LONNEKE ROZA

Employee engagement in corporate social responsibility

A collection of essays

Employee engagement In Corporate Social Responsibility; A collection of essays

Employee Engagement In Corporate Social Responsibility;

A collection of essays

Medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij maatschappelijk verantwoord ondernemen;

Een collectie van essays

Thesis

to obtain the degree of Doctor from the
Erasmus University Rotterdam
by command of the
rector magnificus

Prof.dr. H.A.P. Pols

and in accordance with the decision of the Doctorate Board.
The public defence shall be held on

Thursday 8 September 2016 at 15.30 hrs

by

Lonneke Roza

Born in Gorinchem

Doctoral Committee:

Promotor: Prof.dr. L.C.P.M. Meijs

Other members: Prof.dr. S.P. Kaptein

                                 Prof.dr. G. von Schnurbein

                                 Prof.dr. P.W.J. Verlegh

CHAPTER 4: UTILIZING CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY TO ESTABLISH MULTI-DIMENSIONAL PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT   142

SUMMARY

Companies are increasingly allocating resources to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and trying to engage their employees in their efforts. In my dissertation, I operationalize CSR as a company's commitment to improving or enhancing community well-being through discretionary contributions of corporate resources. This operationalization is justified by the fact that corporate community involvement has been identified as the most common way in which CSR is implemented in companies. My research focuses on employee engagement in CSR, with specific attention to two aspects of community involvement in which employees are actively and purposely involved: corporate volunteering and corporate philanthropy.

This dissertation responds to the call of researchers to investigate micro-level and multi-level approaches to CSR and to advance the elaboration of the non-profit perspective on CSR. To this end, I provide a broad overview of antecedents, interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR, based on a variety of methodological approaches, including conceptual and review-based, inductive and deductive strategies. The empirical studies in this dissertation vary from quantitative analysis in Study 1 (Chapter 2) to qualitative analyses in Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7). The first study focuses specifically on the micro level, while the others adopt a multi-level approach, focusing on either the business perspective (Studies 2, 3 and 4) or the non-profit perspective (Study 5).

In three of my studies, I identify antecedents to employee engagement in CSR. In Studies 1 and 2, I identify individual-level antecedents, including characteristics, attitudes, preferences and organizational support (Study 1), augmented by perceived behavioral control (or the lack thereof), subjective norms (or the lack thereof) and experience (or the lack thereof; Study 2). In Study 4, I identify individual and organizational-level antecedents, including internal (e.g. motivations), mutually affecting (e.g. CSR initiators and pressures) and external (e.g. media) factors.

In four of my studies I identify organizational interventions. In Study 2, I identify organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and approaches to CSR. In Studies 3 and 4, I also emphasize that the way in which the actual opportunities for employees to engage in CSR are organized (e.g. whether they are initiated by the employer or by the employee) can influence the outcomes. In Study 5 (Chapters 6 & 7), I adopt a non-profit perspective, suggesting various organizational interventions that could affect the consequences that employee engagement in CSR has for NPOs. Nevertheless, as particularly demonstrated in Chapter 7, the outcomes are also affected by program design (i.e. the manner in which employee engagement is organized). For example, in one study, I found that involving corporate volunteers in NPOs through episodic, short-term engagements has the potential to influence the capacity of NPOs to provide services to their beneficiaries (whether positively or negatively).

Finally, three of the studies (discussed in four of the chapters) examine consequences of employee engagement in CSR, for the NPOs and businesses, as

well their employees (and other volunteers). These consequences relate to two generic themes in both sectors: such involvement enhances organizational capacity, and it enhances the relationship between the employee and the organization. For example, I find that, in both companies and NPOs, such engagements can generate learning on the part of both employees and organizations, and that it can enhance the sense of attachment to the organization on the part of employees (and/or volunteers) of both types of organizations.

In addition to the individual contributions of each chapter, my overall dissertation contributes to three streams in literature. First, it contributes to the micro-level and multi-level perspectives on CSR by explaining who engages in CSR (micro-level) and by developing models on the intersection of employees and employers (multi-level). Second, it responds to the call of scholars in the literature on both CSR and NPOs to investigate the non-profit perspective on CSR by developing models and propositions concerning employee engagement in CSR within the context of NPOs. A third contribution of this dissertation has to do with the ongoing development of strategic CSR by proposing that strategic CSR might be limited by the proposal that it should be aligned with core business, as commonly noted in the literature. In contrast, the results of my studies indicate that the effective strategic use of CSR to benefit the company requires that any initiatives be aligned with the company's core values.

SAMENVATTING

Bedrijven gaan op steeds grotere schaal zich inzetten voor de maatschappij door middel van Maatschappelijk Verantwoord Ondernemen (MVO). In mijn dissertatie operationaliseer ik MVO als de betrokkenheid van een bedrijf om door middel van vrijwillige bijdragen van bedrijfsmiddelen (zowel tijd als geld) de lokale gemeenschap te ondersteunen. Ondanks dat in Nederland MVO in de volksmond vaak wordt gebruikt in termen van duurzaamheid, blijkt uit onderzoek dat internationaal juist de maatschappelijke betrokkenheid (MBO) de meest gebruikte implementatie strategie van MVO is binnen bedrijven. Medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij dit soort initiatieven wordt steeds belangrijker, maar wie (niet) meedoen, waarom medewerkers (niet) meedoen, en wat de consequenties zijn voor bedrijven en nonprofit organisaties vereist nog verder onderzoek. Daarom focust mijn onderzoek zich op medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij MVO, met speciale aandacht op medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij het geven van tijd en/of geld.

