

ANTECEDENTS OF CORPORATE VOLUNTEERISM

A Dissertation

by

JAIME BLAINE HENNING

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2008

Major Subject: Psychology

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ABSTRACT

Antecedents of Corporate Volunteerism. (December 2008)

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Millions of individuals donate their time to volunteer work each year. Additionally, expectations of socially responsible practices on the part of organizations and the positive relationship between the social and financial performance of organizations are leading to a growing interest in corporate social responsibility among management and researchers. One method to achieving greater corporate social responsibility is corporate-sponsored volunteering. Many benefits have been associated with corporate volunteerism. However, an understanding of why these outcomes occur is lacking. Also lacking is an understanding of why individuals engage in corporate volunteerism. Although studies have identified several demographic variables associated with volunteering in general, few studies have examined variables beyond simple demographics, and fewer still have examined antecedents of corporate volunteering. In the current study, the theory of planned behavior, functional motives for volunteering and citizenship performance, and perceived locus of causality are used to integrate contextual, attitudinal, situational, and motivational variables in order to present and empirically test a framework to help explain why individuals participate in corporate

volunteerism. Data were collected from 110 individuals employed in two organizations supporting corporate volunteerism in order to examine the antecedents of participation in this behavior.

Results indicated that antecedents of intentions included in the theory of planned behavior and its extensions were related to intentions to participate in corporate volunteerism and, in some cases, actual participation in this behavior. Furthermore, functional motives for volunteering and citizenship performance were related to the regulations specified by the perceived locus of causality continuum. These motives, conceptualized as general orientations towards particular behaviors relevant to a contextual domain, were related to the situation-level decision-making antecedents of intentions in several cases. Finally, several of the relationships between the contextual-level generalized motivational constructs and intentions to participate in corporate volunteerism were mediated by the situational-level antecedents of the theory of planned behavior. Specifically, the relationship between social motives and intentions was mediated by subjective norms. The relationships between each of identified regulation, values, understanding, and organizational concern motives with intentions were mediated by attitudes toward corporate volunteerism. Perceived behavioral control also mediated the relationship between understanding motives and intentions.

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INTRODUCTION

“We make a living by what we get, but we make a life by what we give.”
(Sir Winston Churchill)

Volunteerism, a form of giving, is defined as ongoing, sustained activities that benefit society and are aimed at improving the well-being of others (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). “Volunteering is part of a cluster of helping behaviors, entailing more commitment than spontaneous assistance but narrower in scope than the care provided to family and friends” (Wilson, 2000, p. 215). In their definition adapted from Harootyan (1996), Okun and Michel (2006) defined volunteerism as “any activity intended to help others that is provided to an organization without obligation and for which the volunteer does not receive pay or material compensation” (p. 613). These helping behaviors involve some commitment of time and effort and are expected to produce a public good or benefit (Wilson, 2000).

Each year a significant number of individuals engage in volunteerism. An estimated 60.8 million individuals in the United States engaged in volunteer activities in 2006-2007 through organizations such as the Red Cross or United Way (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). Volunteer services contributed approximately \$75 billion to the gross domestic product in 2001 (Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2003), and volunteer work is integral to the provision of many services in our society (e.g., health care, education, community development).

Additionally, with increased competition in the marketplace, the relationship between an organization's social performance and financial performance is becoming a growing area of interest for both management and researchers (Maignan, Ferrell, & Hult, 1999). Corporate social performance has been defined as an "organization's configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships" (Wood, 1991, p. 693). What once was considered discretionary behavior on the part of an organization is quickly becoming a business necessity (Altman, 1998). A recent meta-analysis indicates a positive relationship between corporate social performance and corporate financial performance across industries (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003). Organizations are now realizing that their reputation, retention of high quality employees, and even their bottom-line are partly dependent upon their commitment to socially responsible practices (Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002; Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Maignan et al., 1999; Orlitzky et al., 2003; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Turban & Greening, 1997).

Employee volunteerism is one socially responsible practice organizations can support. Volunteering has historically been conducted outside and separate from an individual's paid work (de Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005). However, an increasing number of organizations have begun to offer support for the volunteer efforts of their employees. Research on corporate volunteerism in the United States is relatively sparse, thus, it is not clear what the antecedents, correlates, and specific benefits of this activity may be to the employee, employing organization, and recipient of the activity (e.g.,

community or nonprofit organization). The purpose of this study is to examine the antecedents associated with corporate-sponsored volunteering in order to better understand and explain why individuals participate in this behavior.

Corporate Social Responsibility

One aspect of corporate social performance is corporate social responsibility (Carroll, 1979; 1999). Many definitions of corporate social responsibility exist (see Carroll, 1999, for a review). In a seminal article, Carroll (1979) defined corporate social responsibility as “the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time” (p. 500). Similarly, Davis (1973) defined corporate social responsibility as “the firm’s considerations of, and responses to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks” (p. 312). As can be seen from these popular definitions, corporate social responsibility is often conceptualized somewhat broadly, and definitions vary in regard to what actions and policies constitute this responsibility. For example, in their framework of corporate citizenship behaviors, Maignan and Ferrell (2001) include socially responsible practices such as supporting local schools. According to Logan and O’Connor (2005), corporate social responsibility includes actions such as the manner in which employees are treated, protecting the environment, and supporting the community and culture within which the organization operates.

Although conceptualizations of corporate social responsibility differ, aspects can include charitable giving on the part of the organization in addition to sponsorship of

employee volunteering. Further, the traditional philanthropic activities of financial donations are expanding to include the donation of employee time and other resources (e.g., the donation of computers to a school or nonprofit organization; Lukka, 2000). Given the importance of volunteering for many individuals in society, and the positive relationship between corporate social responsibility and corporate financial performance, it appears an understanding of the variables that contribute to the process of employee volunteerism is warranted.

Corporate Volunteerism

Employee volunteerism is not well defined, and this phrase is often used interchangeably with *corporate volunteerism* and *employer-supported volunteerism*. One important distinction to make between employer-supported or corporate volunteering and the more general term employee volunteerism is that employee volunteerism refers to any volunteering an employee engages in, independent of work, with or without the support of the employer, whereas corporate volunteerism (CV) requires some form of knowledge and support for the volunteering on the part of the employer (Graff, 2004; Lukka, 2000; Seel, 1995). Typically this includes an organization supporting employee involvement in the community, often through volunteer activities or programs initiated through or integrated into the organization. This study focuses on corporate volunteerism.

CV programs come in many forms and involve various degrees and types of employer contributions and levels of involvement on the part of employees (Geroy, Wright, & Jacoby, 2000; Lautenschlager, 1993; Solomon, Ragland, Wilson, & Plost,

1991). These programs may range from the informal acknowledgement of employees volunteering in the community, to systems that facilitate employees locating volunteer opportunities and recording their volunteer efforts, to the more formal corporate volunteer programs offering paid time-off and grants or matched donations to support employee-volunteers' efforts (Graff, 2004; Lautenschlager, 1993; Seel, 1995). The term CV, like volunteerism in general, is typically reserved to refer only to activities that support the community or society and not participation in organizations such as professional associations, unions, and trade associations (which is often referred to as "service"; Lautenschlager, 1993; Wilson, 2000).

Thus, CV programs involve varying commitments of time and involvement by the employing organization with community organizations. For example, JP Morgan Chase has developed a CV program, *Global Days of Service*, which entails thousands of employees in locations around the world participating in local volunteer projects over the course of several weekends. Other CV programs include on-going partnerships with non-profit organizations such as the United Way or Habitat for Humanity, whereas others involve one-time or annual participation in events such as the Special Olympics or Toys for Tots. Still other CV programs leave the recipient and amount of time volunteered to the discretion of the individual employee.

It appears that CV is valued by employees and organizations alike. Many Americans report thinking more positively of organizations that encourage employee community involvement over donations of large sums of money (Hill, Knowlton, & Yankelovich Partners, 2001). The prevalence of CV programs appears to be increasingly

common in the United States. In 2003, 47 of the Fortune 50 companies had some form of employer-supported volunteerism in place, and 60% of the Fortune 500 companies mentioned the volunteering efforts of their employees on their company websites (Cihlar, 2004; Points of Light, 2004). Additionally, it has been estimated that approximately 80% of large companies in the United States have CV programs in place (Burnes & Gonyea, 2005). Although large organizations are twice as likely as smaller organizations to offer a CV program, rates of employee participation in these programs are similar across organizations, regardless of size (Walker Information, 2003).

Peterson (2004a) surveyed individuals across a number of organizations regarding their participation in CV and volunteering in general. He found that a higher proportion of individuals volunteered when employed in an organization with a CV program. Furthermore, of those respondents employed in an organization offering a CV program, the majority of those who volunteered did so through corporate activities, with fewer volunteering on their own through non-company sponsored activities.

LBG Associates (2005) suggest there are generally five reasons organizations support CV. First, supporting this activity is part of being a good corporate citizen. CV allows the organization to give back to the communities in which it operates and is one way to support an organization's overall corporate social responsibility goals. Second, for some organizations, a commitment to volunteerism is part of the organization's culture. It is valued by the organization and is often a means for the organization to distinguish itself from the competition. Third, organizations may support CV simply because it is the right thing to do. Before its transition to practically a "business

necessity,” corporate social responsibility in general was typically supported by companies whose executives felt that acting in this manner was an appropriate thing to do, rather than a duty or obligation. Fourth, CV may be supported by the organization because it is valued by its employees, shareholders, and the community. Finally, many organizations support CV for the business benefits that may be obtained. This includes benefits to employees, organizational productivity, image, and the bottom-line, as well as benefits to the community in which the organization operates.

Outcomes of Corporate Volunteerism

The outcomes of corporate volunteerism have been described as a “win-win-win-win-win” situation, benefiting the employing organization, the employee-volunteer, the volunteer organization or community, individual citizens, and the government (Graff, 2004, p. 14). Although it is assumed CV leads to positive outcomes, oftentimes these outcomes go unmeasured by organizations (Points of Light Foundation & The Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College, 2005). Systematic evaluation of causes and effects of participation for employees is lacking, and is mainly in the form of case studies and anecdotal evidence (Burnes & Gonyea, 2005; Cihlar, 2004; de Gilder et al., 2005; Geroy et al., 2000).

The outcomes of CV can be grouped into three categories (Seel, 1995; Wild, 1993). *Bottom-line benefits* include improvements in regards to return on investments and return on assets. Bottom-line benefits are thought to be attributable to improved employee and company productivity, perhaps due to enhanced attitudes, morale, and skills, and to the favorable reputation an organization may gain through CV efforts.

Employee benefits include influences on employee attitudes, morale, and skill development and enhancement. *Indirect community benefits* include improving relations with the local community and government as well as creating a more stable and healthy environment in the community in which the organization operates. Although little research has focused on indirect community benefits, some studies have examined bottom-line and employee benefits. These are reviewed next.

Bottom-Line Benefits

Bottom-line benefits are important to organizational stakeholders and are necessary to make the business case for many human resources initiatives or employee assistance programs. CV appears to be related to such business benefits as an organization's image, consumer purchasing decisions, and organizational performance. For example, individuals report more favorable impressions of, and intentions to do business with, organizations that donate products, services, or employee time to charitable causes and act with the best interests of the community in mind (Austin, 2001; Boston College Center for Corporate Community Relations, 1994). Of the 248 corporate volunteer program managers responding in one survey, 100% believed CV would help improve an organization's image (Points of Light Foundation, 2000).

Regarding organizational performance, research suggests community involvement (including corporate donations and employee volunteerism) is positively related to business performance (Lewin & Sabater, 1996). Stakeholders and employees holding more favorable impressions of a company's community involvement are more likely to act in ways that support the organization's bottom-line success, through

behaviors such as recommending the organization and its products and services, and continuing to work for, do business with, or invest in the company (Walker Information, 2002; Wild, 1993). As Tuffrey (1995) suggests, the impact CV may have on morale and motivation could lead employees to be more likely to recommend their organization to others and to be more motivated to perform their jobs, thereby enhancing the organization's performance.

Additionally, CV programs appear to be associated with the ability to attract and retain talented employees (Rochlin & Christoffer, 2000; Wild, 1993). For example, following September 11th, 2001, job applications at Timberland, an organization known for its corporate citizenship, greatly increased. Many of these applicants cited the company's dedication to social responsibility as an important factor in their decisions to seek employment with this organization (Pereira, 2003).

Employee Benefits

The limited research available regarding employee benefits suggests CV may lead to such outcomes as improved job attitudes, skills, and productivity, and decreased absenteeism and turnover (Points of Light Foundation & The Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College, 2005; Thomas & Christoffer, 1999; Tuffrey, 1998; Wild, 1993). Regarding employee attitudes, de Gilder et al. (2005) examined employee volunteerism in a Dutch banking organization. They compared attitudes among employees participating in the CV program, those not participating in the program yet volunteering in the community, and those not volunteering at all. Their results suggest all three groups of employees held generally positive attitudes toward the CV program,

with attitudes being most positive among those participating in the program. Peterson (2004a) examined the benefits of participation in CV programs across a number of organizations, finding organizational commitment was higher for individuals employed in organizations with a CV program (regardless of whether they participated in the program).

Volunteering may also be a useful way to develop new or enhance existing skills (Wild, 1993). For example, through volunteer activities employees may acquire new or improve current leadership or project management skills, experiences perhaps not offered in their current job. Survey findings suggest companies use CV to develop employee skills (Points of Light Foundation, 2000; Tuffrey, 1998; Wild, 1993). Interviews conducted with human resources administrators indicate they believe a change in skills occurs after participation in CV, particularly for junior staff and those in lower-skill positions. Furthermore, these human resources administrators believe these skills could be just as effectively attained through CV programs as through formal training and seminars (Points of Light Foundation & The Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College, 2005). Some caution must be taken when considering the proposition that participation in CV enhances job skills, as most available information is self-report or based on the beliefs of directors or managers of CV programs who likely have a vested interest in providing evidence demonstrating the benefits associated with these programs. However, the anecdotal evidence suggests the skill acquisition and enhancement thought to occur through CV may be roughly equivalent to, and a cost-effective replacement for, more traditional forms of training and development (Points of

Light Foundation & The Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College, 2005). In addition to improving skills, CV is also thought to provide opportunities for professional development, such as gaining new business contacts, experience working with different constituents, and a better understanding of social patterns and government policies and regulations (Geroy et al., 2000; Wild, 1993).

Finally, CV may also have an influence on employee health and well-being. Researchers have related helping behaviors to better health, finding that volunteers tend to experience better physical health in old age (Stephan, 1991) and have a lower risk of mortality (Musick, Herzog, & House, 1999). Additionally, benefits appear to include better mental well-being, such as enhanced self-esteem, socialization, and overall life satisfaction, and reduced levels of stress and depression (Harlow & Cantor, 1996; Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001; Musick & Wilson, 2003; Piliavin, 2005; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

Prevalence of Corporate Volunteer Programs

Many organizations are recognizing the benefits CV is purported to bring and are implementing these programs. Increasing numbers of organizations are including CV programs in their strategic business plans and using these programs to address business functions such as public relations, marketing and communications, development of employee skills, and recruitment and retention (Points of Light Foundation, 2000; Witter, 2003). These programs are being credited with supporting the goals of the organization. According to Wild (1993), many executives believe so strongly in the

return on investment of these programs, they are unwilling to, and believe they could not afford to, terminate their CV program.

Despite their growing popularity, rigorous scientific research on CV programs is somewhat lacking. Only one-third of the respondents in the survey conducted by the Conference Board and Points of Light Foundation collect data regarding their volunteer programs, and these data were oftentimes incomplete (Wild, 1993). Several reasons for this lack of assessment exist, including insufficient organizational resources (e.g., staff, time) for doing so, in addition to the contention that measuring and evaluating employee volunteerism may infringe upon the spirit of volunteerism and employees' right to privacy (LBG Associates, 2005). Even greater than the lack of rigorous evaluation of CV programs is the lack of theoretical framework surrounding these programs. As Tschirhart (2005) suggests, CV is an area in need of theory, not only to gain a greater understanding of CV, but to help guide policy and practices surrounding CV programs. Much of the current work on CV programs examines the implementation of these programs and is often atheoretical and lacking empirical investigations (Benjamin, 2001). Little research exists examining who participates in corporate volunteerism, and research exploring why individuals engage in this behavior is almost non-existent. The purposes of this study are (1) to present a theoretical framework to help explain why individuals participate in CV and (2) to empirically test this framework.

Volunteerism

Prosocial behavior, or voluntary behavior carried out to benefit another, has a long history of study in the social and behavioral sciences (Bar-Tal, 1984). Early social

psychological research on prosocial behavior typically focused on spontaneous helping behaviors, such as bystander intervention (e.g., Bickman, 1972; Latane & Darley, 1970). Among industrial and organizational psychologists, prosocial behavior has often been examined in the forms of prosocial organizational behaviors, including organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and contextual or citizenship performance of organizational members (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Coleman & Borman, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997). Recently, some researchers have turned their attention to the study of prosocial behavior in the form of more sustained actions (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner, 2002), such as volunteering.

Volunteering is not the same as organizational citizenship or contextual performance,¹ in that just like for-profit organizations, nonprofit and volunteer organizations likely require both task and citizenship performance to function effectively (Katz, 1964; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999). However, given the organizational context in which it occurs, CV may be considered a form of citizenship performance. Just as engagement in citizenship performance displays support for the organization or one's coworkers, engagement in CV similarly shows support for the organization (Pelozo &

¹ Borman and Motowidlo (1993) define contextual performance as "behaviors [that] do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (p. 73). Contextual performance is conceptually similar to, and based largely on, OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), and the model of soldier effectiveness (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, & Hanser, 1983). Although previous researchers attempted to differentiate these constructs, the distinctions have become less prominent as Organ (1997) provided a redefinition of the OCB construct to mirror that of contextual performance. Following this, Borman and colleagues (Borman et al., 2001; Coleman & Borman, 2000) coined the term "citizenship performance" to represent the performance dimension that combines OCB, prosocial behavior, the model of soldier effectiveness, and similar prosocial organizational behaviors. Therefore, whereas research prior to 2000 did not use the term "citizenship performance," in the interest of clarity, for the remainder of the paper OCB and contextual performance will be referred to as citizenship performance, regardless of the term used by the original authors.

Hassay, 2006). As discussed, CV can help improve the organization's image and reputation, build relationships between coworkers, develop and enhance employees' skills such that the organization does not need to expend resources to formally train these skills, and result in other outcomes which support the context in which the technical core of the organization must function.

Additionally, some researchers question whether the concept of volunteering should include work that is remunerated in some form (e.g., pay, reduced pay, reimbursement for costs) or a consideration of the motives for the activity (Wilson, 2000). Wilson and Musick (1999) suggest that volunteering is a form of work that can produce both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, just like employment. However, it is the exchange of goods or services produced without the expectation of "exclusive and immediate benefits" that differentiates volunteer work from paid work (Wilson & Musick, 1999, p. 244). It is also important to keep in mind that CV may, although does not necessarily, occur on company time; therefore individuals engaged in CV on company time are technically being paid for their volunteer services by the employing organization.

Antecedents of Volunteerism

Research regarding volunteerism has tended to examine who volunteers or correlates of volunteering (Smith, 1994). Based on the available literature, Smith suggested there are five categories of determinants of volunteering: social background, personality, contextual, attitudinal, and situational variables. Additional research has examined the motives behind volunteerism (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1991; Clary et al.,

1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Although these determinants are thought to operate together, most research has focused on the social background characteristics related to volunteering. Additionally, whereas knowledge of the individual correlates of volunteerism is useful, a greater understanding of the antecedents of this behavior may be gained through a consideration of the contextual, attitudinal, situational, and motivational variables involved.

