

**Signaling and Social Influence:
The Impact of Corporate Volunteer Programs on Employee Work Behavior**

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Yinyin Cao, PhD

University of Pittsburgh, 2019

Corporate volunteer programs serve the social agenda of the organizations that deploy them, and are important channels for delivering care and compassion to important causes and communities in need. However, the uptake of these programs by employees is surprisingly low. Little is known about the affective reactions of those who do not avail themselves of the programs offered. In this dissertation, I draw from research on work-life benefits, as well as theories of signaling and social influence, to examine the effects of corporate volunteer programs on the affect and behavior of both the employees who take part in the initiatives, as well as those who do not. In a pilot study, I find initial support for the positive synergies of multiple role engagement – specifically, that time spent on non-work-related activities has a significant positive effect on individuals’ perceptions of work-life enrichment, and this in turn relates positively to their engagement and personal initiative at work. This pre-test of measures and theoretical relationships provided a stepping stone for my primary dissertation project: a longitudinal field study at a large organization in the Northeast to examine the effects of its corporate volunteer program. Through surveys at two points in time, I find that even when employee participation in volunteering is low, such programs may nevertheless have a significant influence on employees’ work-related perceptions and behavior, as driven primarily by processes of social sharing. Workplace conversations around volunteering led to enhanced perceptions of organizational support for enrichment, increased interpersonal citizenship behaviors at work, and stronger future volunteer intentions, *regardless* of whether or not employees personally took part in the volunteer activity. These positive effects are most prominent when employees are in positions that afford the flexibility to join in such initiatives. Understanding the effects of social influence and the factors that moderate the impact of these corporate programs on employee outcomes is important as firms seek to provide a more enriching environment for their workforce.

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Preface

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1.0 Introduction

Research on the intersection between work and personal life has garnered significant attention over the last few decades, as driven in part by growing concerns for the overall quality of life, and the increasing recognition of its effects on individuals, families, and organizations (Kalliath & Brough, 2008). The majority of this research has traditionally focused on the interface between work and family; however, in acknowledging that life outside of work goes beyond fulfilling one's family responsibilities, and may include other commitments such as spending time with friends, continuing one's education, or engaging in community work (Keeney, Boyd, Sinha, Westring, & Ryan, 2013; Kelly et al., 2008), a growing body of research has expanded the scope of non-work domains to gain a deeper understanding of how various activities outside of work may affect and/or be affected by experiences at work (Barnes, Wagner, & Ghumman, 2012; Cruz & Meisenbach, 2017; Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014; Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009; Keeney et al., 2013; Rodell, 2013; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Mirroring this increased academic interest, a growing number of organizations have begun to offer programs aimed at facilitating greater integration between work and non-work. Corporate efforts on this front include altering employees' work structure to enable better accommodation of non-work needs (e.g., via flexible work arrangements) (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2009); providing resources to help employees address and mitigate family-related concerns (e.g., via parental leave or on-site childcare) (Lundquist, Misra, & O'Meara, 2012; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000); and offering enrichment opportunities for employees to engage in activities that are normally pursued outside of work (e.g., via workplace amenities, wellness programs, volunteering programs, etc.) (Grant, 2012; Mattke et al., 2013). Many of these initiatives

have been shown to produce a host of positive outcomes for employees, including increased organizational commitment and satisfaction, improved productivity and performance, reduced work-life conflict, and enhanced work-life balance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Booth, Park, & Glomb, 2009; Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013; Kelly et al., 2008; Longenecker, Beard, & Scazzero, 2012). Despite overwhelming evidence documenting the positive effects of these work-life initiatives, there has also been a number of unintended consequences. Negative effects include work intensification due to the increased blurring of work and personal boundaries (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; A. Michel, 2011), a low uptake of family-friendly benefits due to career-related concerns (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012), and negative perceptions of fairness and inequity among those who lack access to or are ineligible to participate in the benefits offered (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Ollier-Malaterre & Andrade, 2016).

In light of these recent trends around work-life issues in both theory and practice, this paper will focus on corporate volunteer programs as a specific non-work initiative, and examine the potential implications of firm efforts to enrich employees' lives outside of work. Not only are these volunteer programs a relevant example of corporate practices to facilitate work-life enrichment, but they have also become an increasingly prevalent workplace initiative as employers seek to demonstrate a strong commitment to social and community issues. Estimates suggest that at least 9 out of 10 Fortune 500 companies now have formal Employee Volunteering and Giving Programs (Rodell, Booth, Lynch, & Zipay, 2017). These company offerings can encompass a wide range of programs, from pro-bono services, company-sponsored volunteer projects, to flexible scheduling policies, or paid time off work for employees to volunteer at a non-profit organization of their choice (CECP, 2018). As more and more organizations are contributing employee time and talent

towards various social and community projects, there is a need to better understand the integration of work and non-work related activities. Additionally, an area where there is little previous research, is the effect of corporate volunteer programs on the significant portion (often ranging from 40%-70%) of employees who choose *not* to partake in the volunteering opportunities that their company offers. Nonetheless, some evidence suggests that non-participating employees may similarly view volunteer programs as a signal of employer support, engendering pride and commitment.

Therefore, building upon research in the work-life literature, I approach these initiatives from two perspectives, and propose that (1) participation in non-work activities such as volunteering will create valuable personal resources that help facilitate higher levels of engagement at work; and (2) the provision of corporate volunteering will have a significant impact on the work attitudes and behaviors of *all* employees, regardless of whether or not employees choose to actually take part in the events offered.

In developing the literature around work-life initiatives, I explore new avenues for research. For one, I depart from the traditional work-family domain and focus on the under-examined role of non-work areas beyond family – specifically, the pursuit of volunteer activities on workplace outcomes. As each domain has different motivations and behaviors (Lewis, Gambles, & Rapoport, 2007; Ransome, 2007), it is important to recognize, theoretically and empirically, the diversity that exists in employees’ activities outside of work, and its unique interactions with work-related affect and performance. Additionally, while a number of studies have observed positive linkages between non-work activities and work-related outcomes (Hecht & Boies, 2009; Longenecker et al., 2012), much less attention has been dedicated to the specific

resources through which participation in activities outside of work translates into improved engagement and performance at work. My dissertation attempts to address this gap by examining the transfer of both instrumental and affective resource gains across the work-volunteer interface. In addition, by simultaneously taking into account both conflict and enrichment perspectives, I aim to provide a more comprehensive view of the interaction between work and volunteering.

Second, by taking into account the group of employees who do *not* partake in the volunteer initiatives offered by the organization, I delineate the mechanisms through which such practices may influence *non-user* outcomes. Self-interest theories suggest that non-users should react negatively to work-life benefits, yet multiple studies indicate neutral, or even positive effects of benefit availability on non-user attitudes towards the organization (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Ollier-Malaterre, 2010). Furthermore, much of the prior literature on work-family benefits has largely focused on fairness perceptions as a key mechanism driving non-user reactions (Kirby & Krone, 2002); perceptions of equity and fairness however, are less salient in corporate volunteering given its widespread applicability to all employees within the workplace. In this study, I extend the discussion of work-life benefits by examining reactions to corporate volunteer programs among both employees who participate, as well as those who elect out of the benefits offered. This allows me to move beyond the dominant approach of examining the effect of these programs for employees who take advantage of them, to developing a more comprehensive understanding of its implications on *all* employees within the organization.

The remainder of this dissertation is structured as follows: First, I review and integrate theories of work-life conflict, enrichment, and balance. The goal is to understand how participation in non-work activities will influence work engagement. I focus in particular on the concept of

enrichment, and incorporate insights from research on employee social and leisure activities to develop a more comprehensive model of work-life enrichment centered on the work-volunteering interface. In conjunction with research on organizational work-life benefits, I propose and test two types of resource gains: 1) general self-efficacy, and 2) experienced meaningfulness. I argue that these provide the key pathways through which participation in corporate volunteerism translates into enhanced engagement and performance in the workplace. Second, in acknowledging the substantial portion of employees who do *not* take part in the company's volunteer programs, I also explore non-participants' reactions to these corporate programs. In particular, I draw from research on organizational signaling and workplace social influence to develop hypotheses on the social processes that occur when employee participation in corporate volunteering is low. The methods section will include both a pilot study as well as a main study that tests these hypotheses outlined above. I provide descriptions of each study's empirical context and measures, followed by detailed analyses of the research findings. Finally, I conclude with a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of corporate work-life initiatives, and outline new directions for future research.

2.0 The Work-Life Interface: Conflict, Enrichment, and Balance

Within the work-life domain, two opposing theories are commonly used to explain the interactions between work and personal life: the conflict approach and the enrichment approach. The conflict approach assumes that people have a finite amount of resources such as time and energy. When they expend those resources in one domain, it depletes what is available for other domains; thus engagement in one role will inevitably interfere with one's performance in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In contrast, enrichment emphasizes the positive synergies that arise from participation in multiple roles, where the developmental and psychosocial resources generated in one domain may be applied in ways to enhance one's affect and performance in other domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). While work-life research has been historically dominated by the conflict perspective, researchers examining these issues increasingly acknowledge that involvement in activities outside of work can in fact facilitate more effective functioning and enhanced well-being at work (Rodell, 2013; Sonnentag, 2003; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Below I review the nature, antecedents, and outcomes of both work-life conflict and enrichment. As work and family represent two of the most central realms of employee lives, it is not surprising that the majority of work-life research has examined the intersection between work and family domains. While this review relies largely on the work-family interface, I also draw from research on other off-job activities to develop a more comprehensive understanding regarding the occurrence of positive and negative spillover across different domains.

2.1 Work-Life Conflict

Work-life conflict (also referred to as work-life interference) is a form of inter-role conflict that arises when the demands of one domain interfere with meeting the demands of another domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Derived from a scarcity hypothesis that assumes a fixed amount of resources, the conflict perspective maintains that the time and energy devoted to one role will inevitably reduce the availability of resources that can be devoted to other roles; thus individuals who participate in multiple roles (such as work and family) are likely to experience conflict and stress that ultimately detract from their quality of life.

2.1.1 Conflict Types

In their widely cited article on work-family conflict, Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) identify three types of conflict – time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. As the ultimate limited resource, time constitutes the primary source of work-life conflict. This refers to the simple idea that time spent in one domain often precludes time spent in other domains. For example, a number of studies indicate that the more time an individual spends at work and the greater the workload, the more it interferes with his or her personal life, making it difficult to fulfill the necessary responsibilities of other life domains, thereby contributing to increased work-life conflict (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012; Ilies et al., 2007; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002; Valcour, 2007; Voydanoff, 2004).

Strain-based conflict occurs when the stress or tension experienced in one role hinders a person's performance in other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). As further outlined below, various individual, family, and job characteristics, stressful events, as well as a lack of instrumental and emotional support, have been commonly identified as factors in both work and non-work domains that create tension, strain, and fatigue, detracting from an individual's ability to comply with different role demands (Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald, 2002; Ilies et al., 2007; J. Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011).

Finally, behavior-based conflict arises from the incompatibilities between the specific patterns of behavior that are expected in different roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, behavioral or leadership styles emphasized at work (e.g., power, authority, and aggressiveness) may be incompatible with the behaviors desired in the family domain (e.g., warmth and patience) (Carlson, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Using occupational information derived from O*NET (Occupational Information Network), Dierdorff & Ellington (2008) further showed that the behavioral requirements or duties of a specific occupation (e.g., interdependence and responsibility for others) indeed predict work-family conflict, even after controlling for various time- and strain-based factors.

While each of these three types of conflict represent unique constructs, there are some similarities. For example, all three forms of conflict are bidirectional and based on individual perceptions (Carlson, 1999). Compared to behavior-based conflict however, time and strain-based conflict have received significantly more attention and support in the literature. This may be partially attributed to the fact that the latter two types of conflict are more indicative of resource loss (Lapierre & Allen, 2006) – an important lens through which potential interference between

work and non-work roles occurs (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Furthermore, time- and strain-based conflict may be experienced similarly, as strain can come as a result of time-based demands (Carlson, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, one might anticipate that significant involvement in one role will likely entail both time pressure as well as the expenditure of physical and emotional energy, thereby creating both time- and strain-based conflict with other roles (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Weer, Greenhaus, & Linnehan, 2010).

However, strain-based conflict can also occur independently of time-related perceptions, and vice versa. For example, in their survey of medical students, Westring and Ryan (2011) found that individuals who reported greater control over work hours expected that they would experience lower time-based conflict but not strain-based conflict. Conversely, individuals may also report strain-based conflict, irrespective of any time-related demands. This can occur, for example, when participation in one role incurs significant emotional energy, thus producing strain symptoms that extend across domains. In this sense, factors such as role conflict and role ambiguity, along with dispositional variables such as trait negative affect, are significant predictors of strain-based conflict but not time-based conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson et al., 2000). As another example, in a study of Dutch employees, household chores had a negative effect on workplace helping behavior through energy drain but not through time pressure (Ten Brummelhuis, van der Lippe, & Kluwer, 2010).

Despite differences between the three dimensions, many studies however, use aggregate measures of work-life conflict; thus identifying the specific form of conflict that relates to various factors is not always clear. Furthermore, factors such as family-supportive organizational perceptions and work-family self-efficacy tend to show significant relationships with all three

types of conflict (Lapierre et al., 2008; Westring & Ryan, 2011). Given this, unless specifically noted, the review below will examine the antecedents and outcomes of general work-life conflict.

2.1.2 Antecedents

Within the work domain, role stressors that contribute to work-life conflict generally emanate from perceptions of role conflict, ambiguity, and/or overload (Byron, 2005; Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; J. Michel et al., 2011). According to resource drain theory (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), work stressors such as these tend to incur significant physical and psychological expenditures that subtract from the finite amount of resources available to the individual; thus conflicts between domains are heightened, for example, when employees work long or inflexible hours (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012; Henly & Lambert, 2014; Voydanoff, 2004), when they engage in increased citizenship behaviors (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009), or simply when they perceive constraints on their ability to function autonomously at work (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992).

In attempting to reduce employees' work-life conflict, the majority of studies have focused on enhancing the level of control perceived at work (J. Michel et al., 2011), as having freedom with one's job is believed to lessen the extent to which work interferes with the demands of other domains. Consistent with this hypothesis, a number of studies have indeed found job characteristics such as autonomy, as well as work-family policies such as telecommuting and schedule flexibility, to be associated with lower levels of conflict due to greater experiences of control in managing the work-life interface (Kelly, Moen, & Tranby, 2011; Kossek et al., 2006;

Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Voydanoff, 2004). Some other studies, however, highlight the “autonomy paradox” (Putnam, Myers, & Gailliard, 2014), whereby the characteristics of autonomy and control lead to higher levels of job involvement and work intensification, thus inadvertently increasing work-life conflict. Differences in findings may be partially attributed to sample and occupational characteristics, as the negative effects of autonomy appear to be most evident among self-employed individuals (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), or higher-status white-collar professionals. In both instances, the individuals have greater work responsibility. This makes it harder for them to avoid work demands, and therefore increases their difficulty in juggling work and family (Frone et al., 1992; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; J. Michel et al., 2011). In addition to being a direct antecedent, perceived control has also been found to serve as a moderator (Carlson, Grzywacz, et al., 2011). This is consistent with the job demands-resources model of stress (Karasek, 1979), in which control buffers the effects of work demands on work-family conflict.

Perhaps more important than formal job characteristics in predicting work-life conflict is the role of workplace social support – including organizational, supervisor, and coworker support. In general, informal workplace norms and culture tend to be more related to work-family conflict than formal organizational initiatives (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; J. R. Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006), and perceptions of family-specific organizational and supervisor support are more related to reduced work-family conflict than general perceptions of support (Allen, 2001; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). Among these different sources of support, supervisors in particular, play a key role in setting the organizational policies within a work unit (Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten, 2011). As such, they are often considered the most proximal predictor of

employee perceptions of a friendly and flexible work environment. While the specific measures of supervisor support have differed across studies, these most commonly assess the provision of emotional and instrumental support, the demonstration of role modeling behaviors, and the use of creative work-family management practices (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009). As Hammer and colleagues (2011) successfully demonstrate, workplace interventions can be designed to increase supervisor knowledge about family-supportive behaviors, and when effective, can indeed lead to significant improvements in their employees' job and health-related outcomes. Finally, similar to perceptions of control, although social support has also been examined as both an antecedent and a moderator in predicting work-family conflict, researchers argue that it is best viewed as an antecedent, indirectly affecting work-family conflict through perceived role stressors (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; J. Michel et al., 2011).

On the family domain side, family stressors such as parental overload and/or lack of spousal support are the most common predictors of family interference with work (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Frone et al., 1992). Conflict emanating from other non-work domains has received relatively little attention; one reason may be that compared to the work and family domains, other activities are more voluntary in nature, which suggests that individuals engage in them based on perceived availability of time, and thus tend to encounter little or low conflict with other role demands. However, consistent with perspectives of role overload in the work and family domains, extensive commitment to certain non-work roles may similarly incur significant time and emotional energy, thereby dampening effective performance at work (Weer et al., 2010; Wyland, Lester, Mone, & Winkel, 2013).

Finally, individuals' vulnerability to work-life conflict can also be influenced by a number of individual characteristics. For example, the psychological importance of different roles can exert a significant effect on individual perceptions of work-life conflict, as individuals who view certain roles as central to their self-concept or identity are more likely to increase the time and effort they devote to that role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Additionally, negative trait-based variables such as negative affect and neuroticism, can make individuals more vulnerable to work-life conflict, whereas positive trait-based characteristics such as positive affect, conscientiousness, self-efficacy, and a proactive personality are likely to help individuals avoid work-life conflict (Allen et al., 2012; Carlson, 1999; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), presumably because these characteristics reflect more efficient time use and better organizational skills (Wayne et al., 2004). In a survey of student parents, Westring and Ryan (2010) also found individuals with high levels of core self-evaluation to experience less work-family conflict, as they are more likely to perceive and take advantage of various forms of social support. Finally, the effect of demographic characteristics on work-life conflict are mixed. While some studies suggest that characteristics such as gender, marital status, and number of children are relatively weak direct predictors of work-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991), others highlight distinct relationships of various role stressors/expectations and work-family conflict perceptions between men and women, such that women often appear more vulnerable to work-family conflict than men (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Rothbard, 2001; Voydanoff, 2004).

2.1.3 Outcomes

A substantial body of evidence including several meta-analyses consistently find the experience of work-life conflict to be associated with a wide range of adverse work, non-work, and health-related outcomes (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006; J. R. Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). More specifically, researchers examining physical and mental health have found work-life conflict to be associated with psychological strain, depression, burnout, somatic complaints, and even substance abuse (Greenhaus et al., 2006; Reichl, Leiter, & Spinath, 2014; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Wang, Liu, Zhan, & Shi, 2010). Within the workplace, conflict experienced between work and non-work domains tends to incur negative effects on organizational commitment, job and career satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, absenteeism, turnover intentions, and objective career outcomes such as hierarchical level attained (Anderson et al., 2002; Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005; Goff et al., 1990; Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Hoobler, Hu, & Wilson, 2010). In the non-work domain, inter-role conflict has been reported to influence satisfaction and performance both within that domain, as well as general life satisfaction (Adams et al., 1996; Allen et al., 2000; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Consistent with the domain specificity hypothesis regarding the predictors of work-life conflict (Frone et al., 1992), in terms of outcomes, work-to-family conflict is considered to have stronger effects in the work domain (i.e., on work-related attitudes and behavior), while the consequences of family-to-work conflict on the other hand, lie primarily in the family domain (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). In addition, the conflict relationships between work and non-work are often reciprocal, such that if one's work demands

begin to hinder the accomplishment of family responsibilities, those unfulfilled family demands may in turn exert a negative influence on one's performance at work, and vice versa (Frone et al., 1992).

Taken together, much of the research on the work-life interface has thus far focused on the negative interactions between work and personal life, emphasizing conflict, stress, and impaired physical and mental well-being as a result of role accumulation, which in turn reduces one's ability to perform in various domains and detracts from the perceived overall quality of life.

2.2 Work-Life Enrichment

Taking a more balanced approach, a second stream of research focuses on the positive synergies between work and non-work (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This is reflected in the positive cross-domain relationships observed between work- and non-work variables, such as job characteristics and parenting behaviors (Greenberger, O'neil, & Nagel, 1994), family support and job/career satisfaction (Adams et al., 1996; Ford et al., 2007), employment activities and academic performance (Butler, 2007; Derous & Ryan, 2008), as well as personal activities and work-related performance and success (Hecht & Boies, 2009; Mojza, Sonnentag, & Bornemann, 2011; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). In these studies, experiences in one domain create positive resources that ultimately enhance individual attitudes and behaviors in other domains.

The literature offers several ways in which participation in multiple roles can produce positive outcomes. The additive model, for example, suggests that individuals who participate in – and are satisfied with – different roles (e.g., family and leisure) experience greater happiness and satisfaction in life than those who participate in only one role (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Frone et al., 1992). In other words, the perceived quality of life in each domain combine additively to determine the overall quality of life.

A second stream of research supports the buffering hypothesis, which suggests that positive experiences in one domain can also be used to offset or buffer against the negative experiences in another (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For example, an individual may choose to focus on work to compensate for any failure or distress experienced at home, or vice versa. In one study, the authors found that the effect of job experiences on men’s psychological distress was buffered by the quality of their experiences at home (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992), such that when relationships with their wives and children were positive, poor experiences on the job did not have significant effects on distress. Another study examined the effect of rewarding jobs on women’s psychological distress, and found that performing challenging work can offset the distress associated with poor parental role quality (Barnett, Marshall, & Sayer, 1992). These studies indicate that involvement in multiple roles is generally beneficial for people as it provides more opportunities to experience success and satisfaction, and this can in turn help buffer the negative experiences that may occur in other roles.

One positive mechanism in particular that has received increasing attention in the work-life domain is the concept of enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus et al., 2006). This has also been referred to in the literature as positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000;

Kirchmeyer, 1992b), facilitation (Wayne et al., 2004), and enhancement (Sieber, 1974). Distinct from the previous mechanisms described above that suggest either an additive or buffering effect of one role on another, enrichment examines how experiences in one role can in fact produce positive outcomes in another. As such, it builds upon the “expansion” model (Marks, 1977) and conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) that consider resources to be abundant and expandable. In particular, enrichment conveys that the resources generated in one domain are not only transferred to another role (i.e., via spillover), but are also successfully applied in ways that ultimately improves the quality of life in another domain (Carlson et al., 2006), with the latter being defined as both high performance and positive affect (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This differentiates the construct of enrichment from other similar, but distinct constructs, such as enhancement, which focuses on how the rewards of role accumulation (e.g., resources, privileges, status, and sense of self-worth) outweighs any strain that arises, thereby yielding net gratification for individuals (Sieber, 1974); and facilitation, which emphasizes improvements in system functioning, including enhanced group performance or supervisor/coworker relations (Carlson et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2004).

In general, there are two main ways to examine the positive relationships between work and non-work – either via direct self-reports of enrichment, or by measuring the relationships between variables in both domains (Carlson et al., 2006). In reviewing the literature on enrichment, I provide a representative sampling of each of these findings in Appendix A and B, respectively, with an overview of the mechanisms, antecedents, and outcomes associated with work-life enrichment delineated below.

2.2.1 Mechanisms

In developing a better understanding of the specific mechanisms linking behavior and performance in different domains, Greenhaus & Powell (2006) highlight two pathways of enrichment: (1) *instrumental*, in which the resources (e.g., skills and abilities) generated in one role are directly applied to an individual's performance in another role; and (2) *affective*, where experiences in one role create positive affect that indirectly promotes high performance and positive affect in another role. In their widely-adopted scale of work-family enrichment, Carlson and colleagues (2006) further consider enrichment as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of four types of resource gains – namely, developmental (e.g., skills and perspectives), psychosocial (e.g., fulfillment, esteem, and security), efficiency (time and efficiency), and affective (e.g., moods and attitudes) – that are potentially transferred across domains. Although these studies were initially based on the interface between work and family, the mechanisms have been similarly applied to activities in other life domains, such as education, community work, and various sports and leisure pursuits (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Ramos, Brauchli, Bauer, Wehner, & Hämmig, 2015).

Given that resources are crucial drivers of the enrichment process (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), below I follow Carlson et al.'s (2006) operationalization of enrichment and briefly delineate the four different types of resources involved in the transfer process. First, as a primary dimension of enrichment, development reflects intellectual and personal development – specifically, resource gains of skills, knowledge, behaviors, and perspectives (Carlson et al., 2006). For example, experience in parenting can help improve social skills, and develop a sense of patience and

flexibility that may be beneficial to one's behavior at work (Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2010). Similarly, employees who participate in community work or volunteer activities often report acquiring new skills and abilities (Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri, Mencia, & Jiang, 2013; Longenecker et al., 2012) that in turn contribute to more effective performance at work.

