37**
Work Volunteering * Empathy			-0.31**
R ²	0.02	0.23	0.31
F	1.59	12.00**	15.12**
(d.f)	(3, 211)	5, 211)	(6, 211)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 36
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations and Frequency of Donating Outside of Work moderated by Empathy

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.08	0.07	0.07
Age	0.07	0.04	0.04
Education	0.10	0.09	0.08
Work Donations		0.57**	0.56**
Empathy		0.25**	0.24**
Work Donations * Empathy			-0.12**
R ²	0.02	0.50	0.52
F	1.48	41.20**	36.21**
(d.f)	(3, 210)	(5, 210)	(6, 210)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 37
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Frequency and
Organizational Identification moderated by Industry

Variables	1.	2	3
Gender	0.06	0.07	0.07
Age	-0.08	-0.10	-0.10
Education	-0.07	-0.12	-0.12
Work Volunteering		0.28**	0.28**
Industry		-0.08	-0.08
Work Volunteering * Industry			0.01
R ²	0.02	0.10	0.10
F	1.36	5.06**	4.20**
(d.f)	(3, 243)	(5, 243)	(6, 243)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 38
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering Frequency and
Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work moderated by Industry

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.01	0.01	0.02
Age	0.03	0.02	0.01
Education	0.06	0.00	-0.01
Work Volunteering		0.29**	0.31**
Industry		-0.05	-0.04
Work Volunteering * Industry			0.09
R ²	0.00	0.09	0.10
F	0.35	4.30**	3.90**
(d.f)	(3, 225)	(5, 225)	(6, 225)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 39
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations Frequency and
Organizational Identification moderated by Industry

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.07	0.07	0.06
Age	-0.05	-0.11	-0.11
Education	-0.07	-0.09	-0.09
Work Donations		0.41**	0.44**
Industry		-0.05	-0.05
Work Donations * Industry			-0.12
R ²	0.01	0.18	0.19
F	0.87	9.23**	8.38**
(d.f)	219	219	219

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 40
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations Frequency and
Frequency of Donating Outside of Work moderated by Industry

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.09	0.08	0.08
Age	0.08	0.02	0.02
Education	0.10	0.04	0.04
Work Donations		0.66**	0.68**
Industry		0.02	0.02
Work Donations * Industry			-0.08
R ²	0.02	0.45	0.45
F	1.47	32.74**	27.81**
(d.f)	(3, 208)	(5, 208)	(6, 208)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 41
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering and Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work moderated by Matching Recipient Organizations

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05
Age	0.10	0.09	0.08
Education	0.10	0.05	0.05
Work Volunteering		0.25**	0.25**
Matching Recipient Organizations		0.06	0.06
Work Volunteering * Matching Recipient Organizations			-0.03
R ²	0.02	0.09	0.09
F	1.59	4.17**	3.50**
(d.f)	(3, 211)	5, 211)	(6, 211)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 42
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Volunteering and
Organizational Identification moderated by Matching Recipient Organizations

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.06	0.05	0.05
Age	-0.09	-0.09	-0.09
Education	-0.07	-0.11	-0.11
Work Volunteering		0.26**	0.27**
Matching Recipient Organizations		0.09	0.08
Work Volunteering * Matching Recipient Organizations			0.06
R ²	0.02	0.10	0.10
F	1.36	5.24**	4.49**
(d.f)	(3, 245)	(5, 245)	(6, 245)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 43
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Organizational Identification and
Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work moderated by Matching Recipient
Organizations

Variables	1	2	3	4
Gender	-0.05	-0.05	-0.06	-0.06
Age	0.10	0.09	0.11	0.11
Education	0.10	0.04	0.09	0.09
Work Volunteering		0.26**	0.18**	0.18**
Organizational Identification			0.29**	0.28**
Matching Recipient Organizations			0.04	0.04
Organizational Identification * Matching Recipient Organizations				0.04
R ²	0.02	0.09	0.17	0.17
F	1.59	5.03**	6.84**	5.90**
(d.f)	(3, 211)	(4, 211)	(5, 211)	(6, 211)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 44
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations and Frequency of Donating Outside of Work moderated by Matching Recipient Organizations

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.06	0.07	0.05
Age	0.04	0.00	0.00
Education	0.08	0.06	0.07
Work Donations		0.54**	0.58**
Matching Recipient Organizations		-0.06	-0.13
Work Donations * Matching Recipient Organizations			0.17**
R ²	0.01	0.29	0.31
F	0.54	13.33**	12.27**
(d.f)	(3, 168)	(5, 168)	(6, 168)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 45
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Work Donations and
Organizational Identification moderated by Matching Recipient Organizations

Variables	1	2	3
Gender	0.00	0.00	-0.01
Age	-0.11	-0.14	-0.14**
Education	-0.08	-0.10	-0.09
Work Donations		0.40**	0.43**
Matching Recipient Organizations		0.08	0.02
Work Donations * Matching Recipient Organizations			0.13
R ²	0.02	0.20	0.21
F	0.93	8.30**	7.52**
(d.f)	(3, 176)	(5, 176)	(6, 176)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Table 46
Regression Analysis of the relationship between Organizational Identification and
Frequency of Donating Outside of Work moderated by Matching Recipient
Organizations

Variables	1	2	3	4
Gender	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.07
Age	0.04	0.00	0.02	0.02
Education	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.07
Work Donations		0.53**	0.48**	0.48**
Organizational Identification			0.16**	0.16**
Matching Recipient Organizations			-0.08	-0.08
Organizational Identification * Matching Recipient Organizations				0.02
R ²	0.01	0.29	0.31	0.31
F	0.54	16.46**	12.17**	10.38**
(d.f)	(3, 168)	(4, 168)	(5, 168)	(6, 168)

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

^a Standardized betas are reported

Figure 1
Model of participation in volunteering and donation programs at work, organizational identification, positive affective residue and participation in volunteering and donation outside of work