Social Background

Early research regarding participation in volunteer activities focused on characteristics of the individual, including social status differences (e.g., Gidron, 1984; Lemon, Palisi, & Jacobson, 1972; Smith, 1983). These perspectives suggest that individuals weigh the costs and benefits of volunteering, and the ability to volunteer is determined by one's resources (Wilson, 2000). Lemon et al. (1972) referred to this as the dominant status model. Participation was expected to be greater among individuals with more resources, characterized by a more dominant set of social positions and roles (e.g., being male, high in income and wealth, employed, high in formal education; Smith, 1994). Although some research findings are in line with this theory, others are not. For example, level of education seems to be one of the most consistent correlates of volunteering, with more highly educated individuals more likely to volunteer (Lammers, 1991; Penner, 2002; Smith, 1994; Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1999), as education may increase awareness of social problems and enhance skills that facilitate volunteering (Brady, Verba, & Schlozman, 1995). Additionally, more highly educated individuals might belong to a greater number of social organizations and therefore are more likely to

be asked, or offered more opportunities, to volunteer (Brady, Schlozman, & Verba, 1999; Herzog & Morgan, 1993). Also consistent with this theory, belonging to a religious organization and being married appear to be related to volunteering (Independent Sector, 2001; Wilson, 2000). On the other hand, contrary to the dominant status model, the majority of volunteers appear to be Caucasian females from middle-income levels (Independent Sector, 2001; Lammers, 1991). Dominant status theory may fail to accurately predict who volunteers, because of its assumption that individuals volunteer solely because they possess excess resources.

Other individual characteristics found to be related to volunteering include having children, although this characteristic appears to depend on a number of factors. Among those with children, the highest rates of volunteerism come from unemployed, married women with children living at home, who volunteer for community-oriented groups (Wilson, 2000). Finally, age has a nonlinear relationship with volunteering, such that volunteer rates drop during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood and peak during middle-age (Herzog, Kahn, Morgan, Jackson, & Antonucci, 1989; Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1999). Among the retired, participation in volunteering does not increase, but hours volunteered does increase among those who already volunteer (Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Herzog et al., 1989).

Regarding CV, de Gilder et al. (2005) examined demographic differences between employer-supported volunteers, individuals who volunteer in the community on their own time, and non-volunteers. The community volunteers were found to be more religious, married with children, and somewhat older than non-volunteers. However

there were fewer demographic differences between the employee volunteers and each of the other two groups, suggesting demographics may not play as much of a role in determining who participates in CV programs. Again, the focus on demographic variables in determining participation may be too narrow in scope, as other variables likely play a role in determining who participates in CV.

Personality

Although research examining the Big Five personality factors and their relation to volunteerism is sparse, the results of a meta-analysis indicate Conscientiousness is positively related to commitment to and investment in one's role as a volunteer ($\rho = .15$, $k = 5$; Lodi-Smith & Roberts, 2007). Additionally, research on other prosocial behaviors suggests personality may be related to helping. In their meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of citizenship performance, Organ and Ryan (1995) found both Conscientiousness and Agreeableness were positively related to citizenship performance. However, the small correlations between the dispositional variables and the citizenship performance dimensions led Organ and Ryan (1995) to conclude that these dispositional variables probably have a more indirect role in determining citizenship performance and may be mediated by contextual attitudes such as job satisfaction. Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo (2001) conducted a review of the literature produced since the Organ and Ryan (1995) meta-analysis. Although they did not conduct a full meta-analysis, Borman et al. (2001) concluded that the mean uncorrected correlations found in the later studies were higher than those in the Organ and Ryan (1995) meta-analysis for the dispositional variables examined and suggested

these studies demonstrate more encouraging results for the link between personality and citizenship performance.

Contextual, Attitudinal, Situational, and Motivational Antecedents

The findings regarding demographics and personality are useful in predicting who volunteers and rates of volunteering but are not necessarily useful in understanding *why* these individuals volunteer. This focus on individual factors related to volunteerism has been criticized as atheoretical and lacking a consideration of internal motives and external influences (Greenslade & White, 2005). Thus, an examination of contextual, attitudinal, situational, and motivational antecedents is likely to be helpful in understanding why individuals engage in CV.

Of the remaining antecedents previously identified as important to volunteerism, motivational variables have received the greatest attention, and theories linking motives to volunteering and citizenship performance have been useful in explaining why individuals engage in these behaviors. Similarly, an understanding of the mechanisms behind motivation to participate in CV is important for improving participation and associated outcomes. Research suggests recruitment strategies for obtaining volunteers are most effective when they match the primary motives of potential volunteers (Clary et al., 1998; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994). Similarly, Peterson (2004b) found that the most effective strategies for recruiting participation in CV programs depended on the age of the volunteers and further suggested that motives differ by age. Finally, there is some research to suggest that volunteer experiences which satisfy the

motives of volunteers lead to greater satisfaction with and continued participation in volunteer activities (Clary et al., 1998; Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005).

Attitudes regarding volunteerism in general, and CV in particular, also likely play a role in why individuals participate in CV. Additionally, Smith (1994) identified situational variables, defined as “the symbolic interaction between one individual and others,” or one’s perceptions of the situation, as important determinants of volunteering (p. 252). The theory of planned behavior encompasses both attitudes and situational variables, in addition to perceived behavioral control, in the prediction of specific behaviors. This theory has been used in the prediction of many behaviors, including volunteering (e.g., Greenslade & White, 2005; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Although motives are not directly implicated in the theory of planned behavior, researchers have linked motives to this theory based on a consideration of perceived locus of causality (Hagger, Chatzisarantis, Barkoukis, Wang, & Baranowski, 2005; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, & Biddle, 2002; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, Culverhouse, & Biddle, 2003). Research regarding the theory of planned behavior, motives for volunteering and citizenship performance, and perceived locus of causality will be used to identify antecedents of CV, beyond social background and personality variables, in order to begin to provide a theoretical framework for explaining why individuals engage in CV.

Given the volitional and sustained nature of volunteerism, an understanding of the processes driving individuals to this action is useful for several reasons. For example, whereas personal characteristics may be difficult to change and individual differences such as personality are thought to be fairly stable across the life span (Conley, 1985;

Costa & McCrae, 1988; 1997), attitudes and motives are somewhat malleable and can be influenced by outside forces. For example, situational variables such as norms or pressures may influence an individual's intentions to participate in volunteerism. In the case of CV, an individual may perceive it is "expected" by coworkers or supervisors that employees participate, thereby influencing intentions to volunteer. Along similar lines, more egoistic concerns may motivate one to volunteer. If CV appears to be rewarded or valued by managers, it may come to be viewed as an impression management technique. Employees may become motivated to volunteer simply to present themselves to others in a favorable light.

The Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1985; 1991) is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These theories suggest behavior is based on a rational decision process. The theory of reasoned action posits that the basic determinants of behavior are a logical sequence of cognitions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The model suggests intentions to perform a behavior are a direct antecedent of performing the behavior. Intentions reflect an individual's motivation to engage in the behavior, indicative of how much effort the individual is planning to exert to perform the behavior. These intentions are determined by three factors. The first determinant is attitudes toward the behavior, conceptualized as the individual's favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behavior. The second determinant is subjective norms, or the individual's perceptions of social pressures to perform or not perform the behavior. Finally, the TPB extends the theory of reasoned action by including perceived behavioral

control, or one's perceptions regarding the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior. Perceived behavioral control is posited to have both an indirect effect through intentions as well as a direct effect on behavior to the extent that perceived behavioral control is an accurate appraisal of actual behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991).

The basic propositions of the theory suggest that individuals will perform a behavior when they possess both intentions to do so and the necessary opportunities and resources. Individuals will intend to perform a behavior when they evaluate it positively, perceive important others believe they should, and perceive the performance of the behavior to be under their own control (Ajzen, 1988; 1991). Additionally, the relative importance of each of the three determinants in the prediction of intentions is thought to vary across behaviors and contexts (Ajzen, 1991). Finally, background factors such as social and demographic variables and personality characteristics are viewed as external factors thought to affect behavior through their influence on the antecedents of intentions presented in the model (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Several studies have provided support for the proposed relationship between intentions and numerous behaviors, and research generally supports the relationships between each of the three determinants and intentions (e.g., Ajzen, 1988, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Manstead, Proffitt, & Smart, 1983; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). In the context of CV, the TPB would suggest that attitudes toward CV, beliefs that important others would approve of participation in CV, and perceptions of realistic constraints (including a consideration of the resources and opportunities necessary to participate in CV) would predict intentions to perform

CV, which in turn would be the primary antecedent of CV. Although the TPB suggests the relationships between the antecedents of intentions and behavior will be mediated by intentions, some studies have found support for direct relationships between the antecedents and behavior (e.g., Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Katz, 2001). Given that many individuals in the current study will already be engaging in the behavior of interest, antecedent-behavior relationships will be examined in addition to antecedent-intention relationships. Therefore, although all hypotheses will be stated in accordance with the TPB (i.e., as antecedent-intention relationships), antecedent-behavior relationships will also be assessed.

Attitudes. Attitudes towards a specific behavior, assessed at a similar level of specificity to that of the behavior, are the pertinent attitudes in predicting intentions and behavior. These attitudes are thought to stem from underlying beliefs, which link the behavior with some valued outcome (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein, 1963). For example, with regards to CV, an individual may believe CV will lead to such outcomes as helping others or skill development. The evaluation of these salient outcomes, in addition to the individual's beliefs that the behavior will produce the outcome, contributes to the formation of the attitude toward the behavior (Ajzen, 1985). Thus, under this expectancy-value model, attitudes toward a behavior are determined by an individual's evaluation of the outcomes associated with performing the behavior and the strength of these associations.

At least two studies have examined the TPB with regards to volunteering. Greenslade and White (2005) were interested in predicting "above-average"

participation in volunteering, or volunteering a greater number of hours per week than the national average. Their findings suggest that attitudes toward volunteering play a role in predicting intentions to engage in above-average volunteer participation. Warburton and Terry (2000) used a modified TPB to examine intentions to volunteer among older individuals. They found attitudes toward volunteering were related to intentions to do so; however, an additional variable, moral obligation, was found to fully mediate this relationship. Accordingly, with regards to CV, positive attitudes toward this behavior, stemming from beliefs surrounding the behavior-outcome link and the positive evaluation of these outcomes, are expected to result in greater intentions to engage in CV.

Hypothesis 1: Positive attitudes toward participating in CV will be positively related to intentions to engage in CV.

Subjective norms. The second determinant of behavioral intentions is perceptions of social pressures put on individuals by important others to perform or not perform a behavior. Given the context in which CV occurs, important others would likely include coworkers and supervisors. Individuals may participate, or intend to participate, in CV simply due to perceived pressures within the organization. Those who comply with these pressures are likely to receive praise and be viewed positively, whereas those who do not comply may receive negative treatment or be rejected by the group (Festinger, Schachter, & Black, 1950). The expectations of outcomes such as these have been found to motivate a variety of behaviors, including helping or prosocial behaviors (e.g., Bandura, 1977; Eisenberg, 1982; Reno, Cialdini & Kallgren, 1993).

Like attitudes, subjective norms are posited to stem from beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These beliefs are a function of the valence of the belief, or the extent to which important others are perceived to approve or disapprove of the behavior, and the motivation to comply (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In general, the stronger the pressure and greater the motivation to act in accordance with the referent, the greater the expected compliance. Research regarding volunteerism suggests the greater the social pressure, the more likely an individual is to volunteer (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin & Callero, 1991).

In his theoretical model of influences on sustained volunteerism, Penner (2002) includes “volunteer social pressure,” or one’s perceptions of how others feel about him or her volunteering and motivation to comply with these beliefs, as an important predictor of decisions to volunteer and empirical findings support this. For example, interviews with employees in organizations that promote CV suggest social norms and pressures, either within the overall organization or the individual’s work group, are an important influence on employees’ decisions to participate in CV programs (Pelozo & Hassay, 2006).

In their attempt to clarify the role of social norms in behavior, Cialdini, Reno, and Kallgren (1990) proposed two types of norms. The first, injunctive norms, reflect perceptions of what others approve or disapprove of within a particular context and are therefore equivalent to subjective norms. In contrast, descriptive norms reflect one’s perceptions of what others actually do in a particular situation. These norms have been referred to as behavioral norms in extensions of the TPB and refer to perceptions of the

extent to which salient others are thought to perform the behavior in question (Grube, Morgan, & McGree, 1986; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Warburton and Terry (2000) included subjective and behavioral norms in their study, finding both predicted intentions to volunteer in their sample. Additionally, de Gilder et al. (2005) found that individuals who work with colleagues who volunteer are more likely to volunteer themselves, either as part of a CV program or on their own.

It may also be the case that individuals perceive strong pressures to *not* participate in CV. As de Gilder et al. (2005) suggest, although volunteering is a positive behavior, participation in a CV program may not always be viewed positively. For example, a supervisor may indicate volunteering is best done on one's own time, or may not demonstrate support for the employee-volunteer's efforts or the CV program. Additionally, the employee-volunteer may be, or may perceive being, resented by coworkers who believe the volunteer is not focused on job tasks or who possess feelings of having to "pick up the slack" while the employee is volunteering. Therefore, it is expected that subjective and behavioral norms within the organization or work group are likely to motivate individuals to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of subjective norms regarding CV will be positively related to intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of behavioral norms regarding CV will be positively related to intentions to participate in CV.

Perceived behavioral control. The TPB extends the theory of reasoned action by adding a third determinant of intentions (Ajzen, 1985). This determinant is important in

settings where individuals' volitional control has some limits and the subjective probability of success and actual control over internal and external factors is not absolute. In such cases, whether or not a behavioral attempt is made depends not only on attitudes and subjective norms, but also on an individual's control over these internal and external factors. These factors include a self-assessment of the possession of information, abilities, skills, time, and opportunity necessary for performing the behavior, in addition to external barriers to behavioral engagement. Beliefs regarding the presence or absence of variables that aid or hinder performance and the perceived power of these factors to facilitate or impede performance are thought to lead to perceptions of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1988).

Hypothesis 4: Perceived behavioral control will be positively related to intentions to participate in CV.

According to Ajzen (1985), control beliefs should be related to perceptions of the possession of various internal factors necessary to perform the behavior. The more resources individuals believe they possess, the greater their perceived control should be over their behavior. This view of perceived behavioral control has been likened to the concept of self-efficacy, or beliefs regarding perceived capabilities to effectively perform a given task in a given situation (Wood & Bandura, 1990). These beliefs can influence choice of activities, and individuals who believe they have the abilities to master a particular task are more likely to attempt to do so.

Several researchers have examined the concept of self-efficacy in relation to volunteerism. In their study of the TPB, Greenslade and White (2005) used a measure of

self-efficacy to assess perceived behavioral control, finding this factor was positively related to intentions to volunteer. Warburton and Terry (2000) also found perceived behavioral control predicted intentions to volunteer. Eden and Kinnar (1991) found that increasing the self-efficacy of Israel Defense Forces inductees through verbal persuasion was related to volunteering rates for special-forces duty.

Regarding helping in general, individuals who believe their attempts to help others will be ineffective may be less likely to engage in prosocial behaviors than those who feel capable of performing these acts effectively (Dovidio, Piliavin, Gaertner, Schroeder, & Clark, 1991; Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, and Freifeld (1995) found college students who possessed higher self-efficacy for helping engaged in more helping behaviors than those who did not believe in their ability to do so. Additionally, some research has examined the relationship between work self-efficacy and citizenship performance, with findings suggesting a positive relationship (Speier & Frese, 1997; Todd & Kent, 2006). Consistent with social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), individuals with higher self-efficacy for volunteering, or for the particular volunteer task, would be more likely to intend to engage in volunteer activities. Given the role of perceived behavioral control in the TPB and findings regarding self-efficacy and prosocial behaviors, it is expected that individuals possessing higher self-efficacy to perform CV activities will possess greater intentions to do so.

Hypothesis 5: Self-efficacy for CV will be positively related to intentions to participate in CV.

Evaluation of the theory of planned behavior. Although the TPB has been successful in the explanation of many behaviors, it is not without limitations. Hagger and Armitage (2004) outline several criticisms of the theory, including an overly narrow adherence to the principle of compatibility. The principle of compatibility suggests intentions will be more strongly related to behavior when assessed at the same level of specificity in regards to the behavior, target, context, and time frame (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). It has been suggested that this boundary condition limits the generalizability and long-range predictive validity of this model (Chatzisarantis, Biddle, & Meek, 1997; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, Biddle, & Orbell, 2001). As Ajzen (2005) argues, we are rarely concerned with a level of generality specifying a particular context and a given point in time, but rather in regularities in behavior across occasions, where the action, target, and context remain fairly stable yet the time component may be broadly generalizable. However, even this level of compatibility has been criticized as limiting the practicality of the understanding and prediction of behavior, and researchers have attempted to overcome these limitations by integrating generalized motivation constructs that may be useful in the prediction of TPB constructs (e.g., Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Biddle, & Karageorghis, 2002; Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2002; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, & Harris, 2006). Indeed, Ajzen (1985) suggests the theory is open to the inclusion of other variables, if it can be shown these factors account for a significant portion of variance in intentions or behaviors once the original theorized variables have been accounted for. As seen with the inclusion of moral obligation and behavioral norms (Warburton & Terry, 2000), several researchers have suggested additional variables

which could be included in the theory to further predict behavior (see Conner & Armitage, 1998, for a review).

Greenslade and White (2005) have compared the utility of the TPB in the prediction of volunteering to that of the functional motives approach. The functional motives approach suggests that individuals engage in volunteerism to meet different motives (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Greenslade and White (2005) suggest one advantage of the functional motives approach is that it includes a broader conceptualization of not only perceived pressures from others, but perceived social benefits and norms. However, compared to the TPB, the functional approach does not include a consideration of other decision-making determinants such as behavioral costs and perceived control factors. Together, these theories incorporate benefits, costs, and control factors associated with engaging in behavior, all found to be important determinants of volunteering (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Warburton & Terry, 2000; Warburton, Terry, Rosenman, & Shapiro, 2001).

Functional Motives

Functional analysis is “concerned with the reasons and purposes, the needs and goals, the plans and motives that underlie and generate psychological phenomena” (Snyder, 1993, p. 253). That is, functional analysis focuses on the purpose behind one’s thoughts, feelings, and actions, and suggests that behavior is preceded by a cognitive evaluation of the benefits resulting from performing the behavior (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) proposed that individuals would volunteer and continue to volunteer to the extent they perceive volunteering as fulfilling primary

motivational functions or needs. According to this perspective, not only could different individuals engage in the same volunteer activity to meet different motives, but the same individual may engage in different activities to meet different motives, or the same activity could serve multiple functions (Snyder, 1993). Based on prior functional analysis research (e.g., Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956; Snyder, 1993), Clary et al. (1998) described six functional motives underlying volunteerism.

The first motive, *values*, stems from a desire to help others and contribute to society and allows the volunteer to “express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others” (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517). The next motive, *understanding*, is a desire to learn; volunteering can provide opportunities to utilize current knowledge and to gain new knowledge and skills to help others in need. The *social* function relates to a desire to conform to social pressures or spend time with one’s friends. Volunteerism may provide opportunities to engage in activities that are viewed favorably by others or to facilitate entry into desirable social groups and attainment of new social ties. The *career* function is concerned with the desire to gain career-related benefits such as résumé enhancement and job prospects or career enhancement. The *protective* function is related to ego defense concerns, whereby volunteering may serve to reduce the experience of negative feelings and guilt associated with perceptions of being more fortunate than others. Finally, the *enhancement* function of volunteering stems from a desire for growth, development, and self-improvement. Individuals may volunteer in order to improve their self-esteem and self-confidence.

