The Moderating Effect of Corporate Volunteerism on Reactions to Organizational Change: A Self-Affirmation Analysis

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ABSTRACT

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Deanna Siegel Senior

A number of studies have been conducted to examine ways to minimize the strain that employees experience as a result of organizational change. There has been little research, however, focused on alleviating this strain in realms outside of the organization. Self-affirmation theory (Steele, 1988) provides a framework to explore ways to minimize the strain, referred to as threat to self-integrity, that employees associate with organizational change. Based on self-affirmation theory, it is predicted that organizations can maintain or increase individuals' organizational commitment by providing employees with the opportunity to participate in activities that affirm their self-integrity outside of the organization. The present study focused on corporate volunteerism as a reaffirming activity that may alleviate change-related threat and lead to increased organizational commitment. This study examined the moderating effect of self-affirmation through corporate volunteerism on the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. A cross-sectional survey design was utilized, involving a sample of 613 corporate employees across two companies in different industries. The model was tested in the context of small- and large-scale organizational change. Hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analysis. Overall, the results indicated that a relationship exists between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. There was limited support, however, for the moderating effect of corporate volunteerism during times of organizational change. An alternative model was tested,

providing support for the mediating effect of self-affirmation on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Volunteerism: The policy or practice of volunteering one's time or service for charitable or community work (Webster's Random House College Dictionary, 2001).

Corporate Volunteerism: Volunteerism that takes place during the regular business day or outside of work, but is sponsored by the employee's organization.

Corporate Social Responsibility: The commitment of the corporation, based on its interdependence with the community, to use its available resources in such a manner that they will impact positively on society (Karson, 1988).

Organizational Commitment: "The relative strength of an individual's identification with or involvement in a particular organization" (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974, p. 604).

Organizational Change: Small- or large-scale transitions that significantly affect employees. Examples of significant small-scale changes include: a change in supervisor or a change in the work within a department. Examples of significant large-scale changes include: mergers and acquisitions.

Self-Integrity: Involves perceiving oneself as "competent, good, coherent, unitary, stable, capable of free choice, capable of controlling important outcomes..." (Steele, 1988, p.262). According to self-affirmation theory, self-integrity includes conceptions of a person's esteem (e.g., competent, good), sense of identity (e.g., unitary, stable) and sense of control (e.g., capable of controlling important outcomes).

Chapter 1
INTRODUCTION

Overview

Two business trends have had a marked impact on organizations over the past half century. The first is organizational change, defined as small- or large-scale organizational transitions that significantly affect employees (Bureau of National Affairs, 1996), and the second is a movement towards corporate social responsibility, defined as the commitment of corporations to use their available resources to positively impact society (Karson, 1988). Through the lens of self-affirmation theory, this dissertation explores the confluence of these two trends to realize the potential benefits of self-affirmation to employees and their organizations during times of organizational change.

Organization Change

The 21st century has been hailed as a time of tremendous change for organizations and their employees (Cascio, 1995; Conner, 1992; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The advent of computers and the impact of information technology and the internet have enhanced our ability to locate, process and share information. Globalization has allowed us to better source, export and partner across cultural boundaries. Additionally, the trend towards the re-engineering of business processes has enhanced our ability to bring products to market faster and more efficiently (Rhinesmith, 1996). These global changes have in part resulted in a substantial lifecycle compression of U.S. corporations; organizations are developing, evolving and ultimately, failing at a faster rate than they were at the beginning of the last century. Drucker (1969) predicted and

Foster and Kaplan (2001) confirmed that since 1990, we have been in an "age of discontinuity." To demonstrate their point, they noticed that the turnover rate of Standard and Poor 90 (S&P) companies used to be 1.5% per year from approximately 1917 to the mid-1930's. During this time period, a company in the S&P index could expect to survive for approximately 65 years. In 1998, however, the average turnover rate in the S&P 500 was 10%; the average lifetime of a corporation in the S&P index had shortened considerably, to about ten years. Foster and Kaplan (2001) assert, should this trend continue, that by the end of the year 2020 more than three quarters of the S&P 500 will consist of companies we do not know very well today or do not yet exist. Indeed, it is becoming increasingly difficult for organizations to maintain their market leadership positions. The only option for survival is to embrace and enable change.

Change is becoming a necessity as companies need to be more responsive to capital markets than ever before (Burke, 2002). Capital markets experience change far more quickly and efficiently than corporations and promote the necessity for change within companies (Foster & Kaplan, 2001). Foster and Kaplan (2001) explain that the essential difference between corporations and capital markets is in the way they manage and control businesses. Corporations are built on the premise of continuity. Their focus is on operations and long-term survival, whereas capital markets are built on the premise of discontinuity, or the inevitability of profound changes in the way business is conducted. Capital markets are comprised of informal groups of buyers, sellers and influential others who help determine the long-term survival and success of companies by evaluating their financial prospects (Burke, 2002). They encourage rapid creation and short-term success, but are not tolerant of downturns and move quickly towards

termination of support when a company is marked by underperformance. As a result, companies are constantly re-evaluating their positions in the marketplace and thereby engaging in large-scale change efforts such as merger and acquisition activity, as well as small-scale change efforts such as process re-engineering in order to remain competitive and ultimately, to survive.

Large- and small-scale changes promote the goal of organizational survival, but they also radically affect the employees experiencing them. Changes in our current workplace include the emergence of smaller companies that employ fewer specialized workers and the shift from making products to providing services. Additionally, the traditional notion of a "job" is becoming antiquated as work becomes project-based and employees are being required to work beyond fixed job descriptions (Howard, 1995). Organizations today and the employees working for them, more than ever before, are facing greater changes and are evolving at a more rapid pace (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). A study conducted by the Bureau of National Affairs (1996) showed that organizational change was a major concern for more than one third of the employees in 396 companies surveyed. Coping with change can be extremely difficult for the individuals working within these organizations, as will be described in the following section.

The Effects of Change on Employees

It has been established that change is a formidable stressor in individuals' organizational lives. Organizational change may be associated with negative outcomes such as job loss, reduced status, conflict at work and home and threats to the psychological well-being of employees (Ashford, 1988; Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991).

Coch & French (1948) originally stated and Wanberg & Banas (2000) more recently confirmed that employees experiencing change often feel a loss of territory, are uncertain about the future and may, as new tasks are presented to them, fear failure. As a result, they may experience a decrease in commitment to the organizations for which they work (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Gilmore, Shea & Useem, 1997). In an effort to assess the strain experienced by employees as a result of organizational change, Kanter (1991) surveyed nearly 12,000 managers in 25 countries on six continents and found that over the decade prior to 1990, loyalty and commitment for both senior managers and other employees had shifted from the organizations employing the individuals to professional associations. In addition, research by Becker (1992) and Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996) has produced a compelling rationale for using commitment as a criterion variable in assessing the impact of organizational change on employees. Becker (1992) argued that organizational commitment influenced the psychological attachment employees feel toward an organization and in turn, the extent to which they will both perform their jobs and experience swings in stress and workplace withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism and lateness) and ultimately, employee turnover. Employees' negative reactions to organizational change should, therefore, be of central concern to employers because employees' efforts and performance determine the ultimate success or failure of organizations.

Given the accelerated rate and complexity of change in the workplace and the implications of such change, it is not surprising that there is a large and growing literature on the causes, consequences, and strategies of organizational change (for reviews, see Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Porras & Robertson, 1992). What is surprising, however, is

the paucity of research on employee reactions to change. To address this shortcoming, researchers have used diverse theoretical approaches to understand why employees react differently to change in their work environment. Lewin's (1947, 1951) three-stage model of planned change was the primary theoretical paradigm that researchers used to understand change within a system (Coch & French, 1948). Stage one is a process of "unfreezing" the existing system, stage two involves moving towards a desired set of employee behaviors and stage three is the process of "refreezing" norms, behaviors and attitudes within a system. According to Lewin, all systems evolve through these three stages during planned change efforts.

Lewin's model of planned change served as the theoretical foundation for understanding employee resistance to change. The primary contribution of Lewin's work and the work that built on his model (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Lawrence, 1954) was the introduction and exploration of the concept of "resistance to change." Building on Lewin's model, researchers studied the link between individual differences and employee responses to change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik & Welbourne, 1999; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Porras & Hargis, 1982; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Locus of control (Lam & Shaubroeck, 2000) and self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Porras & Hargis, 1982) are examples of individual difference variables that have been linked to employee responses to change. Stress and coping models (Ashford, 1988; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) have been used to understand employee responses to organizational change as well as the impact of individuals' perceptions of fairness during organizational change (Brockner, 1988; Cobb, Wooten & Folger, 1995; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998).

Bridges (1986) defined employee reactions to change as a psychological process that people undergo as a result of managing the change process. The process is referred to as disidentification, where employees' esteem, identity and sense of control are compromised as a result of the change process (Bridges, 1986, 2001). Disidentification occurs as one's old identity is relinquished in order to make room for a new identity. For example, a person approaching retirement may wonder who he will be without association to the job he has been doing or the organization for which he has been working. Building on Bridges' work, the present model predicts that disidentification, or threat to one's self-integrity, may lead to reduced organizational commitment on the part of employees as a result of the strain associated with organizational change. While employees' reactions to change have been widely covered in the literature, there is a need for greater understanding of how to alleviate employees' strain as a result of organizational change. To address this need, the present study integrates self-affirmation theory with the research on employees' reactions to the change process.

Self-Affirmation Theory Framework

Self-affirmation theory provides a framework for exploring ways to alleviate the strain that employees experience in response to organizational change. In his theory of self-affirmation processes, Steele (1988) posits that people seek self-integrity. That is, they strive to see themselves as "competent, good, coherent, unitary, stable, capable of free choice, capable of controlling important outcomes..." (p.262). According to the theory, self-integrity includes conceptions of a person's esteem (e.g., competent, good), identity (e.g., unitary, stable) and sense of control (e.g., capable of controlling important

outcomes). Previously, researchers had only explored how people resolve threat in the same domain in which the threat occurred. For example, Festinger's (1957) study of cigarette smokers provided participants with means of resolving their inconsistent attitudes and behaviors, within the domain of cigarette smoking. Possible resolutions for participants included quitting smoking, denying the health risks or focusing on the benefits of smoking (e.g., relaxation). The novelty of self-affirmation theory is its central tenet that reaffirmation in a domain that is unrelated to the domain in which the person is undergoing threat, can also reduce threat. By employing self-affirmation theory, Festinger's smokers may have been able to relieve their experienced threat by focusing on their exceptional parenting skills for example, rather than their attitudes and behaviors related to smoking.

Within the context of organizational change, employees often experience threat to their self-integrity (i.e., their esteem, identity or control) as a result of increases in work load, greater time pressures, uncertainty about the future, less direction from management and/or lack of control over their work life (DeVoge & Spreier, 1999). As employees experience threat to their self-esteem, self-identity or sense of control as a result of the work stresses mentioned, self-affirmation achieved in realms outside of work may reaffirm employees' overall sense of competence or worth, thereby translating into more positive work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., organizational commitment). It is therefore hypothesized that reaffirmation of employees' self-integrity in a realm outside of work may translate into positive outcomes such as organizational commitment.

Self-Affirmation through Corporate Volunteerism

Self-affirmation theory provides the basis for a novel approach to organizational change research. It provides the opportunity for researchers to explore realms outside of the organization for ways to alleviate the threat to self-integrity that employees face as a result of organizational change. The present study extends the current literature by focusing on one such opportunity: corporate volunteerism. It is proposed that during times of small- or large-scale organizational change, when employees' self-integrity is threatened, the act of volunteering for community activities sponsored by their organizations will increase employees' commitment to the sponsoring organizations. Organizational commitment may result from employees attributing feelings of self-affirmation to the institution that provided them with the rewarding opportunity to volunteer. The next section provides some historical background and provides details regarding the relevance of focusing on corporate volunteerism as a means for self-affirmation.

Corporate Volunteerism

In 1977, John D. Rockefeller III addressed the importance of the business community and nonprofit volunteer organizations working together. He noted, "The business community and volunteer organizations are rooted in common ground, the preservation and strengthening of individual initiative and private enterprise. To me, there is no question that the future of volunteerism and of American business is inseparable." Rockefeller believed that corporate donations alone were not enough. He felt that businesses must seek to mobilize their human resources to assist the voluntary

"third sector" thereby regaining its vitality and preserving its importance in American society (Allen, 1982, p.2). The issue of "corporate social responsibility," however, can be traced even as far back as 1918 when economist J.M. Clark presented a paper entitled, "The Changing Basis of Economic Responsibilities." Furthermore, it has been estimated that since the beginning of the twentieth century through the early 1980's, over 640 books, papers and periodicals have in some way addressed the role of the corporation in society (Useem, 1987).

Businesses have long acknowledged some responsibility for the welfare of the communities in which they operate (Tichy, McGill & St. Clair, 1997). The appropriate extent of corporate social responsibility and the best methods for engaging in it have been discussed and debated for decades. We have moved from a society that once believed that any use of corporate funds for philanthropic purposes was illegal, to one in which corporations are expected to engage in philanthropic activities (Sharfman, 1994). The most conservative view of corporate social responsibility is associated with the economist Milton Friedman, who argues that corporations have no social obligations beyond their fiduciary duty to shareholders. Some argue that corporations should not engage in social activism at all. Those who have taken this position argue that the solutions to social problems fall outside the competence of most corporate managers and that only incremental solutions could be offered by corporations, whereas major social reform could be achieved through the vision of more appropriate nonprofit organizations. A less conservative view argues that corporations must assume *some* responsibility for the state of society in order to preserve their own long-term profitability and viability. The purpose of a corporation, to "serve the shareholders' interests," is extended to include

some degree of social involvement. Others argue that corporations have a large degree of responsibility to improve society, short- and long-term profitability notwithstanding.

Corporations have unique capabilities and resources that can be brought to bear to solve major social problems that might otherwise receive little attention. A 1996 *Business Week* Harris Poll reported that ninety-five percent of Americans believe that corporations "should sometimes sacrifice some profit for the sake of making things better for their workers and community" (pp. 64-65). From this perspective, good corporate citizenship involves a certain amount of social involvement, independent of considerations of profitability and viability. In 1993, the Center for Corporate Community Relations at Boston College (Barnes, 1994) conducted a study measuring consumer attraction to socially responsible companies. Data were collected through 1,572 household interviews in five major cities across the United States. Results showed that consumers were more likely to buy products or do business with companies regarded as "good" than with companies regarded as "bad" for the community. Forty-seven percent of the participants responded that they would be much more likely to buy products from a socially responsible company. When asked what their likelihood was of buying from a socially irresponsible company, 57% of the participants reported that they would be less likely to do so. Forty percent of the interviewees responded that their purchasing decisions were strongly affected by a company's community relations program. Barnes (1994) additionally stated that consumers, more than ever before, are aware of a company's record of corporate social responsibility and presence in the community. In practice, a combination of altruistic and pragmatic motivations compels corporations to be good citizens. "Reasons often cited for being a good corporate citizen

include a genuine commitment to change on the part of managers, concerns of enlightened self-interest involving long-term profitability and sustained economic growth, and a simple desire to cash in on consumers' sentiments" (Tichy, McGill & St. Clair, 1997).

Corporate social responsibility manifests itself in four different ways: a) the organizations' acceptance of the notion of responsibility to the community, b) direct contribution of corporate dollars to charitable causes, c) institutionalizing volunteerism by undertaking community service projects as part of their total activities, and d) encouraging and assisting employees to become active volunteers in the community (Tichy et al., 1997). The present study will focus on the third definition of corporate social responsibility by measuring the impact of corporate volunteer activities on employees and their organizations. Opportunities provided by organizations range from volunteer activities involving large numbers of employees to local community building opportunities for small groups of individuals or departments. Nonprofit organizations such as New York Cares and United Way work with companies in different industries to provide opportunities for the corporate community to get involved in volunteerism. They work with public relations representatives to organize customized volunteering days for employees, make arrangements for individuals to serve as "leaders-on-loan" in the nonprofit sector, and create team-building experiences for people to volunteer and bond outside of the workplace. Examples of corporate volunteer activities sponsored by organizations include the March of Dimes walk, Habitat for Humanity activities, the United Way 5K race, New York Cares clean-up days, the Heart Walk for blood-related disorders and the Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Race for the Cure. Although the most

obvious impact of corporate citizenship programs is on their intended beneficiaries, such efforts also affect the members of the corporate organizations and the companies for which they work.

According to a study conducted by the Points of Light Foundation and The Conference Board (1993) examining 188 United States companies, corporate volunteer programs advanced strategic business goals and significantly increased their company's overall competitiveness in three critical areas: 74% agreed that volunteerism increased the productivity of employees; 93% agreed that volunteerism built employee teamwork skills; and 94% agreed that volunteerism improved the corporate public image. The study showed that corporate volunteer programs help corporations attract and retain the people they need and help build the skills and attitudes that foster organizational commitment, company loyalty and job satisfaction. The study also showed that volunteer activities provide personal and professional growth and encourage characteristics that improve the quality of the workforce such as creativity, trust, teamwork and persistence. According to the study, a volunteer's community service also increases opportunities for promoting the company's image to the public and can increase employees' business contacts outside of the organization. In addition to organizational-level benefits of corporate volunteer programs, employees also derive benefit at the individual-level.

There has been some empirical demonstration of the positive influence of corporate citizenship on job satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment (Frank-Alston, 2000). Using a sample size of thirty, Frank-Alston conducted a qualitative study reporting that participation in corporate volunteer programs promoted teamwork and creativity on the job which made individuals' experience of working at the

company better (job satisfaction). The volunteer activities provided an avenue for some participants to receive recognition on the job for their efforts, which led them to feeling more valued and motivated at work (job motivation). Finally, the study participants shared strong feelings of pride for the company's investment in volunteerism as a result of the company having coordinated and organized the volunteer activities (organizational commitment). Even though Frank-Alston's (2000) study employed a small sample, it is a valuable study in that it demonstrates the positive influence of volunteerism on organizational commitment. Still, there has been little research investigating the link between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation, and whether the positive effect of volunteering on organizational commitment during times of change is attributable to self-affirmation.

Study Contributions

The current study used self-affirmation theory as a framework to further explore the connection between two significant business trends: organization change and corporate social responsibility. More specifically, the study presents an opportunity for employees to minimize the threat to self-integrity associated with organizational change via participation in corporate volunteerism and, thereby, reduce the harmful effects of organizational change on individuals. As such, the primary intended contribution of this study is to examine a possible individual-level moderating effect of self-affirmation on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and individual organizational commitment during times of organizational change. In addition to exploring the benefits of this moderating relationship to individuals, the paper presents two potential benefits to

organizations that follow from a significant individual-level effect. First, increased organizational commitment across employees leads to a more committed workforce that will be more likely to endure changes within the organization. As noted by Mowday et. al. (1982), a committed workforce is a productive workforce--one in which employees are willing to maintain or improve their organization. Second, the organization is poised to experience the previous outlined benefits associated with corporate social responsibility including shareholder pride, consumer loyalty and long-term profitability.

The current study also extends previous research on organizational change by focusing on the individual experiencing organizational change, in addition to the system response. Judge et. al. (1999) noted that much of extant theory and research on organizational change takes a macro, or systems-oriented approach. Accordingly, they and others (e.g., Aktouf, 1992; Bray, 1994; Wanberg & Banas, 2000) have called for a more person-focused approach to the study of organizational change. The present study primarily focuses on individuals' reactions to organizational change and the impact of the individual-level construct of self-affirmation on employees' organizational commitment.

This paper provides a theoretical model for understanding a phenomenon, corporate volunteerism, that until now has been addressed primarily anecdotally. An MSNBC article by Ben Dobbin (May 12, 2004), describes a number of companies that provide opportunities for their employees to become involved in corporate volunteerism. It also provides anecdotal evidence of benefits to the companies. Approximately 1,800 companies run corporate foundations and an additional 2,200 have formal community relations programs, according to Stephen Jordan, executive director of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce's Center for Corporate Citizenship. Xerox, for example, since 1971 has

given a small group of employees up to one year's paid leave to work in the nonprofit world. One of Xerox's eligibility requirements is that employees show years of dedication to a specific charity. Joe Cahalan, Xerox Foundation's long-time overseer of the program states, "Our history says that employees who really want to do work like this come back and pick up where they left off and, in some intangible ways, they're probably more motivated and more loyal to the company." For example, Jason Green was hired by Xerox as an account associate in 1997 and through Xerox's program, has been working as an outreach specialist for AIDS Project Arizona. Green states that getting six months away from his job to do this kind of work, "makes my allegiance to Xerox that much stronger. It's nice that I can brag about my company in this way." Anecdotal evidence for the value of corporate volunteerism exists, but there is a dearth of quantitative, data-driven evidence. Although paid sabbaticals offer a much richer experience to employees, this study is a first step towards gathering data and evidence for the merit of different types of corporate volunteer opportunities.

This paper also brings self-affirmation theory into the organizational context, building upon research previously conducted in laboratory settings (Wiesenfeld, Brockner, & Martin, 1999). In particular, the present study focuses on organizational changes that range from large-scale events that influence a large number of people (e.g. a merger or acquisition) to small-scale events that are unique to an individual's experience at work (e.g. a promotion or a change in supervisor). The present study defines organizational change as a transition that has taken place at work and that is of significance to the employee. In order to test the model in the field, measures of

organizational change, perceived threat to self-integrity, involvement in corporate volunteerism and employees' organizational commitment were collected.

This dissertation made several contributions to the existing literature. Self-affirmation theory provides a framework for researchers to explore ways to minimize the strain that employees associate with organizational change. Past research has explored organizational actions that have intended to minimize resistance and increase openness to change. Researchers have primarily focused on ways that organizations can minimize resistance by removing the uncertainty surrounding change (Daly & Geyer, 1994; Hardy, 1985), by providing information to employees (Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991) and instituting human resource programs to minimize the effects of change (Zatzick, 2001). These organizational actions, however, have focused on employee activities enacted within the work setting itself. The current study extended the literature by using self-affirmation theory as a framework to explore whether activities enacted outside of the work setting may help maintain or increase organizational commitment during times of change.

Dissertation Organization

This paper is divided into five primary sections. Chapter One presents an overview of the study and introduces the major concepts explored throughout this paper. The second chapter reviews the relevant theoretical foundations for the proposed model, specifically, the theory of self-affirmation (Steele, 1988; Steele & Liu, 1983). It provides a review of the relevant research pertaining to self-affirmation, employee reactions to organizational change and corporate volunteerism. How self-affirmation provides the

basis for a novel approach to organizational change research is also explored. The second part of the chapter outlines the self-affirmation model of corporate volunteerism as a moderator on the relationship between threat to individuals' self-integrity and organizational commitment during organizational change. The model illustrates the process by which organizational change may threaten individuals' self-integrity and result in decreased organizational commitment. It is posited that through self-affirmation, corporate volunteerism may mitigate or even reverse the negative relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. This section addresses each part of the model in detail and includes evidence to support the predicted linkages between the variables. Specific hypotheses are presented throughout this section.

Chapter Three outlines the research methodology used to test the self-affirmation model, including the study design, sample, procedures, operationalizations of all variables and the various measures used. Chapter Four presents a detailed review of the results found for all of the hypotheses tested. The final section of this dissertation, Chapter Five, is a general discussion of the results of the study with particular focus on the extent to which they can be applied to practice and theory. Research limitations as well as directions for future research are also discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter reviews relevant theory and research pertaining to self-affirmation, employee reactions to organizational change and corporate volunteerism. It begins with a review of self-affirmation theory, which provides a framework for thinking about the moderating psychological effect of corporate volunteerism on the relationship between threat to a person's self-integrity that results from organizational change and decreased organizational commitment. A model depicting the relationships between the constructs of organizational change, organizational commitment and self-affirmation through corporate volunteerism is offered and evidence supporting the hypothesized links is discussed. Formal hypotheses are provided throughout this section and a visual representation of the hypotheses and model linkages are presented at the end of the chapter.

Introduction to Self-Affirmation Theory

For over thirty years, cognitive dissonance researchers have explored the causes and consequences of a person's behavior contradicting his or her self-views (Cooper & Fazio, 1984; Festinger, 1957). People often say things or behave in ways that seem at odds with their true beliefs. Festinger's (1957) idea that dissonance is the result of inconsistent cognitions, however, was only tested empirically with resolutions related to the provoking inconsistencies. Subsequent researchers, furthermore, have only given respondents one means of responding to threat, a means that invariably counters the particular threat itself (Cooper & Fazio, 1984; Wicklund & Brehm, 1976). It is

conceivable then that had the respondents been given the option, they might have chosen other domains, aside from the one offered, in which to reduce the threat. That being said, cognitive dissonance theory provided a valuable foundation for recent theorists to explore whether people can successfully reduce dissonance by focusing in domains other than the one in which the threat was originally experienced. Through self-affirmation theory, Steele (1988) showed that "...what really motivates individuals to reduce dissonance is not inconsistency, but rather the negative light that inconsistency casts on the self-image" (p. 268). Steele showed that it is possible for people to reduce cognitive dissonance by affirming the general integrity of the self, not necessarily by resolving a particular threat. The present study will build on Steele's notion of self-affirmation by testing whether involvement in an activity that affirms general self-integrity, specifically corporate volunteering, alleviates experienced change-related threat in the workplace.

The Contributions of Self-Affirmation Theory to Extant Literature

Festinger (1957) originally proposed that cognitive inconsistency between attitudes and behaviors leads people to adjust their attitudes to be in line with their behaviors. Self-affirmation theory suggests that it is not inconsistency per se that motivates attitude change. Rather, it is the implications of the inconsistency for peoples' self-integrity, which lead them to change their attitudes in the direction of their behavior (Wiesenfeld, Brockner & Martin, 1999). Researchers have pointed out that inconsistency creates dissonance to the extent that it activates the self-concept (Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962; Swann, 1984) and people generally want to see themselves as competent and good. Steele articulates the following in his 1988 article, "The Psychology of Self-Affirmation:

Sustaining the Integrity of the Self:"

> I propose the existence of a self-system that essentially explains ourselves, and the world at large, to ourselves. The purpose of these constant explanations (and rationalizations) is to maintain a phenomenal experience of the self – self-conceptions and images – as adaptively and morally adequate, that is, as competent, good, coherent, unitary, stable, capable of free choice, capable of controlling important outcomes, and so on. I view these self-affirmation processes as being activated by information that threatens the perceived adequacy or integrity of the self and as running their course until this perception is restored, through explanation, rationalization, and/or action.

Self-affirmation theory's contribution was the introduction of the underlying mechanism, the desire to maintain self-integrity, that integrated previously unrelated social psychological phenomena. Previous psychological theories that were developed in order to describe and explain human motives such as consistency, equity, self-completion, control and freedom could be explained through the all encompassing human motive of the desire to reinstate self-integrity. In order to test these different motives, researchers inflicted variations of self-threat on study participants. For example, in equity research (e.g. Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978) researchers induced discomfort by threatening a self-conception of fairness and in reactance research (Brehm, 1966), researchers threatened people's personal freedoms. In learned helplessness research (Seligman, 1975), people's environmental control was threatened and in self-completion research (e.g. Wicklund & Gollwitzer 1983), people's opportunity for achievement of an important self-goal was threatened. Self-affirmation logic suggests that instead of resolving particular motive states tied to particular threats, such as reinstating fairness for people experiencing inequity, the actual goal of subjects following such manipulations may be to reaffirm their general self-integrity. Steele (1988) and Steele and Liu (1983)

argue that had other self-affirming responses been available to subjects involved in equity, reactance, learned helplessness or self-completion research, they may have foregone attempts to resolve the provoking threats. The current study will extend existing self-affirmation literature by measuring the effects of choosing to partake in a self-affirmation response to the experience of self-integrity threat.

Building on Steele's assertions, threat to self-integrity felt from inconsistent behaviors and attitudes in one realm, may be alleviated by reaffirming one's self-esteem, self-identity or sense of control in an entirely different realm. Consider the women involved in Steele's (1975) experiment. Self-concepts are threatened when a male confederate telephones individuals and gauges their interest in participating in a future poll on women's issues. Participants are randomly assigned to a condition where they are led to believe that they are considered to be uncooperative with regard to community projects. This condition is referred to as the negative name condition. On the other hand, in the positive name condition, the women are led to believe that it is common knowledge that they are cooperative with regard to community projects. In an irrelevant negative name condition, the caller expresses concern for the individual's known recklessness in the driving arena. Two days later, the women are contacted by a female confederate, posing as a community member unrelated to the first caller. She asks each woman to help with a community project. In response to that request, the women either agreed to help or did not agree to help with the community project.

The results of the study indicated that the relevant negative name condition caused twice as much helping than either the base rate or the positive name conditions. The results, however, also revealed that the irrelevant negative name condition similarly

caused twice as much helping as the relevant negative name condition. In other words, it did not make a difference as to whether people were called uncooperative with community projects or were vilified for exhibiting poor driving skills. More people volunteered to help with an unrelated community project in these negative name conditions than in the other conditions. This finding lends support to the idea that people will work towards reinstating their "adaptively and morally adequate self-identity" when experiencing a threat to their self-concept, even in a domain unrelated to the one in which the threat was experienced. This leads to the question whether people may even prefer to reaffirm their positive self-identity in domains other than the one in which the threat was originally experienced.

Selectivity in the Self-Affirmation Process

Self-affirmation theory posits that reaffirmation of a valued, but unrelated, self-concept can reduce experienced threat to a person's esteem, identity or feelings of control. The reaffirmation of a person's self-concept can take place through many means in infinite realms. Aronson, Blanton & Cooper (1995) conducted a study of participants' choices with regard to self-affirmation, after self-threat was induced through cognitive dissonance. Their study supported self-affirmation theory in that the threat to the self engendered by a dissonant act, in this case writing counter-attitudinal essays, led people to engage in self-affirmation activities. Specifically, participants could choose among ten domains of positive feedback, after engaging in a self-threatening experiment. Their domain choices included open-mindedness, flexibility, sociability, emotional stability, objectivity, impulsivity, compassion, independence, creativity and organization.

Participants were instructed to rank the positive feedback domains in the order in which they would prefer to get feedback. When participants were instructed to write essays against funding increases for persons with physical disabilities and therefore experienced cognitive dissonance after behaving without compassion, they preferred to receive feedback in a domain unrelated to compassion. That is, participants actually preferred to receive positive feedback in a domain unrelated to the one in which the initial threat was experienced.

This study provides evidence of the positive effects of providing people with opportunities to reaffirm their self-concepts following experienced threat, even if those domains are separate from the one in which the threat was originally experienced. In fact, people may prefer reaffirmation in distinct domains that reaffirm different aspects of their self-concept than the one in which the threat was experienced. For example, a person experiencing a threat to their self-identity as a result of the content of his or her job responsibilities not matching his or her values, may prefer to reduce this threat through reaffirmation outside of work. Taking a person away from the work environment and into the community to engage in a volunteer activity, for instance, may reaffirm his or her self-integrity more effectively than providing him or her with the opportunity to change behaviors or attitudes related to work. In this example, threat to the self-identity may be reduced by general self-integrity reaffirmation through volunteerism.

Alternative Explanations to Self-Affirmation Theory

Two alternative explanations have been suggested for the affirmation effects described. The first is the possibility that providing people with the opportunity to self-

affirm may reduce dissonance by serving as a distraction from the experienced threat. For example in the Aronson, Blanton & Cooper (1995) study, in which participants were asked to write counter-attitudinal essays, the act of asking people how they preferred to receive feedback may have reduced dissonance among the participants by distracting them from thinking about the counter-attitudinal essays they had just written. Steele addressed this alternative explanation by introducing a non-affirming but distracting condition into his research design. For example, he had participants fill out value surveys about values unimportant to them. He reasoned that if distraction was in fact reducing the experienced dissonance, then the opportunity to fill out non-relevant values surveys also would eliminate the dissonance-reducing behaviors. However, as predicted by self-affirmation theory, providing participants with the opportunity to fill out non-relevant values surveys did not eliminate dissonance-reducing behaviors.

The second alternative explanation is that affirmation manipulations invoke positive affect in participants and, as a result, lead to a reduction in dissonance. Steele, Spencer and Lynch (1993) addressed this alternative explanation by conducting a study where subjects completed domain irrelevant surveys that were unrelated to the original threat, but were designed to elicit good moods, rather than reaffirm the self. The results of the study showed that even when subjects' positive moods were increased, the level of dissonance-reducing behaviors did not change. Steele et al. (1993) explained this lack of change by reasoning that positive mood was unrelated to participants' self-concepts. In sum, these two alternative explanations do not appear to account for the effects of self-affirmation.