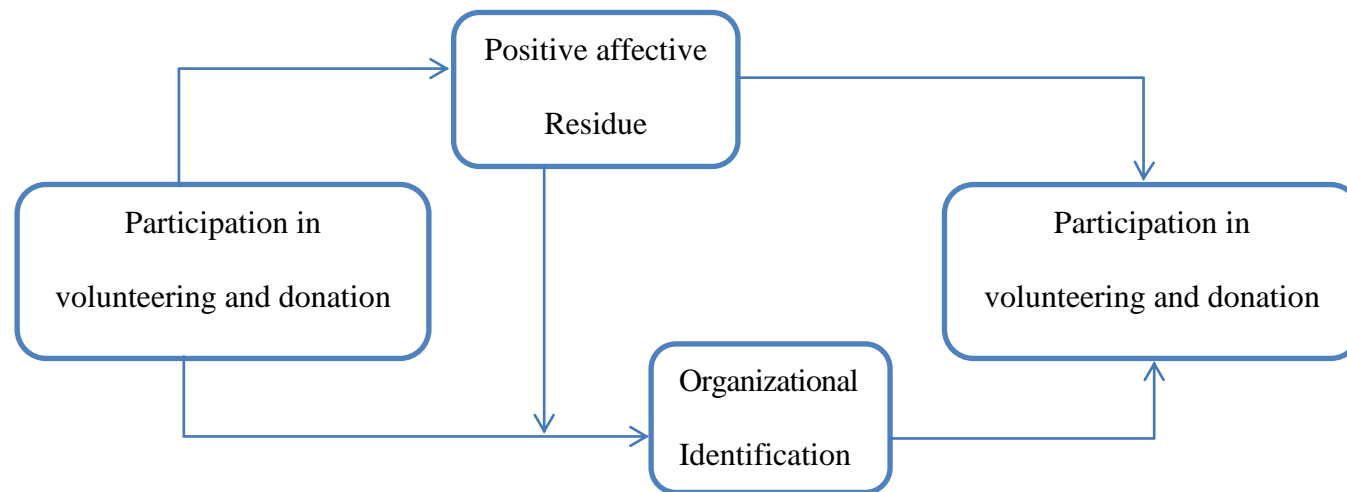
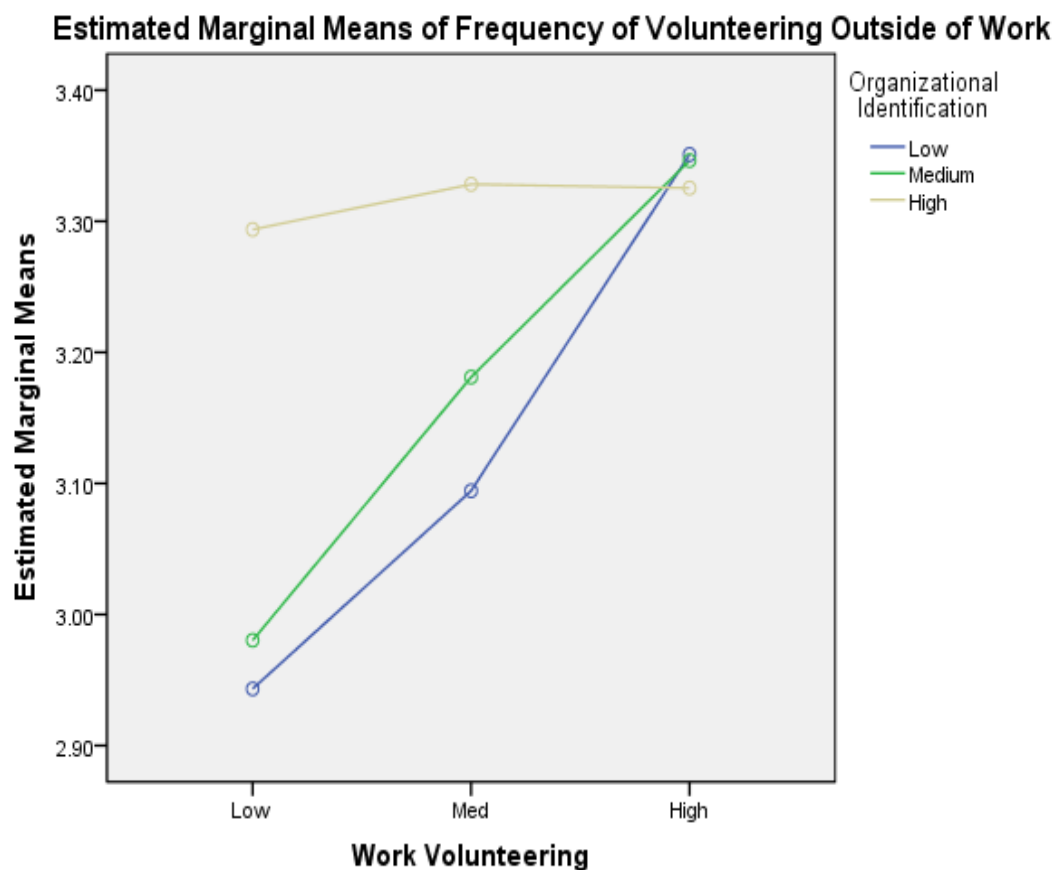
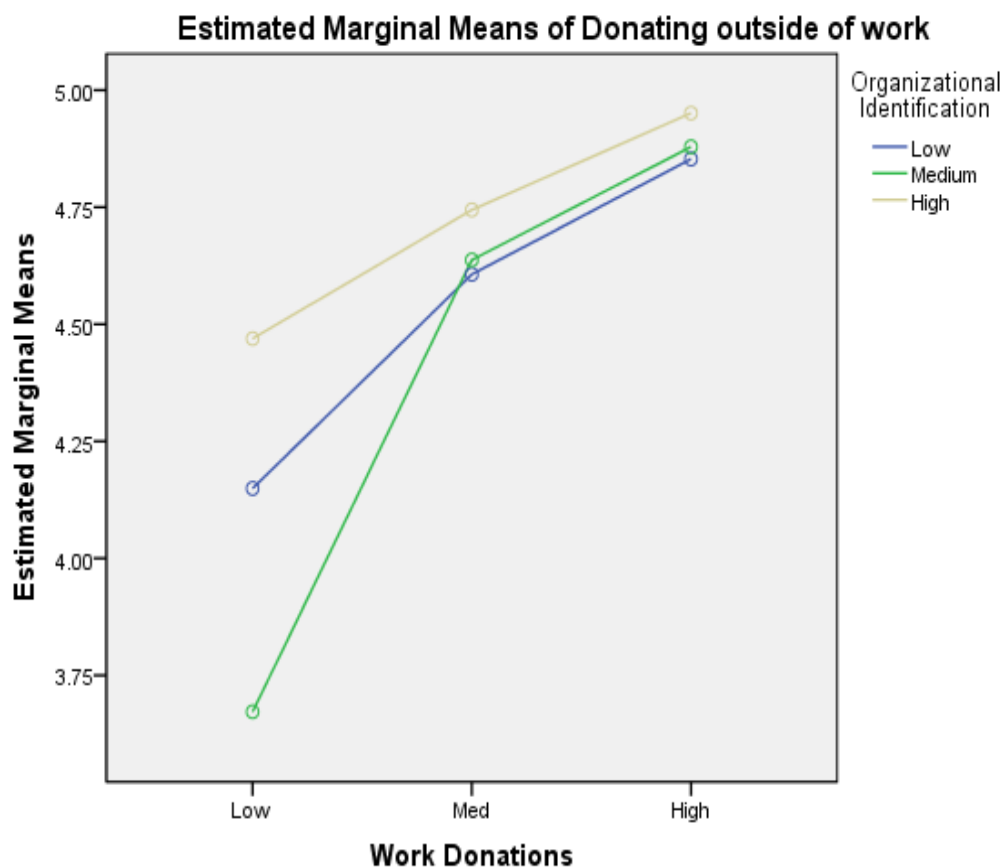