The available research examining these motives has yielded inconsistent findings. For example, in a sample of college students, Mowen and Sujan (2005) found values, career, and understanding motives to be positively related to volunteer behaviors, whereas the enhancement motive was negatively related to these behaviors. Mowen and Sujan (2005) found similar results in a sample of older adults, but the career motive was not found to be related to volunteering, perhaps due to the differences between samples. This is in line with other findings indicating that career motives are stronger for younger individuals (Clary et al., 1992). Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found value-based motives, which contain an altruism component, to be positively related to volunteering with AIDS patients ten months following motive measurement. However, Omoto and Snyder (1995) found understanding, enhancement, and social functions to be positively related to the duration of AIDS volunteerism over a two and a half year period. Finally, Finkelstein, Penner, and Brannick (2005) found career motives to be negatively related to length of volunteer service, while both social and career motives were positively related to hours of time volunteered.

Although Clary et al. (1998) identified six functional motives thought to be important to volunteering, they acknowledged there may be variations in this core set of motives, dependent on the particular volunteer activity and context, which may help explain discrepancies found in the available research. Given the context of an employing organization in which CV occurs, it is likely other motives not identified in research on volunteerism in general may be important. Research on motives behind prosocial

behaviors performed in an organizational context, such as citizenship performance behaviors, may also be useful in explaining why individuals engage in CV.

Functional motives for citizenship performance. Early research regarding motives for citizenship performance generally focused on altruistic motives, or motives aimed at benefiting others in need; however egoistic motives, or those aimed at benefiting oneself, have also been identified as important to the performance of these behaviors (Zellars & Tepper, 2003). For example, some research addressing motives for engaging in citizenship performance has also taken a functional approach, identifying both altruistic and egoistic motivations for citizenship performance (e.g., Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Rioux and Penner (2001) developed a scale for assessing motives for citizenship performance, with their analyses yielding three motives for this behavior. *Prosocial values*, the first motive, is conceptually similar to the functional motive of *values* identified by Clary et al. (1998) and reflects a desire to help others. *Organizational concern* includes a desire to help the organization and stems from a sense of pride and commitment to the organization, and could also be considered a more altruistic motive. Finally, *impression management* is an egoistic motivation and concerns a desire to avoid looking bad to others in the organization and to obtain organizational rewards. In addition to Rioux and Penner (2001), several researchers have included impression management concerns in their conceptualizations and examinations of motives for citizenship performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994; Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Podsakoff &

MacKenzie, 1994). Each of these motives have been found to be positively related to ratings of citizenship performance (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Although the functional motives approach to volunteerism includes motives concerned with personal gains (e.g., social, career), organizational and impression management concerns have not been incorporated. Given that CV may be considered a form of citizenship performance, and occurs within the context of an employing organization, the general motives for citizenship performance could play a role in intentions to participate in CV.

For example, researchers have demonstrated that managers evaluate individuals who perform citizenship behaviors more favorably and that ratings of performance include both task and citizenship performance, suggesting these behaviors are in fact rewarded (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000). As such, CV may also be attributable to impression management motives, as employees perceive citizenship performance is rewarded, especially when this behavior is supported by management (Pelozo & Hassay, 2006).

Organizational concern could also play a role in CV, as this reflects a desire to be fully involved in the organization and for the organization to do well (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Engaging in citizenship performance such as CV could facilitate feelings of involvement in the company. Additionally, given the findings discussed earlier indicating socially responsible organizations tend to be viewed more positively by both internal and external constituencies and that CV may be related to business performance

(e.g., Austin, 2001; Lewin & Sabater, 1996; Walker Information, 2002), CV may also be perceived as a means to both helping the organization and creating an organization in which one feels a sense of pride and commitment. Table 1 provides a summary of the functional motives.

Table 1
Summary of Functional Motive Variables

Function:	Motive Served:
Values ^a	Express concern for others
Understanding ^a	Desire to learn and utilize skills
Social ^a	Conform to society, gain new ties
Career ^a	Enhance résumé and career opportunities
Protective ^a	Ego defense and reduction of guilt
Enhancement ^a	Personal growth and development
Organizational Concern ^b	Pride in and desire to help the organization
Impression Management ^b	Desire to avoid negative image and gain rewards

Note. ^aClary et al., 1998; ^bRioux & Penner, 2001.

Based on their relations to volunteering and prosocial organizational behaviors, it is proposed here that functional motives may serve as more generalized motivational constructs which fall along a continuum of perceived locus of causality. The incorporation of these constructs, proposed here to be related to determinants of behavior as posited by the TPB and its extensions, provides a theoretical framework for the inclusion of the contextual, attitudinal, situational, and motivational antecedents identified as important to volunteering.

Perceived Locus of Causality

Perceived locus of causality (DeCharms, 1968) has been successfully integrated into research on the TPB (e.g., Chatzisarantis et al., 1997; Chatzisarantis et al., 2002; Hagger et al., 2002; Hagger et al., 2003; Hagger et al., 2005) and may be a useful means for incorporating more generalized motivational constructs such as functional motives into the prediction of intentions and participation in CV. Given that the functional motives identified as important to volunteerism and citizenship performance do not necessarily correspond to a specific behavior, target, or time frame, these more general motives may be useful in predicting determinants of intentions to engage in the specific behavior of CV.

Vallerand (1997) has proposed a hierarchical model of self-determined motivation in which global motivations influence contextual-level motivations, which in turn influence situational motivation to participate in a given behavior in a given situation. In this top-down model, motivation at the global level refers to stable, trait-like individual differences that influence motivation, such as personality and psychological need satisfaction. At the contextual level, individuals form motivational orientations toward a particular sphere of activity such as work, education, or leisure activities. For example, contextual-level motivation in the case of volunteering would refer to motivation to participate in any type of volunteering on any occasion in the context of that behavioral family (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002). Situational motivation refers to motivation toward a specific activity and is considered to be more state-like, influenced by environmental factors in addition to the influence of contextual motivation.

Contextual-level motivation is typically characterized along a continuum of regulatory styles ranging from internal to external (DeCharms, 1968; Ryan & Connell, 1989). This continuum is known as the perceived locus of causality (PLOC) and reflects the degree of perceived autonomy of a behavior. Ryan and Connell (1989) suggest individual's reasons or motives for engaging in a particular behavior can be placed along this continuum. Four constructs have been posited to lie adjacent to each other on the continuum. At the internal, or high perceived autonomy end of the continuum, lie behaviors that are intrinsically motivated, or behaviors that are engaged in purely out of interest or enjoyment and pleasure, with no discernible reinforcement in place. Adjacent to this lies *identified* regulation, or those behaviors stemming from personally held values or goals such as learning new skills, which may result in a sense of pride or satisfaction. Next falls *introjected* regulation, or behaviors engaged in for reasons of perceived demands or expectations of external forces, in order to avoid feelings of guilt or shame or gain self- or other-approval (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Also at this extrinsic end of the continuum falls *external* regulation, or reasons for behavior characterized by feelings of force due to external agents such as gaining rewards or avoiding punishment.

One key feature of these motives is that they are operationalized as general orientations towards particular behaviors relevant to a contextual domain and typically do not make reference to specific instances of behavior (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Therefore, as contextual-level motivations, the motives comprising the PLOC continuum are conceptually more general, and less tied to the principle of compatibility, than are the attitudes, norms, and perceptions of control in the TPB. As several studies suggest, the

more generalized motives may be useful in predicting these more situational-level decision-making constructs. For example, research indicates PLOC influences behavior and intentions to participate in leisure-time physical activity through a sequence from generalized motives surrounding physical activity to the determinants of intentions and behavior of leisure-time physical activity as suggested by the TPB (e.g., Chatzisarantis et al., 2002; Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2002; Hagger et al., 2003; Hagger et al., 2006).

In one such study, Hagger et al. (2002) found attitudes and perceived behavioral control mediated the relationship between intrinsic and identified motives and intentions. Although these motives were also significantly related to subjective norms, subjective norms did not predict intentions. In a similar study, Hagger and Armitage (2004) found attitudes and subjective norms partially mediated the relationship between intrinsic and identified motives and intentions. Finally, Hagger et al. (2006) examined contextual-level autonomous motivation (a single index formed by assigning weights based on relative levels of autonomy to each of the PLOC constructs), finding both direct and indirect effects on intentions through attitudes and perceived behavioral control in the context of exercise, and an indirect effect, again mediated by attitudes and perceived behavioral control, in the context of dieting. In both cases, intentions significantly predicted behavior. Subjective norms were not found to predict intentions in the context of exercise, but were positively related to intentions in the context of dieting.

Although these studies present mixed findings with regards to both the PLOC and TPB constructs, they suggest PLOC may be useful in supplementing proposed

shortcomings in the TPB and vice-versa (Hagger et al., 2003). Additionally, one reason for these mixed findings may be due to differing samples and contexts. As Ajzen (1985) suggested, the relative impact of the TPB variables is likely to differ across samples and contexts, as may also be the case with PLOC. Given that general motives important to the behaviors of volunteering and citizenship performance have already been identified, it may be useful to align these motives along the PLOC continuum. Specifically, based on the conceptual definitions of each of the functional motives discussed earlier and the reasons or motives for engaging in a particular behavior identified by PLOC, it may be possible to link these constructs in order to better test the proposed framework to help explain why individuals participate in CV.

Perceived Locus of Causality and Functional Motives

In their study examining reasons for acting in the domain of prosocial behavior, Ryan and Connell (1989) suggest that PLOC is relevant for prosocial acts, as external, introjected, and identified reasons for engaging in prosocial behavior have all been recognized. They did not include intrinsic motives in their study, stating that engaging in these behaviors because they were fun or enjoyable did not make sense in the context of their survey; however their study focused on general prosocial behaviors (e.g., refraining from hitting, keeping a promise) among elementary school children as opposed to the more specific prosocial behavior of volunteering. Additionally, consistent with Ryan and Connell's (1989) claim that the proximity of intrinsic regulation and identified regulation along the PLOC continuum often results in strong correlations between the two, some researchers have collapsed these two dimensions into one (e.g., Hagger & Armitage,

2004; Hagger et al., 2002). Furthermore, of the functional motives identified as important to volunteering and citizenship performance, none appear to meet the characteristics of intrinsic motivation as defined by PLOC. Despite this, it is suggested here that intrinsic motives are relevant in the context of volunteering, however identified and intrinsic motives will be collapsed into one dimension for this study.

Identified regulation. Given that identified regulation captures reasons for behavior based on one's personally held values, the functional motive of *values*, characterized by personally held values regarding helping others, could be an identified reason for volunteering. Additionally, as identification also reflects behavior due to one's goals, such as learning new skills, *understanding* may be characterized as an identified reason for engaging in volunteerism. Similarly, the desire for personal growth and development (*enhancement* function) may fall in this category. Finally, *organizational concern* may be considered an identified reason for volunteering, as this motive is characterized by the valuing of an organization and desire to be part of an organization in which one feels a sense of pride and satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: (a) Values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern functional motives will be positively related to the PLOC dimension of identified regulation.

Introjected regulation. Introjected reasons for behavior reflect perceptions of external forces and the avoidance of feelings of guilt and shame. Therefore, the *social* function, or volunteering to conform to social pressures may be considered an introjected

reason for volunteering. Additionally, *protective* motives, or volunteering to reduce feelings of guilt and shame may be characterized as introjected regulation.

Hypothesis 7: (a) Social and (b) protective functional motives will be positively related to the PLOC dimension of introjected regulation.

External regulation. Externally regulated reasons for behavior occur due to perceptions of external forces instrumental in providing reinforcement such as rewards. Thus, *career* motives, or volunteering to gain career-related benefits and enhance one's career opportunities may be considered externally regulated motives for volunteering. Finally, *impression management* motives may also be considered externally regulated motives, as individuals holding these motives engage in behaviors they perceive will be rewarded and further their careers.

Hypothesis 8: (a) Career and (b) impression management functional motives will be positively related to the PLOC dimension of external regulation.

Integration of Theories

Based on Vallerand's (1997) work and findings integrating PLOC and the TPB (Chatzisarantis et al., 2002; Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2002; Hagger et al., 2003; Hagger et al., 2006), it is proposed that PLOC in the context of volunteering will influence CV intentions and behavior through the mediation of the belief-based determinants of intentions included in the TPB and its extensions. Figure 1 depicts the proposed relationships between the PLOC, functional motives, and TPB variables.

Although many of the studies cited above did not examine external or introjected regulation, Hagger et al. (2003) found that external regulation positively related to

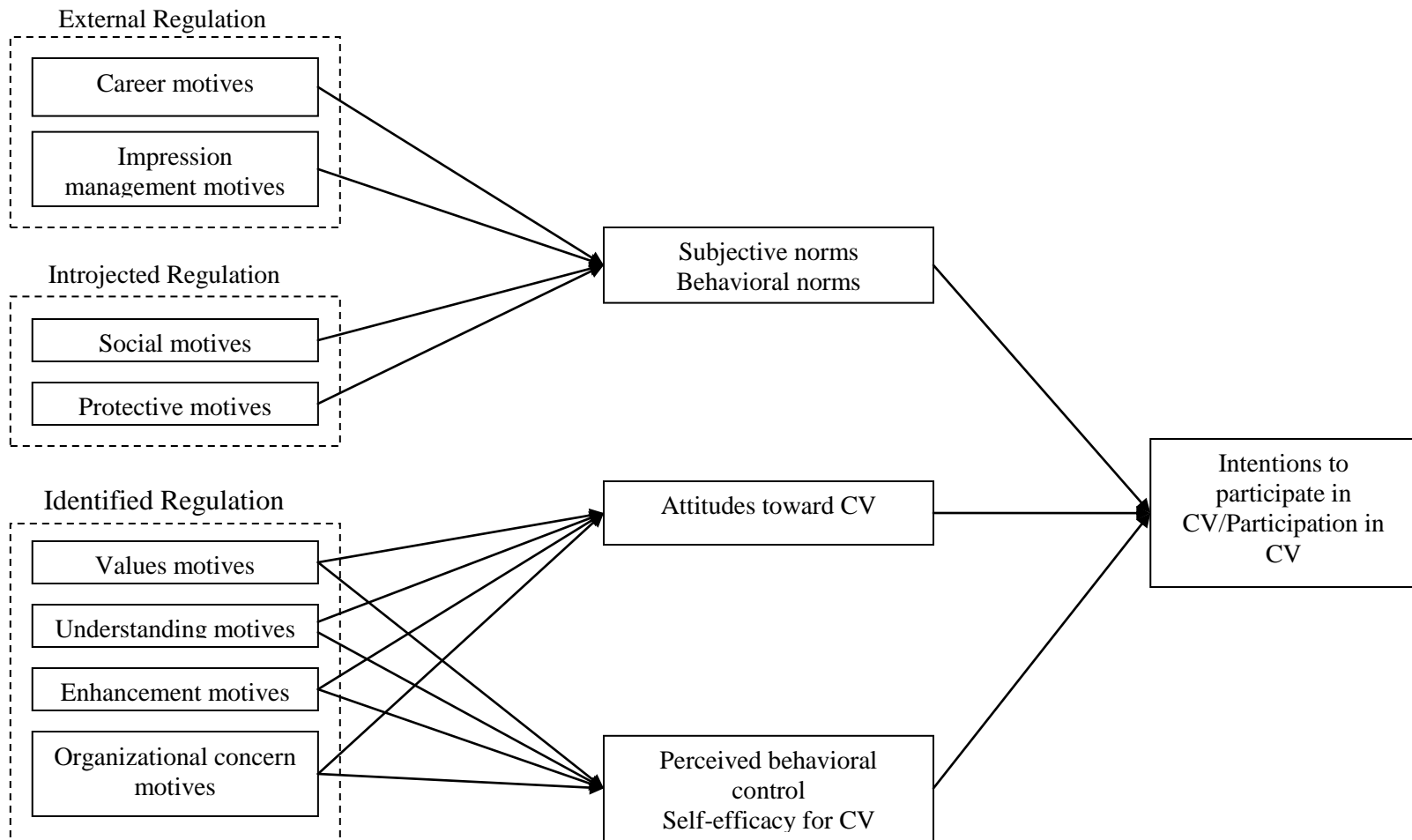


Figure 1. Hypothesized relationships between the perceived locus of causality, functional motives, and theory of planned behavior variables.

subjective norms, whereas Hagger and Armitage (2004) found that external regulation was negatively related to attitudes and perceived behavioral control. This general lack of consistent findings may again be due to the context. As Hagger and Armitage (2004) suggest, their behavior of interest, leisure-time physical activity among adolescents, is unlikely to be motivated by external regulation, as this type of behavior is rarely rewarded or punished other than in the context of sports teams. In the context of volunteerism, where the possibility of extrinsic rewards and feelings of guilt and shame due to perceived pressures from others exists, it is quite possible this behavior could be motivated by external and introjected regulation. Therefore, because subjective norms reflect social pressures from significant others to engage in a target behavior, it is proposed that external regulation (impression management and career motives) and introjected regulation (social and protective motives) will be positively related to subjective norms, and subjective norms are expected to mediate the relationships between these motives and intentions to participate in CV. Furthermore, because these motives reflect pressures to comply as opposed to personal agency, they are not expected to be related to attitudes and perceived behavioral control.

Additionally, as the true nature of the relationship among functional motives and PLOC is unknown, an exploratory question is whether these variables function similarly and whether, in fact, the functional motives are manifestations of the PLOC dimensions as hypothesized. Given the cross-sectional nature of this study, it is not possible to address whether functional motives give rise to PLOC or vice-versa. However, in addition to examining the relationships between the functional motives and TPB

variables, the relationships between the PLOC dimensions and TPB variables will also be examined.

Hypothesis 9: (a) External and (b) introjected regulation will be positively related to (1) subjective and (2) behavioral norms.

Hypothesis 10: (a) Impression management, (b) career, (c) social, and (d) protective motives will be positively related to (1) subjective and (2) behavioral norms.

Hypothesis 11: (1) Subjective and (2) behavioral norms will mediate the relationship between (a) external and (b) introjected regulation and intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 12: (1) Subjective and (2) behavioral norms will mediate the relationship between (a) impression management, (b) career, (c) social, and (d) protective motives and intentions to participate in CV.

It is also expected that identified regulation (values, understanding, enhancement, and organizational concern motives) will be positively related to attitudes toward CV and perceived behavioral control. These more autonomous motives have been suggested to act as sources of information in the formation of attitudes and perceptions of perceived behavioral control (Chatzisarantis et al., 2002). Given that identified and intrinsic motives reflect personal values and agency, individuals likely draw upon this contextual information when engaging in decision making prior to behavioral engagement, thus influencing the formation of specific attitudes and beliefs regarding perceived behavioral control (Hagger & Armitage, 2004). Finally, it is expected that

attitudes and perceived behavioral control will mediate the relationships between these motives and intentions to engage in CV.

Hypothesis 13: Identified regulation will be positively related to attitudes toward CV.

Hypothesis 14: Identified regulation will be positively related to (a) perceived behavioral control and (b) self-efficacy for CV.

Hypothesis 15: (a) Values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives will be positively related to attitudes toward CV.

Hypothesis 16: (a) Values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives will be positively related to (1) perceived behavioral control and (2) self-efficacy for CV.