Next, the capital dimension refers to positive self-evaluations (e.g., self-efficacy and self-esteem) obtained from one's engagement in a particular domain that lead to improved functioning in other domains (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). For example, Grimm-Thomas and Perry-Jenkins (1994) found that the effect of job complexity on parenting style was mediated by enhanced self-esteem – specifically, workers who worked in complex jobs that entail independent judgment and decision-making were more likely to develop positive self-appraisals; these self-appraisals, when carried over to the family domain, led to more positive parenting behaviors. As Greenhaus and Powell (2006) note, positive psychological resources such as these can enhance performance because they tend to stimulate motivation, effort, and persistence across a range of different domains.

The efficiency dimension focuses on resource gains in terms of time and efficiency (Carlson et al., 2006). Compared to development and capital, this dimension has received relatively little attention in the work-life literature (Grawitch, Barber, & Justice, 2010). Efficiency occurs when involvement in multiple activities leads individuals to develop better focus and improved time management skills, which may ultimately contribute to their effective functioning in different roles. For example, in a study of the benefits of engaging in multiple roles for managerial women, Ruderman et al. (2002) reported that managerial women found juggling multiple personal responsibilities on the home front, promoted efficiency, focus, and organization at work. Another

recent study found that anticipating domestic duties after work actually reinforces, rather than distracts from, the work mindset, thereby keeping employees more engaged in their work (Dumas & Perry-Smith, 2017). Similarly, Ramos and colleagues (2015) demonstrated that involvement in volunteer work, albeit time-consuming, actually led to less work-life conflict and a greater sense of work-life balance among employed individuals; thus employees who have a higher level of involvement in non-work domains (e.g., family) do not necessarily experience more conflict than those who are less involved in other activities (Byron, 2005). These results may be explained by the fact that participation in additional roles can in fact provide practice at multi-tasking, as it often forces an employee to develop new strategies and techniques (e.g., by blocking off certain times for specific activities, or by intentionally blurring the boundaries between family and friends to simultaneously spend more time with both groups) in order to better organize various demands (Ruderman et al., 2002). As such, enrichment suggests that despite the limited availability of time, engagement in additional roles do not automatically crowd out other activities, but rather enables employees to become more efficient in their various tasks (Grawitch et al., 2010).

While the prior three resource dimensions correspond primarily with the instrumental pathway proposed by Greenhaus & Powell (2006), the affect dimension on the other hand, is characterized by the transfer of positive moods and emotions across domains that contribute indirectly to higher performance in another role (i.e., the affective pathway of enrichment). In accordance with Marks' (1977) theory of expansion, positive moods and emotions in one domain can expand a person's level of energy, thereby increasing the likelihood of being highly engaged and exhibiting enhanced functioning in another domain. Consistent with this proposition, Rothbard (2001) found that attention in one role (e.g., family) increased one's experience of positive affect,

leading to enhanced engagement and performance in another domain (e.g., work). Graves, Ohlott, and Ruderman's (2007) survey of managers similarly indicated strong relationships between commitment to parental roles with both career and life satisfaction. Expanding outside of the family context, studies have shown that participation in recreational and community activities can help facilitate recovery from work, and enhance perceptions of happiness and meaningfulness, thereby promoting higher levels of energy at work the following day (Geroy, Wright, & Jacoby, 2000; Guo, Baruch, & Russo, 2017; Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Mojza et al., 2011; Rodell, 2013). Taken together, these studies suggest that activities outside of work can "charge" employees, providing them the psychological resources needed to perform better on the job.

2.2.2 Antecedents

Resources play a central role when considering the interactions between work and non-work domains. Conflict, as discussed earlier, tends to emanate from extensive work and personal responsibilities that deplete one's resources, resulting in increased interference between work and personal domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Enrichment, on the other hand, is considered to stem from personal and environmental resources that facilitate more effective functioning, thus promoting positive domain experiences (Lapierre et al., 2017; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).

Work-related resources

In the work-to-non-work direction, predictors of enrichment have tended to include resource-enhancing job characteristics (e.g., job autonomy, skill variety, interactional

requirements, meaningful work, etc.) (Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Bhave & Lefter, 2017; Carvalho & Chambel, 2014; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Siu et al., 2010; Voydanoff, 2004), formal work-life benefits and policies (e.g., flexible scheduling) (Baral & Bhargava, 2010; McNall et al., 2009; Voydanoff, 2004), informal work-family culture (Siu et al., 2010; Wayne, Casper, Matthews, & Allen, 2013; Wayne et al., 2006), coworker and team-related resources (e.g., team cohesion and familiarity) (Hunter, Perry, Carlson, & Smith, 2010), and perhaps most importantly, supervisor support (Carlson, Ferguson, et al., 2011; Carvalho & Chambel, 2014; Hammer et al., 2009; Nicklin & McNall, 2013; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012; Siu et al., 2010). These resources aim at helping employees manage work and non-work demands, and as such, tend to have direct instrumental and affective benefits that extend across domains.

More specifically, similar to reducing work-life conflict, supervisors play a critical role in facilitating employee perceptions of work-life enrichment. When employees perceive their supervisors to be caring and supportive of their personal needs (e.g., they are rarely asked to perform work-related tasks during off-work time, they receive both emotional and instrumental support and advice in managing family issues, and have fewer negative career consequences associated with family choices), they are more likely to experience positive affect and enrichment at work (Wayne et al., 2006). This relationship may be especially important to employees who perceive a high need for caring (Russo, Buonocore, Carmeli, & Guo, 2015). Other scholars have similarly shown positive effects of transformational leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, and leader-member exchange on followers' work-life enrichment (Braun & Nieberle, 2017; Hammond, Cleveland, O'Neill, Stawski, & Jones Tate, 2015; Litano, Major, Landers, Streets, & Bass, 2016; Zhang, Kwong Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012). Interestingly, in what the

authors refer to as a “pay it forward” type of arrangement, Carlson and colleagues (2011) found that supervisors’ own perceptions of work-family enrichment directly predicted their ability to effectively create a family-friendly organizational environment, which was in turn positively associated with their subordinates’ perceptions of work-family enrichment.

The availability of work-life benefits (including both family-friendly benefits as well as non-family benefits such as volunteering and other social and physical activities) are also likely to generate positive resources that promote perceptions of enrichment. For example, work-family benefits such as flexible scheduling and telecommuting enable employees to take time off during the day to meet family or other personal needs, making employees feel happy and satisfied, thus creating both time and affect-based resources within non-work domains (Las Heras, Rofcanin, Matthijs Bal, & Stollberger, 2017; McNall et al., 2009; Voydanoff, 2004). Research on work-non-family benefits on the other hand, while scarce, also provide some evidence of instrumental and affective spillover, where participation in programs such as corporate volunteering promotes positive affect, as well as perceptions of skill acquisition and career success (Booth et al., 2009; De Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005) – resources that can be reinvested to enhanced work performance.

Additionally, several studies have also examined the interaction between different types of support, albeit with mixed results. For example, Zhang and colleagues (Zhang et al., 2012) found that the effects of supervisor support on enrichment was strongest when employees perceived a lack of work climate for sharing family concerns; others however, highlight the benefits of having multiple sources of support. In other words, when organizational values are aligned with those espoused by the supervisor, this sends a more clear and consistent message that family concerns

are supported in the workplace, thus increasing the likelihood that the employee will capitalize on a supervisor's supportiveness (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Las Heras et al., 2017).

Non-work resources

Resources obtained outside of the workplace can also facilitate employees' perceptions of non-work-to-work enrichment. For example, having family members who are supportive of one's work requirements, and are both willing and able to assist in day-to-day household activities, can positively alter a person's experience of positive affect, enabling them to preserve more time and energy for work that may otherwise be scarce; thus family support has been shown to play a significant role on family-to-work enrichment (Nicklin & McNall, 2013; Siu et al., 2010; Wayne et al., 2006). Employees who are highly engaged and satisfied with family life are also more likely to acquire valuable resources that can be mobilized to facilitate better functioning in the work domain (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007; Rothbard, 2001).

In a similar vein, beyond the domain of family, participation in community and recreational activities can promote enrichment that consequently leads to more desirable attitudes and performance in the workplace (Kirchmeyer, 1992a; Rodell, 2013). This is supported by research on leisure and recovery from work, where engagement in off-job activities is believed to help build the psychological resources needed to enable effective detachment from work and thus enhanced engagement at work the next day (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Mojza et al., 2011; Sonnentag, 2003; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). While these latter studies do not directly discuss enrichment, they demonstrate positive relationships between non-work and work-related variables, thereby implying the potential existence of enrichment between domains.

Worth noting however, is that the role of off-job activities on facilitating enrichment may be highly dependent on the nature and subjective experience of the activity. Ten Brummelhuis and Trougakos (2014) for example, found that engaging in leisure activities after work contributed most to recovery and positive affect the next day when the employee was intrinsically, rather than extrinsically, motivated to engage in those activities. Similarly, in distinguishing between leisure activities such as social, low-effort, and physical activities, with high-duty activities such as work-related tasks and household chores, Oerlemans and colleagues (2014) found that the former may be positively associated with recovery, while the latter are more likely to be negatively associated with recovery, and that these relationships further depend on feelings of happiness during the activity. As a result, these studies highlight the importance of not just time spent on off-work activities, but rather the subjective experience of an off-job activity in predicting recovery and positive spillover.

Individual characteristics

Finally, researchers have also identified a number of personal resources that influence perceptions of work-life enrichment. For example, individuals are more likely to experience enrichment when they have strong role identities, are psychologically invested in their work, and thus derive greater meaningfulness and enjoyment from the role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2006). In support of this, personal characteristics such as work engagement and work involvement have been shown to be positively related to perceptions of enrichment and improved family life as they imply the experience of more positive emotional states that can be carried across domains (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014; Rothbard, 2001). In addition, individuals with positive core

self-evaluations are also more likely to perceive and effectively utilize various forms of support, thus experiencing greater levels of enrichment (McNall & Michel, 2011; Westring & Ryan, 2011). With regard to the Big-5 personality traits, a recent meta-analysis by Michel and colleagues (2011) further identified four factors – extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience as significant predictors of positive work-non-work spillover. Lastly, while gender has often been considered to be “deeply engrained” in work-family relationships (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005), a recent meta-analysis shows limited gender differences among men and women in predicting enrichment (Lapierre et al., 2017). This may be partially attributed to the fact that gender differences are presumed to be less salient nowadays given modern gender role norms stressing a more equal division of work and family roles between men and women (J. C. Williams, Berdahl, & Vandello, 2016).

2.2.3 Outcomes

Enrichment naturally implies enhanced positive affect and more effective functioning across domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), and as such, has been linked with a number of positive affective and behavioral outcomes. First, enrichment by definition suggests enhanced performance in the receiving domain. However, in accordance with the domain specificity hypothesis (Frone et al., 1992), and based on theories of social exchange, a person should in fact experience the most positive affect towards the domain *providing* the resources (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). In support of this, work-family enrichment, for example, has been shown to be more strongly related to work-related variables, such as increased affective commitment, job

satisfaction, job performance, and lower turnover intentions (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014; Carlson et al., 2006; McNall et al., 2009), whereas family-to-work enrichment tend to be more strongly related to non-work-related variables, such as family and marital satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2006; Hakanen, Peeters, & Perhoniemi, 2011).

In addition, according to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), enrichment can build resources that enable people to more effectively manage various role demands. As a result, they are less likely to encounter stressful situations, or when they do encounter stress, they are better equipped to deal with stressful situations, and are less likely to be negatively affected. Given this, perceptions of enrichment have been reported to be positively associated with a number of mental and physical health-related outcomes. For example, in a survey of New Zealand government employees, Allis & O'Driscoll (2007) found psychological involvement in family and personal activities to facilitate enrichment, which in turn led to enhanced well-being in all three domains of work, family, and personal benefit activities. In another study of full-time working mothers of infants, Carlson and colleagues (2011) found perceptions of enrichment derived from skill discretion and job security to positively predict employees' physical health. Other scholars have similarly found strong correlations between enrichment and both mental and physical well-being, thereby underscoring the role of positive spillover across domains in supporting the overall health of an individual (Carlson et al., 2006; Stoddard & Madsen, 2007; A. Williams, Franche, Ibrahim, Mustard, & Layton, 2006).

Finally, recent studies suggest that enrichment can also exert significant crossover effects from one person to another. For example, supervisor perceptions of work-family enrichment can directly affect employees' perceptions of enrichment, and promote greater engagement at work

(Carlson, Ferguson, et al., 2011; Ten Brummelhuis, Haar, & Roche, 2014). Similar effects have also been found among spouses, where work-family enrichment (or reduced work-family conflict) experienced by employees is positively related to their partners' marital satisfaction and attitudes towards the organization (Ferguson, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2015; van Steenbergen, Kluwer, & Karney, 2014; Wayne et al., 2013). These results suggest that individual enrichment matters, not only for the focal individual, but also for improving the well-being of those around her.

2.3 Work-Life Balance

While conflict and enrichment constitute two theoretically distinct and opposing constructs (Carlson et al., 2006), they are not mutually exclusive. For example, an individual may encounter conflict in juggling the different demands from both work and family life, yet still benefit from his or her engagement in multiple roles due to the positive experiences at home that is in turn carried over to the workplace, or vice versa (Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008; Weer et al., 2010). As such, whereas conflict and enrichment act as specific mechanisms linking work and personal life, work-life balance reflects an overall summative characterization of an individual's engagement in and enjoyment of a multitude of roles across work and non-work domains (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Valcour, 2007).

Over the last few decades, the term "work-life balance" has becoming an increasingly popular concept that is frequently referenced in everyday life (Haar, Russo, Suñe, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014; McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011). The definition of balance, however, is

unclear. Historically, studies have conceptualized it simply as the absence of work-life conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 2001), as the combination of both low conflict and high facilitation (Frone, 2003), as a global assessment of resources meeting demands (Voydanoff, 2004), as an equal division of time and attention among several roles (Marks & MacDermid, 1996), and as the accomplishment of work and family expectations that are negotiated and shared with role partners (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). More recently, scholars have taken a perception-based approach, describing balance as an individual's self-appraisal of effectiveness in, and satisfaction with, their work and personal lives (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Haar et al., 2014). This definition acknowledges that balance is possible despite experiences of work-life conflict; in other words, balance is not reliant on performance, but rather is unique for each person, depending upon his or her life values, priorities, and goals (Haar et al., 2014; Kossek et al., 2011). Thus balance exists when role effectiveness and role satisfaction are consistent with life priorities. For example, despite the depleting effects of work engagement depicted in some studies (Halbesleben et al., 2009), others suggest that high levels of engagement at work can actually be beneficial (Hakanen & Peeters, 2015; Ilies, Liu, Liu, & Zheng, 2017; Ten Brummelhuis, Rothbard, & Uhrich, 2017), especially for employees who enjoy and are intrinsically motivated by their work (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2017), which may in turn facilitate enhanced perceptions of work-family balance (Ilies et al., 2017). A recent review by Wayne and colleagues finds that compared to other conceptualizations of balance, perception-based conceptualization of balance, focused on satisfaction and effectiveness, were the most important predictors of performance both within and outside the work domain (Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2017).

In general, although work-life balance remains one of the least studied concepts in work-life research (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Haar et al., 2014), scholars have found that balance, as a non-directional perception of how one manages work and nonwork simultaneously, indeed explains variance in a number of individual, organization, and family-related outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, family satisfaction, etc.), beyond that explained by traditional measures of conflict and enrichment (Carlson et al., 2009). Therefore, in addition to measuring conflict and enrichment, it may also be important to assess individuals' work-life balance perceptions (Haar et al., 2014), as there is general consensus that achieving work-life balance has important implications for facilitating greater well-being, enhanced productivity, and improved overall quality of life.

2.4 Summary

While research on the work-life interface has contributed significantly to our understanding of the interactions between work and non-work domains, several gaps remain, particularly with regard to the less-examined construct of work-life enrichment as it pertains to domains beyond work and family. For example, while the specific dimensions of enrichment (i.e., development, capital, efficiency, and affect) are well-established in the literature, few studies (Nicklin & McNall, 2013; Siu et al., 2015) have in fact distinguished between these dimensions in identifying the explicit ways in which work contributes to improved affect and performance in other domains, and

vice versa (Lapierre et al., 2017). However, as Nicklin and McNall (2013) argue, collapsing different dimensions into an aggregate measure of enrichment may be misleading, as each can have important implications for understanding the positive side of the work-life interface. In a similar vein, despite studies indicating positive relationships between domains as a potential result of resource enrichment (Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 1992a), with few exceptions (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2010), we know relatively little about the specific resources that are in fact transferred across roles.

This dissertation will address these limitations by focusing on a less-examined form of work-life benefit – employer-sponsored corporate volunteering, and identifying the critical resources derived from its availability that may be subsequently transferred and applied to the workplace. Compared to the family domain, volunteerism has received significantly less attention in the literature. However, with the widespread prevalence of various social initiatives offered in the workplace, it is important to understand how corporate efforts to enrich employees' lives outside of work may create valuable resources that subsequently enhance their attitudes and performance at work.

3.0 Organizational Work-Life Initiatives

As briefly highlighted earlier, organizations play an important role in helping employees manage their work and non-work domains. These efforts had originally centered on family supports such as dependent care and flexible work arrangements to reduce the work-family conflict faced by the increasing number of employees with caregiving responsibilities (Breugh & Frye, 2008; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Kossek et al., 2006). Recognizing that employees have responsibilities and commitments outside of work that do not include family, work-life efforts have also expanded into various ‘third place’ domains, encompassing a wide range of benefits that help support employees’ professional development and personal well-being. These may include onsite gym and fitness centers, social and community initiatives, educational benefits and training, psychological counseling, company-wide retreats, as well as other sports and leisure programs (Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer, 2010; Mattke et al., 2013; Ransome, 2007), comprising what human resource professionals now call a work-life benefits package (Lambert, 2000; Muse, Harris, Giles, & Feild, 2008).

Contrary to family-friendly practices which are narrow in applicability and may signal preferential treatment of employees with families (Kirby & Krone, 2002), organizational initiatives in non-family domains, such as those described above, have more universal applicability and are generally available to all employees (Muller, Pfarrer, & Little, 2014). Further, where the main goal of work-family policies is to reduce inter-role conflict, in the non-family work-life context this conflict is much less salient. Instead, the volitional nature of these efforts means that individuals

engage in them based on personal enjoyment, perceived availability of time, and low conflict with other role demands. As a result, these initiatives appear primarily to underscore the importance of enrichment, where participation in non-work domains can generate positive resources that in turn contribute to improved functioning at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). More specifically, work-life benefits are considered to enhance employee perceptions of enrichment for two reasons: first, they serve as a signal of the organization's care and support for work-life issues, and this in itself may generate more positive work attitudes among employees, regardless of whether or not they actually partake in the benefits offered (Allen, 2001; Butts et al., 2013; Casper & Harris, 2008); second, among those who do take advantage of these benefits, the instrumental resources obtained from their utilization can enable better functioning in both work and personal domains, thereby allowing employees to experience greater positive affect and improved performance across multiple roles.

It is important to note here however, that the implementation of these work-life practices do not always produce the anticipated results. The reasons may be twofold. First, despite its increased prevalence, many of the corporate offerings on this front remain underutilized (Mandeville, Halbesleben, & Whitman, 2016). This is in part due to ineligibility (e.g., family benefits such as onsite childcare or parental leave are applicable only to a fraction of employees), and a lack of interest even among those who are eligible (e.g., the average rate of employee participation in corporate-sponsored volunteering programs is reported to be only 30%) (CECP, 2018). With regard to family benefits in particular, the low utilization may also be attributed to fear of stigma and negative career consequences when requesting to use certain policies, even if in reality such repercussions do not exist (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Leslie et al., 2012).

Second, while the implementation of many work-life balance initiatives, such as flextime and telecommuting, have undoubtedly afforded employees with greater control and flexibility in managing the demands of different domains, it has also intensified work and at times even led to an escalation of work-life conflict as employees now increasingly engage in job-related tasks beyond normal work hours (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Schieman, Glavin, & Milkie, 2009). In a similar vein, with regard to non-family initiatives such as volunteering, some employees report experiencing distress due to perceived pressure to participate in additional activities outside of work (Rodell, Breitsohl, Schröder, & Keating, 2016; Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). These studies are consistent with the proposition suggesting that the permeability (or blurring of boundaries) between domains may actually induce greater interference and conflict as they convey the perception that “work never ends”.

I extend this research on work-life practices by examining corporate volunteer programs as a specific type of non-work benefit offered by the organization. The literatures on employee volunteering and corporate social initiatives provide some insight into the organizational implications of providing employees with external volunteer opportunities. By integrating this stream of research with that on organizational work-life initiatives, it allows for a more thorough assessment of the firm-level costs and benefits associated with employer-sponsored corporate volunteer programs.

3.1 Corporate Volunteer Programs as a Work-Life Initiative

Corporate volunteering is described as “formal or informal practices, policies, and programs created by organizations to coordinate and encourage community service among their paid employees” (Henning & Jones, 2013). Under this definition, corporate volunteering is considered a planned activity involving a commitment of time and effort (Henning & Jones, 2013; Rodell et al., 2016), often characterized by team-based community projects and various forms of employer support. The latter include paid time off work, transportation and material goods, as well as recognition for social performance (Booth et al., 2009; Rodell et al., 2017). By encouraging employees to take part in various community projects, such programs reflect not only the firms’ commitment to social engagement, but also its efforts in helping to facilitate employees’ pursuit of non-work activities.

The idea of corporate volunteering originated from the U.S. in the early 1900s. Over the last several years, corporate volunteer programs have experienced a steady increase, becoming a common practice in many organizations. In fact, according to a recent report by CECP (2018), over 90% of Fortune 500 companies now report having an employee volunteer program. The specific type of volunteer programs offered however, tend to vary widely among organizations, with the most popular programs being pro bono service, company-wide day of service, flexible scheduling, and paid-release time off work. The latter two in particular, offer employees the flexibility needed to balance their community efforts with work and other personal demands, and have been shown to be the most popular volunteer options among organizations. They are also reported to generate the highest volunteer participation rate (compared to companies that report

only having an outside-company-time volunteer program). In other words, providing volunteer spaces during work time tends to pay off in terms of reaching a higher commitment among employees. Overall, the average level of employee participation across companies is 30%, with the top quartile reaching 42% or more (CECP, 2018).

Worth noting is that distinct from other work-life programs that are centered directly around employees' development and well-being (e.g., tuition benefits, the provision of gym and health care facilities, etc.), the primary goal of corporate volunteer programs is to enhance *societal* well-being. Over the years however, corporate volunteering has shifted from merely being viewed as a public relations gimmick, towards increasingly being used as a strategic HR management tool. In fact, given the popularity of such programs among employees, corporate volunteer initiatives are often included on the "Employee Benefits" page of various corporate websites as a way to attract and retain top talent (e.g., The PNC Financial Services Group, the Bank of New York Mellon, etc.). These programs may be particularly attractive among the millennial generation – a generation typically characterized as displaying a strong care and concern for social causes and corporate values. Therefore, in addition to the societal benefits that accrue from corporate volunteerism, encouraging employees to engage in community work may also indirectly facilitate a number of other positive outcomes, both for employees as well as the organization. I briefly discuss these benefits below.

3.1.1 Individual-Level Outcomes of Corporate Volunteering

Employee participation in corporate volunteer programs has been reported to generate a range of positive personal, task, social, and career benefits (Booth et al., 2009; Geroy et al., 2000; Grant, 2012; Muthuri, Matten, & Moon, 2009; Rodell, 2013). In a national survey of employee volunteers for example, Booth and colleagues (2009) found employer-sponsored volunteer benefits to be positively associated with perceptions of skill acquisition, which was in turn related to perceptions of job success and employer recognition. Similarly, in support of the enhancement perspective of multiple role engagement, Rodell (2013) found that volunteering was related to employees' job absorption, and hence, better job performance. Additionally, a number of scholars have noted the social benefits of participation in corporate volunteer programs (Longenecker et al., 2012; Muthuri et al., 2009; Pelozo, Hudson, & Hassay, 2009). These studies highlight its role in not only building community relations, but also in bringing people from different departments and units together to enhance their capacity for cooperation. By working together on various community initiatives, employees can expand their networks and build effective workplace connections that make it easier to get work done. Finally, participation in corporate volunteering has also been reported to engender organizational pride, identification and commitment among employees, thus further contributing to increased effort at work (Bartel, 2001; De Gilder et al., 2005; Jones, 2010).