Self-Affirmation Theory within Organizational Settings

In most of the self-affirmation experiments previously conducted, participants were given the opportunity to reaffirm their self-integrity by completing values surveys. However, Steele studied other reaffirmation contexts as well, ranging from giving science student subjects the opportunity to wear white lab coats, the symbol of success in their field, to inviting service-minded people to participate in volunteerism. Implicit in Steele's decision to give subjects the option of participating in a community service project, was the idea that participating in volunteer activities bolsters people's self-concept of being cooperative, helpful and good (Steele, 1988). It could be argued then, that corporate volunteerism, defined by participation in volunteer activities sponsored by one's employer, would also lead to employee self-affirmation.

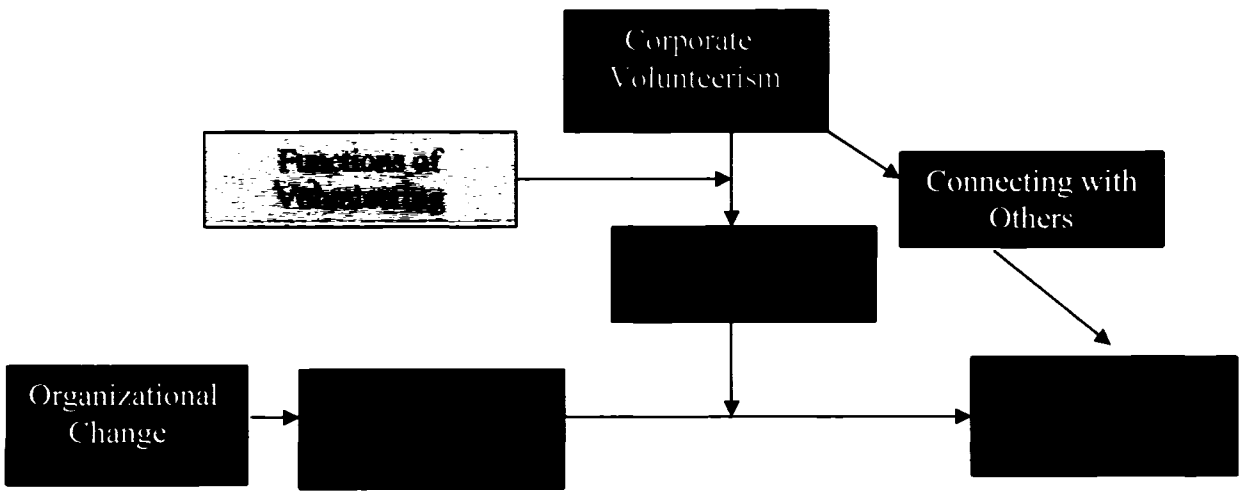
In addition to recognizing that volunteerism may lead to the enhancement of individuals' self-concepts, Steele's studies provided evidence for one of the central tenets of self-affirmation theory. The different ways to achieve self-affirmation in Steele's experiments were unrelated to the original threat, but were nevertheless effective in minimizing the reliance on dissonance-reducing behaviors. These experiments further highlight the fact that reaffirmation can occur in domains unrelated to the one in which the original threat was experienced, as long as success in that domain restores self-integrity. The fact that reaffirmation can take place in domains unrelated to those in which the original threat was experienced suggests that self-affirmation theory is applicable to organizational settings. Within an organizational setting, in which employees are experiencing change, it may be possible to minimize the threat to their self-integrity by affirming in a domain unrelated to the one in which the original threat

was experienced. Self-affirmation theory may offer insight into ways to minimize change-related work stress by providing individuals with opportunities to engage in activities outside of the organization. The following model depicts one such option through corporate volunteerism.

Overview of Model

Drawing on self-affirmation theory, it is suggested that organizational change may threaten employees' self-integrity, leading to a decrease in commitment to the organization. A possible moderator will be examined, self-affirmation through corporate volunteerism, of the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. In this section of the paper, each of the components of the model are reviewed in turn. The first linkage, between organizational change and employees experiencing threat to their self-integrity, is derived from theorizing about organizational transitions (Bridges, 1986), defensive routines (Argyris, 1985), and stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Figure 1: A Self-Affirmation Model of the Moderating Effect of Corporate Volunteerism on Reactions to Organizational Change



Employee Reactions to Organizational Change

In order to remain competitive and well-regarded by capital markets, organizations undergo frequent changes. Organizational changes affect individuals, who inevitably experience loss, in various forms, as a result of change in familiar routines. They often experience uncertainty, loss of control and loss of face as well as concerns about competence, past resentments and disruption (Kanter, 1987). Other researchers have also studied the link between organizational change and threat to self-integrity. For example, Bridges (1986) described individuals' reactions to change as a period of transition, which is defined as the psychological process that people undergo as a result of managing the change process. He outlined a three-part psychological process that may extend over a long period of time as people experience organizational change. The first phase in this framework is called "the ending phase," in which people acknowledge that a separation is taking place between the subjective world prior to the change and the new world that will inevitably follow. The second phase, "the neutral zone phase," follows the ending phase and since there is no clear division between the phases, the mourning over what has been lost and the identity confusion associated with it, flare up periodically during this phase. Eventually, however, people shift into this "neutral zone" where productivity and effectiveness are likely to break down. With the support of others, however, people generally realize that they are neither isolated nor blameworthy. Bridges describes the "neutral zone" as a period in which, "you're lost enough to find yourself now." The "neutral zone phase" is followed by a third stage, "the vision or new beginning stage." Bridges asserts that this stage is key to the transition process because "just as an organizational transition must begin with an ending, it must also end with a beginning."

During this stage in an organizational change effort, employees are finally able to look forward and begin creating a vision for the future.

Organizational Transitions

Bridges (1986) explains that one of the first losses experienced by people going through transition is the sense of loss of one's identity in the former situation. He describes this process as disidentification, in which one's old identity must be relinquished in order to make space for a new identity. This process can be very painful, even terrifying, according to Bridges. One reason is that people experiencing organizational change no longer have a clear sense of who they are. They no longer feel complete and are unable to identify their individuality. This loss of self-identity leads to a threat to self-integrity, previously defined by Steele as the quality or state of being competent, good, whole and unimpaired. Bridges (1988) outlines six potential domains in which a person may experience loss as a result of threat to self-integrity: loss of meaning, future, structure, turf, attachments and control. These domains of loss are noticeably similar to the components of Steele's definition of self-integrity. Bridges suggests that the importance of the different domains relies on how integral each one is to a person's identity. In other words, if the meaning that a person places on his work is important to his identity, he will feel a heightened threat to his self-integrity as he experiences a loss in his work's meaning as a result of an organizational change. Steele similarly suggests that it is the self-relevance of the loss that determines how much threat an individual will experience. Taken together, Bridge's and Steele's work support the idea that as a result of organizational change, people generally experience a threat to

some aspect of their self-integrity.

Defensive Routines

Argyris (1985) addresses how change impacts individuals' perceptions of control and can cause a "loss of face." In his theory linking organizational change to defensive routines, Argyris posits that as a result of organizational change, individuals experience threat. Individuals experience threat to what Argyris describes as their governing values or "theories in use." Theories in use employed by individuals give them a sense of wholeness or understanding of who they are and what they stand for. When individuals' "theories in use" are threatened, they attempt to restore control by employing "defensive routines," which allow them to save face and minimize the threatening experience.

Argyris (1985) asserts that defensive routines exist in most organizations. "Defensive routines are thoughts and actions used to protect individuals', groups' and organizations' usual ways of dealing with reality." People generally feel that they need protection when they are faced with new, challenging or threatening situations. Organizational change may lead people into defensive modes because change elicits threat for employees. An example of a defensive routine would be if a person were to blindly comply with a manager's request for change out of a fear of retribution, but at the same time suppress frustration and anger. Defensive actions protect employees going through difficulties, but they inhibit learning, are difficult to alter, become self-reinforcing and ultimately can undermine organizational change efforts. Indeed, defensive actions may be individuals' responses to threats to their self-integrity as a result of organizational changes taking place. Argyris' theory and research further support the

assertion that people view organizational change as a threat to their self-integrity.

Stress and Coping Models

Organizational change can cause tremendous stress to employees. As previously stated, this stress can result from uncertainty about the future and a feeling of loss of control over one's work life (DeVoge & Spreier, 1999). Stress may result from the threat to self-integrity (e.g., perceived loss of control) brought on by change. Further, in an environment in which employees are experiencing threat to their self-integrity as a result of organizational change, they may experience an increase in workload stress due to the fact that they are not operating with the full psychological capacity to handle such difficulties.

Employee stress has received considerable research attention (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Wahlstedt & Edling, 1997). For example, McHugh (1997) studied employee stress in an organization that was part of the Swedish social insurance system. The organization had undergone several years of changes designed to increase accountability, efficiency and effectiveness. Employee stress was assessed in terms of factors such as job demands from the demands-supports-constraints model of job stress (Fletcher and Payne, 1983) and psychological well-being measures such as depression, anxiety, exhaustion and tension. McHugh concluded that change is a major source of stress for many employees. Organizational changes create stress and anxiety in the workplace, which force individuals to develop ways to cope with the changes (Ashford, 1988). For example, Armstrong-Stassen (1994) found that perceived threat of job loss due to organizational layoffs was positively correlated with the use of coping strategies.

Coping with change can be very difficult for individuals. Employees experiencing change often feel a loss of territory, are uncertain about what the future holds, and may fear failure as they are faced with new tasks (Coch & French, 1948).

In their seminal work, Coch and French (1948) examined the differences between employees' resistance to change as they relate to level of participation in the change effort. The employees' participation levels ranged from no participation to participation through representation to total participation. Results showed that employees with higher levels of participation had lower resistance as measured by changes in individual output. Coch and French interpreted resistance as an opposing force, motivated from a frustration of not being involved in the design and development of change. They reasoned that by providing employees with the opportunity for participation, a new force was introduced into the system to counteract employee frustration with organizational change.

Whereas some employees may not be bothered by organizational change and may look at change as a chance to grow and learn, other employees react negatively to even the smallest of changes. Several studies have combined personality differences with models of stress and coping to explain employee reactions to change (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994; Judge et al., 1999). For example, Judge et al. (1999) showed that managers with high self-efficacy were better able to cope with stressful changes compared to managers with low self-efficacy.

Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theoretical framework of stress, appraisal and coping is closely related to Steele's conceptualization of threat to self-integrity. According to Lazarus & Folkman (1984), stress is understood through the process of appraising events. They distinguish between primary and secondary appraisal in which

in the former, an individual asks the question, "Am I threatened or benefiting (from this change), now or in the future, and in what way?" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; 31). A person answers this question by deciding whether the event is personally irrelevant, meaning that neither harm will result nor will the event provide an opportunity for growth, or is relevant, meaning that either harm may result (i.e. a harm/loss or threat appraisal) or there is an opportunity for growth (i.e. a challenge appraisal). If an event is experienced as harm/loss, threat or a challenge, individuals move into a secondary appraisal where they ask themselves the question, "What, if anything, can be done about it?" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; 31). It should be noted that threat and challenge appraisals are not necessarily mutually exclusive. People experiencing threat to self-integrity as a result of organizational change, may also realize the potential for gains in skills, knowledge, responsibility or monetary reward. It is assumed, however, that the threat appraisal is more imminent and debilitating for people in organizational change situations.

Secondary appraisal is the process of managing threatening situations. It is a complex evaluative process that takes into account available coping options, which coping options will likely accomplish the desired goal, and the likelihood that a person can apply a particular coping option. Secondary appraisals of evaluating coping options, coupled with primary appraisals of threat identification, shape the resulting degree of stress felt by the individual. Just as Steele specifies that the self-relevance of a loss determines the effects on self-integrity, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) assert that it is the personal relevance of an event that determines how stressful it is. In addition to Bridges and Argyris' contributions, Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theoretical perspective on

stress also supports the view that the experience of stress due to organizational change can result in threat to self-integrity.

Model Link #1: Organizational Changes Threaten Employees' Self-Integrity

Organizational changes potentially threaten employees' self-integrity in three primary ways: lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and reduced control (Dirks, Cummings & Pierce, 1996; Wiesenfeld et al, 1996, 1999). In her dissertation, Wiesenfeld (1996) stated that when individuals experience threat to their self-integrity, changes force employees to reflect upon their self-esteem, self-identity or sense of control by asking themselves the questions respectively, "Do I like who I am?" (self-esteem) "Do I know who I am?" (self-identity) and/or "Can I control important outcomes?" (control) (cf. Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Lowered Self-Esteem

Lowered self-esteem can result from negative self-evaluations that occur when a person experiences organizational change. When employees do not clearly know what their daily routines, their associations and other details of their lives will be after a change occurs in an organization, they begin to speculate about them (Connor & Lake, 1994). These speculations can be destructive when employees assume that they will not be able to live up to a new set of expectations.

Organizational change may also result in lowered self-esteem because change is perceived by individuals as a violation of an agreement between employer and employee. Individuals may feel that changes violate an implicit or explicit contract between the

organization and its employees (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau & Parks, 1993). A psychological contract in the workplace has been defined as an individual's beliefs about the terms of a reciprocal agreement between a person and his or her employer (Rousseau, 1989). When a psychological contract is broken, employees are often deeply affected because the experience of psychological contract violation requires employees to engage in a sense-making process, whereby an employee attaches meaning to the perceived breach of contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Contract violations have negative implications for employees whose contracts have been violated because employees have to figure out why the organization did not fulfill its reciprocal promise to them. They may struggle with the meaning of the violation (e.g. "I must not be worthy of respect by my organization if its leaders were able to violate our contract without discussing it with me first"). This sense-making process may result in employees experiencing a threat to their self-esteem.

Identity Confusion

In addition to lowering employees' self-esteem, organizational change may elicit identity confusion. Identity confusion stems from employees' lack of clarity about their roles in the organization after changes take place and how the new roles relate to employees' other valued identities. Organizational changes may leave employees feeling that "this isn't the organization I used to work for" or "I don't fit into this new organizational culture" (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Hogg and Terry (2000) found that when employees have these thoughts, they generally ask themselves, "Who am I in this organization?" Organizational change creates confusion in the organization's identity

and this translates into confusion for employees' self-identities as they try to determine who they are and where they fit into the changed organization (Haunschild, Murrell, & Moreland, 1994; Shin, 2000).

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) suggests an important link between organizational change and self-integrity. According to social identity theory, the self-concept is comprised of an individual's personal identity and her social identity. The former refers to a person's beliefs about her individual characteristics and the latter encompasses a person's relationships and memberships within social groups as well as the significance placed on the memberships by the individual (Tajfel, 1981). A person's membership within an organization is an important aspect of her social identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Members' perceptions about the defining qualities of an organization become self-referential or self-defining (Pratt, 1998). As an organization goes through change, employees are left feeling unsure about their membership status within the organization (i.e. roles may change or they may be let go), which translates into confusion regarding their own identities (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994). Self-esteem is also affected; people who enjoyed working for organizations with positive reputations may have derived positive social identities from their affiliation with them. This positive social identity may be undermined by organizational change if, as a result of the changes, the company assumes a less positive reputation.

Reduced Control

In addition to lowered self-esteem and identity confusion, organizational change also may cause employees to feel reduced control in the workplace (Gagne, Koestner &

Zucherman, 2000; Mealiea, 1978). Researchers describe the ability to control important outcomes related to one's job and life as a basic human need (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Seligman, 1975). Steele (1988) further asserts that people have the desire to see themselves not only as morally adequate, good, and stable, but as capable of free choice and of controlling important outcomes. In the organizational realm, research has shown that workers were so invested in free choice and having a sense of control that they more readily accepted organizational changes when they were given some choice over the implementation of the changes (Coch & French, 1948; Gagne et al., 2000). Furthermore, Pfeffer et al. (1998) suggested that managers resisted changes in organizational programs due to their limited control over important decisions during the design process. When employees do not feel that they are in control of outcomes that are important to them, they are resistant to organizational change. When workers' ability to predict and control outcomes is diminished, signaling an organization's apparent lack of respect for its workers, the workers are likely to experience threat to their self-integrity.

Self-integrity threat may result from a perceived lack of control over important change-related decisions in the workplace. Moreover, unfair procedures enacted by management during organizational change periods may be threatening as well. Procedural fairness research focuses on the impact of individuals' perceptions of fairness during organizational change (Cobb, et. al.1995; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Perceptions of procedural fairness are related to employees' perceptions of their ability to control organizational outcomes, in that unfair procedures leave employees wondering whether they will be able to control outcomes that are important to them. From this viewpoint, individuals evaluate a specific change to determine whether the procedures for making

and implementing the change are fair. This evaluation determines whether or not they feel in control of their work life and influences how they will react to change (Greenberg, 1987). For example, Daly and Geyer (1994) found that employee perceptions of fairness mediated the effects of facility relocations on intentions to remain in the organization. These results indicate that procedural injustice indicated a lack of respect for employees, causing them to think about leaving the organization, possibly due to the fact that their self-integrity was threatened. Procedural justice, on the other hand, provides information indicating to employees that they are respected by management and that they have some ability to control organizational outcomes (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Furthermore, Brockner's (1988) work emphasized the importance of fairness in layoff survivors' attitudes and work effort subsequent to change. Brockner found that unfair layoff procedures resulted in greater intentions to quit, as well as lower work effort on the part of surviving employees. These results indicate that when employees feel that they have lost their ability to control outcomes important to them (i.e. job security), they experience threat to their self-integrity, which consequently leads to a decrease in their performance, or worse for the organization, a resignation.

Previous justice research has explained that unfair procedures impact individuals through reduced trust, lower commitment and decreased perceptions of equity (Cobb, Wooten & Folger, 1995). Wiesenfeld et al. (1999) added to these explanations by suggesting that unfairness in layoff procedures threatens survivors' self-concepts and results in negative emotions. Said another way, when organizational change procedures are perceived as unfair and employees are unable to predict or control outcomes important to them, they may experience threat to their self-integrity.

To summarize, research suggests a causal relationship between organizational change and threat to the self-integrity. This threat to self-integrity can be broken down into threat to self-esteem, threat to self-identity and threat of loss of control.

> **Hypothesis 1**: The experience of organizational change will result in threat to employees' self-integrity (comprised of lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and/or reduced feelings of control at work), whereby the greater the perceived significance of the change, the greater the threat to self-integrity.

Model Link #2: Threat to Self-Integrity Leads to Decreased Organizational Commitment

Employees are likely to hold their organization responsible for their lowered self-esteem, identity confusion or reduced feelings of control that result from changes taking place within their organization. As a result, employees' overall commitment to their organization may suffer. The research on organizational commitment essentially falls into one of three broad categories: the uni-dimensional model (e.g. Becker, 1960; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986); the multi-dimensional model based on Allen & Meyer's (1990, 1996) three-component model (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Irving, Coleman & Cooper, 1997; Snape & Redman, 2003); or the multi-dimensional model based on the three-factor structure proposed by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1979, 1982). Organizational commitment has been accepted as a multi-dimensional construct according to Dunham, Grube & Casteneda (1994). The first multi-dimensional model, Meyer and Allen's three-component model, outlines a) affective commitment

(identification with the organization), b) normative commitment (feelings of obligation toward the organization) and c) continuance commitment (feelings of being bound to the organization as a result of accumulated interests over time). Although the validity of the three-component model, as noted by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytksy (2002), is widely recognized in the literature, empirical evidence regarding its validity has been inconclusive. On the one hand, it has been replicated and studied in a variety of organizations (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1996; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994; Snape & Redman, 2003). On the other hand, findings suggest the need for a re-examination of the utility of the three-component model. Ko, Price and Mueller (1997) for example, found that the affective and normative commitment constructs were indistinguishable from one another and Meyer et al. (2002), in their meta-analytic review, also found very high correlations between affective and normative commitment, suggesting that the two constructs are not as differentiated as the original authors assumed.

Mowday, Porter and Steers' (1982) three-factor structure has been a dominant construct in the organizational literature over the past twenty years (Crede, Brummel, & Bagraim, 2004). Mowday et. al. (1982), define organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization." Their three-factor structure distinguishes between a) the belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, b) the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and c) the desire to remain with the organization. In contrast to the three-component model which received mixed reviews concerning its utility, evidence has been presented for the internal consistency (Brett, Cron & Slocum, 1995),

test-retest reliability (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001) and the convergent, predictive and discriminant validities of the scale (Brett et. al., 1995) designed by Mowday et. al. (1982). Mowday et. al.'s (1982) conceptualization of organizational commitment will therefore be utilized in the current study. According to Mowday et. al. (1982), organizational commitment involves an active relationship between employees and the organization; employees are willing to compromise something in order to maintain or improve their organization.

In their study of self-affirmation theory in the context of an organizational downsizing effort, Wiesenfeld, Brockner and Martin (1999) focused on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. In their study, the authors defined organizational commitment according to the Mowday et. al. (1982) three-factor model. The purpose of the study was to evaluate whether witnessing an unfair downsizing affected survivors' self-integrity and whether providing people with an opportunity to reaffirm their self-integrity would result in organizational commitment and/or increased work performance. Based on the principle of reciprocity (Blau, 1964), the authors expected that when participants experienced a threat to their self-integrity caused by decisions made within their organization, in this case through an unfair downsizing effort, they would exhibit low levels of organizational commitment. That is, the central tenet of the exchange relationship is that employees are assumed to be committed to institutions in direct proportion to the degree to which they believe the organization is committed to them. Extending Blau's (1964) research into the organizational realm, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) assert that individuals come to organizations with certain needs, desires, skills and so forth, and expect to find a work

environment where they can use their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. When an organization provides such a vehicle (for example, when it makes effective use of its employees and is dependable), there is a likelihood that commitment will increase (Steers, 1977). When, however, the organization is not dependable, or fails to provide employees with challenging and meaningful tasks, commitment levels should diminish. Organizational change which threatens self-integrity undermines the support employees feel from their organization, thereby leading employees to reciprocate with reduced organizational commitment (Wiesenfeld et. al, 1999). Similarly, Gilmore, Shea and Useem (1997) found that organizational change led to decreased organizational commitment on the part of employees. In their analysis of the side effects incurred during cultural transformations in 530 organizations, they found that outcomes such as organizational commitment, workplace climate and employee morale substantially worsened. The authors warn that unanticipated side effects can undermine intended change efforts. Based on these studies and according to the Mowday et. al. (1982) definition of organizational commitment, it is hypothesized:

> **Hypothesis 2**: Threat to self-integrity will influence employees' organizational commitment, such that the higher the threat to self-integrity, the lower the employee's organizational commitment.

Model Link #3: Through Self-Affirmation, Volunteerism Moderates the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity and Decreased Organizational Commitment

Volunteerism

Self-affirmation studies have revealed that once subjects were allowed to affirm integrity-restoring images of themselves, they tolerated specific inconsistencies with no attempt at resolution (Steele, 1988). Within the context of an organizational change in which employees are experiencing threat to their self-integrity, the opportunity to affirm their self-integrity in a realm outside of work may allow them to better handle threatening circumstances within the workplace. One means that people may take to restore self-integrity is through volunteering in their communities through nonprofit organizations or through volunteer programs sponsored by their organizations. As previously stated, corporate volunteer programs encourage members to give their time and skills to assist particular at-risk groups at designated service agencies. Volunteering is usually conducted in small groups comprising members from varying departments and levels within an organization. Corporate volunteerism can take place during work hours or outside company time. The events, however, are organized and sponsored by the organization. Volunteer activities range in duration and intensity from short-term projects requiring only few people with limited availability, to more involved, long-term projects that may engage entire departments and require serious commitment on the part of all involved.

Providing employees with the opportunity to volunteer in their communities is thought to benefit individuals by promoting work-life balance (Fitch, 1987; Kelley & Kelley, 1985; Latting, 1990). Volunteerism provides employees with an opportunity to do something interesting and rewarding outside of the office. Furthermore, a Points of Light Foundation study for the Conference Board (1993) provided evidence that

corporate volunteer programs are believed to increase employee productivity, build employee teamwork and enhance companies' public images. Organizations frequently use community outreach programs to send information into the environment that presents them in a favorable light (Elsbach & Glynn, 1996). Few studies, however, have provided evidence for the benefits of corporate volunteer programs beyond enhanced public perception, and no studies have investigated whether volunteerism leads to self-affirmation for employees experiencing threat to their self-integrity.

The literature on volunteerism provides evidence that people often choose to volunteer in order to make them feel better about themselves (Francies, 1983; Latting, 1990; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989; Rubin & Thorelli, 1984). Research has also shown that people feel a moral obligation to volunteer (Harrison, 1995), do it for humanitarian reasons (Frisch & Gerrard, 1981), and feel that it provides them with the opportunity to do something worthwhile (Gillespie & King, 1985; Benson et al., 1980). People, therefore, believe that by engaging in the act of volunteering, they will feel morally adequate and/or good about themselves. Thus, volunteering may reaffirm peoples' self-integrity, per Steele's (1988) definition of the term.

In addition to enhancing the self-integrity by feeling better about oneself as a result of participating in corporate volunteer activities, Bartel (2001) describes a somewhat different self-affirming mechanism through which volunteerism may operate. Researchers have shown that volunteerism in general helps people feel better about their own life by affording them an opportunity to compare themselves to those less fortunate (Francies, 1983; Frisch & Gerrard, 1981; Rubin & Thorelli, 1984). In her research on corporate volunteerism, Bartel (2001) asserts that through social comparison with lower

status individuals, organizational employees feel better about their own situations, which helps to affirm their self-identity, self-esteem and perceptions of control over their own lives. Bartel (2001) investigates the relationship between boundary-spanning activities (i.e., volunteerism) and employees' organizational identity. As previously discussed, according to social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982), employees' individual identities are closely linked to their organizational identities; members' perceptions about the defining qualities of an organization become self-defining (Pratt, 1998). Bartel shows that by giving employees the opportunity to interact with people outside of their organization, people engage in social comparisons in order to reduce environmental uncertainty.

Social comparisons help individuals make sense of complicated environments, allowing them to interpret information and events in a given situation and behave appropriately (Turner et al., 1987). For example, by comparing oneself to a person with more prestige, status and education, one knows that he should serve in the role of student rather than teacher. By engaging in social comparisons, people evaluate their own organizational identities. Organizational identification reflects a perception of oneness with or belonging to an organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Most organizations encourage members to perceive themselves as organizational representatives when performing activities outside of the organization such as organization-sponsored volunteer work (Kramer, 1991). Organizational identification, therefore, becomes salient for people when they work outside of their normal organizational boundaries. The results from Bartel's (2001) study showed that when employees participated in community outreach work, their organizational identification increased, leading their supervisors to report higher interpersonal cooperation, a heightened sense of group-based trust and

reciprocity, and increased employee effort in the workplace. In addition, increased organizational identification achieved through volunteerism resulted in employees being more attuned to the survival of the organization because members' self-concepts were enmeshed with the success of the organization (Bartel, 2001).

Bartel (2001) also showed that intergroup comparisons that take place through volunteerism enhance the pride members derive from organizational membership. People tend to identify with organizations of high social status relative to other groups to elevate their own sense of self-esteem (Pratt, 1998). Through volunteering, organizational members generally interact with people who are part of lower status groups. Volunteers, therefore, may identify more strongly with their higher status organizations. Organizational identification may take place even if the high status organization has threatened the employee's self-integrity as a result of organizational change efforts because the positive effects of social comparison may outweigh the negative feelings toward their organization. Furthermore, members generally occupy the role of "support provider from organization X," which differentiates them from other volunteers as well as those being helped. Status associated with the organization, as well as the role of support provider, may further reinforce salient intergroup differences, leading to social comparisons and ingroup identification. Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994) refer to the psychological ingroup with which an organization member identifies as perceived organizational identity. Social comparisons that emphasize positive ingroup attributes, therefore, enhance members' positive evaluations of their organization (collective self-esteem) while at the same time also increase members' attachment to the organization for which they work. Results from Dutton et. al.'s (1994) study showed that

strong identification with the organization led to increasing overlap of interests between the self and the organization, so that members work harder when they return to the office, in order to ensure the success of the organization. In other words, increased self-esteem and self-identity, experienced as a result of volunteerism, may result in increased organizational commitment on the part of employees. It is, therefore, hypothesized:

> **Hypothesis 3a**: The tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced when a person volunteers relative to when they do not volunteer.

Self-Affirmation

Self-affirmation theorists have stated that dissonance need not be reduced in the realm in which the original threat was experienced (Steele, 1988). In fact, some researchers (Aronson, Blanton & Cooper, 1995) have asserted that after experiencing threat, individuals prefer to reaffirm their self-identity in domains other than the one in which the original threat was experienced. For employees working in organizations, corporate volunteerism presents such an opportunity. It is possible, however, that participating in volunteer activities will not lead to the experience of self-affirmation for employees. For example, employees may experience negative feelings, such as increased guilt as a result of volunteering. Exposure to people less fortunate may elicit feelings of guilt because those volunteering may not feel that they deserve the privileges they enjoy, and spending time with less fortunate others may bring these feelings to the surface. While corporate volunteerism may be considered positive, if it does not result in

employees experiencing self-affirmation, it may not affect the relationship between threat to employees' self-integrity and their commitment to the organization. On the other hand, if employees do experience self-affirmation as a result of participation in corporate volunteerism, it is hypothesized that the change-related threat to self-integrity will be less apt to lead to decreased organizational commitment. This argument is based on the results from Wiesenfeld, Brockner and Martin's (1999) study that provided subjects experiencing a threat to their self-integrity with the opportunity to self-affirm (by filling out a values survey related to the self-concept). They found that taking part in self-affirmation activities, even after witnessing a downsizing effort, led to positive organizational outcomes, including increased employee organizational commitment. In sum, self-affirmation is hypothesized to minimize the negative relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment.

> **Hypothesis 3b**: The tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced when a person experiences self-affirmation relative to when he or she does not experience self-affirmation.

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Self-Affirmation as a Mediator

In the previous sections, evidence has been presented arguing that a) volunteerism moderates the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment and that b) self-affirmation moderates the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. Thus, it is not volunteerism per se, but the self-affirmation elicited by volunteerism, that moderates the tendency for higher threat to

self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment.

> **Hypothesis 3c:** The moderating effect of volunteerism on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment is mediated by self-affirmation.

Model Link #4: The Functions of Volunteering Moderate the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation

Hypothesis 3c suggested that when volunteering elicits self-affirmation, volunteering will moderate the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. It is therefore worthwhile to focus on *when* volunteerism leads to the experience of self-affirmation. According to volunteer function theory (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Snyder & Omoto, 1992), employees may or may not experience self-affirmation, depending on the reasons why they engaged in volunteerism in the first place. Functionalist theory states that people may perform the same actions for very different reasons (Clary, Ridge, Stukas, Snyder, Copeland, Haugen & Miene, 1998). Early functionalist theory was rooted in personality and social psychology, in which theorists proposed that similar attitudes served different functions for different individuals and that attitude change would occur to the extent that it addressed the functions served by those attitudes (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner & White, 1956). Functionalist theory application has broadened in scope in recent years as researchers focused on cognitions and behaviors related to motivation (Cantor, 1994; Snyder, 1993). Clary et. al. (1998) and others (Snyder & Omoto, 1992) have further proposed that

functionalist theory can be applied to the study of the motivational foundations of volunteer activity. They assert that though the acts of volunteerism may appear to be quite similar on the surface, they may reflect markedly different underlying motivational processes. In short, functionalist theory suggests that people volunteer for very different reasons, and that some of these reasons may result in self-affirmation while others may not.

The Functions Served by Volunteerism

Clary et. al., (1998) outline six functions that volunteerism serves for different individuals: values, understanding, social, career, protective and enhancement. The first function allows people to express their values related to altruistic concerns for others through volunteering. This function is related to Katz's (1960) original value expressive function, but in the context of volunteerism, this function distinguishes volunteers from those who do not volunteer (Allen & Rushton, 1983) and predicts whether volunteers complete their volunteer assignment (Clary & Orenstein, 1991). The second function, understanding, provides people with new learning experiences and knowledge attainment through volunteerism. Volunteering gives people the chance to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities that might not otherwise be practiced (Adams, 1980; Jenner, 1982). The third, the social function, concerns the opportunity to be with one's friends or to engage in an activity viewed favorably by important others. According to Rubin and Thorelli (1984) and Miller (1985), individuals perceive volunteering as an opportunity to be with and develop relationships with others. Copp (1980) and Jenner (1982) found that some people volunteer because other members of their community volunteer and Scott &

Sontheimer (1985) showed that people involved themselves with volunteer agencies because the institutions were considered prestigious.