Hypothesis 17: Attitudes toward CV will mediate the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 18: (a) Perceived behavioral control and (b) self-efficacy for CV will mediate the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 19: Attitudes toward CV will mediate the relationship between (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 20: (1) Perceived behavioral control and (2) self-efficacy for CV will mediate the relationship between (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV.

METHOD

Power Analysis

To test the proposed hypotheses included in the conceptual model presented above, an *a priori* power analysis was conducted to ensure data were gathered from an adequate number of participants. Although a literature search revealed no studies examining the multivariate relationships between the hypothesized study variables, it has been suggested as reasonable to assume at least a medium effect size (e.g., $R^2 = .09$) for TPB studies using a multiple regression approach (Francis et al., 2004), and studies incorporating PLOC and the TPB in the context of physical activity have yielded much larger effect sizes ($R^2 = .30$; e.g., Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Smith, & Sage, 2006). With this in mind, in order to detect a moderate effect with an assumed power level of .80 and a significance level of .05, it was estimated that approximately 135 participants would be needed.

Participants

Participants were employees of two organizations that offer support for employee volunteerism in the community; a small mid-western construction company (Organization A; $n = 40$; 29.3% response rate), and a large provider of technology to non-profit organizations (Organization B; $n = 70$; 6% response rate). Of the first sample, 47.5% were male and the largest reported ethnic group was Caucasian (95%), followed by African-American/Black (5%). Ages ranged from 20 to 62 years, with an average age of 37.59 ($SD = 11.76$). In terms of marital status, 68% of the participants were married and 55% of the sample reported having at least one child living at home. A majority of

the participants had completed a college degree (65%). Tenure with the organization ranged from 1 month to 40 years ($M = 5.68$ years, $SD = 8.04$ years). Employees reported working an average of 42.91 hours per week ($SD = 10.99$).

Of the participants employed in Organization B, 21.4% were male. The majority of participants indicated Caucasian as their ethnic group (87.1%), followed by African-American/Black (2.9%) and Asian-American (2.9%). Ages ranged from 23 to 55 ($M = 33.64$, $SD = 8.05$). The majority of participants reported being married (55%) and 33% of the sample reported having at least one child living at home. A majority of the participants had completed a college degree (64%). Tenure with the organization ranged from 1 month to 16 years ($M = 4.45$ years, $SD = 3.63$ years). Employees reported working an average of 43.57 hours per week ($SD = 5.31$).

Procedure

In Organization A, employees were sent an email from the organization's director of human resources briefly describing the study, requesting participation, and providing a hyperlink to the web-based survey. The employees were given four weeks to complete the confidential survey, with multiple reminders sent via email. In Organization B, a brief announcement of the study providing a link to the survey was included in a bimonthly employee email newsletter, with multiple reminder postings. To encourage employees to participate in the study, a random drawing for the chance to win one of six \$25 gift cards was held.

Participants first completed the demographic items followed by the personality items. Next participants completed information regarding their volunteer activities,

including participation in CV activities. Following this, participants completed the items assessing behavioral norms, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV. Attitudes toward CV were assessed next, followed by functional motives for volunteering and citizenship performance, and finally perceived locus of causality. Following this, participants were given the option of providing an email address in order to enter into the random drawing.

Measures

The complete list of items for each of the following measures is located in Appendix A.

Theory of Planned Behavior Variables

Items measuring the TPB constructs were developed in accordance with procedures suggested by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). Items were modified to reflect the context of CV.

Participation in CV was assessed by asking participants to report the frequency of participation in company-supported volunteer activities over the past year. Response options ranged from 0 (*never*) to 5 (*more than once a week*).

Intentions to participate in CV were assessed using four items developed in accordance with TPB suggestions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). These items ask participants to indicate on a five-point scale how strongly they agree or disagree that they plan to, expect to, would like to, and intend to participate in company-supported volunteer activities over the next year. Responses to the four items were averaged to create a composite intentions score. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .97.

Attitudes toward CV were assessed in response to a common stem, “Company-supported volunteer activities in the community are...” In accordance with development instructions for TPB items (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), six seven-point semantic differential response scales were used, including “Good – Bad,” “Exciting – Boring,” “Pleasant – Unpleasant,” “Useful – Worthless,” “Harmful – Beneficial,” and “Satisfying – Unsatisfying.” All responses, with the exception of “Harmful – Beneficial,” were reverse scored so higher values indicate more positive attitudes toward CV and responses were averaged to obtain an overall attitudes score. Coefficient alpha for these six items was .87.

Subjective norms were assessed with ten items developed in accordance with Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) guidelines. Participants were asked to indicate on a five-point scale how much they agree or disagree that coworkers and their supervisor would “want me to” and “think I should” participate in company-supported volunteering over the next year. Additionally, participants were asked how strongly they agree or disagree that employees are expected and encouraged to volunteer their time in the community through company-supported activities. Responses were averaged to obtain an overall subjective norms score. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .86.

Behavioral norms were assessed with five items adapted from Grube et al. (1986) and Warburton and Terry (2000). Participants were asked “how likely do you think it is that the following people or groups will participate in company-supported volunteering over the next year?: supervisor, coworkers, spouse/partner, family, close friends.” Response options range from 1 (*extremely unlikely*) to 5 (*extremely likely*). These

responses were averaged to create an overall assessment of behavioral norms experienced by the participant. Coefficient alpha for these items was .60.

Perceived behavioral control was assessed using three items developed based on TPB guidelines. These items asked participants to indicate how much control they have over their ability and decision to participate in company-supported volunteering over the next year. Two items were reverse scored so higher values indicated greater perceived behavioral control, and responses on the three items were averaged to create a composite perceived behavioral control score. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .86.

Self-efficacy for CV was measured with two items developed in accordance with TPB guidelines, adapted from Greenslade and White (2005). These items asked participants how confident they are in their ability to participate in company-supported volunteering over the next year and how easy or difficult this participation would be. The items were reverse scored so higher values indicated greater self-efficacy for CV, and responses on the two items were averaged to obtain a composite self-efficacy score. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .93.

Functional Motives

Six of the functional motives were assessed using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (Clary et al., 1998). This 30-item measure asks participants to rate their motives for volunteering based on personal importance. This measure included values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement motives. Each motive was assessed with five items and responses to those items were averaged to obtain an overall score for each motive. Clary et al. (1998) report coefficient alphas ranging from .82 to

.85 for the six functional motives. Sample items include, “I feel it is important to help others” (values; $\alpha = .88$), “volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience” (understanding; $\alpha = .80$), “people I’m close to want me to volunteer” (social; $\alpha = .83$), “volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession” (career; $\alpha = .84$), “doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others” (protective; $\alpha = .75$), and “volunteering increases my self-esteem” (enhancement; $\alpha = .78$). Scale responses range from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*extremely important*).

Organizational concern and impression management functional motives were each assessed using the appropriate subscales of the Citizenship Motives Scale developed by Rioux and Penner (2001). For this study, eight items measuring organizational concern and nine items measuring impression management were used. This measure asks participants to “indicate how important each of the following possible reasons are/would be for you to participate in volunteer work,” with response options ranging from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*extremely important*). Sample organizational concern items include, “Because I want to be fully involved in the organization,” and “Because I am committed to the organization.” Sample impression management items include, “Because rewards are important to me,” and “To impress my coworkers.” Responses were averaged to yield composite scores for each of the two functional motives. Rioux and Penner (2001) report average Cronbach’s alphas of .93 for organizational concern and .89 for impression management. For this study, the

coefficient alphas were .93 for organizational concern and .95 for impression management.

Perceived Locus of Causality

Perceived locus of causality was measured using a modified version of the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Several versions of this questionnaire exist concerning the reasons why individuals engage in activities. Items that were not redundant across these scales and which could be modified to reflect why an adult might engage in volunteerism were retained, resulting in a total of 20 items. Responses were averaged to create separate composite PLOC scores for external, introjected, and identified/intrinsic regulation. Following the stem, “There are a variety of reasons why people participate in volunteer work. Please indicate how true each of these reasons are for why you participate/would participate in volunteer work,” participants were asked to indicate their responses on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 5 (*very true*).

Six items reflect external reasons for engaging in a behavior, and a sample item includes, “Because others praise me and make me feel good when I volunteer.” Six items reflect introjected regulation, and a sample item includes, “Because I feel pressured to volunteer.” Eight items assess identified/intrinsic reasons for engaging in the behavior specified, and a sample item includes, “Because I have a strong value for volunteering.” The coefficient alphas for this study were .77 for external regulation, .78 for introjected regulation, and .96 for identified regulation.

Control Variables

Demographics. Demographic variables, including sex, age, marital status, ethnic/racial identity, level of education, number of children living at home, and ages of children, all found to be related to volunteerism in previous studies, were collected from the participants. Participants were also asked to report their tenure with the organization, and average hours worked per week.

Personality. Conscientiousness and Agreeableness were assessed using the Mini-International Personality Item Pool (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006). Each of these factors is composed of four items. Participants are asked to “describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age.” Sample items for Conscientiousness include “get chores done right away” and “like order.” Sample items for Agreeableness include “sympathize with others’ feelings” and “feel others’ emotions.” Responses were made on a 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 5 (*very accurate*) scale. For this study, the coefficient alphas for Agreeableness and Conscientiousness were .71 and .67, respectively.

RESULTS

Initial Analyses

Initial analyses were conducted to screen for missing data, univariate and multivariate outliers, and to test relevant analytical assumptions through an examination of measures of central tendency, variability, and shape of the distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Tukey, 1977). Table 2 depicts descriptive statistics, correlations, and coefficient alphas for the variables of interest. Tables 3 and 4 present descriptive statistics and correlations for Organizations A and B separately. Because data were collected from two separate organizations, independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine any differences that might be attributable to sample location. T-tests revealed significant differences between the samples regarding sex ($t_{(108)} = -2.93, p < .01$), age ($t_{(104)} = 2.05, p < .01$), marital status ($t_{(107)} = -2.11, p < .05$), and level of education ($t_{(108)} = -3.37, p < .01$). Additionally, differences were found by location for participation in CV ($t_{(108)} = -2.70, p < .01$), such that participants employed in Organization B engaged in more CV than those in Organization A. Participants employed in Organization B also reported significantly greater intentions to participate, more positive attitudes toward CV, greater subjective norms for CV, higher values and understanding motives, and higher identified regulation than employees of Organization A.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Correlations for Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Location	-	-	-									
2. Sex	-	-	.27**	-								
3. Age	35.09	9.72	-.20*	-.08	-							
4. Participation in CV	2.35	1.12	.25**	.31**	-.07	-						
5. Intentions	4.15	.89	.22*	.18	-.32**	.42**	(.97)					
6. Attitudes toward CV	5.77	.88	.30**	.07	-.11	.22*	.45**	(.87)				
7. Subjective norms	3.34	.57	.28**	-.07	-.03	.18	.45**	.35**	(.86)			
8. Behavioral norms	3.36	.78	.10	.11	-.09	.16	.35**	.22*	.30**	(.60)		
9. Perceived behavioral control	3.80	1.09	.05	-.03	-.13	.30**	.56**	.30**	.32**	.18	(.86)	
10. Self-efficacy for CV	5.26	1.57	.21*	.04	-.24*	.37**	.60**	.32**	.37**	.22*	.72**	(.93)
11. Values	4.34	.69	.31**	.38**	-.23*	.18	.33**	.34**	.21*	.19*	.14	.20*
12. Understanding	3.62	.82	.28**	.32**	-.24*	.23*	.37**	.39**	.28**	.16	.20*	.20*
13. Enhancement	2.91	.93	.05	.11	-.11	.16	.27**	.20*	.31**	.08	.14	.10
14. Protective	2.27	.84	-.03	.15	-.03	.06	.05	.03	.04	.02	.03	-.04
15. Social	2.87	.93	.02	-.01	-.08	.10	.23*	.10	.45**	.23*	.17	.25**
16. Career	2.23	.99	.14	.14	-.16	.08	.09	.02	.20*	.07	.17	.13
17. Impression management	1.89	1.00	.06	-.20*	-.25**	-.12	-.09	-.16	-.01	-.03	-.14	.02
18. Organizational concern	3.98	.88	.02	.10	-.25**	.25**	.41**	.17	.23*	.09	.13	.17
19. External regulation	1.34	.48	.13	-.06	-.29**	.01	.13	-.01	.05	.05	-.03	.04
20. Introjected regulation	1.78	.71	.14	.10	-.19	.08	.12	.07	.11	-.10	-.04	-.03
21. Identified regulation	3.45	1.12	.37**	.32**	-.14	.30**	.39**	.41**	.26**	.14	.13	.24*

Table 2
Continued

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Location											
2. Sex											
3. Age											
4. Participation in CV											
5. Intentions											
6. Attitudes toward CV											
7. Subjective norms											
8. Behavioral norms											
9. Perceived behavioral control											
10. Self-efficacy for CV											
11. Values	(.88)										
12. Understanding	.60**	(.80)									
13. Enhancement	.30**	.53**	(.78)								
14. Protective	.20*	.42**	.63**	(.75)							
15. Social	.27**	.31**	.46**	.28**	(.83)						
16. Career	.10	.39**	.46**	.46**	.36**	(.84)					
17. Impression management	-.25**	-.12	.19	.16	.11	.14	(.95)				
18. Organizational concern	.37**	.38**	.18	.09	.09	.02	.11	(.93)			
19. External regulation	.00	.16	.27**	.22*	.05	.22*	.37**	.08	(.77)		
20. Introjected regulation	.32**	.35**	.47**	.43**	.20*	.24*	.11	.14	.50**	(.78)	
21. Identified regulation	.69**	.60**	.16	.08	.15	.06	-.28**	.42**	.07	.39**	(.96)

Note. N = 110. Coefficient alphas reported on the diagonal for all composite variables.

Location: Organization A = 1; Organization B = 2. Sex: male = 1; female = 2. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 3
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Organization A

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Sex	-	-										
2. Age	37.59	11.76	-.16									
3. Participation in CV	1.97	.83	.46**	-.27								
4. Intentions	3.89	.81	.14	-.57**	.52**							
5. Attitudes toward CV	5.41	1.03	-.11	-.15	.00	.31						
6. Subjective norms	3.13	.50	-.24	.05	.04	.33*	.27					
7. Behavioral norms	3.26	.77	.13	-.18	.06	.30	.17	.18				
8. Perceived behavioral control	3.73	1.07	.04	-.19	.20	.50**	.15	.16	.33*			
9. Self-efficacy for CV	4.84	1.45	.03	-.19	.40*	.58**	.03	.06	.24	.63**		
10. Values	4.06	.74	.27	-.44**	.31*	.48**	.32	.22	.26	.20	.13	
11. Understanding	3.32	.95	.29	-.42**	.39*	.41**	.29	.20	.21	.08	.04	.56**
12. Enhancement	2.85	.88	.19	-.31	.21	.20	.27	.30	.17	.01	-.16	.50**
13. Protective	2.31	.89	.22	-.06	.04	.07	.11	.20	.19	.02	-.18	.25
14. Social	2.85	.73	.06	-.19	.13	.27	.12	.32*	.16	.16	.14	.29
15. Career	2.05	.93	.22	-.13	-.03	-.13	-.09	.05	.28	-.10	-.15	.09
16. Impression management	1.81	1.06	-.18	-.05	-.17	-.35*	-.21	-.25	-.10	-.16	-.02	-.24
17. Organizational concern	3.95	.93	.04	-.46**	.37*	.53**	.19	.21	.05	.10	.22	.64**
18. External regulation	1.26	.49	-.10	-.41**	-.12	.07	.00	-.07	.26	-.05	.09	-.05
19. Introjected regulation	1.65	.72	-.02	-.47**	-.03	.23	.10	.14	.04	-.08	.00	.35*
20. Identified regulation	2.90	1.27	.22	-.28	.45**	.61**	.38*	.27	.16	.14	.28	.67**

Table 3
Continued

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Sex										
2. Age										
3. Participation in CV										
4. Intentions										
5. Attitudes toward CV										
6. Subjective norms										
7. Behavioral norms										
8. Perceived behavioral control										
9. Self-efficacy for CV										
10. Values										
11. Understanding										
12. Enhancement	.74**									
13. Protective	.60**	.73**								
14. Social	.50**	.54**	.49**							
15. Career	.38*	.61**	.71**	.39*						
16. Impression management	.00	.26	.27	.24	.35*					
17. Organizational concern	.51**	.39*	.15	.27	-.01	.08				
18. External regulation	.20	.21	.09	.00	.31*	.20	-.01			
19. Introjected regulation	.43**	.33*	.34*	.17	.16	.02	.29	.53**		
20. Identified regulation	.58**	.28	.17	.15	-.02	-.42**	.60**	.11	.43**	

Note. $N = 40$. Sex: male = 1; female = 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Organization B

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Sex	-	-										
2. Age	33.64	8.05	.12									
3. Participation in CV	2.56	1.21	.18	.12								
4. Intentions	4.30	.91	.13	-.11	.34**							
5. Attitudes toward CV	5.96	.72	.09	.01	.26*	.50**						
6. Subjective norms	3.46	.58	-.11	.01	.15	.45**	.32**					
7. Behavioral norms	3.42	.79	.06	.00	.18	.35**	.22	.34**				
8. Perceived behavioral control	3.84	1.11	-.10	-.08	.33**	.59**	.41**	.39**	.10			
9. Self-efficacy for CV	5.51	1.59	-.05	-.24	.32**	.59**	.45**	.46**	.19	.77**		
10. Values	4.50	.61	.37**	.09	.01	.16	.24*	.09	.11	.08	.15	
11. Understanding	3.80	.68	.24*	.08	.07	.28*	.39**	.24*	.09	.28*	.24*	.56**
12. Enhancement	2.95	.96	.04	.06	.13	.29*	.14	.31*	.03	.21	.21	.18
13. Protective	2.26	.81	.13	-.01	.08	.06	-.01	-.03	-.07	.04	.05	.20
14. Social	2.89	1.03	-.06	-.02	.08	.21	.08	.52**	.26*	.17	.30*	.28*
15. Career	2.33	1.02	.03	-.15	.08	.14	.02	.22	-.05	.30*	.23	.05
16. Impression management	1.94	.98	-.26*	-.41**	-.13	.02	-.18	.09	.00	-.13	.03	-.32**
17. Organizational concern	3.99	.85	.13	-.05	.21	.36**	.16	.25*	.11	.15	.13	.20
18. External regulation	1.39	.46	-.10	-.15	.01	.11	-.09	.06	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.03
19. Introjected regulation	1.86	.70	.13	.09	.07	.03	-.02	.04	-.20	-.04	-.09	.25*
20. Identified regulation	3.76	.89	.26*	.20	.13	.16	.29*	.11	.09	.11	.11	.63**

Table 4
Continued

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Sex										
2. Age										
3. Participation in CV										
4. Intentions										
5. Attitudes toward CV										
6. Subjective norms										
7. Behavioral norms										
8. Perceived behavioral control										
9. Self-efficacy for CV										
10. Values										
11. Understanding										
12. Enhancement	.42**									
13. Protective	.32**	.58**								
14. Social	.24*	.43**	.20							
15. Career	.39**	.38**	.33**	.35**						
16. Impression management	-.28*	.14	.09	.06	.02					
17. Organizational concern	.28*	.06	.05	.01	.04	.13				
18. External regulation	.08	.29*	.31**	.06	.15	.47**	.13			
19. Introjected regulation	.25*	.55**	.50**	.21	.26*	.15	.04	.47**		
20. Identified regulation	.53**	.06	.04	.17	.03	-.25*	.32**	-.05	.32**	

Note. $N = 70$. Sex: male = 1; female = 2.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Correlations Among the Functional Motives

Correlations among the functional motives scales were examined to determine whether they followed a pattern suggested by their proposed relationship with the PLOC continuum. The motives expected to reflect the same PLOC dimension should be more highly correlated with each other than with those motives expected to reflect the other dimensions. Additionally, motives expected to reflect adjacent dimensions on the PLOC continuum should correlate more highly than non-adjacent motives.