Figure 2
Effects of the Interaction of Frequency of Work Volunteering and Organizational Identification on Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work



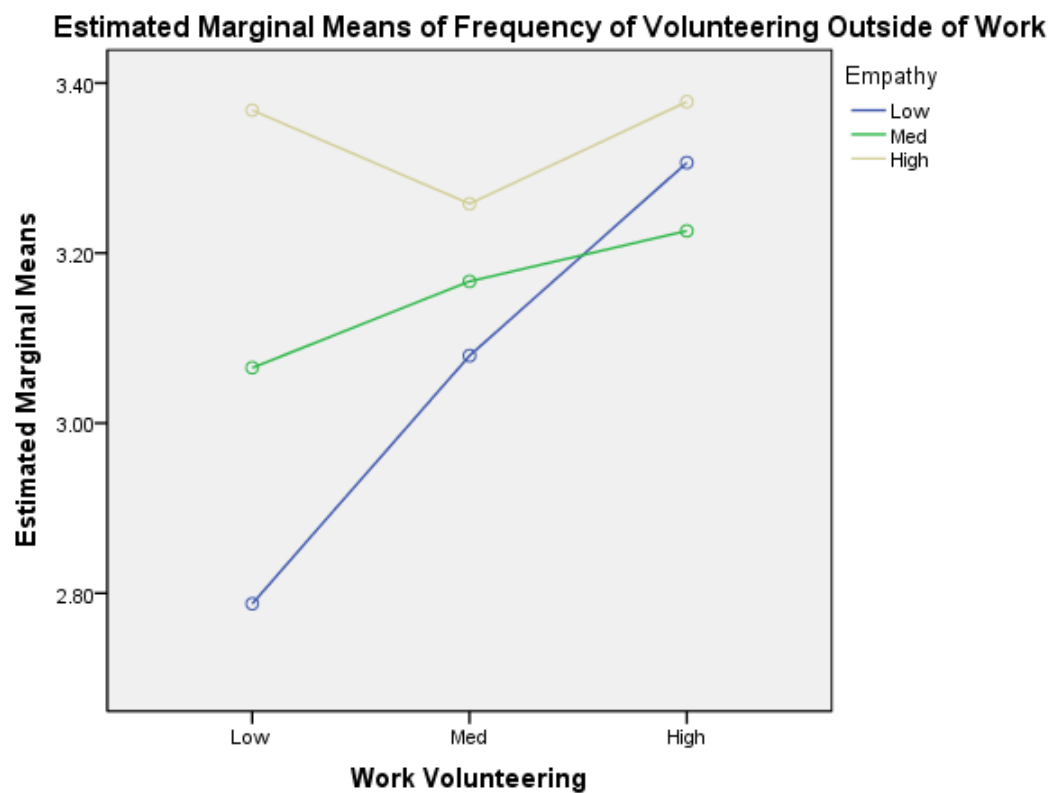
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.55, Age = 2.93, Education = 4.33

Figure 3
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations Frequency and Organizational Identification on Frequency of Donating Outside of Work



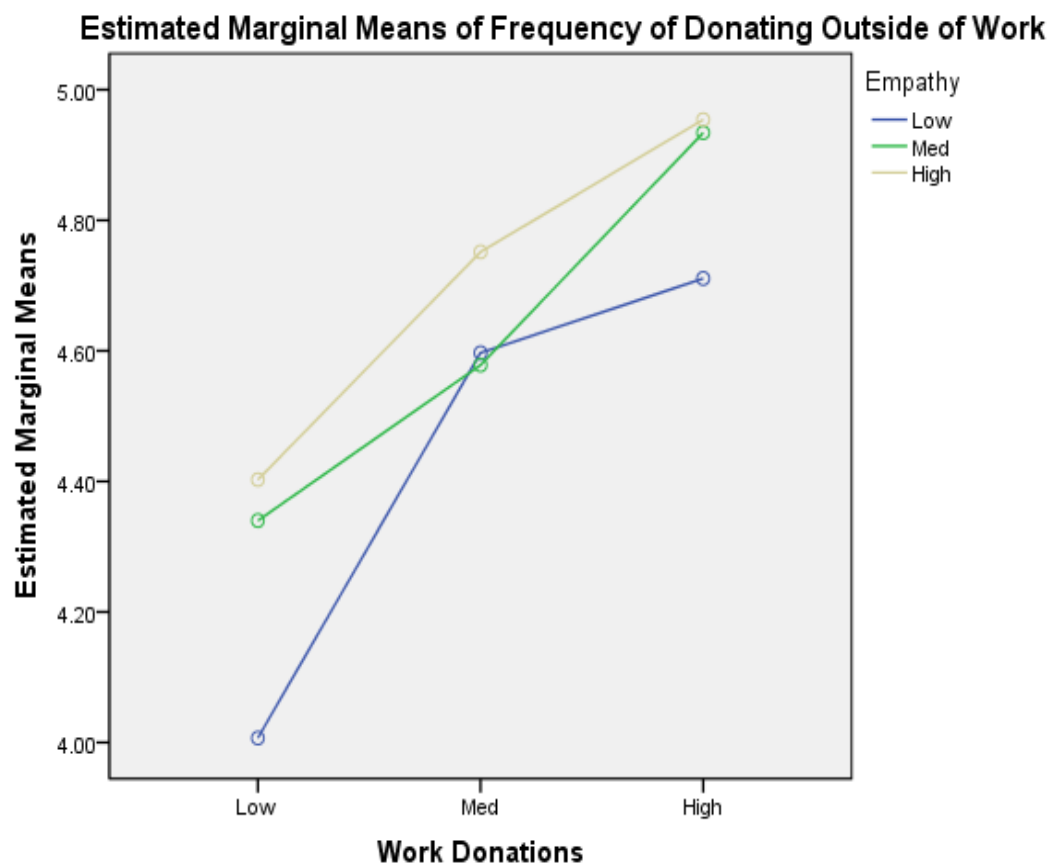
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.56, Age = 2.95, Education = 4.34