The fourth function served by volunteering, the career function, refers to career-related benefits that may be obtained through participation in volunteer work. This function is exemplified by the Junior League volunteers studied by Jenner (1982); fifteen percent of the volunteers in the study reported that they volunteered in order to prepare for a new career or to maintain career-relevant skills. Other researchers (Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989; Zischka & Jones, 1988) reported that people volunteered in order to gain practical experience toward paid employment or for a new career. The fifth function, the protective function, is related to ego defense concerns, which center on protecting the ego from negative features of the self (Katz, 1960). In the case of volunteerism, involvement in philanthropic activities may serve to reduce one's guilt over being more fortunate than others and/or to address one's own personal problems. Research confirms that people volunteer for others because it makes them feel better about themselves (Fitch, 1987; Latting 1990; Rubin & Thoreilli, 1984) and improves their attitude regarding their own life situation (Francies, 1983; Gillespie & King, 1985). The sixth and final function served by volunteerism according to Clary et al. (1998) is that of enhancement. This function centers on ego growth and development. Research has shown that people volunteer for reasons of personal development (Anderson & Moore, 1978) or to obtain satisfaction related to personal growth and self-esteem (Jenner, 1982). Thus, in contrast to the protective function's purpose of relieving the self from guilt and negative feelings, the enhancement function involves positive strivings towards growth and development.

Three of the functions described promote a positive perception of the self, attained

through volunteer activities. Steele (1988) describes the purpose of self-affirmation as a means to "sustain a phenomenal experience of the self" based on Allport's (1943) term "ego-enhancement." Although people may volunteer in order to serve many different functions, some of the functions may be more conducive to experiencing self-affirmation while others may not. For example, a person who volunteers in order to express her altruistic values (function 1), may be more likely to experience self-affirmation as a result of volunteering, than a person who volunteers to achieve career-related benefits (function 4). By going into the activity with a desire to help others, the individual may be more likely to affirm the general integrity of the self as it relates to her goodness, competence and worth. People who volunteer primarily to benefit their careers, on the other hand, will likely only achieve this benefit, rather than experience self-affirmation. It should be noted that neither outcome is good or bad. When people volunteer to serve specific functions however, namely for reasons pertaining to values (function 1), social (function 3) or enhancement (function 6), they may be more likely to experience self-affirmation as a result of their volunteering efforts due to the fact that these functions, if served, are likely to result in affirmation of the general integrity of the self. On the other hand, the understanding (function 2), career (function 4) and protective (function 5) functions, though important, may be less likely to result in individual self-affirmation because their core purposes are less related to general self-integrity affirmation. The second function is concerned with obtaining knowledge or information, the fourth function is focused on a person's career, rather than their self-integrity, and the fifth function is concerned with ego protection rather than promotion. In sum, the following hypothesis stems from the argument that employees who engage in corporate volunteer activities in order to serve

the values, social, or enhancement functions are more likely to experience self-affirmation as a result of volunteering in comparison to those who volunteer in order to serve the understanding, career, or protective functions.

> **Hypothesis 4:** The tendency for volunteerism to result in self-affirmation increases when a person volunteers for values, social or enhancement reasons, relative to when a person volunteers for understanding, career or protective reasons.

Model Link #5: Volunteer Activities That Lead People to Connect with Others Result in Increased Organizational Commitment

Limited research has focused on the benefits of corporate volunteerism to organizations. One such study, sponsored by the Points of Light Foundation and the Conference Board (1993) entitled "Corporate Volunteer Programs: Benefits to Business," was presented at the IBM Worldwide Responsibility Conference in 1991. The study examined 188 U.S. companies with the purpose of establishing a connection between volunteer programs and companies' return on assets and return on investments. Although results showed that respondents felt that volunteer programs contribute to companies' competitive advantage through community relations, they were cautious in their assessment of the connection between volunteerism and financial performance. More than 50% "somewhat agreed" to the connection with profitability, but a larger percentage felt that there was a stronger link between volunteerism and factors that affect

profitability, but are not directly related to it, such as improved employee morale, better teamwork skills and increased productivity.

Another study conducted by Wild (1993) explored the benefits of corporate volunteer projects. Managers from more than 400 retail stores completed surveys describing their volunteer experiences. More than ninety percent of the participants surveyed believed that their volunteer experience improved their company's image in the community and gave it a competitive advantage by creating customer and employee loyalty and attracting new customers. Seventy-five percent of the participants surveyed indicated that participation in the volunteer activities sponsored by their organization improved employee morale and almost all believed that participation built a positive attitude in the workplace. More relevant, though, were the other benefits of volunteerism noted by respondents, which included stronger commitment to the company, greater ability to break down barriers in the workplace and enhanced skills such as team building, problem-solving and leadership.

Some studies on corporate volunteerism have focused on the link between volunteerism and organizational commitment (Barnes, 1994) but have reported other positive outcomes for organizations such as improved employee morale, defined as the state of a person's spirits as exhibited by cheerfulness, confidence, discipline and willingness to perform assigned work tasks (Burrows, 2000). Additional positive outcomes for employees and their organizations, according to the research, included more positive employee attitudes and enhanced team-building skills (McKaughan, 1998). The question still remains: When does corporate volunteerism result in increased organizational commitment and other positive outcomes? As previously stated, corporate

volunteerism may take place on an individual basis, in which one employee mentors an underprivileged child for example, or as part of a group of employees from an organization. Bartel's (2001) study emphasizes the enhanced ingroup experience that employees have when they volunteer together, as part of a team, outside of their organization. A sense of belonging to and identification with the organization that results from corporate volunteerism has been shown to increase employees' willingness to pursue the organization's goals and increase their desire to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen 1991; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001).

Furthermore, studies have shown that social connections and support lead to positive work-related outcomes such as lower rate of burnout (Brown & O'Brien, 1998), increased job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al, 1997) and higher performance ratings (Gerstner & Day, 1997). By presenting employees with the opportunity to form bonds with other members of their organization, corporate volunteerism may similarly lead to positive work-related outcomes such as increased organizational commitment. If employees volunteer together, the experience of volunteering may enhance their ability and desire to work together and increase their feelings of connectedness to others when they return to the office. The extent to which people feel connected to other people at work is a critical aspect of the psychological construct of job embeddedness, which has been shown to lead to increased employee commitment to the organization (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski & Erez, 2001). Mitchell et. al. (2001) found that people who are embedded in their jobs as a result of connections with co-workers or groups, and feel tied to the organization's culture as a result, have less intent to leave and do not leave as readily as those who are not embedded in their jobs. The data also showed that job

embeddedness adds to the prediction of turnover attributable to standard measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In Mitchell et. al.'s (2001) study, job embeddedness led to increased organizational commitment, providing support for the possible mediating effect of connections with others on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment in the present study.

By working as representatives of their organization, employees who bond with other people from their organization through corporate volunteering experiences may return to their organization feeling good about the people around them, which could lead to increased commitment to their organization. The positive feelings resulting from bonding with others through corporate volunteerism activities, however, are distinct from the feelings of self-affirmation achieved through volunteerism. Bonding with co-workers, similar to self-affirmation, may result in organizational commitment, but the means through which the employee achieves this result is somewhat different from the process through which people self-affirm. Self-affirmation is thought to be an autonomous experience for individual employees, whereas bonding with others through volunteerism is a collective experience, achieved through group interaction. In the former, as a result of volunteering, a person experiences a sense of global self worth and enhanced self-esteem, resulting in self-affirmation, but in the latter it is not the act of volunteering per se that results in organizational commitment, but it is the bonds formed through participation in volunteer activities that result in commitment to the organization. The collective organizational identity achieved through sharing the volunteering experience with co-workers is hypothesized to result in enhanced organizational commitment during times of change.

Collective organizational identity may result from people engaging in social comparisons with others. Bartel (2001) explored social comparisons that take place during boundary spanning activities (e.g., corporate volunteerism) and found that people compare themselves to clients (i.e., those benefiting from volunteerism) and co-workers (i.e., other volunteers from the same company). By engaging in social comparisons with clients and co-workers, bonds with co-workers may be formed as a result of comparative similarities within the group. These bonds are hypothesized to lead to increased commitment to the organization of which the volunteers are members. Self-affirmation, on the other hand, is an individual experience that may result in the same outcome, organizational commitment. Just as reaffirmation of the general integrity of the self is hypothesized to impact the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, bonding with others through corporate volunteerism may similarly lead to increased organizational commitment, even during times of organizational change. It is therefore hypothesized:

> **Hypothesis 5:** Volunteerism that results in connections with people at work is more likely to lead to increased organizational commitment than volunteerism that does not lead to connections with people at work.

Summary

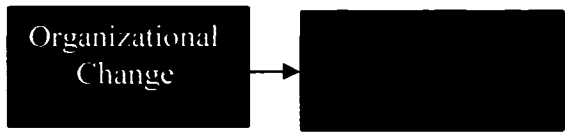
With the exception of Wiesenfeld, Brockner and Martin's (1999) analogue study conducted in the laboratory, which explored the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, there has been virtually no research focusing on

self-affirmation as a means to alleviate the strain felt by employees from organizational change. Steele's (1988) theoretical framework provides the opportunity to explore a reaffirmation option outside of the organizational realm to alleviate employee threat to self-integrity during times of change. This paper offers a model that depicts the process employees generally go through as they experience threat to their self-integrity as a result of organizational change, and provides the perspective that there may be options outside of the organization that help employees minimize change-related strain. The present study explores the possibility that corporate volunteer activities lead people towards increased organizational commitment both through self-affirmation and as a result of the bonds employees form with one another through group volunteer activities.

In addition to contributing to the organizational change and self-affirmation literatures, the establishment of a link between corporate volunteerism and the research on organizational change provides a strong case, beyond a public relations focus, for organizational sponsorship of corporate volunteerism. Fortune Magazine has attempted to bring corporate citizenship into the public realm by including a category called "Community and Environmental Responsibility" in their annual surveys that assess the reputation of corporations. By tracking and publicizing corporate reputations, including a measure of social responsibility, Fortune has implicitly declared corporate volunteerism a defining characteristic of leading corporations. Quantitative data and results from the present study will hopefully further support organizational sponsorship of corporate volunteerism and other corporate citizenship initiatives.

Summary of Hypotheses

Model Link 1:

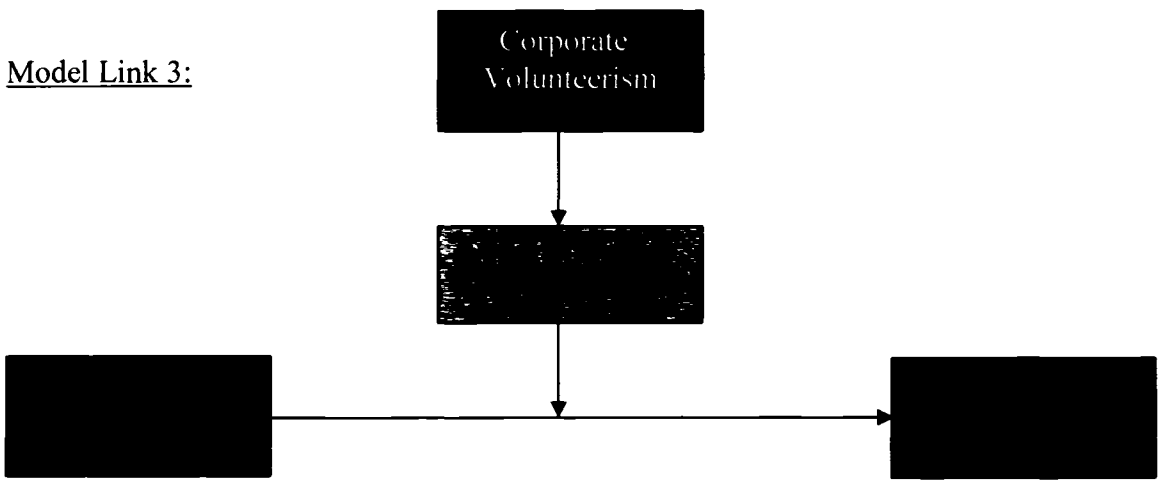


Hypothesis 1: The experience of organizational change will result in threat to employees' self-integrity (comprised of lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and/or reduced feelings of control at work), whereby the greater the perceived significance of the change, the greater the threat to self-integrity.

Model Link 2:

Hypothesis 2: Threat to self-integrity will influence employees' organizational commitment, such that the higher the threat to self-integrity, the lower the employee's organizational commitment.

Model Link 3:

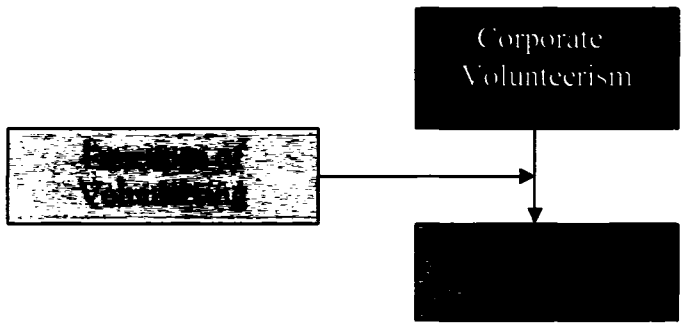


Hypothesis 3a: The tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced when a person volunteers relative to when they do not volunteer.

Hypothesis 3b: The tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced when a person experiences self-affirmation relative to when he or she does not experience self-affirmation.

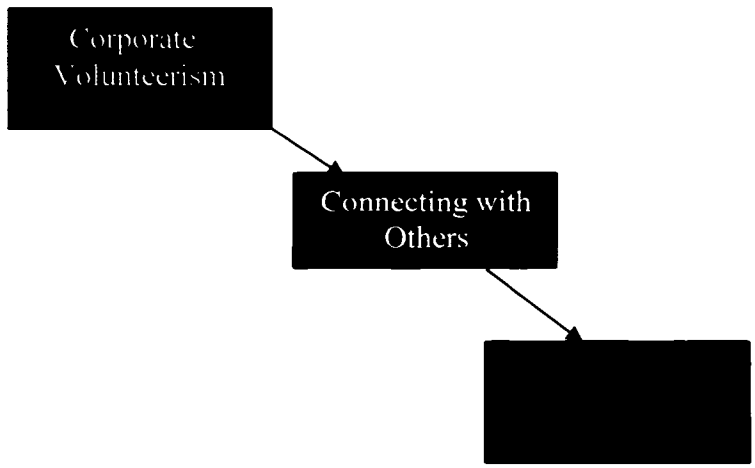
Hypothesis 3c: The moderating effect of volunteerism on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment is mediated by self-affirmation.

Model Link 4:



Hypothesis 4: The tendency for volunteerism to result in self-affirmation increases when a person volunteers for values, social or enhancement reasons relative to when a person volunteers for understanding, career or protective reasons.

Model Link 5:



Hypothesis 5: Volunteerism that results in connections with people at work is more likely to lead to increased organizational commitment than volunteerism that does not lead to connections with people at work.

Chapter 3

METHOD

Overview

This chapter describes the research design and methodology employed to test empirically the hypotheses presented in Chapter One. Specifically, the method used to test the linkages in the self-affirmation model of corporate volunteerism is described. The sample population and study procedure will be discussed and a detailed description of the measures utilized in the survey will be presented. Survey measures include a priming of organizational change, the components of threat to self-integrity (self-esteem, self-identity and perceived control), measures of corporate volunteer involvement, self-affirmation, the functions of volunteerism and connection to others through volunteerism. A measure of the outcome variable, organizational commitment, is also reviewed.

Introduction

Mergers and acquisitions offer an excellent opportunity to test the proposed self-affirmation model of corporate volunteerism because they often disrupt the daily activities within organizations and create substantial uncertainty and loss (Buono & Bowditch, 1989; Fried, Tiegs, Naughton & Ashforth, 1996). It is sometimes easy to distinguish between merger and acquisition situations, but the distinction has become somewhat blurred over the past decade, its categorization based more on implementation decisions made by the parent company, rather than any objective criteria (Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991). According to Burke (2002), organization change rarely begins with the total system, especially in a large organization. Organization changes more often begin

with individuals, groups, a program or an already recognized need to make a significant change in the organization's structure. Even when individuals and groups are involved in the change process and a change is considered successful, negative feelings and reactions on the part of departments, groups and individuals can be expected (Burke, 2002). These negative feelings and reactions are most likely the result of smaller changes taking place within the organization that are the result of large-scale change. The present study highlights the small-scale changes that result from large-scale change and more directly touch employees in a large organization, such as supervisor replacements or the restructuring of a department. According to Zatzick (2001), the effects of mergers can last several months or even years. He describes an initial window of several months that follow a merger announcement when the organization must receive approval for the merger from invested constituents (i.e., board of directors, shareholders and regulatory agencies). This initial window is followed by the actual integration period, which can take up to several years (Buono & Bowditch, 1989). A prolonged integration period provides an opportunity to study the impact of an event on employees, according to Zatzick (2001). Fried et al. (1996), for example, studied the effects of a merger sixteen months after the initial integration. The companies involved in the present study, have gone through a large-scale, significant change within the last few years, or the company's employees are currently experiencing meaningful small-scale change.

Sample

A number of organizations that have been involved in large-scale organizational change or whose employees are going through significant small-scale organizational

change were identified as potential sites for participation in this study. Employees within the organizations were identified through personal and business contacts. A letter describing the overall objectives of the study and the benefits to the participating companies was sent to contacts in a number of different companies (see Appendix A). Representative employees in the organizations received additional study information, including a draft version of the survey to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter One. The study participants are employees of two large organizations in different industries, that have experienced large- or small-scale organizational change within the last few years. Even though the organizations are quite different from one another, the survey results were not significantly different across the organizations, enabling aggregation of data across the two companies and increased generalizability of results. There were some exceptions and those hypotheses involving variables that differed between the two companies were tested utilizing the overall dataset, the data collected from Organization A as well as the data collected from Organization B. After eliminating missing data, a total of 613 participants, 100 from Organization A and 513 from Organization B were included in the study. The higher response rate in Company B was likely due to the distribution technique employed, to be described in the procedure section. Participants were given the choice whether or not to provide demographic information, therefore the sample size for the following demographic variables ranged from n= 547 to n=555. The demographic characteristics of all respondents are found in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of All Respondents

Variable	Total N	Number of Respondents	Percent of Overall Sample
1. Gender	552		
Female		364	(59.4%)
Male		188	(30.7%)
2. Age	554		
21-30 years		101	(18.5%)
31-40 years		181	(29.9%)
41-50 years		187	(30.5%)
51-60 years		76	(12.4%)
61-70 years		8	(1.3%)
Over 70 years		1	(.2%)
3. Education	555		
High School		9	(1.5%)
Some College		48	(7.8%)
College		175	(28.5%)
Some Graduate School		65	(10.6%)
Graduate School		248	(40.5%)
Other		10	(1.6%)
4. Ethnicity	553		
African American or Black		26	(4.2%)
American Indian or Alaska Native		1	(.2%)
Asian American		32	(5.8%)
Hispanic or Latino		13	(2.4%)
Hawaiian or Pacific Islander		1	(.2%)
White or Caucasian		465	(84.1%)
Other		15	(2.7%)
5. Work Status	550		
Full-time		531	(86.6%)
Part-time		19	(3.1%)
6. Tenure	554		
Less than 1 year		36	(5.9%)
1-2 years		46	(7.5%)
3-5 years		169	(27.6%)
6-10 years		146	(23.8%)
11-15 years		76	(12.4%)
16-20 years		46	(7.5%)
Over 20 years		35	(5.7%)
7. Marital Status	552		
Single		117	(19.1%)
Married		382	(62.3%)
Divorced		40	(6.5%)
Widowed		4	(.7%)
Other		9	(1.5%)

Variable	Total N	Number of Respondents	Percent of Overall Sample
8. Number of Children	547		
0 children		203	(33.1%)
1 child		93	(15.2%)
2 children		154	(25.1%)
3 plus children		97	(15.8%)

The combined sample was comprised of 364 (59.4%) women and 188 (30.7%) men, not including those who did not provide their gender. Five hundred and thirty-one (86.6%) stated that they worked full-time and 19 (3.1%) stated that they worked part-time and their mean age was between thirty-one and forty. More specifically 101 (16.5%) were between the age of twenty-one and thirty, 181 (29.5%) were between thirty-one and forty years, 187 (30.5%) were between forty-one and fifty years, 76 (12.4%) were between fifty-one and sixty years, 8 (1.3%) were between the ages of sixty-one and seventy and 1 (.2%) was over seventy years of age. One hundred seventy-five (28.5%) had a college degree and 248 (40.5%) held a graduate degree. The ethnic-racial makeup of the overall sample was as follows: African-American or Black, 26 (4.2%); American Indian or Alaskan Native, 1 (.2%); Asian American, 32 (5.2%); Hispanic or Latino Origin, 13 (2.1%); Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 1 (.2%); White or Caucasian, 465 (75.9%); Other, 15 (2.4%). The participants' mean number of years of work experience was 3.5 years. More specifically, 36 (5.9%) indicated a tenure with their company of less than one year, 46 (7.5%) indicated 1-2 years, 169 (27.6%) indicated 3-5 years, 146 (23.8%) indicated 6-10 years, 76 (12.4%) indicated 11-15 years, 46 (7.5%) indicated that they had worked for their company for 16-20 years and 35 (5.7%) indicated that they had been working for their company for over twenty years. One hundred seventeen (19.1%) respondents indicated that they were single, 382 (62.3%) indicated that they were

married, 40 (6.5%) indicated that they were divorced, 4 (.7%) indicated that they were widowed and 9 (1.5%) indicated that their marital status was "other." Three hundred and forty-four (56.1%) indicated that they had children of varying ages. Two hundred and three (33.1%) indicated that they didn't have children, 93 (15.2%) indicated that they had one child, 154 (25.1%) indicated that they had two children and 97 (15.8%) indicated that they had three or more children. Twenty nine (4.7%) respondents indicated that they had a child under the age of one year, 58 (9.5%) indicated that they had a child between one and two years, 68 (11.1%) indicated that they had a child between three and five years, 132 (21.5%) indicated that they had a child between six and twelve years, 106 (17.3%) indicated that they had a child between thirteen and eighteen years and 104 (17%) indicated that they had a child nineteen years or older.

Procedure

The design of this study was a cross-sectional survey research method design that utilized web-based questionnaires to solicit participant responses (See Appendix B for IRB Approval). Survey respondents were employees from one of two participating organizations. The first organization is a financial services organization in which the researcher worked with a corporate affairs employee in the wealth management business to craft a survey appropriate for the home office and branch office employees. The second organization is a large, global pharmaceutical company with its headquarters located in New York City. The researcher and a public affairs representative located in Ann Arbor, Michigan distributed the survey to Ann Arbor's 1000 branch employees. The following main variables were measured in the two organizations described:

organizational change significance, threat to self-integrity as measured by self-esteem, self-identity and perceived control, corporate volunteer involvement, self-affirmation, the functions of volunteerism, connectedness to others as a result of volunteerism and organizational commitment.

Survey participants from the pharmaceutical company received a web-based survey link via email and those from the financial services company received the web-based survey link through a weekly electronic newsletter. An employee within the organization was provided with the email text so that the messages were consistent across companies. The employee from Organization A included the text in an electronic newsletter, followed by a link to the survey, while the employee from Organization B sent an introductory email to participants, containing the survey link. The electronic link enabled participants to complete the survey online. The body of the email sent to participants provided a brief synopsis of the study, advantages to participation, the opportunity to receive information related to the study and a description of an incentive for participation. Company A's incentive included two museum tickets, while Company B's incentives included cash prizes and a donation to be given to the charity of the winner's choice. The different incentives provided by the two organizations is a clear limitation of the study, however, participants did not know the content of the prizes before taking the online survey. The email also contained information regarding informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality. Due to the nature of the web-based survey design, it was not possible to obtain actual signatures on informed consent forms. Consent information, therefore, was provided in the body of the email. According to Dillman (1978), the separation of the consent form from the actual online survey achieves the same result as the process of

separating the consent form from the paper-and-pencil based survey. After participants completed the survey, they were thanked for their time and provided with the researcher's email address. They were informed that they could contact the researcher if they were interested in learning more about the study or obtaining its results upon data analysis completion.

Research has provided evidence for the utility of the web-based survey over the traditionally employed, paper-and-pencil-based survey. According to Best, Krueger, Hubbard & Smith (2001), web-based surveys are becoming more popular than other methods of data collection because they provide a quick, flexible and inexpensive way to collect data and an easy means for aggregation. Furthermore, web-based surveys have already been successfully conducted within organizations. For example, Thompson, Surface, Martin & Sanders (2003) administered a climate survey to all of the employees working at the headquarters of a military organization. The participants were primarily office workers functioning in administrative, professional or management capacities, and were presumed to be comfortable with computers. Results showed that the demographics of those who completed the online survey were similar to those who did not, suggesting that online surveys do not attract one population over another. Results also showed that 75% of the sample was either supportive or indifferent to the employment of web-based survey administration over paper-and-pencil-based survey administration. It was expected that the present survey respondents were also comfortable using computers.

Studies examining the relative merits of paper-and-pencil versus web-based surveys have found them to be psychometrically equivalent (Donovan, Drasgow & Probst, 2000). Studies comparing the response rates between the paper-and-pencil versus

web-based survey dissemination, however, have been mixed. A few studies reported lower response rates to web-based surveys (Paolo, Bonaminio, Gibson, Partridge & Kallail, 2000; Weible & Wallace, 1998), while others reported higher response rates for web-based surveys (Oppermann, 1995; Parker, 1992). One study reported that response rates have been similar across the two media (Kraut, 2001). Response rate variability, apprehension towards electronic media, "ballot stuffing" or multiple survey completion by the same person, potential technical difficulties, and resistance to new technology must be considered when a researcher chooses to implement web-based surveys over the traditional paper-and-pencil option. The benefits of web-surveys, however, namely their speed and efficiency in both aggregating and sorting large amounts of data, the increased anonymity they afford to users, and their environmental friendliness and cost effectiveness (McFarland et. al. 1998) vastly outweigh the negatives associated with it (for review see Thompson et al., 2003). Web-based surveys, therefore, were employed in the current study.

Measures

This section describes the measures included in the survey (see Appendix C) to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter One. Eight categories of variables were measured: 1) organizational change significance, 2) threat to self-integrity including self-esteem, self-identity and perceptions of control, 3) corporate volunteer involvement, 4) connections to people at work, 5) self-affirmation including esteem, identity and control through volunteerism, 6) functions of volunteerism, 7) organizational commitment and 8)

demographic variables. The following section provides explanations and operationalizations of each of the eight variables of interest.

Organizational Change. The overall objective of the present study was to assess the moderating effect of corporate volunteerism on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, during times of organizational change. In order to assess the impact of corporate volunteerism on individuals as they experience threat due to organizational change, survey respondents were asked to think about a large- or small-scale change of significance to them that has taken place in their organization within the past few years. This section's intent was to 1) prime participants to think about organizational change and 2) ask participants to assess the current significance of the organizational change or changes to them.

The questions were asked somewhat differently within the two organizations due to differing preferences of the company representatives. The survey for Company A included three questions, two open-ended questions and one closed-ended question. The following open-ended question was intended to prime respondents from Company A to think about an organizational change that has had a significant impact on them: "Please describe a change that was significant to you that has taken place in your organization within the last few years. This change could be a large-scale event that influenced a large number of people (e.g. an acquisition or merger) or something unique to your own experience at work (e.g. a smaller organizational change such as a change in your supervisor). In any event, the change should be one that currently is significant to you." The second item in this section required that respondents rate their response to the

instruction, "Please rate the significance of this change to you." Responses were provided on a 5-point scale (1=somewhat significant, 3=very significant, 5=extremely significant). The third and final question in this section further primed respondents to think about an organizational change of significance to them. Respondents were asked to, "Describe the effect that the change has had on you (e.g. how your work has changed, how you interact with others and how it now feels to be a member of your department or organization)."

The representative from Company B was wary of asking respondents to answer open-ended questions about organizational change, therefore this section was designed somewhat differently from Organization A. It required that participants provide their responses on a 5-point scale (1=Not at All Significant, 2=Somewhat Significant, 3=Significant, 4=Very Significant, 5=Extremely Significant) to the following statement stems: "1. Reorganization efforts," "2. Acquisition-related changes," "3. Changes in pharmaceutical industry," "4. My work has changed," "5. My responsibilities have changed:," "6. I report to a new manager," "7. Other," and "8. Please rate the significance of the change you described beneath 'Other'." In order to compare the data across organization, the preceding seven closed-ended responses were aggregated into a change significance index. The seven items are internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha coefficient = .87). When compared to the closed-ended change significance question asked of Company A respondents, there was no significant difference between the two companies. A change significance index, aggregating the seven questions from survey A and one question from survey B, was therefore used to measure organizational change significance. The fact remains, however, that the questions were asked somewhat

differently of participants from Company A versus Company B. This issue will be discussed further in the limitations section of the paper.

Threat to Self-Integrity: Self-Esteem. Threat to self-esteem was measured using questions from the Organization-Based Self-Esteem scale (OBSE) (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989), the Single Item Self-Esteem Scale (Robins, Hendin & Trzesniewski, 2001) and the State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES) (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991). To measure whether employees experience threat as a result of organizational change, respondents were asked the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements following the question stem, "In comparison to how you felt before the change you just mentioned, how much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about yourself at work now?"

Organization-based self-esteem evaluates the extent to which employees "believe they are valuable, worthwhile, effectual members of their employing organization" (Pierce et al., 1989; 634). This scale is considered more appropriate for measuring employee self-esteem than traditional self-esteem measures (e.g., Rosenberg, 1965) because the OBSE measures domain-specific self-esteem rather than general self-esteem (Pelham, 1993). Items from this scale were modified to be more specific by using the appendage "at work" rather than "around here." Respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree) their agreement, or lack thereof, with the statements (e.g. "I count more at work," "I am more important at work," and "I am more trusted at work"). Three items were included from this scale.

Self-esteem was also measured using the Robins, Hendin and Trzesniewski (2001) single-item self-esteem scale (SISE). In a study conducted by Robins et. al. (2001), the overall correlation between Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) and the SISE was extremely high, (r = .80). The single-item scale and the RSE showed strong convergent validity for men and women, for different ethnic groups and for both college students and community members. To measure self-esteem in the present study, therefore, the single item, "I have high self-esteem" was altered slightly to "I have higher self-esteem at work" to measure threat to self-esteem as a result of organizational change. The 5-point scale utilized for the SISE question is consistent with the scale used for the previous OBSE questions.

Questions were included from the State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES) (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991) because organizational change may have a temporary effect on a person's self-esteem rather than an effect on global self-esteem as measured by the SISE. Since this study was designed to measure threat to employees' self-esteem after experiencing small- or large-scale change, these short-lived (i.e. state) changes in self-esteem questions are also relevant for the present study. The results of Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) study provide evidence that the SSES is psychometrically sound. The authors report that the scale has a high degree of internal consistency and that the scale measures slightly different constructs from previous self-esteem scales like the RSE. Two items were adapted from Heatherton & Polivy (1991) to serve as a measure of state self-esteem. The items chosen are most appropriate for a work context. They are, "I am less worried about what other people think of me at work" and "I feel better about myself at work." The scale endpoints, "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5), are consistent with

the other self-esteem questions. The threat to self-integrity, self-esteem, items yielded a coefficient alpha of .89.

Threat to Self-Integrity: Self-Identity. Four items were adapted from the Self-Concept Clarity Scale (SCC) (Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavallee & Lehman, 1996) to measure respondents' self-identity. An examination of the psychometric properties of the scale yield strong evidence of its reliability and internal consistency (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). Self-concept clarity (SCC) references the extent to which beliefs about the self, or the identity of the self, are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent and stable. For the present study, questions were adapted from this scale to test the extent to which employees' identities remain intact or are threatened as a result of the organizational change that they described previously. Sample questions include: "I spend more time wondering about the kind of person I am at work" and "I experience more conflict between the different aspects of my personality at work." The appendage "at work" was added to be consistent with the self-esteem questions and the adjectives "more" and "less" were added to guide respondents to think about their self-identity after experiencing the organizational change that they referred to previously. In this scale, higher scores indicate lower levels of self-concept clarity, or lower self-identity. Scale endpoints are, "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5). The threat to self-integrity, self-identity items yielded a coefficient alpha of .78.