Career and impression management motives were both suggested to reflect external regulation. Contrary to expectations, career motives were not significantly related to impression management motives ($r = .14, p > .05$). Career motives were significantly related to both social ($r = .36, p < .001$) and protective ($r = .46, p < .001$) motives. These motives were suggested to reflect introjected regulation, which lies adjacent to external regulation on the PLOC continuum. Also contrary to expectations, career motives were significantly related to understanding ($r = .39, p < .001$) and enhancement ($r = .46, p < .001$) motives, which were suggested to reflect identified regulation, and would therefore not be expected to display strong relationships with a motive reflecting external regulation. Career motives were not related to values ($r = .10, p > .05$) or organizational concern motives ($r = .02, p > .05$), as would be expected. Regarding impression management, this variable was significantly related to values motives ($r = -.25, p < .01$); this relationship was negative as might be expected. Impression management was not related to the remaining motives.

Social and protective motives, both posited to reflect introjected regulation, were significantly related ($r = .28, p < .01$), however this correlation was not as strong as the relationships between each of these motives and career motives. Both social ($r = .27, p < .01$) and protective ($r = .20, p < .05$) motives were significantly related to values motives. Furthermore, social motives were related to both understanding ($r = .31, p < .01$) and enhancement ($r = .46, p < .001$) motives; these relationships are also much stronger than the relationship between social and protective motives. A similar finding was observed for protective motives and each of understanding ($r = .42, p < .01$) and enhancement ($r = .63, p < .001$) motives. Neither social nor protective motives were related to organizational concern.

Finally, of the motives expected to reflect identified regulation, values motives were significantly related to understanding ($r = .60, p < .001$), enhancement ($r = .30, p < .01$), and organizational concern ($r = .37, p < .001$) motives. As expected, these relationships were stronger than those displayed by values motives with any of the remaining motives. Understanding motives were significantly related to enhancement motives ($r = .53, p < .001$) and organizational concern ($r = .39, p < .001$). With the exception of the relationships between understanding and both career and protective motives, these relationships are stronger than those found between understanding and motives expected to reflect differing PLOC dimensions. Contrary to expectations, enhancement motives were not related to organizational concern motives.

In sum, of the suggested externally regulated motives, career motives appear to be related to both suggested introjected and identified motives, whereas impression

management motives were only negatively related to a suggested identified motive. Furthermore, both social and protective motives demonstrate stronger than expected relationships with motives suggested to reflect external and identified regulation. In general, of the suggested identified motives, values, understanding, and organizational concern motives demonstrate the expected pattern of relationships. Enhancement motives displayed stronger relationships with those motives suggested to reflect external and introjected regulations, suggesting this motive may not be reflective of identified regulation.

An examination of the correlations among the PLOC dimensions reveals the expected pattern of results. Introjected regulation was significantly related to both external regulation ($r = .50, p < .001$) and identified regulation ($r = .39, p < .001$), but identified and external regulation were not correlated.

Control Variables

Age served as a control variable in all regression analyses with intentions to participate in CV as the outcome of interest. As discussed above, this variable has been found to be related to volunteerism in previous studies and demonstrated a significant negative relationship with intentions to participate in CV. Sex (male = 1, female = 2) served as a control variable in all regression analyses for participation in CV, as this variable has also been found to be related to volunteerism and was significantly positively related to participation in CV in this study. The remaining suggested control variables were not significantly related to the dependent variables and therefore were not included in the analyses (Becker, 2005). Additionally, location (Organization A = 1,

Organization B = 2) was used as a control variable in all regression analyses as the two samples were found to differ significantly on several of the variables of interest. These steps ensure the results are conservative.

Hypotheses

Table 5 presents an overview of the results for each hypothesis. Figure 2 depicts the significant relationships among the PLOC, functional motives, and TPB variables.

Table 5
Overview of Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis:	Finding:
H1: Attitudes positively related to intentions	s
Attitudes positively related to behavior	ns
H2: Subjective norms positively related to intentions	s
Subjective norms positively related to behavior	ns
H3: Behavioral norms positively related to intentions	s
Behavioral norms positively related to behavior	ns
H4: Perceived behavioral control positively related to intentions	s
Perceived behavioral control positively related to behavior	s
H5: Self-efficacy positively related to intentions	s
Self-efficacy positively related to behavior	s
H6a: Values motives positively related to identified regulation	s
H6b: Understanding motives positively related to identified regulation	s
H6c: Enhancement motives positively related to identified regulation	ns
H6d: Organizational concern positively related to identified regulation	s
H7a: Social motives positively related to introjected regulation	s
H7b: Protective motives positively related to introjected regulation	s
H8a: Career motives positively related to external regulation	s
H8b: Impression management positively related to external regulation	s

Table 5

Continued

H9a1: External regulation positively related to subjective norms	ns
H9a2: External regulation positively related to behavioral norms	ns
H9b1: Introjected regulation positively related to subjective norms	ns
H9b2: Introjected regulation positively related to behavioral norms	ns
H10a1: Impression management positively related to subjective norms	ns
H10a2: Impression management positively related to behavioral norms	ns
H10b1: Career motives positively related to subjective norms	s
H10b2: Career motives positively related to behavioral norms	ns
H10c1: Social motives positively related to subjective norms	s
H10c2: Social motives positively related to behavioral norms	s
H10d1: Protective motives positively related to subjective norms	ns
H10d2: Protective motives positively related to behavioral norms	ns
H11a1: Subjective norms mediates external regulation and intentions	∅
Subjective norms mediates external regulation and behavior	∅
H11a2: Behavioral norms mediates external regulation and intentions	∅
Behavioral norms mediates external regulation and behavior	∅
H11b1: Subjective norms mediates introjected regulation and intentions	∅
Subjective norms mediates introjected regulation and behavior	∅
H11b2: Behavioral norms mediates introjected regulation and intentions	∅
Behavioral norms mediates introjected regulation and behavior	∅
H12a1: Subjective norms mediates impression management and intentions	∅
Subjective norms mediates impression management and behavior	∅
H12a2: Behavioral norms mediates impression management and intentions	∅
Behavioral norms mediates impression management and behavior	∅
H12b1: Subjective norms mediates career motives and intentions	∅
Subjective norms mediates career motives and behavior	∅
H12b2: Behavioral norms mediates career motives and intentions	∅
Behavioral norms mediates career motives and behavior	∅

Table 5

Continued

H12c1: Subjective norms mediates social motives and intentions	Full
Subjective norms mediates social motives and behavior	∅
H12c2: Behavioral norms mediates social motives and intentions	ns
Behavioral norms mediates social motives and behavior	∅
H12d1: Subjective norms mediates protective motives and intentions	∅
Subjective norms mediates protective motives and behavior	∅
H12d2: Behavioral norms mediates protective motives and intentions	∅
Behavioral norms mediates protective motives and behavior	∅
H13: Identified regulation positively related to attitudes	s
H14a: Identified regulation positively related to perceived behavioral control	ns
H14b: Identified regulation positively related to self-efficacy	ns
H15a: Values motives positively related to attitudes	s
H15b: Understanding motives positively related to attitudes	s
H15c: Enhancement motives positively related to attitudes	ns
H15d: Organizational concern positively related to attitudes	s
H16a1: Values motives positively related to perceived behavioral control	ns
H16a2: Values motives positively related to self-efficacy	ns
H16b1: Understanding motives positively related to perceived behavioral control	s
H16b2: Understanding motives positively related to self-efficacy	ns
H16c1: Enhancement motives positively related to perceived behavioral control	ns
H16c2: Enhancement motives positively related to self-efficacy	ns
H16d1: Organizational concern positively related to perceived behavioral control	ns
H16d2: Organizational concern positively related to self-efficacy	ns
H17: Attitudes mediate identified regulation and intentions	Partial
Attitudes mediate identified regulation and behavior	∅
H18a: Perceived behavioral control mediates identified regulation and intentions	∅
Perceived behavioral control mediates identified regulation and behavior	∅
H18b: Self-efficacy mediates identified regulation and intentions	∅
Self-efficacy mediates identified regulation and behavior	∅

Table 5

Continued

H19a: Attitudes mediate values motives and intentions	Partial
Attitudes mediate values motives and behavior	∅
H19b: Attitudes mediate understanding motives and intentions	Partial
Attitudes mediate understanding motives and behavior	∅
H19c: Attitudes mediate enhancement motives and intentions	∅
Attitudes mediate enhancement motives and behavior	∅
H19d: Attitudes mediate organizational concern and intentions	Partial
Attitudes mediate organizational concern and behavior	ns
H20a1: Perceived behavioral control mediates values motives and intentions	∅
Perceived behavioral control mediates values motives and behavior	∅
H20a2: Self-efficacy mediates values motives and intentions	∅
Self-efficacy mediates values motives and behavior	∅
H20b1: Perceived behavioral control mediates understanding motives and intentions	Partial
Perceived behavioral control mediates understanding motives and behavior	∅
H20b2: Self-efficacy mediates understanding motives and intentions	∅
Self-efficacy mediates understanding motives and behavior	∅
H20c1: Perceived behavioral control mediates enhancement motives and intentions	∅
Perceived behavioral control mediates enhancement motives and behavior	∅
H20c2: Self-efficacy mediates enhancement motives and intentions	∅
Self-efficacy mediates enhancement motives and behavior	∅
H20d1: Perceived behavioral control mediates organizational concern and intentions	∅
Perceived behavioral control mediates organizational concern and behavior	∅
H20d2: Self-efficacy mediates organizational concern and intentions	∅
Self-efficacy mediates organizational concern and behavior	∅

Note. s = Hypothesis supported, ns = Hypothesis not supported, ∅ = Hypothesis not tested.

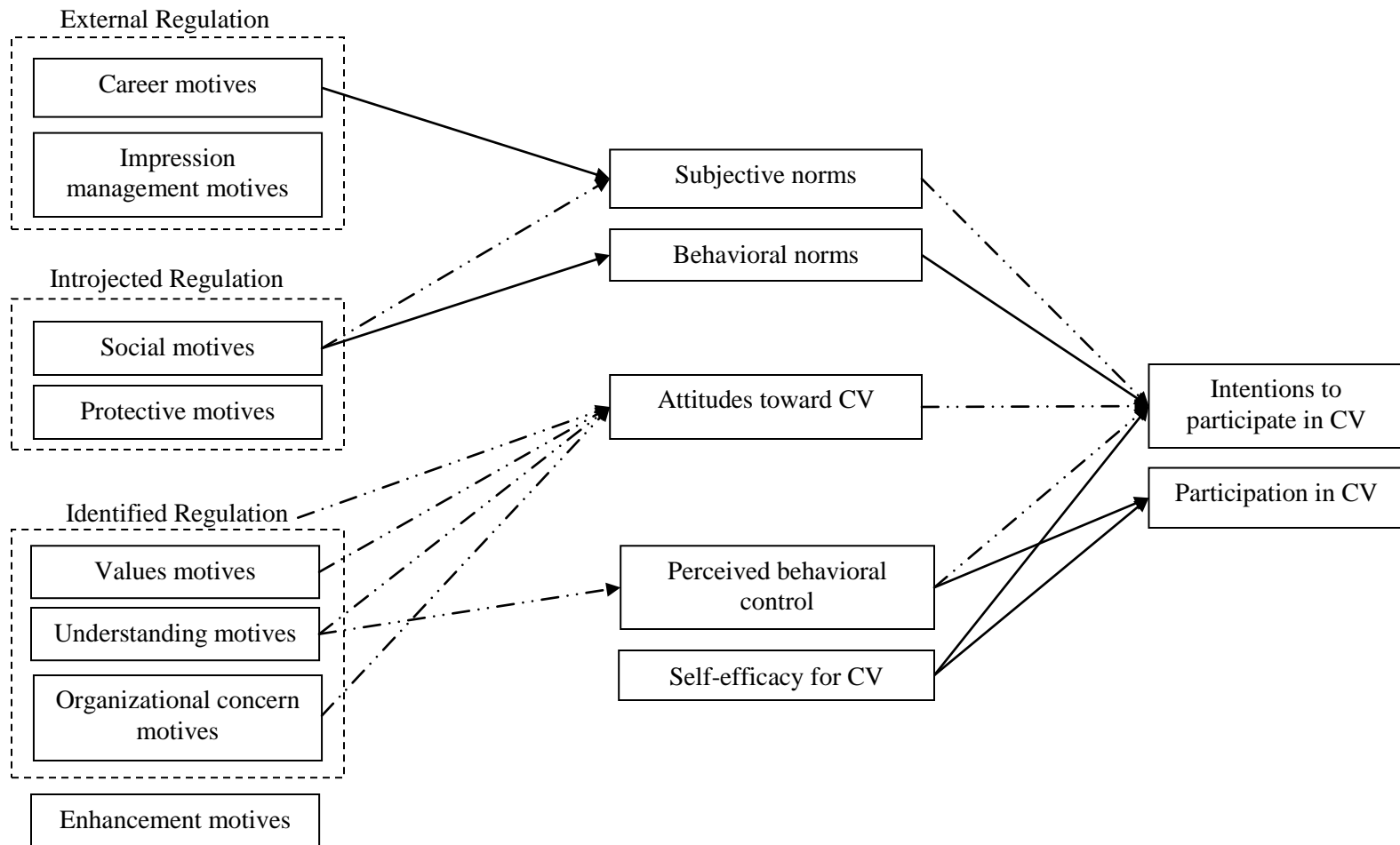


Figure 2. Significant relationships between the perceived locus of causality, functional motives, and theory of planned behavior variables.

Note. Solid lines indicate significant direct relationships. Dashed lines indicate significant mediating relationships.

Hypotheses 1 - 5

The results for Hypotheses 1 – 5 can be found in Tables 6 and 7. Hypothesis 1 proposed that attitudes toward CV would be positively related to intentions to participate in CV. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = .41, p < .001$). This hypothesis was not supported for participation in CV ($\beta = .17, p > .05$, observed power = .45). Individuals holding more positive attitudes toward CV are more likely to report greater intentions to participate in CV over the next year; however attitudes toward CV were not significantly related to actual participation rates over the past year when controlling for sex and location.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that subjective norms would be positively related to intentions to participate in CV. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = .42, p < .001$). This hypothesis was not supported for participation in CV ($\beta = .17, p > .05$, observed power = .45). Thus, employees who perceive greater subjective norms regarding CV also have greater intentions to participate in CV over the next year; however subjective norms regarding CV was not related to participation in CV.

Hypothesis 3 suggested behavioral norms would be positively related to intentions to participate in CV. This hypothesis was also supported ($\beta = .30, p < .01$). This hypothesis was not supported for participation in CV ($\beta = .12, p > .05$, observed power = .32). Thus, employees who perceive greater behavioral norms regarding CV are more likely to intend to participate in CV over the next year.

Hypothesis 4 predicted perceived behavioral control would be positively related to intentions to participate in CV. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = .52, p < .001$), and

employees who have greater perceived behavioral control over participation in CV have greater intentions to participate in CV over the next year. This hypothesis was also supported for participation in CV ($\beta = .30, p < .01$). This finding is consistent with the TPB, which proposes perceived behavioral control may have a direct effect on behavior to the extent that it is an accurate appraisal of actual control over engaging in a particular behavior.

Hypothesis 5 proposed self-efficacy for CV would be positively related to intentions to participate in CV. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = .57, p < .001$). This hypothesis was also supported for participation in CV ($\beta = .34, p < .001$). Thus, the higher one's self-efficacy for CV, the greater the intentions to participate in CV over the next year and the greater the actual participation in CV.

Exploratory analyses. Exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the simultaneous effect of the five TPB antecedent variables on each of intentions and behavior. A multiple regression analysis was used to determine the predictive ability of attitudes, subjective and behavioral norms, perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy on intentions to participate in CV. Together with the control variables, these variables explained 51% of the variance in intentions ($R^2_{Adj} = .51; F_{(7, 102)} = 15.84, p < .001$). A multiple regression analysis examining the predictive ability of the five TPB antecedent variables and intentions on participation in CV yielded an Adjusted R^2 of .21 ($F_{(8, 106)} = 4.52, p < .001$).

Table 6
Theory of Planned Behavior Antecedents Predicting Intentions (Hypotheses 1 – 5)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Step 1:							
Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
Step 2:							
Location	.10	.17	.05	.27	.16	-.24	.43
Age	-.02	.01	-.25**			-.04	-.01
Attitudes toward CV	.49	.11	.41**			.28	.70
Location	.07	.16	.04	.29	.16	-.25	.40
Age	-.03	.01	-.31**			-.04	-.01
Subjective norms	.66	.14	.42**			.38	.93
Location	.24	.17	.13	.21	.09	-.01	.57
Age	-.03	.01	-.27**			-.04	-.01
Behavioral norms	.34	.10	.30**			.14	.54
Location	.27	.15	.15	.39	.27	-.02	.56
Age	-.02	.01	-.03**			-.04	-.01
Perceived behavioral control	.43	.06	.52**			.30	.55
Location	.10	.15	.05	.42	.29	-.19	.39
Age	-.02	.01	-.18*			-.03	-.01
Self-efficacy	.32	.05	.57**			.23	.41

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 7
Theory of Planned Behavior Antecedents Predicting Behavior (Hypotheses 1 – 5)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Step 1:							
Location	.42	.22	.18	.13		-.02	.85
Sex	.64	.23	.26**			.19	1.09
Step 2:							
Location	.32	.23	.13	.15	.03	-.14	.78
Sex	.62	.23	.25**			.16	1.08
Attitudes toward CV	.21	.12	.17			-.03	.46
Location	.29	.23	.13	.15	.03	-.16	.74
Sex	.70	.23	.29**			.25	1.15
Subjective norms	.33	.19	.17			-.04	.70
Location	.40	.22	.17	.14	.01	-.04	.83
Sex	.61	.23	.25**			.16	1.06
Behavioral norms	.17	.13	.12			-.09	.42
Location	.37	.21	.16	.22	.09	-.04	.78
Sex	.67	.22	.28**			.24	1.10
Perceived behavioral control	.30	.09	.30**			.13	.48
Location	.25	.21	.11	.24	.11	-.16	.66
Sex	.65	.21	.27**			.23	1.08
Self-efficacy	.24	.06	.34**			.12	.37

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 6 – 8

Hypotheses 6 – 8 proposed relationships between functional motives and the PLOC dimensions they were expected to reflect. Figure 3 depicts the significant relationships between the functional motives and the PLOC dimensions. Hypothesis 6 posited that (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives would be positively related to the PLOC dimension of identified regulation. H6a was supported ($r = .69, p < .001$) with values functional motives positively related to identified regulation. H6b was also supported ($r = .60, p < .001$); understanding motives were positively related to identified regulation. H6c was not supported ($r = .16, p > .05$); enhancement motives were not related to identified regulation. This is consistent with the exploratory analyses suggesting this functional motive is not related to the other motives suggested to reflect identified regulation. H6d was supported ($r = .42, p < .001$), suggesting organizational concern motives are positively related to identified regulation.

Hypothesis 7 posited (a) social and (b) protective functional motives would be positively related to the PLOC dimension of introjected regulation. H7a was supported ($r = .20, p < .05$); social motives were positively related to introjected regulation. H7b was also supported ($r = .43, p < .001$), suggesting protective motives are positively related to introjected regulation.