Om hier een bescheiden bijdrage aan te doen presenteert deze dissertatie een breed overzicht van antecedenten, organisatie interventies en consequenties van medewerkersbetrokkenheid in MVO. Hierbij wordt er gebruik gemaakt van een variteit aan methodologische benaderingen, zoals conceptuele, inductieve en deductieve strategieen. De emperische studies binnen deze dissertatie variëren van een kwantitatieve analyse in de eerste studie (Hoofdstuk 2), tot een kwalitatieve analyse in vijfde studie (Hoofdstukken 6 en 7). Conceptueel zijn studies 2, 3 en 4. De eerste studie focust zich specifiek op een micro-level, terwijl de overigen studies een multi-level benadering nemen. Tot slot focussen studies een tot en met vier

zich op het bedrijfsperspectief op medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij MVO en studie 5 specifiek op het nonprofit perspectief.

In drie van de essays identificeer ik antecedenten van medewerkers-betrokkenheid bij MVO. Met andere woorden, hier kijk ik naar de vraag wat bepaald dat medewerkers wel of niet meedoen aan MVO initiatieven via het bedrijf. In de eerste studie identificeer ik micro-level antecedenten, inclusief persoonlijke en werkgerelateerde kenmerken, attitudes, voorkeuren en de gepercipieerde organisatie ondersteuning voor hun deelname. In studie twee vul ik dat aan door de *theory of planned behaviour* te gebruiken, aangevuld van inzichten van de literatuur over geefgedrag. Hier stel ik dat mensen (niet) participeren in MVO door (een gebrek aan) waargenomen gedragscontrole (perceived behavioral control), (gebrek aan) sociale/subjectieve normen (subjective norms), (gebrek aan) eerdere ervaringen (experience), (negatieve) attitudes (attitudes), (gebrek aan) sociale angst (anxiety). In de vierde studie identificeer ik zowel individuele als organisatie level antecedenten die te groeperen zijn in interne factoren (zoals motivaties), wederzijdse beinvloeding (zoals wie MVO initiatieven initieert) en externe factoren (zoals media).

In vier van mijn studies identificeer ik organisatie interventies die medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij MVO kunnen beinvloeden. Met andere woorden; ik identificeer wat organisaties zouden kunnen doen om medewerkersbetrokkenheid te vergroten en hoe organisaties de uitkomsten kunnen beinvloeden door bepaalde interventies toe te passen. Zo identificeer ik in studie 2 dat een organisatie cultuur, ledierschap, interne communicatie, groep en peer invloed en type MVO

programma's invloed kunnen hebben of een medewerker wel of niet deelnemen, omdat dit invloed heeft op de eerder genoemde antecedenten. In de derde en vierde studie benadruk ik dat de uitkomsten van medewerkersbetrokkenheid afhankelijk zijn van hoe een bedrijf dit organiseert, met name hoe de programma's opgezet zijn. Een soortgelijke conclusie komt uit studie 5, maar dan vanuit een non-profit perspectief. Hier suggereer ik de manier waarop non-profit organisaties MVO intiatieven vanuit bedrijven organiseren binnen hun organisatie zowel positieve als negatieve consequenties heeft. Zo laat ik in hoofdstuk 7 en 8 zien dat bepaalde programma eigenschappen, zoals het inzetten van werknemersvrijwilligers op een episodische/ad hoc manier een positieve invloed kan hebben op de dienstverlening van nonprofit organisaties richting clienten. Tegelijkertijd kan deze manier van betrokkenheid ook de kers van de taart eten van medewerkers (betaald of vrijwillig) van nonprofit organisaties doordat alle leuke dingen zoals uitjes door de werknemers van bedrijven worden gedaan. Hier is dus de algemene conclusie dat organisaties kunnen anticiperen op welke uitkomsten ze kunnen verwachten als ze nadenken hoe zij hun programma's inrichten.

De derde vraag die in drie studies centraal staat in deze dissertatie is wat de consequenties zijn van medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij MVO voor zowel bedrijven als nonprofit organisaties en hun medewerkers. Deze consequenties zijn voor beide sectoren in te delen in twee generieke thema's. Ten eerste kan het het organiserend vermogen en de effectiviteit van de organisatie ten goede komen (of juist tegenwerken zoals in hoofdstuk 7 en 8 duidelijk wordt) en het versterkt (of verzwakt) de relatie tussen werkgever en werknemer (inclusief vrijwilligers bij

nonprofit organisaties). Zo vind ik bijvoorbeeld zowel bij bedrijven als bij nonprofit organisaties dat medewerkers en organisaties leren van de interacties en dat het een gevoel van betrokkenheid bij de eigen organisatie kan vergroten.

Naast de specifieke bijdragen van de hoofdstukken aan het wetenschappelijk debat over medewerkersbetrokkenheid bij MVO en de bijdragen aan het beantwoorden van de drie vragen die centraal staat in deze dissertatie, laat deze dissertatie op drie punten meerwaarde zien. Ten eerste addresseert deze dissertatie de toenemende vraag van (sociale) wetenschappers om micro- and multi-level benaderingen toe te passen rondom MVO door te verklaren wie er (niet) meedoen (micro) en modellen te introduceren die de connectie maken tussen organisaties en medewerkers en hoe deze elkaar kunnen beinvloeden (multi-level). Ten tweede addresseert de dissertatie het gat in de literatuur om MVO ook eens te bekijken vanuit het nonprofit perspectief, door modellen en proposities te ontwikkelingen over hoe de MVO intiatieven van bedrijven invloed hebben op de organisatie en hoe nonprofit organisaties deze uitkomsten kunnen beinvloeden. Een derde bijdrage van deze dissertatie is aan de discussie rondom strategisch MVO (*strategic CSR*) door te stellen dat de huidige literatuur rondom strategich MVO wellicht te nauw wordt benaderd door te focussen op alignment met de *core business*. Deze dissertatie laat zien door middel van het gebruik van *Person-Enviroment Fit* theorie dat strategisch MVO ook gericht zou moeten worden op alignment met de kernwaarden van het bedrijf en individu.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The prefaces of most dissertations are likely to begin with the conclusion that writing a dissertation in many ways resembles a journey. It should come as no surprise that my sentiments are the same. Although I did not 'officially' start my dissertation until 2012, the journey towards this work actually began during my Bachelor's studies in 2007, when I was appointed by Lucas Meijs as research and teaching assistant. Now, a little more than years later, I have grown from a young student to take on the title of Doctor.