Threat to Self-Integrity: Perceptions of Control. Perceptions of control as a result of organizational change were assessed with items modified from Ashford, Lee and

Bobko's (1989) measure of powerlessness from the Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) and the Organization-Based Self-Esteem scale (OBSE) (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989). Example items modified from Ashforth et al.'s (1989) scale and Pierce et. al's (1989) scale respectively, include "I am confident that I can control things that affect me at work" and "I can make more of a difference at work." Similar to the self-identity scale, the adjective "more" is added to guide survey respondents to think about their perceptions of control after experiencing organizational change. Two additional items were added to specifically reflect Steele's (1988) definition of control: "I have more autonomy in how I do my work." and "I have more freedom to make choices that affect my work." Scale endpoints are, "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5). The threat to self-integrity, perceptions of control, items yielded a coefficient alpha of .86.

The three components of threat to self-integrity were analyzed to determine whether they could be aggregated to form a threat to self-integrity index. The first step was to reverse code the self-esteem and perceptions of control items so that higher scores on all items equate to higher levels of threat to self-integrity. The next step was to determine the reliability of the items comprising threat to self-esteem, threat to self-identity and threat to perceptions of control. All of the items together yielded a coefficient alpha of .89. Finally, a principal components analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted both to simplify the threat to self-integrity measure, and to determine whether the three components, esteem, identity and control were distinct. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than one emerged, accounting for 68% of the total variance of threat to self-integrity. The six self-esteem items loaded clearly on Factor 1, Factor 2 was comprised of the four self-identity items and the four perceptions of control items loaded

on Factor 1 as well as Factor 3, though they were the only items to load on Factor 3. Threats to self-esteem and perceptions of control were highly correlated with each other ($\underline{r}$=.71). Threat to self-identity correlated significantly with the others, but to a lesser extent ($\underline{r}$ =.25 with esteem and $\underline{r}$ =.22 with control). All hypotheses involving threat to self-integrity, therefore were tested by utilizing the measure of self-esteem, self-identity, perceptions of control, and the index of threat to self-integrity.

Corporate Volunteer Involvement. Corporate volunteer involvement was assessed through a series of questions following instructions that read: "The following questions specifically focus on volunteer activities in which you may or may not take part. The first set of questions ask you to focus on volunteer activities sponsored by [*your organization*] and the second set of questions ask you to focus on any volunteer activities in which you take part independently of [*your organization*]." Sample questions include: "How many times have you volunteered for activities sponsored by [*your* organization] in the past 6 months?" and "What type(s) of volunteering have you done with [*your organization*] in the past 6 months?" The questions asked in this section of the survey were somewhat specific to the companies from which data were collected. For example, one of the company representatives was interested in the participation rates in specific volunteer events such as the March of Dimes Walk America, American Heart Association Heart Walk, AIDS Walk, and participation in a science education task force. Questions were asked, therefore, to gauge participation levels in specific events for this company.

Regardless of organizational affiliation, however, questions regarding time spent

participating in corporate volunteer activities were asked of all participants. Company sponsored volunteerism questions were followed by questions about involvement in volunteer activities not sponsored by their organization. Instructions read, "Please focus on volunteer activities NOT sponsored by [*your organization*] for the following questions." A sample question, "How much do you participate in volunteer activities NOT sponsored by [your organization]" required that respondents provide an answer to this question on a 5-point scale (1=not at all and 5=very much).

For the purpose of data analysis, corporate volunteerism was measured in two ways and combined to form an index variable. The first question read, "In the past year, how much have you volunteered for activities sponsored by [*organization*]?" Response choices were: (Not at All, Very Little, Somewhat, Quite a Bit and Very Much). The index was a combination of the preceding responses and responses to the question, "Approximately how many times have you volunteered for activities sponsored by [*organization*] in the past year?" Response choices were: (0 times, 1-3 times, 4-6 times, 7-9 times and 10+ times). These questions were aggregated because they both relate to involvement in corporate volunteer activities and their combined coefficient alpha was .87. The second question followed the instruction, "If you responded 'Not at All' to question 1, please skip to question 6. Otherwise, please go on to question 2." As a result, blank responses were recoded as having provided the answer, "0 times."

Connection to People at Work. The next set of questions measured employees' connection to other people at work as a result of corporate volunteering. Social support in the workplace, as suggested by Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan and Schwartz

(2002), measures the degree to which employees feel a sense of connectedness to other members of their organization. Borrowing from Baruch-Feldman et. al.'s (2002) scale, items in this measure focused on the support employees feel they receive from those with whom they work and the closeness to others that they experience as a result of volunteerism. The stem therefore reads, "As a result of volunteerism, I feel:" followed by responses such as "...more connected to people at work" and "...more supported by people at work." The scale endpoints are, "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5). The four items in this scale yielded a coefficient alpha of .92.

Self-Affirmation through Volunteerism. Most researchers have manipulated affirmation with values surveys or writing exercises related to the self-concept (e.g. Steele, 1988; Wiesenfeld et. al., 1999). Wiesenfeld et. al. (2001) developed a 4-item scale measuring affirmation opportunities that existed in the context of work. Since the purpose of the present study was to measure self-affirmation in a domain outside of work, six items were devised to tap the various dimensions of Steele's (1988) definition of reaffirmation, within the context of volunteerism. The stem reads, therefore, "Volunteering with my organization:" and is followed by statements such as "...helps me feel good about myself," (esteem) "...provides me with a clear sense of who I am," (identity) and "...allows me to feel that I 'control my own destiny'" (control). Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The two items measuring self-affirmation (esteem) resulted in a coefficient alpha of .78 and those measuring self-affirmation (identity) had an alpha of .80. The self-affirmation (control) items, however, resulted in a coefficient alpha of .53. This alpha is

below the recommended .7 threshold (Nunnally, 1978), making it important to view the results of this variable with caution. The three components of self-affirmation (esteem, identity and control) were analyzed together, as well, in order to determine whether they could be aggregated to form one self-affirmation index. The six items yielded a coefficient alpha of .89. A principal components analysis with varimax rotation was conducted as well. One primary factor emerged, accounting for 65% of the total variance of self-affirmation. The two esteem, two identity and two control items loaded clearly on Factor 1. The three components of self-affirmation were highly correlated with one another. The correlation between esteem and identity was high (r=.72), the correlation between esteem and control was even higher (r=.74), as was the correlation between identity and control (r=.77). All hypotheses involving self-affirmation, therefore were tested by utilizing the measures of esteem, identity, control, but emphasis is placed on the analyses using the index of self-affirmation.

Functions of Volunteerism. The functions served by volunteerism were assessed with items from the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen & Miene, 1998). Clary et. al. (1998) demonstrated the reliability and validity of the VFI using both field and laboratory methods of investigation to sample diverse populations of volunteers and non-volunteers. Principal components analyses conducted by Clary et. al. (1998) identified six components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, suggesting that these were the appropriate six factors underlying the VFI questions. Two or three questions from each of the six functions of volunteerism were selected for inclusion in the present survey. Representatives from the

organizations participating in the current study agreed to include two or three questions for each of the six functions, but they felt that including the original survey of thirty questions would make the survey too long. In the present survey, functions of volunteerism were assessed through a series of questions following instructions that read: "The following statements pertain to reasons why people volunteer. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement." Sample questions include, "Volunteering can help me advance in the workplace" (career function), "I volunteer to spend time with people I like" (social function), "Volunteering makes me feel more important" (enhancement function), "I volunteer because I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself" (values function), "Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt about being more fortunate than others" (protective function) and "I can learn how to deal with a variety of people through volunteering" (understanding function). The scale endpoints are "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5).

The six functions yielded the following coefficient alphas: Values (α = .90), Protective (α = .82), Career (α = .84), Social (α = .67), Enhancement (α = .76), Understanding (α = .72).

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment was assessed by a measure consisting of three items based on questions from the organizational commitment scale developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). The three organizational commitment questions were asked twice in the present survey. They first appeared following the overall question, "In comparison to how you felt before the change you mentioned earlier, how much do you agree or disagree with each of the

following statements now?" in order to compare organizational commitment levels subsequent to organizational change to those prior. The organizational commitment questions appeared again at the end of the survey, following the question stem, "The following statements pertain to possible results of volunteering. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement." The items include: "I am more willing to put in effort beyond what is normally expected in order to keep this organization successful," "I am more likely to talk up this organization as a great organization for which to work" and "This organization is more likely to inspire the very best in me in the way of job performance." Consistent with the other scales in this survey, the endpoints are "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5). According to Mayer and Schoorman (1998), these three items were found to be highly related ($r = .93$) to the short form of the Mowday et al. measure of organizational commitment used widely in prior research. Mayer and Schoorman (1998) reported that the three-item measure was internally consistent (coefficient alpha = .76). Data in the present study yielded a coefficient alpha of .86 for the three organizational commitment items following the stem referring to change and a coefficient alpha of .85 for the items referring to organizational commitment resulting from corporate volunteerism.

Demographic Variables. Demographic variables were collected including gender, age, education (highest level attained), working status, tenure with the company, marital status, number of children and age of children. Demographic information can be found in Table 1.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Overview

The following chapter presents the results of the research conducted for this study. The means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among all of the variables are presented, followed by an analysis of differences between the two samples utilized in this study. Next, the results of the statistical techniques employed in this study will be reported for each of the five main hypotheses tested. The results of additional analyses testing an alternative model and additional corporate volunteerism outcomes will also be reported in this chapter. The additional analyses examine post hoc mediation tests between the constructs of volunteerism, self-affirmation and organizational commitment.

Statistical Analyses for Study Hypotheses

A number of statistical analyses were used to test the study hypotheses. First, means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among all of the main variables were computed. Results of these analyses can be found in Table 2. Correlations were examined to determine if there were any potential multicollinearity problems. The only variables that posed some multicollinearity risk were the threat to self-integrity esteem variables as correlated with the threat to self-integrity control variables (r=.71) and the esteem component of self-affirmation as correlated with the identity component of self-affirmation (r =.72), the esteem component of self-affirmation as correlated with the control component of self-affirmation (r =.74) and the identity component of self-affirmation as correlated with the control component (r =.77). Tabachnick and Fidell

(1996) recommend that correlations fall below the .70 threshold to avoid concerns of multicollinearity. These variables are combined under their respective indexes due to their extremely high correlations. All hypotheses involving the variables threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation, are therefore tested using the three individual components as well as the overall indexes, to minimize the multicollinearity issue.

Significant positive correlations were found between all three components of threat to self-integrity. The esteem component was highly correlated with the control component ($\underline{r}$ =.71), however, the identity component was not as highly correlated with the esteem component ($\underline{r}$ =.25) or the control component ($\underline{r}$ =.22), even though all of the correlations were significant at the .01 alpha level. Taken together, these results provide support for the creation of an index of threat to self-integrity. The coefficient alpha for the index of threat to self-integrity was .89. As previously stated, all hypotheses involving threat to self-integrity were tested using the individual components of threat to self-integrity as well as the index. The identity component of threat to self-integrity is different from the other two components of esteem and control, however, the study results do not differ when the identity component is not included in the index of threat to self-integrity. As a result, the index of threat to self-integrity employed in the study analyses included all three of the components of threat to self-integrity.

Similarly, significant positive correlations were found between all three components of self-affirmation. The esteem component was highly correlated to the identity component ($\underline{r}$ =.72) as well as the control component ($\underline{r}$ =.74) and the identity component was highly correlated with the control component ($\underline{r}$ =.77). As expected, there was a significant negative correlation between the esteem component of threat to

self-integrity and the esteem component of self-affirmation (r =-.21) and there was a significant negative correlation between the control component of threat to self-integrity and the control component of self-affirmation (r =-.25). However, the relationship between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and the identity component of self-affirmation, was not significant (r =-.01). The above findings lead to the conclusion that there is something different about the items comprising the identity component of threat to self-integrity, as compared to the other components of threat to self-integrity and all three of the components of self-affirmation. An index collapsing the esteem and control components of threat to self-integrity was therefore also created to test hypotheses involving the threat to self-integrity measure. Hypotheses involving the self-affirmation variable were tested by using the individual components of self-affirmation in addition to the index combining the three components and an index combining the esteem and control components of threat to self-integrity. In all cases, the results were similar for the indices involving two and three variables, therefore only results from the three variable index are reported in addition to the results of the three individual components of threat to self-integrity, for ease of presentation.

There were significant positive correlations between both measures of volunteerism and the three components as well as the index of self-affirmation. The first measure of volunteerism, that gauged how much a person volunteered for activities sponsored by their company in the past year, correlated with the esteem component of self-affirmation (r =.35), the identity component (r =.30), the control component (r =.31) and the self-affirmation index (r =.36). The second measure of volunteerism, combining questions that asked how much a person volunteered for activities sponsored by their

company in the past year and how many times a person volunteered for such activities in the past year, was also significantly correlated with the esteem component of self-affirmation (r =.34), the identity component (r =.31), the control component (r =.31) and the self-affirmation index (r =.35). In addition, there was a significant correlation between organizational commitment and most of the study variables except organizational commitment was surprisingly not significantly correlated with organizational change significance (r =-.07) and less surprisingly, the career function variable (r =.04) and the protection function variable (r =.03). Organizational commitment, however, was significantly negatively correlated with the threat to esteem component of threat to self-integrity (r =-.58), the identity component (r =-.12), the control component (r =-.58) and the overall threat to self-integrity index (r =-.57). Organizational commitment was also positively correlated with the first measure of volunteerism (r =.11), the second measure of volunteerism (r =.09), the esteem component of self-affirmation (r =.30), the identity component (r =.34), the control component (r =.36), and the overall index of self-affirmation (r =.36). It is also positively correlated with the values (r =.21), social (r =.16), understanding (r =.18) and enhancement functions (r =.12) as well as the variable, connecting with others (r =.34).

An additional test was conducted to determine the presence and magnitude of common method variance in the data. A common post-hoc statistical technique was performed, Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). This method was described in an *Academy of Management Journal* article (Christmann, 2000:673): "If common method variance existed in the data, a single factor would emerge from a factor analysis of all questionnaire measurement items, or one general factor that accounted for

most of the variance would result." To carry out this post-hoc test, a factor analysis with varimax rotation was carried out on items related to change, volunteerism, self-affirmation, functions of volunteerism, threat to self-integrity, connecting with others and organizational commitment. A total of nine factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were found: these nine factors accounted for 68 percent of the total variance. Yet, the first factor only accounted for 24 percent of the total variance. Therefore, the risks associated with common method variance are somewhat mitigated by these results.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for all Study and Demographic Variables

Variable	N	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Study Variable								
1. Significance of Change	574	3.24	0.95	**0.87**				
2. Threat (Esteem)	562	3.00	0.80	0.06	**.90**			
3. Threat (Identity)	562	2.72	0.75	0.11*	0.25**	**.78**		
4. Threat (Control)	562	3.09	0.89	0.08	0.71**	0.22**	**.86**	
5. Threat (Index)	562	2.94	0.63	0.10*	0.85**	0.61**	0.86**	**.89**
6. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1)	602	2.58	1.17	0.02	-0.10*	-0.10*	-0.09*	-.12**
7. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1 & Q2)	602	2.41	1.07	0.01	-0.09*	-0.10*	-0.08*	-.12**
8. Self-Affirmation (Esteem)	446	3.85	0.77	0.09	-.21**	0.01	-.15**	-.15**
9. Self-Affirmation (Identity)	446	3.66	0.84	0.10*	-.22**	-0.01	-.20**	-.19**
10. Self-Affirmation (Control)	445	3.70	0.71	0.06	-.25**	-0.06	-.25**	-.24**
11. Self-Affirmation (Index)	443	3.74	0.70	0.09	-.25**	-0.03	-.22**	-.21**
12. Function (Protect)	449	2.22	0.95	0.06	-0.04	0.16**	-0.08	0.01
13. Function (Values)	448	4.41	0.75	0.02	-.14**	0.05	-0.11*	-.009
14. Function (Social)	443	2.96	0.75	0.08	-.14**	0.15**	-0.09	-0.04
15. Function (Career)	448	2.15	0.89	0.04	-0.04	0.16**	-0.08	0.01
16. Function (Understanding)	445	3.50	0.83	0.06	-.17**	0.12*	-.16**	-0.10*
17. Function (Enhancement)	448	2.58	0.90	0.07	-.13**	0.17**	-0.12*	-0.05
18. Connect with Others	442	3.33	0.83	0.01	-.19**	0.02	-.19**	-.16**
19. Organizational Commitment	562	3.28	0.92	-0.07	-.58**	-.12**	-.58**	-.57**
Demographic Variable								
20. Gender	552	1.34	0.47	0.03	0.05	-0.05	0.01	0.01
21. Age	554	3.48	0.99	0.20**	0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.00
22. Education	555	4.96	1.19	0.11**	0.07	0.11**	0.10*	0.12**
23. Ethnicity	553	5.56	1.29	0.07	0.11*	0.09*	0.14**	0.14**
24. Work Status	550	1.03	0.18	-0.05	-0.09*	0.03	-0.08	-0.06
25. Tenure	554	3.83	1.50	0.18**	0.08	-0.05	0.06	0.04
26. Marital Status	552	1.92	0.68	0.08*	0.00	-0.02	0.07	0.03
27. Children	547	2.27	1.14	0.06	0.06	-0.02	0.06	0.05
Additional Analysis Variable								
28. Volunteerism (not sponsored by corporation)	596	2.86	1.28	0.15**	0.07	-0.05	0.05	0.04

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Sample size ranges from n=442 to n=602.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for all Study and Demographic Variables

Variable	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Study Variable								
1. Significance of Change								
2. Threat (Esteem)								
3. Threat (Identity)								
4. Threat (Control)								
5. Threat (Index)								
6. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1)	--							
7. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1 & Q2)	0.96**	**.90**						
8. Self-Affirmation (Esteem)	0.35**	0.34**	**.78**					
9. Self-Affirmation (Identity)	0.30**	0.31**	0.72**	**.80**				
10. Self-Affirmation (Control)	0.31**	0.31**	0.74**	0.77**	**.53**			
11. Self-Affirmation (Index)	0.36**	0.35**	0.90**	0.92**	0.91**	**.89**		
12. Function (Protect)	-0.06	-0.06	-0.02	0.03	0.01	0.01	**.82**	
13. Function (Values)	0.16**	0.18**	0.56**	0.46**	0.50**	0.55**	-.15**	**.90**
14. Function (Social)	0.06	0.07	0.20**	0.25**	0.23**	0.25**	0.38**	0.14**
15. Function (Career)	0.01	-0.01	-0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.64**	-.23**
16. Function (Understanding)	0.17**	0.15**	0.41**	0.44**	0.40**	0.46**	0.35**	0.39**
17. Function (Enhancement)	-0.03	-0.05	0.20**	0.21**	0.14**	0.20**	0.63**	-0.03
18. Connect with Others	0.26**	0.25**	0.52**	0.52**	0.48**	0.56**	-0.01	0.34**
19. Organizational Commitment	0.10*	0.09*	0.30**	0.34**	0.36**	0.36**	0.03	0.21**
Demographic Variable								
20. Gender	-0.10*	-0.10*	-.16**	-0.10*	-.17**	-.15**	0.01	-.22**
21. Age	0.11*	-0.09*	0.09	0.16**	0.07	0.12*	-.16**	-.04
22. Education	-0.06	-0.06	-0.07	-0.06	-0.10*	-0.08	-0.00	-.03
23. Ethnicity	-0.05	-0.04	-0.10*	-0.09	-0.10*	-0.11*	-0.03	-.08
24. Work Status	-0.07	-0.07	0.01	-0.04	-0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-.00
25. Tenure	0.13**	0.13**	0.05	-0.09	0.04	0.07	-.15**	-.05
26. Marital Status	0.09*	0.08	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.03	-.13**	-.07
27. Children	0.01	0.00	-0.03	-0.02	-0.07	-0.04	-.14**	-.04
Additional Analysis Variable								
28. Volunteerism (not sponsored by corporation)	0.10*	0.09*	0.04	0.08	0.03	0.06	-0.05	0.14**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size ranges from n=442 to n=602.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for all Study and Demographic Variables

Variable	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Study Variable								
1. Significance of Change								
2. Threat (Esteem)								
3. Threat (Identity)								
4. Threat (Control)								
5. Threat (Index)								
6. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1)								
7. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1 & Q2)								
8. Self-Affirmation (Esteem)								
9. Self-Affirmation (Identity)								
10. Self-Affirmation (Control)								
11. Self-Affirmation (Index)								
12. Function (Protect)								
13. Function (Values)								
14. Function (Social)	**.67**							
15. Function (Career)	0.46**	**.84**						
16. Function (Understanding)	0.47**	0.28**	**.72**					
17. Function (Enhancement)	0.54**	0.58**	0.45**	**.76**				
18. Connect with Others	0.23**	0.08	0.31**	0.13**	**.92**			
19. Organizational Commitment	0.16**	0.04	0.18**	0.12*	0.34**	**.86**		
Demographic Variable								
20. Gender	0.04	0.01	-0.09	0.11*	-0.05	0.10*	--	
21. Age	-0.06	-0.06	-0.10*	-0.02	0.13**	0.09*	0.08	--
22. Education	-0.02	-0.00	-0.03	0.05	0.02	-.15*	0.22**	0.02
23. Ethnicity	0.06	-0.04	0.00	0.02	0.04	-.10*	0.00	0.06
24. Work Status	-0.00	0.06	-0.05	-0.05	0.00	0.05	-.12**	-0.02
25. Tenure	-0.02	-0.10*	-0.07	-0.04	0.04	-0.04	0.05	.49**
26. Marital Status	-0.04	-0.07	-0.06	-0.08	0.07	0.06	0.05	.35**
27. Children	-0.07	-0.10*	-0.12*	-0.03	0.01	-0.04	0.21**	.38**
Additional Analysis Variable								
28. Volunteerism (not sponsored by corporation)	0.04	-0.02	0.11*	-0.04	0.07	-0.06	0.15**	0.11*

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Sample size ranges from n=442 to n=602.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for all Study and Demographic Variables

Variable	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
Study Variable								
1. Significance of Change								
2. Threat (Esteem)								
3. Threat (Identity)								
4. Threat (Control)								
5. Threat (Index)								
6. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1)								
7. Corporate Volunteerism (Q1 & Q2)								
8. Self-Affirmation (Esteem)								
9. Self-Affirmation (Identity)								
10. Self-Affirmation (Control)								
11. Self-Affirmation (Index)								
12. Function (Protect)								
13. Function (Values)								
14. Function (Social)								
15. Function (Career)								
16. Function (Understanding)								
17. Function (Enhancement)								
18. Connect with Others								
19. Organizational Commitment								
Demographic Variable								
20. Gender								
21. Age								
22. Education	--							
23. Ethnicity	-0.06	--						
24. Work Status	0.01	0.05	--					
25. Tenure	-0.01	0.11*	-0.03	--				
26. Marital Status	0.04	0.15**	0.01	.21**	--			
27. Children	0.03	0.09*	0.04	.29**	.33**	--		
Additional Analysis Variable								
28. Volunteerism (not sponsored by corporation)	-0.00	-0.00	0.01	0.12**	0.07	0.12**		

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Sample size ranges from n=442 to n=602.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

It was important to determine whether significant differences existed across the two companies because an overall, combined dataset could be analyzed only if significant differences on the key study variables did not exist across the two sampled companies. A dummy variable was therefore assigned to employees to indicate membership in their respective companies. Most of the key variables were not significantly different across the two companies, except for the esteem component of the threat to self-integrity variable ($F=28.30$, $p<.000$), the control component of the threat to self-integrity variable ($F=32.26$, $p<.000$) and the overall threat to self-integrity index ($F=29.13$, $p<.000$). In all three cases, the responses from Organization A were significantly lower than the responses from Organization B. Hypotheses involving tests of all three components of threat to self-integrity, as well as the index of threat to self-integrity, were therefore tested and reported separately for the Overall Dataset, Organization A and Organization B. Separate analyses were therefore conducted on the three samples for Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b. Hypotheses 4 and 5 do not involve variables that were significantly different between Organization A and Organization B, therefore, these hypotheses were tested and results were reported for the overall dataset only. All of the other variables were combined across the two datasets and analyzed together since there were no other key variable significant differences across the two companies.

In the following set of analyses, in addition to reporting significant relationships at the .05 level, marginally significant relationships at the .10 level are also reported. Although these relationships are only marginally significant, they may be indicative of general trends in the data, some of which support the study hypotheses. In addition,

whenever reported, these marginally significant relationships may indicate that a particular component of this study is worthy of further research and testing.

Model Link #1: Organizational Changes Threaten Employees' Self-Integrity

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the experience of organizational change would threaten employees' self-integrity in three primary ways: lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and reduced control. To test this hypothesis, bivariate correlation tests were conducted between organizational change significance and the three components of threat to self-integrity as well as the index variable, for the complete dataset as well as for each organization sampled. Higher significance levels of organizational change were predicted to result in lower self-esteem, lower self-identity and lower perceptions of control. The esteem and control items, were therefore reverse coded prior to hypothesis testing. Table 3 presents the results of the overall dataset. As can be seen from Table 3, organizational change significance was positively and significantly related to the threat to self-integrity index ($\underline{r}$=.10, $p<.05$). It was also positively and significantly related to the identity component of threat to self-integrity ($\underline{r}$=.11, $p<.05$), accounting for the significant correlation between the index and organizational change. The esteem and control components of threat to self-integrity, however, were not significantly correlated with organizational change significance ($\underline{r}$ =.06 and $\underline{r}$ =.08, respectively).

When analyzed separately, the results from Organization A yielded no significant relationships between organizational change and threat to self-integrity or any of its component parts – esteem, identity or control. Table 4 presents the results from Organization A. Organization B results, on the other hand, yielded a moderate positive

correlation between organizational change and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity (r=.08, p<.10), a strong positive correlation with the identity component of threat to self-integrity (r=.15, p<.01), a moderate positive correlation with the control component (r=.09, p<.05) and a strong positive correlation with the threat to self-integrity index (r=.14, p<.01). Table 5 presents Organization B results. The two organizations yielded very different results for this hypothesis, perhaps based on the disparate ways that organizational change was measured between the two samples, as previously described, or the different types of changes that took place within each organization. These findings suggest looking at this hypothesis separately for the two organizations and indeed the results differed between Organization A and Organization B, as can be seen in Tables 4 and 5. In sum, there was partial support for Hypothesis 1. Results indicated a relationship between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity and the threat to self-integrity index for the Overall Dataset and for Organization B.

Table 3

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Organizational Change Significance and Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control ***(Overall Dataset)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Significance of Change	574	**0.87**				
2. Threat (Esteem)	562	0.06	**0.90**			
3. Threat (Identity)	562	0.11*	0.25**	**0.78**		
4. Threat (Control)	562	0.08	0.71**	0.22**	**0.86**	
5. Threat (Index)	562	0.10*	0.85**	0.61**	0.86**	**0.89**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size ranges from n=562 to n=574.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 4

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Organizational Change Significance and Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control ***(Organization A)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Significance of Change	100	--				
2. Threat (Esteem)	91	-0.09	**0.87**			
3. Threat (Identity)	91	-0.09	0.26*	**0.79**		
4. Threat (Control)	91	-0.04	0.64**	0.20	**0.84**	
5. Threat (Index)	91	-0.10	0.83**	0.63**	0.81**	**0.87**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size ranges from n=91 to n=100.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 5

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Organizational Change Significance and Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control ***(Organization B)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Significance of Change	474	**0.87**				
2. Threat (Esteem)	471	0.08	**0.90**			
3. Threat (Identity)	471	.15**	0.24**	**0.77**		
4. Threat (Control)	471	0.09	0.71**	0.22**	**0.86**	
5. Threat (Index)	471	.14**	0.85**	0.60**	0.86**	**0.89**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size ranges from n=471 to n=474.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Model Link #2: Threat to Self-Integrity Leads to Decreased Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 2 predicted that threat to self-integrity will influence employees' organizational commitment, such that the higher the threat to self-integrity, the lower the employee's resulting commitment to the organization. This hypothesis was tested by examining bivariate correlations on the relationships between threat to self-integrity and its components of esteem, identity and control and organizational commitment for the

overall dataset and for the two organizations sampled. As a reminder, the analyses were conducted three times because the threat to self-integrity variable significantly differed between the two organizations. Table 6 presents the results from the combined dataset. The threat to self-integrity index was negatively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($r=-.57$, $p<.01$). The three components of threat to self-integrity were also negatively and significantly correlated with organizational change. The esteem component was significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($r=-.58$, $p<.01$), as was the identity component ($r=-.12$, $p<.01$) and the control component ($r=-.58$, $p<.01$). In sum, there was strong support for Hypothesis 2 from the combined datasets, but the most striking finding was that the relationship between the identity component and organizational commitment was so much lower than the relationships between the other two components of threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment.

When analyzed separately, the results from Organization A yielded slightly different results from the overall dataset. Results are presented in Table 7. The esteem and control components of threat to self-integrity were similarly negatively significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($r=-.49$, $p<.01$ and $r=-.51$, $p<.01$, respectively). In addition, the threat to self-integrity index yielded a negative significant correlation with organizational commitment ($r=-.48$, $p<.01$). However, the identity component of threat to self-integrity was no longer significantly correlated with organizational commitment. In contrast to Organization B, the identity component of the threat to self-integrity measure, was not correlated with organizational commitment for Organization A. These questions were somewhat different in nature from the esteem and

control questions measuring threat to self-integrity and the results are evidently different for Organization A. Organization B, on the other hand, yielded all negative significant correlations for threat to self-integrity and its three components with organizational commitment. Organization B results are presented in Table 8. There was a strong negative, significant correlation between the esteem component of self-integrity and organizational commitment ($r=-.60$, $p<.01$), the identity component and organizational commitment ($r=-.13$, $p<.01$), the control component and organizational commitment ($r=-.60$, $p<.01$), and the threat to self-integrity index and organizational commitment ($r=-.58$, $p<.01$). These results were similar to the overall results for the combined dataset. In sum, there was strong support for Hypothesis 2. There was a strong inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and employees' organizational commitment, such that the higher the threat to self-integrity, the lower the employee's resulting commitment to the organization.

Table 6

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control with Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Threat (Esteem)	562	**0.90**				
2. Threat (Identity)	562	0.25**	**0.78**			
3. Threat (Control)	562	0.71**	0.22**	**0.86**		
4. Threat (Index)	562	0.85**	0.61**	0.86**	**0.89**	
5. Organizational Commitment	562	-.57**	-.58**	-.12**	-.58**	**0.86**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size n=562.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 7

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control with Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Threat (Esteem)	91	**0.87**				
2. Threat (Identity)	91	0.26*	**0.79**			
3. Threat (Control)	91	0.64**	0.20	**0.84**		
4. Threat (Index)	91	0.83**	0.63**	0.81**	**0.87**	
5. Organizational Commitment	91	-.49**	-0.09	-.51**	-.48**	**0.81**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size n=91.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Table 8

Bivariate Correlations Examining the Relationships Between Threat to Self-Integrity and its Components of Esteem, Identity and Control with Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B)***

Variable	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Threat (Esteem)	471	**0.90**				
2. Threat (Identity)	471	0.24**	**0.77**			
3. Threat (Control)	471	0.71**	0.22**	**0.86**		
4. Threat (Index)	471	0.85**	0.60**	0.86**	**0.89**	
5. Organizational Commitment	471	-.60**	-.60**	-.13**	-.58**	**0.86**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01. Sample size n=471.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for each variable are indicated in bold on the diagonal

Model Link #3: Through Self-Affirmation, Volunteerism Moderates the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity and Decreased Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 3a predicted that corporate volunteerism moderates the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, such that when a person participates in corporate-sponsored volunteerism, the tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced. This hypothesis

predicts an interaction between threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism. In order to test this hypothesis, organizational commitment was regressed hierarchically on the main effects of threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism in step 1 and the cross-product of threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism in step 2. These hierarchical regressions were conducted four times for each of the three components of threat to self-integrity and once for the overall index. As a reminder, these four analyses were conducted three times for: 1) the overall dataset, 2) Organization A and 3) Organization B because the threat to self-integrity variable significantly differed between the two organizations. Tables 9 – 12 present the results for the overall dataset. Tables 13 - 16 present the results for Organization A and Tables 17 - 20 present the results for Organization B.