Hypothesis 8 proposed (a) career and (b) impression management motives would be positively related to the PLOC dimension of external regulation. H8a was supported ($r = .22, p < .05$), indicating career motives are positively related to external regulation.

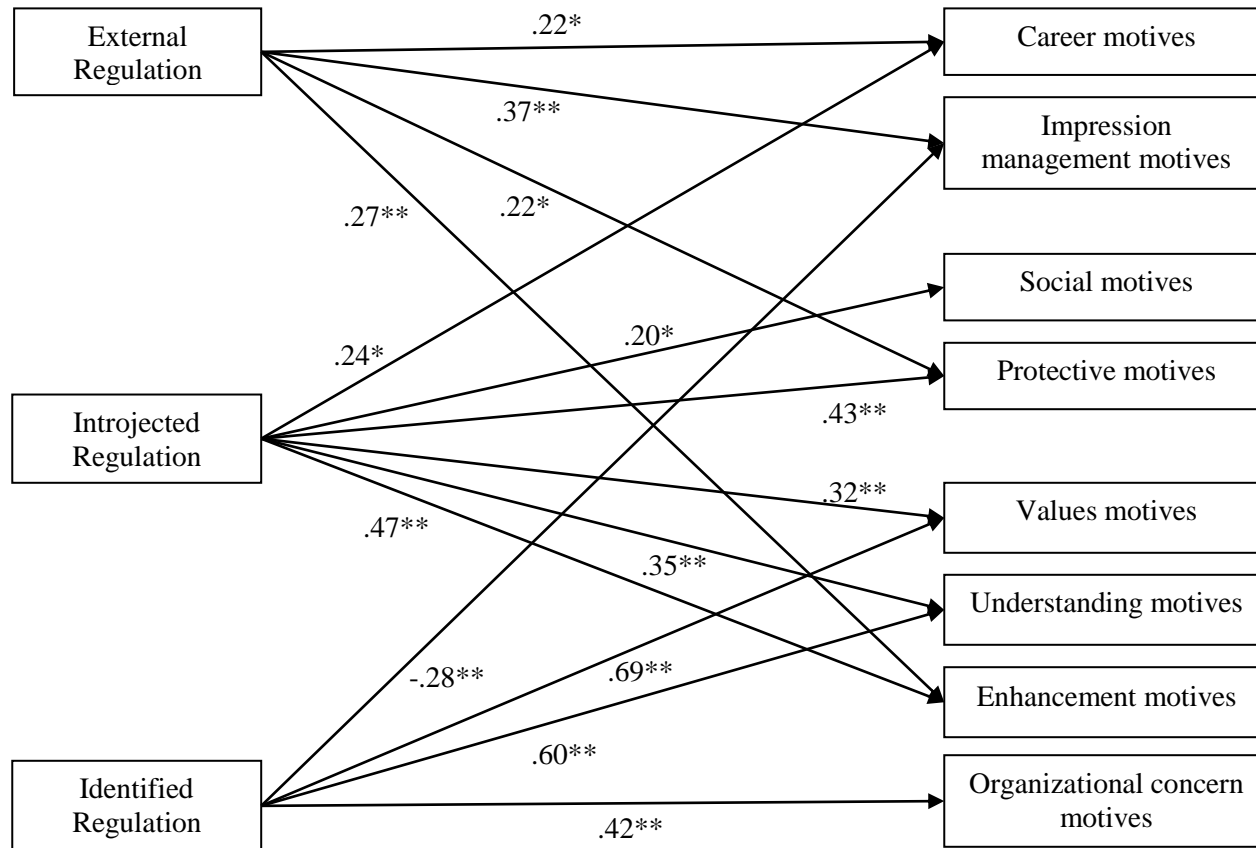


Figure 3. Correlations among the functional motives and perceived locus of causality.

Finally, H8b was also supported ($r = .37, p < .001$); impression management motives were significantly related to external regulation.

With the exception of enhancement motives, each of the functional motives were significantly related to the PLOC dimension they were expected to reflect. Furthermore, with the exception of enhancement and career motives, each motive was more strongly correlated with the PLOC dimension it was hypothesized to reflect than any of the other PLOC dimensions, suggesting a more positive picture of the relationships among the functional motives and PLOC dimensions than that presented by the exploratory analyses examining the relationships among the functional motives.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 predicted (a) external and (b) introjected regulation would be positively related to (1) subjective and (2) behavioral norms for CV. H9a1 was not supported ($\beta = .01, p > .05$, observed power = .05). H9b1 was also not supported ($\beta = .06, p > .05$, observed power = .10). Neither H9a2 ($\beta = .02, p > .05$, observed power = .05) nor H9b2 ($\beta = -.15, p > .05$, observed power = .32) were supported. Thus external and introjected regulation were not found to be related to either subjective or behavioral norms and Hypothesis 9 was not supported. The results for Hypothesis 9 are presented in Table 8.

Table 8
External and Introjected Regulation Predicting Subjective and Behavioral Norms
(Hypothesis 9)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Subjective norms							
Step 1:							
Location	.31	.11	.26**	.07		.08	.54
Age	.00	.01	.03			-.01	.01
Step 2:							
Location	.31	.12	.26**	.07	.00	.08	.54
Age	.00	.01	.03			-.01	.01
External regulation	.01	.12	.01			-.22	.25
Location	.30	.12	.26*	.07	.00	.07	.53
Age	.00	.01	.04			-.01	.01
Introjected regulation	.05	.08	.06			-.11	.20
Behavioral norms							
Step 1:							
Location	.10	.16	.06	.01		-.22	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.08			-.02	.01
Step 2:							
Location	.10	.16	.06	.01	.00	-.23	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.07			-.02	.01
External regulation	.03	.17	.02			-.31	.36
Location	.13	.16	.08	.03	.02	-.20	.45
Age	-.01	.01	-.10			-.02	.01
Introjected regulation	-.16	.11	-.15			-.38	.06

Note. *N* = 110. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 posited (a) impression management, (b) career, (c) social, and (d) protective motives would be positively related to (1) subjective and (2) behavioral

norms. H10a1 was not supported ($\beta = .00, p > .05$, observed power = .05). H10b1 was supported ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). H10c1 was also supported ($\beta = .47, p < .001$). H10d1 was not supported ($\beta = .06, p > .05$, observed power = .08).

Regarding behavioral norms, H10a2 was not supported ($\beta = -.03, p > .05$, observed power = .05). H10b2 was also not supported ($\beta = .06, p > .05$, observed power = .10). H10c2 was supported ($\beta = .22, p < .05$). Finally, H10d2 was not supported ($\beta = .02, p > .05$, observed power = .05). In sum, social motives were related to subjective and behavioral norms, career motives were related only to subjective norms, and the remaining hypotheses were not supported. The results for this hypothesis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9
Functional Motives Predicting Subjective and Behavioral Norms (Hypothesis 10)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Subjective norms							
Step 1:							
Location	.31	.11	.26**	.07		.08	.54
Age	.00	.01	.03			-.01	.01
Step 2:							
Location	.31	.11	.26**	.07	.00	.08	.54
Age	.00	.01	.03			-.01	.01
Impression management	.00	.06	.00			-.11	.11
Location	.28	.11	.24*	.10	.04	.06	.51
Age	.00	.01	.05			-.01	.01
Career motives	.11	.05	.19*			.00	.22
Location	.31	.10	.27**	.29	.22	.11	.51
Age	.00	.01	.06			-.01	.01
Social motives	.29	.05	.47**			.19	.40

Table 9
Continued

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Subjective norms							
Location	.31	.11	.27**	.07	.00	.09	.54
Age	.00	.01	.03			-.01	.01
Protective motives	.04	.07	.06			-.09	.17
Behavioral norms							
Step 1:							
Location	.10	.16	.06	.01		-.22	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.08			-.02	.01
Step 2:							
Location	.10	.16	.06	.01	.00	-.22	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.09			-.02	.01
Impression management	-.02	.08	-.03			-.18	.14
Location	.09	.16	.05	.02	.01	-.24	.41
Age	-.01	.01	-.07			-.02	.01
Career motives	.05	.08	.06			-.11	.21
Location	.10	.16	.06	.06	.05	-.22	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.06			-.02	.01
Social motives	.19	.08	.22*			.02	.35
Location	.10	.16	.06	.01	.00	-.22	.42
Age	-.01	.01	-.08			-.02	.01
Protective motives	.02	.09	.02			-.17	.20

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 proposed (1) subjective and (2) behavioral norms would mediate the positive relationships between (a) external and (b) introjected regulation and intentions to participate in CV. All mediation hypotheses were tested using a series of

regression analyses based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach (with updates catalogued on David Kenny's website, 2008). This approach proposes three criteria must be met when testing for the presence of a mediator. First, the predictor variable must be correlated with the criterion. Second, the predictor variable should be correlated with the proposed mediator variable. Finally, the mediator variable should be correlated with the criterion variable when controlling for the predictor variable. Following from this, the *B* coefficient for the predictor variable of interest is examined. If this coefficient is zero when the mediation variable is included, the mediation variable has a full mediating effect. In addition to the series of regression analyses, formal significance tests of the indirect effects were conducted using the Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

As demonstrated by Hypothesis 9, external and introjected regulation were not found to be related to subjective or behavioral norms; thus the second criteria for testing mediation (significant predictor-mediator relationship) was not supported and the mediation analyses for this hypothesis were not conducted. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 11. These relationships were also not examined for participation in CV as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis 12

Hypothesis 12 predicted that the positive relationships between (a) impression management, (b) career, (c) social, and (d) protective motives and intentions to participate in CV would be mediated by (1) subjective and (2) behavioral norms. First, the relationships between each of the functional motives and intentions to participate in CV were examined to ensure there were significant relationships to mediate. A

significant relationship was only found for H12c ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), thus only the relationship between social motives and intentions to participate in CV was examined further. Next, the relationships between social motives and each of the proposed mediator variables (subjective and behavioral norms) were examined. As demonstrated by Hypothesis 10, social motives were found to be significantly related to both subjective and behavioral norms; therefore the mediation analyses were conducted for each proposed mediator. As shown in Table 10, the effect of social motives on intentions to participate in CV became zero and nonsignificant when subjective norms was added to the equation. Thus, subjective norms fully mediated the relationship between social motives and intentions to participate in CV. The effect of social motives on intentions to participate in CV became nonsignificant, but remained greater than zero, when behavioral norms was added to the equation, suggesting partial mediation.

In addition to Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for testing for mediation, the Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) was also conducted as a formal significance test of the indirect effect of subjective norms on the relationship between social values and intentions to participate in CV. The results of this test provided further evidence of a mediating relationship ($z = 3.36, p < .001$), providing support for Hypothesis 12c1. The results of the Sobel test of the indirect effect of behavioral norms on the relationship between social values and intentions to participate in CV was not significant ($z = 1.88, p > .05$), failing to provide support for H12c2.

Regarding participation in CV, none of the motives were significantly related to participation in CV. Thus the first criteria (predictor-outcome relationship) for testing

mediation was not supported and further analyses were not conducted. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 12 in regards to participation in CV.

Table 10
Subjective/Behavioral Norms Mediating Social Motives and Intentions (Hypothesis 12)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Step 1:							
Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
Step 2:							
Location	.28	.17	.15	.16	.03	-.06	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
Social motives	.19	.09	.19*			.01	.36
Step 3:							
Location	.07	.17	.04	.29	.13	-.26	.40
Age	-.03	.01	-.31**			-.04	-.01
Social motives	-.01	.09	.00			-.19	.18
Subjective norms	.66	.16	.42**			.35	.97
Location	.25	.17	.13	.23	.07	-.08	.57
Age	-.02	.01	-.26**			-.04	-.01
Social motives	.13	.09	.13			-.04	.30
Behavioral norms	.31	.10	.27**			.10	.51

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 13

Hypothesis 13 predicted identified regulation would be positively related to attitudes toward CV. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = .31, p < .01$). Individuals higher in identified regulation are also likely to hold more positive attitudes toward CV. Results for Hypothesis 13 are presented in Table 11.

Table 11
Identified Regulation Predicting Attitudes (Hypothesis 13)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
1. Location	.42	.16	.26**	.08		.11	.73
Age	-.01	.01	-.06			-.02	.01
2. Location	.24	.16	.15	.16	.08	-.08	.56
Age	-.01	.01	-.06			-.02	.01
Identified regulation	.22	.07	.31**			.08	.36

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 14

Hypothesis 14 predicted identified regulation would be positively related to (a) perceived behavioral control and (b) self-efficacy for CV. Identified regulation was not related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .14$, $p > .05$, observed power = .32) or self-efficacy for CV ($\beta = .19$, $p > .05$, observed power = .47). Thus, as demonstrated in Table 12, no support was found for Hypothesis 14.

Table 12
Identified Regulation Predicting Perceived Behavioral Control and Self-Efficacy
(Hypothesis 14)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Perceived behavioral control							
1. Location	.01	.23	.00	.02		-.44	.45
Age	-.01	.01	-.13			-.04	.01
2. Location	-.12	.24	-.05	.03	.01	-.60	.36
Age	-.01	.01	-.12			-.04	.01
Identified regulation	.15	.11	.14			-.07	.36
Self-efficacy							
1. Location	.55	.31	.17	.09		-.07	1.17
Age	-.03	.02	-.21*			-.07	.00
2. Location	.31	.33	.10	.12	.03	-.35	.97
Age	-.03	.02	-.20*			-.06	.00
Identified regulation	.28	.15	.19			-.01	.56

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 15

Hypothesis 15 posited (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives would be positively related to attitudes toward CV. Values motives were significantly related to attitudes toward CV ($\beta = .23, p < .05$), demonstrating support for H15a. Understanding motives were also significantly related to attitudes toward CV ($\beta = .32, p < .01$), demonstrating support for H15b. Enhancement motives were not found to be significantly related to attitudes toward CV ($\beta = .16, p > .05$, observed power = .45), failing to support H15c. Finally, organizational concern was significantly related to attitudes toward CV ($\beta = .22, p < .05$), supporting H15d.

Therefore, individuals with higher values, understanding, and organizational concern motives also tend to hold more positive attitudes toward CV. The results for Hypothesis 15 are presented in Table 13.

Table 13
Functional Motives Predicting Attitudes (Hypothesis 15)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Step 1:							
Location	.42	.16	.26**	.08		.11	.73
Age	-.01	.01	-.06			-.02	.01
Step 2:							
Location	.32	.16	.20*	.13	.05	.01	.63
Age	.00	.01	-.03			-.02	.01
Values motives	.26	.11	.23*			.04	.48
Location	.29	.15	.18	.17	.09	-.01	.60
Age	.00	.01	-.01			-.02	.01
Understanding motives	.30	.09	.32**			.12	.48
Location	.40	.15	.25*	.11	.03	.10	.71
Age	.00	.01	-.05			-.02	.01
Enhancement motives	.14	.08	.16			-.02	.29
Location	.42	.15	.26**	.12	.04	.12	.72
Age	.00	.01	-.01			-.02	.02
Organizational concern	.19	.09	.22*			.02	.36

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 16

Hypothesis 16 proposed (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, and (d) organizational concern motives would be positively related to (1) perceived behavioral control and (2) self-efficacy for CV. Values motives were not significantly related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .12, p > .05$, observed power = .20) or self-efficacy for CV ($\beta = .12, p > .05$, observed power = .23). Understanding motives were significantly related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .21, p < .05$), but not self-efficacy for CV ($\beta = .12, p > .05$, observed power = .23). Enhancement motives were not related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .16, p > .05$, observed power = .42) or self-efficacy for CV ($\beta = .07, p > .05$, observed power = .12). Finally, organizational concern was not related to perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .13, p > .05$, observed power = .27) or self-efficacy for CV ($\beta = .13, p > .05$, observed power = .30). Therefore, only Hypothesis 16b1 was supported, suggesting individuals with greater understanding motives are more likely to hold higher perceived behavioral control regarding participation in CV. The results for this hypothesis are presented in Table 14.

Table 14
Functional Motives Predicting Perceived Behavioral Control and Self-Efficacy
(Hypothesis 16)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Perceived behavioral control							
Step 1:							
Location	.01	.23	.00	.02		-.44	.45
Age	-.01	.01	-.13			-.04	.01
Step 2:							
Location	-.07	.24	-.03	.03	.01	-.53	.40
Age	-.01	.01	-.11			-.04	.01
Values motives	.19	.17	.12			-.14	.52
Location	-.11	.23	-.05	.06	.04	-.57	.34
Age	-.01	.01	-.09			-.03	.01
Understanding motives	.28	.14	.21*			.01	.55
Location	-.01	.22	-.01	.04	.02	-.46	.43
Age	-.01	.01	-.11			-.04	.01
Enhancement motives	.20	.12	.16			-.04	.43
Location	.01	.23	.00	.03	.01	-.44	.45
Age	-.01	.01	-.10			-.03	.01
Organizational concern	.16	.13	.13			-.09	.41

Table 14
Continued

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Self-efficacy							
Step 1:							
Location	.55	.31	.17	.09		-.07	1.17
Age	-.03	.02	-.21*			-.07	.00
Step 2:							
Location	.44	.33	.14	.10	.01	-.21	1.09
Age	-.03	.02	-.19			-.06	.01
Values motives	.28	.23	.12			-.18	.74
Location	.45	.32	.14	.10	.01	-.19	1.09
Age	-.03	.02	-.19			-.06	.01
Understanding motives	.23	.19	.12			-.15	.62
Location	.54	.32	.17	.09	.00	-.09	1.16
Age	-.03	.02	-.20*			-.06	-.01
Enhancement motives	.11	.16	.07			-.21	.44
Location	.55	.31	.17	.10	.01	-.07	1.17
Age	-.03	.02	-.18			-.06	.01
Organizational concern	.24	.18	.13			-.11	.59

Note. *N* = 110. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

Hypothesis 17

Hypothesis 17 proposed that the positive relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV would be mediated by attitudes toward CV. First, the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV was examined to ensure there was a significant relationship to mediate. This relationship was significant; identified regulation was positively related to intentions to participate in CV ($\beta = .32, p < .01$). Next, as demonstrated by Hypothesis 13, the

predictor variable (identified regulation) was significantly related to the mediator (attitudes toward CV). Therefore, to test for mediation, the predictor variable was entered into the equation first followed by the mediator variable. As shown in Table 15, the effect of identified regulation was reduced when attitudes toward CV was added to the equation to predict intentions, suggesting a partial mediation.

The Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) was also conducted as a formal significance test of the indirect effect of attitudes toward CV on the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV. The results of this test provided further evidence of a mediating relationship ($z = 2.40, p < .05$), providing support for Hypothesis 17. Thus, attitudes toward CV partially mediates the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV.

Participation in CV was also examined as the dependent variable in the context of Hypothesis 17. However, identified regulation was not significantly related to participation in CV, thus the first criteria (predictor-outcome relationship) for testing mediation was not supported and further analyses were not conducted. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 17 in regards to participation in CV.