Aside from the work-related benefits depicted above, a second stream of research has begun to examine the impact of corporate volunteering on employees' personal lives and overall well-being. For example, studies find that satisfaction with corporate volunteering is related to

greater happiness, reduced stress, and improved work-life balance among volunteers (Longenecker et al., 2012; Paco & Nave, 2013). Exposure to issues such as hunger, poverty, and homelessness can further create a sense of awareness and appreciation among employees for their current circumstances – feelings that may otherwise not have been apparent in the absence of such programs (Longenecker et al., 2012). In addition, Rodell and colleagues (2017) demonstrated that corporate volunteering policies can also promote a positive volunteering climate within the organization, and this in turn increases the likelihood that employees will continue to seek out opportunities to volunteer on their own time outside of the corporate structure.

One concern however, lies in the fact that self-selection mechanisms might also explain part of the story, as employees who “sort” into corporate volunteer programs may be systematically different (e.g., have higher ability and motivation) compared to those who do *not* choose to partake in such benefits (De Gilder et al., 2005). As an initial effort to disentangle sorting and treatment effects, Bode and colleagues (2013) conducted a stringently matched sample of participants and non-participants of a corporate social initiative, such that employees in both groups were deemed similar on a number of key characteristics. Results of their study indicated that (1) engagement in social initiatives has a positive retention effect on employees; and (2) this positive effect can at least partially be attributed to treatment, and is not simply a manifestation of the sorting of certain types of employees into the program.

On the other hand, despite the positive effects of corporate volunteerism, it is important to note that such programs may also incur a number of inadvertent outcomes. First, in contrast to work-family benefits where its use is often hindered by negative career-related concerns (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Leslie et al., 2012), employer-sponsored volunteer programs may actually

incur stress among employees as a result of perceived pressure to participate in company-wide events. Indeed, “mandatory volunteerism” programs have been reported to create strong perceptions of external control, thereby reducing the likelihood that individuals will freely volunteer again in the future (Stukas et al., 1999). Interestingly, in a recent study by van Schie and colleagues, the authors find that employer recognition and managerial support of corporate volunteerism may also unexpectedly foster a controlled form of motivation, thereby preventing employees from internalizing a volunteer identity and sustaining their volunteer commitment (van Schie, Gautier, Pache, & Güntert, 2018). These studies commonly emphasize the importance of ensuring an autonomous context in strengthening employee perceptions of, and participation in, corporate volunteerism.

In addition, there exists the possibility that participation in volunteer activities will demand significant time and energy, and therefore interfere with one’s performance on the job. As noted earlier, research in the work-non-work literature has thus far produced mixed results with regard to the effect of non-work activities on employee performance at work, supporting both the enrichment and conflict perspectives (Graves et al., 2007; Rodell, 2013; Ruderman et al., 2002; Weer et al., 2010). Other studies suggest that the benefits of corporate volunteering may further depend on the nature of the work, such that employees derive more positive outcomes when the projects are meaningful, and provide opportunities to both utilize and develop their professional skills (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Grant, 2012; van Schie et al., 2018).

Also worth noting is that among those who choose to take advantage of their company’s volunteering policies, the reactions garnered from coworkers are not always positive. In fact, results from both a field study and laboratory experiment show that colleagues may actually

stigmatize employees who volunteer, particularly when they attribute it to impression management reasons, when they perceive volunteers as acting morally superior, or when they view participation in volunteer work as a distraction from regular job-related tasks and responsibilities (Rodell & Lynch, 2016). Further support may be drawn from the work-family literature, which suggests that when employees take time off work to engage in other activities, this may create an additional burden on coworkers. For example, in a series of interviews with employees at a large governmental organization, Kirby and Krone (2002) observed that many non-users of family-friendly benefits complain about having to “pick up the slack” for employees making use of family leave. In a similar vein, non-participants of corporate volunteer programs may also experience frustration from the need to undertake additional work responsibilities in order to cover for colleagues engaged in volunteerism outside of the workplace.

3.1.2 Organizational-Level Outcomes of Corporate Volunteering

From the perspective of the employer, despite the reputational benefits that accrue from community investment, the benefits on the internal front are more equivocal. As noted earlier, a number of studies indicate improved workplace relationships as a result of employee engagement in various corporate social initiatives, which consequently contributes to the creation of enhanced social capital within the organization (Longenecker et al., 2012; Muthuri et al., 2009). Additionally, by providing such initiatives, companies may further benefit from increased employee identification with and commitment to the organization (Bartel, 2001; Jones, 2010; Jones, Willness, & Madey, 2014; Rodell et al., 2017), so long as the promotion of such events are

not attributed by employees to public relation purposes (Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015). Taken together, these studies provide initial support that the provision of corporate volunteer programs may have a positive effect on employee behaviors, and by extension, organizational performance.

In general, because corporate volunteer programs focus on employee activities outside of work, the firm-level advantages of organizing such events are not well understood. The inconsistent results illustrated above at both the individual and organizational level suggest that further work is needed to better understand the internal implications of encouraging employees' community involvement. Aside from reputational benefits, it is possible that such programs may serve to enhance workplace outcomes via mechanisms other than increased pride in and identification with the company; yet to date, we know relatively little about the micro-level processes that may enable potential benefits for the organization, regardless of whether or not employees actually partake in the initiatives offered.

In the remainder of this paper, I draw from research on the work-life interface, and examine the affective and behavioral pathways through which employee participation in, and perceptions of, corporate volunteer programs delivers enhanced organizational outcomes. First, I take into account both the enrichment and conflict perspectives, and explicitly test to what extent engagement in corporate volunteer programs induces both enriching and depleting mechanisms. With regard to these two types of interactions between work and non-work domains, I anticipate that the enrichment effects of corporate volunteerism will be more salient than its influence on work-life conflict, as (1) the knowledge and positive affect obtained through these activities are likely to exert a direct instrumental effect on employee functioning in other domains such as work;

and (2) employee participation in the program is generally based on personal interest, perceived availability of time, and low conflict with other role demands; thus in line with prior research, these characteristics suggest that engagement in volunteerism should not interfere with activities in other domains, but rather lead to positive affective and behavioral outcomes (Ramos et al., 2015; Ten Brummelhuis & Trougakos, 2014). The theoretical model, as depicted in Figure 1, illustrates how enrichment experienced from participation in volunteer activities relates to individual performance through the transfer of different resource gains, resulting in a total positive effect of volunteer engagement on workplace behavior.

Additionally, in taking into account the significant portion of employees who do *not* take advantage of their company's work-life offerings, I also include in this study the group of non-participants, and examine the potential influence of corporate volunteerism on non-participants' work-related attitudes and performance. In particular, I draw upon theories of signaling and social influence to show that the availability of employer-sponsored volunteer programs may signal to employees that the organization values and supports their social and community pursuits. These signals, derived from social interactions among coworkers, may generate positive affect and behavior that encompass even those who do not directly partake in the benefits offered. Figure 2 depicts the theoretical relationships between coworker social sharing of volunteer-related information and employees' subsequent work behavior.

4.0 Employee Volunteering and Work Engagement

Work engagement has been generally referred to as an active and positive work-related state that is characterized by the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011). More specifically, Kahn (1990) describes engagement as the investment of cognitive, emotional, and physical energies into role performance; in other words, people exhibit engagement when they become physically involved in tasks; are cognitively vigilant, focused, and attentive; and are emotionally connected to their work (Kahn, 1990). Building upon this, Rothbard (2001) similarly characterizes engagement as including both attention (“the cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role”) and absorption (“the intensity of one’s focus on a role”). Taking a slightly different approach, Schaufeli and colleagues describe engagement as a multidimensional construct characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Vigor refers to showing high levels of energy while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication consists of being strongly involved in one’s work, and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work. Overall, while the construct of engagement differ slightly among studies, they commonly emphasize a persistence and pervasive state of positive work-related well-being.

Engaged employees show higher levels of energy and enthusiasm at work compared to those who are disengaged (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Because of this, work engagement has been associated with a host of positive work outcomes, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and customer satisfaction (Bakker, Demerouti, & Lieke, 2012; Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010; Saks, 2006), and is thus considered an important means through which organizations can create competitive advantage (Rich et al., 2010).

Research on work-life enrichment can help explain why employee volunteering may lead to enhanced work engagement. First, consistent with the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), although volunteer work requires some degree of effort investment and may place additional demands on the individual, it also increases personal resources; people who engage in various community activities often report positive affective and cognitive outcomes afterwards, such as enhanced knowledge and abilities, as well as an increased sense of motivation and fulfillment. In a day-level study of leisure-time activities for example, Mojza and colleagues found volunteer work to be positively related to both mastery experiences (i.e., pursuing challenging activities) as well as community experiences (cultivating relationships), thereby contributing to successful recovery from work by creating valuable new resources (Mojza & Sonnentag, 2010). These results were mirrored in other studies that similarly report positive relationships between volunteer experiences and increased well-being (Mojza et al., 2011; Ramos et al., 2015). In this sense, volunteer activities can be considered an “uplift experience” that challenges a person without overtaxing his or her capabilities.

Second, drawing from the instrumental and affective models of work-life enrichment, these newly acquired resources, when carried over to employees' work domain, are expected to foster positive affect and enhanced effort at work. As Kahn (1990) argues, people are more ready to engage at work when they have the physical, emotional, and psychological resources to do so. In his ethnographic study of camp counselors, for example, individuals' engagement at work was shown to be dependent on how they experienced the demands of their non-work lives, such that certain events or roles outside of work can "charge" employees, providing them with additional energies and resources to draw on while at work. These resources are particularly likely to promote high performance at work when they are perceived to be relevant to employees' work role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). With regard to volunteer activities in particular, Caligiuri et al. (2013) demonstrated that volunteer assignments are most valuable when employees are able to utilize their professional skills, and when they perceive opportunities for further skill development. In this sense, volunteer activities often draw on many of the same resources as work tasks. Furthermore, following the affective pathway of enrichment proposed by Greenhaus & Powell (2006), and consistent with Fredrickson's broaden and build theory (2001), positive emotions generated from volunteer work can also serve to broaden employees' thought-action repertoires, and promote greater energy and attention at work. Taken together, when employees perceive they have adequate personal resources to draw upon, they will be both more willing and able to engage themselves at work (Kahn, 1990).

Hypothesis 1: Participation in corporate volunteering is positively associated with individual work engagement.

4.1 The Transfer of Positive Resources

When employees take part in their organization's work-life programs, they experience positive instrumental and affective benefits as a result of role accumulation. Resources thus play a central role in models of enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In the following sections, I focus on general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness as two specific pathways through which volunteering may induce positive outcomes on employee behaviors at work.

4.1.1 General Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to "individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations" (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998). When individuals perceive a high level of efficacy, they are more likely to feel good about themselves, and as a result, experience positive affect and increased motivation to initiate and persist in a given task (Bandura, 1977). In the organizational domain, self-efficacy has been positively linked with a variety of work-related outcomes, including creativity, proactive behaviors, job performance, job satisfaction, and career success (G. Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Judge & Bono, 2001).

Bandura's (1977) seminal article on self-efficacy identifies four sources of information that contribute to individual self-efficacy: performance accomplishments (i.e., repeated personal success), vicarious experience (i.e., success inferred from observing others' modeling behavior), verbal persuasion (i.e., mastery expectations induced by suggestion), and physiological state (i.e.,

emotional arousal that contains informative value about one's competency). Among these, the first source of efficacy is especially influential as it is based on personal mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977). With regard to volunteerism in particular, research has found that service-learning projects are developmental for participants as it increases "community learning (knowledge of social, cultural, or economic issues) and personal learning (self-awareness of managerial attitude and abilities)" (Bartel, Saavedra, & Van Dyne, 2001). When individuals experience personal success through volunteering (e.g., helping others, acquiring a new skill, etc.), they develop more favorable assessments of their capabilities. In support of this, a number of studies indeed indicate that when participating in volunteer activities, employees not only reinforce their existing skills but may also acquire new ones such as communication and interpersonal skills (Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013). In addition, certain volunteer activities can offer unique exposure to various technical, managerial, and organizational skills, thereby further increasing employee perceptions of skill acquisition (Booth et al., 2009).

It is also important to note that self-efficacy beliefs differ in generality. Some experiences create circumscribed mastery expectations that only hold under given situations, whereas others instill a more generalized sense of efficacy that extends well beyond the originating domain (Bandura, 1977). As Bandura argues, experiences based on performance accomplishments tend to produce higher and more generalized efficacy expectations than those derived from other sources. This is not only because the evidence of performance accomplishments increases one's overall self-confidence, but in the process of performing, individuals often acquire general skills that are perceived to be applicable to a wide variety of other activities. These self-efficacy beliefs are especially likely to be developed when individuals are faced with novel tasks (Usher & Pajares,

2008), and when they are able to directly observe the outcomes of their work (e.g., after community clean-ups, or when providing food and supplies to those in need). In such cases, the immediate and positive feedback received is likely to enhance their judgments of personal competence and efficacy, as it conveys their ability to effectively perform across a range of different situations.

Hypothesis 2a: Participation in corporate volunteerism is associated with increased general self-efficacy.

While perceptions of efficacy derived from volunteering are likely generic in nature, the transfer of self-efficacy across domains should be particularly strong among activities that are perceived to be similar to each other (Bandura, 1977). As one such example, volunteer and job-related pursuits may be considered parallel domains, where the skills acquired through volunteer work are often deemed valuable to the employer and can be leveraged upon in day-to-day tasks and assignments (Booth et al., 2009). For example, the interpersonal skills obtained through interactions with coworkers and community partners may enable the volunteer to better navigate workplace relations. Furthermore, in Caliguiri et al.'s (2013) study, managers whose direct reports had completed volunteerism assignments indeed report that their employees are “already enthusiastically applying the new skills” they had learnt during their volunteer activities to their projects at work. These findings suggest that perceptions of efficacy can be transferred from the volunteer experience to the business unit; in other words, employees who develop positive perceptions of their general abilities through volunteer work are likely to also form more positive appraisals of their ability to perform in the workplace.

Finally, enhanced self-efficacy, as a personal resource, is expected to have a positive influence on employee engagement at work. As Bandura (1982) argues, self-appraisals of capabilities function as one set of proximal determinants of how people think and behave in that they avoid activities that they believe exceed their skills and abilities, but actively undertake those they judge themselves capable of managing. Because perceptions of efficacy are based on judgments of personal competence, individuals who are highly self-efficacious tend to hold more positive evaluations of their capabilities, and are thus more likely to exert energy and address challenges with greater confidence and enthusiasm, and are less likely to be burdened by feelings of stress and anxiety (Bandura, 1977, 1993). In support of this, Ouweneel, Schaufeli, LeBlanc (2013) for example, showed that changes in students' self-efficacy were significantly related to corresponding changes in engagement and behavior over time. In this sense, self-efficacy acts as a motivating mechanism, influencing the overall amount of effort people invest into work.

In the organizational environment, when employees believe that they are capable of performing the necessary tasks and activities to produce desirable work-related outcomes, they are more likely to become emotionally, cognitively, and physically involved in their jobs, and less likely to experience negative affect such as anxiety and depression. Schaufeli and colleagues (2006) found perceptions of efficacy to be positively related to all three dimensions of engagement (i.e., vigor, dedication, and absorption). Rich et al. (2010) found that employees with high levels of core self-evaluations (one dimension being self-efficacy) tended to appraise their abilities more positively, and were thus more likely to fully invest themselves into their work roles. Conversely, when employees lack self-efficacy, they may have little incentive to act or persevere in the face of difficulties (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011), and instead, tend to report higher levels of

exhaustion and cynicism (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), further limiting the finite amount of personal resources they are willing to allocate to their jobs.

In addition to the motivational aspect of self-efficacy, the relationship between efficacy and work engagement may also be influenced by positive affect, such that efficacious employees are more likely to feel energized at work (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), and this enhanced positive affect is predicted to broaden employees' thought processes (Fredrickson, 2001), increasing the likelihood that they are more interested and engaged at work (Salanova et al., 2011). Studies that focus on the individual work day as the unit of analysis not only show that feeling competent can enhance positive affect (Reis et al., 2000), but that the affective gains from perceived competence in one domain will also spill over into other domains of employees' lives (Sonnentag & Grant, 2012). Salanova et al.'s (2011) longitudinal study of secondary school teachers further demonstrated the existence of reciprocal gains between efficacy beliefs, positive affect, and engagement, such that efficacy beliefs related positively to engagement over time, which in turn enhanced future efficacy beliefs. In general, there is persuasive evidence indicating positive relationships between self-efficacy and work engagement (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

Hypothesis 2b: General self-efficacy is positively associated with employee work engagement.

Hypothesis 2c: General self-efficacy partially mediates the positive relationship between participation in corporate volunteering and employee work engagement.

4.1.2 Experienced Meaningfulness

In addition to enhancing employee perceptions of their personal capabilities, volunteering can also be expected to influence participants' experience of meaningfulness in life. While there have been different conceptualizations of meaningfulness in the literature, within the science of well-being, it is often treated as a subjective state or judgment regarding how people feel about their work and lives more generally (Ward & King, 2017). As multiple studies indicate, the extent to which individuals perceive their work and lives to be meaningful in turn has important implications for promoting positive emotions and increasing overall satisfaction in life (Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014; Ward & King, 2017).

One critical source of meaningfulness in particular, comes from investing time and energy into the attainment of cherished goals (Ryff & Singer, 1998). For example, people who work in enriching jobs, who have rewarding interpersonal relationships with coworkers and clients, and who perceive a high degree of fit between their work roles and individual self-concepts, are more likely to experience meaning in their work (Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). At the same time, meaningfulness can also come from sources outside of work. An important reason individuals engage in various non-work activities is the fulfillment of personal needs and desires that might otherwise not be derived from the work domain. For example, people may take up certain hobbies and social activities not merely for personal enjoyment and relaxation, but rather to fulfill unmet psychological needs such as competence, autonomy, and belonging (Newman et al., 2014; Petrou & Bakker, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). This is particularly important as people are frequently unable to work in jobs that fit their personal goals

and values or fulfill their original occupational desires (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Vogel et al., 2016). In these cases, participation in various types of non-work activities becomes an alternative way of fulfilling personal goals and values.

Drawing from the above, individuals may choose to engage in volunteering to feel a sense of meaningfulness through the opportunity to help others, which may otherwise not be derived from their regular work responsibilities. According to research regarding individual experiences of meaning in life, volunteer actions lend purpose to people's lives, and can constitute an important source of meaningfulness in life (King, Hicks, Krull, & Del Gaiso, 2006; Ward & King, 2017). Through engagement in such activities, individuals anticipate a positive impact on society. A study by Mojza and colleagues (2011), for example, found engagement in volunteer activities during leisure time to reduce negative affect the next day, as mediated by need satisfaction. Other researchers have similarly noted the meaningfulness of the tasks as an important benefit gained through volunteer work (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Geroy et al., 2000; Rodell, 2013). These studies commonly suggest that such efforts can provide individuals with a sense of fulfillment by offering enjoyable and meaningful experiences outside of work, and may be particularly important for employees who work in depleted or high-strain jobs (i.e., high workload combined with low job autonomy) (Grant, 2012; Petrou & Bakker, 2016; Rodell, 2013).

Given the above, Opoku-Dawkwa and colleagues (2018) position corporate social initiatives, including community involvement and other forms of ethic programs, as opportunities provided by the organization for employees to act upon their core values and goals, through which they may experience increased psychological meaningfulness. These feelings may be even further enhanced when individuals experience positive feedback and success (Machell, Kashdan, Short,

& Nezlek, 2015). In the case of volunteer work, this may be reflected via the attainment of new knowledge and skills, or the concrete achievement of important social missions, all of which can promote a strong sense of personal fulfillment. In short, to the extent that employer-sponsored volunteer programs help individuals meet their goals or fulfill their needs, they are likely to provide employees with an increased sense of meaningfulness in life.

Hypothesis 3a: Participation in corporate volunteering is associated with increased experienced meaningfulness.

The enrichment perspective posits that positive affect in one area of life will influence one's experience of affect in another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For example, satisfaction with one's job may influence satisfaction in other domains such as family, leisure, social, health, etc., thereby predicting individuals' perceptions of the overall quality of life (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, & Lee, 2001). Along similar lines, employees who perceive that participation in corporate volunteerism is important and worthwhile may also develop more positive perceptions about their life in general (Ward & King, 2017). This is supported by abundant evidence in the work-life literature, which suggests that activities pursued during one's leisure time can create positive affective states that extend into the workplace, and that commitment towards non-work roles can enhance overall life satisfaction (Hirschi, Herrmann, Nagy, & Spurk, 2016). In a daily survey of experiences at work for example, Sonnentag found the pursuit of leisure activities to be positively related to next-day work engagement (Sonnentag, 2003). These results were mirrored in later studies by Hecht and Boies (2009), and Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012), who similarly found that individuals who engaged in leisure activities (e.g., social, recreational, and physical activities)

experienced positive emotional spillover and enhanced vigor the next morning, helping them stay engaged throughout the workday. A number of studies have, in particular, examined the role of volunteering on work-related outcomes. These studies also highlight positive cross-domain effects, such as reduced negative affect, and increased positive experiences at work the following day (Hecht & Boies, 2009; Kirchmeyer, 1992b; Mojza et al., 2011). Therefore, consistent with the affective pathway of enrichment proposed by Greenhaus & Powell (2006), I anticipate that experienced meaningfulness, as a discrete positive emotion derived from volunteering, will similarly extend to other life domains (e.g., work), facilitating enhanced attitudes and behaviors across a range of different roles.

Within the work domain, the experience of meaningfulness can be a significant psychological condition for enhancing employee motivation and productivity at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In a field study by May and colleagues (2004), the authors found that when task characteristics are enriched, jobs can provide a sense of meaningfulness that in turn contributes to increased work engagement. This supports the notion that the experience of meaning derived from various aspects of one's job can act as a powerful motivator as it provides a strong rationale for effort and attention at work. Building upon this, although corporate volunteerism focuses on activities outside of one's normal work boundaries, the provision of such initiatives through the organization may similarly incur feelings of enrichment and meaningfulness at work that either complement or compensate for employees' regular task characteristics (Grant, 2012; Rodell, 2013). As a result, employees experience increased positive affect, which can be expected to manifest in positive action tendencies in the workplace (Fredrickson, 2001). Therefore, compared to individuals who perceive less meaning in their lives, employees who experience a sense of

increased meaningfulness, either from within or outside the workplace, will have more resources that in turn enable them to concentrate fully and dedicate themselves to the tasks at hand. As such, they not only experience greater well-being, but also exhibit improved motivation and engagement at work (Ward & King, 2017).

Hypothesis 3b: Experienced meaningfulness is positively associated with employee work engagement.

Hypothesis 3c: Experienced meaningfulness partially mediates the positive relationship between participation in corporate volunteering and employee work engagement.

4.2 The Competing Conflict Perspective

While ample evidence exists for potential enrichment effects, engagement in volunteer activities can also evoke interference and conflict through resource drains of time and energy. In light of the potential competing effects of enrichment and interference, it is important to take into account factors that may detract from employees' overall positive experience of participation in corporate volunteerism, and assess whether such participation has more costs than benefits at work. Thus in addition to enrichment, I also test an opposing conflict perspective, and examine the time and strain-based demands that may stem from participation in corporate volunteering.

According to resource drain theory (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), engagement in different domains can incur significant physical and psychological resources; these resources incurred in one domain, consequently subtracts from the finite amount of resources available to the individual

in other domains. When this happens, it may create a number of opportunities for conflict or pressure between roles. As a primary source of conflict, time for example, constitutes the ultimate limited resource, where the more roles a person takes up, the more his or her time is divided between those roles (Barnett & Gareis, 2000). In other words, as employees start devoting more time to fulfilling volunteer-related demands, he/she may have less time available for other roles such as work. In support of this, increasing hours in one domain has indeed been shown to result in increasing interference between various responsibilities, thus leading to greater levels of inter-role conflict (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012; Major et al., 2002; Voydanoff, 2004).