Figure 4
Effects of the Interaction of Frequency of Work Volunteering and Empathy on
Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work



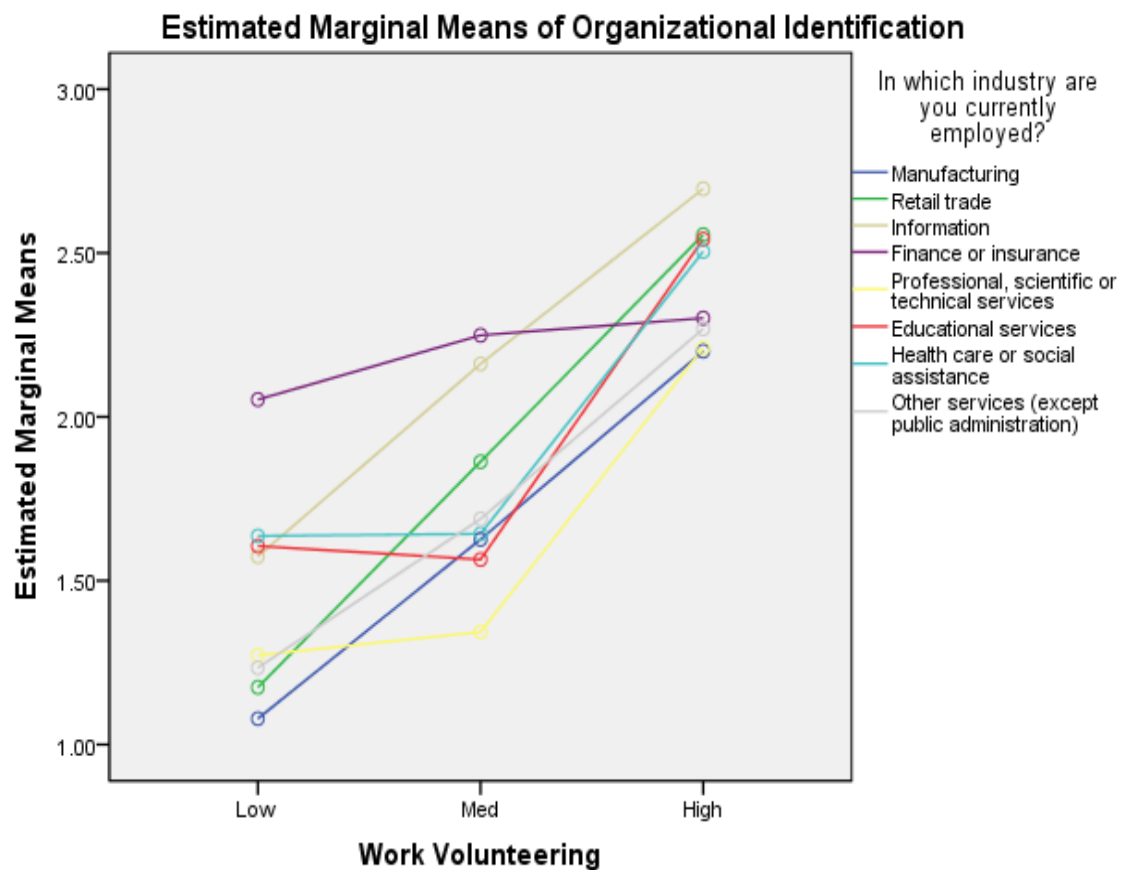
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.55, Age = 2.93, Education = 4.33

Figure 5
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations Frequency and Empathy on
Frequency of Donating Outside of Work



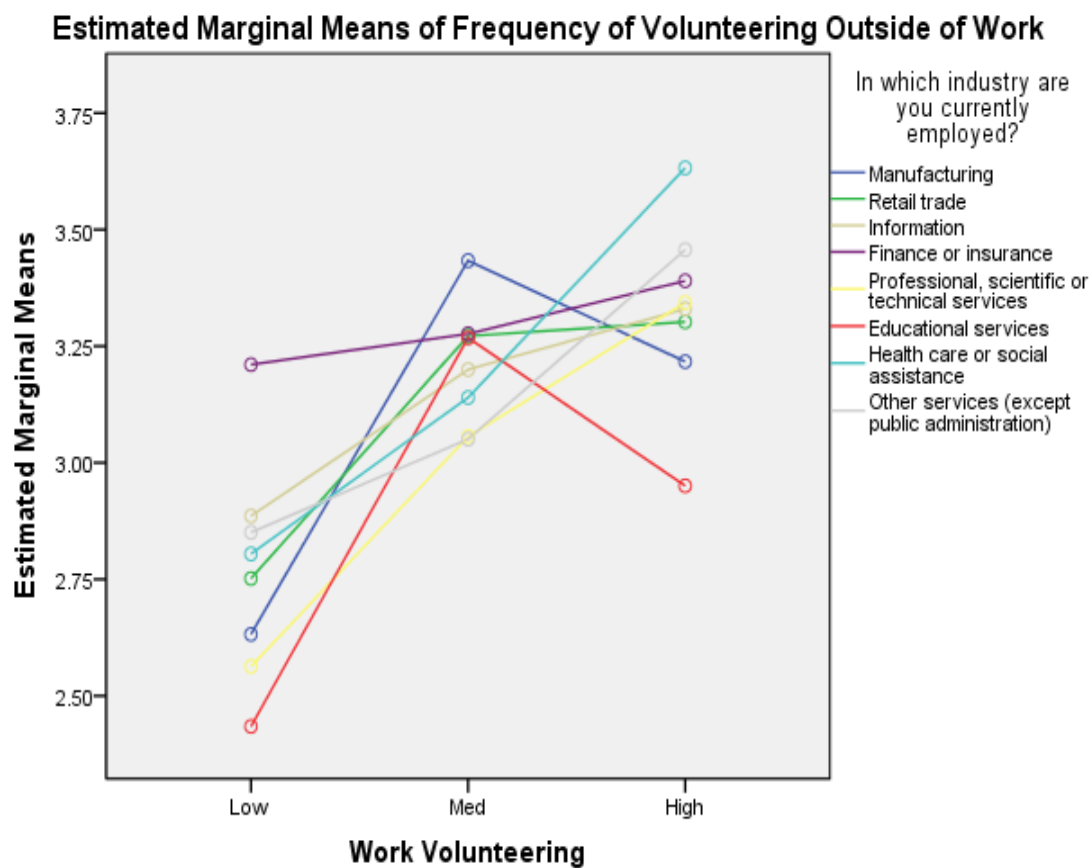
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.56, Age = 2.95, Education = 4.34