Table 9
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=560)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.66 (.04)***	-.66 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Corporate Volunteerism		.01 (.04)
	R	.58	.58
	R^2	.34***	.34***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .000$.

Table 10
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=560)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.16 (.05)**	-.16 (.05)**
	Corporate Volunteerism	.07 (.04)†	.07 (.04)†
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Corporate Volunteerism		-.14 (.04)**
	R	.16	.20
	R^2	.03**	.04***
	$R^2\Delta$		.02**

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 11
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=560)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.60 (.04)***	-.60 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Corporate Volunteerism		.01 (.03)
	R	.58	.58
	R^2	.34***	.34***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 12
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=560)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.82 (.05)***	-.81 (.05)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.03 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Corporate Volunteerism		-.03 (.04)
	R	.57	.57
	R^2	.32***	.32***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 13
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=90)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.56 (.11)***	-.56 (.11)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	-.01 (.07)	-.01 (.07)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Corporate Volunteerism		.10 (.08)
	R	.49	.49
	R^2	.24***	.24***
	$R^2\Delta$		.01

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 14
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=90)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.10 (.12)	-.09 (.12)
	Corporate Volunteerism	.04 (.08)	.04 (.08)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Corporate Volunteerism		-.12 (.09)
	R	.11	.18
	R^2	.01	.03
	$R^2\Delta$		.01

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 15
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=90)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.56 (.10)***	-.56 (.10)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.02 (.07)	.02 (.07)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Corporate Volunteerism		-.02 (.07)
	R	.51	.51
	R^2	.26	.26
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 16
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=90)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.22 (.14)***	-.71 (.14)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	-.01 (.07)	-.01 (.07)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Corporate Volunteerism		-.03 (.11)
	R	.48	.48
	R^2	.23***	.23***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 17
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=470)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.70 (.04)***	-.70 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.05 (.03)	.05 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Corporate Volunteerism		.02 (.04)
	R	.60	.60
	R^2	.36***	.36***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 18
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=470)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.16 (.06)**	-.17 (.06)**
	Corporate Volunteerism	.08 (.04)†	.07 (.04)†
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Corporate Volunteerism		-.15 (.05)**
	R	.16	.21
	R^2	.03**	.04***
	$R^2\Delta$		.02**

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .000$.

Table 19
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=470)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.62 (.04)***	-.62 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.05 (.03)	.05 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Corporate Volunteerism		.01 (.04)
	R	.60	.60
	R^2	.36***	.36***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .000$.

Table 20
Regression Examining the Moderator of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=490)***

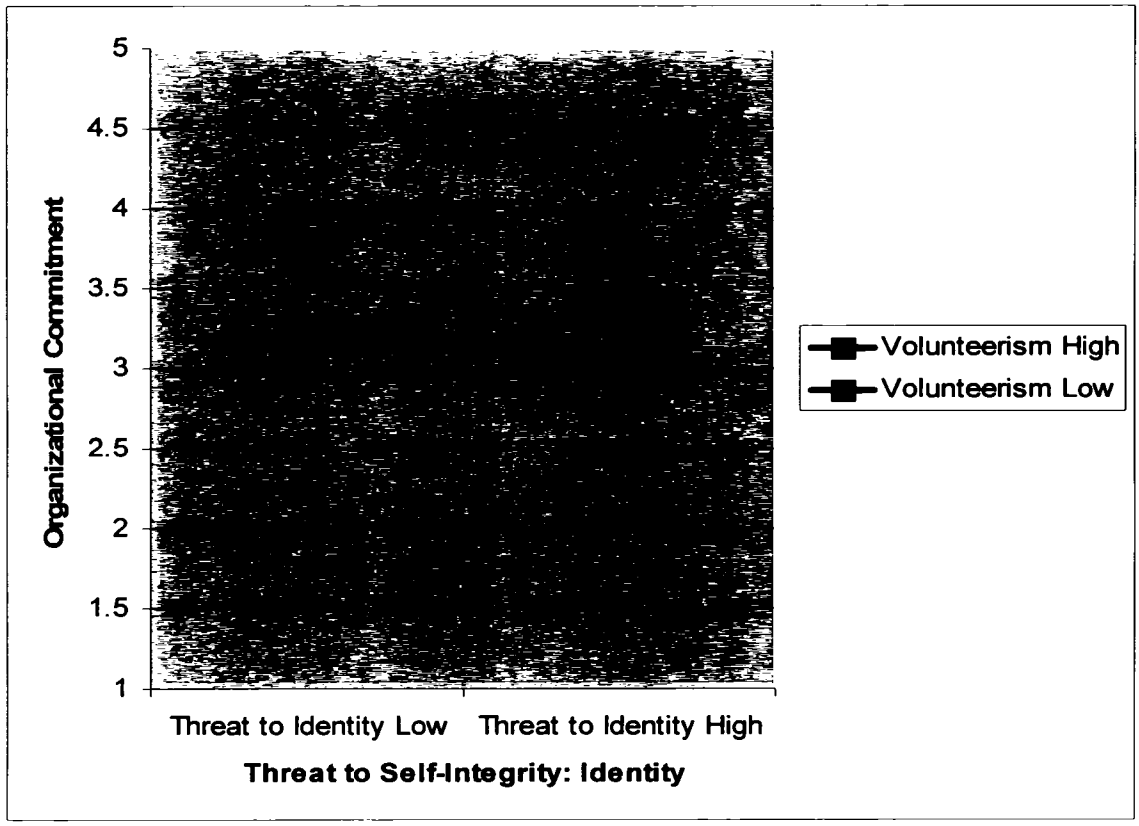
	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.84 (.06)***	-.85 (.06)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Corporate Volunteerism		-.05 (.05)
	R	.58	.58
	R^2	.34***	.34***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of volunteerism and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Results showed a significant interaction between corporate volunteerism and the identity component of threat to self-integrity for the overall dataset (β=-.14, p<.01) and for Organization B (β=-.15, p<.01). The interaction terms accounted for a significant additional 2% of the variance in organizational commitment after accounting for the variance due to main effects in both datasets. For all of the significant interactions found in this study, Aiken and West's (1991) guidelines for interpreting interactions were employed. A simple slope analysis was conducted to understand the nature of the interaction between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism and the effect on organizational commitment. All possible combinations of high and low levels of both the identity component of threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism were computed from information in the regression analyses. Specifically, one standard deviation was added to or subtracted from the variables' means in order to create high and low scores. The nature of the interaction for the overall

dataset is depicted in Figure 1. Organizational commitment is greatest when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is low and when involvement in corporate volunteerism is high. On the other hand, organizational commitment is lowest when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is high and involvement in corporate volunteerism is low. In addition, it appears that when involvement in corporate volunteerism is high, there is a greater relationship between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (steeper slope) than when involvement in corporate volunteerism is low (flatter slope). Said differently, when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is high, involvement in corporate volunteerism has a lesser impact on organizational commitment than when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is low.

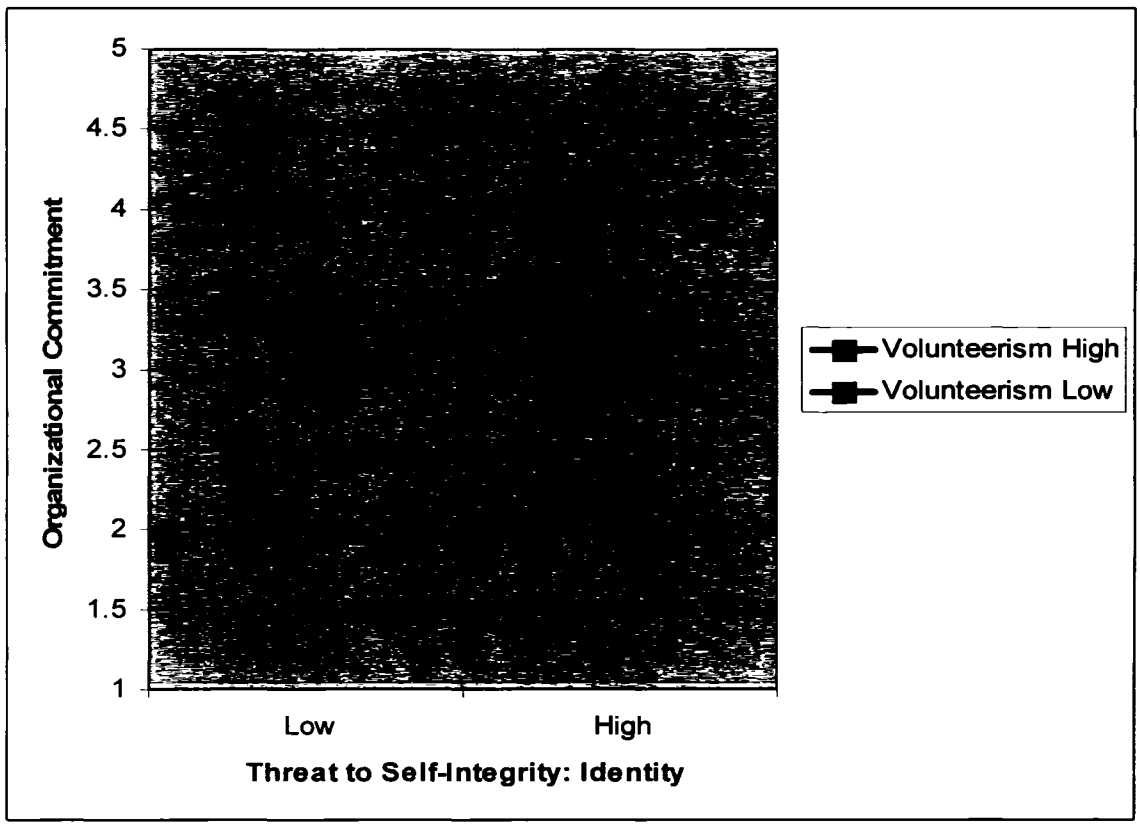
Figure 2: Interaction of Threat to Self-Integrity (Identity) and Corporate Volunteerism on Organizational Commitment for Overall Dataset



Note. Higher values of organizational commitment indicate greater organizational commitment. High/Low groups were calculated by adding / subtracting one standard deviation above / below the mean.

The nature of the interaction for Organization B is depicted in Figure 2. The nature of the results for Organization B were quite similar to the overall results.

Figure 3: Interaction of Threat to Self-Integrity (Identity) and Corporate Volunteerism on Organizational Commitment for Organization B



Note. Higher values of organizational commitment indicate greater organizational commitment. High/Low groups were calculated by adding / subtracting one standard deviation above / below the mean.

The remainder of the analyses involving the other components of threat to self-integrity for the overall dataset, for Organization A and for Organization B did not produce significant interaction terms. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a was not supported since the resulting interaction was not predicted. In the majority of cases where the interaction terms were not significant, main effects were found. Specifically, the esteem, identity and control components of threat to self-integrity, as well as the threat to self-integrity index were inversely related to organizational commitment for the overall dataset (β=-.66, $p<.000$; β=-.16, $p<.01$; β=-.60, $p<.000$; β=-.82, $p<.000$, respectively). The esteem and control components as well as the index of threat to self-integrity were also inversely

related to organizational commitment for Organization A (β=-.56, p<.000; β=-.56, p<.000; β=-.22, p<.000, respectively). However, the identity component of threat to self-integrity for Organization A did not significantly predict decreased organizational commitment. The identity component of threat to self-integrity behaved differently between the two samples. Similar to the overall dataset results, the esteem, identity and control components as well as the overall index of threat to self-integrity were inversely related to organizational commitment for Organization B (β=-.70, p<.000; β=-.16, p<.01; β=-.62, p<.000; β=-.84, p<.000, respectively). In sum, the data did not provide support for Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b predicted that self-affirmation moderates the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, such that when a person experiences self-affirmation, the tendency for higher threat to self-integrity to result in decreased organizational commitment is reduced. This hypothesis predicts an interaction between threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation. In order to test this hypothesis, organizational commitment was regressed hierarchically on the main effects of threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation in step 1 and the cross-product of threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation in step 2. These hierarchical regressions were conducted four times. Interaction variables were created for matched components of threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation – esteem, identity, control and the indexes. In addition, these four analyses were conducted three times for: 1) the overall dataset, 2) Organization A and 3) Organization B because the threat to self-integrity variable significantly differed between the two organizations. Tables 21 - 24 present the results for the overall dataset. Tables

25 - 28 present the results for Organization A and Tables 29 - 32 present the results for Organization B.

Table 21
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Esteem on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=432)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.65 (.05)***	-.65 (.05)***
	Self-Affirmation: Esteem	.23 (.05)***	.23 (.05)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Self-Affirmation: Esteem		.02 (.06)
	R	.62	.62
	R^2	.39***	.39***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the esteem component of self-affirmation and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 22
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Identity on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=432)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.22 (.06)***	-.22 (.06)***
	Self-Affirmation: Identity	.37 (.05)***	.34 (.05)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Self-Affirmation: Identity		-.17 (.07)**
	R	.38	.40
	R^2	.14***	.16***
	$R^2\Delta$		.01**

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the identity component of self-affirmation and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 23
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Control on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=431)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.60 (.04)***	-.66 (.04)***
	Self-Affirmation: Control	.29 (.05)***	.28 (.05)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Self-Affirmation: Control		.07 (.05)
	R	.64	.65
	R^2	.42***	.42***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the control component of self-affirmation and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 24
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Index on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Overall Dataset n=429)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.82 (.06)***	-.83 (.06)***
	Self-Affirmation: Index	.33 (.05)***	.33 (.05)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Self-Affirmation: Index		.07 (.08)
	R	.65	.65
	R^2	.42***	.42***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of self-affirmation and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 25
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Esteem on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=64)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.49 (.15)**	-.48 (.16)**
	Self-Affirmation: Esteem	.42 (.15)**	.42 (.15)**
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Self-Affirmation: Esteem		-.04 (.20)
	R	.58	.58
	R^2	.33***	.33***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the esteem component of self-affirmation and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 26
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Identity on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=64)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.20 (.15)	-.24 (.15)
	Self-Affirmation: Identity	.39 (.12)**	.33 (.13)*
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Self-Affirmation: Identity		-.19 (.15)
	R	.41	.44
	R^2	.17**	.19**
	$R^2\Delta$		.02

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the identity component of self-affirmation and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 27
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Control on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=64)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.59 (.12)***	-.63 (.13)***
	Self-Affirmation: Control	.36 (.16)*	.56 (.21)**
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Self-Affirmation: Control		.29 (.21)
	R	.57	.59
	R^2	.32***	.34***
	$R^2\Delta$		.02

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the control component of self-affirmation and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 28
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Index on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=64)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.66 (.17)***	-.66 (.17)***
	Self-Affirmation: Index	.47 (.15)**	.48 (.16)**
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Self-Affirmation: Index		.01 (.22)
	R	.59	.59
	R^2	.35***	.35***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of self-affirmation and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 29
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Esteem on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=368)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem	-.68 (.05)***	-.68 (.05)***
	Self-Affirmation: Esteem	.21 (.05)***	.20 (.05)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Esteem X Self-Affirmation: Esteem		.03 (.20)
	R	.63	.63
	R^2	.40***	.40***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the esteem component of self-affirmation and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 30
Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Identity on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=368)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity	-.22 (.06)***	-.21 (.06)**
	Self-Affirmation: Identity	.37 (.06)***	.35 (.06)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Identity X Self-Affirmation: Identity		-.17 (.08)*
	R	.38	.39
	R^2	.14***	.15***
	$R^2\Delta$		.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the identity component of self-affirmation and the identity component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 31

Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Control on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization A, n=367)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control	-.61 (.05)***	-.62 (.05)***
	Self-Affirmation: Control	.28 (.05)***	.26 (.06)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Control X Self-Affirmation: Control		.08 (.06)
	R	.66	.66
	R^2	.43***	.43***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the control component of self-affirmation and the control component of threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 32

Regression Examining the Moderator of Self-Affirmation: Index on the Relationship Between Threat to Self-Integrity: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(Organization B, n=365)***

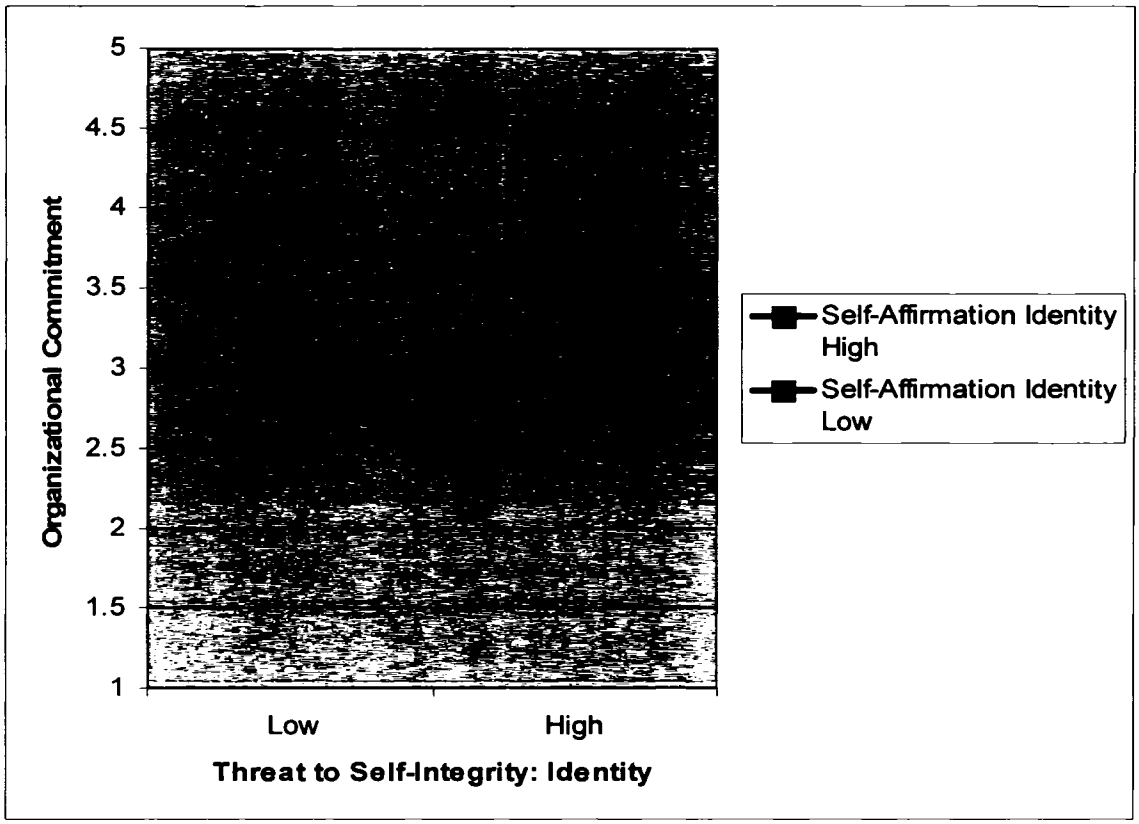
	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index	-.86 (.06)***	-.88 (.06)***
	Self-Affirmation: Index	.30 (.05)***	.29 (.06)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Threat to Self-Integrity: Index X Self-Affirmation: Index		.12 (.09)
	R	.66	.66
	R^2	.44***	.44***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of self-affirmation and threat to self-integrity beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Results showed a significant interaction between the identity component of self-affirmation and the identity component of threat to self-integrity for the overall dataset (β=-.17, $p<.01$) and for Organization B (β=-.17, $p<.05$). The interaction terms accounted for a significant additional 1% of the variance in organizational commitment after accounting for the variance due to main effects in both datasets. Slope analyses were conducted to understand the nature of the interaction between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and the identity component of self-affirmation and the effect on organizational commitment for the overall dataset and for Organization B. All possible combinations of high and low levels of both the identity component of threat to self-integrity and the identity component of self-affirmation were computed from information in the regression analyses. Specifically, one standard deviation was added to or subtracted from the variables' means in order to create high and low scores. The nature of the interaction for the overall dataset is depicted in Figure 3. Organizational commitment is greatest when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is low and when the identity component of self-affirmation is high. On the other hand, organizational commitment is lowest when threat to the identity component of self-integrity is high and the identity component of self-affirmation is low. In addition, it appears that when the identity component of self-affirmation is high, there is greater impact on the relationship between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (steeper slope) than when the identity component of self-affirmation is low (flatter slope). This is, again, contrary to the predicted relationships between the variables. Hence, when threat to the identity component of self-integrity is

high, the identity component of self-affirmation has a lesser impact on organizational commitment than when threat to the identity component of self-integrity is low.

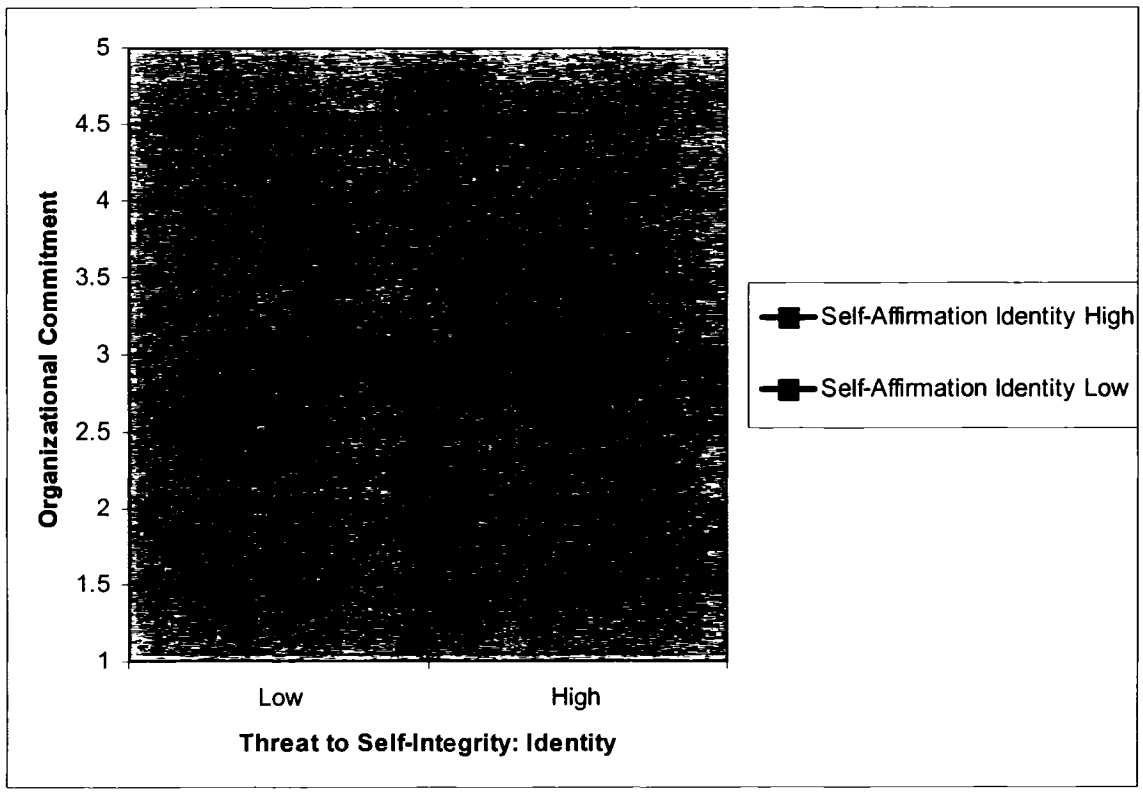
Figure 4: Interaction of Threat to Self-Integrity (Identity) and Self-Affirmation (Identity) on Organizational Commitment for Overall Dataset



Note. Higher values of organizational commitment indicate greater organizational commitment. High/Low groups were calculated by adding / subtracting one standard deviation above / below the mean.

The nature of the interaction for Organization B is similar to the nature of the interaction for the overall dataset, as depicted in Figure 4.

Figure 5: Interaction of Threat to Self-Integrity (Identity) and Self-Affirmation (Identity) on Organizational Commitment for Organization B



Note. Higher values of organizational commitment indicate greater organizational commitment. High/Low groups were calculated by adding / subtracting one standard deviation above / below the mean.

The remainder of the analyses involving the other components of threat to self-integrity for the overall dataset, for Organization A and for Organization B did not produce significant interaction terms. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b was not supported. In the majority of cases where the interaction terms were not significant, main effects were found. Specifically, the esteem, identity and control components of threat to self-integrity, as well as the threat to self-integrity index was significantly inversely related to organizational commitment for the overall dataset (β=-.65, $p<.000$; β=-.22, $p<.000$; β=-.60, $p<.000$, β=-.82, $p<.000$, respectively). The esteem and control components as well as the index of threat to self-integrity also was significantly inversely related to

organizational commitment for Organization A (β=-.49, p<.01; β=-.59, p<.000; β=-.66, p<.000, respectively). However, the identity component of threat to self-identity for Organization A did not significantly predict organizational commitment. This was the case when testing for hypothesis 3a as well. Similar to the overall dataset results, the esteem, identity and control components as well as the overall index of threat to self-integrity was inversely related to organizational commitment for Organization B (β=-.68, p<.000; β=-.22, p<.000; β=-.61, p<.000; β=-.86, p<.000, respectively). The components of self-affirmation as well as the index variable were all significant predictors of organizational commitment in the overall dataset, for Organization A and for Organization B. In the overall dataset, the esteem component of self-affirmation was positively related to organizational commitment (β=.23, p<.000) as was identity (β=.37, p<.000), control (β=.29, p<.000) and the index variable (β=.33, p<.000). Organization A results were similarly positive and although slightly less significant, they were still significant (esteem β=.42, p<.01; identity β=.39, p<.01; control β=.36, p<.05; index β=.47, p<.01). This may have been the result of a considerably smaller sample size as compared to Organization B. Similar to the overall dataset, Organization B results were positive and significant (esteem β=.21, p<.000; identity β=.37, p<.000; control β=.28, p<.000; index β=.30, p<.000). In sum, the data did not provide support for Hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 3c predicted that self-affirmation mediates the moderating effect of corporate volunteerism on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, such that when a person experiences self-affirmation as a result of corporate volunteering, the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity

and organizational commitment will be reduced. On the other hand, when a person does not experience self-affirmation as a result of corporate volunteering, the inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment will not be reduced. In order to test a mediated relationship, the results of three separate regression equations must be considered. Baron and Kenny (1986) outline three conditions of mediation that must be met. The three conditions are: 1) the independent variable and the mediator must each be significantly related to the dependent variable when considered separately, 2) the independent variable must be significantly related to the proposed mediator and 3) the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable should be significantly weaker when the proposed mediator is included in the regression equation. To establish self-affirmation as a mediator, therefore, corporate volunteerism must moderate the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (hypothesis 3a) and self-affirmation must moderate the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (hypothesis 3b). Hypothesis 3c was not supported based on the fact that the pre-conditions set forth by Baron and Kenny for testing mediation (1986) were not satisfied.

Model Link #4: The Functions of Volunteering Moderate the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the relationship between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation is moderated by the reasons (functions) for people's involvement in corporate volunteerism. Specifically, it was predicted that the tendency for corporate volunteerism to result in self-affirmation increases when a person volunteers for values,

social or enhancement reasons relative to when a person volunteers for understanding, career or protective reasons. This hypothesis predicts an interactive effect of corporate volunteerism and the three volunteerism functions of values, social and enhancement on self-affirmation. In order to test this hypothesis, self-affirmation was regressed hierarchically on the main effects of each of the functions and corporate volunteerism in step 1 and the cross-product of each of the functions and corporate volunteerism in step 2. In total, six hierarchical regressions were conducted. Table 33 presents the results for the protective function. Table 34 presents the results for the career function and Table 35 presents the results for the understanding function. Tables 36 - 38 present the results for the values, social and enhancement functions, respectively.

Table 33
*Regression Examining the Moderator of the Protective Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation (**n=443**)*

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Protective	.02 (.03)	.02 (.04)
	Corporate Volunteerism	.28 (.04)***	.28 (.04)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Protective X Corporate Volunteerism		-.01 (.04)
	R	.36	.36
	R^2	.13***	.13***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the protective function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 34
Regression Examining the Moderator of the Career Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation ***(n=442)***

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Career	.01 (.04)	.00 (.04)
	Corporate Volunteerism	.28 (.04)***	.28 (.04)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Career X Corporate Volunteerism		.02 (.04)
	R	.36	.36
	R^2	.13***	.13***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the career function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 35
Regression Examining the Moderator of the Understanding Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation ***(n=439)***

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Understanding	.35 (.04)***	.37 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.23 (.03)***	.23 (.03)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Understanding X Corporate Volunteerism		-.05 (.04)
	R	.54	.54
	R^2	.29***	.29***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the understanding function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 36
Regression Examining the Moderator of the Values Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation ***(n=442)***

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Values	.48 (.04)***	.47 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.21 (.03)***	.21 (.03)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Values X Corporate Volunteerism		.02 (.04)
	R	.61	.61
	R^2	.37***	.38***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the values function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 37
Regression Examining the Moderator of the Social Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation ***(n=437)***

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Social	.21 (.04)***	.23 (.05)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.26 (.03)***	.27 (.03)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Social X Corporate Volunteerism		-.04 (.04)
	R	.42	.42
	R^2	.17***	.17***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the social function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

Table 38
Regression Examining the Moderator of the Enhancement Function on the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation (n=442)

	Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Volunteer Function: Enhancement	.17 (.03)***	.18 (.04)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.29 (.03)***	.29 (.03)***
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Volunteer Function: Enhancement X Corporate Volunteerism		-.01 (.04)
	R	.42	.42
	R^2	.17***	.17***
	$R^2\Delta$		.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the enhancement function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000.

The interaction terms created for each of the volunteer functions did not account for a significant portion of the variance in self-affirmation after accounting for the variance due to the main effects of the functions and corporate volunteerism. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. The interaction terms were not significant, nevertheless, main effects were observed. In the presence of all six functions of volunteerism, main effects for corporate volunteerism significantly and uniquely contributed to self-affirmation. In all cases, participation in corporate volunteerism activities was significantly related to higher self-affirmation, as evidenced by the positive beta weights ranging from (β=.21, p<.000 to β=.29, p<.000) for the six volunteerism functions. As predicted, main effects for the values function, the social function and the enhancement function significantly and uniquely contributed to self-affirmation (β=.48, p<.000; β=.21, p<.000; β=.17, p<.000, respectively). It was also predicted, correctly, that main effects for the protective function and the career function would not significantly contribute to

self-affirmation (β=.02; β=.00, respectively). On the other hand, it was predicted that the understanding function of volunteerism would not lead to self-affirmation because it was assumed that the understanding function is less related to general self-integrity affirmation, as it relates more to obtaining knowledge or information. Results showed, however, that main effects for the understanding function did lead to increased self-affirmation (β=.37, $p<.000$), in addition to the values, social and enhancement functions that were predicted to do so. In sum, the data did not support Hypothesis 4.

Model Link #5: Volunteer Activities That Lead People to Connect with Others Result in Increased Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 5 predicted that volunteerism that results in establishing connections or bonds with people at work is more likely to lead to increased organizational commitment than volunteerism that does not lead to the establishment of bonds with people at work. In other words, connecting with others was expected to mediate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the test for mediation requires that the first regression equation consist of the regression of organizational commitment on corporate volunteerism, resulting in a significant relationship. The second regression equation consist of the variable connecting with others, when regressed on corporate volunteerism, will result in a significant relationship. The third equation regresses organizational commitment on connecting with others, and should also result in a significant relationship. The fourth equation regresses organizational commitment on the main effects of volunteerism and connecting with others. Evidence of mediation requires that the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment be

reduced when connecting with others is present, and that the relationship between connecting with others and organizational commitment remain significant, even when corporate volunteerism is present. The last relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment should be significantly weaker (partial mediation) or non-significant (full mediation) when the proposed mediator of connecting with others is included in the regression equation. Tables 39 - 42 present the results for the four regressions conducted to test Hypothesis 5.