Many people have asked me why I am so passionate about corporate social responsibility and, in particular, community involvement. My enthusiasm might have to do with the values with which I was raised, including the tenet that all people are equal, but that some are simply born under circumstances that are more favourable. In any case, it is always important to take care of the people in your midst. Because my parents have always been active as volunteers in the local community, this has always been simply a normal way of life for me. Nevertheless, my enthusiasm for community involvement extends beyond role modelling and socialization. I am convinced that giving is the revolutionary approach to success (a quotation I occasionally borrow from Adam Grant's book *Give and Take*). In my view, giving is not restricted to charitable donations of money or time. For the people in my surroundings, giving – in the broadest sense of the word (e.g. sharing knowledge, connecting people, volunteering, donating, helping others) is an aspired psychological and behavioral state that simply reflects who they are. For myself, giving is inspired and confirmed by personal experiences in everyday life. There is

no greater feeling than the feeling of meaningfulness and contribution and the feeling that I am working together with other people to achieve a better life – not only for myself, but for others as well. This is simply who I wish to be and the manner in which I wish to live my life. This dissertation and my career in combining economic rationale and prosocial behavior fits well with who I am (and who I continuously strive to be).

Like any life journey, writing this dissertation would not have been possible without the support and confidence of great people in my midst. There are no words to express how grateful I am to these people for their ongoing support in my quest to achieve my goals, as well as for their contributions to my development as a researcher and their boundless trust and confidence in me. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to all those who have followed and contributed to my journey. Nothing pleases me more than to be able to write these words of thanks.

Eve and Sarah, my 'besties', you probably do not realize the role that you have played in the completion of this dissertation: your support has been too great for words to express. The knowledge that you were always there to encourage me, inspire me and to provide me with the necessary relaxing evenings, dinners, laughter – and wine – has been very important to me. Most of all, I am grateful to you for appreciating me for who I am and what I do. I am grateful that you accepted my invitation to serve as my paranymphs and to support me one of the most important days in my life thus far. Your presence with me today and throughout the entire process have meant a great deal to me. I owe a similar debt of gratitude to my parents

and to my brother and his family. Thank you for being there for me regardless and the confidence you always have in me.

To Lucas: I am grateful to you in so many ways for the trust you have shown in me by agreeing to be my supervisor. You have been a true mentor to me in many respects. First and foremost, I do not know anyone who is more willing than you are to 'give' in the broadest sense of the word. You have provided me with the opportunity to meet and work with highly esteemed people in both academia and practice. Thanks to you, it has been very easy for me to establish a highly effective network –perhaps one of the most underappreciated factors affecting the likelihood of completing a dissertation, as well as the quality of its content. Everywhere we went, you introduced me to people in your own network and beyond.

Our common desire to work closely with practitioners and our shared interest in the everyday questions of managers have resulted in exciting new ideas and interesting questions to explore, although they have also created a very busy workschedule, which occasionally caused me to put my dissertation on hold. Although I was not always amused by these distractions from my studies (an understatement, at best), in retrospect, I would not have missed it for the world (at least in most cases). These experiences have broadened my scope and knowledge, and they have allowed me to meet many interesting people. The applied approach that we take to our research is not always conducive to an academic career, as questions that are inspired by practitioners are not always the most relevant academic questions. Nevertheless, I am convinced that this dissertation and the other publications based on this work provide proof that this approach can work. I am

very proud that we have succeeded together in this endeavour. You are not the only member of the Meijs family to whom I am grateful. I would like to thank Sandra for her warmth and support over the years. The annual barbecues where you both welcomed me and many colleagues to your home have been greatly appreciated.

Eva –'my [work]sister from another mister' (to use your own words): thank you so much for your support in the five years in which you have been my dearest colleague. Our characters are at once so different and so similar. I will always look back with joy on our endless conversations in the office and the numerous emails that we have sent to each other when we had something to complain about or to celebrate. We have shared our frustrations, counted our blessings, travelled together, and I have truly enjoyed working on projects with you. You are one of the most warm-hearted people I have ever met, and I hope that our paths will continue to cross.

I would like to thank the following people (in random order, as they have been of equal importance): Warner Dijkhuijzen (IBM), Annette van Waning (Vebego Foundation), Marjolein van Leeuwen (Alliander Foundation), Kirsten Ottens (ING), Jolanda van Schaik and Ashnie Bilsangsingh (KPMG), Robert Monas (Tommycares), Iko Kakes (Nuon Foundation), Fleur Hudig and Monique Pennings (Nationale Nederlanden), Nicolette Kraaij (Ricoh), Marie-Louise Voors (Delta Loyd Foundation) and Araya Sumter (ANWB). Together with you, Lucas and I established the Circle of Research on *Maatschappelijk Betrokken Ondernemen* (Corporate Social Responsibility) in early 2014 which transformed in the Knowlegde Lab on Corporate Citizenship. This highly effective collaboration between researchers and practitioners

has served as a powerful stimulus for my dissertation and its dissemination. The many meetings with this group in the past two years have inspired and encouraged me to develop my research topic further and, as unlikely as it may seen, even increased my passion for the topic and for research. The trust that these experts in the field have placed in me as we have worked together to develop the field has been a source of great encouragement to me. Without the support of these people and their organizations, I would undoubtedly have never been able to complete my doctoral research at this time. In addition to looking back on the past two years with great pleasure, I eagerly looking forward to the next two years, in which we continue to develop both research and practice on corporate community involvement.