Figure 6
Effects of the Interaction of Work Volunteering Frequency and Industry on
Organizational Identification



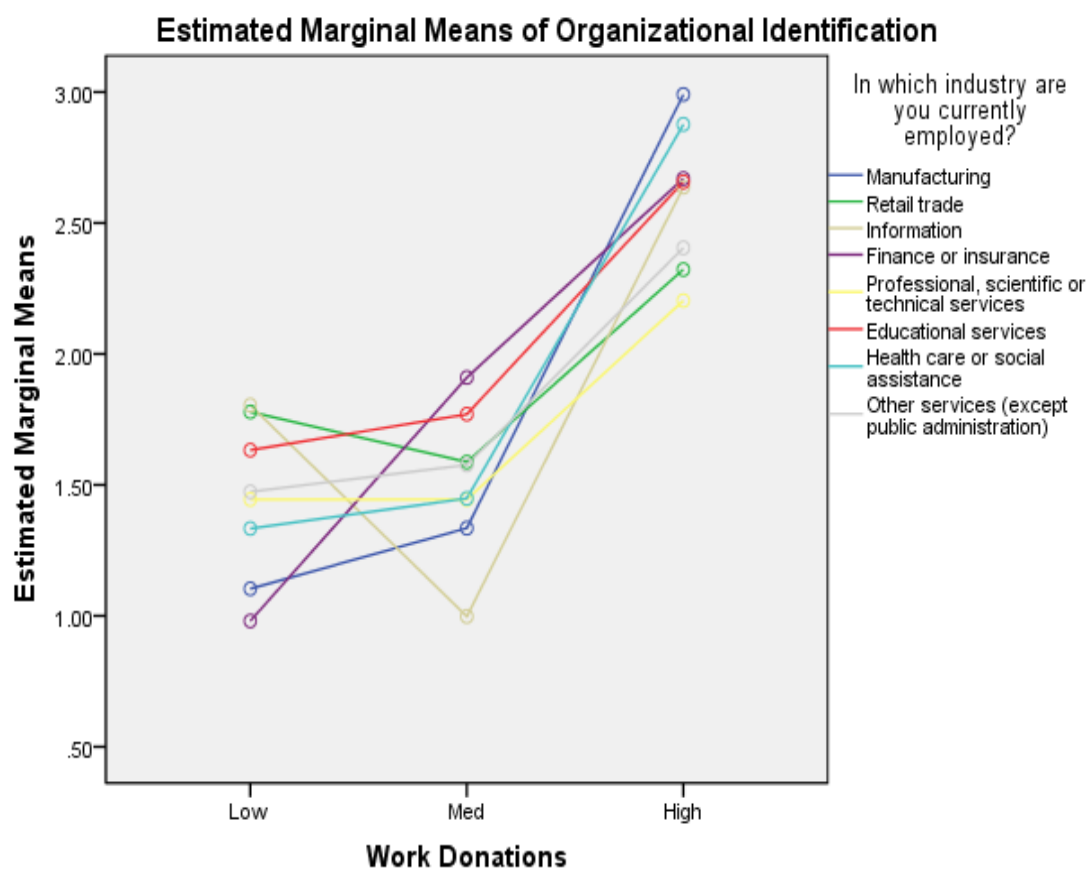
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.57, Age = 2.86, Education = 4.52

Figure 7
Effects of the Interaction of Work Volunteering Frequency and Industry on
Frequency of Volunteering Outside



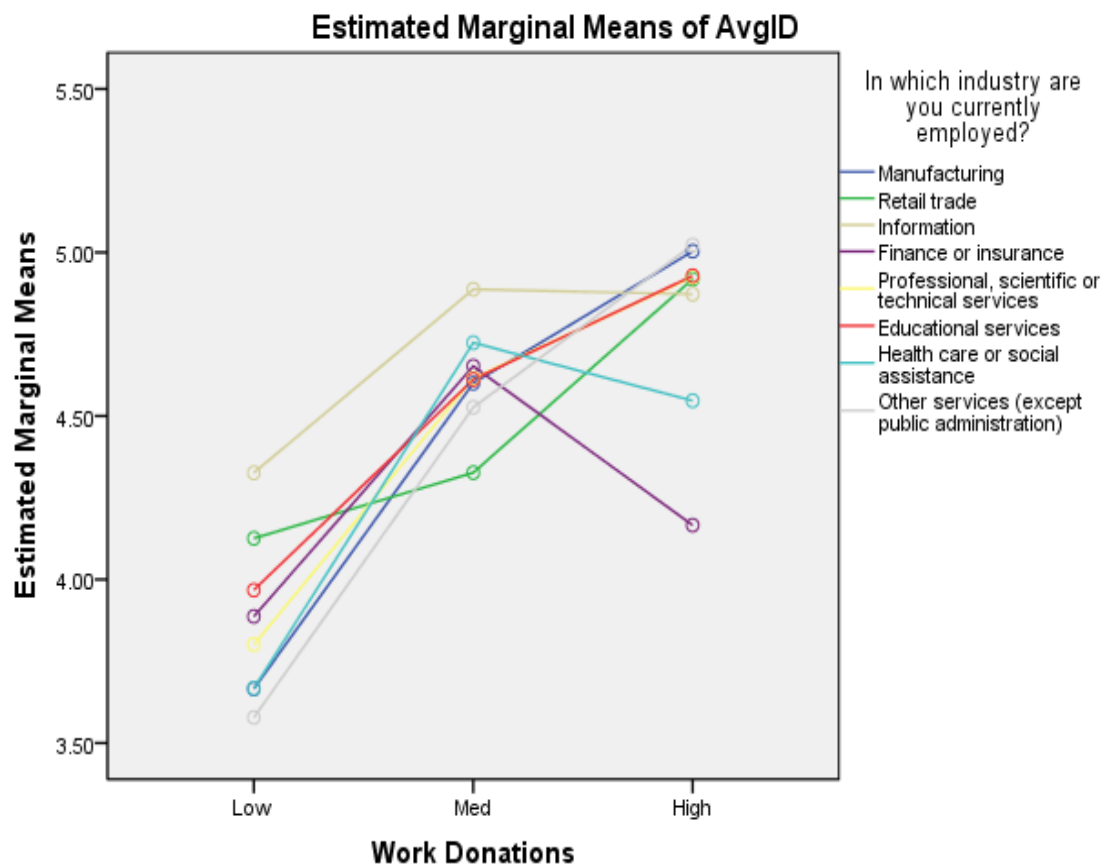
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.61, Age = 2.83, Education = 4.49