Furthermore, interference of volunteerism with work can also occur as a result of strain-based demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, extensive effort spent on volunteer work during the weekends may render employees too tired or frazzled at work the following Monday; or when at work, employees may continue to be preoccupied with community issues, creating worries and concerns that extend beyond the length of one's direct engagement in volunteering. The experience of such physical and psychological stressors can result in a further depletion of resources, inhibiting or restricting one's full involvement in work. Multiple studies in the work-family domain indeed highlight role stress (e.g., role ambiguity, family pressures and demands, etc.) as important predictors of conflict between domains (Byron, 2005). Therefore, in line with the conflict perspective of role accumulation, I propose and test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4a: Participation in corporate volunteering is associated with increased work-life conflict.

Empirical evidence suggests that inter-role conflict is negatively related to work-related attitudes and performance. Those who perceive high levels of conflict between work and

volunteering may be overwhelmed by the time and energy required in each domain. The pressures and strain caused by such inter-role conflict typically induce negative emotions; these emotions, when transported into the work setting, tend to decrease one's motivation to expend and maintain high levels of effort at work (Rothbard, 2001). Abundant examples exist in the work-family domain where individuals tend to ruminate on problems in one role while being physically engaged in another (Crouter, 1984; Rothbard, 2001). In a similar vein, if employees perceive insufficient outcomes with their volunteer activities, they may experience feelings of frustration and disappointment that detract from their ability to be fully immersed in work-related tasks. Other studies further suggest that high levels of role conflict in the workplace is related to reduced positive work behaviors (Bragger et al., 2005). As such, the experience of inter-role conflict as a result of involvement in volunteering may make it difficult to fully concentrate at work, leading to decreased engagement as resources are lost in the process of juggling both volunteer and work demands.

Hypothesis 4b: Work-life conflict is negatively associated with employee work engagement.

Hypothesis 4c: Work-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between participation in corporate volunteering and employee work engagement.

Overall however, despite potential resource drains in terms of time and energy, my theorizing remains consistent with other work-life research that assumes a net expansion of personal resources over and above conflict or strain associated with involvement in non-work-related activities (Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008; Graves et al., 2007; Rothbard, 2001). This may be particularly the case as work-life interference has been shown to be significantly less for employees

in lower-level positions than employees in higher-level positions, as the former is less likely to have extensive work-related demands that easily interfere with and/or be interfered by non-work-related responsibilities (DiRenzo, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2011). Therefore, as outlined in Hypothesis 1, and consistent with the dominant effects of volunteer-to-work enrichment demonstrated in prior studies (Mojza et al., 2011; Rodell, 2013), I anticipate that participation in volunteer activities outside of work will exert an overall positive effect on employee engagement at work.

4.3 Work Engagement and Job Performance

Thus far, I have argued that employer-sponsored corporate volunteer programs should have a total positive effect on employee work engagement, as mediated by increased general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness. These positive relationships exist, even upon taking into account the potential conflict that may emerge from corporate volunteering. As noted earlier, because such programs constitute discretionary initiatives focused on aspects outside of the work domain, employee participation in these programs is fully voluntary. Those who choose to take part generally do so because of personal interest in the volunteer work, and when their schedules enable them the flexibility to accommodate such additional activities. Given this, the positive effects derived from participation are anticipated to outweigh any potential interference between work and volunteer demands that may arise as a result of inter-role conflict. Additionally, I expect that increased work engagement will in turn be associated with enhanced behaviors at work.

First, task performance reflects how well an individual performs the duties required by the job (Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Engagement at work is expected to be beneficial for both the employee as well as the organization as it influences how individuals perform their work and fulfill their job responsibilities. More specifically, engaged employees are generally described as being more psychologically present, cognitively focused, and physically involved in their work (Kahn, 1990). Because they feel more vigorous and bring their complete selves to perform, they tend to work with greater intensity on their tasks for longer periods of time, and are often willing to go the extra mile to ensure the accomplishment of work. In other words, engagement should be positively related with task performance for at least two reasons: (1) engaged employees often experience positive emotions at work, and this consequently broadens their thought-action repertoire, leading to more active work behavior; and (2) engaged employees also have more physical resources, enabling them to display higher levels of energy and resilience while working (Bakker et al., 2012). These resources, as a result, can further facilitate the effective accomplishment of required outcomes and behaviors (i.e., in-role performance) that directly serve the goals of the organization.

In support of this, a number of studies indeed indicate positive relationship between work engagement and task performance. For example, Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) surveyed a sample of US employees from a wide variety of industries and occupations, and found engagement to predict unique variance in in-role performance, as determined via self, supervisor, and colleague ratings. Salanova et al. (2005) conducted a study of front-line employees from a range of Spanish hotels and restaurants, and collected performance information from customer questionnaires; their study revealed a full mediation model in which organizational resources and work engagement

predicted service climate, which was in turn was positively associated with employee performance. Recent studies by Bakker and colleagues similarly find personal resources, such as proactive personality and job crafting, to have a positive effect on work engagement, and thus in-role performance (Bakker et al., 2012; Van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker, 2017). Overall, because engagement is closely aligned with task-related motivation, it has thus generally been considered a key mechanism linking employee and organizational characteristics to employee job performance (Christian et al., 2011; Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 5a: Work engagement is positively associated with employee job performance.

At the same time, the relationship between engagement and performance at work need not be limited to behaviors within an employee's normal work boundaries. As another form of positive behavior at work, extra-role performance (also referred to as contextual performance, proactive behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, personal initiative, etc.) reflects the more discretionary behaviors that contribute to organizations less directly (Motowildo et al., 1997). These types of behaviors are not within employees' formal job definitions; they generally include helping others, taking charge, or simply making constructive suggestions at work. From an identity perspective, Kahn (1990) suggested that individuals who are engaged at work are likely to carry a broader conception of that role and are therefore more likely to step outside of the formal boundaries of their job to facilitate the organization at large and the people within. Taking a resources approach, an alternative explanation is that engaged employees are more able to "free up" resources by performing their work tasks more efficiently, and this in turn enables them to pursue activities that are not part of their job descriptions (Christian et al., 2011). Overall, it can be expected that employees who are engaged in their work will not only expend effort on core

duties formally required by the job, but will also be more likely to exert higher levels of discretionary effort than those who are disengaged.

Studies of work engagement have commonly tested its relationship with both task and extra-role performance. For example, Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004) showed that engaged employees received higher ratings from their colleagues on both in-role and extra-role performance. In a study of 245 firefighters and their supervisors, Rich, LePine and Crawford (2010) found that engagement mediated the relationships between value congruence, perceived organizational support, and core self-evaluations, and two types of job performance: task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. These studies are in accordance with a recent meta-analytic review, which suggests that work engagement is related equally strongly with both task performance and contextual performance (Christian et al., 2011). Based on this, I formulate the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5b: Work engagement is positively associated with employee extra-role performance.

5.0 Coworker Social Influence: The Power of Social Sharing

On the surface, work-life initiatives appear to only affect those who actively take part in them, yet some evidence highlights potential spillover effects of the program to even those who elect out of the benefits offered (Butts et al., 2013; Ollier-Malaterre, 2010; Rodell et al., 2017). Examining the reactions of *all* employees, including non-participants, to such corporate initiatives is important for at least two reasons. First, as non-participants represent a significant portion of employees within the organization, their reactions are likely to influence the successful implementation of a program, especially as changes in work schedules and the covering of responsibilities may require coworker cooperation (J. Mesmer-Magnus, Murase, DeChurch, & Jiménez, 2010). Second, coworker reactions can affect the person utilizing the programs offered, such that some employees may decide not to take advantage of certain programs and benefits due to fear of stigmatization, or that coworkers will resent them as a result of the additional work burden (Rodell & Lynch, 2016). In the following sections, I draw from research on work-family benefits to extrapolate the potential reactions to corporate volunteer programs among *all employees* within the organization.

5.1 Signaling

Signaling theory describes the actions and behaviors one party may undertake to signal desirable qualities to another party as a means of reducing information asymmetry (Spence, 1978). For example, job applicants can use external cues or signals from an organization to infer broader organizational characteristics that may otherwise be unobservable to potential applicants (Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991). In a similar vein, the provision of discretionary work-life practices within an organization can provide important signals regarding what is important and valued in the firm (Allen, 2001; Casper & Harris, 2008; Jones et al., 2014; Muse et al., 2008; Ollier-Malaterre, 2010). For example, within the work-life realm, the availability of family-friendly benefits can signal family-support (Allen, 2001), leading to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction among all employees, not just those who avail themselves of the practice (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). As one such example, Grover and Cooker (1995) showed that the provision of flexible scheduling was significantly associated with employees' organizational commitment, even after controlling for various demographic variables that might be associated with the use of such scheduling (e.g., gender, age, number of children). In other words, the availability of flexible scheduling reduced turnover intentions to the same extent for employees expecting to use the practice at some point in the future, and those with no expectation of using the practice.

These findings suggest that perceptions and interpretations of practices are maybe as, if not more strongly, related to employee reactions than the actual use of the practice. This is further supported by several meta-analyses, which show that the mere availability of work-life initiatives

is in fact more negatively related to work-life conflict and workplace attitudes than the actual use of those benefits (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Butts et al., 2013), thus highlighting the psychological mechanisms that link organizational practices to reduced work-family conflict.

Some initial evidence suggests that these findings may also be mirrored in the work-volunteering space, such that when employers offer volunteering programs, all employees tend to report more positive attitudes. In support of this, de Gilder and colleagues (2005) for example, found no significant difference in the benefits the organization attained with regard to both participants and non-participants. Different results however, were reported in a later study by Brockner et al. (2014), in which the authors note that the more employees engage in corporate (but not non-corporate) volunteerism, the higher their organizational engagement. Additionally, in another recent survey incorporating both volunteers and non-volunteers, Rodell and colleagues showed that company-provided volunteer resources had only a marginally significant effect on the development of a corporate volunteering climate, and thus employee affective commitment to the company (Rodell et al., 2017). These differences in findings may be partially attributed to research design (e.g., the use of cross sectional versus longitudinal surveys), as well as potential biases in sample selection (e.g., non-random selection of survey participants).

Overall however, research on work-life initiatives indicate that it is not necessarily practice utilization, but rather the knowledge and perceptions of work-life programs that drive employees' attitudes towards the organization (Butts et al., 2013; Ollier-Malaterre, 2010). Despite the mixed findings above, firm-level investment of resources into employee volunteerism can potentially signal to employees the organization's commitment to enriching their work experience by providing them with the opportunity to engage in meaningful pursuits outside of normal job

boundaries (Grant, 2012). In addition to the positive perceptions around meaningful work, the deployment of these practices also signals the firm's interest in helping employees enlarge their work identity to ease their transition between different roles (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000), as employees no longer feel the need to conceal certain non-work identities (e.g., community affiliations) for fear of negative consequences. These volunteer programs may thus be interpreted by both participants and non-participants as signals of the firm's care and concern for employee well-being, and as a signal of its long-term investment in employee relationships. As a result, employees develop more positive perceptions of their work environment. Although some employees may not directly engage in their company's corporate volunteer programs, the firm's signal that work-life support is salient will nevertheless lead to positive affective responses.

While prior research has largely focused on the formal provision of work-life practices, it does not address more informal social processes that occur in the workplace. Coworkers, in particular, may play a key role in influencing employees' reactions to various work-life programs. Drawing from social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), I argue that employee reactions to their company's volunteer initiatives are at least in part shaped by the attitudes and behaviors of their coworkers, especially program participants who have direct experience and knowledge of the initiative.

5.2 Coworker Social Influence

Social information processing theory argues that “individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behavior, and beliefs to their social context” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). More specifically, when faced with new or ambiguous problems, people are often limited in their information gathering and processing capacity (Groth, Goldman, Gilliland, & Bies, 2002). They tend to rely on external cues to form impressions of the situation at hand, verify their understanding about the reality, and regulate their behavior accordingly. From this standpoint, as individuals form judgments of various workplace policies and events, they may rely on the overt statements and behaviors of their coworkers (Burkhardt, 1994; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Colleagues’ personal experiences and attitudes can focus an individual’s attention on certain information, and may thus provide important cues which individuals subsequently use to construct their own interpretation of workplace programs such as corporate volunteering. For example, following a positive volunteer experience at work, an employee is likely to share this experience with a colleague. The information conveyed through such conversations may become a key component to which the latter anchors his/her or own judgment about a particular workplace program, and in a broader sense, the organizational environment that it is situated in. Influence from coworkers may be particularly strong when individuals lack direct experience with the events themselves, and thus judgments on particular policies and programs are uncertain (Groth et al., 2002). The prevalence of social influence is firmly established in organizational research (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978); prior research has found for instance, that among employees who engage in frequent interactions, there is a high level of homogeneity in their technology-related attitudes and behaviors (Burkhardt,

1994). This is further corroborated by later studies, which similarly show that employees' perceptions of various workplace practices and even supervisor behavior, tend to be influenced, at least in part, by others from similar work units (Jones & Skarlicki, 2005; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). As such, while employees who are not actively involved in such programs may have limited knowledge of its purpose and impact, their perceptions of such events are likely to be influenced by the attitudes and actions of those who have participated in them. Below I delineate three potential outcomes – with respect to employee perceptions at the organizational level, their behaviors towards coworkers, and their attitudes regarding future volunteer programs – that are likely to result from the sharing of volunteer-related information among coworkers.

5.2.1 Perceived Organizational Support for Enrichment

As with other types of work-life practices, conversations around corporate volunteer programs can similarly send positive program signals to employees. Distinct from work-family policies that are more focused on conflict reduction, in the work-volunteering domain, participation is not associated with role-related conflict due to the discretionary nature of volunteering in general (Mojza et al., 2011). Rather, similar to other types of work-leisure programs (A. Michel, 2011), integration of volunteering into the workplace signals the organization's emphasis on work-life balance, and its interest in incorporating components of "life" into work, such that work is enriched through the expansion of more meaningful experiences (Grote & Guest, 2017).

While employees who are not actively involved in such programs may have limited knowledge of its purpose and impact, their perceptions of such events are likely to be influenced by the attitudes of their coworkers who have participated in them. For example, participants of the volunteer program may share with others their personal interest in volunteering, and their enthusiasm in seeing such opportunities in the workspace. Other participants may note their appreciation for such programs as it helps identify various non-profit or charitable organizations, thus providing a bridge to volunteer work for those who may be interested in volunteering but do not otherwise know how to get involved on their own. Hearing about these volunteer-related interests and experiences of close colleagues may in turn send positive cues to the focal employee regarding the impact of the program, and the organization's commitment to enriching their work experience (Grant, 2012). Through such processes of social influence, these programs may become interpreted by both participants and non-participants as an indicator of the firm's care and concern for employee well-being, and as a signal of its long-term investment in employee relationships. This consequently leads employees to develop more positive perceptions of their work environment, regardless of actual participation.

Hypothesis 6: Social sharing of volunteer-related information among coworkers is positively associated with employees' perceived organizational support for enrichment.

5.2.2 Future Volunteer Intentions

In addition to changes in work-related affect and behavior, conversations around corporate volunteering may also be expected to have a direct impact on employees' intentions to volunteer in the future.

According to social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), there are three likely ways in which a coworker affects an employee's work-related attitudes and behaviors: (1) it guides the employee's perceptions and judgments of the work environment, (2) it shifts the employee's attention on certain information by making it more salient, and (3) it fosters the employee's vicarious learning through observation and imitation. The first two aspects contribute to shaping employees' perceptions of the volunteer program; the third aspect on the other hand, is also consistent with social learning theory and reflects the importance of learning by modeling the behaviors of others (Bandura, 1977). In other words, employees learn acceptable, normative behavior by communicating with and observing similar others in the work environment, such as their coworkers (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003). For example, employees who observe OCB from coworkers have a greater tendency to in turn, exhibit OCB (Z. Chen, Takeuchi, & Shum, 2013). A recent study by Kim et al. similarly suggests that when employees observe others around them engaging in voluntary green behaviors, they are also likely to engage in such behaviors themselves as a way to fit in, or to strengthen their social relationships with others (Kim, Kim, Han, Jackson, & Ployhart, 2017). Therefore, whether motivated by the role-modeling behavior of coworkers, or driven by a desire to not be overshadowed or outperformed by others, employees appear to adjust themselves to match the actions and behaviors of those around them (Z. Chen et

al., 2013). Given this, one may anticipate that as employees are exposed to the volunteer experiences of others in the workplace, they may indirectly learn the values and significance of corporate volunteerism.

Having said this, there is also the possibility of negative information exchange among coworkers, which may have the adverse effect of *detering* one from engaging in corporate volunteering in the future. For example, while unlikely, it is possible that a person's participation in the program could conflict with his/her other responsibilities; or there may be incongruities between an employee's anticipated experience and his/her actual experience, thereby engendering negative affect. When such feelings are shared with others, it may dampen others' desire to participate in similar events in the future. However, several reasons suggest that these experiences are unlikely to play a dominant role in employees' social interactions. One, as noted earlier, employees generally take part in the the program based on intrinsic interest and availability of time; thus participation in corporate volunteering is more likely to generate positive, rather than negative, affective experiences. Second, in typical workplace settings, display rules tend to encourage the expression of positive emotions and discourage that of negative ones (Hochschild, 1983). Past research further shows that people often capitalize on positive experiences (i.e., share the occurrence of positive events with others), as the expression of positive affect generally enhances such affect and benefits the person expressing it (Fredrickson, 2001). The expression of negative affect, on the other hand, may have harmful effects (e.g., it may incur negative impressions from others), and thus tend to be suppressed or avoided whenever possible (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). As such, given the relatively low likelihood of inter-role conflict, and the implicit norm to express positive emotions at work, I anticipate that conversations

regarding volunteering will revolve primarily around positive experiences. These experiences may in turn serve as positive cues in the workplace, engendering future volunteer intentions on the part of the focal employee.

Hypothesis 7: Social sharing of volunteer-related among coworkers is positively associated with employees' future volunteer intentions.

5.2.3 Interpersonal OCB

In addition to building external relationships with the broader community, an often-cited benefit of corporate volunteer programs is the enhanced camaraderie and social capital that develops *within* the organization. When companies organize volunteer activities, it allows employees the opportunity to interact with superiors, subordinates, and peers from across the organization for a common cause. This exposure can benefit employees by helping them build expanded networks and effective workplace connections. Indeed, a number of studies highlight improved coworker relationships as a result of employee engagement in various corporate social initiatives, which consequently contributes to the creation of enhanced social capital within the organization (Longenecker et al., 2012; Muthuri et al., 2009). An interesting question is whether these relational benefits may extend beyond those who participate in the volunteer event.

Research on workplace relationships may shed some light on this question. Workplace programs, such as corporate volunteering, provides a natural topic of conversation among coworkers. The merging of work and non-work (e.g., volunteer) related discussions may offer opportunities for coworkers to share and observe aspects of each others' personal identities outside

of work. Such self-disclosure and social interactions can often enhance liking (Collins & Miller, 1994), as employees tend to appreciate learning about their coworkers in a different social context. In support of this, scholars suggest that as employees increasingly interact with their colleagues on aspects that are non-work-related or more personal in nature, they are likely to experience a merging of professional and personal identities that may in turn forge stronger and richer professional relationships (Ollier-Malaterre, Rothbard, & Berg, 2013).

As employees engage in more frequent interactions, they also adjust their attitudes and behaviors based on the quality of their exchange relationships with their coworkers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). A number of studies suggest for example, that better exchange relationships with coworkers can foster higher levels of interpersonal OCB (Z. Chen et al., 2013; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007), as it increases employees' motivation to provide helping and supportive behaviors towards coworkers. Given the above, I hypothesize that conversations around workplace volunteering may open up new lines of communication in the workplace and encourage stronger connections among employees. As one potential outcome of these stronger connections, it may be expected that employees will exhibit a greater willingness to engage in positive citizenship behaviors towards their coworkers.

Hypothesis 8: Social sharing of volunteer-related information among coworkers is positively associated with employees' interpersonal OCB.

5.3 The Role of Individual and Job-Related Differences

As noted earlier, previous research has produced inconsistent findings with regard to the provision of work-life initiatives, suggesting that there are factors moderating the relationship between the availability of corporate volunteer programs, and employees' affective responses. In the following sections, I address this gap by exploring how (1) individual preferences for managing the work-life interface, and (2) job autonomy, may influence employee affective reactions.

5.3.1 Individual Preference for Work-Life Integration vs. Segmentation

Increased integration of activities associated with non-work life, like volunteering, into the work domain is not inherently good or bad (Kreiner, 2006). Instead, employee reactions to various organizational policies may be the consequence of individual preferences for work-life integration versus segmentation (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kreiner, 2006; Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). While some employees may favor integration as it allows for an easier transition between various domains, others may desire greater segmentation as it reduces the blurring between roles, and avoids potential confusion and interruptions. Understanding an employee's predilection for segmentation or integration is important in determining her response to different types of work-life practice (Kreiner, 2006; Rothbard et al., 2005): when individual preferences for work-life boundaries match what is afforded to her by the organization, this is predicted to lead to a greater degree of work-life segmentation fit and thus desirable individual outcomes; violations of the

preferred level of segmentation, on the other hand, can lead to boundary incongruence and thus increases in work-life conflict (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009).

Some employees might desire greater segmentation as a means of preserving and developing their non-work lives more fully (Rothbard et al., 2005). The clear boundaries between each domain can also prevent the spillover of negative emotions from one domain to another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hall & Richter, 1988), thus rendering individuals less susceptible to stress and mood swings (Linville, 1987). In this sense, non-work activities, such as volunteering, may be considered a source of ‘escape’ from work (Clary & Snyder, 1999), as it can help facilitate psychological detachment from work, buffers the negative impact of job-related stressors, and promotes more positive work outcomes the next day (Mojza & Sonnentag, 2010; Mojza et al., 2011). When volunteering is offered within the context of the organization, on the other hand, this signals a reduced psychological distance between work and volunteerism, as employees may be required to continue working with fellow employees in a social environment that bears a high level of similarity to their regular work environment. For those employees who prefer a stronger segmentation between their work and non-work domains, the availability of corporate volunteer programs may be perceived as an ‘intrusion’ that punctures the employee’s ideal work-life boundary (Kreiner et al., 2009). As a result, for those employees, corporate volunteer practices will not lead to greater perceptions of organizational support.

By contrast, among employees with a strong desire for work-life integration, the introduction of volunteerism into the organizational context may strengthen the relationship between the firm’s signals around work-life integration and their organizational commitment. Corporate volunteering signals to employees that the organization is accepting and encouraging of

multiple identities (Rothbard et al., 2005) and eases transition between work and non-work domains (Ashforth et al., 2000). Even when these employees may not personally take part in certain activities due to time constraints or other personal reasons, the organization's efforts to facilitate work-life balance and enrich employees' experiences outside of work will still induce strong perceptions of organizational support. Additionally, these employees are also likely to exhibit a stronger willingness to take part in similar volunteer activities in the future.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between coworker social sharing of volunteer-related information and (a) employees' perceptions of organizational support for enrichment, and (b) employees' future volunteer intentions, are stronger when employees prefer work-life integration rather than segmentation.

5.3.2 Job Autonomy

Employees may differ not only in their interest in work-life integration, but also in their perceptions of whether their work roles allow participation in activities like corporate volunteering. While corporate volunteer programs are generally available to all employees within the organization, the extent to which individuals are in fact *able* to partake in such activities is often influenced by the level of control and flexibility afforded by their jobs. Employees who are able to exercise discretion over the process and timing of their work may perceive greater autonomy to restructure work demands as needed (Kossek et al., 2006), and are thus more likely to appreciate the company's efforts to enrich their work environment. In contrast, when job demands hinder an

employee from taking time off work for discretionary activities, he/she is less likely to be affected by the provision of non-work-related initiatives in the workplace.

Job characteristics such as autonomy and schedule flexibility are associated with employee perceptions of control over the work-life interface (Kelly et al., 2011; Kossek et al., 2006; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Voydanoff, 2004). Employees with high job autonomy can modify existing schedules to create the necessary conditions for participation in activities outside of their normal job boundaries. For example, by staying after work later or coming in earlier the next day, employees can use their autonomy to participate in corporate volunteering despite work demands. As such, they are more likely to appreciate opportunities for enrichment in the workplace. A lack of perceived autonomy on the other hand, may hinder employees from participating, both currently as well as in the future, leading to negative perceptions of the volunteer initiatives.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between coworker social sharing of volunteer-related information and (a) employees' perceptions of organizational support for enrichment, and (b) employees' future volunteer intentions, are stronger when employees perceive a high level of job autonomy.