I would like to thank my colleagues at the department of Business-Society Management – particularly 'Team Meijs': Eva van Baren, Joppe ter Meer, Stephanie Maas, Anouk Ploeg (the best research assistant ever), Florine Post, Anne van Santen and Sander Fleuren. Special gratitude is also due to Stella Pfister, Kevin Heij, Pushpika Vishwanathan and Thijs Gerardts for their sympathetic ear throughout this process and to Pamala Wiepking for her confidence in my work and reflection on some of the chapters of this dissertation. I would like to thank Kellie Liket and Marjelle Vermeulen for the great chapter we were able to write on European entrepreneurs transitioning to philanthropy and to Karen Maas for her boundless encouragement to pursue my research.

I would also like to thank the co-authors of all of the articles related to my dissertation. You have guided me through the process of writing articles, and in all instances, you were truly supportive. Debbie, I am truly fortunate to have met you

and to have started so many projects together. It is refreshing to work with someone with whom one can have heated discussions about how to proceed with a study and then (at least when we have met in person) have a nice dinner, glass of wine and deep conversations on what we value most in life. We have cried and celebrated together, and I hope that we will continue to do both in the future. We need disappointments and rejections to push ourselves further, and I am already looking forward to writing our next articles. I am grateful to my colleagues from Ghent University, Lesley Hustinx and Itamar Shachar, for their critical reflection on my work. Lesley, I am grateful for the opportunity to work with you. You have taught me so much about revising a manuscript, transforming it from a nice story into an actual academic article. This was truly enlightening for me. I have experienced how challenging interdisciplinary research is, and I am proud to say that we succeeded in combining these insights. I would like to thank Katharina Spraul, with whom I spent days at her university in Germany analysing data, sharing many disappointments and, finally, celebrating the finalization of our project. Thank you for guiding me and for being so patient with me in the past few years. I am grateful to Femida Handy and Ram Cnaan (although I did not co-author with Ram) for their foresight that I would indeed pursue doctoral studies, even when I had not yet considered this option myself. Thank you for your encouragement. I am particularly grateful for the times when you expressed your disappointment to me and to Lucas when I was occupied with side projects (and thus not spending my precious time on my PhD project). Thank you for constantly reminding me (and Lucas) of what my priorities should be. Although not a co-author, I would like to thank Jeff Brudney for his guidance and support and the endless willingness to help me develop professionally. Two co-

authors who are also very dear to me are Olga Samuel and Irina Krasnapolskaya, with whom I wrote two articles related to my dissertation. Thank you for inviting me to be a co-author on your interesting research projects. I hope that we will continue to find many more opportunities to work together in the future. Finally, although she is not a co-author, I would like to thank Linda Bridges Karr for all her copy-editing work revising my manuscripts and this dissertation, which would probably have not been as reader friendly without you.

I would also like to express special gratitude to the University of Pennsylvania, School of Social Policy and Practice for inviting me to the Penn Summer School on Social Impact. In particular, I would like to thank Peter Frumkin for the inspiring sessions. I cannot stress enough how much I learned during those weeks in Philadelphia. I returned from the United States as a more enlightened researcher, and the experience has truly helped me to become a better PhD student. I greatly enjoy being a part of the 2013 cohort, along with Joannie Tremblay-Boire, Theresa Anasti, Matthew Bennett, Thomas Scheurle, Zachariah Rodgers, Mindy Chen and Angela Addae. I will continue to look forward to Peter Frumkin's reunion dinner each year at ARNOVA.

I would like to thank Karin Nettenbreijers (Bewustwijzer), Marije Mulder (UNHCR) and Claartje Onderwaater (Stichting Laluz) for their interest and support in both my dissertation and the corresponding process. I am grateful to be able to work with people who have a great passion for what they do. I am also deeply grateful to Margot Van Sluis-Barten and Danielle Schutgens, who offered me the opportunity to serve as an intern at the Fortis Foundation back in 2009, my first real experience

with a corporate foundation. After that internship, I knew that Corporate Social Responsibility (and particularly community involvement) would be the path I wanted to pursue in my career. Finally, I would like to thank everyone who has participated in any of my research projects, including those within and outside the context of my doctoral work. In particular, I would like to thank all of my respondents, who were willing to share their experiences with me regarding their organizations and CSR initiatives. I would obviously not have been able to complete this dissertation without your involvement. For a full list of research participants, please refer to the appendix at the end of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Whereas the market and civil society were once two clearly separate spheres, the boundaries between the two spheres are fading in contemporary society, and they are becoming increasingly intertwined (Emerson, 2003; Van Tulder and Van der Zwart, 2006). These developments have resulted in increased collaboration between the sectors (for an overview of the literature on cross-sector partnerships, see Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a; 2012b); new organizational forms, including social *entre*preneurship (Pache and Santos, 2013) and corporate foundations (Westhues and Einwiller, 2006) and other hybrid organizations, as well as hybridity within traditional organizational forms, including social *intra*preneurship (Hemingway, 2013) and corporate social responsibility (CSR; Bowen, 1953; Davis, 1973; Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006).