Figure 8
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations Frequency and Industry on
Organizational Identification



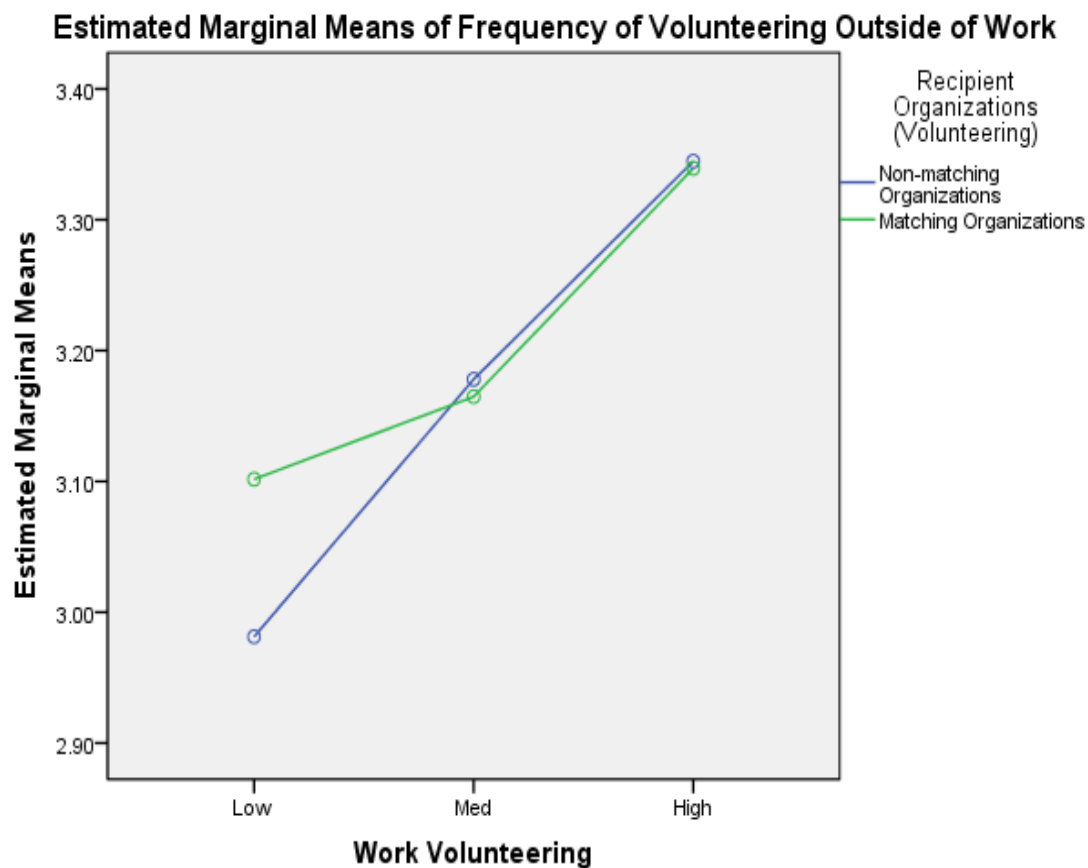
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.59, Age = 2.86, Education = 4.52

Figure 9
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations Frequency and Industry on Frequency of Donating Outside of Work



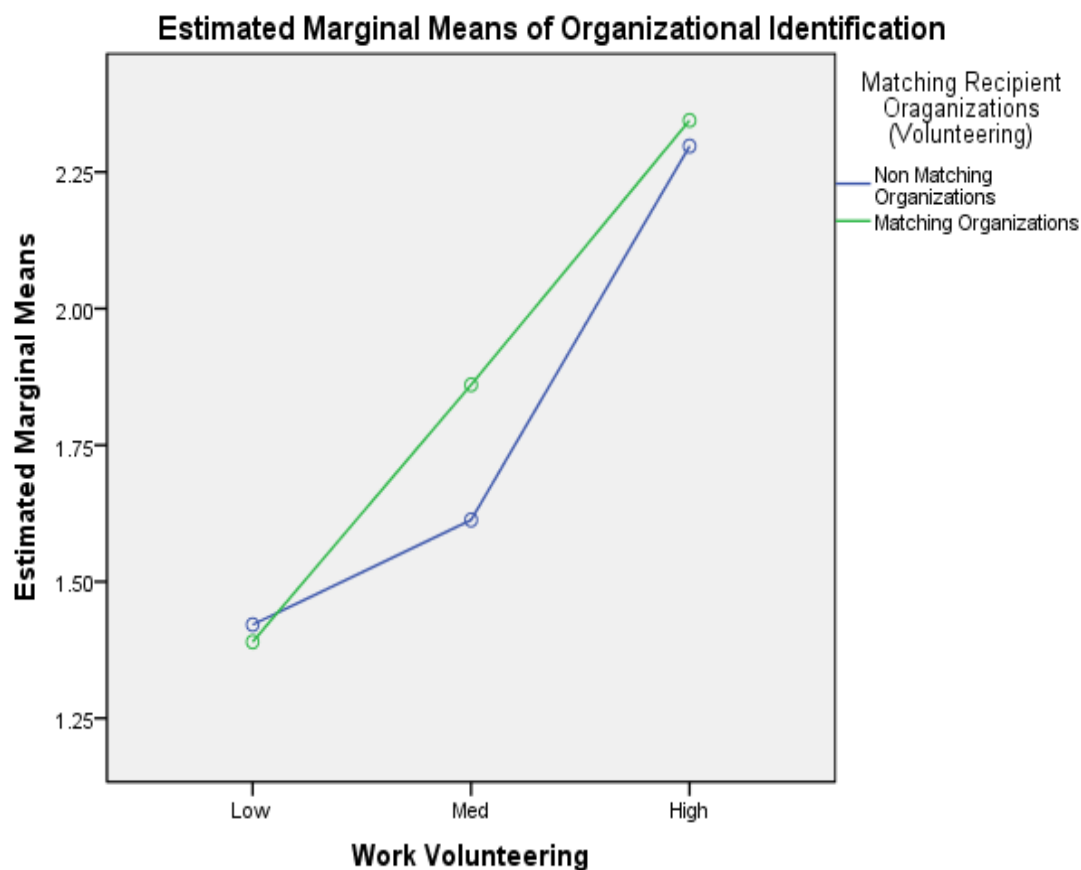
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.61, Age = 2.84, Education = 4.54

Figure 10
Effects of the Interaction of Work Volunteering and Matching Recipient Organizations on Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work