6.0 Methods

Two studies were conducted to explore the hypotheses delineated in this paper. First, using a sample of working undergraduate students, I conducted a pilot study to validate the survey measures. This also provided an initial stepping stone to understanding the interplay between work and non-work, and enabled me to test the competing enrichment and conflict perspectives of multiple role engagement on individual work behavior. In the Main Study, I partnered with a large organization in the Northeast to examine the impact of its corporate volunteer program on employees' work-related perceptions and behaviors. I focus here on *all* employees within the organization, regardless of whether or not they personally took part in the program offered. Taken together, these two studies provide important insight regarding the integration of corporate volunteerism into the workplace and its associated impact on employee behaviors. I discuss each study in turn below.

6.1 Pilot Study

Prior to beginning the field study, I conducted a pilot study to ascertain the validity of the survey measures. Participants were undergraduate business students at the University of Pittsburgh, and were recruited through the Katz Research Center. Given that school-related activities constitute the primary domain of a student's life, I focused my survey primarily on the

interactions between school and work. The hypotheses tested in this study thus reflect the effect of participation in the *school* (rather than volunteer) domain on individuals' work behavior. The students voluntarily completed the survey for extra course credit.

6.1.1 Sample

A total of 159 surveys were recorded via the online platform Qualtrics. After excluding five respondents that failed the attention check (“Please respond to this item with ‘strongly agree’”), the final sample consisted of 154 students (74 males, 80 females). The average age of the participants was 20. Among the 154 respondents, only 66 indicated that they were currently working (i.e., employed full or part-time). Representative industries include retail (18%), education (21%), customer service (i.e., food and hospitality) (23%), and financial and accounting services (14%). The majority of these respondents held intern or entry-level positions, worked approximately 14 hours a week, and had an average tenure of 12 months at their current jobs.

6.1.2 Measures

Two different surveys were administered based on students' employment status. Both surveys included time spent on daily activities, as well as self-assessments of general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness. For those who indicated that they were currently employed, survey measures also included perceptions of work-school conflict and enrichment, and work-related behaviors such as engagement, personal initiative, and perceived stress at work. For those

who indicated that they were not currently working, survey measures included school-related variables such as engagement and perceived stress at school. With the exception of the first question (i.e., time spent on daily activities), all other measures were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree").

Time spent on daily activities. Based on the work of previous scholars (Oerlemans, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2014), I provided participants with short descriptions of five activity categories and a list of prototypical activities within each category. Activity categories included (1) work-related activities (e.g., any type of full- or part-time work, internship, or volunteer work); (2) school-related activities (including both coursework and extracurricular activities); (3) household activities (e.g., going grocery shopping, cooking, cleaning the apartment, etc.); (4) leisure activities (including low-effort activities, social activities, and physical activities); and (5) family activities (e.g., spending time with family). For all five activity categories, participants were asked to report the average number of hours they spend on each activity every week¹.

General self-efficacy. This was assessed using the eight-item measure of general self-efficacy developed and validated by Chen et al. (2001). Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself” and “I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks”. ($\alpha = .90$).

¹ To avoid potential skewness of data, I also performed a logarithmic transformation of hours and used the log form to examine its relationships with other variables. There was no significant difference in results using either the absolute number of hours or the log of hours.

Experienced meaningfulness. Following King et al. (2006), meaningfulness was measured with four items such as “In life, I have very clear goals and aims”, and “I regard my ability to find a meaning, purpose, or mission in life to be very great”. ($\alpha = .94$)

Enrichment. Work-life enrichment was measured using the scale developed and validated by Carlson and colleagues (2006). The non-work to work direction of this scale contains nine items measuring development, affect, and efficiency-based enrichment. As these items were originally based on the family domain, I adapted the items to reflect enrichment experienced at work as a result of participation in *school*-related activities. Sample items include “My involvement in school... helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker” (development), “...puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker” (affect), and “...requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker” (efficiency). ($\alpha = .92$)

Inter-Role Conflict. I assessed bidirectional conflict from both school to work as well as work to school. School-to-work conflict was measured using four items adapted from Gutek et al.’s (1991) scale (e.g., “I’m often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at school” and “My school demands are so great that it takes away from my work”). Although this scale was originally labeled as a measure of work-*family* conflict, the original items are perceived to reflect an individual’s personal life more generally (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007), thus making it appropriate for assessing inter-role conflict between work and other non-family domains. Work-to-school conflict was measured using the six items from Keeney et al.’s (2013) work interference with school scale (e.g., “The time I spend on work cuts into the time I’d like to spend on my education” and “Stress from work makes it harder for me to be fully involved in my education”). ($\alpha = .91$)

Work engagement. Work engagement was assessed with the nine-item version of the Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Items include “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous” and “I am enthusiastic about my job”. ($\alpha = .83$)

Personal initiative. As one aspect of extra-role performance, personal initiative was assessed using four items from the scale developed by Frese et al. (1997). Sample items are “I actively attack problems at work” and “Usually I do more than I am asked to do”. ($\alpha = .78$)

Stress. Stress was measured with the four-item scale developed by Motowidlo et al. (1986). Sample items are “I feel a great deal of stress because of my job” and “Very few stressful things happen to me at work” (reverse scored). ($\alpha = .84$)

Control variables. Age, gender, race, school performance (i.e., GPA), course load (i.e., number of credits for the current semester), and work tenure were used as control variables in all of the analyses. In addition, to control for the potential influence of trait positive and negative affect in predicting perceptions of work-life conflict and enrichment, I assessed each trait using five items derived from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scale (Watson et al., 1988). Positive affect included items such as “determined” and “enthusiastic” ($\alpha = .77$), while negative affect was represented by items such as “distressed” and “upset” ($\alpha = .82$).

6.1.3 Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables for the working student sample are presented in Table 1.

6.1.3.1 Factor Analyses

To test the validity of the study variables, I ran a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation in Stata 15. First, utilizing the full dataset of 154 students, I conducted a two-factor CFA of the core latent constructs general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness.² As these two mediating variables represent conceptually related processes, I allowed the error terms of the factors to covary. Results showed that this hypothesized two-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 115.89$, $df = 51$, $RMSEA = .09$, $CFI = .94$, $SRMR = .07$). Hu and Bentler (1999) and Kline (2004) recommend a cutoff of .08 for SRMR and a minimum CFI of .90 for good model fit. I compared this to an alternative one-factor model, in which all the items loaded onto a single construct ($\chi^2 = 365.56$, $df = 54$, $RMSEA = .19$, $CFI = .69$, $SRMR = .14$). A chi-square difference test showed that the two-factor model exhibited a significantly better fit than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 [3] = 249.67$, $p < .001$). This supports consideration of general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness as separate constructs.

Next, I specified a series of models to assess the structure of work-life enrichment in the working student sample. I first fit the data to a one-factor model in which all 18 items loaded onto a single latent variable. This yielded a poor fit with the data ($\chi^2 [119] = 544.18$; $CFI = .52$; $RMSEA = .23$, $SRMR = .20$); thus the items did not appear to reflect a single enrichment factor. Next, I tested a three-factor model in which each item was loaded onto its corresponding enrichment dimension. In addition, the error terms of the three dimensions were allowed to covary. Results of

² The full dataset was utilized here due to the larger sample size for the two core constructs.

this CFA indicated a reasonable model fit, $\chi^2 (129) = 215.41$, CFI = .90, GFI = .87, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .07. Additionally, all factor loadings were above .60 and significant at the .001 level. Within each dimension, the scale items had a high internal consistency of $\alpha = .91$ (development), $\alpha = .95$ (affect), and $\alpha = .88$ (efficiency). These results support the factor structure of the three-dimension work-life enrichment scale.

Finally, I tested the factor structure of the dependent variable work engagement. Results showed a relatively poor fit ($\chi^2 [27] = 80.00$; CFI = .75; RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .11). I thus conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with varimax rotation to reassess its factor structure. Three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1. After removing the items that did not load strongly onto the primary factor (e.g., “I am proud of the work I do”), five items remained (e.g., “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous” and “I am enthusiastic about my job”)³. These items each had factor loadings of .58 and above, and formed a reliable scale of $\alpha = .84$.

Prior to testing the measurement and structural models, I averaged the items in each scale to form a composite that served as a single indicator of the latent construct. This is preferred when the sample size precludes testing a full structural equation model. To adjust for measurement error when using a single indicator for a latent variable, I fixed the loading of the variable on its respective factor at one. I treated single-item measures (e.g., number of hours spent on education)

³ These five items similarly loaded onto one primary factor using EFA on school engagement in the sample of non-working students.

as manifest variables and assumed they were measured without error, which provides a conservative model test. I then proceeded to analyze the model using SEM and regression analyses.

6.1.3.2 SEM Analyses

The initial model included six factors – time spent on school-related activities, general self-efficacy, experienced meaningfulness, school-to-work conflict, work engagement, and personal initiative. Structural modeling results indicated that the original hypothesized model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2 [6] = 18.98, p < .001$; CFI = .73; GFI = .90, RMSEA = .18, SRMR = .13). An examination of the modification indices suggested additional pathways from both self-efficacy and meaningfulness to personal initiative. It is possible that participation in school-related activities can generate various forms of positive affect, which may directly enhance one's initiative at work. Thus two additional pathways were added accordingly (as shown in Figure 3). Results showed a significantly better fit for the revised model ($\chi^2 [4] = 4.28, p < .37$; CFI = .99; GFI = .98, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .07). Figure 2 presents the final structural model with path coefficients.

Hypothesis 1 suggests that involvement in non-work (i.e., school) related activities is positively related to one's engagement at work. The results supported this view ($\beta = .27, p < .05$). Hypotheses 2a through 3c state that the positive effect of school on work engagement is mediated through general self-efficacy and experienced meaningfulness. The results indicated a significant relationship between school involvement and general self-efficacy ($\beta = .24, p < .05$), and a marginally significant relationship between school involvement and experienced meaningfulness ($\beta = .21, p = .08$), supporting Hypotheses 2a and 3a. However, there were no significant effects of

either self-efficacy or meaningfulness on work engagement; thus the hypothesized positive mediation was not supported.

With regard to the conflict pathway, Hypothesis 4 states that participation in school-related activities will have a negative indirect effect on work engagement through inter-role conflict. However, results showed no significant effects of time spent on education on either school-to-work conflict (SWC) or work-to-school conflict (WSC). Furthermore, neither type of conflict showed a significant relationship with engagement at work. Thus contrary to expectations, students did not appear to experience any aversive effects on their personal lives from high levels of participation in school-related activities. It is worth pointing out however, that given the nature of the cross-sectional survey, these findings may be a result of endogeneity bias, such that only students who are able to successfully juggle multiple activities and do not tend to experience significant inter-role conflict will engage in work-related activities while attending college.

Hypothesis 5 states that work engagement will be positively related to job performance. While the survey could not assess supervisor ratings of job performance, it includes a self-reported measure of extra-role behavior – personal initiative. As predicted, individuals who were more engaged at work indeed showed higher levels of initiative ($\beta = .22, p < .05$). This lends support to the contention that feelings of engagement may translate into increased proactive behaviors at work.

Finally, I examined the direct pathways from self-efficacy and meaningfulness to personal initiative. Though not hypothesized, both pathways revealed significant positive effects ($\beta = .24, p < .05$; and $\beta = .26, p < .05$, respectively). These findings suggest that perceptions of efficacy and

meaningfulness derived from the school domain may directly influence one's display of initiative and proactive behaviors at work.

6.1.3.3 Supplementary Analyses

Following the recommendations of Anderson and Gerbing (1988), I also specified a series of alternative models to further explore the relationships between involvement in school, work-life perceptions, and engagement at work. All models were deemed plausible on the basis of theoretical arguments. Table 2 shows a summary of the fit indexes and path analysis for each model. Overall, SEM results indicated a moderate fit with the data for the majority of models tested.

In the first alternative model, I considered the possibility that time spent on school-related activities may have a direct effect on one's initiative at work. The model adding a direct pathway from school involvement to personal initiative provided a good fit to the data, but was not significantly better than the hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2 [1] = .46$, n.s.). Furthermore, the additional pathway was not significant.

The second and third models used alternative measures to assess the effects of inter-role enrichment and conflict. In model 2, I examined the relationship between school and work-related variables using the three direct indicators of enrichment. In addition to the direct relationship between time spent on education and work engagement ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$), two other significant pathways emerged. First, the effect of school involvement on development-based enrichment was significant ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$), and indicates that time spent on school-related activities has a positive effect on the perceived transfer of skills from education to work. Second, the path from

developmental enrichment to work engagement was also significant ($\beta = .36, p < .05$), indicating that the perceived transfer of skills has a positive effect on individual engagement at work. This suggests that development-based enrichment partially mediates the relationship between school-related activities and engagement at work. There were no significant mediating effects of school involvement and work engagement through either affect or efficiency.

Alternative model 3 considers the negative effects of multiple role engagement in the direction of *work to school*. The initial analyses had indicated a lack of results for the conflict pathway from school to work. This may be attributed to the fact that students view school as a central part of their lives, while attaching less importance to non-school roles such as work. As Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggest, individuals are more likely to experience conflict and stress when a role is highly salient than when the role is not salient to the person's self concept. Thus it is possible that students may perceive greater conflict when work interferes with school. In support of this, model 4 indeed showed a positive relationship between time spent at work and WSC ($\beta = .31, p < .05$), as well as between WSC and stress ($\beta = .67, p < .05$). These findings suggest that the opposite may be true for individuals who perceive work as their central identity, in which case they are more likely to experience conflict and enrichment from *non-work* to work domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

To help further elucidate the relationships among the potential mediating variables (the three dimensions of enrichment, and school-to-work conflict) in my hypotheses, I used Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macro (Model 4) for SPSS to more accurately assess the direct and indirect effects of school-related involvement on engagement at work. This method allows the researcher to estimate the hypothesized mediations and obtain bias-corrected boot-strapped confidence

intervals (using 5,000 bootstrap samples) to test the significance of specific indirect effects. Because the model contains parallel multiple mediators, PROCESS allows for a formal and simultaneous comparison of the size of the indirect effects of each mechanism. This may be particularly useful in models that test competing mechanisms (e.g., enrichment and conflict), and as such, has been recommended over Baron and Kenny (1986) (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Predictors were mean-centered to avoid multicollinearity (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991).

Using the hypothesized mechanisms of self-efficacy, meaningfulness, and SWC, results from PROCESS output yielded a total effect of .36 for school involvement on work engagement. The direct effect was .32 ($p < .01$), with a 95% bootstrapped confidence interval from .08 to .56. The indirect effects through efficacy, meaningfulness, and SWC, were .02, .02, and -.01, respectively. Though none of the indirect effects were significant, these results suggest that perceptions of conflict from school to work may partially offset the total positive effect of work-to-school enrichment. Overall, the model explained 37% of the variance in work engagement.

Alternatively, using development, affect, and efficiency-based indicators of enrichment, results yielded a direct effect of .24 ($p < .05$), and a total indirect effect of .12 ($p < .05$) for school involvement on work engagement. The indirect effect through developmental enrichment was .09 (significant according to the 95% confidence intervals), and accounted for 37.5% of the total effect of participation in school-related activities on work engagement. Consistent with prior results, none of the other indirect effects were statistically different from zero.

6.1.4 Discussion

The pilot study provided initial support for the positive effect of participation in non-work-related activities (e.g., school) on individual engagement at work. Most prominently, time spent on school-related activities was shown to have a significant positive effect on development-based enrichment, which was in turn positively associated with work engagement and personal initiative. While the study did not find any significant mediating effects for general self-efficacy or experienced meaningfulness, the relatively small sample of students who work, and the salience of school versus work roles among college students may have precluded significant perceptions of enrichment or conflict as a result of work-related experiences (i.e., the less salient role).

6.2 Main Study

The research setting for this second study is a large organization in the Northeast. This research site was chosen as one of its departments was initiating a new partnership with United Way. United Way is a global organization with a mission to “improve lives by mobilizing the caring power of communities around the world”. Partnership companies collaborate with United Way to create volunteer opportunities that enable employees to engage more deeply in the community. As its first-ever volunteer event, all employees within the department were invited to take part in the United Way 10,000 Books Campaign. The event was scheduled to take place during work hours, and gave interested employees the opportunity to create and design book bags that

would in turn be distributed to neighborhood children in need. Participation in the event was fully voluntary, and was anticipated to take 1-1.5 hours. The initiation of this new volunteer program provided a unique opportunity to study employee reactions to corporate volunteering in the workplace.

6.2.1 Sample and Procedures

Prior to initiating the formal study, I conducted an informal focus group with 9 employees from different functional areas of the organization. These individuals were identified by the head of their department as being active participants in various workplace events. Most of the individuals were also avid volunteers in the community, and were very open to sharing their thoughts and perceptions of whether and why corporate volunteering should be encouraged at work. While the sample does not represent employees who do *not* engage in corporate activities, conversations with this focus group nevertheless provided valuable insight into how employees think about the provision of non-work-related practices in the workplace. It also sheds light on the important role these employees play with regard to promoting and disseminating such practices among their colleagues at work.

I surveyed all employees and their supervisors in the department under study three weeks prior to the volunteer event (Time 1), and two weeks post the event (Time 2). At Time 1, I invited all 158 employees and their 45 corresponding supervisors to participate in the study. 110 (70%) employees and 29 (64%) supervisors returned a completed first survey. Of these, 99 employees (90%) and 24 supervisors (83%) returned a completed second survey. The final sample of 99

respondents consists of 69% female employees, with an average organizational tenure of six years. I examined potential nonresponse bias using staff profiles from the organization's website, and did not find any significant differences with regard to gender ratios, and job rank between respondents and non-respondents. The supervisor evaluations covered 62 of the 99 respondents.

Organizers of the event had originally anticipated a high participation rate of at least 80 employees; however, only 27 employees took part in the event. Table 3 shows a comparison of key variables between participants and non-participants. Employees who took part in the United Way event were more likely to be married and to have dependent children; they also reported working more hours per week but had been in the organization for a shorter period of time. Most of these differences however, were minimal. Interestingly, one significant difference appeared in employees' self-reported volunteer hours outside of work. Specifically, people who took part in the United Way event reported also engaging in an average of 23 hours of personal volunteering during their own time over the past 12 months, whereas those who did *not* partake in the United Way event reported 45 hours of personal volunteering.⁴ Therefore it is possible that the decision to volunteer outside of the workplace is a conscious choice made among employees. For some employees, personal volunteer commitments may lessen one's desire to engage in similar activities at work. It is also possible that for those who prefer to volunteer during their spare time, volunteering may actually be seen as "an escape from work", helping them to psychologically detach from job-related stressors (Mojza & Sonnentag, 2010; Mojza et al., 2011). Corporate

⁴ The median number of personal volunteer hours for each group was 5, suggesting significant variance among employees.

volunteering, given its close proximity to such stressors, may defeat that specific purpose. Despite this, there was no significant difference in the reported work-life preferences between participants and non-participants, though there was a marginally significant difference in their perceived job autonomy, such that people with higher levels of autonomy were more likely to take part in workplace volunteering.

While the limited participant sample precludes the ability to detect the effects of actual program participation on employee behavior, it simultaneously provides a larger sample of non-participants, and a unique opportunity to assess the event's effects on non-participant affect and behavior.

6.2.2 Measures

Unless otherwise noted, all scales used were assessed on a scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”.⁵ Measures for self-efficacy, meaningfulness, work engagement, and work-life conflict are the same as the Pilot Study. Other measures used in this study are described below.

⁵ A 7-point scale was used in this study as it allows for more refined gradations of agreement and thus greater variance in individual responses (Dawes, 2008). Some research further suggests that item reliability improves when moving from 2-point to 7-point scales (the gain in reliability levels off after 7 points; Krosnich & Presser, 2010), and that the latter may be particularly appropriate for electronic or otherwise unsupervised surveys (Finstad, 2010).

Coworker sharing of the volunteer event. To effectively capture the extent to which employees learn about workplace volunteering through their coworkers, I adapted several items from existing scales that measure social sharing. In addition, two new items were created as contextually appropriate. The final scale consists of 6 items, including “I heard about this volunteer event through my coworkers”, “Over the last two weeks, my coworkers shared stories about their volunteer experiences”, and “I have a positive impression of the event because of my coworker”. Because this is a newly developed scale, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to determine whether the scale was multidimensional. The EFA revealed that there was only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1. A scree test similarly suggested that only one factor should be retained. The factor loadings for all 6 items exceeded .75, and Cronbach’s alpha for the 6-item scale was high ($\alpha = .92$).

Perceived organizational support for enrichment. This was measured using items adapted from the Perceived Organizational Support for Innovation scale developed by Scott and Bruce (1994). Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “Work-life balance is encouraged in this organization” and “Expressing involvement and interest in non-work matters is viewed as healthy”. ($\alpha = .75$)

Self-reported organizational citizenship behavior. OCB was assessed with the five-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Sample items include “I help others who have been absent” and “I take a personal interest in other employees”. ($\alpha = .89$)

Individual desire for work-life segmentation. Individual preferences in managing the work-life interface was measured using the four-item scale developed by Kreiner (2006). Sample items include: “I don’t like to have to think about non-work-related activities while I’m at work” and “I

prefer to keep my personal life outside of work”. Two additional items were initially added based on suggestions from the focus group: “I always use a separate email for non-work correspondence” and “I put up pictures of my family (or friends, pets) around my workspace (R)”. However, exploratory factor analysis suggested that the two added items did not correlate strongly with the scale by Kreiner (2006); thus only the original four items were retained in the analysis ($\alpha = .82$).

Job autonomy. Following Morgeson et al. (2015), job autonomy was assessed with three items adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980): “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job”, “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work”, and “I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job” ($\alpha = .91$).

Measures unique to volunteer participants. A) Volunteer motivations. Employees who took part in the volunteer event were asked to report why they chose to do so by completing a volunteer motives measure adapted from the Motivation to Help Scale developed by Weinstein and Ryan (2010). Five items assessed the extent to which participation was autonomous (e.g., “Because I thought it was important”; $\alpha=.75$), and five items assessed the extent to which it was controlled (e.g., “Because I felt I had to”; $\alpha=.86$). B) Skill acquisition. Following Booth and colleagues (2009), participants were also asked to indicate the skills and abilities they obtained through volunteering. These include fundraising skills, technical skills, organizational/ leadership skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, and increased knowledge (e.g., about health, poverty, education, political issues, etc.). C) Work-volunteer enrichment. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which volunteering in the book campaign enhanced their perceptions of enrichment. Using the scale developed by Carson et al. (2006), three items were used to assess development (e.g., “participation in the event helped me acquire skills and this helps me be a better

worker”), 3 items for affect (e.g., “participation in the event made me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker”), and 3 items for efficiency (e.g., “participation in the event encouraged me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker”).

Measures unique to non-participants: Reasons for non-participation. A list of seven potential reasons for non-participation was presented to employees, including “I did not know about it”, “I already have prior engagements for that day”, and “I am concerned that my supervisor will not approve”.

Supervisor-rated job performance. To obtain objective measures of employee performance, supervisors were asked to provide assessments of their employees’ behaviors along four dimensions: in-role (task) performance (3 items such as “Meets his or her performance expectations”; $\alpha=.96$), extra-role performance (4 items such as “Performs his/her job duties with extra-special care”; $\alpha=.86$), interpersonal OCB (3 items such as “Goes out of his/her way to help co-workers with work-related problems”; $\alpha=.81$), and team commitment (4 items such as “Is prepared to do additional tasks to benefit the team”; $\alpha=.87$). For each of these performance variables, supervisors were instructed to respond with respect to their observations of the employee over the past month, rather than an overall assessment.

Future volunteer intentions. Following Rodell et al. (2017), future volunteer intentions was measured with five items, each beginning with “Next year, through my company’s volunteering programs, I intend to...” Sample items included “Give my time to help a volunteer group” and “Engage in activities to support a volunteer group” ($\alpha = .93$).

Control variables. Several control variables, which are closely related to the main variables in the study, were included as correlates of employee behavior, including gender (1=female,

0=male), education, marital status (1=married, 0=other), number of dependent children, household income, and organizational tenure.

6.2.3 Results

Table 4 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the measured variables. Given the relatively limited number of employees who participated in the volunteer activity, there was insufficient power to fully test the pathways through which engagement in corporate volunteering may potentially affect individual perceptions and behaviors at work. The correlations of the focal variables regarding participation however, were in the predicted direction, and repeated-measures ANOVA confirm the anticipated changes among employees before and after the volunteer event. Below I describe both the qualitative and quantitative results of this study. In particular, rather than participation, I focus my analysis on how social sharing of the event among employees influence their subsequent affect and behavior at work (i.e., Figure 2 of the conceptual model). I used hierarchical multiple regression to test potential main and moderating effects of social sharing on employee work behaviors. Results from the ANOVA and regression analyses are presented in Table 5 and Table 6, respectively.