Many scholars have conceptualized CSR in relatively broad terms, and definitions vary with regard to the actions and policies that are understood to constitute this form of responsibility (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). In one study, Dahlsrud (2006) identifies 37 definitions of CSR. Even this number is likely to be an underestimation, however, as many academically derived definitional constructs are not included in Dahlsrud's study. Some definitions include such aspects as working conditions and environmental protection (e.g. Jenkins and Yakovleva, 2006), while others focus on business ethics (e.g. Brebels et al., 2011; Kaptein and Constantinescu, 2015), possibly including philanthropy and community involvement (e.g. Lantos, 2002). Given the broad range of conceptualizations and operationalizations for CSR, any communication about CSR – whether in the form of studies, articles, books or

presentations (for academics or practitioners) – should specify the operationalization of CSR that is being used.

In this dissertation, I follow the broad conceptualization developed by Davis (1973), who defines CSR as 'the firm's considerations of, and responses to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks' (p. 312). Within this definition, I conceptualize and operationalize CSR as corporate involvement in the community (Aguilera et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2009; Kotler and Lee, 2005; Van der Voort et al., 2009; Woods and Logsdon, 2001). In this context, CSR consists of a company's commitment to improving or enhancing community well-being through discretionary contributions of corporate resources (see also Kotler and Lee, 2005). It encompasses a broad spectrum of corporate activities, including donating money or goods to support communities, sharing the company's network, developing cause-related marketing and providing volunteers for NPOs (Meijs and Van der Voort, 2004). Such contributions are common: many researchers (e.g. Aguilera et al., 2007; Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Caliguiri et al., 2013; Carroll, 1979, 1999; Lantos, 2002; Madison et al., 2011; Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006), research databases (e.g. the Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini [KLD] social ratings and the GRI), teachers in the field of business and society (Waddock, 2007) and practitioners (Aguilera et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2009) treat community involvement as an important dimension of CSR. Community involvement (e.g. through corporate volunteering and corporate philanthropy) has even been identified as the most common way in which CSR is implemented in companies (Aguilera et al., 2007; Basil

et al., 2009). This conceptualization and operationalization of CSR thus play a pivotal role in my research. My specific focus is on employee engagement in CSR activities.

Programs relating to CSR take many forms, involving various degrees and types of contributions and levels of involvement on the part of employees. Amongst the many possible avenues for employee involvement, my research primarily highlights two broad types of CSR initiatives: donations of time (corporate volunteering) and donations of money (corporate philanthropy) to community organizations.

Despite an accumulating body of research on corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012; Rodell and Lynch, 2015), the concept has been poorly defined, as most studies are based on broad descriptions of what the concept entails rather than on any agreed-upon definition (Van Schie et al., 2011). Corporate volunteering is also known as 'employee volunteering', a term that eliminates the restriction of the concept to the 'corporate' realm (see Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005). Another term, 'employer-sponsored volunteering', requires that the employer provide some form of support for the volunteering (Brewis, 2004; Steel, 1995; Van der Voort et al., 2009; Van Schie et al., 2011). Such initiatives reflect the deliberate involvement of a company in something that has traditionally been regarded as a highly personal and individual act. Within the sphere of paid employment, they require the creation and integration of specific formal and informal policies (Houghton et al., 2009; Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2008; Van der Voort et al, 2009). In a recent study, Rodell and colleagues address the lack of definitional clarity on corporate volunteering. In particular, they discuss the differences between employee volunteering and corporate volunteering. Similar to general definitions of volunteering (see Clary et al., 1998;

Musick and Wilson, 2008; Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2000), both of these concepts are defined as 'employed individuals giving time during a planned activity for a non-profit or charitable group organization' (p. 4/5). One important difference between the two concepts is that, in the case of corporate volunteering, the volunteering takes place through a company initiative. The concept of corporate volunteering thus excludes any form of volunteering in which employees participate without the deliberate involvement of the company (Rodell et al., 2015). I use this definition to guide my research throughout this dissertation.

Monetary donations by companies are usually conceptualized as corporate philanthropy (Gautier and Pache, 2015) – another contested concept that lacks any consensus on definition (Daly, 2011; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015). Researchers nevertheless do agree that corporate philanthropy includes voluntary financial donations to charitable organizations, whether in the form of direct grants or through corporate foundations. This form of corporate giving currently accounts for an increasing proportion of total giving to charities (Halme and Laurila, 2009). According to *Giving in Numbers* (2015), total giving from 271 companies in the United States amounted to USD 18.5 billion.[1]

In the effort to engage employees in their corporate philanthropy activities, many companies establish employee matching programs or encourage their employees to participate in payroll giving (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). In employee matching programs, companies make financial donations commensurate with the

---

[1] http://cecp.co/pdfs/giving_in_numbers/GIN_8x11_HighRes.pdf consulted on 21 December 2015

time or money donated privately by their employees (e.g. Dollars for Dollars programs or Dollars for Doers programs).[2] For example, in 2014, General Electric donated approximately USD 42 million through its employee matching program, in which the company doubles employee gifts to charities, with individual matching donations ranging from USD 25 to USD 25,000.[3] According to *Giving in Numbers* (2015), employee matching expenditures account for 12% of all corporate philanthropy.[4]

The various forms of CSR initiatives can include the informal acknowledgement of employee involvement in the community or the formal facilitation of employees (e.g. by locating opportunities to contribute), as well as even more formal corporate initiatives involving paid time off, employee matching and payroll giving (Meijs and Kerkhof, 2001; Haski-Leventhal, 2013). Employee involvement includes the application of the skills of employees (whether 'soft' or 'hard') to various professional (i.e. 'specialist') or general (i.e. 'sweat') tasks (Meijs and Brudney, 2007; Peloza et al., 2009). In the case of corporate philanthropy, employee involvement programs can consist of encouraging employees to donate part of their salary or to make donations (of time and/or money) that will be matched by the employer. In the specific case of corporate volunteering, employees may volunteer either on their own time or during official working hours (Meijs and Van der Voort, 2004), albeit without any additional financial compensation or remuneration for the

---

[2] https://doublethedonation.com/blog/2013/01/dollars-for-doers-grants-definition/ consulted on 21 December 2015

[3] http://www.gefoundation.com/giving-programs/matching-gifts/ consulted on 21 December 2015

[4] http://cecp.co/pdfs/giving_in_numbers/GIN_8x11_HighRes.pdf consulted on 21 December 2015

employees themselves (Bussell and Forbes, 2008; Van Schie et al., 2011). Corporate volunteering does not exclude the possibility of additional financial remuneration for the NPO (Samuel et al., 2013; Study 5).