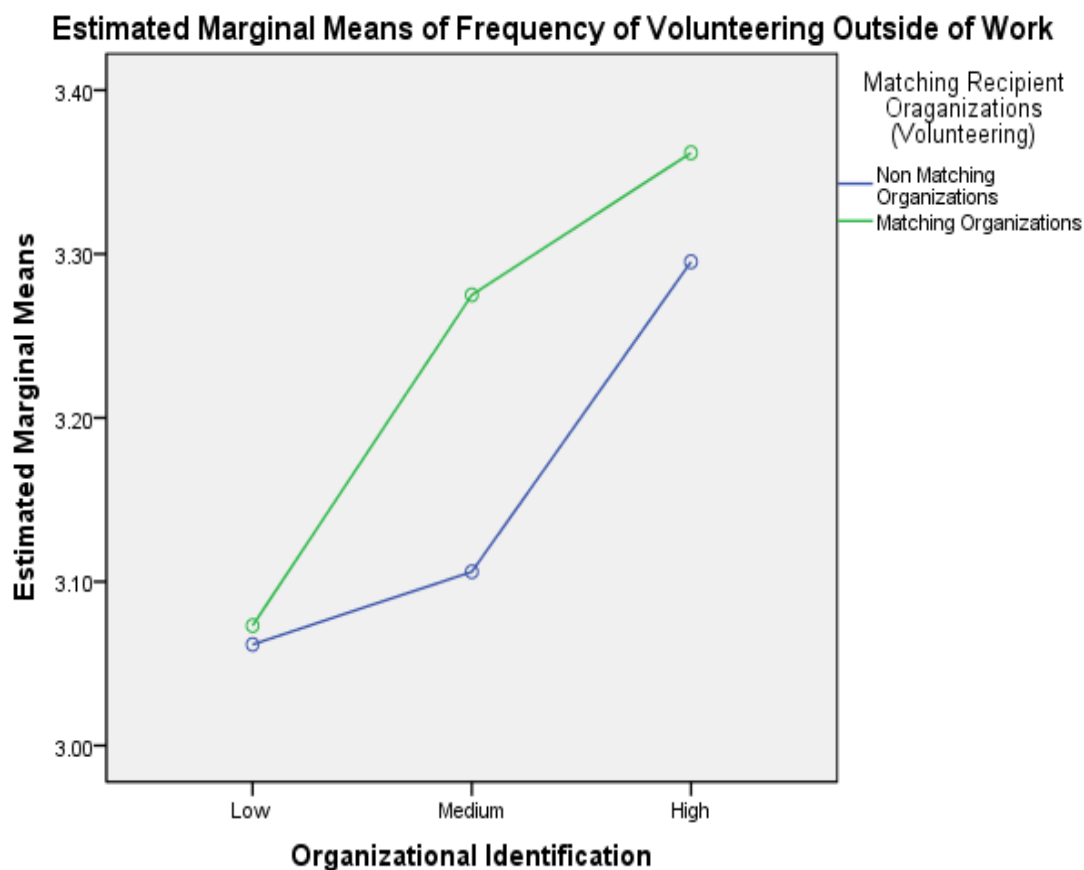
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.55, Age = 2.93, Education = 4.33

Figure 11
Effects of the Interaction of Work Volunteering and Matching Recipient Organizations on Organizational Identification



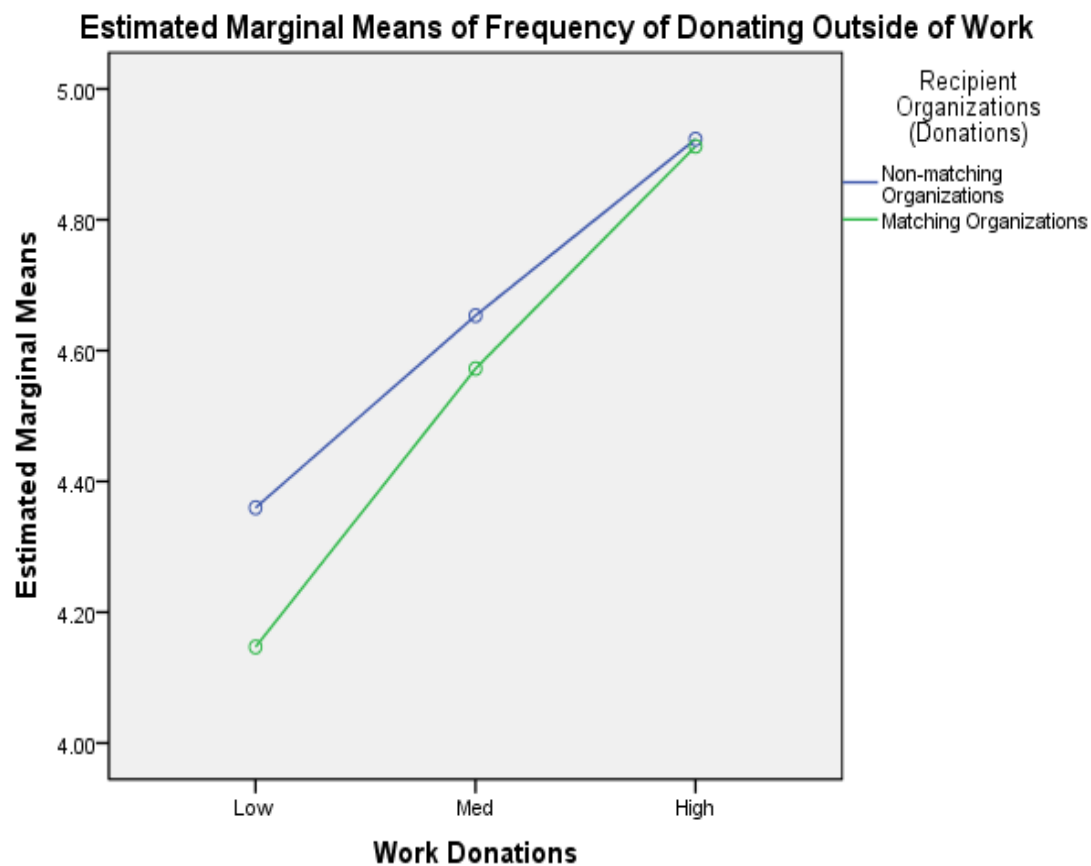
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.54, Age = 2.96, Education = 4.34

Figure 12
Effects of the Interaction of Organizational Identification and Matching Recipient Organizations on Frequency of Volunteering Outside of Work