6.2.3.1 Focus Group Discussion

Discussions with focus group employees provided initial confirmation of the processes of social sharing that often occur within the workplace. While the Book Campaign in this study marked the beginning of the department's partnership with United Way, employees in the focus

group reported engaging in similar corporate volunteer activities (e.g., Day of Caring) within the broader organization, and/or during their personal time. Interestingly, in addition to relaying the pride they felt in the volunteer work itself, the majority of participants also discussed their enthusiasm in sharing their experiences with others in the workplace:

E.g. *“People go to different events, ... everyone is passionate about something... and then we come back and share.”*

“We always share experiences from volunteering at work, ‘why are you involved with animals’, or whatever else...”

[In discussing the Mission of Mercy volunteer event] “She (a volunteer participant) would approach them (colleagues), she’s always so excited... so yeah, we encourage people all the time.”

The high level of information sharing regarding volunteer experiences (both within as well as outside of work) suggest that employee volunteers may play a significant role in disseminating such events and activities among their coworkers, thus potentially influencing others’ perceptions of the provision of corporate volunteer programs in the workplace.

6.2.3.2 ANOVA

Hypothesis 1 states that participation in corporate volunteer programs will lead to higher levels of work engagement. While results indicated a slight increase in engagement post-event, repeated measures ANOVA suggests that this effect is not significant ($p > .10$); thus the first hypothesis was not supported.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 examine the effect of volunteer participation on employees’ self-reported general self-efficacy as well as experienced meaningfulness. While no significant results

were found for self-efficacy, results showed a significant Time x Participation interaction on experienced meaningfulness $F(1, 94) = 8.05, p = .01, \eta^2 = .09, \text{power} = .746$. In support of Hypothesis 3, the paired samples t test showed that volunteer participants reported significantly higher levels of meaningfulness post event $t(26) = 2.45, p < .05$. As expected, there was no significant change in meaningfulness for employees who did not volunteer in the event $t(68) = .99, p > .10$.

Hypothesis 4 states that corporate volunteering will increase inter-role conflict for participants. This hypothesis was not supported, though the direction of change among participants was positive. As the book campaign occupied only approximately an hour of employees' time, it is unsurprising that participation in the event did not significantly interfere with employees' regular job responsibilities.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b test changes in employees' work behaviors as a result of volunteering. Here I measured potential changes with regard to both supervisor-rated and employee self-reported performance. For interpersonal OCB (self-report), results indicated a significant change among participants ($F = 8.78$). This provides support that employees who took part in workplace volunteering displayed increased extra-role helping behavior afterwards. No significant effects were found for the other performance outcomes.

Finally, with regard to the general sample of *all* employees, Hypotheses 6 and 8 suggest overall increases in perceived organizational support and interpersonal OCBs post event. As shown in Table 5, repeated measures ANOVA indicated a significant increase in Time 2 for both variables among all employees, regardless of personal participation: perceived organizational support $F(1, 97) = 15.80 (p < .01)$, and interpersonal OCB $F(1, 97) = 6.14, (p < .05)$. These results provide initial

support for a causal effect of program availability on improvements in employee attitudes and behavior, and suggest that the provision of such programs may have important implications beyond the small percentage of employees who directly engage in it.

6.2.3.3 Hierarchical Regression

To test potential main and moderating effects between social sharing and employee outcomes, I used hierarchical ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis, following the moderated regression procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). I standardized the focal variables, multiplied them to create interaction terms, and regressed them on employee affect and behavior. In Step 1, I entered the control variables, including age, gender, education, marital status, household income, dependent children, number of hours worked per week, and organizational tenure. Coworker sharing of the volunteer event was entered in Step 2, and the interaction terms in Step 3. These steps were repeated for each of the outcome variables (i.e., perceived organizational support, interpersonal OCBs, and future volunteer intentions). The corresponding measures of each outcome variable at Time 1 was also included in Step 1 to control for potential endogeneity. Results of the regression analyses are displayed in Table 6. I further confirmed these results using Hayes' PROCESS macro 3.0 (2018), with all effects subject to bootstrap analyses with 1,000 bootstrap samples and a 95% confidence interval.

First, according to Hypothesis 6, I anticipate that social sharing of the volunteer event among coworkers will induce stronger perceptions of organizational support regardless of whether or not employees actually partake in the events offered. This main effect was not significant. However, coworker sharing of volunteer information at work was found to generate significantly

higher levels of interpersonal OCB ($B = .31, p < .01$; Hypothesis 7) as well as future volunteer intentions ($B = .36, p < .001$; Hypothesis 8) among all employees.

Next, I incorporate in the models two interaction terms to test potential moderating influences on the relationship between coworker social sharing and employees' work behaviors. First, based on Hypothesis 9, I explored the interaction between coworker social sharing and individuals' desire for work-life segmentation on employees' perceived organizational support. The interaction term was not significant ($B = -.18, p > .10$). Employee perceptions of the volunteer opportunity did not appear to be affected by their individual preferences regarding boundary management between work and non-work. Similarly, these individual preferences did not influence the relationship between coworker sharing and future volunteer intentions.

I also tested the moderating effect of job autonomy on the relationship between coworker social sharing and employees' perceived organizational support and future volunteer intentions (Hypothesis 10). I found a significant moderating effect, such that individuals who had greater control over when, where, and how they conduct their work reported stronger perceptions of organizational support for enrichment than did those with lower levels of job autonomy ($B = .39, p < .05$). Following the recommendation of Preacher and colleagues (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006), I conducted a simple slope analysis at one standard deviation above and below the mean. Results indicate that the simple slope for high autonomy ($B = .41, p < .05$) is stronger than that for low autonomy ($B = .34, p = .07$). Figure 4 graphically depicts this interaction.

The interaction between job autonomy and social sharing however, was not significant for future volunteering intentions ($B = .34, p = .18$). This suggests that when employees learn about

volunteering through their coworkers, they are motivated to similarly engage in volunteerism in the future, regardless of their job characteristics.

6.2.3.4 Supplementary Analyses

Alternative Samples. To maximize sample size, my hierarchical regression analysis utilizes the full employee sample, including both participants and non-participants. I also repeated the analyses using non-participants only (with 1000 bootstrap samples). The positive effects of social sharing was not significant on either perceived organizational support or interpersonal OCB. Consistent with the full sample however, employees who did not participate in the volunteer event but whose jobs afforded them with higher levels of autonomy were more likely to report positive perceptions of organizational support compared to those with lower levels of job autonomy ($B = .46, p < .05$).

Coworker Social Sharing. In my measure of social sharing, although all six items loaded onto one factor, the last two items hint at positive implications regarding the content of coworker informational exchange, and therefore may overlap with the outcome variables. Given this, I created an alternative measure of social sharing that includes only the first four items. Cronbach's alpha was .85. I repeated the regression analyses using this new measure, and results remain mostly the same: social sharing had a positive impact on both interpersonal OCB ($B = .31, p < .05$) and future volunteer intentions ($B = .35, p < .01$), and job autonomy had a significant moderating effect on the relationship between social sharing and perceived organizational support ($B = .43, p < .05$). By removing the affective nature (positive or negative) of coworker exchanges, this provides stronger support for the significant relationship between social sharing and employee outcomes.

Individual Preference for Work-Life Integration. As noted earlier, in my analyses, I utilize only the original work-life items developed by Kreiner (2006). To further explore the role of individual preferences, I also created a new measure based on the two items from the employee focus group (e.g., “I always use a separate email for non-work correspondence”). One potential distinction between these items and those developed by Kreiner is that the latter reflects a psychological desire to segment work and non-work, while the former describes actual *behaviors* of boundary management. The two measures showed a .69 correlation, but neither had a significant influence on employee reactions to social sharing.

Group-Level Analyses. In addition to analysis at the individual level, I also explored potential group-level factors on employees’ volunteer-related attitudes. First, I tested the effect of departmental participation rates on the level of social sharing among employees, and its subsequent effect on key individual-level outcomes. Results suggest that departmental participation rates had a significant positive effect on coworker social sharing ($B = .57, p < .001$), and this was found to significantly influence employees’ perceived organizational support ($B = .19, p = .05$), interpersonal OCB ($B = .25, p < .05$), and future volunteer intentions ($B = .37, p < .001$)⁶. Given the small number of departments, I also tested an alternative type of grouping: assigning employees to their respective supervisor groups ($N = 33$). I repeated the analyses above using these 33 groups, and results are similar to that of the departmental groupings. This suggests that the greater the number

⁶ The relationship between social sharing and future volunteer intentions remain significant in the non-participant-only sample ($B = .27, p < .05$).

of people participating within a unit, the more likely these practices will be shared and disseminated among coworkers within that unit.⁷

Hierarchical Linear Modeling. Given that employees are nested within supervisor groups, I also used hierarchical linear modeling to more accurately model the variance residing at the individual and group levels of analysis. To do so, I used the statistical analysis language R with the associated Lme4 package (Bliese, 2016). Lme4 enables the identification of individual and group-level factors associated with employee perceptions and behavior, and enables estimation of the variance among individuals and among groups (Bliese, 2016). Using the full employee sample, I first formulated an (unconditional) baseline model, with perceived organizational support (POS) as the outcome variable, and with no predictors at any level. In partitioning the explained variance between levels of analysis, this baseline model shows that 11% of the variance in POS resides between groups, indicating the importance of modeling group level variables.⁸ Approximately 89% of the variance in POS resides at the individual level of analysis. My second model incorporates the main independent variable, coworker social sharing. The third model adds in the

⁷ While the number of supervisor groups exceeds the number of volunteer participants, it is very likely that certain non-participants may also be active champions of the event. For example, a primary organizer of the event could not attend due to prior external engagements. Multiple others noted in their survey their desire to participate but could not due to various reasons. Among them, one employee further mentioned her efforts in trying to “encourage others to sign up”. As such, the exchange of positive volunteer information need not necessarily be limited to the direct participants themselves, and may occur even among groups with no participants.

⁸ In general, ICC greater than .10 would be considered as representing substantial clustering effect.

group-level participation rate, and the final model includes the interaction between social sharing and job autonomy.⁹ I centered the individual-level variables around the group mean, as this reduces the correlation between main-effect and interaction terms and is regarded as the best approach for disaggregating within- and between-person effects (Curran & Bauer, 2011).

Table 7 presents the results of the HLM analysis. When comparing models 1 and 2 with a Likelihood Ratio Test, there was a significant change in Chi-Square after adding coworker social sharing ($\Delta\chi^2 = 10.76, p < .01$). Indeed, consistent with prior analysis, social sharing had a significant positive effect on employees' perceived organizational support for enrichment ($\gamma = .36, p < .01$). There was no significant change in Chi-Square between models 2 and 3; this suggests that the level of participation within groups did not have a significant impact on employees' subsequent perceptions of the organization. Finally, in comparing models 3 and 4, results indicated another significant Chi-Square change ($\Delta\chi^2 = 9.78, p < .01$) after adding in the interaction between social sharing and job autonomy. The final model explains 15% of the variance on employees' perceived organizational support. Overall, after taking into account the variance at each level of analysis, results of the HLM analysis further confirm the critical role of coworker social sharing on shaping employees' perceptions of the organization.

⁹ As the purpose of conducting the HLM analysis is to partition the variance between individuals and between groups, rather than *explain* group heterogeneity, I did not include in my model individual covariates such as age and tenure. These covariates were however, included as part of an additional set of analysis. The results remain similar to those reported here, with minor changes in coefficients.

I repeated the HLM analysis above for both interpersonal OCB and future volunteer intentions. However, the baseline models showed no variance between groups ($u = .00$) for either outcome variable; thus I did not proceed further with the group-level analysis.

Additional Moderators among Participants and Non-Participants. While not formally hypothesized, several additional variables (as noted in the survey measures) were explored as potential moderators influencing employee reactions to the volunteer event. First, given the critical role of social sharing in the workplace, relational factors may exert a significant impact on the extent to which employees respond positively towards coworker influence. For example, the relationship between social sharing and employee reactions may be moderated by coworker relations, such that individuals who have closer relationships with their coworkers may be more willing to be influenced by them. To explore this hypothesis, I created an interaction term between social sharing and coworker relations (measured at Time 1), and regressed this on the three key outcome variables. Results indeed indicated that the interaction term had a significant effect on future volunteer intentions ($B = .23, p < .05$). Thus when there exists a close relationship among coworkers, discussions of volunteering can induce stronger intentions to volunteer for the focal employee. No significant effects were found for perceived organizational support.

With regard to employees who choose to take part in their company's volunteer program, they may do so for a number of different reasons; the nature of motivation, in turn, can play a critical role in predicting both the quality of volunteer behavior, as well as the affective outcomes (e.g., satisfaction and enjoyment) derived from participation in these corporate volunteer events (Rodell et al., 2016; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). For example, volunteer behaviors that are freely chosen (e.g., driven by prosocial or intrinsic motivation) can better facilitate enrichment as it

satisfies one's basic psychological needs such as competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When behavior is forced or controlled, the benefits of enrichment may be diminished, as the volunteer behavior is attributed less to caring or self-development motives and instead to external justifications such as a perceived obligation to act (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). To test these assumptions, I used hierarchical regression analysis, with the control variables entered at Step 1, employee volunteering entered at Step 2, and the interaction terms of (volunteering x autonomous motivation and volunteering x controlled motivation) entered in Step 3. Results indicated that the interactions terms were not significant. Similarly, no significant interactions were found for future volunteer intentions. While both interactions were in the expected direction, however, because of the small sample size, no conclusive statements can be reached. Assuming a conservative effect size of around .30, future studies would need a minimum sample of approximately 70 volunteer participants in order to fully test the hypotheses above.

6.2.3.5 Synthesis of Statistical Findings

Overall, the findings of Study 2 extend prior research on corporate volunteering that has largely focused on the benefits of employee participation, and shed light on a unique way in which corporate volunteer programs influence employee behavior. Specifically, results from the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that the learning of volunteer-related information from coworkers can play a central role in shaping employees' subsequent reactions to corporate volunteerism. The more employees learn about volunteering, the more likely they are to recognize the value of these programs, and the organization's signaled support for work-life enrichment. These results were particularly strong when employees perceived a high level of autonomy in their

jobs. Additionally, workplace conversations around volunteering were found to increase employees' willingness to engage in interpersonal OCBs, and strengthen their intentions to volunteer in the future. This suggests that the impact of corporate volunteer programs likely extend beyond the immediate employees who engage in the programs, and may lead to important attitudinal and behavioral changes for *all* employees regardless of participation.

7.0 General Discussion

Despite the increased deployment of various work-life initiatives in the workplace, we know little about how such programs affect employee behavior; yet this is intriguing from at least two perspectives: First, prior research has produced mixed results regarding the effect of multiple role engagement on work performance; thus it is unclear whether the introduction of non-work related activities will enrich or conflict with one's regular job responsibilities. Second, although corporate work-life initiatives have become increasingly popular in the last several years, the uptake of these initiatives among employees is surprisingly low. In light of this, it is important to understand not just the implications of multiple role engagement on individuals' work-related behavior, but also the spillover effect of corporate work-life initiatives on *non*-participants. In addition, it is also intriguing to consider the potential differences that may exist between those who pursue multiple activities and those who do not. I address these questions using data collected from two separate studies.

7.1 Commonalities between Pilot Study and Main Study

In the first pilot study, I test the validity of my survey measures, and explore the interactions between work and non-work-related domains on individual performance at work. Using a sample of 159 undergraduate students, I found initial support for the enrichment perspective – namely,

work-related responsibilities do not necessarily crowd out students' involvement in school and other social and/or physical activities. In fact, students who report working while attending college also appear to spend more time on extracurricular activities and family-related activities compared to students who do not currently hold any full- or part-time job. Furthermore, among the former group, time spent on non-work-related activities had a significant positive effect on individuals' development-based enrichment, and this in turn related positively to their engagement and personal initiative at work. These findings offer initial support for the positive synergies between work and non-work, and provide an important stepping stone to understanding the potential implications of integrating corporate volunteering into the workplace, which I explore in my main study.

Specifically, for my main study, I conducted a longitudinal field study with a large organization that is trialing a new volunteer effort. While the limited number of employees participating in this volunteer event precluded the analysis of the enrichment pathway, it provided a unique natural setting to understand the impact of providing such programs even when employee engagement is low. As such, departing from prior research that has largely focused on the participation effect of corporate volunteering, results of this primary study highlight the role of social sharing among coworkers as a key factor shaping employees' perceptions of various corporate programs. Workplace exchanges were shown to exert a significant influence on employees' attitudes towards the volunteer program, and consequently, their perceptions of the organization. Furthermore, the learning that occurs through coworker interactions appears to also influence employees' intentions to take part in similar activities in the future. From this perspective, coworkers who do engage in corporate volunteering may act as a role model, fostering vicarious learning among their colleagues. In taking into account individual and job-level

differences among employees, the study also sheds light on the conditions that moderate employee reactions to corporate volunteer programs. Specifically, when employees' jobs afford them the flexibility to partake in activities outside of their normal job boundaries, they are more likely to develop positive perceptions of the work-life practices offered. Overall, these results suggest that it is not only the active participation in the corporate volunteer programs, but also the inter-personal exchanges related to such programs, that lead to positive outcomes.

While the two studies above explore different aspects of the work-life interface, they similarly hint at an interesting interaction between work and non-work domains: Specifically, in contrast to the conflict perspective, engagement in one domain need not incur a trade-off with other domains. For example, students who hold full- or part-time jobs while studying did not report spending any less time on discretionary activities than those who do not work. In a similar vein, regardless of whether employees took part in corporate volunteering, they reported engaging in the same median number of personal volunteer hours outside of work as those who opted out of the program. There was also little, if any, difference between participants' and non-participants' marital status and number of dependent children – factors that are often associated with increased responsibilities and commitments outside of work. Additionally, self-reported measures of work-life conflict and work-related behaviors at Time 1 were found to be highly similar across both groups. In short, findings from both the pilot and main study indicate minimal differences in baseline characteristics between individuals who “do more” and those who “do less”. This is intriguing, as these results consistently suggest that the inclusion of additional activities into one's life is not dependent on the number or amount of a person's existing roles and responsibilities.

Rather, when needed, motivated individuals are able to carve out time to effectively manage their different commitments without compromising work performance.

Furthermore, in both studies, those who did more (i.e., working students and employee volunteers) also reported a stronger sense of purpose and meaningfulness in life compared to their non-working or non-volunteering counterparts. As such, experienced meaningfulness may be a key outcome of multiple role engagement: The more that individuals invest time and energy into pursuing different goals and activities in life – whether it be work, education, family, sports, or volunteering – the more positive they will feel about their work and lives more generally. This further supports the perception-centered approach of work-life balance (Haar et al., 2014), where balance is grounded in an individual's engagement in and enjoyment of a multitude of roles across work and non-work domains (Carlson et al., 2009). At the same time, from a time-allocation perspective, successful engagement in different domains may also lead to an increased sense of efficacy and efficiency. Perceiving the ability to effectively manage different aspects of life may further encourage one's involvement in various activities, and consequently facilitate an enhanced sense of work-life balance.

As such, combined, the two studies offer important arguments for the positive implications of multiple role engagement. Drawing from this, work-life initiatives such as volunteering may be a welcome addition into the workplace. They not only enrich one's overall experience at work, but can also lead to positive perceptions of balance through increased efficiency and the meaningful expansion of different roles and activities in life.

7.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications

7.2.1 The Costs and Benefits of Corporate Volunteer Programs

Corporate involvement in facilitating employees' management of the work-life interface can assume a number of different forms. While initially viewed as part of the social mission of companies that offer them, over time, initiatives such as volunteering have also been shown to have a host of internal implications for the employer. On one hand, studies suggest that these programs can lead to enhanced employee attitudes and performance (Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013; Rodell et al., 2017). On the other hand however, it is important to recognize potential costs. For example, many companies offer paid time off work (e.g., generally ranging from 1-3 days) for employees to engage in volunteerism; this notably equates to approximately 1% of the firm's annual payroll that is dedicated to non-work-related activities. Furthermore, by offering various types of volunteer programs, firms not only incur significant material and financial resources, but employers may also risk possible performance declines as a result of conflict experienced in juggling work and volunteer demands. The results from the Pilot Study offer some initial insight on multiple role engagement, and suggest that individuals' participation in different activities can in fact enhance their overall engagement at work. In other words, rather than interfere with work, corporate volunteering may create positive synergies that further contribute to one's work-related performance.

Additionally, even when the provision of certain benefits may be met with low levels of employee engagement, the signaling effect may nevertheless be very important, ultimately

contributing to positive organizational perceptions. In particular, I find that coworkers play a key role in influencing employees' perceptions of these programs. In exploring the role of organizational signaling, I contribute to the substantial research on work-life policies by specifying further the conditions under which program availability can elicit favorable responses from employees who are unwilling or unable to use the particular practices. For organizations investing in work-life practices, it is important to understand the social processes surrounding each type of practice. I argue that the signaling effects from the organization, along with the social influence from coworkers, play a positive role independent of self-interest. Such social processes can also further contribute to positive workplace relations. For example, data collected from the study indicate significant correlations between social sharing and interpersonal OCB at both Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 4). This suggests that individuals who are more likely to help others at work may also be more likely to acquire workplace information from colleagues, and this may in turn lead to a virtuous cycle of positive social interactions among employees. The emphasis on the positive effects of work-life practices in this paper however, does not mean these practices do not have the potential for significant drawbacks. For example, non-participants in corporate volunteer programs may face tremendous normative pressure to participate, inducing negative feelings of stress and resentment (Henning & Jones, 2013; Rodell et al., 2016; Stukas et al., 1999). Another factor at play is that corporate volunteering may end up substituting for personal volunteering (Mojza & Sonnentag, 2010; Mojza et al., 2011). Lastly, enriching work via the integration of non-work components may increase work demands and this work intensification may exacerbate rather than reduce role conflict for employees (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). As I further outline below in the section of "Future Research Directions", developing a

deeper understanding of the implications surrounding various types of work-life practices can help managers more effectively manage the dissemination of such practices in the workplace.

7.2.2 Non-Participation: Work-Family vs. Work-Volunteering

In expanding from the traditional category of work-family benefits, corporate volunteer programs present unique challenges and opportunities that cannot be fully explained by existing work-life research. For one, while the percentage of people taking part in either type of program is relatively limited, unlike family benefits however, the low participation rates for corporate volunteer programs cannot simply be attributed to ineligibility or fear of negative career consequences. In fact, previous research has reported that employees may at times actually perceive a strong sense of pressure to participate (Rodell et al., 2016). What then, might be driving these low participation rates?

As one potential factor, data from my study suggest competing preferences between corporate versus personal volunteering. Specifically, as noted in Table 3, many employees already engage in volunteering during their personal time. Interestingly, this coincides with data collected by CECP (2018), which similarly note that although many companies have on-company-time volunteering policies in place (i.e., the most popular type of volunteer program among employees), the median number of volunteered hours on company time (24,000) was actually lower than the median number of volunteered hours outside company time (31,000). This suggests that while employees appreciate the option of being able to incorporate volunteering into their company time, the implicitly higher costs of doing so (e.g., leaving work behind for a certain amount of time) may

render it infeasible to fully take advantage of such opportunities. In support of this, not only did I find that employee reactions to corporate volunteer programs were less positive among those with lower levels of job autonomy, additionally, in the qualitative section of my survey, several employees expressed regret at being unable to take part in the volunteer event, due to “scheduling conflicts” or being “absent from work” that day.

As previously noted, the combination of flexible scheduling with paid-release time tend to generate the highest employee volunteer rate compared to other corporate volunteer options (CECP, 2018). This indicates that employees may be more likely to participate if they have the flexibility and availability to do so. In an open-ended question asking about employees’ perceptions of corporate volunteering, one person explicitly stated: *“I don't have the opportunity to volunteer during work hours. I think it makes me and my specific department look bad because we are unable to participate in non-work related activities, like we are not team players. But our schedules mostly do not allow for this sort of activity.”* As such, it may not necessarily be personal volunteer commitments outside of work that are crowding out employees’ involvement in corporate volunteering, as results of my study showed no correlation between personal volunteer hours and intentions to engage in corporate volunteering in the future ($r=.00$), yet similarly strong intentions to engage in the latter among both participants and non-participants alike. Rather, designing corporate volunteer programs to accommodate the schedules and needs of different employee groups may be an important factor to promoting greater inclusion and engagement among employees.