Table 39
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=427)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.10 (.05)*
R	.11
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 40
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Connecting With Others ***(n=427)***

Dependent Variable:	Connecting With Others
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.22 (.04)***
R	.25
R^2	.06***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 41
*Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Connecting With Others and Organizational Commitment (**n=427**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Connecting With Others	.39 (.05)***
R	.34
R^2	.12***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 42
*Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of Volunteerism and Connecting With Others on Organizational Commitment (**n=427**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.02 (.05)
Connecting With Others	.38 (.05)***
R	.34
R^2	.12***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

The first regression equation resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (β=.10, p<.05), satisfying the first requirement for the test of mediation. Similarly, the second equation resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and connecting with others (β=.22, p<.000), satisfying the second requirement for the test of mediation. The third equation, which regressed organizational commitment on connecting with others also resulted in a significant relationship between the two variables (β=.39, p<.000), satisfying the third requirement for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of corporate volunteerism and connecting

with others (β=.02, not significant; β=.38, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for mediation were therefore satisfied because the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment was reduced when connecting with others was present, and the relationship between connecting with others and organizational commitment remained significant, even in the presence of corporate volunteerism. The relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment was non-significant, signifying the presence of full mediation, when the proposed mediator of connecting with others was included in the regression equation. Hypothesis 5 was therefore supported by the data.

Summary of Results

In summary, limited support was found for the overall effects of the moderating effect of corporate volunteerism through self-affirmation on the relationship between organizational change significance and organizational commitment. There was support, however, for the positive effect of corporate volunteerism on employees' organizational commitment. This is an important finding to be discussed further. There were significant differences between the two samples regarding the relationship between organizational change significance and threat to self-integrity (Hypothesis 1). Organizational change was significantly, positively related to the identity component and the index of threat to self-integrity for the overall dataset and Organization B. The results from Organization A, however, yielded no significant relationships between organizational change and threat to self-integrity. There was strong support found for the hypothesis predicting that threat to self-integrity was related to organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2). The only exception was the relationship between the identity component of threat to self-

integrity and organizational commitment for Organization A. In general, little support was found for the hypotheses regarding the moderators of corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). Nevertheless, a number of significant main effects were found among the threat to self-integrity, corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation variables on organizational commitment. The interactions between corporate volunteerism and the six functions of volunteerism were not significant (Hypothesis 4). Main effects were found, however, for the values, social, enhancement and understanding functions on self-affirmation. Furthermore, in the presence of all six functions of volunteerism, main effects for corporate volunteerism significantly and uniquely contributed to self-affirmation. Finally, there was strong support for the hypothesis predicting that corporate volunteerism that results in connecting with others at work leads to organizational commitment (Hypothesis 5).

Additional Analyses

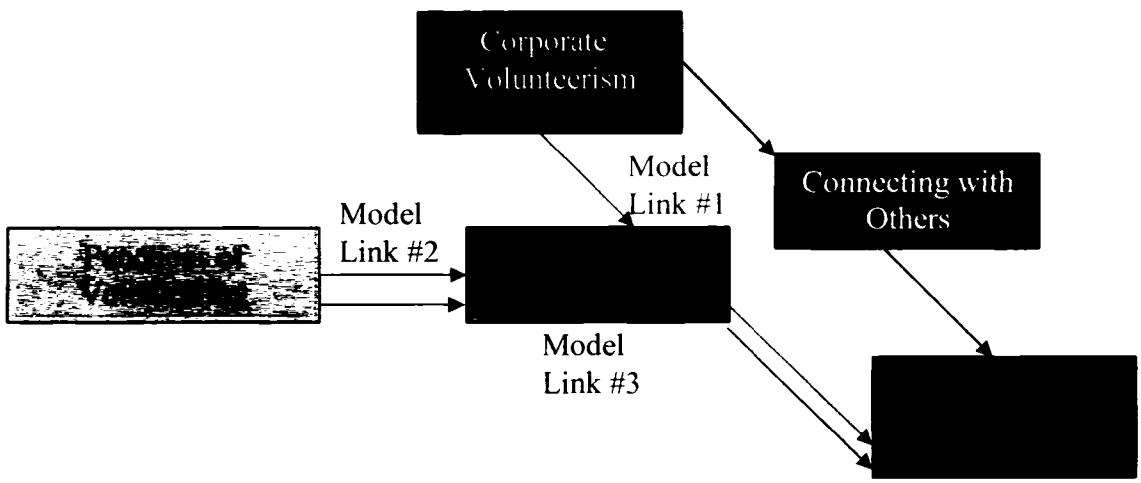
In light of the unexpected findings following the proposed conceptual framework, other ways in which to think about the relationships between variables in the model were considered. Overall, there was rather weak and inconsistent support found for the interaction hypotheses tested in the original model. In several cases, however, support was found for the main effects of corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation on organizational commitment. That is, it appeared as if corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation did, in fact, have an additive impact on the experience of organizational commitment. It is therefore possible that although hypothesized as a moderator of the

relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, self-affirmation may have actually been acting as a mediator of the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. Indeed, there are theoretical reasons to suggest that the esteem, identity and control components of self-affirmation could in fact be mediators of the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. In other words, involvement in corporate volunteerism may allow employees to affirm their sense of self, which in turn may lead to heightened organizational commitment. Based on the volunteerism literature, people often choose to volunteer in order to make them feel better about themselves (Francies, 1983; Latting, 1990; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989; Rubin & Torelli, 1984). People may volunteer in order to feel better about themselves or to affirm their positive self-identity as helpful, altruistic people (Gillespie & King, 1985).

In addition, the experience of self-affirmation may lead to heightened organizational commitment for the following reason. It is based on the central tenet of the principle of reciprocity (Blau, 1964) that employees are assumed to be committed to institutions in direct proportion to the degree to which they believe institutions are committed to them. When an organization provides a vehicle for employees to satisfy their basic needs, there is likelihood that the employees' commitment to the organization will increase (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). Therefore, if an organization provides employees with the opportunity to self-affirm through volunteer activities sponsored by the organization, employees may experience a heightened sense of organizational commitment in exchange for the opportunity to volunteer.

Post-hoc analyses of the data lend support to the argument that it was corporate volunteerism, and not volunteerism per se, that led to increased commitment to the organization. Specifically, corporate volunteerism was correlated with organizational commitment (r=.10, p<.05), whereas volunteer activity that was not sponsored by the corporation was not correlated with organizational commitment (r=-.06, not significant). In addition, corporate volunteerism was significantly correlated with self-affirmation (r=.36, p<.01), while volunteer activity that was not sponsored by the corporation was not significantly correlated with self-affirmation (r=.06, not significant). The following model depicts an alternative conceptualization of the relationships between the variables of corporate volunteerism, self-affirmation, connecting with others, functions of volunteerism and the dependent variable of organizational commitment. In this section of the paper, each of the three new linkages within the model are reviewed in turn. The fourth linkage, the mediator of connecting with others on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment, was previously analyzed. Hypothesis 5 was supported, connecting with others did, in fact, mediate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment.

Figure 6: Alternative Model



Alternative Model Link #1: Self-Affirmation as a Mediator of the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment

A post-hoc series of regression analyses were conducted to determine whether self-affirmation mediates the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. The establishment of self-affirmation as a mediator on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment, requires that four regression tests be conducted for each of the three components of self-affirmation as well as for the index of self-affirmation. The results of the mediation test for the esteem component of self-affirmation are presented in Tables 43-46. The results of the mediation test for the identity component of self-affirmation are presented in Tables 47-50. The results of the mediation test for the control component of self-affirmation are presented in Tables 51-54 and those for the index of self-affirmation are presented in Tables 55-58.

Table 43 Post-Hoc Analyses
*First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (**n=432**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.11 (.05)*
R	.11
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 44 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation: Esteem and Organizational Commitment ***(n=432)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation: Esteem	.37 (.06)***
R	.30
R^2	.09***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 45 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Esteem ***(n=432)***

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation: Esteem
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.28 (.04)***
R	.35
R^2	.12***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 46 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Esteem on Organizational Commitment ***(n=432)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.00 (.05)
Self-Affirmation: Esteem	.37 (.06)***
R	.30
R^2	.09***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 47 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (n=432)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.10 (.05)*
R	.11
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 48 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation: Identity and Organizational Commitment (n=432)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation: Identity	.38 (.05)***
R	.34
R^2	.11***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 49 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Identity (n=432)

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation: Identity
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.26 (.04)***
R	.30
R^2	.09***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 50 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Identity on Organizational Commitment ***(n=432)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.01 (.05)
Self-Affirmation: Identity	.37 (.05)***
R	.34
R^2	.11***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 51 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=431)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.10 (.05)*
R	.11
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 52 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation: Control and Organizational Commitment ***(n=431)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation: Control	.48 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 53 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Control ***(n=431)***

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation: Control
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.22 (.03)***
R	.31
R^2	.09***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 54 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Control on Organizational Commitment ***(n=431)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	-.00 (.05)
Self-Affirmation: Control	.48 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 55 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=429)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.10 (.05)*
R	.09
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 56 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation: Index and Organizational Commitment ***(n=429)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation: Index	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 57 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Index ***(n=429)***

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation: Index
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	.25 (.03)***
R	.35
R^2	.12***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 58 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of Corporate Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation: Index on Organizational Commitment ***(n=429)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Corporate Volunteerism	-.02 (.05)
Self-Affirmation: Index	.50 (.07)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Results of the post-hoc analyses for the first link of the alternative model provide evidence that self-affirmation does in fact, mediate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. The first series of regression equations resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (β=.11, $p<.05$), a significant relationship between the esteem component of self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.37, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and the esteem component of self-affirmation (β=.28, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of corporate volunteerism and the esteem component of self-affirmation (β=.00, not significant; β=.37, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for mediation were therefore satisfied because the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment was reduced when the esteem component of self-affirmation was present, and the relationship between the esteem component of self-affirmation and organizational commitment remained significant, even in the presence of corporate volunteerism. The relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment was non-significant, signifying the presence of full mediation.

The second series of regression equations resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (β=.10, $p<.05$), a significant relationship between the identity component of self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.38, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and the identity component of self-affirmation (β=.26, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation

regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of corporate volunteerism and the identity component of self-affirmation (β=.01, not significant; β=.37, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

The third series of regression equations resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (β=.10, $p<.05$), a highly significant relationship between the control component of self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.48, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and the identity component of self-affirmation (β=.22, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of volunteerism and the control component of self-affirmation (β=-.00, not significant; β=.48, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

The fourth series of regression equations examined the mediator of the index of self-affirmation on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. Post-hoc analyses resulted in a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (β=.10, $p<.05$), a highly significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.49, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation (β=.25, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of corporate volunteerism self-affirmation (β=-.02, not significant; β=.50, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

Results of all four sets of analyses confirm that all three components as well as the index of self-affirmation mediate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. The first link of the alternative model was therefore fully supported.

Alternative Model Link #2: Functions of Volunteering Lead to Self-Affirmation

A post-hoc analysis was conducted in order to determine whether the reasons why a person volunteers leads to the experience of self-affirmation. The functions of volunteering include: values, social, career, protective, understanding and enhancement. Bivariate correlation tests were conducted between the functions variables and self-affirmation. Self-affirmation was positively and significantly related to the values function (r=.55, p<.000), the social function (r=.25, p<.000), the enhancement function (r=.20, p<.000), and surprisingly the understanding function (r=.46, p<.000). Self-affirmation was not significantly related to the protective function (r=.01, not significant), or the career function (r=.01, not significant). The second link of the alternative model was therefore supported by four out of six functions of volunteerism.

Alternative Model Link #3: Self-Affirmation as a Mediator of the Relationship Between Functions of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment

A series of regression analyses were conducted to determine whether self-affirmation mediates the relationship between the functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment. Previously conducted analyses showed that four of the six functions of volunteerism are correlated with self-affirmation. In addition, self-

affirmation and its three components are correlated with the dependent variable of organizational commitment. Post-hoc analyses were conducted to determine whether the positive relationships between the four functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment are mediated by self-affirmation. In other words, statistical tests were conducted to determine whether it is the self-affirmation resulting from the functions of volunteerism that leads to organizational commitment, rather than the functions on their own leading to organizational commitment. To establish the index of self-affirmation as a mediator on the relationship between the functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment, therefore, four regression tests were conducted for each of the functions of volunteerism. The results of the mediation test for the protective, values, career, social, understanding and enhancement functions are presented in Tables 59 - 82.

Table 59 Post-Hoc Analyses
*First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Protective Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (**n=429**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Protective Function	.03 (.05)
R	.03
R^2	.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 60 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Protective Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation (n=429)

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Protective Function	-.00 (.04)
R	.00
R^2	.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .00

Table 61 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment (n=429)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 62 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Protective Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment (n=429)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Protective Function	.03 (.05)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 63 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Values Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (n=428)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Values Function	.26 (.06)***
R	.21
R^2	.04

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 64 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Values Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation (n=428)

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Values Function	.50 (.04)***
R	.54
R^2	.29

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 65 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment (n=428)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 66 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Values Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Values Function	.02 (.07)
Self-Affirmation	.48 (.07)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 67 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Career Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Career Function	.04 (.05)
R	.04
R^2	.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 68 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Career Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Career Function	-.00 (.04)
R	.00
R^2	.00

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 69 Post-Hoc Analyses
*Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment (**n=428**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 70 Post-Hoc Analyses
*Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Career Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment (**n=428**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Career Function	.04 (.05)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.37
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 71 Post-Hoc Analyses
*First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Social Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (**n=423**)*

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Social Function	.19 (.06)**
R	.15
R^2	.02**

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 72 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Social Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation (n=423)

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Social Function	.21 (.04)
R	.23
R^2	.05

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 73 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment (n=423)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.48 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 74 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Social Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment (n=423)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Social Function	.09 (.06)
Self-Affirmation	.46 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 75 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Understanding Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment (n=425)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Understanding Function	.19 (.05)***
R	.17
R^2	.03***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 76 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Understanding Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation (n=425)

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Understanding Function	.36 (.04)***
R	.43
R^2	.19***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 77 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment (n=425)

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 78 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Understanding Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment ***(n=425)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Understanding Function	.02 (.06)
Self-Affirmation	.47 (.07)***
R	.36
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 79 Post-Hoc Analyses
First Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Enhancement Function of Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Enhancement Function	.12 (.05)*
R	.12
R^2	.01*

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 80 Post-Hoc Analyses
Second Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between the Enhancement Function of Volunteerism and Self Affirmation ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Self-Affirmation
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Enhancement Function	.14 (.04)***
R	.18
R^2	.03***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 81 Post-Hoc Analyses
Third Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Relationship Between Self-Affirmation and Organizational Commitment ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Self-Affirmation	.49 (.06)***
R	.37
R^2	.13***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Table 82 Post-Hoc Analyses
Fourth Regression in Mediation Analysis: Examining the Main Effects of the Enhancement Function of Volunteerism and Self-Affirmation on Organizational Commitment ***(n=428)***

Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment
Main Effect	Beta (SE)
Enhancement Function	.06 (.05)
Self-Affirmation	.48 (.06)***
R	.37
R^2	.14***

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .000

Results of the post-hoc analyses for the third link of the alternative model provide evidence that self-affirmation does in fact, mediate the relationship between four of the six functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment. The first series of regression equations for the protective function did not result in a significant relationship between the protective function and organizational commitment (β=.03, not significant), a non-significant relationship between the protective function and self-affirmation (β=-.00, not significant), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and commitment (β=.49, p<.000). The first two requirements for the test of mediation were

not met, therefore self-affirmation did not mediate the relationship between the protective function of volunteerism and organizational commitment.

The second series of regression equations for the values function of volunteerism resulted in a significant relationship between the values function and organizational commitment (β=.26, p<.000), a significant relationship between the values function and self-affirmation (β=.50, p<.000), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.49, p<.000), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of the values function and self-affirmation (β=.02, not significant; β=.48, p<.000, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

The third series of regression equations for the career function of volunteerism resulted in a non-significant relationship between the career function and organizational commitment (β=.04, not significant), a non-significant relationship between the career function and self-affirmation (β=-.00, not significant), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.49, p<.000). The first two requirements for the test of mediation were not met, therefore self-affirmation did not mediate the relationship between the career function of volunteerism and organizational commitment.

The fourth series of regression equations for the social function of volunteerism resulted in a significant relationship between the social function and organizational commitment (β=.19, p<.01), a significant relationship between the social function and self-affirmation (β=.21, p<.000), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.48, p<.000), satisfying the first three requirements

for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of the social function and self-affirmation (β=.09, not significant; β=.46, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

The fifth series of regression equations for the understanding function of volunteerism resulted in a significant relationship between the understanding function and organizational commitment (β=.19, $p<.000$), a significant relationship between the understanding function and self-affirmation (β=.36, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.49, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of the understanding function and self-affirmation (β=.02, not significant; β=.47, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

The sixth series of regression equations for the enhancement function of volunteerism resulted in a significant relationship between the enhancement function and organizational commitment (β=.12, $p<.05$), however the significance for this function was less than that of the other significant functions. The results also produced a significant relationship between the enhancement function and self-affirmation (β=.14, $p<.000$), and a significant relationship between self-affirmation and organizational commitment (β=.49, $p<.000$), satisfying the first three requirements for the test of mediation. The fourth equation regressed organizational commitment on the main effects of the enhancement function and self-affirmation (β=.06, not significant; β=.48, $p<.000$, respectively). The requirements for full mediation were therefore satisfied.

Results of the post-hoc analyses for the third link of the alternative model confirm that all three components as well as the index of self-affirmation mediate the relationship between four of the six functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment. The third link of the alternative model was therefore fully supported for four of the six functions of volunteerism.

Exploration of Additional Outcomes

In addition to questions probing the dependent variable of organizational commitment, a number of other questions were asked in order to provide a greater spectrum of possible corporate volunteerism outcomes. The leaders within a corporation might assume that involvement in self-affirming activities outside of the organization would result in negative outcomes for the organization, rather than the positive outcome of organizational commitment. It was therefore important to probe other potential outcomes of volunteerism in addition to organizational commitment. An employer might assume, for example, that involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteerism might lead people to become more interested in activities and relationships outside of work, such as personal hobbies, time with family or other career prospects. Positive outcomes other than commitment may also result from involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteerism including, increased cooperation with colleagues, increased employee morale, decreased stress and increased creativity at work. A set of questions probing nine potential outcomes resulting from involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteerism, in addition to the three organizational commitment questions previously asked, followed the stem, "The following statements pertain to possible results of volunteering. Please indicate how

much you agree or disagree with each statement." For example, participants were asked to respond to the questions: "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has led me to think about making a significant career change" and "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has increased my employee morale." In addition, the three organizational commitment questions, based on questions from the organizational commitment scale developed by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) were asked for the second time in the survey. In this section of the survey, the three organizational commitment questions followed the stem, "Volunteering with [organization] in the past year has made me..." The results from the twelve questions related to possible outcomes of corporate volunteerism can be found in Table 83.

Table 83

Descriptive Statistics for all Outcome Variables

Variable	Mean	SE of Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
Study Variable						
1. Make a significant career change	2.04	.048	2.00	2.00	.986	.972
2. Become more interested in pursuing my hobbies	2.58	.052	3.00	2.00	1.077	1.159
3. Become more interested in spending time with my family	2.80	.052	3.00	3.00	1.057	1.116
4. Become more interested in increasing community involvement	3.63	.043	4.00	4.00	.887	.787
5. Think more about my personal career prospects	2.60	.052	3.00	2.00	1.056	1.115
6. Increased my ability to cooperate with my colleagues at work	2.85	.047	3.00	3.00	.963	.928
7. Increased my employee morale	3.17	.048	3.00	3.00	.992	.985
8. Decreased my stress at work	2.52	.046	3.00	3.00	.951	.904
9. Increased my creativity at work	2.74	.044	3.00	3.00	.906	.820
10. More willing to put in effort beyond what is expected to keep this organization successful	3.10	.051	3.00	3.00	1.051	1.105
11. More likely to talk up this organization as a great one to work for	3.60	.050	4.00	4.00	1.026	1.052
12. More likely to inspire the very best in me in the way of job performance	3.14	.049	3.00	3.00	1.004	1.008

The highest mean responses were to the questions, "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has led me to become more interested in increasing my community involvement" (M=3.63), "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has increased my employee morale" (M=3.17) and the three organizational commitment questions following the corporate volunteerism stem (M=3.10, M=3.60 and M=3.14, respectively). The lowest mean responses were to the questions, "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has led me to think about making a significant career change" (M=2.04) and "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has decreased

my stress at work" (M=2.52). The following questions also received relatively low mean responses, "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has led me to become more interested in pursuing my hobbies" (M=2.58) and "Volunteering with [*organization*] in the past year has led me to think more about my personal career prospects" (M=2.60). In general, these results provide further support for corporate volunteerism resulting in positive outcomes for organizations.

Company Commitment to Corporate Volunteerism as a Moderator

Self-affirmation and connecting with others mediated the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. For self-affirmation to occur for employees within an organization as a result of corporate volunteerism activities, it may be important for the employees to perceive that their company is in fact committed to its corporate volunteerism programs. Some organizations may offer corporate volunteerism opportunities to employees for a variety of reasons including for example, tax breaks, positive public perception or because it is what competitor organizations offer to their employees. However, employees' perception of how committed their company is to its corporate volunteerism program may make a difference regarding whether involvement in corporate volunteerism leads to the experience of increased commitment to their organization or not. Corporate volunteerism may still lead to self-affirmation and connections with others, resulting in organizational commitment, but the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment may be stronger when employees perceive that their company is committed to its corporate volunteerism program. In the present survey, employees were asked to provide their response to the

question, "How much do you believe your company is committed to its corporate volunteer program?" Response choices were: (Not at All, Very Little, Somewhat, Quite a Bit and Very Much). The moderating role of company commitment to corporate volunteerism on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment, was tested using regression analysis. Table 84 presents the results.

Table 84
Regression Examining the Moderator of Company Commitment to Corporate Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Corporate Volunteerism and Organizational Commitment ***(n=442)***

	Dependent Variable:	Organizational Commitment	
		Model 1	Model 2
Step 1:	Main Effects	Beta (SE)	Beta (SE)
	Company Commitment to Corporate Volunteerism	.22 (.05)***	.23 (.05)***
	Corporate Volunteerism	.07 (.04)*	.07 (.04)*
Step 2:	Two-Way Interaction		
	Company Commitment to Corporate VolunteerismX Corporate Volunteerism		.09 (.05)†
	R	.21	.23
	R^2	.05***	.05***
	$R^2\Delta$		.01†

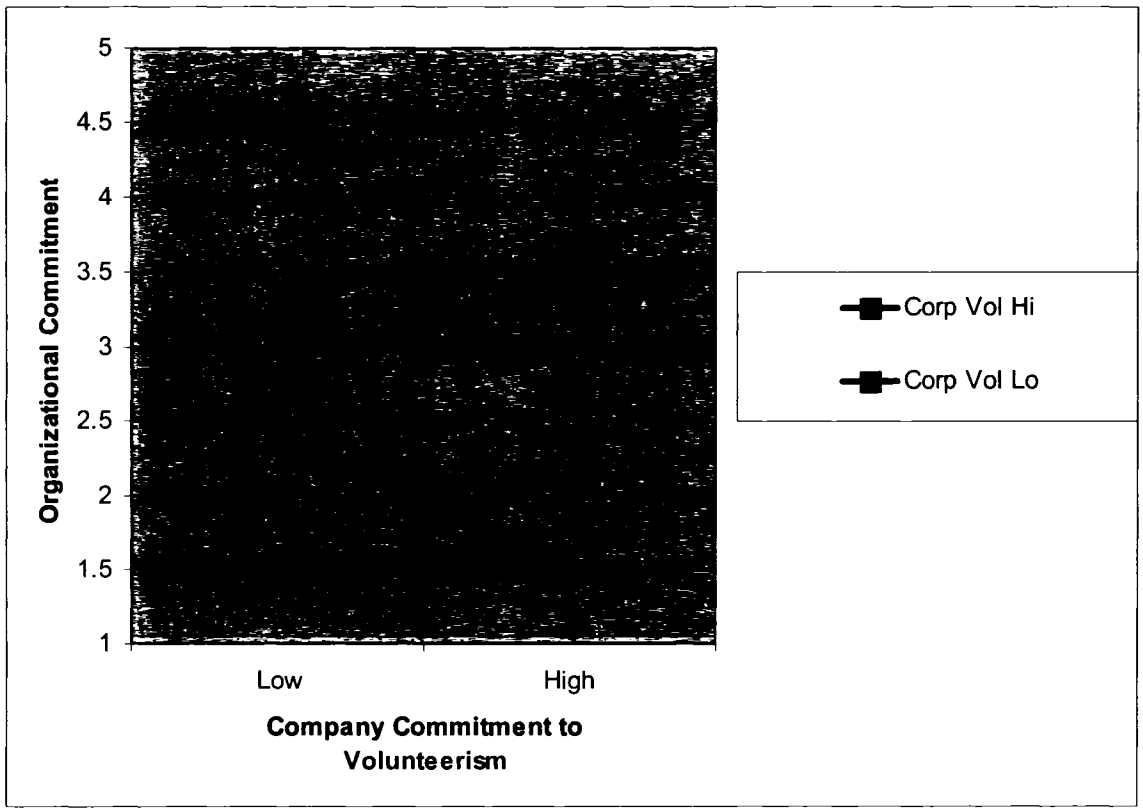
Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.
$R^2\Delta$ indicates amount of additional variance accounted for by the interaction of the enhancement function and corporate volunteerism beyond that accounted for by the main effects of the two variables. †$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .000$.

Results showed a significant interaction between company commitment to corporate volunteerism and corporate volunteerism (β=.09, $p<.10$). The interaction term accounted for a significant additional 1% of the variance in organizational commitment after accounting for the variance due to main effects. Slope analyses were conducted to understand the nature of the interaction. All possible combinations of high and low levels of both organizational commitment to corporate volunteerism and corporate

volunteerism were computed from information in the regression analyses. Specifically, one standard deviation was added to or subtracted from the variables' means in order to create high and low scores.

The nature of the interaction for the overall dataset is depicted in Figure 7. Organizational commitment is greatest when company commitment to corporate volunteerism is high and when corporate volunteerism is high. On the other hand, organizational commitment is lowest when company commitment to corporate volunteerism is low and corporate volunteerism is hi or low. In addition, when involvement in corporate volunteerism is high, there is a greater impact on the relationship between company commitment to corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (steeper slope) than when involvement in corporate volunteerism is low (flatter slope). In other words, when company commitment is low, it doesn't matter whether a person volunteers or not, their organizational commitment was the same. However, when company commitment to corporate volunteerism is high, those who volunteer experience greater commitment to their organization than those who do not participate in volunteer activities. Also, the organizational commitment of corporate volunteers *and* non-volunteers is higher when a company is perceived to be committed to its corporate volunteer programs. This result provides evidence for the importance of a company being committed and communicating its commitment to its corporate volunteerism program. Both volunteers, non-volunteers and the organization as a whole benefit from company commitment to its corporate volunteer program.

Figure 7: Interaction of Company Commitment to Corporate Volunteerism and Corporate Volunteerism on Organizational Commitment



Note. Higher values of organizational commitment indicate greater organizational commitment. High/Low groups were calculated by adding / subtracting one standard deviation above / below the mean.

Chapter 5
DISCUSSION

Overview

There is a large and growing literature on the causes, consequences and strategies for managing organizational change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Porras & Robertson, 1992). There is less research, however, on employee reactions to organizational change and more specifically, on ways to alleviate the strain associated with individuals' reactions to organizational change. There is a need on the part of organizations for greater understanding of how to alleviate employees' strain as a result of organizational change. To address this need, the present study integrated self-affirmation theory with the extant research conducted on employees' reactions to the change process. Building on Steele's (1988) and Bridge's (1986) work, the present model predicted that threat to one's self-integrity leads to reduced organizational commitment on the part of employees as a result of the strain associated with organizational change.

Self-affirmation theory provided a framework to think about ways to alleviate the strain that employees experience in response to organizational change. Prior to Steele (1988), researchers had only explored how people resolve threat in the same domain in which the threat originally occurred. The present study examined the possibility that threat could be resolved by focusing on a realm other than the one where the threat was experienced. It was therefore hypothesized that reaffirmation of employees' self-integrity in a realm outside of work may translate into positive outcomes, such as organizational commitment for employees. The present study extends the literature by focusing on a realm outside of the organization where employees may have opportunities

to reaffirm their self-integrity through corporate volunteerism. The current study further proposed that during times of small- or large-scale organizational change, when employees' self-integrity is threatened, the act of volunteering for community activities sponsored by their organization would increase employees' commitment to that organization. Organizational commitment would therefore result from employees attributing feelings of self-affirmation to the organizations that provided them with the rewarding experience of volunteerism. A study conducted by the Points of Light Foundation and The Conference Board (1993) showed that volunteer activities provided personal and professional growth and encouraged characteristics that improve the quality of the workforce such as creativity, trust, teamwork, persistence and satisfaction. Frank-Alston (2000) further provided empirical evidence of the positive influence of volunteerism on organizational commitment. Volunteer activities provided an avenue for the study participants to receive recognition on the job for their efforts, which led to them feeling more valued and motivated at work. Bartel (2001) added that connections with other employees, forged during volunteer experiences, also led to organizational commitment. These researchers have begun this exploration of the benefits of corporate volunteerism to employees and to the organizations for which they work. The present study builds upon this research and further investigates the link between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation.

Self-affirmation and organizational change theory and research may benefit from a study examining both variables. In addition to a limited body of research on the link between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation, past research has explored strictly organizational actions that have intended to minimize resistance and increase openness to

change. Researchers have primarily focused on removing the uncertainty surrounding change (Daly & Geyer, 1994), providing information to employees (Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991) and instituting human resource programs (Zatzick, 2001) to minimize the harmful impact of change. These organizational actions, however, have focused on resources available within organizations. The current study extends the literature by using self-affirmation theory as a framework to explore activities and resources outside of the work setting. It also extends the literature by using self-affirmation theory as a lens to explore the confluence of two current business trends, namely organizational change and corporate social responsibility, to realize the potential benefits of self-affirmation to employees and their organizations.

This study presented and tested a model (Figure 1) to explore the relationships between variables such as organizational change, threat to self-integrity, corporate volunteerism, self-affirmation, the functions of volunteerism, connectedness with others and organizational commitment. In general, the self-affirmation model was not supported by the data. In some instances, however, there was support for the hypotheses proposed. Overall, results demonstrated that there is a context-specific relationship between organizational change and threat to self-integrity (Hypothesis 1) and a strong inverse relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2). There was limited support, however for the moderating effects of corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). Although the functions of volunteerism did not serve as moderators on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation (Hypothesis 4), strong support was found for

the main effects of the functions of volunteerism on self-affirmation. Overall, the most support was found for the mediating effect of connections to others on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment (Hypothesis 5). The unexpected results of the proposed model led to some additional thinking about how to reframe the model. Post-hoc analyses, based on an alternative model, revealed that self-affirmation actually mediated the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment and also served as a mediator of the relationship between functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment.

The following chapter will review the results presented in Chapter 4, emphasizing some of the high-level conclusions that can be drawn from the findings. Following a discussion of the contextual differences between the two organizations sampled that may have contributed to the different results across the organizations, five major areas of results will be reviewed based on the relationships examined in the model. Within these five primary areas, both significant and marginally significant relationships will be discussed in terms of their potential implications. Although not at the traditional level of significance, marginally significant relationships will be discussed in order to highlight trends in the data that suggest relationships worthy of further research and testing. The alternative model proposed and its relationships will also be reviewed in this chapter. Limitations of this study will be covered, as well as how the results from the proposed model and the alternative model impact theory and practice. Finally, directions for future research will be discussed.

Contextual Differences Between the Organizations

There were contextual differences between the two organizations sampled that may contribute to the discrepant results between them for Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3a and 3b. As a reminder, these four hypotheses were reported separately for Organization A and for Organization B because they all involved the variable of threat to self-integrity, which significantly differed across the two companies, according to statistical analyses. The three major contextual differences between the organizations include the salience of change within them, the nature of the businesses and the work that people do, and the types of people attracted to the organizations.