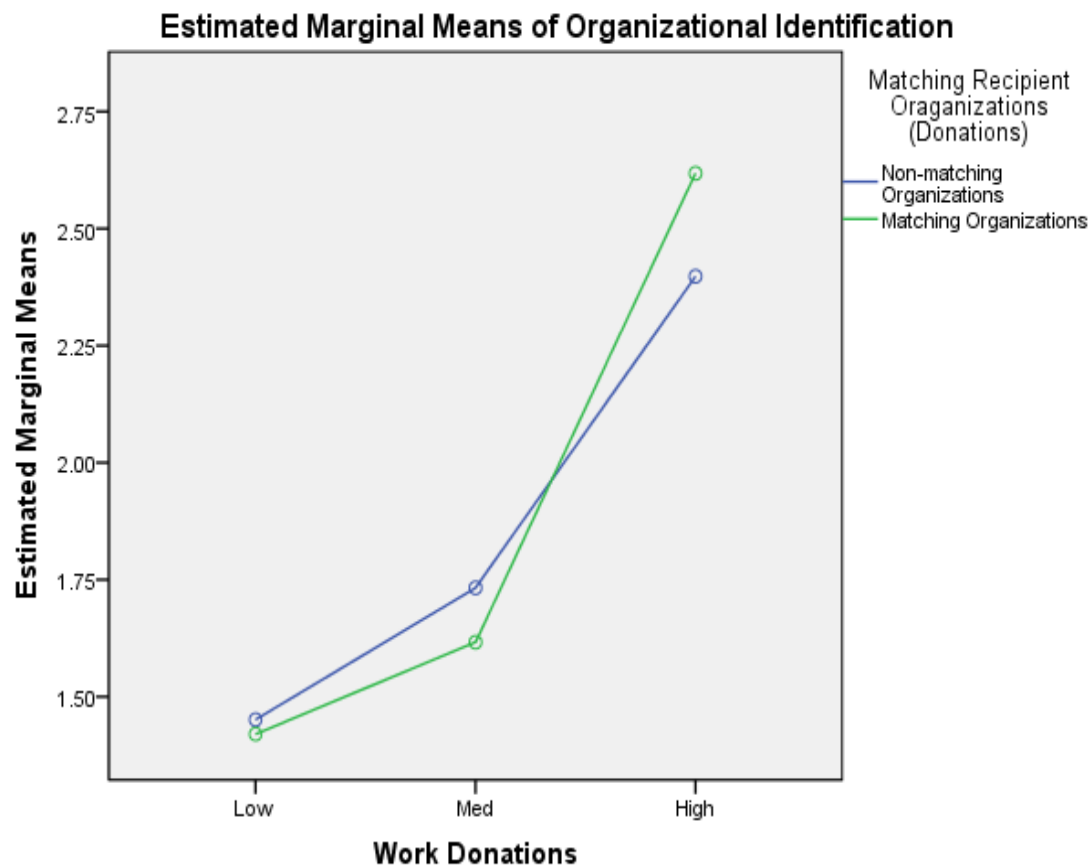
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.55, Age = 2.94, Education = 4.32

Figure 13
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations and Matching Recipient Organizations
on Frequency of Donating Outside of Work



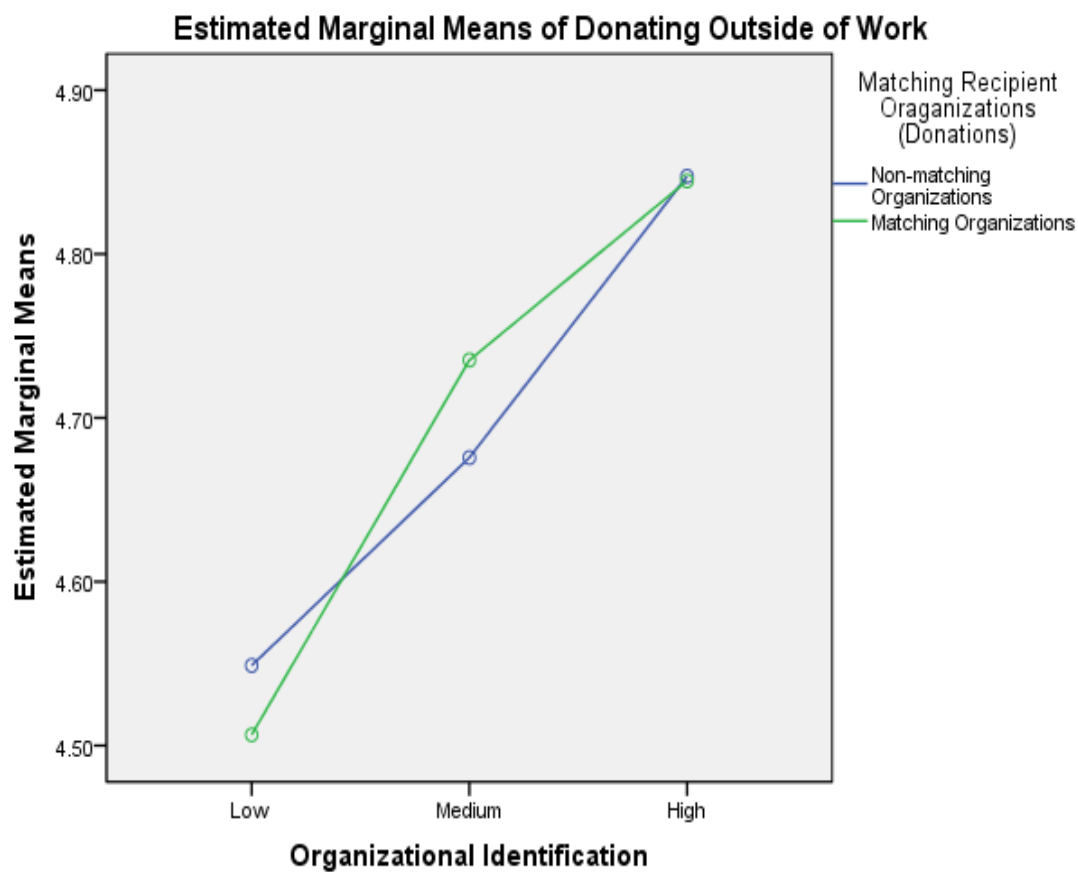
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.59, Age = 2.94, Education = 4.37

Figure 14
Effects of the Interaction of Work Donations and Matching Recipient Organizations
on Organizational Identification



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.58, Age = 2.98, Education = 4.33

Figure 15
Effects of the Interaction of Organizational Identification and Matching Recipient Organizations on Frequency of Donating Outside of Work



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Gender = 1.57, Age = 2.92, Education = 4.36

VITA

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