In addition, the nature of the volunteer activity may be another significant aspect driving employee engagement rates. In a survey item inquiring about employees’ interest in different types

of volunteer work, “mentor, tutor, or teach” emerged as the most popular choice: among 73 employees who responded positively to whether or not the organization should provide volunteer opportunities at work (notably significantly higher than the actual number of volunteer participants), 46 selected this particular activity as one that they would “most like to see be offered at work”. Several other employees expressed a strong preference towards “x number of hours or days off a year to work on a charity of personal interest”. Consistent with prior work on leisure activities that emphasize the importance of intrinsic motivation and sense of purpose during the activity (Ten Brummelhuis & Trougakos, 2014), it may be similarly so that a high level of intrinsic interest in the volunteer activity itself is important to enhancing employee enthusiasm and generating higher participation rates.

7.3 Limitations

Although the findings of this study present interesting results on the provision of corporate volunteer programs, several limitations exist. First, with regard to the research site, the size and scale of the volunteer event was insufficient to fully test my hypotheses as depicted in Figure 1. As significantly fewer people than anticipated actually engaged in the event, the analysis of participants is not conclusive, and is limited to examining only before-and-after changes in employee work behavior, rather than the initially proposed pathways of enrichment and conflict. Relatedly, the United Way Book Campaign occupied only approximately one hour of employees’ time (during lunch time); thus its impact on employee perceptions and behaviors in the workplace

may not fully reflect that of other larger-scale corporate volunteer programs that expand over the course of several hours to a full day. One may imagine, for example, that the latter will not only lead to the development of various affective and instrumental resources, and thus stronger perceptions of enrichment, it might also incur greater volunteer-to-work conflict among participants. A larger-scale event may also have more significant implications for those who do not take part: Non-participants may be required to take on additional work tasks to cover for their coworkers who volunteer, or they may experience increased pressure to participate as a result of its prevalence in the workplace. As further detailed in the next section, additional research is needed to fully unpack these nuances.

While I collected supervisor ratings of job performance as indicators of employee work behavior, this data was not used in the analysis as very limited variance was found among these ratings, both across individuals as well as across time. Additionally, as only 29 supervisors responded at both points in time, resulting in only 66 employees with supervisor performance measures, using such measures would have further limited the sample size. On the other hand, by relying on employees' self-reported data, this may have inflated the correlations among variables. As a robustness check, I repeated my analyses using supervisor ratings; the directions of the relationships were similar to those reported earlier, though none were significant.

With regard to moderators, my focus on job autonomy and individual preferences for work-life segmentation as two critical factors predicting employee responses to corporate volunteer programs may neglect other individual and contextual factors that can similarly influence the direction and intensity of non-participants' response to organizational policies. For example, some employees are "happy workaholics" and report being "concerned above all with pay" or simply

being “indifferent” to their company’s work-life offerings (Ollier-Malaterre, 2010). Given the nature of coworker social sharing, it may also be expected that its effect on employee behavior will be moderated by various social factors, such as coworker identification or the desire to fit in. I discuss these moderators in more detail in the “Directions for Future Research” section.

Finally, in focusing exclusively on the internal signals derived from organizational work-life practices, my study does not capture the effect of external reputational signals such as perceived organizational prestige. How outsiders perceive the organization can play an important role in employee identification with the organization (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). The reputational effects associated with the signals work-life practices transmit to the external community have been shown to significantly enhance the attractiveness of the firm to both potential and current employees (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Jones et al., 2014). These external signals and reputational effects may be particularly relevant to non-users as it allows them to ‘bask in the reflected glory’ of the organization’s socially valued characteristics, regardless of whether or not they personally partake in those organizational practices (De Gilder et al., 2005; Jones, 2010). As such, future research may benefit from further unpacking the relative importance of internal versus external signaling on employees’ reactions to corporate work-life initiatives.

7.4 Directions for Future Research

Despite the limited sample size, the results obtained through these initial two studies provide valuable insight into the provision of work-life practices within an organization, and

suggest several interesting avenues for future research that may further complement the volunteer study depicted in this paper.

7.4.1 The Participation Effect of Corporate Volunteer Programs

While the relatively low volunteer rate in this particular study offers a unique lens to understanding the signaling effects of program availability, an important next step in my research is to further the study of corporate volunteer programs through a larger-scale volunteer initiative, either with the original organization (a key advantage of this is that it would allow me to simultaneously examine whether or not employees' positive volunteer intentions translate into actual volunteer behavior), or a different organization with a sufficiently mature volunteer program. Below I propose two studies to test the participation effect, one centered on individual changes in work-related behavior pre and post a focal volunteer event, and the other centered on group-level changes in volunteer participation and team performance over time.

Participation at the Individual Level. Ideally, this study would focus on a volunteer activity that is expected to occupy a significant portion of an employees' workday (thus maximizing the likelihood of conflict and enrichment). To fully test the different pathways outlined in Figure 1, I aim to obtain a minimum sample size of at least 70 volunteer participants (based on power analysis). Similar to the methods used in the main study of this paper, this new study would also consist of a multi-wave survey: ideally three surveys, one before the event and two afterwards (separating mediators and outcomes), with similar survey measures that have been validated by the previous two studies. If possible, objective indicators of performance (depending on the nature

of employees' jobs) would also be helpful as a means of reducing employee social desirability and self-report bias.

As noted in the earlier theory section, a potential challenge in testing the participation effect of corporate volunteering stems from endogeneity concerns, such that employees who “self-select” into these programs may be systematically different (e.g., have greater experience and motivation) compared to those who do *not* choose to partake in such activities (De Gilder et al., 2005). To develop a more accurate understanding of whether the potential positive effects derived from corporate volunteering reflect “selection” or “treatment” effects, I propose the following: Within the partner organization, I hope to conduct a field intervention that actively promotes the volunteer program among a subset of departments/units. By increasing the program's participation rate, this simultaneously reduces the likelihood that participation in the program is merely a result of self-selection. In addition, employee outcomes of the intervention group can be further compared to a control group of departments in which employees do *not* receive additional encouragement, thus enabling a more effective comparison of the difference in outcomes between groups in which there is a strong versus weak corporate volunteer presence.

With the insights developed from my existing study, in this next research project as outlined above, I aim to (1) test the potential enrichment and conflict pathways linking corporate volunteering with employee workplace behaviors (i.e., Figure 1), with the inclusion of relevant moderators such as volunteer motivation; (2) further confirm the positive main effects of coworker social sharing on non-participants' work and volunteer-related behaviors, with the incorporation of new relational moderators and mediators (as discussed in a later section); and (3) by

disentangling “selection” and “treatment” effects, provide a more effective comparison of outcomes between employees who engage in the volunteer program and those who do not.

Effects of Group-Level Participation on Performance over Time. As exemplified in my study, there is often significant variation in volunteer participation rates across groups within an organization. An interesting question then arises as to what predicts group-level engagement in volunteering over time, and what might be the outcomes of high levels of volunteering within a group? Here two potential arguments exist: one, groups that have higher levels of engagement in volunteering will develop greater levels of collective efficacy and social capital, and this in turn improves their unit-level performance. On the other hand however, taking into account that volunteering may detract from employees’ job-related responsibilities, high levels of corporate volunteerism can also harm unit-level performance. Additionally, there may be reciprocal relationships between participation in volunteering and group behavior, such that units with higher (or lower) performance are more (or less) likely to engage in volunteering.

The testing of these assumptions would require a large organization with multiple volunteer events throughout the year, and data regarding both volunteer participation rates and unit-level performance across departments over a certain period of time (e.g., depending on the frequency of volunteer events offered within the company, such data may be collected every 2-3 months over the course of a year). This design would enable the testing for an increase, decrease, or stability of the mean variables across time. Latent growth modeling analyses can be used to explore how changes in participation relate to changes in performance. A study such as this would contribute to existing work-life literature by examining the group-level outcomes of participation in corporate volunteer programs, and would not require the administering of employee surveys. However, if

feasible, surveys focusing on employees' group-level perceptions (e.g., collective efficacy and team relations) would be helpful in further elucidating the mechanisms through which volunteering influences team behavior.

Employee Engagement in Other Work-Life Initiatives. Different types of work-life initiatives may have different implications. A nine-year ethnographic study by Michel, for example, noted that the availability of luxurious amenities at work (e.g., free car services, meals, health clubs, and dry cleaning valets) was disconnected from the anticipated goal of work-life balance and autonomy that the firm intended to provide (A. Michel, 2011). Over time, this led to “body breakdowns” and the tendency to let body cues, rather than mental control, guide actions. From this perspective, with the emergence of different types of work-life practices, it would be interesting to explore their diverse implications and unpack the mechanisms through which they influence employee behavior and well-being. Longitudinal studies such as those outlined above would be helpful with respect to obtaining a more comprehensive understanding of the long-term consequences of various work-life practices.

7.4.2 Additional Thoughts on the Role of Non-Participants and Social Sharing

Given the critical role of social sharing on disseminating corporate volunteer practices among employees, it is important to develop a deeper understanding of how such social processes may be influenced by various individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors. While data collected from the study enabled me to test the potential moderating influence of coworker relations on social sharing and employee behaviors, other social factors might further influence

the likelihood of both employees sharing volunteer-related information with others, as well as coworkers' receptivity towards such information.

As one such example, employees who identify with coworkers or who have a stronger desire to "fit in" may be more likely to value others' experiences and information, and are thus more willing to be influenced by them. Additionally, the impact of coworker behavior on individual perceptions may also be influenced by the focal employees' attributions of said behavior. A study by Rodell and Lynch (2016), for instance, suggests that colleagues might sometimes "stigmatize" volunteering as they attribute it to impression management reasons, or they associate volunteerism with being distracted from work. In an open-ended survey question in my primary study asking employees "why do you *not* think X (Organization Name) should organize volunteer activities at work", several employees expressed the following regarding others' participation in the event:

"I believe work should come first and I feel like some people make volunteer activities a priority."

"People should come to work to work."

"My team is extremely lean and deadline driven. I'm not opposed to volunteering or volunteering at work but those who wish to take advantage of volunteer opportunities at work should consider work in process at the time and discuss their time away with their manager before agreeing to volunteer."

This suggests that employee volunteering may not always be met with positive reactions. As such, it may be worthwhile to incorporate coworker attributions as potential moderators in the relationship between social sharing and coworker reactions. It may be expected, for example, that when coworkers interpret others' volunteer behavior as stemming from low work commitment, or

impression management motives and the desire to act morally superior, they may be less responsive to their colleagues' participation in, and sharing of, the volunteer event. The third quote hint at further implications of employee volunteering: When people take time off to volunteer, this can impose an additional work burden on their colleagues, as the latter may be required to cover for employees who are not present in the workplace. It is also possible that employee volunteering may disrupt the work-flow of others around them, especially when others depend on the focal employee to complete certain tasks. Therefore, one area for future research would be to explore more deeply the implications of coworker volunteering among *non*-participants, and potential moderating influences such as task interdependence.

In addition to coworker-related factors, employees' interpretation of organizational signals are also often colored by supervisory stance on the practices and/or the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Kossek et al., 2011). A recent study by Kim and colleagues, for example, found that the voluntary workplace green behavior of leaders positively influenced the green behavior of their subordinates (Kim et al., 2017). Similarly, longitudinal results from a transportation company showed that the crystallization of supervisor' injunctive safety norms moderated the effect of coworkers' descriptive safety norms on employees' proactive safety behavior (Fugas, Meliá, & Silva, 2011). These studies suggest that having higher status and power, leaders can be influential referents; their personal behaviors and attitudes towards corporate volunteering may convey important information regarding what is supported or discouraged in the workplace. As such, when employees perceive strong support from managers to engage in corporate volunteering (or they directly observe volunteering behavior from their supervisors), they may be more likely to engage in such activities themselves, particularly upon hearing the experience of their coworkers.

Conversely, when employees perceive that participation in volunteer activities may be either implicitly or explicitly disapproved by managers, the learning of such programs from coworkers may then have limited impact on employees' perceptions and behaviors of the program.

Finally, while my study focused on the positive pathway between social sharing and employee reactions, it is also possible that the learning of corporate volunteer programs may induce a strong sense of social pressure to participate among employees. Indeed, research suggests that an employee's decision to participate in corporate volunteering can stem from a number of different reasons, including being asked directly or feeling pressured or coerced by others (Grant, 2012; Stukas et al., 1999). In that case, the positive relationship observed between social sharing and future volunteer intentions may be mediated by perceived social pressure, rather than positive affect or the development of a positive volunteering climate; this may in turn result in negative psychological outcomes, such as increased stress and/or reduced job satisfaction.

Therefore, in my future surveys examining the relationship between social sharing and employee reactions, it would be important to test (1) additional relational moderators, such as coworker attributions and perceived supervisor support, and (2) potential mediating mechanisms, including both positive affect and perceived social pressure. This would further our understanding of the extent and outcomes of coworker social influence on corporate volunteering.

7.4.3 Multiple Role Engagement: The Critical Role of Self-Efficacy

The positive relationship between individuals' school and work-related behaviors in the Pilot Study highlight an interesting phenomenon with regard to multiple role engagement:

Specifically, in comparing the time allocation of activities between students who work while attending college and those who do not, I find that although the former spends an average of 14 hours per week on work-related activities, this does not appear to crowd out their time spent on other aspects such as school, family, sports, and extracurricular activities. Rather, the only areas that working students report spending less time on was “low-effort leisure” and “social” activities. Furthermore, not only are these students engaging in more activities than those who do not work, but the former also appears to show higher engagement and better performance at work as *a result of* multiple role engagement.

While seemingly paradoxical, it indeed appears that the more an individual does, the more they have the time and energy *to* do. The literature on work-life enrichment can be used to shed light on the mechanisms through which this occurs. As initial evidence, results from my pilot study highlight self-efficacy and development-based enrichment as important mediators linking the domains of work and non-work. Additionally, there were also positive correlations between time spent on non-work-related activities, and individuals’ self-reported affect- and efficiency-based enrichment. In other words, the more that individuals are involved in different roles, the more they develop valuable resources that enhance their overall behavior and well-being. Given the cross-sectional nature of the survey, I was not able to control for potential endogeneity; intuitively however, there may be reciprocal relationships between self-efficacy, performance, and work-life balance. As noted earlier, work-life balance reflects an overall summative characterization of an individual’s engagement in and enjoyment of a multitude of roles across different domains (Carlson et al., 2009; Valcour, 2007), and has been shown to have important implications for a number of work and non-work related outcomes. From this standpoint, self-efficacy may be

positively related to one's engagement in different activities (i.e., people who have more favorable perceptions of their ability are more likely to take on additional roles and responsibilities), and this consequently enhances their perceptions of work-life balance; enhanced perceptions of balance might in turn, further increase one's efficacy over time.

One way to test these assumptions would be to employ a longitudinal design using at least two waves of surveys. Self-efficacy at T1 would be expected to positively influence T2 work-life balance indirectly via T1 multiple role engagement, and work-life balance at T1 should positively influence T2 self-efficacy. While not directly testing the impact of work-life initiatives, results of a cross-lagged study such as this can provide further evidence of the instrumental benefits of potentially introducing different non-work-related activities into the workplace.

7.4.4 New Conceptualizations of the Work-Life Interface

Research on boundary theory and work-life segmentation suggests that individuals erect “mental fences” around roles such as work and family (Ashforth et al., 2000). From this perspective, there are a number of different boundary management strategies people may enact. For example, those who desire greater work-life segmentation may choose to establish clear boundaries between work and non-work by mentally and physically leaving all work behind when they go home (Rothbard et al., 2005). The literature thus highlights *not* having to “think about work” or being able to “keep work life at work” as indicators of work-life segmentation (Kreiner, 2006).

Through discussions with focus group employees however, I find that there may be alternative ways in which people think about the work-life interface. For example, most employees noted enthusiasm and an appreciation for the opportunity to bring family members to various volunteer and other social-related functions within the organization. Despite this being a common indicator of desire for integration, one employee within the group also mentioned that he uses separate emails for work and non-work-related correspondence as a way to clearly delineate work and personal matters. This suggests that the original conceptualizations of work-life integration vs. segmentation may no longer capture the broad spectrum of boundary management strategies employees choose to enact. As noted in the methods section, while this additional item did not correlate strongly with the original scale for work-life segmentation developed by Kreiner (2006), it is nevertheless intriguing to consider what the motivations and implications of these new strategies might be. For example, does keeping separate emails indicate differing levels of importance attached to each domain? Do these separate emails serve as a “mental fence”, leading to different behavioral characteristics and/or performance benefits with regard to work and personal life? Overall, as these strategies evolve over time, and various types of work-life practices become more prevalent within the workplace, this may consequently call for new ways of thinking about the work-life interface. Qualitative and/or other exploratory studies of individual work-life perceptions may help shed new light on how employees manage work and non-work commitments, and its potential implications for the design of various corporate work-life benefits.

7.5 Conclusion

Scholars and practitioners have long endorsed the multiple benefits of work-life practices in improving employee outcomes. One way in which participation improves workplace outcomes is through the enrichment that occurs from involvement in multiple domains. With regard to individual efforts at managing the work-life interface, the pilot study provided initial support for the dominant effect of enrichment over conflict. Additionally, in the field study, I found that employees who took part in corporate volunteering also reported significantly higher levels of meaningfulness, but not inter-role conflict, post event compared to non-participants. These results suggest that introducing non-work-related activities into the workplace need not crowd out employees' regular job responsibilities, but may in fact lead to the development of positive new resources.

Secondly, even when employee participation in these programs do not always reach anticipated levels, it is important to recognize that these practices can nevertheless exert a significant influence on employee attitudes and behaviors in the workplace through processes of signaling and coworker influence. In particular, my results indicate that non-participating employees may also derive positive perceptions from corporate volunteering. Such perceptions are fostered through a coworker-driven process, where knowledge of the program obtained through coworkers play a central role in shaping employees' subsequent perceptions of the organization.

As the majority of research thus far has focused on work-family benefits and its resulting implications for managing inter-role conflict, the findings of my study extend our understanding of work-life practices in several important ways. First, this study contributes to the substantial

research on work-life by highlighting differences in work-family versus work-*non-family* practices. These differences lie in not only their effects on participants, but also the signals they impart to those who do *not* partake in the benefits offered. With regard to the latter, I further find important differences in the factors that moderate employees' reactions to these different types of work-life programs. For example, individual work-life preferences have often been highlighted as an important characteristic predicting employee responses to work-family programs (Kreiner, 2006; Rothbard et al., 2005); yet these individual traits (including demographic characteristics) appear to play little, if any role, in determining how employees may react to corporate volunteer programs. Rather, contextual factors (i.e., job autonomy, coworker relations) emerged through my analyses as the key factors predicting the extent to which the learning of volunteer-related information from coworkers would generate positive affective reactions. This consequently underscores the importance of employees' work context – both with regard to their job characteristics as well as to the social environment – in shaping the effective dissemination of work-life practices.

Relatedly, it is also important to recognize the wide range of factors that predict employee *engagement* in corporate volunteering, as they are distinct from those for work-family benefits. The latter is generally based on needs and eligibility; however, even when corporate volunteer programs are widely available to all employees, individuals' intrinsic interest in the activity, their perceived constraints at work, or their personal volunteer commitments outside of work, may exert significant influences on their decision to participate in workplace volunteering. As such, for organizations looking to invest in these programs, it is important to not only understand the social processes that occur with regard to volunteering, but also the different workplace conditions that

might make it more or less feasible for employees to engage in these programs. As one example, ensuring that these programs are designed so that they are easily accessible by all different types of employees (e.g., by providing flexible volunteer options with regard to both time and activity) would be important to maximizing its impact in the workplace.

Finally, worth noting is that the introduction of corporate volunteering into the workplace not only had positive implications for employees' work-related attitudes, but it also inspired their intentions to engage in volunteerism in the future. This is consistent with a recent study by Rodell and colleagues (2017), which similarly suggests that the development of a corporate volunteering climate within the organization can motivate employees' future volunteer intentions, both with the employer as well as on their own time. Recognizing these benefits that stem from program availability may encourage more employers to join the growing trend of organizations formalizing support for employee volunteering.

Overall, different work-life practices may have different implications that are likely to extend beyond their mere effect on the employees who directly engage in them. In responding to the call for an expanded view of the work-life interface (Keeney et al., 2013), the results of this study further our understanding of corporate work-life initiatives, and provide a unique perspective to exploring the value of corporate volunteering outside of its direct societal and community benefits.

Figure 1 Conceptual Model of the Participation Effect of Corporate Volunteer Programs

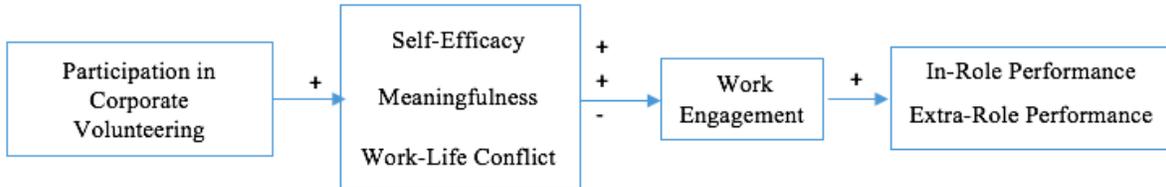


Figure 2 Conceptual Model of Coworker Social Sharing on Employees' Workplace Behaviors

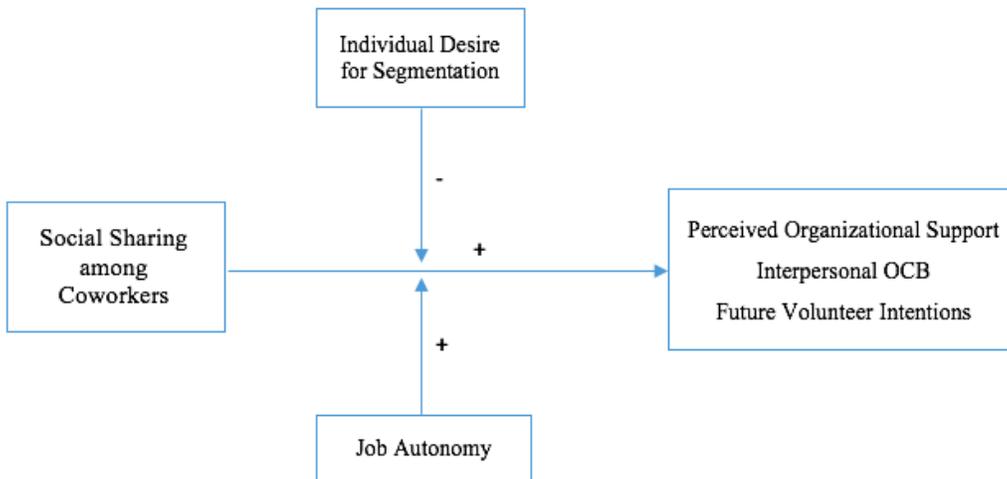
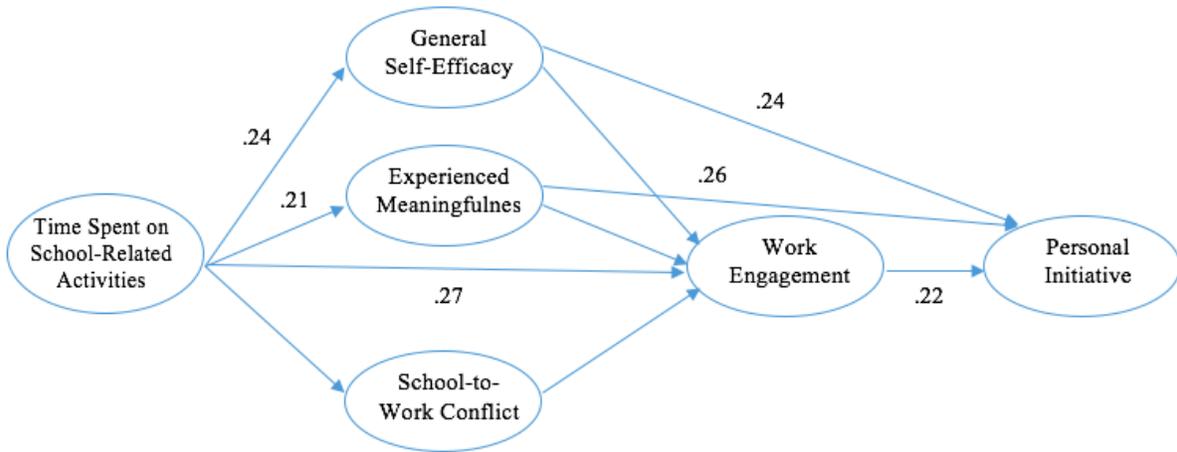


Figure 3 Pilot Study: Structural Equation Modeling Results



Good model fit:

$\chi^2 [4] = 4.28$, CFI=.98, GFI=.99, RMSEA=.03, SRMR=.07

Table 1 Pilot Study: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Age	20.36	1.50															
2 Gender	1.68		-.18														
3 College Credits	15.50	1.47	-.05	.03													
4 GPA	3.39	.34	-.08	.19	.04												
5 Work Hours	13.87	7.86	.26	.04	-.16	.03											
6 School	27.79	9.75	-.18	-.06	.16	.14	-.10										
7 Extracurricular	10.89	8.99	-.14	-.09	.05	-.08	-.04	.12									
8 Household	5.48	5.10	.21	.09	-.13	-.05	.10	1.7	.07								
9 Low-effort Leisure	13.30	9.43	-.07	-.02	-.05	-.03	-.10	-.04	.20	.46							
10 Social	15.21	9.73	-.15	.12	-.15	.11	-.08	.02	.26	.38	.73						
11 Physical	7.26	7.06	-.00	.05	-.13	.05	-.03	.23	.02	.44	.49	.45					
12 Family	3.08	4.39	.04	.09	-.08	-.02	.15	-.01	.02	.26	.40	.29	.24				
13 Self-Efficacy	4.07	.63	.01	-.15	.16	.10	.35	.24	.23	.06	-.05	-.01	.18	.08			
14 Meaningfulness	3.74	.84	-.04	-.06	-.00	.01	.10	.21	.04	.05	-.22	-.16	.01	.11	.52		
15 Enrichment (Development)	4.27	.64	-.06	-.18	.05	.03	-.16	.31	.29	.15	.04	.09	.22	.12	.38	.34	
16 Enrichment (Affect)	4.15	.80	.11	-.10	-.20	.04	.16	.14	-.09	-.03	-.04	.02	.20	.26	.09	.17	.39
17 Enrichment (Efficiency)	3.58	.83	.19	-.16	.15	-.04	-.19	.10	.10	.13	.19	.15	.20	.29	.09	.25	.54
18 School-Work Conflict	2.62	.85	.19	.13	-.00	-.06	.06	.04	.08	.14	.03	.00	-.04	-.01	-.19	-.15	-.22
19 Work Engagement	3.15	.64	-.02	.03	.01	-.06	.09	.31	.22	.08	-.01	.19	.04	.24	.25	.23	.41
20 Personal Initiative	3.75	.79	.10	-.13	-.08	-.13	.25	.25	.14	.00	-.08	-.03	.17	.04	.43	.44	.32

Note: All correlations above .23 were significant at $p \leq .05$.