The salience of change for employees within Organization B was likely stronger than for employees within Organization A because the former had undergone tremendous large-scale changes over the course of the last few years. Organization B had acquired two pharmaceutical companies and employees within the organization had experienced changes in leadership, structure and their work as a result. They currently operate in a state of constant change and have, since the acquisitions took place. On the contrary, the liaison to Organization A described her organization as having experienced very little organizational change over the past few years. Change was therefore less salient for employees from Organization A than it was for employees from Organization B. This difference between the organizations regarding the salience of change to employees may have contributed to the different results between Organization A and Organization B for Hypothesis 1. Employees from Organization B indicated that there was a relationship between organization change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity, whereas no such relationship exists in the data from Organization A. The salience of

change for employees within Organization B may have had an effect on whether they experienced identity confusion or not. In an environment where change is constant, employees may consistently struggle with who they are in relation to a changing organization.

The second differentiator between the two organizations was the nature of the businesses and the work that people do within the companies. Organization A's business resides in a fast-paced, market-driven realm where analytics and business intelligence are critical success factors. Individuals with masters of business administration degrees are generally in leadership positions within Organization A. Organization B, on the other hand, resides in a scientific, slower-paced realm where pharmaceutical compounds are researched and developed over an average of a twelve-year period prior to being launched into the market. Physicians and scientists are generally in leadership positions within Organization B. There are vast differences between the industries within which the organizations operate and what it takes for them to be successful. Opportunities for self-affirmation on the job may be easier to attain in Organization A, as compared to Organization B, due to the fast-paced nature of its business, which may allow for more frequent personal successes and may leave employees less likely to experience threat to their self-integrity. The study results confirm that employees from Organization B are more likely than employees from Organization A to experience threat to the identity component of their self-integrity.

The third contextual difference between the organizations is that those attracted to Organization A are more likely to have an interest in finance, customer service and short-term planning, whereas those attracted to Organization B may be more interested in

product development, scientific research and long-term thinking due to the nature of their work. The type of people comprising the organizations may have also contributed to the discrepant results between the two organizations. Although results from both organizations supported Hypothesis 2, the results from Organization B were stronger. This may have been due to the fact that threat to an employees' self-esteem, identity or sense of control may be particularly disruptive to a scientist's work and organizational commitment because of the significant amount of patience and discipline required to move a product through its average lifecycle of twelve years. The employee may expect to be rewarded by his or her organization for the time and energy he or she has spent on behalf of the company. When the organization does not reciprocate, thereby threatening the employee's self-integrity, the employee may react very negatively and decrease his or her commitment to the organization as a result. The two organizations involved in this study were quite different from one another, necessitating different analyses of some of the study hypotheses. The contextual differences between the two organizations also strengthened the generalizability of the study results.

Organizational Change and Threat to Self-Integrity

This study was designed to test ways to alleviate the strain on employees associated with organizational change. Therefore, first it was important to test the psychological effects of organizational change on employees. According to previous research, organizational changes potentially threaten employees' self-integrity (Dirks, Cummings & Pierce, 1996). Employees' self-integrity may be threatened in three primary ways: through lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and reduced control

(Wiesenfeld et al, 1996, 1999). The overall dataset indicated support for the positive relationship between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity (Hypothesis 1). Results also indicated a relationship between organizational change and the index of threat to self-integrity, but it should be noted that these results were strongly influenced by the identity component of threat to self-integrity. There was a significant positive correlation between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity, but organizational change was not correlated with either of the other two components, namely esteem and control. These results demonstrate that when organizational change is significant to employees within an organization, they experience identity confusion and are more likely to wonder about the kind of person they are at work. They have less of a sense of who they are at work as a result of organizational changes taking place. Identity confusion stems from employees' lack of clarity about their roles in the organization after changes take place. Employees also must determine how new roles, possibly taken up as a result of organizational change, relate to their other valued identities. In other words, if an employee valued his identity as a person who understands the way that his or her boss operates, and changes result in the appointment of a new department head, the employee may not only take on a new role as a result of organizational change, but he or she also loses his or her valued identity as an employee who could help others to navigate within the department based on his or her understanding of the way in which the department head operates. Organizational change creates confusion in the organization's identity and this translates into confusion for employees' self-identity as they try to determine who they are and how they fit into the changed organization (Shin, 2000).

Interestingly, the relationship between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity was supported by the data from Organization B, however, it was not supported by the data from Organization A. The large, global pharmaceutical company employees indicated strong support for organizational changes resulting in their individual identity confusion. This may have been due to the fact that Organization B has been through two major acquisitions within the past few years, whereas Organization A has undergone very little large-scale change, and as such, change may be less salient to its workforce. The large-scale changes experienced by employees within Organization B have led to department mergers, changes in leadership, different reporting structures and different reporting relationships. Changes, both large- and small-scale have affected most members of the workforce. Identity confusion may have resulted from a constant state of change within the organization. The discrepant results between Organization A and Organization B on the relationship between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity, may be explained by the variance in salience of change to employees within the two organizations.

Organizational change was also measured differently between the two organizations sampled. It was, however, the only variable on the survey that was measured differently between Organization A and Organization B. The representative from Organization B was not comfortable designing a survey that primed employees within the organization to think and write about their experiences with organizational change. This response connotes the salience of organizational change within Organization B and perhaps the way in which change is managed within the organization. Change is a pressing issue within Organization B and the company has struggled with

organizational change management over the past few years. The representative from Organization B thought that respondents would become stuck on the issues surrounding organizational change and would perhaps become too emotionally affected by the survey. This was not an issue for Organization A and therefore, respondents from Organization A received open-ended questions, asking them to describe a change of significance to them and the effects that the change had on them. They were also asked to rate the current significance of the change to them. On the other hand, respondents from Organization B were asked to rate the significance to them of small- and large-scale changes provided to them on the survey. Most respondents from Organization B had experienced more than one change that was of significance to them. Ironically, the different question format created for Organization B allowed for a better scale which employed seven questions asking respondents to rate the significance of the changes identified, rather than just one. The variance resulting from seven questions being asked of respondents, rather than just one, may have contributed to the results found for Organization B and not for Organization A.

Although support was found for the relationship between organizational change and the identity component of threat to self-integrity for Organization B as previously mentioned, no support was found from employees in either Organization A or Organization B for the relationship between organizational change and the esteem component of threat to self-integrity. These findings were unexpected, especially in light of the salience of change for employees within Organization B. Lowered self-esteem generally results from negative self-evaluations that occur when a person experiences organizational change (Connor & Lake, 1994). Organizational change may also result in

lowered self-esteem because change is perceived as a violation of an agreement between an employer and an employee (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994). The lack of results may in part be due to the fact that organizational change has become endemic to the organization, and as a result the self-esteem of employees from Organization B may not suffer anymore by organizational changes taking place. Although their self-identities may be affected, they may have built up resistance to letting organizational changes affect their self-esteem. They may understand that changes taking place are not a reflection of them, but rather the normal way in which business is conducted within their organization. For employees within Organization A who have experienced less organizational change, they may be less able to extrapolate what they would feel if they experienced small- or large-scale change within their environment.

It was hypothesized that in addition to lowered self-esteem and identity confusion, organizational change may also cause employees to experience reduced control in the workplace. Researchers describe the ability to control important outcomes related to one's job and life as a basic human need (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Results from both organizations indicated that change did not cause employees to feel reduced control at work. This suggests that organizational changes taking place within Organization B, such as large-scale acquisitions and changes in reporting relationships, did not lead employees to feel less in control of their work. It is possible that the changes that took place were for the better and acquisition-related changes led to increased profitability for the company while changes in leadership led to positive outcomes and enhanced feelings of control for the employees. This interpretation is supported by the company growth experienced just after the most recent acquisition took place within Organization B.

Since the questions on the survey asked respondents to think about an organizational change that took place within the last few years, even though it was requested that the change be one that is currently of significance to them, the psychological effects that they had from the experience just after the change occurred, may have been forgotten. Respondents therefore, may not have indicated on the survey that the change led to reduced feelings of control. Future studies should attempt to measure the construct of organizational change similarly across samples, and if possible, involve employees just after they have gone through organizational change, when they are currently experiencing the psychological effects of the change.

Threat to Self-Integrity and Organizational Commitment

The study results indicate that regardless of the origin of the threat, employees hold their organization responsible when they experience lowered self-esteem, identity confusion or reduced feelings of control, as these feelings result in decreased commitment to their organization. Previous research by Wiesenfeld, Brockner and Martin (1999) showed that organizational change, which threatens self-integrity, undermines the support that employees feel from their organization, leading them to reciprocate with reduced organizational commitment. The present study results confirm that there is a strong relationship between employees' experience of threat to their self-integrity and their organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2).

As predicted, all three components, as well as the index variable of threat to self-integrity, were negatively correlated with organizational commitment for Organization B. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) assert that individuals come to work with certain

needs, desires and skills and expect to find a work environment where they can use their abilities to satisfy many of their basic needs. When an organization makes effective use of its employees and is dependable, there is a likelihood that employees will be committed to the organization for which they work (Steers, 1977). For employees within Organization B, when the organization threatened their self-esteem, identity or perceptions of control, employees reported less commitment to the organization. There was a strong relationship between the esteem, identity and control components of threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. The results were similar for Organization A in that the esteem and control components as well as the index variable of threat to self-integrity were negatively correlated with organizational commitment. The identity component of threat to self-integrity, however, was not significantly negatively correlated with organizational commitment. In other words, when employees from Organization A experienced threat to the identity component of their self-integrity, they did not generally decrease their commitment to the organization. Having experienced very little organizational change, Organization A employees' experience of threat to their identity may have been different from the threat experienced by employees from Organization B. Threat to the identities of employees from Organization A may have therefore not been attributed to their organization, but to something internal to them or external to their work environment. This may have been why their level of organizational commitment did not decrease as a result of their identity confusion.

Results from Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 seem to indicate that the identity component of threat to self-integrity is a very different construct from the other two components of threat to self-integrity, esteem and control. The survey questions probing

identity confusion as a result of organizational change may have been less comprehensible and straightforward to respondents filling out the survey than questions probing self-esteem and perceptions of control. For example, it may have been easier for respondents to answer questions about self-esteem such as "I am more important at work" and "I am more trusted at work" and about perceptions of control such as "I have more freedom to make choices that affect my work" than for them to answer questions about identity confusion such as "I experience more conflict between the different aspects of my personality at work." The questions probing the identity component of threat to self-integrity required respondents to think hard about their psychological states within the workplace. This task may have required more thinking and psychological understanding than the employees were able to engage in while taking the survey. Future researchers may consider tapping the identity construct through a scale other than the Self-Concept Clarity Scale created by Campbell et. al (1996).

Self-Affirmation and Corporate Volunteerism as Moderators

Corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation were hypothesized as moderators of the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. Based on the results reported in Chapter 4, there was no evidence to support the moderator hypotheses (Hypotheses 3a and 3b), despite the significant interactions that emerged from the data. There was a significant interaction between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism on the dependent variable of organizational commitment for the Overall Dataset and for Organization B. Results also indicated a significant interaction between the identity component of threat to self-integrity and the

identity component of self-affirmation for the Overall Dataset and for Organization B. The nature of the interactions, however did not support either Hypothesis 3a or Hypothesis 3b.

In the first two interactions (Figures 1 and 2), organizational commitment was greatest when the identity component of threat to self-integrity was low and when involvement in corporate volunteerism was high. Further, organizational commitment was lowest when the identity component of threat to self-integrity was high and involvement in corporate volunteerism was low. These results may mean that currently organizations with employees who are experiencing threat to the identity component of their self-integrity and who are not committed to their organizations as a result, are not benefiting enough from their corporate volunteering experiences to mitigate the negative effects of their identity confusion. Senior leadership within organizations may not currently make the connection between organizational support of corporate volunteerism and attempts by the organization to meet the needs of employees as they are experiencing threat to their self-integrity during difficult times. Employees may be unable to see the connection between corporate-sponsored volunteerism and the attempts at reciprocation on the part of organizations because the link is not adequately communicated to them. These results indicate the importance for organizations to communicate good intentions, such as corporate volunteerism sponsorship, to their employees especially during stressful times of organizational change.

The nature of the interaction effects found for Organization B and the Overall Dataset (Figures 1 and 2) indicate that when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is high, involvement in corporate volunteerism has a lesser impact on

organizational commitment than when the identity component of threat to self-integrity is low. These results imply that organizations should focus on the benefits of employees' involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteer activities on a consistent basis, especially during periods of minimal organizational change, when corporate volunteerism may have more of an impact on employees. Those respondents who indicated that they were not experiencing identity confusion, were more committed to their organization when they were involved in corporate volunteerism activities. Corporate volunteerism, therefore, may be more of a preventative measure for ensuring that employees' organizational commitment does not decrease, rather than a way to increase organizational commitment during periods where employees experience threat to their self-integrity.

There was no support for the predictions that corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation moderated the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment. Moderate and strong main effects, however, were found for a number of the analyses. There was a marginal significant relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment in the presence of the identity component of threat to self-integrity for the Overall Dataset (β=.07, $p<.10$) and for Organization B (β=.08, $p<.10$). In addition, there were strong relationships between the various components of self-affirmation and organizational commitment for the Overall Dataset, ranging from (β=.23, $p<.000$) to (β=.37, $p<.000$). There were moderate relationships between the various components of self-affirmation and organizational commitment for Organization A, ranging from (β=.36, $p<.05$) to (β=.47, $p<.01$). In addition, there were strong relationships for Organization B, ranging from (β=.21, $p<.000$) to (β=.37, $p<.000$). Taken together, these results indicate that although corporate volunteerism and self-

affirmation may not have served as moderators in this study, their direct impact was critical in more fully understanding employees' organizational commitment.

The Functions of Volunteerism

A secondary purpose of the study was to determine *when* volunteerism leads to the experience of self-affirmation. According to volunteer function theory, employees may or may not experience self-affirmation, based on the reasons why they engaged in the experience of volunteerism in the first place (Clary & Snyder, 1991). Clary et. al. (1998) outlined six functions that volunteerism services for individuals. They include the protective, values, social, understanding, career and enhancement functions, as described in Chapter 2. To test the moderating effects of the functions of volunteerism on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation, interaction terms were created for each of the functions of volunteerism and corporate volunteerism. Overall, the results did not account for a significant portion of the variance in self-affirmation after accounting for variance due to the main effects of the functions and corporate volunteerism. Hypothesis 4 was therefore not supported. Main effects, however, were observed and interpreted. In the presence of all six functions of volunteerism, main effects were found for corporate volunteerism on self-affirmation. As predicted, main effects were also found for the values, social and enhancement functions on self-affirmation. These three functions promote a positive perception of the self, attained through corporate volunteer activities. Steele (1988) posited that the purpose of self-affirmation was to "sustain a phenomenal experience of the self" and these three functions represent the potential for attaining a positive experience of the self. It was also correctly predicted that the protective and career functions would not significantly

contribute to self-affirmation because the core purposes for volunteering in these cases were to enhance one's career or to protect one's ego, rather than affirming one's self-integrity.

The understanding function, however, was incorrectly predicted not to lead to the experience of self-affirmation. Results indicated that when people volunteered for reasons involving understanding, there was in fact a relationship to self-affirmation. According to the theory, the definition of the function of understanding is to provide people with the opportunity to gain new learning experiences and attain knowledge. Volunteering provides people with the chance to gain and exercise knowledge, skills and abilities that they might not otherwise learn or practice (Jenner, 1982). This function, therefore, was conceived as one that would not lead to self-affirmation because enhancing one's knowledge base was incorrectly assumed not to lead to the enhancement of one's feelings about him or herself. However, the data provides evidence that when people volunteered for understanding reasons, self-affirmation did result. An explanation for the unexpected finding may be that the understanding function led to self-affirmation because an indirect effect of gaining new skills, knowledge and abilities, is heightened esteem, one of the main components of self-affirmation.

Although the functions of volunteerism did not moderate the relationship between corporate volunteerism and self-affirmation, the main effects for four of the six functions of volunteerism indicate an opportunity for future researchers to investigate why individuals become involved in corporate volunteerism and whether there are additional functions of volunteerism that lead to self-affirmation. One factor may be that organizational cultures contribute to the reasons why employees become involved in

corporate volunteerism. Some organizational cultures may promote certain functions of volunteerism over others. For example, employees may become involved in corporate volunteerism because they enjoy working with their colleagues and look for opportunities to collaborate outside of work, thereby employing the social function of volunteering. On the other hand, employees may become involved in volunteer activities so as to forge relationships with fellow colleagues outside of a work environment that is not conducive to forming trusting relationships. Future research could measure the relationship between organizational culture and employees' reasons for becoming involved in corporate volunteerism. In light of the present study results and their implications, it is important for future researchers and organizational leaders to understand the reasons why employees engage or do not engage in corporate-sponsored volunteer activities.

Connections Made with Others Through Volunteerism

A major finding of this study was the mediating effect of connecting with others on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. Limited research has focused on the benefits of corporate volunteerism to organizations. A study by Bartel (2001) emphasized the enhanced ingroup experience that employees have when they volunteer together, as part of a team, outside of their organization. A sense of belonging to and identification with the organization that results from corporate volunteerism has been shown to increase employees' willingness to pursue the goals of the organization and increase their desire to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2001). The current study results provided strong support for the mediating effect of connecting with others on the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. In other words, it was through

the experience of connecting with other employees outside of the organization, that corporate volunteerism led to organizational commitment. Corporate volunteerism opportunities may have been the result of individuals' common interest in a good cause or a required department team-building activity. In either case, the opportunity to connect with colleagues outside of the organization led to increased organizational commitment on the part of employees. This may have been due to the fact that co-workers do not really get to know one another at work and corporate volunteerism allows them to explore common interests and enjoy new experiences together. Connections made outside of the workplace translate into better professional relationships, perhaps because trust is developed. These results underscore the importance for organizations to collect information and understand the benefits that employees derive from the experience of corporate volunteerism. In sum, employees' organizational commitment is strengthened as a result of corporate volunteerism experiences that lead to self-affirmation.

Alternative Model Implications

In general, the original model was not supported, however, some hypotheses were, including limited support for Hypothesis 1, partial support for Hypothesis 2 and complete support for Hypothesis 5. In situations where interaction effects were not significant, however, main effects were significant for hypotheses 3a, 3b and Hypothesis 4. These results led to additional thinking about how to reframe the study model, supported by relevant theory.

Given the weak support for the moderator hypotheses, in addition to the strong direct effects of self-affirmation on organizational commitment, it was hypothesized (post-hoc) that self-affirmation mediated, as opposed to moderated, the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. In retrospect, a sound theoretical argument could be made to support the notion that self-affirmation mediated this relationship. Based on the volunteerism literature, people often volunteer in order to make them feel better about themselves (Francies, 1983; Latting, 1990; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). People may volunteer so as to affirm their positive self-identities as helpful, altruistic people (Gillespie & King, 1985). In addition, self-affirmation may lead to organizational commitment based on the principle of reciprocity (Blau, 1964). If an organization, therefore, provides its employees with the opportunity to self-affirm through volunteerism, employees may experience a heightened sense of organizational commitment in exchange for the opportunity to volunteer.

Post hoc analyses were conducted to more fully explore the role of self-affirmation as a mediator within an alternative model of self-affirmation. Results of the post-hoc analysis strongly support the mediation proposition. The data indicated that self-affirmation fully mediated the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment. In other words, it is through the process of self-affirmation that corporate volunteerism results in organizational commitment. The implication for employees within organizations is that the experience of volunteering for activities sponsored by one's company provides the opportunity for employees to affirm themselves. Volunteering may provide employees with increased self-esteem and feelings of competence because they are able to do something positive for someone else.

It may provide them with a better understanding of who they are and strengthen their identities as helpful and good people. Aronson, Blanton & Cooper (1995) assert that individuals actually prefer to reaffirm their self-identity in domains other than those where threat was experienced. A volunteer opportunity outside of the workplace may offer a neutral environment in which to self-affirm. Volunteering may also provide employees with the opportunity to feel that they can help control important outcomes for other people, such as the providing of shelter for the homeless.

A series of regression analyses were also conducted (post hoc) to determine whether self-affirmation mediated the relationship between the functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment. The significant main effects for four of the six functions of volunteerism on self-affirmation (Hypothesis 4) and the theoretical basis for predicting that three of the four would lead to self-affirmation, provided support for testing the mediating effect of self-affirmation on the relationship between the functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment. Results confirmed that it is self-affirmation resulting from four of the functions of volunteerism that leads to organizational commitment, rather than the functions leading to organizational commitment on their own. Overall, these results suggest that employees who volunteer because it supports their values, provides opportunities for socializing, allows for ego growth and development or provides information and knowledge, experience self-affirmation as a result, which leads to organizational commitment.

Despite the strong support for the post-hoc analyses indicating that self-affirmation mediated the relationships between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment, as well as the functions of volunteerism and organizational commitment,

these results were the products of post-hoc analyses and thus conclusions drawn from them should take this into account. Future research should be directed towards replicating these findings.

Additional Outcomes

In addition to the testing of the proposed and alternative models, other potential outcomes of corporate volunteerism were tested in order to better understand the effect of employees' involvement in corporate volunteer activities on organizations. Results indicated that the highest mean responses were to the question asking participants whether volunteering with their organization in the past year had led them to become more interested in increasing their community involvement (M=3.63). The mean response to this question indicated that corporate volunteerism may have helped the employees become involved in something that they think is important and worth their time. Through corporate-sponsored volunteer activities, their organization may have introduced them to a cause, an organization, a group of people or a way of life that they had not experienced before. Individuals also indicated that they experienced increased employee morale as a result of corporate volunteerism (M=3.17). In addition to increased organizational commitment on the part of employees' involvement in corporate volunteerism, these two outcomes (interest in community involvement and increased employee morale) have implications on organizations as well. Individuals highly committed to their organization who also become active participants in their communities, may be inclined to speak on behalf of their organization to promote the reputation of the organization for which they work. If they become politically active

within their communities or encourage others to support their organization through consumerism, the organization benefits. Similarly, if corporate volunteerism promotes employee morale within the organization, other employees may be influenced to work harder and remain committed to their organization as a result of employees' involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteerism.

In contrast, respondents indicated that corporate volunteerism did not have a strong influence on whether they became more interested in pursuing their hobbies (M=2.58) or more interested in spending time with their families (M=2.80). Respondents also indicated that corporate volunteerism was not a strong indicator on their ability to cooperate with their colleagues at work (M=2.85). Previous results (Hypothesis 5) provided support that connections with others mediated the relationship between corporate volunteerism and organizational commitment, however it seems that the relationship between corporate volunteerism and connections with others leads to increased commitment to the organization, but not necessarily to the ability to cooperate with colleagues in the office. These results may reflect the different means by which the questions were asked within the survey. In one section of the survey, people indicated that they felt more connected to people at work, had a closer working relationship to their fellow employees, were more supported by people at work and felt closer to them, as a result of the volunteering that they did. However, when asked if volunteerism, in general, increased their ability to cooperate with colleagues at work, there was less support. Further research is needed to determine whether corporate volunteerism enhances employees' ability to cooperate with their colleagues at work.

Corporate volunteerism did not lead individuals to think about making a significant career change (M=2.04), as some may have feared would have been the result of allowing employees to participate in self-affirming activities outside of the organization. It also did not seem to lead people to think more about their personal career prospects (M=2.60). These results imply that leaders within organizations should not worry that employees' involvement in corporate volunteer activities will distract them from their work within the organization or lead to the loss of valued employees. In fact, survey respondents reiterated that volunteering with their organization in the past year had made them more willing to put in effort beyond what was expected to keep the organization successful (M=3.10). They also indicated that it made them more likely "to talk up" their organization as a great one for which to work (M=3.60) and it made the organization more likely to inspire the very best in them in the way of job performance (M=3.14). These results indicate that organizations benefit from their employees' involvement in corporate-sponsored volunteer activities. These outcomes may be both internally beneficial to the organization (i.e. employee morale increases) as well as externally beneficial to the organization (i.e. employees speak highly of their organization and become more involved in their communities). There is an opportunity for future research to explore additional positive and negative outcomes of corporate volunteerism, in order to more fully understand the benefits of corporate volunteerism to organizations.

Study Limitations

This study provided some insights into the relationships between organization

change, threat to self-integrity and corporate volunteerism through self-affirmation and employees' organizational commitment. There were, however, some limitations of the study that warrant discussion. The three primary limitations center around the mode of data collection, the independent variable measure of organization change, as well as the use of cross-sectional, rather than longitudinal data.

Data Collection The first primary limitation of this study concerns the data and the mode by which it was collected. Survey respondents were employees from one of two participating organizations. The first was a financial services organization where the representative was a corporate affairs employee in the wealth management department. A survey was created for the financial services organization that was appropriate for dissemination to the home office and branch employees within the wealth management division of the organization. The second organization was a large, global pharmaceutical company headquartered in New York City. The liaison to the organization was a public affairs employee located in Ann Arbor, Michigan who took a very active role in designing the survey to ensure its relevance to employees within the Ann Arbor branch of the company.

Survey participants from Organization A learned of the survey by reading about it in their weekly electronic newsletter. A short description of the survey was provided in the newsletter and an electronic link enabled participants to complete the survey on-line. The introduction to the study and the electronic link were posted in the newsletter on three consecutive weeks. Survey participants from Organization B, on the other hand, received the web-based survey link through an email sent from the Public Affairs department. Two weeks prior to the dissemination of the email, an article was published

in the company's internal publication describing the study and the relationship formed with Teachers College, Columbia University. This publication described the benefits of corporate volunteerism to employees, therefore, if the survey respondents read the publication before taking the survey, their responses to the survey may have been influenced by the contents of the article. Those who read the article may have responded more favorably to questions regarding corporate volunteerism. The publication therefore limits the generalizability of the results from Organization B.

The different dissemination processes may have also had an effect on the results because those who responded from Organization A read the company's weekly electronic newsletter to reach the survey link, while those who did not respond may not have had access to the survey because they did not read the weekly newsletter. One thousand and five hundred employees in Organization A's wealth management department receive the newsletter, but employees who read the electronic newsletter may be systematically different from those who do not read it on a number of factors, including their organizational commitment. Those who read it may be more committed to the organization in general, and more likely to participate in activities sponsored by their organization, such as corporate volunteerism. They may also have more free time at work than those who do not choose to read the weekly newsletter and therefore more available for involvement in corporate volunteerism. On the other hand, one thousand employees in Organization B's Ann Arbor branch received the email including the study link, from a representative in the Public Affairs department. The higher response rate from Organization B may have been due to the fact that more people read emails than weekly newsletters. In addition, the article publicizing the study, may have also resulted

in the higher response rate for Organization B. The different dissemination processes and the article published internally in Organization B limit the generalizability of the study findings. An additional limitation of the study was the different incentives offered to participants.

Both Organization A and Organization B awarded prizes to a random sample of employees who participated in the study. Organization A presented museum tickets to a raffle winner, while Organization B awarded cash prizes and a donation to the charity of the winner's choice. The different incentives provided by the two organizations may have weakened the study, however, participants did not know the prize contents before taking the online survey. They were told at the end of the survey of their eligibility. It is possible, however, that the employees learned of the prizes by talking to other people within their organization, prior to taking the survey. Participants from Organization B may have learned of the generous prize contents by talking to their colleagues and this knowledge may have influenced them to fill out the survey. The sharing of information between colleagues within the organizations may help explain the different response rate between the two organizations.

Another limitation of the study was that data from both samples was collected utilizing self-report measures, reflecting perceptions, and not objective measures of the variables of interest. Self-report data, although practical and feasible as a method of data collection, can create challenges when it comes to assessing the validity of individuals' responses. Specifically, participants' responses may have been influenced by pressures relating to social desirability. Individuals may have reported more positive attitudes towards the changes experienced within their organization and the outcomes of corporate

volunteerism, in order to be viewed as good employees or to justify their remaining in the organization following the difficult experience of managing organizational change. In order to minimize this problem, employees were guaranteed anonymity from the researcher and were assured that only aggregated information would be provided to the management of their company. Nevertheless, participants may have still been apprehensive about expressing how deeply they may have been affected by organizational changes taking place within their company. Names were not included on the surveys and all data was transmitted directly to the researcher in order to decrease the perception that the company would have access to the survey data. Participants were given the choice as to whether to provide their names to the company representative responsible for awarding prizes. These forms were filled out separately from the surveys and submitted through inter-office mail, rather than through the computer. These precautions intended to alleviate many of the risks associated with social desirability.

Despite this potential limitation, collecting self-report data may also be viewed as a strength of this study. Specifically, the constructs of interest in this study were subjective in nature. The perception of threat to self-integrity, the experience of self-affirmation as a result of corporate volunteerism and the organizational commitment expressed by employees all reside within individuals. Hence, self-report data may have been the appropriate method to collect information on these constructs. Nonetheless, future research may employ other means, aside from self-report methods, in order to test the relationships between the variables in this study. In addition, future studies should attempt to reduce social desirability biases that may ultimately influence study findings.

Organization Change Measurement A second primary limitation of this study was the differential measurement of a main variable between the two organizations sampled. All of the main study variables were similarly measured within the two organizations, however, the order of the sections within the surveys differed. The organization change variable was not measured in the same manner between the two organizations. The representative from Organization B did not think that it was appropriate to begin the survey with questions about organizational change, since the employees within Organization B had experienced so much organizational change over the last few years. She wanted the central focus of the survey to be on corporate volunteerism, rather than organizational change. It was explained to her that a major component of the study was to test whether corporate volunteerism moderated the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment during times of organizational change. She then understood the importance of measuring organization change significance, but requested that the organization change questions appear at the end of the survey, rather than at the beginning of the survey. She also requested that the questions be closed-ended, rather than open-ended so that they would be easier psychologically, for employees to answer. The organizational change questions, therefore differed in content and placement on the surveys created for each of the two sampled organizations.

The respondents from Organization A were primed to think about organizational change on the first page of the survey. They were asked to respond to two open-ended questions about an organizational change that was of significance to them and describe the effect that the change had on them. They were also asked to quantify the significance

to them of the change they described. Respondents from Organization B, on the other hand, were given six organization changes and asked to provide the significance of each of the changes to them. They were also provided space to write in an additional change, and they were instructed to rate the significance to them of that change. For Organization B, these questions were placed towards the end of the survey, followed only by the threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment questions related to change. It is possible that results for Hypothesis 1 differed between Organization A and Organization B due to the differences between the two organizations in the content and placement of the organization change questions. Only one closed-ended organization change question was asked of respondents from Organization A, whereas many closed-ended organization change questions were asked of respondents from Organization B.

The lack of support for Hypothesis 1 from Organization A, could in part be the result of the lack of variance between responses on this variable. Respondents from Organization B indicated that organization change led to threat to the identity component of self-integrity as well as the index of threat to self-integrity. It is possible that Organization A may have provided similar results had they been asked more closed-ended, quantifiable organization change questions. Due to the nature of organizational change, there has rarely been a standard set of items used to measure the phenomena. While there are many frameworks used to assess organizational change, the actual items used tend to vary from study to study. Therefore, such items do not represent a scale or item set used to measure organizational change. As can be seen in Table 2 in the current study, the reliability of the set of items utilized to measure organizational change was quite high (coefficient alpha = .87), however, most of the items within this scale were

only asked of respondents from Organization B. Future research on organizational change would benefit from more reliable and valid scales to assess organizational change. In addition, future researchers should ensure that organizational change is measured similarly across organizations sampled so that it is possible to test the reliability of the scale.

Cross-sectional Design A third primary limitation of this study concerned the methodology employed to test the variables of interest. A common constraint of survey research, and this study in particular, lies in the inability to establish causality in order to determine the direction of variable relationships. This study limitation is due to its cross-sectional survey design. For example, the second link in the proposed model depicted the relationship of threat to self-integrity as the antecedent of organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2). The strong relationships between the components of threat to self-integrity and organizational commitment, however, do not necessarily mean that increased threat to self-integrity leads to decreased organizational commitment. It is possible that increased organizational commitment actually leads to decreased threat to self-integrity, the opposite relationship from the one proposed.

Future research may attempt to establish causality in the framework of relationships examined in this study by manipulating organizational change situations and determining whether corporate volunteerism has a corresponding effect on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and organizational change. It is also conceivable that corporate volunteerism could be manipulated by assessing a control group that does not partake in corporate volunteerism activities and an experimental group that does. These groups could be compared to one another with regards to their

reactions to organizational change, their experience of self-affirmation and their levels of organizational commitment. A longitudinal study would provide valuable information as to whether corporate volunteerism mitigates the threat to self-integrity that results from organizational change. Within a longitudinal study, the first survey could focus on organizational change and employees' reactions to it, followed by a second survey that focuses on corporate volunteerism that takes place in response to employees' reactions to organizational change. Future research would benefit from longitudinal study designs.