The conceptualization of CSR as corporate involvement in the community has received considerable academic attention. Most studies are based on instrumental theories, which treat CSR as a tool with which to achieve direct or indirect economic results (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Garriga and Mele, 2004; Gautier and Pache, 2015; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006). Within this conceptualization, which is known as strategic CSR (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001), many scholars have been working to build a business case for CSR (Carroll and Shabana, 2010), thereby acknowledging a relationship – albeit indirect – between CSR and the bottom line (Orlitszky et al., 2003). For example, CSR has been found to strengthen marketing efforts by enhancing corporate reputation (Brammer and Pavelin, 2006), consumer evaluations (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Chernev and Blair, 2015) and consumer loyalty (Maignan et al., 1999). At the same time, recent attention has shifted towards the contribution of CSR to areas within the realm of human resource management (HRM), including with regard to attracting a talented workforce (Batharaya et al., 2008; Evans and Davis, 2011; Greening and Turban, 2000; Kim and Park, 2011; Sobczak et al., 2006), performing organizational socialization (Gully et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2013) and cultivating employee engagement, organizational commitment and organizational identification (Brammer et al., 2007; Caligiuri et al., 2012; Grant et al., 2008; Madison et al., 2012; Maignan, et al., 1999; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Peloza and Hassay, 2006; Turker, 2009). Other ways in which companies can benefit from CSR involve the

reinforcement of community relations and legitimacy amongst stakeholders (Porter and Kramer, 2005). For example, findings from research based on instrumental stakeholder theory indicate that community involvement by companies may strengthen the trust that local communities have in particular companies, thereby bestowing or enhancing legitimacy (Chen et al., 2008). Other studies have suggested that community involvement can improve community networks, trust and the willingness to cooperate (Muthuri et al., 2009).

The increasingly intertwined nature of the market and civil society is due to an increase in the influence of socially responsible values and practices in businesses, as well as in the influence that businesses are having on the development of such values and practices. One popular definition of civil society describes it as 'a wide array of nongovernmental and not-for-profit organizations [(hereafter NPOs)] that have a presence in public life, expressing the interests and values of their members or others, based on ethical, cultural, political, scientific, religious or philanthropic considerations' (World Bank, 2013). This traditionally distinct character of being non-profit (non-market) and non-governmental is being challenged by the increasingly visible involvement of corporate and government actors in activities that have traditionally fallen within the realm of civil society (e.g. Brandsen et al., 2005; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). For example, companies are increasingly working to facilitate volunteering, and many are establishing their own charitable organizations (e.g. corporate foundations; Westhues and Einwiller, 2006). Governments are also becoming increasingly involved in volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Hustinx and De Waele, 2015).

As evidenced by the sources cited in the discussion above, considerable research attention has been devoted to the influence that values and practices relating to CSR have on companies. Far less is understood about the consequences that NPOs face when involving companies, particularly in the case of employee volunteering. What we do know is that corporate volunteers do not negotiate the terms of their volunteer involvement directly with NPOs (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). In contrast to the case of traditional community volunteers, for employee volunteering programs, such negotiations usually take place between a representative of the NPO (e.g. a volunteer manager or fundraiser) and a representative of the company (in most cases, a CSR manager in charge of the company's community program; see Chapters 4 and 5). It is interesting to note that, in the process of recruiting and selecting community volunteers, NPO managers gain an overview of exactly who is becoming involved in their organizations. In some cases, they even screen prospective volunteers, particularly if the volunteers will be interacting with vulnerable beneficiaries. With corporate volunteers, however, hardly any advance screening takes place, and the volunteer managers, fundraisers, employees and other volunteers involved in the NPO have little insight into the people who will be engaging in their organization (see Chapter 5; Samuel et al., 2015). This is surprising, given that some people are likely to be less suited for working with particular groups of beneficiaries – a fact that is particularly relevant when prospective volunteers are unknown to and unscreened by the organization prior to the volunteer assignment (see also the literature on service learning; Gazley et al., 2012).

Research emphasis and research questions

Despite the valuable insights provided by existing literature and theories, as presented above, academics have yet to pay sufficient attention to multi-level antecedents of employee engagement and the potential consequences of such engagement for NPOs, employee volunteers (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2015) and companies, particularly those in the area of HRM and social or organizational psychology (Morgenson et al., 2013). Questions that remain to be explored include how organizations can stimulate employee engagement in CSR and which interventions might lead to certain consequences for companies and NPOs (for example, see Grant, 2012). In this dissertation, therefore, I focus on three specific themes: antecedents of employee engagement in CSR, interventions for employee engagement in CSR and consequences of employee engagement in CSR. These themes together constitute the overall research question:

What are the antecedents, organizational interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR?