Table 1 Pilot Study: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (cont'd)

Variable	16	17	18	19
17 Enrichment (Efficiency)	.44			
18 School-Work Conflict	-.17	-.12		
19 Work Engagement	.36	.24	-.14	
20 Personal Initiative	.34	.14	-.19	.34

Note: All correlations above .25 were significant at $p \leq .05$.

Table 2 Pilot Study: Summary of Model Fit Indices

Model Test	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
1. Hypothesized model	18.98	6	.73	.90	.18	.13
2. Revised model	4.28	4	.98	.99	.03	.07
3. Alternative model 1: Direct pathway from time spent at school to personal initiative at work	3.82	3	.98	.98	.06	.07
3. Alternative model 2: Direct indicators of enrichment as mediators	6.44	5	.98	.97	.07	.07
4. Alternative model 3: # of hours spent working -> WSC -> Stress	0	0	1	1	0	0

Table 3 Main Study: Comparison between Volunteer Participants and Non-Participants

	Participants	Non-Participants
Gender	.76	.66
Education	5.10	5.11
Marital Status	.66	.49
Dependent Children	.83	.68
Income	3.93	3.92
Work Hours	42.27	39.57
Organizational Tenure	5.80	7.29
Job Autonomy	5.71	5.24
Work-Life Segmentation	4.36	4.53
Work-Life Balance	4.77	4.61
Personal Volunteer Hours	22.72	44.67
N	27	72

Table 4 Main Study: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Gender (female=1, male=0)	.69																
2 Education	5.11	1.00	-.20														
3 Marital Status (married=1, non=0)	.54		-.05	-.16													
4 Dependent Children	.72	.97	.28	.02	.41												
5 Household Income	3.92	1.82	-.06	.19	.58	.38											
6 Work Hours	40.38	8.08	-.05	.10	.01	.03	.21										
7 Organizational Tenure	6.87	7.28	-.01	-.29	.38	.09	.21	.05									
8 Volunteering (Participant=1, Non=0)	.28		.10	-.00	.15	.07	.00	.15	-.09								
9 Coworker Social Sharing	4.16	1.05	.13	.00	.00	-.06	-.10	-.10	-.05	.29							
10 Job Autonomy	5.37	1.21	-.22	-.01	.10	.06	.15	.22	-.02	.18	.12						
11 Work-Life Preference	4.49	.99	-.04	.04	-.18	-.21	-.06	.03	-.08	-.08	.04	-.05					
12 POS (Time 1)	5.17	.76	.01	.09	.01	.13	.03	.03	-.04	-.11	.09	.27	-.14				
13 POS (Time 2)	5.42	.85	-.13	.15	.03	.10	-.06	.02	-.15	.08	.19	.37	-.12	.59			
14 OCB (Time1)	5.92	.74	.11	-.07	.07	.16	.22	.07	-.03	.07	.24	.10	-.02	.07	-.03		
15 OCB (Time 2)	6.04	.79	.03	.03	.08	.14	.24	.12	-.01	.18	.35	.23	-.17	.24	.26	.66	
16 Future Volunteer Intentions	4.90	1.38	.22	-.04	.12	.20	.01	-.01	.04	.35	.38	.11	.01	.18	.15	.27	.37

Note: All correlations above .20 were significant at $p \leq .05$.

Table 5 Repeated Measures ANOVA: Means by Participation Condition

Condition	Work Engagement		Self-Efficacy		Meaningfulness		Work-Life Conflict		Perceived Org. Support		Interpersonal OCB	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Participation	4.96	5.20	6.16	5.98	5.23	5.61	2.10	2.20	5.05	5.53	5.99	6.27
Non-Participation	5.04	5.05	5.92	5.95	5.57	5.50	2.07	2.01	5.20	5.39	5.87	5.95
Total	5.02	5.09	5.98	5.96	5.48	5.53	2.08	2.07	5.15	5.42	5.90	6.04
Time (<i>F</i>)	.21		1.61		3.39 ⁺		.05		15.80 ^{***}		6.14 [*]	
Time x Participation (<i>F</i>)	2.03		1.19		8.05 ^{**}		.54		2.86 ⁺		3.01 ⁺	

Note: Significant and marginally significant changes across time are highlighted in bold.

Table 6 Hierarchical Regression Analyses of Outcomes of Coworker Social Sharing

Step And Variable	β	S.E.	R²	F
<i>Perceived Organizational Support (H6)</i>				
1. Gender	-.16	.14		
Education	.09	.10		
Marital Status	-.21	.25		
Dependent Children	.08	.10		
Income	-.22	.07		
Hours Worked Per Week	.05	.01		
Organizational Tenure	-.13	.01		
Perceived Support (T1)	.56***	.10	.39	6.82
2. Coworker Social Sharing	.15 ⁺	.09	.42	9.72 ⁺
3. Social Sharing X Ind. Preference	-.18	.03	.42	10.05
Social Sharing X Job Autonomy	.39*	.02	.45	14.10*
<i>Interpersonal OCB (H7)</i>				
1. Gender	-.03	.19		
Education	-.07	.09		
Marital Status	.15	.22		
Dependent Children	.11	.10		
Income	.30	.06		
Hours Worked Per Week	.10	.01		
Organizational Tenure	-.03	.01		
Interpersonal OCB (T1)	.65***	.09	.45	8.57
2. Coworker Social Sharing	.31*	.08	.47	10.40*
<i>Future Volunteer Intentions (H8)</i>				
1. Gender	.16	.32		
Education	.03	.15		
Marital Status	-.06	.38		
Dependent Children	.18	.16		
Income	-.08	.10		
Hours Worked Per Week	.05	.02		
Organizational Tenure	.05	.02	.08	1.07
2. Coworker Social Sharing	.36***	.13	.21	14.14***
3. Social Sharing X Ind. Preference	-.18	.04	.21	16.53
Social Sharing X Job Autonomy	.34	.04	.23	15.70

Figure 4 Main Study: The Effect of Coworker Sharing and Job Autonomy on Employee's Perceived Organizational Support



Table 7 Results of Hierarchical Linear Modeling: Accounting for Group-Level Effects

	Effect on Perceived Organizational Support			
	Base Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Intercept	5.45 ^{***}	5.45 ^{***}	5.43 ^{***}	5.44 ^{***}
<i>Individual-Level</i>				
Social Sharing		.36 ^{**}	.36 ^{**}	.28 ^{**}
<i>Group-Level</i>				
Number of Participants			-.13	-.12
<i>Interactions</i>				
Social Sharing x Job Autonomy				.10 ⁺
Deviance	234.26	223.50	221.31	211.53
AIC	240.26	231.50	231.31	229.53
χ^2 (compared to previous model)		10.76 [*]	2.19	9.78 [*]
Pseudo R ²	.07	.08	.08	.15

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Appendix A Summary of Literature Review on Work-Life Enrichment

A.1 Studies Measuring Work-Life Enrichment with Self-Report Scales

<i>Author(s) and Publication year / Sample characteristics</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Non-work Domain</i>	<i>Antecedents</i>	<i>Mediators</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>
Allis & O'Driscoll (2007) New Zealand government employees	938	Family and personal benefit activities	Psychological and time involvement (in family and personal activities)	Nonwork-to- work facilitation	Well-being
Aryee, Srinivas, Tan (2005) Full-time employed parents in India	267	Family	Job involvement, family support	Work-family facilitation, family-work facilitation	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment
Baral & Bhargava (2010) Managerial employees in India	216	Family	Job characteristics, supervisor support, work-family culture	WFE	Job satisfaction, affective commitment
Bhave & Lefter (2018) 3 studies: ATUS; full-time employees in Singapore; Amazon MTurk	338; 79	Family	Occupational interactional requirements	Employees' vitality	WFE
Butler (2007) Full-time college students	253	School	Job-school congruence, job control, job demands, work hours	Work-school facilitation	School performance and satisfaction
Carlson, Grzywacz, Ferguson, Hunter, Clinch, & Arcury (2011) Full-time working mothers of infants	179	Family	Skill discretion and job security	WFE	Physical health
Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, & Whitten (2014). Zoomerang data collection company	310	Family	WFE	Positive mood, psychological distress	Job and family satisfaction
Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, & Whitten (2011) Full-time employees and matched sub-supervisor dyads	240	Family	WFE	Positive mood, job satisfaction	Job performance

<i>Author(s) and Publication year / Sample characteristics</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Non-work Domain</i>	<i>Antecedents</i>	<i>Mediators</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>
Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten (2011) 161 subs and 48 supervisors	161	Family	Supervisors' WFE, FWE	Family- supportive organizational perceptions, schedule control	Subordinate WFE, performance
Carvalho & Chambel (2014) Portuguese bank employees	1390	Family	Job autonomy, supervisor support	WFE	Health perceptions, life satisfaction
Chen & Powell (2012) Chinese employees	1052	Family	Work-role engagement	Work-role resource gain	WFE
Cinamon (2018) Israeli high school students	289	School	Social support, # of working hours, and the freedom to choose to work	Bidirectional work-school facilitation	Life satisfaction, school grades and academic behavior
Clark, Michel, Stevens, Howell, & Scruggs (2014)	340	Family	Work engagement	Positive emotions (joviality and self-assurance)	Work-home enrichment
Creed, French, & Hood, (2015) Undergraduate students	185	School	Work-based benefits and demands	Work-university facilitation and conflict	Engagement, well-being, university feelings
Culbertson, Mills, & Fullagar (2012) Extension agents	52	Family	Daily work engagement	Positive mood	Work family facilitation
Daniel & Sonnentag (2014) Full-time employees in Germany	256	Nonwork	Work engagement	Positive affect, positive work reflection	WFE
Grzywacz & Butler (2005)	2045	Family	Job autonomy, job complexity		Work-family facilitation
Hakanen, Peeters, & Perhoniemi, (2011) Finnish dentists	1632	Family	Job resources	WFE, FWE	Work engagement, home resources, marital satisfaction
Hunter, Perry, Carlson, & Smith. (2010). MBA and undergrad students	344	Family	Team resources (similarity, cohesion, and familiarity)	WFE, FWE	Project and family satisfaction

<i>Author(s) and Publication year / Sample characteristics</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Non-work Domain</i>	<i>Antecedents</i>	<i>Mediators</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>
McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin (2009)	220	Family	Flexible work arrangements (flextime and compressed work week)	WFE	Job satisfaction, turnover intentions
McNall & Michel (2016) Employed college students	291	School	Core self-evaluations	Work-school enrichment	GPA, job satisfaction, psychological health, and school burnout
McNall, Scott, & Nicklin (2015) Human service workers	161	Family	Positive affectivity, preference for integration	WFE, FWE	Turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion
Mishra, Bhatnagar, Gupta, & Wadsworth (2017) Service sector employees	398	Family	WFE, FWE	Psychological capital	Innovative behavior
Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge (2012) Hospital employees	174	Family	Family-supportive supervisor behaviors, family-supportive organizational perceptions, available benefits	WFE, FWE	Job satisfaction, org. commitment, turnover intentions, task and contextual performance
Siu et al. (2010) Chinese employees	786	Family	Family-friendly policies, supervisor support, job autonomy, family support	Work engagement	WFE, FWE
Siu et al. (2015) Chinese employees	276	Family	Supervisor support and family support	Job satisfaction and family satisfaction	WFE, FWE (different dimensions)
Ten Brummelhuis, Haar, & Roche (2014) 199 leaders and 456 followers	199	Family	Leader's FWE	Leader enhanced engagement	Follower engagement
van Steenbergen, Kluwer, & Karney (2014) Dual earner couples with children	215	Family	WFE	Positive marital behavior	Marital satisfaction, partners' marital satisfaction

<i>Author(s) and Publication year / Sample characteristics</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Non-work Domain</i>	<i>Antecedents</i>	<i>Mediators</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>
Voydanoff (2004)	1938	Family	Enabling resources, psychological rewards, family support policies, work-family organizational support		Work-family facilitation
Wayne, Randel, & Stevens (2006) Insurance company	167	Family	Work and family identity, family emotional support, and work-family culture	WFE, FWE	Affective org. commitment, Turnover intentions
Wayne, Casper, Matthews., & Allen, (2013) Engineering consulting firm	408	Family	Family-supportive organizational perceptions	WFE (capital and affective enrichment)	Organizational commitment
Westring & Ryan (2010) Student parents	520	School	Positive core self-evaluations	Perceived social support (from family, friends, profs, university, and resources)	School-family enrichment
Wyland, Lester, Ehrhardt, & Standifer (2016) Working undergraduate students	170	School	Work and school demands	Bidirectional work-school facilitation	Job satisfaction, interpersonal facilitation, job performance

A.2 Studies Examining Positive Relationships between Variables Across Work and Non-Work Domains

	<i>Antecedents</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Support for Relationships</i>
<i>Work-Domain Variables</i>	Job characteristics (Job complexity, challenge, stimulation)	Positive parenting behaviors	Greenberger et al., 1994; Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994
	Work-family support (Formal benefits and informal organizational / supervisor support)	Family satisfaction, family functioning, family performance	Ferguson et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2007; Las Heras et al., 2017
	Work-non-family benefits (Corporate volunteering programs)	Organizational commitment	Booth et al., 2009; de Gilder et al., 2005
	Job involvement (E.g., time spent at work, work engagement)	Family engagement, family satisfaction, life satisfaction	Adams et al., 1996; Ilies et al., 2017; Rothbard, 2001
<i>Family-Domain Variables</i>	Family support	Job satisfaction	Ford et al., 2007
	Family structure (E.g., marital and parental status)	Job performance, work absorption, leadership behaviors	Campbell et al., 1994; Dumas & Perry-Smith, 2017; Dumas & Stanko, 2017
	Family involvement (Family role commitment, family orientation, family engagement, family mastery, family performance, marital satisfaction)	Work engagement, job performance, helping behavior, creativity, career satisfaction, life satisfaction	Graves et al., 2007; Hirschi et al., 2016; Las Heras et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2011; Rothbard, 2001; Tang et al., 2017; ten Brummelhuis et al., 2010
<i>Non-work, Non-Family Domain Variables</i>	Community and volunteer work	Organizational identification, job, life, and career satisfaction, job performance, OCB	Hecht & Boies, 2009; Jones et al., 2010; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Mojza et al., 2011; Rodell, 2013
	Mastery experiences (Education or other learning activities)	Positive affect the next day, task performance, personal initiative, OCB	Binnewies et al., 2008; Sonnentag et al., 2008
	Leisure activities (E.g., social, recreational, low effort, or physical activities)	Well-being, work engagement, task performance, proactive behavior	Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006; Hecht & Boies, 2009; Sonnentag, 2003; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012

Other nonwork roles (general)

Life satisfaction, job performance, interpersonal and task-related skills

Ruderman et al., 2002; Weer et al., 2011

Appendix B Survey Measures from Main Study

B.1 Employee Survey #1

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree; 4 = neutral).

General Self-Efficacy (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Experienced Meaningfulness (King, Hicks, Krull, & Del Gaiso, 2006)

1. In life, I have very clear goals and aims.
2. My personal existence is very purposeful and meaningful.
3. I have clear goals and a satisfying purpose in life.
4. I regard my ability to find a meaning, purpose, or mission in life as be very great.

Perceived Organizational Support for Enrichment (adapted from Scott & Bruce, 1994)

1. Work-life balance is encouraged in this organization.
2. It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work. (R)
3. Expressing involvement and interest in non-work matters is viewed as healthy.
4. The way to advance in this company is to keep non-work matters out of the workplace. (R)
5. Employees are given ample opportunity to perform their job and their personal commitments.

Personal Life to Work Conflict (adapted from Netemeyer et al., 1995)

1. The demands of activities outside of work interfere with my work-related activities.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of non-work-related demands on my time.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of other activities.
4. My personal life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as accomplishing daily tasks and working overtime.
5. Non-work-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Role Overload (Bolino & Turnley, 2005)

1. The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.
2. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.
3. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.

Work Engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006)

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.
4. My job inspires me.
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
7. I am proud of the work I do.
8. I am immersed in my work.
9. I get carried away when I am working.

Work-Life Balance Perceptions (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001)

1. It is easy for me to balance the demands of my work and personal life.
2. I have sufficient time away from my work to maintain adequate work and personal life balance.
3. When I take a vacation, I am able to separate myself from work and enjoy myself.

4. I feel that I am successful in balancing my work and personal life.
5. I often feel drained when going home from work because of work-related pressures and problems.

Self-Report OCBs (adapted from Williams & Anderson, 1991)

1. I help others who have been absent.
2. I help others who have heavy workloads.
3. I take time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.
4. I go out of my way to help other employees.
5. I take a personal interest in other employees.

Relations with Coworkers (adapted from Taylor et al., 2007)

1. I am close friends with my colleagues.
2. The colleagues I work with are very supportive.
3. I feel that the colleagues I work with care about me and enjoy my company.
4. I can get a lot of help from my colleagues.
5. I feel a strong sense of caring for my colleagues.

Note: All measures above were also used in Survey #2.

Individual Desire for Work-Life Segmentation (adapted from Kreiner, 2006)

1. I don't like to have to think about non-work-related activities while I'm at work.
2. I prefer to keep my personal life outside of work.
3. I don't like non-work issues creeping into my work life.
4. I like to be able to leave personal activities behind when I go to work.
5. I always use a separate email for non-work correspondence.
6. I put up pictures of my family (or friends, pets) around my workspace.

Job Autonomy (Morgeson et al., 2005, adapted from Hackman & Oldham, 1980)

1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

Personal Volunteerism

In the past 12 months, how many hours did you spend on volunteering during your personal time?

Control Variables

Gender: (Male; female; other; I prefer not to answer)

Educational Attainment: (less than high school, high school, 2-year college, bachelor's degree, advanced degree)

Marital status: (Not married; living with partner or married)

How many dependent children do you have at home?

What was your total household income last year? (Below \$30,000; \$31,000 - \$50,000; \$51,000 - \$70,000; \$71,000 - \$90,000; \$90,000 - \$110,000; \$110,000+; Prefer not to answer)

How many hours per week do you usually spend at work?

How long have you been in your current organization?

B.2 Employee Survey #2 (Additional Measures)

Did you volunteer for the United Way 100,000 Book Campaign at Craig Hall last month (October 23rd?)

Yes, No

If “yes”, then measures for participants:

Skills Acquired through Volunteering (Booth et al., 2009)

My volunteer activities at the University have provided me with (please select all that apply):

1. Fundraising skills
2. Technical/office skills
3. Organizational/managerial/leadership skills
4. Increased knowledge (e.g., about health, poverty, education, political issues, etc.)
5. Communication skills
6. Interpersonal skills
7. Other skills

Autonomous vs. Controlled Motivation (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010; Rupp et al., 2018)

I participate in workplace volunteer events...

1. So that I would be liked. (C)
2. Because I'd feel like a bad person if I didn't. (C)
3. Because others would be disappointed in me if I didn't. (C)
4. Because I thought it was important to act this way. (A)
5. Because I liked acting this way. (A)
6. Because I felt I should. (C)
7. Because I felt I had to. (C)
8. Because I valued doing so. (A)
9. Because I care about others. (A)
10. Because I thought I would enjoy it. (A)

11. Because I appreciated that my help could be useful. (A)
12. Because I wanted to join my coworkers in a social/non-work event.

Work-Life Enrichment (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006)

(a) *Development*

Participation in volunteering

1. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.

(b) *Affect*

Participation in volunteering

1. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.

(c) *Efficiency*

Participation in volunteering

1. Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.
2. Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.
3. Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.

If “no” on participation, then measures for non-participants:

Please select all the reasons for which you were not able to participate in these volunteer events:

- I did not know about it.
- I forgot to sign up.
- My job responsibilities are too great to take a day off work.
- I already had prior engagements for that day.
- I was concerned that my supervisor would not approve.

- I did not participate as none of my close coworkers did either.
- The event was not personally interesting to me.
- I already volunteer during my personal time.
- I had to cover work for a colleague who was participating in the event.
- Other reasons (open-ended)

General questions for all employees:

Social Sharing among Coworkers (Colbert et al., 2016)

With regard to the United Way Book Campaign,

1. I heard about this volunteer event through my coworkers.
2. I'm aware of coworkers who participated in this event.
3. My coworker(s) encouraged me to participate in this event.
4. Over the last two weeks, my coworkers shared stories about their volunteer experiences.
5. I have a positive impression of the event because of my coworkers.
6. Based on my discussions with coworkers, I would participate in similar volunteer events in the future.

Future Volunteering Intentions (Rodell, 2013)

Next year, through my company's volunteering programs, I intend to

1. Give my time to help a volunteer group.
2. Apply my skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group.
3. Devote my energy toward a volunteer group
4. Engage in activities to support a volunteer group.
5. Employ my talent to aid a volunteer group.

B.3 Supervisor Survey

In-Role Performance (Eisenberger et al., 2001)

1. Meets his or her performance expectations.
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
3. Is competent in all areas of the job and handles tasks with proficiency

Extra-Role Performance (Personal industry scale from Moorman & Blakely, 1995)

1. Rarely misses work even when he/she has a legitimate reason for doing so.
2. Performs his/her duties with unusually few errors.
3. Performs his/her job duties with extra-special care.
4. Always meets or beats deadlines for completing work.

OCB towards Coworkers (Interpersonal helping scale from Moorman & Blakely, 1995)

1. Goes out of his/her way to help co-workers with work-related problems.
2. Frequently adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time-off.
3. Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business.

Employees' Team-Oriented Commitment (Ellemers et al., 1998)

1. This employee is prepared to do additional tasks to benefit the team.
2. This employee tries to invest effort into a good atmosphere in the team.
3. When there is social activity within the team, this employee usually helps to organize it.
4. This employee finds it important that the team is successful.