Table 15
Attitudes Mediating Identified Regulation and Intentions (Hypothesis 17)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
1. Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
2. Location	.08	.18	.04	.21	.08	-.28	.44
Age	-.03	.01	-.27**			-.04	-.01
Identified regulation	.28	.08	.33**			.12	.44
3. Location	-.02	.17	-.01	.31	.10	-.36	.32
Age	-.02	.01	-.25**			-.04	-.01
Identified regulation	.19	.08	.22*			.03	.34
Attitudes toward CV	.41	.11	.35**			.20	.63

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 18

Hypothesis 18 predicted (a) perceived behavioral control and (b) self-efficacy for CV would each mediate the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV. As demonstrated in Hypothesis 17, identified regulation was significantly related to intentions to participate in CV, suggesting a relationship to mediate is present. However, as demonstrated by Hypothesis 14, identified regulation was not related to either perceived behavioral control or self-efficacy for CV, thus the predictor-mediator relationship was not significant, and the mediation analysis for this hypothesis was not conducted. Therefore, no support was found for Hypothesis 18. These relationships were also not examined for participation in CV as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis 19

Hypothesis 19 predicted attitudes toward CV would mediate the relationships between (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, (d) organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV. First, the relationships between each of the functional motives and intentions to participate in CV were examined to ensure there were significant relationships to mediate. A significant relationship was found between values motives ($\beta = .22, p < .05$), understanding motives ($\beta = .28, p < .01$), enhancement motives ($\beta = .23, p < .05$), organization concern motives ($\beta = .37, p < .001$) and intentions to participate in CV. Furthermore, as demonstrated by Hypothesis 15, values, understanding, and organization concern motives were each found to be significantly related to attitudes toward CV; therefore mediation analyses were carried out for H19a, b, and d.

As shown in Table 16, the effect of values motives on intentions to participate in CV became nonsignificant, but remained nonzero, when attitudes toward CV was added to the equation, suggesting attitudes toward CV partially mediates the relationship between values motives and intentions to participate in CV. Table 16 shows the relationship between understanding motives and intentions also became nonsignificant, but remained nonzero, when attitudes toward CV was added, suggesting partial mediation. Finally, as shown in Table 16, the effect of organizational concern motives decreased when attitudes toward CV was added to the equation to predict intentions to participate in CV, suggesting a partial mediation.

The Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) was also conducted as a formal significance test of the indirect effect of attitudes toward CV on the relationship between values motives and intentions to participate in CV. The results of this test provided further evidence of a mediating relationship ($z = 2.05, p < .05$), providing support for Hypothesis 19a. Thus, attitudes toward CV partially mediates the relationship between values motives and intentions to participate in CV.

The Sobel test for the indirect effect of attitudes toward CV on the relationship between understanding motives and intentions to participate in CV was also significant ($z = 2.51, p < .05$), providing support for H19b. Attitudes toward CV partially mediates the relationship between understanding motives and intentions to participate in CV.

The Sobel test for the indirect effect of attitudes toward CV on the relationship between organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV was significant ($z = 1.97, p < .05$), providing support for a mediating relationship. Thus, H19d was also supported.

Hypothesis 19 also examined whether attitudes toward CV mediates the relationships between the four hypothesized motives and participation in CV, however only organizational concern motives were significantly related to participation in CV. Thus the first criteria (predictor-outcome relationship) for testing mediation was only supported for H19d and further analyses were only conducted for this hypothesis. The mediator variable was not found to affect the outcome variable when controlling for the predictor variable, thus mediation was not supported.

Table 16
Attitudes Mediating Functional Motives and Intentions (Hypothesis 19)

Variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
1. Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
2. Location	.19	.18	.10	.16	.03	-.17	.55
Age	-.02	.01	-.24*			-.04	-.01
Values motives	.28	.13	.22*			.03	.54
3. Location	.05	.17	.03	.29	.13	-.29	.39
Age	-.02	.01	-.23*			-.04	-.01
Values motives	.17	.12	.13			-.07	.41
Attitudes toward CV	.45	.11	.38**			.24	.67
1. Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
2. Location	.14	.17	.08	.20	.07	-.20	.49
Age	-.02	.01	-.24*			-.04	-.01
Understanding motives	.31	.10	.28**			.10	.51
3. Location	.05	.17	.03	.30	.11	-.29	.38
Age	-.02	.01	-.22*			-.04	-.01
Understanding motives	.19	.10	.17			-.02	.40
Attitudes toward CV	.42	.11	.36**			.21	.64
1. Location	.28	.17	.15	.13	.13	-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
2. Location	.30	.17	.16	.25	.12	-.03	.63
Age	-.02	.01	-.19*			-.04	.00
Organizational concern	.39	.09	.38**			.21	.57
3. Location	.13	.16	.07	.35	.10	-.19	.45
Age	-.02	.01	-.18*			-.03	.00
Organizational concern	.31	.09	.30**			.14	.49
Attitudes toward CV	.41	.10	.35**			.20	.61

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 20

Hypothesis 20 predicted that the positive relationships between (a) values, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, (d) organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV would be mediated by (1) perceived behavioral control and (2) self-efficacy for CV. First, the relationships between each of the functional motives and intentions to participate in CV were examined to ensure there were significant relationships to mediate. As reported in Hypothesis 19, a significant relationship was found between each of the motives and intentions to participate in CV. However, as demonstrated in Hypothesis 16, only understanding motives were found to be significantly related to perceived behavioral control; therefore mediation analyses were only carried out for H20b1.

As shown in Table 17, the effect of understanding motives decreased when perceived behavioral control was added to the equation to predict intentions to participate in CV, suggesting a partial mediation.

The Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) was also conducted as a formal significance test of the indirect effect of perceived behavioral control on the relationship between understanding motives and intentions to participate in CV. The results of this test were significant ($z = 2.05, p < .05$), providing support for H20b1. Perceived behavioral control partially mediates the relationship between understanding motives and intentions to participate in CV.

Hypothesis 20 also examined whether perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV each mediate the relationships between the four hypothesized motives

and participation in CV, however as noted in Hypothesis 19, only organizational concern motives were significantly related to participation in CV. Thus, the first criteria (predictor-outcome relationship) for testing mediation was only supported for H20d, however organizational concern motives were not found to be related to either perceived behavioral control or self-efficacy for CV. The predictor-mediator relationships were not supported and therefore further analyses were not conducted.

Table 17
*Perceived Behavioral Control Mediating Understanding Motives and Intentions
 (Hypothesis 20)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
1. Location	.28	.17	.15	.13		-.07	.62
Age	-.03	.01	-.30**			-.04	-.01
2. Location	.14	.17	.08	.20	.07	-.20	.49
Age	-.02	.01	-.24*			-.04	-.01
Understanding motives	.31	.10	.28**			.10	.51
3. Location	.19	.15	.10	.42	.22	-.11	.48
Age	-.02	.01	-.20*			-.03	-.01
Understanding motives	.20	.09	.18*			.02	.38
Perceived behavioral control	.40	.06	.49**			.27	.52

Note. $N = 110$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Many organizations are recognizing the benefits corporate volunteerism is purported to bring and CV programs are being implemented in growing numbers; however, the empirical research surrounding these programs is lacking. The current study presented and tested a theoretical framework concerning why employees participate in CV. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine influences beyond social background factors that might influence the process of participation in CV. Through a consideration of the theory of planned behavior, functional motives for volunteering, and perceived locus of causality, antecedent variables were examined to help explain why individuals engage in CV. Factors beyond simple demographics and personality, including contextual, attitudinal, situational, and motivational antecedents, were integrated and support was found for several of the study propositions.

Theory of Planned Behavior and Corporate Volunteerism

Not surprisingly, results demonstrated support for the well-established TPB regarding the relationships between antecedents to behavior and intentions to engage in that behavior. In accordance with the TPB, Hypotheses 1 – 5 predicted relationships between TPB variables and intentions to participate in CV. These hypotheses were confirmed, further supporting the efficacy of this theory. Positive attitudes towards CV, likely stemming from beliefs regarding positive evaluations of the salient outcomes associated with engaging in this behavior, were positively related to employees' intentions to engage in CV over the next year. Similar to the findings of Warburton and Terry (2000), it also appears that both perceived social pressures from salient others to

engage in CV and perceptions of the extent to which these individuals are thought to perform this behavior are positively related to intentions to participate in CV. Thus, to the extent employees perceive that important others, such as supervisors and coworkers, approve of and engage in this behavior, the more likely the employee is to report intentions to also perform this behavior. Additionally, the greater the control individuals perceive they have over their ability to participate in CV, the greater the intentions to participate in this behavior. Furthermore, similar to other research (e.g., Greenslade & White, 2005; Warburton & Terry, 2000), individuals possessing higher self-efficacy for performing CV activities reported greater intentions to participate in CV. Thus, this study generalizes the propositions of the TPB to the context of corporate volunteerism.

Also providing support for the theory of planned behavior are the direct relationships found from each of perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy to participate in CV. Perceived behavioral control has been posited to have both a direct effect on behavior as well as an indirect effect through intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen argues that in addition to intentions, individuals must have the necessary opportunities and resources available to engage in the behavior of interest. This study did not find support for direct relationships between the remaining TPB antecedent variables and behavior. Although some researchers have found direct relationships between these antecedents and behavior (e.g., Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Katz, 2001), the TPB suggests these relationships will instead be mediated by intentions.

Extensions of the Theory of Planned Behavior

The current study also extends the TPB to include additional antecedent variables hypothesized to be useful in the prediction of intentions in this context. Based on previous work (e.g., de Gilder et al., 2005; Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Greenslade & White, 2005; Warburton & Terry, 2000), in addition to self-efficacy for CV, behavioral norms, or the extent to which salient others are perceived to perform the behavior in question, were included as antecedent variables. Each of these variables was related to intentions to participate in CV and appear to play a role in influencing one's intentions to engage in this behavior.

Although self-efficacy for CV may be a useful addition to the prediction of intentions to participate in CV, this variable appeared to function similarly to perceived behavioral control in the current study. Only one differing relationship was found between the two variables (understanding motives related to perceived behavioral control and not self-efficacy), and a strong positive correlation ($r = .72$) was found between these two perceptions. This may be due to the measurement of these variables. While perceived behavioral control is posited to reflect perceptions of control over external factors, self-efficacy is thought to reflect perceptions of control regarding internal factors or one's own capabilities for performing a particular behavior. The items used to measure these constructs may not have reflected these differences. For example, the items measuring self-efficacy for CV assess how confident one is and how easy it would be to participate in this behavior, but do not make reference to where this confidence stems from and why this participation may be easy or difficult (i.e., internal

abilities or situational variables). Additionally, it may be the case that the conceptual overlap between these two constructs is too great for individuals to reliably differ between the two. Given these variables both deal with perceptions of control related to engaging in a behavior, perhaps in making attributions about the likelihood of successful performance of this behavior individuals tend to make internal attributions and therefore do not distinguish between situational and internal constraints. Further research might be needed to determine if both perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV offer unique information in the prediction of participation in CV. It is possible that in the case of CV, beliefs regarding the presence or absence of variables that aid or hinder performance would be important to decisions to participate in this behavior. It may also be the case that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control interact such that if one's self-efficacy for CV is low, perceptions of external variables that influence control are no longer important. If individuals perceive they do not possess the necessary internal factors to engage in the behavior, whether or not external constraints are present might not matter.

Implications

This study demonstrates support for the efficacy of the TPB in the context of CV. An understanding of one's attitudes, perceptions of subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are important antecedents to intentions to participate in CV. Additionally, perceptions of control and self-efficacy for CV directly influence one's participation in this behavior. Further, this study extends the TPB by incorporating two additional variables hypothesized to be important antecedents of participation in CV.

Both behavioral norms and self-efficacy for CV appear to influence ones intentions to engage in CV.

An understanding of the role of the TPB in the context of CV is useful in attempts to influence this behavior. For example, the knowledge that perceptions regarding the extent to which salient others engage in this behavior or expect one to engage in this behavior influences intentions to participate might be useful in recruitment for CV programs. An organization may make it well known to employees that CV is valued and encouraged, thereby increasing perceptions of subjective norms. Additionally, the participation of key organizational members in CV might increase employees' perceptions of behavioral norms. Furthermore, organizations wanting to increase participation in CV might take steps to ensure employees feel they have control and organizational support in their decisions to participate. Thus, through an understanding of the role of the TPB in CV, organizations may begin to take steps to influence these variables in order to gain participation in CV programs.

Functional Motives and Perceived Locus of Causality

In an attempt to increase the generalizability and predictive validity of the TPB, generalized motivational constructs thought to be useful in the prediction of TPB variables in the context of CV were examined. Hypotheses 6 – 8 proposed functional motives for volunteering and citizenship performance would serve as generalized motivational constructs and fall along a continuum of perceived locus of causality.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the functional motives of values, understanding, enhancement, and organization concern would be reflective of, or related to, the PLOC

dimension of identified regulation. With the exception of enhancement, each of the motives was found to be related to identified regulation (see Figure 3). Regarding Hypotheses 7 and 8, social and protective functional motives were found to be related to the PLOC dimension of introjected regulation, while career and impression management motives were found to be related to the PLOC dimension of external regulation.

Given identified regulation in this context reflects behaviors stemming from one's values regarding volunteerism, it is not surprising that values, understanding, and organizational concern motives for volunteering were related to identified reasons for volunteering. It is also not surprising that the motives of social, protective, career, and impression management were related to introjected and external reasons for volunteering. Individuals who view these motives as important influences on their engagement in volunteering likely believe their participation in this behavior stems largely from external forces. This is logical to expect given that these motives revolve around external forces. For example, social motives reflect a desire to conform to social pressures while protective motives reflect a desire to reduce one's feelings of guilt and shame, both of which are consistent with introjected reasons for engaging in a behavior. Furthermore, career motives reflect a desire to gain career-related benefits while impression management motives reflect a desire to gain rewards and approval, which are consistent with external reasons, such as gaining rewards or avoiding punishment, for engaging in a behavior.

Regarding enhancement motives, it may be the case that these motives, reflecting the desire for personal growth and self-improvement, stem from different values than

those regarding the prosocial motives of values, understanding, and organizational concern. Instead of stemming from values regarding volunteerism and helping others, enhancement motives stem from values regarding helping or improving oneself. Furthermore, enhancement motives were found to be positively related to both external and introjected regulation, suggesting this motive may better reflect externally regulated reasons for engaging in a behavior. Although the construct of enhancement motives suggests reasons for behavior stem from the importance of personal growth and development, the items used to assess this construct could be interpreted as reflecting externally regulated motives. For example, volunteering because it makes one feel needed or important may be more reflective of an individual's desire to gain self- or other-approval than of one's values regarding the behavior of volunteering. Other researchers have also noted experiencing problems with this factor (e.g., Greenslade & White, 2005). Thus, enhancement motives may be better treated as falling on the external end of the PLOC, indicating individuals whose motives for volunteering are based on enhancement also believe their reasons for engaging in this behavior stem largely from external forces.

Relationships Among the Functional Motives

The exploratory analyses examining the relationships among the functional motives with respect to their hypothesized location on the PLOC continuum presented mixed findings. Values, understanding, and organizational concern motives demonstrated the expected patterns; however enhancement motives were more strongly

related with motives hypothesized to reflect external and introjected regulation, consistent with the findings of Hypothesis 6.

Career and impression management motives also demonstrated unexpected relationships, as did social and protective motives. In general, career motives demonstrated strong relationships with the motives suggested to reflect introjected regulation, which is in line with the finding that career motives demonstrated a slightly stronger correlation with introjected regulation than with external regulation. Although protective motives demonstrated the strongest relationship with introjected regulation, the relationships demonstrated with the other motives were stronger than the relationship between protective and social motives (also hypothesized to reflect introjected regulation). Furthermore, impression management and organizational concern reflect functional motives for engaging in prosocial behaviors directed at one's organization, while the remaining motives reflect reasons for engaging in prosocial behaviors directed at society. Thus, the motives for volunteering and prosocial organizational behaviors might not be expected to relate to each other.

Implications

What seems to be of most importance for the current study is the overall support found for Hypotheses 6 – 8. Although several of the motives did not relate to each other as expected, in general these motives were related to the PLOC dimensions they were hypothesized to reflect. Future research is needed to examine the relationships among the functional motives themselves. Without a higher-order factor analysis, it is not possible to determine if there is a hierarchical relationship between the functional

motives and PLOC dimensions, and the sample size of this study limited that possibility. Additionally, due to the cross-sectional nature of this study, it is not possible to determine if a causal relationship exists between the functional motives and PLOC dimensions. However, with the exception of enhancement and career motives, each of the functional motives were more strongly related to the hypothesized PLOC dimension expected to be reflected than any of the other dimensions. This provides some support for the idea that these functional motives reflect the hypothesized regulatory orientations, and functional motives which have been found to be important to volunteering can be aligned along the PLOC. This knowledge is useful in understanding the mechanisms behind why individuals might engage in a particular behavior such as volunteering. For example, behaviors that are performed due to external pressures (external regulation) or internal pressures (introjected regulation) might only be performed in the presence of these external reinforcers or perceived internal pressures. In the absence of the rewards or punishment associated with the behavior, or the reduction of internal pressures, participation in the behavior may cease. Thus, the understanding that motives centering around, for example, social or protective motives reflect introjected reasons for volunteering might be useful in gaining continued participation in the behavior.

Generalized Motives and the Theory of Planned Behavior

Based on Vallerand's (1997) hierarchical model of motivation, contextual-level motivations, or motives operationalized as general orientations towards particular behaviors relevant to a contextual domain, were hypothesized to influence the

situational-level decision-making constructs included as antecedents of intentions and behavior in the TPB. Hypotheses 9 – 12 examined external and introjected regulations and the functional motives expected to reflect these dimensions as predictors of TPB constructs. Hypotheses 13 – 20 examined the relationships between identified regulation and the functional motives hypothesized to reflect identified reasons for engaging in the behavior of volunteering.

External and Introjected Regulations and TPB Antecedents

Hypothesis 9 concerned the relationships between external and introjected regulations and subjective and behavioral norms. These relationships were not supported. As Hagger et al. (2003) suggested, given that subjective norms reflect perceptions of expectations from salient others to engage in a particular behavior, it is plausible to suggest external and introjected motives would influence the formation of situation-specific beliefs regarding external pressures. In one of the few studies to examine these relationships, Hagger et al. (2003) only found support for a relationship between external regulation and subjective norms (behavioral norms were not included in their study), and subjective norms were not found to be related to intentions. Perhaps individuals motivated to engage in the general behavior of volunteerism due to perceived expectations or forces of others would be less likely to form beliefs regarding social pressures to engage in CV because they do not value the more generalized behavior in the first place. Thus, information regarding expectations or behaviors of others in regards to CV might not be attended to. This may further be demonstrated by the lack of a significant relationship between each of external and introjected regulation and

intentions to participate in CV. Further research is needed to examine if this explanation is plausible and whether or not these relationships exist.

External and Introjected Functional Motives and TPB Antecedents

Hypothesis 10 concerned the relationships between impression management, career, social, and protective motives, and the TPB variables of subjective and behavioral norms. Career motives were found to be related only to subjective norms, and social motives were found to have significant relationships with both subjective and behavioral norms. Regarding career motives, it may be the case that in the context of CV, subjective norms, or what one perceives others expect or want of them, is more important than what others actually do. For example, employees who perceive their supervisor values and encourages or expects participation in CV may be much more inclined to engage in this behavior if motivated by career related reasons, regardless of what they perceive important others to be doing. Therefore the construct of subjective norms might be more salient in this context.

Social motives were significantly related to both subjective and behavioral norms, as expected. Additionally, subjective norms mediated the relationship between social motives and intentions to participate in CV, providing some support for Hypothesis 12. Thus, for individuals whose generalized motives for volunteering reflect desires to conform to social pressures and engage in activities viewed favorably by others, situation-level variables regarding perceptions of what others desire of them are important influences on intentions to engage in this particular behavior. Based on the results of the mediation analysis following Baron and Kenny's (1986) method,

behavioral norms were also found to partially mediate the relationship between social motives and intentions to participate in CV; however the results of the Sobel test did not support this finding, perhaps due to the conservative nature of the test (MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995) and its requirement of large sample sizes (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Thus, it is plausible that situational-level information regarding whether salient others engage in this behavior is also an important influence on intentions to engage in CV for individuals whose motives for volunteering reflect desires to conform to social expectations.