To address these themes and the overall research question, I begin by identifying the characteristics of employees who engage in CSR, as we currently know little about the typical characteristics, attitudes and preferences of employees who engage in socially responsible behavior (Study 1). I also study potential barriers (Study 2) and stimuli for employee engagement in CSR and how particular employee profiles might (or might not) align with the CSR profiles of their employers (Study 4). My first research question is thus formulated as follows: *What are the antecedents of employee engagement in CSR?*

Second, insight is needed with regard to factors that can increase or decrease the likelihood of employees to engage in CSR. My second research question thus focuses on how organizations, as the context for employee engagement in CSR (see Johns, 2006 for the importance of contexts in behavioral research), can intervene to stimulate the desired behavior and how employee engagement in CSR can be used as an organizational intervention to achieve desired outcomes. In Study 2 (Chapter 3), I focus on organizational interventions for stimulating employee engagement, while the focus of Studies 3 and 4 (Chapters 4 and 5) shifts towards ways in which CSR initiatives can be designed in order to achieve goals related to HRM (i.e. various dimensions of P-E fit; see Kristoff-Brown et al., 2005). In Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7), I investigate ways in which NPOs can organize CSR initiatives within their organizations. In summary, the second research question is formulated as follows: *Which organizational interventions could stimulate employee engagement in CSR with the objective of addressing organizational goals?*

Finally, although recent reviews on CSR have demonstrated the accumulation of evidence regarding the consequences of CSR at the institutional and corporate levels (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012), scholars have yet to succeed in integrating theories of organizational behavior and organizational psychology, particularly within the context of CSR (see the special issue of Morgenson et al., 2013 in *Personnel Psychology*). In addition, a recent review reveals that only 4% of all studies focused on employee level, and very few have adopted a multi-level approach to CSR (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). Furthermore, we know little about the consequences for NPOs when companies engage their employees in the community (Gautier and

Pache, 2015; Samuel et al., 2013). I address this gap with my third research question, which concerns multi-level approaches to investigating the consequences of employee engagement in CSR: *What are the consequences of employee engagement in CSR?* In this regard, I make a distinction between the consequences for companies in Studies 3 and 4 (Chapters 4 and 5) and for NPOs in Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7).

Overview
This dissertation consists of a collection of essays that have been published as articles in peer-reviewed journals (Study 4; Chapter 5), that have been submitted and/or are currently under review at peer-reviewed journals (Studies 2 and 5; Chapters 3 and 7) or that are being prepared for submission to various peer-reviewed journals (Studies 1, 3 and 5; Chapters 2, 4 and 6). The dissertation comprises eight chapters, including an introduction and discussion, based on five studies covering various aspects of CSR, both empirically (Chapters 2, 4 and 5) and conceptually (Chapters 3, 6 and 7). Antecedents are addressed only from the corporate perspective (Study 1), but the remaining questions are addressed from the perspectives of both companies (Studies 2, 3 and 4) and NPOs (Study 5).
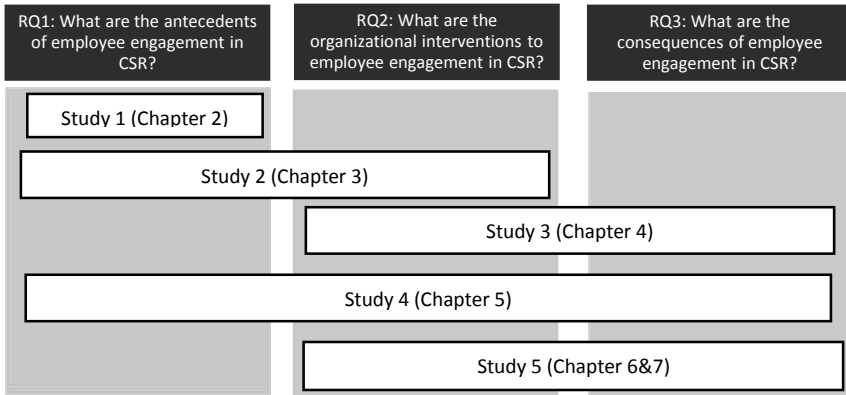
Figure 1.1: Overview of the dissertation

In the opening study of this dissertation, I address the characteristics, attitudes and preferences of individuals in the workplace who participate in CSR. In other words, I seek to create a general profile of people who volunteer for NPOs on behalf of their companies and how they differ from those who volunteer only outside the workplace (i.e. community volunteers) and those who do not volunteer at all. In this chapter, I compare the characteristics, attitudes and preferences of corporate volunteers to those of community volunteers and non-volunteers, based on a quantitative study drawing on survey data from the national office of a large international company. Results of multinomial logistical regression provide partial support for the hypothesis that the personal and job-related characteristics, the volunteer preferences and the anxiety levels of corporate volunteers, as well as their perceptions of organizational support differ from those of employees who are directly involved in the community or those who do not volunteer at all. In particular, despite a number of important overlaps between those engaged in community and corporate volunteering, many common assumptions concerning the characteristics,

attitudes and preferences of community volunteers should not be projected onto the context of the workplace. These results suggest that the current literature on volunteers and volunteer management should treat corporate volunteers as a particular 'species' of volunteers. As such, literature, models and assumptions about community volunteering might not be directly applicable to corporate volunteering, but should be carefully reconsidered within the specific context of the workplace. Because the outcomes are highly specific to the particular organization in which the study was conducted, they do not allow any generalizable conclusions. Further research is needed in order to investigate these initial insights in greater detail.

Study 2 (Chapter 3) examines barriers to participation in CSR and how companies can intervene to stimulate employee participation in CSR. Given the numerous benefits of community programs to companies, their employees and society in general, many corporate managers face internal and external pressure to increase employee participation. Drawing on the theory of planned behavior, and augmented by existing literature on personal charitable giving behavior and CSR, the chapter details five potential individual barriers to participation in such programs: perceived lack of behavioral control, lack of subjective norms, negative attitudes, lack of past experience/habits, and anxiety. It offers five organizational interventions for addressing these individual barriers and increasing participation in CSR programs. These interventions are in the areas of organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and community program design. In this chapter, I argue that variety in employee-participation opportunities and a supportive internal context have the greatest potential to increase employee participation in

CSR. I conclude the chapter by proposing five interventions that practitioners can implement in order to realize the greatest benefit from CSR.