Additional Implications for Theory and Practice

The results of this study have several implications for self-affirmation theory and organizational change research and practice. First, this study focused on the individual experiencing organizational change, rather than the system response. Judge et. al. (1999) highlighted the fact that much extant theory and research on organizational change takes a macro approach. Researchers (e.g., Aktouf, 1992; Wanberg & Banas, 2000) have therefore called for a more person-focused approach to the study of organizational change. The present study focused on individuals' reactions to organizational change and the impact of self-affirmation and corporate volunteerism on employees' organizational commitment. Although both perspectives are important, the study of individuals within organizations should receive attention in addition to systems' responses to organizational change. The emotional responses of employees within organizations are important and may be easier to change than systems' responses to change.

Second, this study brought self-affirmation theory into the organizational context, building upon research previously conducted within laboratory settings (Wiesenfeld,

Brockner & Martin, 1999). This dissertation represented an initial attempt to assess multiple threats to self-integrity (lowered self-esteem, identity confusion and reduced control) on employees' organizational commitment. Respondents were open to answering questions about their threatened self-integrity as well as their experiences of self-affirmation within the workplace. The implication for research and the practice of organizational psychology, therefore, is to focus on psychological effects of experiences within the workplace. It is important to understand why people behave the way that they do within organizations as changes in behavior result from such understanding.

The findings also suggest that the relationship between threat to self-integrity and self-affirmation may be more complex than originally conceived of in self-affirmation theory. Given that there were distinct relationships between the components of self-integrity and the components of self-affirmation, it raises the possibility that self-affirmation of certain of its components (esteem, identity or control) may have different effects on different aspects of threat to self-integrity. For example, Stets (1995) found that individuals experiencing reduced control in the workplace, looked to enhance their levels of control over their spouses at home. Stets' findings suggest that individuals experiencing reduced control will attempt to regain control in an unrelated domain to compensate for the threat experienced at work. Future studies of self-affirmation theory should continue to clarify how these various components of threat to self-integrity are related to self-affirmation, particularly in field settings.

Self-affirmation theory provided a framework for researchers to explore ways to minimize the strain associated with organizational change. Past research explored organizational actions that have intended to minimize resistance and increase openness to

change. Researchers had primarily focused on ways organizations could minimize resistance by looking within the organization to remove uncertainty surrounding change, provide information to employees, or institute human resource programs to minimize change. This study extended the literature by focusing on activities enacted outside of the work setting to help maintain or increase organizational commitment during times of change. Future research should explore other activities both inside and outside of the organization that could help employees better manage threat to their self-integrity experienced as a result of organizational change. It is also important for organizations to focus on ways to minimize threat experienced by employees, as a result of their normal work stresses. Organizations have the opportunity to increase employee organizational commitment even when the organization is not experiencing change. This study provided evidence for the positive effects of self-affirmation through corporate volunteerism on organizational commitment, even in the absence of organizational change. Future studies should validate the importance of self-affirmation in other settings and determine whether self-affirmation has an effect on employees' organizational commitment both in the presence and absence of organizational change.

Implications for Corporate Volunteerism

Corporate social responsibility in general and corporate volunteerism specifically, have become important topics of discussion and debate within small and large, national and global organizations (McGee, 2004). Some corporations are beginning to recognize that it is the moral responsibility for businesses to assist in the improvement of human and environmental conditions because if needed changes do not occur, ultimately

corporations will suffer the direct consequences. According to Tichy et. al. (1997), companies are beginning to take a direct, hands-on approach to correcting social problems. Corporate volunteerism, one facet of corporate social responsibility, has the potential to help myriad beneficiaries throughout the world, but this study has shown that it also leads to organizational benefits, including increased employee commitment to organizations. It has also been shown that the corporation's commitment to its volunteer programs impacts the extent to which employees experience organizational commitment as a result of participation in corporate volunteerism. It is therefore not only important for organizations to have corporate volunteerism programs, but it is also important for organizations and executives to show commitment and support to them and communicate their support effectively.

Corporate volunteerism is embedded in the culture of some organizations, while other companies are perceived to promote corporate volunteerism because they are supposed to, rather than because corporate volunteerism is valued within the organization. At its worst, corporate volunteerism may be seen as a strategic imperative for an organization aiming to enhance its image and attract customers. Organizational reasons for engaging in corporate volunteerism are not the focus of the present study because regardless of the reason for organizational sponsorship of corporate volunteerism, those in need benefit. However, an organization's commitment to corporate volunteerism has long-term implications for employees and the beneficiaries of corporate volunteer activities. If corporate volunteerism and corporate social responsibility is tied to the values that an organization espouses, it may lead to increased organizational benefits and the survival of corporate volunteerism programs. Future

research should test whether employee outcomes differ between companies that value and support corporate volunteerism programs and companies that do not.

Future Research

In addition to the areas previously discussed, the results and limitations of this study suggest future research opportunities.

Future research could build on the present study through an exploration as to *when* corporate volunteerism leads to organizational commitment. For example, there is an opportunity for future researchers to test the different employee and organizational benefits derived from volunteer work conducted individually, as part of a team of employees, or as part of a working group or department that interacts regularly. The benefits to employees and organizations may be different depending on the existing relationships between the volunteers. For example, corporate volunteerism conducted by individuals may lead to self-affirmation or the ability to leverage resources across departments, while corporate volunteerism conducted by a department may lead to enhanced team effectiveness and the ability to collaborate within the department. Benefits to employees and organizations may also differ depending on whether corporate-sponsored volunteerism takes place because employees are encouraged to volunteer as part of a working group, or whether they volunteer of their own free will. Benefits may also differ depending upon whether volunteerism opportunities are provided during the work week or during an employee's free time away from the office. One might hypothesize that the experience of volunteering during an employee's free time may be more individually self-affirming, while the experience of volunteering

during the work week may lead to increased commitment to the sponsoring organization. On the other hand, corporate-sponsored volunteerism conducted during an employee's free time may more likely lead to the experience of self-affirmation, resulting in organizational commitment.

Additional studies could explore *why* connections made through corporate volunteerism lead to increased employee organizational commitment. Respondents would indicate whether volunteering with others provided them with personal or professional relationships and how these relationships influenced their work. It may be that friendships formed with colleagues at work enhance their enjoyment in coming to work every day or it could be that professional connections provide them with the opportunity to leverage existing resources within the organization to better serve their customer needs. It is also possible that connecting with others while volunteering does not lead to personal or professional relationships that carry over to the workplace, but rather people feel appreciative of the experience provided by their organization and increased organizational commitment therefore results. In sum, there are many opportunities for future research to build on the present study, based on the evidence of relationships between the variables of corporate volunteerism, connecting with others and organizational commitment.

The results from this study also present a research opportunity to explore *how* volunteerism leads to self-affirmation. It may be through the functions of volunteerism, connecting with others or other means not previously tested (e.g. goal attainment) that allow for corporate volunteerism to result in self-affirmation. Future research may also investigate whether opportunities other than corporate volunteerism lead to employee

self-affirmation. It is possible, for example, that people could self-affirm through development opportunities provided within the organization or through courses, lectures or corporate-sponsored experiences outside of the organization. Self-affirmation could also result from knowledge attainment through museum visits, individual research, the sharing of experiences both personal and professional or through business travel. By examining other antecedents of self-affirmation, researchers and executives within organizations could better understand what ultimately leads employees to feel commitment to their organizations.

Future research could also explore whether volunteer activities actually meet employees' expectations. It is possible that the outcomes of volunteering may be less important than the reasons that employees choose to volunteer in the first place. If a person volunteered for social reasons, it may not have been necessary for relationships to have resulted from the corporate volunteerism experience for self-affirmation to result. In addition, needs other than those originally identified could have been met through the volunteering experience, leading to self-affirmation. Additional research could help determine if it is important that individuals' original reasons for volunteering are met through the volunteering experience, in order for it to lead to employee organizational commitment. If future research provides evidence that it is important for employees' reasons for volunteering to be met through the experience in order for the experience to lead to self-affirmation and organizational commitment, organizational implications follow. One implication for organizations would be that employees' reasons for volunteering should be understood prior to their involvement in volunteerism activities. Also, corporate volunteerism opportunities should attempt to meet the expectations

expressed by employees. Follow-up conversations with employees who participate in corporate volunteerism could be used to better understand employees' original reasons for volunteering and whether their expectations were met through their experiences.

Organizations could utilize their existing corporate volunteer programs more effectively if they understood employees' reasons for volunteering. Corporate volunteer opportunities could be better marketed to those individuals that would maximize their experiences. In addition, the appropriate recipient organizations could be targeted so that employees' reasons for volunteering are fulfilled through their corporate volunteer experiences. Overall, the results found could have important implications for organizations and contribute further to the understanding of potential antecedents of self-affirmation, leading to organizational commitment and impactful corporate volunteerism programs.

This study focused on threats to self-integrity and self-affirmation resulting from the experience of corporate volunteerism. However, the ways in which employees experience threat and the ways in which they experience self-affirmation, may vary across cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). For example, according to the authors, in collectivistic cultures one's self-concept consists of external social groups and is referred to as an interdependent self because there exists a greater orientation towards the group, rather than the self. In contrast, in individualistic cultures one's self-concept is defined by the individual definition of the self. In a study of Japanese expatriates, Heine and Lehman (1997) found that core aspects of the interdependent self were not threatened within the framework of traditional self-affirmation studies. Thus, future studies of the effect of self-affirmation on the relationship between threat to self-integrity and

organizational commitment need to examine cultural differences in definitions of the variables because threats to self-integrity may come from different sources for independent and interdependent self-concepts. For example, the former may experience self-integrity threat as a result of their standing within a group, whereas the latter may experience self-integrity threat as a result of their group's standing in society. Future research is needed to test the present study propositions across different cultures.

In addition to focusing on the experience of self-affirmation within different cultures, there is an opportunity for future researchers to explore self-affirmation and organizational commitment within different kinds of workforces. There is an increased use of contingent workers, those who do not work full-time within organizations (Cappelli et. al., 1997), and it is therefore important to understand whether contingent workers respond differently to major organizational changes than full-time workers. It is also important to determine whether contingent workers benefit from activities such as corporate volunteerism that result in self-affirmation and whether their experience leads to increased commitment to the organization for which they work. It may be possible that contingent workers feel that they will be the first employees laid off during major organizational changes, making it likely that some element of their self-integrity will be highly threatened as a result of pending organizational change (Osterman & Kochan, 1990). Alternatively, it is possible that contingent workers experience lower threat to their self-integrity as a result of organizational change because they have less invested in the organization for which they work. Future research could address whether or not the distinction between contingent and full-time workers is important in understanding individuals' responses to organizational change and the benefits of self-affirming

activities on their organizational commitment. It is likely that providing self-affirming opportunities to contingent workers will result in the same benefits that it had for full-time employees in this study, but future research is needed to explore whether the benefits derived by the organizations are worth the investment in a contingent workforce.

Conclusion

The model presented in this study provides a framework for exploring a domain outside of the workplace for alleviating the adverse effects of change-related threat on the organizational commitment experienced by employees. Self-affirmation theory provides researchers and practitioners with the opportunity to consider volunteerism as one such domain. Corporate volunteerism may offer employees a respite from the threatening experience of living through organizational change. Because corporations do not presently track the benefits of corporate volunteerism, they do not understand the value they are deriving. It is only when employees begin to provide information on the outcomes of their corporate volunteerism experiences, that employers will understand the true impact of corporate volunteerism on employees and organizations.

Future research is needed to explore other domains outside of the workplace as well as other positive outcomes for organizations. Overall, the findings support some of the key relationships in the proposed conceptual model of self-affirmation. A major contribution to self-affirmation theory and organizational change research is the exploration of threat to self-integrity resulting from small- and large-scale organizational change. The organizational change measure, newly developed and validated for this study, can serve as a starting point for future field studies on the effects of organizational

change on employees' experience of threat to self-integrity. Another major contribution to self-affirmation theory is the examination of the self-affirmation achieved through participation in activities outside of the organizational realm. Additional research is needed to verify the presence of self-affirmation and its effects on organizational commitment and other outcomes within field settings.

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APPENDIX A
Proposal to Organizations

ORGANIZATION & COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

TO: [*Organization*] representative

FROM: Joel Brockner, PhD- Phillip Hettleman Professor of Business, Columbia Business School
Deanna Siegel Senior - PhD Student at Teachers College, Columbia University, and Consultant in Pfizer's Organizational Effectiveness & Consulting Services (WWOE&CS) group

SUBJECT: Invitation to participate in a study about Corporate Volunteerism

DATE: June 28, 2004

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY

We would like to invite you to collaborate on a study we are conducting at Teachers College, Columbia University. We are trying to learn more about why people participate in corporate volunteer initiatives, such as those sponsored by your company. Few research studies have focused on the extent to which employees participate in volunteer activities sponsored by their employers. Conventional wisdom says that if people are consumed by job-related stress, they will not have the time or energy to engage in volunteering. The logic is that if people use up resources volunteering, it would detract from resources that could be used to further the organization. However, the old adage, "If you need something done, give it to a busy person" poses another way of looking at the situation. Employees and organizations may both benefit from corporate-sponsored volunteerism. The present study, therefore, is designed to evaluate whether and how volunteering affects employees' organizational commitment, in light of the fact that several different outcomes are possible.

A PROPOSAL ON HOW THE STUDY MAY BE IMPLEMENTED

- Participant recruitment email is provided by Deanna Siegel Senior.
- [*Organization*] representative emails the invitation and internet survey link to employee base.
- The survey will take about 15 minutes to complete.
- All information is anonymous and strictly confidential. Only summary information will be provided to [*organization*] management.
- Results are compiled, stored and analyzed on a secure Columbia University computer.

BENEFITS TO ORGANIZATION

- Study results will help [*organization*] understand the causes and consequences of corporate volunteerism.
- Management will be provided vital information such as reasons why employees volunteer, what they experience when they volunteer through [*organization*], and colleagues' general commitment to the organization.
- Findings may be used to understand why colleagues volunteer or choose not to and help increase involvement in corporate volunteer programs.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

Please contact Deanna Siegel Senior at (212) 733-6987 or dms252@columbia.edu. She would be happy to answer any questions you have about the study and provide a sample of the survey for your review.

APPENDIX B
Institutional Review Board Approval

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
Office of the Associate Dean
Box 151

Institutional Review Board

January 25, 2005

Deanna Siegel
340 East 60th Street #5J
New York, NY 10021

Dear Deanna:

Thank you for submitting your study entitled, "A Self- Affirmation Analysis: The Moderating Effect of Corporate Volunteerism on Organizational Change"; the IRB has determined that your study is exempt from review.

Please keep in mind that the IRB Committee must be contacted if there are any changes to your research protocol. The number assigned to your protocol is 05-096. Do not hesitate to contact the IRB Committee at (212) 678-4105 if you have any questions.

Best wishes for your research work.

Sincerely,

William J. Baldwin,
Associate Dean
Chair, IRB

cc: File, OSP

APPENDIX C
Survey Cover

Cover

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

This study is designed to examine why people may or may not take part in volunteer activities sponsored by their organization, especially during times of organizational change. We are also interested in the effects of people's decisions to participate or not participate in such corporate volunteerism. The survey that follows asks you to answer some questions about organizational change, some questions about your experiences in the workplace and some questions about volunteerism. **This survey should take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Your responses to the survey will be anonymous and strictly confidential.**

Although some of the questions in this survey may seem similar, please answer all of the questions because they are asked to make sure that we are reliably measuring your perceptions. Please respond to all questions in the survey by clicking on the number on the five-point scale that best represents your answer, except for those questions that ask for your written response. Thank you in advance for your valued participation.

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 1

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

The following questions focus on volunteer activities in which you may or may not take part. The first set of questions ask you to focus on volunteer activities sponsored by [*Organization B*]and the second set of questions ask you to focus on any volunteer activities that you take part in independently of [*Organization B*].

Please focus on your volunteer activities sponsored by Pfizer for the following set of questions.

1 - In the past year, how much have you volunteered for activities sponsored by [*Organization B*]?

○ Not At All ○ Very Little ○ Somewhat ○ Quite A Bit ○ Very Much

If you responded "Not At All" to question 1, please skip to question 6. Otherwise, please go on to question 2.

2 - Approximately how many times have you volunteered for activities sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year?

○ 0 times ○ 1-3 times ○ 4-6 times ○ 7-9 times ○ 10+ times

3 - Please check the following activities to which you have volunteered your time in the past year: (Check all that apply)

☐ [*Organization B*] United Way Campaign
☐ [*Organization B*]Science Education Task Force
☐ March of Dimes Walk America
☐ American Heart Association Heart Walk
☐ Breast Cancer 3-Day
☐ AIDS Walk
☐ Board Builders / Board Connect
☐ [*Organization B*] Networking Group (i.e. ADVANCE, VALOR, PAN, Women's Network, Rainbow Alliance)
☐ Other

4 - If other, please specify:

5 - How meaningful to you are the activities that you have participated in through [*Organization B*] in the past year?

- Not Meaningful
- Slightly Meaningful
- Somewhat Meaningful
- Meaningful
- Very Meaningful

6 - How much have you heard about [*Organization B's*] Corporate Volunteer Program?

Not At All | Very Little | Somewhat | Quite a Bit | Very Much

7 - How much do you believe your company is committed to its Corporate Volunteer Program?

Not At All | Very Little | Somewhat | Quite a Bit | Very Much

8 – **[*Organization B*] United Way Campaign** In the past year, I supported the [*Organization B*] United Way Campaign in the following ways: (Check all that apply)

- I provided my personal contribution
- I provided a leadership giving contribution (1% of salary or $1000 or more)
- I volunteered as a solicitor or steering committee member
- In the past year, I did not support the [*Organization B*] United Way Campaign

9 - **Science Education Task Force** Within the past year, I have been involved in the following Science Education Task Force programs: (Check all that apply)

- Elementary School Science Demonstration
- Middle and High School Programs
- I served as a liaison for a local middle or high school
- I volunteered to help with SAMJAM (Science and Math Jamboree)
- In the past year, I was not involved in the Science Education Task Force

10 - **March of Dimes Walk America:** (Check all that apply)

In the past year:

- ☐ I participated as a walker/runner
- ☐ I gave money to support this effort
- ☐ I participated on a planning committee
- ☐ I wasn't involved

11 - **American Heart Association Heart Walk:** (Check all that apply)

In the past year:

- ☐ I participated as a walker/runner
- ☐ I gave money to support this effort
- ☐ I participated on a planning committee
- ☐ I wasn't involved

12 - **Breast Cancer 3-Day:** (Check all that apply)

In the past year:

- ☐ I participated as a walker/runner
- ☐ I gave money to support this effort
- ☐ I participated on a planning committee
- ☐ I wasn't involved

13 - **AIDS Walk:** (Check all that apply)

In the past year:

- ☐ I participated as a walker/runner
- ☐ I gave money to support this effort
- ☐ I participated on a planning committee
- ☐ I wasn't involved

14 - Other: (please list)

15 - **Board Builders / BoardConnect:** (Check all that apply)

- ☐ I participated in the nonprofit board member training at [*Organization B*]
- ☐ I am currently involved as a board member of a nonprofit organization
- ☐ I am seeking a nonprofit board leadership role
- ☐ None of the above

16 - I am a member of the following [*Organization B*] Networking Groups: (Check all that apply)

- ☐ ADVANCE
- ☐ VALOR
- ☐ PAN
- ☐ Women's Network
- ☐ Rainbow Alliance
- ☐ None of the above

17 - I serve as a leader of the following [*Organization B*] Networking Groups. *In other words, I sit on the steering committee or program committee*: (Check all that apply)

- ☐ ADVANCE
- ☐ VALOR
- ☐ PAN
- ☐ Women's Network
- ☐ Rainbow Alliance
- ☐ None of the above

18 - I find out about volunteer opportunities at [*Organization B*] in these ways: (Check all that apply)

- ☐ Pipeline
- ☐ Promotion outside cafeteria
- ☐ Networking group promotion
- ☐ Email
- ☐ Posters/Signs
- ☐ Co-workers
- ☐ Public Affairs Staff
- ☐ None of the Above
- ☐ Other

19 - If other, please specify:

20 - The following are challenges that people face when choosing to become involved in [*Organization B*] sponsored volunteer programs: (Check all that apply to you)

- ☐ I do not have enough time
- ☐ It interferes with my other obligations
- ☐ It is too much work
- ☐ It is inconvenient
- ☐ Information is not provided to me
- ☐ Lack of management support
- ☐ Other

21 - If other, please specify:

Please focus on your volunteer activities NOT sponsored by [*Organization B*] for the following set of questions.

22 - In the past year, how much have you volunteered for activities NOT sponsored by [*Organization B*]?

○ Not At All ○ Very Little ○ Somewhat ○ Quite a Bit ○ Very Much

If you responded "Not At All" to question 22, please click 'submit' at the bottom of the page.

23 - Approximately how many times have you volunteered for activities NOT sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year?

○ 0 times ○ 1-3 times ○ 4-6 times ○ 7-9 times ○ 10+ times

24 - I am involved in the following volunteer activities, separate from [*Organization B*]: (Check all that apply)

- ☐ Professional associations
- ☐ I serve on a nonprofit board
- ☐ Recreational sports team (i.e. coach or player)
- ☐ Religious organization
- ☐ I assist local nonprofit organizations
- ☐ I assist local nonprofit organizations with my family
- ☐ Other

25 - If other, please describe:

26 - How meaningful to you are the volunteer activities you have participated in the past year that are NOT sponsored by [*Organization B*]?

- ○ Not Meaningful
- ○ Slightly Meaningful
- ○ Somewhat Meaningful
- ○ Meaningful
- ○ Very Meaningful

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 2

surveys @ TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please respond to the following questions if you have participated in volunteer activities sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year. **If you have not participated in volunteer activities sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year, please skip the following questions and click 'submit' at the bottom of this page.**

Please indicate your answer by choosing the appropriate code 1:Strongly Disagree - 2:Disagree - 3:Neither - 4:Agree - 5:Strongly Agree	Answer Code **1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
As a result of volunteering I've done with [*Organization B*] in the past year, I feel:					
1 - ...more connected to people at work.	○	○	○	○	○
2 - ...that I have a closer working relationship with my fellow employees.	○	○	○	○	○
3 - ...more supported by people at work.	○	○	○	○	○
4 - ...closer to the people I work with.	○	○	○	○	○
The volunteering with [*Organization B*] I've done in the past year:					
5 - ...helped me feel good about myself.	○	○	○	○	○
6 - ...made me feel like a competent person.	○	○	○	○	○
7 - ...allowed me to express my personal values.	○	○	○	○	○
8 - ...provided me with a clear sense of who I am.	○	○	○	○	○
9 - ...provided me with the opportunity to make a difference.	○	○	○	○	○
10 - ...allowed me to feel that I "control my own destiny."	○	○	○	○	○
11 - ...enabled me to better cope with organizational change.	○	○	○	○	○

The following statements pertain to reasons why people volunteer in general. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement, reflecting upon your reasons, in particular, for volunteering with [*Organization B*] over the past year. *Please note: The idea is to understand your reasons for volunteering with [*Organization B*] over the past year and not necessarily whether those reasons were fulfilled.

12 - I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	○	○	○	○	○
13 - I thought volunteering would enable me to spend time with people I like.	○	○	○	○	○
14 - I feel it is important to help others in need.	○	○	○	○	○
15 - People I'm close to wanted me to volunteer.	○	○	○	○	○
16 - I thought it would make me feel more important.	○	○	○	○	○
17 - I thought that volunteering would be a good distraction from my own problems.	○	○	○	○	○
18 - I thought volunteering could help me advance in the workplace.	○	○	○	○	○
19 - I thought that no matter how badly I feel, volunteering would help me forget about it.	○	○	○	○	○
20 - I thought that volunteering would allow me to gain a new perspective on things.	○	○	○	○	○
21 - I thought that doing volunteer work would relieve me of some of the guilt about being more fortunate than others.	○	○	○	○	○
22 - I thought that volunteering would increase my self-esteem.	○	○	○	○	○
23 - I thought that volunteering would allow me to explore different career options.	○	○	○	○	○
24 - I thought that I would find it socially rewarding.	○	○	○	○	○
25 - Others with whom I am close place a high value on volunteering.	○	○	○	○	○
26 - I thought that volunteering could help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	○	○	○	○	○
27 - I thought that volunteering would make me feel better about myself.	○	○	○	○	○
28 - I thought that I could learn how to deal with a variety of people through volunteering.	○	○	○	○	○
29 - I thought that volunteering would provide learning experiences.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 3

Page 3

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please answer the following items pertaining to your attitudes and opinions about volunteering and about [*Organization B*].

If you have volunteered with [*Organization B*] in the past year, please respond to all questions on this page. If you have not volunteered with [*Organization B*] in the past year, please skip to question 8.

Please indicate your answer by choosing the appropriate code 1: Strongly Disagree - 2:Disagree - 3:Neither - 4:Agree - 5:Strongly Agree	Answer Code				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1 - Volunteering helps me learn about organizations and needs within my community.	○	○	○	○	○
2 - Volunteering helps me meet colleagues from other departments.	○	○	○	○	○
3 - Volunteering enables me to see first hand how my personal monetary contributions are making a difference.	○	○	○	○	○
4 - Volunteering is an effective way to help others and to help the community.	○	○	○	○	○
5 - When I volunteer, I feel supported by my manager.	○	○	○	○	○
6 - When I volunteer, I feel supported by my work colleagues.	○	○	○	○	○
7 - When I volunteer, I feel that I get enough recognition for my efforts.	○	○	○	○	○
8 - The new volunteer guidelines have helped me understand how I can get involved in the community and be supported by my manager.	○	○	○	○	○
9 – [*Organization B*] is committed to supporting its colleagues as they pursue their volunteer interests.	○	○	○	○	○
10 – [*Organization B*] is a good corporate citizen.	○	○	○	○	○
11 - My management supports colleagues who volunteer in the community.	○	○	○	○	○
12 - I am proud to work for [*Organization B*].	○	○	○	○	○
13 - [*Organization B*] is actively involved in making our community a better place.	○	○	○	○	○
14 - [*Organization B*] is a good place to work.	○	○	○	○	○
15 - [*Organization B*] has had more positive than negative impact on Ann Arbor.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 4

Page 4

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please indicate the kind of impact you believe [*Organization B*] has had on the following issues in Ann Arbor:

1 - Employment:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

2 - Image of Ann Arbor:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

3 - Housing:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

4 - Environment:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

5 - Support for nonprofit health care organizations:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

6 - Support for art and culture:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

7 - Support for science education:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

8 - Traffic:

○ Positive Impact ○ Negative Impact ○ No Impact ○ Don't Know

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 5

surveys @ TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please respond to the following questions if you have participated in volunteer activities sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year. If you have not participated in volunteer activities sponsored by [*Organization B*] in the past year, please skip the following questions and click 'submit' at the bottom of this page. **The following statements pertain to possible results of the volunteering you did with [*Organization B*] over the past year. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.**

Please indicate your answer by choosing the appropriate code 1: Strongly Disagree - 2:Disagree - 3:Neither - 4:Agree - 5:Strongly Agree	Answer Code				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has led me to think about making a significant career change.	○	○	○	○	○
2 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has led me to become more interested in pursuing my hobbies.	○	○	○	○	○
3 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has led me to become more interested in spending time with my family.	○	○	○	○	○
4 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has led me to become more interested in increasing my community involvement.	○	○	○	○	○
5 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has led me to think more about my personal career prospects.	○	○	○	○	○
6 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has increased my ability to cooperate with my colleagues at work.	○	○	○	○	○
7 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has increased my employee morale.	○	○	○	○	○
8 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has decreased my stress at work.	○	○	○	○	○
9 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has increased my creativity at work.	○	○	○	○	○
10 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has made me more willing to put in effort beyond what is expected to keep this organization successful.	○	○	○	○	○
11 - Volunteering with [*Organization B*] in the past year has made me more likely to talk up this organization as a great organization to work for.	○	○	○	○	○
12 - Doing the volunteer work with [*Organization B*] in the past year made [*Organization B*] more likely to inspire the very best in me in the way of job performance.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 6

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please reflect on the following changes that have taken place within [*Organization B*] in the last few years. Please rate the significance to you of each of the changes identified. If the changes listed are not currently of significance to you, please describe a change that is currently of significance to you in the space beneath "other."

1 - Re-organization efforts:

- Not at All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

2 - Acquisition-related changes:

- Not at All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

3 - Changes in pharmaceutical industry:

- Not At All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

4 - My work has changed:

- Not At All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

5 - My responsibilities have changed:

- Not At All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

6 - I report to a new manager:

- Not At All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

7 - Other:

8 - Please rate the significance of the change you described beneath 'Other':

- Not At All Significant
- Somewhat Significant
- Significant
- Very Significant
- Extremely Significant

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 7

Page 7

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please answer the following items related to your reactions to change within your organization.

In comparison to how you felt before the changes you identified as significant to you, how much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about yourself at work now?

Please indicate your answer by choosing the appropriate code 1:Strongly Disagree - 2:Disagree - 3:Neither - 4:Agree - 5:Strongly Agree	Answer Code 1	2	3	4	5
Compared to before the change, now:					
1 - I have higher self-esteem at work.	○	○	○	○	○
2 - I count more at work.	○	○	○	○	○
3 - I am more important at work.	○	○	○	○	○
4 - I am more trusted at work.	○	○	○	○	○
5 - I am less worried about what other people think of me at work.	○	○	○	○	○
6 - I feel better about myself at work.	○	○	○	○	○
7 - I spend more time wondering about the kind of person I am at work.	○	○	○	○	○
8 - I experience more conflict between the different aspects of my personality at work.	○	○	○	○	○
9 - My beliefs about myself seem to change more frequently at work.	○	○	○	○	○
10 - In general, I have less of a sense of "who I am and what I am" at work.	○	○	○	○	○
11 - I am more confident that I can control things that affect me at work.	○	○	○	○	○
12 - I have more autonomy in how I do my work.	○	○	○	○	○
13 - I have more freedom to make choices that affect my work.	○	○	○	○	○
14 - I can make more of a difference at work.	○	○	○	○	○
15 - I am more willing to put in effort beyond what is normally expected in order to keep this organization successful.	○	○	○	○	○

16 - I am more likely to talk up this organization as a great organization to work for.	○	○	○	○	○
17 - This organization is more likely to inspire the best in me in the way of job performance.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 8

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Please answer the following general questions about yourself.

1 - Gender:

○ Female ○ Male

2 - Age:

○ Under 20 ○ 21-30 ○ 31-40 ○ 41-50 ○ 51-60 ○ 61-70 ○ Over 70

3 - Education (highest level attained):

○ Less than High School
○ High School
○ Some College
○ College
○ Some Graduate School
○ Graduate School
○ Other

4 - If other, please specify:

5 - Ethnicity:

- African American or Black
- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian American
- Hispanic or Latino origin
- Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- White or Caucasian
- Other

6 - If other, please specify:

7 - Working Status:

Full-time Part-time

8 - Tenure with Company:

- Less than 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- over 20 years

9 - Marital Status:

Single Married Divorced Widowed Other

10 - Number of Children:

0 1 2 3+

11 - Please check the age ranges of your children:

☐ Under 1 ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-5 years ☐ 6-12 years ☐ 13-18 years
☐ 19+ years

12 - Length of Commute to Work:

○ 1-10 min
○ 11-20 min
○ 21-30 min
○ 31-40 min
○ 41-50 min
○ 51-60 min
○ 1+ hours

13 - History with Organization B:

○ Legacy [*Organization B*]
○ Legacy [*Acquired Organization*]
○ New colleague not previously associated with either company

14 - Group:

○ Discovery
○ Development
○ Functional Line Support (i.e. Engineering, Finance)
○ PDM
○ Pharmaceutical Sciences
○ Worldwide Safety Sciences
○ Other

15 - If other, please specify:

APPENDIX C
Survey Page 9

Corporate Volunteerism Survey

Thank you again for completing this survey. You are eligible to participate in a drawing for some gifts including:

- A donation to be given to the charity of your choice in your honor
- Cash prizes

Please print this page, fill in the details and mail to: Public Affairs - Volunteer Survey - 18-1154 by Friday April 1st, 2005.

Note: Your information cannot be linked to the responses you provided in this survey.

Your First Name	
Your Last Name	
Department	
Building Number	
Room Number	
Phone Number	