Regarding the remaining two motives, neither impression management nor protective motives were found to be related to subjective or behavioral norms. Impression management motives were only found to be related to values motives. Although this relationship was negative as would be expected, it may be the case that participants responded to these items in a socially desirable manner. If one's motives for engaging in prosocial behaviors are based on impression management concerns, this individual likely desires to be viewed positively by others. Given this motive may be considered a more self-focused reason for volunteering, individuals may have avoided responding in such a way as to be perceived in a negative light. This may be evidenced by the floor effect demonstrated for this variable ($M = 1.89, SD = 1.00$).

A similar argument can be made for protective motives. The protective function is thought to reflect motives associated with volunteering to reduce one's guilt and to feel better about oneself. This motive may also be considered a more self-focused reason for volunteering, and similar to impression management motives demonstrated a

relatively low mean ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .84$). Protective motives also demonstrated a strong relationship with enhancement motives, suggesting these factors may not be as independent as expected. As noted below, in addition to impression management and protective motives, enhancement motives were the only other functional motive variable to not demonstrate any hypothesized relationships with the TPB variables.

Identified Regulation and TPB Antecedents

Hypothesis 13 concerned the relationship between identified regulation and attitudes toward CV, whereas Hypothesis 14 examined the relationships between identified regulation and each of perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV. Hypothesis 13 was supported, and of the hypothesized relationships between the PLOC dimensions and the TPB constructs, this was the only significant relationship. Furthermore, attitudes toward CV were found to partially mediate the relationship between identified regulation and intentions to participate in CV, providing support for Hypothesis 17. Thus, it appears autonomous motives for the general behavior of volunteering influence beliefs regarding the positive value of the specific behavior of CV, which in turn influences intentions to participate in CV.

Identified Functional Motives and TPB Antecedents

Hypothesis 15 predicted the functional motives expected to reflect identified regulation would be positively related to attitudes toward CV, whereas Hypothesis 16 proposed these motives would influence perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV. As expected, values, understanding, and organizational concern motives were related to attitudes toward CV. Generalized motives for engaging in volunteering

stemming from concern for others, the desire to help others, and concern for the organization appear to influence positive attitudes towards the prosocial behavior of CV. Enhancement motives were not found to be related to attitudes toward CV. As mentioned, enhancement motives do not appear to reflect identified motives for engaging in volunteering, and this may be why this variable did not perform as expected.

Contrary to expectations, the only significant relationship found for Hypothesis 16 was that between understanding motives and perceived behavioral control. Surprisingly, understanding motives were not related to cognitions regarding self-efficacy to engage in CV. Given understanding motives are thought to reflect one's desire to utilize existing skills and knowledge to help others, it is possible that one's knowledge of the skills and abilities they possess might have a greater influence on cognitions regarding the ability to participate in CV. Individuals who believe they possess the necessary skills are more likely to perceive they have some control in their decision to utilize these skills to help others. Again, individuals who do not believe they possess the necessary skills or knowledge to engage in these behaviors, or are unsure, may be less likely to form beliefs regarding levels of control in their ability to engage in CV because they do not believe they possess the necessary requirements to engage in the general category of behavior in the first place. Therefore, it is surprising that understanding motives did not influence beliefs regarding self-efficacy to engage in CV, as it would seem individuals possessing these motives would likely believe they possess the necessary skills to perform these behaviors effectively.

Finally, consistent with Hypothesis 19, attitudes toward CV were found to partially mediate the relationships between values, understanding, and organizational concern motives and intentions to participate in CV. Providing some support for Hypothesis 20, perceived behavioral control was found to partially mediate the relationship between understanding motives and intentions to participate in CV. Thus, where significant predictor-mediator relationships were found, results generally support the hypothesized mediating role of the TPB variables in the relationships between the generalized motives for volunteering and intentions to participate in CV.

Implications

It is interesting to note that of the PLOC variables, only identified regulation demonstrated a relationship with the situational-level TPB variables, and this variable was only related to attitudes toward CV. This is somewhat consistent with past findings examining PLOC and the TPB in the context of physical activity (e.g., Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2002). Moreover, several of the functional motives for volunteering demonstrated relationships with the TPB variables. The only functional motives not to demonstrate the hypothesized relationships with the TPB variables were impression management, protective, and enhancement motives, and speculations regarding reasons for this lack of support were noted above.

It is surprising that identified regulation was not related to perceptions of perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy for CV. Past studies have found support for the mediating role of perceived behavioral control in the relationship between identified regulation and intentions (e.g., Hagger et al., 2002, Hagger et al., 2006). It is

logical to believe that if one's reasons for volunteering reflect autonomous motives, this information would influence specific beliefs regarding one's perceived control and self-efficacy towards performing that behavior. Perhaps in this case, identified motives for engaging in volunteering are too general in regards to influencing the situational-level cognitions regarding participation in CV. Individuals might hold autonomous motives regarding volunteering in general. However, the specific context of volunteering through one's place of employment may impose additional situational constraints, perceptions of which are not influenced by one's internally regulated motives for volunteering.

It may be the case that the PLOC as a whole is at a higher conceptual level than the functional motives for volunteering. It is possible the PLOC constructs give rise to the generalized functional motives for volunteering, which in turn influence the situational-level decision-making constructs in the TPB; however as mentioned it was not possible to test for these causal relationships in the current study. One criticism of the TPB is its adherence to the principle of compatibility, which is suggested to limit the generalizability and long-range predictive validity of this model (Chatzisarantis et al., 1997; Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2001), and researchers have attempted to overcome these limitations by integrating generalized motivation constructs that may be useful in the prediction of TPB constructs (e.g., Chatzisarantis et al., 2002; Hagger & Armitage, 2004; Hagger et al., 2002; Hagger et al., 2006). The findings of this study demonstrate that a consideration of more generalized motives for engaging in a general behavior can be useful to understanding situational-level decision-making determinants. In sum, the functional motives demonstrated several hypothesized relationships with the

PLOC variables, and many of the functional motives demonstrated the hypothesized relationships with the TPB variables. Thus, an understanding of one's functional motives for engaging in the general behavior of volunteerism might predict intentions to engage in the more specific behavior of CV, through the influence of these general motives on the situational level antecedents of intentions. This seems to be particularly true regarding attitudes toward CV. Although a few significant relationships were found between the functional motives and the remaining antecedent variables, the majority of significant findings occurred for attitudes toward CV. This suggests one's functional motives for volunteering are more likely to influence attitudes toward CV as opposed to perceptions of pressures from salient others or perceptions of control over engagement in the specific behavior of CV.

These findings also suggest some support for Vallerand's (1997) hierarchical model of self-determined motivation; however further research is needed to examine the true relationships between the PLOC and functional motives constructs, and the PLOC and antecedent variables of the TPB. Perhaps, as discussed above, it is the case that the PLOC orientations are too generalized to predict the situational-level decision-making constructs in the TPB. The significant relationship found between identified regulation and attitudes toward CV may have been due to chance, given the large number of hypotheses among the PLOC and TPB variables. Perhaps one's perceived locus of causality for engaging in volunteerism, or even prosocial behaviors in general, gives rise to the functional motives for engaging in volunteer behaviors, which in turn give rise to beliefs underlying the antecedents of intentions in the TPB.

In addition to further examining the theoretical implications of the antecedents involved in CV, future researchers might examine what the applied implications of the relationships described above are. For example, as mentioned, an understanding of the processes underlying why individuals participate in these programs may be useful to the recruiting efforts of organizations attempting to encourage their employees to participate in these programs. Organizations may be able to use this information to direct recruiting efforts to target the particular motives found to be influential in the decision to participate in CV. For example, CV activities which are designed to be flexible and are able to meet the motives of the masses may be more useful in improving employee attitudes toward the program, and perhaps the organization in general, and increasing participation in the program.

Additionally, this information may be useful for recruitment efforts aimed at the organization itself. The number of individuals who donate their time to volunteer efforts continues to grow, and organizations that demonstrate concern for the needs of their employees are likely to attract and retain higher quality employees. Organizations that offer CV programs, and are aware of the many reasons individuals might participate in and value these programs, may gain a competitive advantage in regards to recruiting and retaining employees.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There were several limitations to this study. First, the data were based on single-source, self-report measures collected in a cross-sectional manner. Although it may have been useful to collect information regarding actual participation in CV from another

source (e.g., supervisor, coworker), the main variables of interest included participants' motives for engaging in volunteerism, in addition to their intentions to engage in CV, attitudes toward CV, and perceptions of control and pressures to engage in this behavior. Self-report measures could have been influenced by a tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner. Given the prosocial topic of interest in this study, this tendency might have been especially prevalent. However, given that the majority of the participants reported engagement in volunteer activities, it may be the case that responses reflect the true feelings of these individuals. For example, it is likely that someone who holds positive attitudes towards volunteering would be more likely to actually engage in this behavior, and may do so for other-focused as opposed to more self-focused reasons.

Although a theoretical model positing antecedents of participation in CV was presented, given the cross-sectional nature of the study, it cannot be determined whether volunteering (or intending to volunteer) through one's organization is a result of the proposed antecedent variables, such as positive attitudes towards CV, or results in these proposed antecedents. Participants were, however, asked to report their current perceptions and attitudes regarding the proposed antecedent variables and future intentions to engage in the behavior of interest.

Additionally, sample size was a limitation in this study. A lack of a sufficient sample size resulted in low power to detect some of the hypothesized relationships in this study, particularly given the effect of the control variables. A larger sample size would allow for more power to detect significant relationships beyond the effect of the control variables included in this study.

Another limitation of this study was the relatively low reliability of the behavioral norms scale. This measure assessed the participants' perceptions of the likelihood that salient others would engage in CV. Both organizationally and personally relevant others were included. Although the items displayed moderate inter-item correlations, it may be the case that given the context in which CV occurs, perceptions of the behaviors of relevant others in the organization (i.e., co-workers and supervisors) are more relevant to decisions to participate in CV. Future researchers might examine whether this is the case, or whether, given the traditional practice of conducting volunteer work outside of one's paid work, the behaviors of non-work significant others are more salient in decisions to participate in CV.

Another potential limitation of this study was the use of data collected from two different organizations. Significant differences were found between the two organizations for several of the study variables, indicating organizational specific factors may play a role in the process of corporate volunteerism. On the other hand, significant effects across organizations may indicate basic underlying processes involved in participation in CV regardless of factors specific to the organization. Future researchers may wish to examine what organizational factors play a role in participation in CV. Industry and size were two main differentiating factors between the two organizations comprising this study, factors which likely influence an organization's ability to support CV.

Although both organizations encouraged and supported CV, it may be the case that one organization rewarded or expected participation in this behavior more so than

the other. An organizational climate for CV might also exist. Organizational members might hold perceptions regarding the contingencies between behaviors, in this case CV, and subsequent consequences (Dennison, 1996). Future researchers might examine if such climates exist within organizations and how the strength of that climate influences antecedents of participation in CV. For example, the strength of this climate might influence perceptions regarding perceived behavioral control and subjective norms. If the climate is supportive of participation in CV, individuals will likely perceive control in their ability to engage in this behavior, and external constraints will likely be minimal. It is also possible that a strong climate for CV will increase perceptions of subjective norms regarding whether practices such as CV are expected. Several other possibilities exist for why these differences may be present; the important question is what impact these differences have on antecedents to and participation in CV within an organization.

Although the primary goal of this study was to understand what antecedents might be important to CV, future researchers may wish to examine which antecedents in particular are most important or have a larger effect on influencing intentions to participate in CV. This knowledge would also be useful in targeting recruitment efforts. For example, if attitudes toward CV appear to have the biggest effect on intentions to participate in this behavior, organizational members could develop recruitment efforts in such a manner as to improve attitudes toward CV among employees. Additionally, although Ajzen (1991) opens the TPB up to the inclusion of additional predictors, this is based on the assumption that these additional variables capture a significant portion of variance in intentions and behavior beyond attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived

behavioral control. It would be interesting to examine whether or not that is the case with the variables included in this study, in addition to whether there might be other important antecedents that would improve the predictive power of the theory in the context of CV.

Finally, further research should examine whether intentions to participate do in fact mediate the relationships between the antecedent variables of the TPB and actual engagement in this behavior. Assessing actual participation in CV in a longitudinal manner, following the measurement of the antecedent variables and intentions, would provide a full test of the TPB in the context of CV.

Conclusion

In conclusion, organizational leaders have become increasingly interested in displaying good corporate citizenship behaviors, and corporate volunteer programs are becoming one of the fastest growing means to do so (Austin, 2001). The current study examined potential antecedents of participation in CV. Given the central role of work in many individuals' lives and the great need for volunteers in society, an understanding of how organizations support the volunteerism of their employees and what leads individuals to participate in this behavior is essential. Equally important are the outcomes associated with this behavior. For example, empirical research demonstrating the suggested bottom-line, employee, and community benefits is needed to demonstrate the utility of such programs. For example, community volunteering might serve as a way to develop skills that can enhance job performance and career progression. Organizations utilizing this method as a development tool might benefit their bottom-

line in terms of saved training costs and improved employee performance; employees may benefit through skill development and enhanced morale, while the community or volunteer organization benefits from the donation of time, skills, and knowledge on the part of the employees. Research is needed to determine the wide-ranging effects of CV programs.

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APPENDIX A

EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Information

Please check the appropriate choice or write in the appropriate information:

1. What is your sex? Male Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. Marital Status: Married Single Divorced
 Widowed Cohabiting (not married)
 Long-Term Relationship (not married or cohabitating)
4. What is your race/ethnic identity (check all that apply)?
 African-American/Black Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 American Indian or Alaska Native White/Caucasian (non-Hispanic)-American
 Asian-American Foreign national/non-U.S. citizen
 Hispanic/Latino(-a)-American
 Other (please specify) _____
5. What is the *highest* level of education you have attained?
 Less than high school diploma College degree
 High school diploma Advanced degree (e.g., Professional, Masters)
 Some college/community college Other (please specify) _____
6. How *many* children do you have? _____ Not Applicable
7. What is the *age* of your youngest child living at home? _____ Not Applicable
8. How long have you worked in this organization? _____ years _____ months
9. How many hours a week do you work on average? _____
10. What is your job title? _____

Personality

Below are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale to describe how accurately each statement describes <i>you</i> . Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age.	Very Inaccurate	Moderately Inaccurate	Neither Accurate nor Inaccurate	Moderately Accurate	Very Accurate
Sympathize with others' feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Get chores done right away.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Am not interested in other people's problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often forget to put things back in their proper place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Feel others' emotions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Like order.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Am not really interested in others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Make a mess of things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Participation in Corporate-Volunteerism

On average, how frequently in the past year have you participated in company-supported volunteering in the community (donating your time, not money)?

- Never
- Once or twice a year
- Several times a year
- Once or twice a month
- Once a week
- More than once a week

Intentions to Participation in Corporate-Volunteerism

<i>Please use the following rating scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement below:</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
I <u>plan to participate</u> in company-supported volunteering in the community over <u>the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I <u>expect to participate</u> in company-supported volunteering in the community over <u>the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I <u>would like to participate</u> in company-supported volunteering in the community over <u>the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I <u>intend to participate</u> in company-supported volunteering in the community over <u>the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Attitudes toward Corporate-Volunteerism

1. Company-supported volunteer activities in the community are:

Good _____ Bad
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Exciting _____ Boring
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Pleasant _____ Unpleasant
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Useful _____ Worthless
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Harmful _____ Beneficial
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Satisfying _____ Unsatisfying
Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Subjective Norms

<i>Please use the following rating scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement below:</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
<u>My coworkers</u> would want me to participate in company-supported volunteering <u>over the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<u>My coworkers</u> think I should participate in company-supported volunteering <u>over the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<u>My supervisor</u> would want me to participate in company-supported volunteering <u>over the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<u>My supervisor</u> thinks I should participate in company-supported volunteering <u>over the next year</u> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In this organization, employees are <u>encouraged</u> to volunteer their time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In this organization, employees are <u>expected</u> to volunteer their time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My supervisor <u>encourages</u> me to volunteer my time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My supervisor <u>expects</u> me to volunteer my time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My coworkers <u>encourage</u> me to volunteer my time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My coworkers <u>expect</u> me to volunteer my time in the community through company-supported activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Behavioral Norms

How likely do you think it is that the following people or groups will participate in company-supported volunteering over the next year?	<i>Extremely unlikely</i>	<i>Unlikely</i>	<i>Neither Likely nor Unlikely</i>	<i>Likely</i>	<i>Extremely Likely</i>	<i>Not Applicable</i>
Supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coworkers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spouse/partner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family members	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Close friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Perceived Behavioral Control

1. How much control do you have over your ability to participate in company-supported volunteering in the community over the next year?

- Very little control
- Slight control
- Some control
- Quite a bit of control
- Complete control

2. The decision to engage in company-supported volunteering in the community over the next year is beyond my control:

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neither Agree nor Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

3. Whether I participate in company-supported volunteering in the community over the next year is not entirely up to me:

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neither Agree nor Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Self-Efficacy for Corporate-Volunteering

1. How confident are you that you could participate in company-supported volunteering in the community over the next year?

Confident _____ Unsure
 Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

2. For me, participating in company-supported volunteering in the community over the next year is:

Easy _____ Difficult
 Extremely Quite Slightly Neither Slightly Quite Extremely

Functional Motives

	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Neutral	Somewhat Important	Extremely Important
<i>Please indicate how important each of the following possible reasons for volunteering in the community are/would be for you in doing volunteer work:</i>					
Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My friends volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering makes me feel important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
People I know share an interest in community service.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
By volunteering, I feel less lonely.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<i>Please indicate how important each of the following possible reasons for volunteering in the community are/would be for you in doing volunteer work:</i>	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Neutral	Somewhat Important	Extremely Important
Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel compassion toward people in need.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel it is important to help others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
By volunteering I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
By volunteering I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering makes me feel needed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can explore my own strengths.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Please indicate how important each of the following possible reasons are/would be for you to participate in volunteer work:</i>	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Neutral	Somewhat Important	Extremely Important
Because I care what happens to the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I want to be fully involved in the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I feel pride in the organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because the organization values my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I have a genuine interest in my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I want to be a well-informed employee.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because the organization treats me fairly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I am committed to the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To avoid looking bad in front of others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To avoid looking lazy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To look better than my coworkers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To avoid a reprimand from my supervisor.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I fear appearing irresponsible.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To stay out of trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because rewards are important to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I want a raise.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To impress my coworkers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Perceived Locus of Causality

	Not at all True	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Mostly True	Very True
<i>There are a variety of reasons why people participate in volunteer work. Please indicate how true each of these reasons are for why you participate/would participate in volunteer work.</i>					
External Regulation					
Because others give me rewards when I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because others would get mad at me if I did not volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because others like me better when I volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because volunteering helps my image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because others would be angry at me if I did not volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because others praise me and make me feel good when I volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Introjected					
Because I would feel bad about myself if I did not volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I feel pressured to volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I want people to like me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I would feel guilty if I did not volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because volunteering makes me feel important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I think it's what I'm supposed to do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identified					
Because I think it's important to volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because volunteering is beneficial to my health and lifestyle.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because it is personally important to me to volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I have a strong value for volunteering.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I learn valuable lessons from volunteering.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because I simply enjoy volunteering.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because it is fun to volunteer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Because volunteering is interesting.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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