In Study 3 (Chapter 4), I focus on the consequences of CSR (and, in particular, community involvement) for companies with regard to HRM. This conceptual chapter proposes ways in which CSR can be used to establish each of the five dimensions of person-environment fit (P-E fit): person-vocation fit, person-organization fit, person-job fit, person-group fit and person-person fit. The chapter draws on existing theory and literature to demonstrate that the contribution of CSR to P-E fit is likely to differ in the various stages of employment (including both the pre-hire and post-hire phases): pre-recruitment, recruitment, selection, socialization and long-term tenure. I propose that combining a corporate, employer-led approach with an individual, employee-led approach could potentially maximize the potential contributions of CSR to P-E fit during the various stages of employment. These insights form the foundation for a framework connecting the 'what' (CSR), the 'when' (during all employment stages), the 'why' (P-E fit) and the 'how' (through the continuum of two approaches) of this relationship.

In Study 4 (Chapter 5), I examine the potential role of corporate community involvement in establishing one outcome relating to HRM: person-organization fit. The multi-disciplinary interest in social responsibility on the part of individuals and organizations that has developed over the past 30 years has generated several descriptors of CSR and employee social responsibility (ESR). These descriptors focus largely on socially responsible behavior and, in some cases, on socially responsible identity. Very few authors have combined the two concepts when

investigating social responsibility. The concept of CSR is thus likely to be over-simplified, thereby impeding the examination of congruence between employees and organizations with regard to social responsibility. In this chapter, I connect two dimensions of social responsibility – identity and behavior – to construct a social-responsibility matrix consisting of four patterns, which can be used to classify the social responsibility of employees and employers: Low Social Responsibility, Identity-based Social Responsibility, Behavior-based Social Responsibility and Entwined Social Responsibility. The positioning of employers and employees on the same matrix (as determined by internal, relational and/or external factors) is vital for assessing the level of congruence between employers and employees with regard to social responsibility, as well as for discussing the possible outcomes for both parties. These identity and behavior-based patterns, determinants and levels of congruence connecting employees and employers form the foundation for the multi-dimensional, dynamic ESR-CSR Congruence Model, as exemplified in a case study. The insights presented in this chapter contribute to the existing CSR literature and models of CSR, in addition to improving the understanding of employee-employer congruence, thereby broadening the array of possibilities for achieving positive organizational outcomes based on CSR.

Study 5 resulted in two chapters from the NPO perspective. The methodology sections of the two chapters overlap to some extent, as the analysis for both chapters is based on 39 semi-structured qualitative interviews conducted with 41 NPO employees responsible for corporate volunteer programs. In Chapter 6, I examine the non-profit case (as opposed to the business case) for employee

engagement in CSR by examining how corporate volunteering can enhance or diminish non-profit organizational capacity, including the underlying conditions. The findings reveal that corporate volunteering can enhance the organizational capacity of NPOs by providing additional resources, increasing the ability of NPOs to recruit volunteers, providing opportunities for organizational learning, increasing the quantity and quality of service delivery and raising awareness concerning NPOs and the issues they address. At the same time, however, the involvement of corporate volunteers can potentially damage organizational capacity through transaction costs, mission drift, diminished quality of services and reputation damage. Although this finding is largely consistent with previous research (e.g. on partnerships), the analysis identifies conditions under which these outcomes arise, including the involvement of intermediary organizations, perceived resource dependence and the orientation of the collaboration (i.e. program versus project). I use these insights to formulate propositions that could be tested in future deductive research, in addition to deriving implications for theory and practice.

In Chapter 7, I follow up on these insights and further contribute to the development of the non-profit case for corporate volunteering from the perspective of NPOs. Using the same data referred to in Chapter 6, this chapter argues that developing the non-profit case (as opposed to the business case) for corporate volunteering is complex and that it should include a multi-level perspective on the outcomes. In developing this non-profit case, scholars have thus far focused primarily on organizational outcomes, disregarding the implications for non-profit employees in particular and the consequences of these implications for non-profit

organizations. As such, a multi-level perspective is crucial to a comprehensive understanding of the complexity of the non-profit outcomes when involving corporate volunteers. Findings reveal that there are specific outcomes (both positive and negative) of working with corporate volunteers for NPO staff members (employee level), with consequences for non-organizations (organizational level). Furthermore, I identify three specific program characteristics of corporate volunteer involvement (i.e. temporary involvement, task assignment and the degree of integration in regular programs) that affect the outcomes presented. Based on this exploratory research, I advance a multi-level model for guiding future research into the dynamics and consequences of involving corporate volunteers for NPO staff members and their respective NPOs.

In the discussion (Chapter 8), I reflect on the implications of this dissertation for research and practice and suggest directions for future research, based on and proceeding from the findings presented in the individual chapters. The discussion centres largely on the following three themes, which guide the overall dissertation: antecedents, organizational interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR. In addition, I explain how the overall dissertation contributes to the need for multi-level approaches, to existing knowledge of strategic CSR (including strategic CSR for NPOs) and to the call of both CSR and non-profit scholars to investigate the non-profit perspective on CSR by developing models and propositions of employee engagement in CSR within the context of NPOs.

References

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 836-863.

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility. A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932-968.

Austin, J. E., & Seitanidi, M. M. (2012a). Collaborative value creation: A review of partnering between nonprofits and businesses: Part 1. Value creation spectrum and collaboration stages. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 726-758.

Austin, J. E., & Seitanidi, M. M. (2012b). Collaborative value creation: A review of partnering between nonprofits and businesses. Part 2: Partnership processes and outcomes. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(6), 929-968.

Basil, D.B., Runte, M.S., Easwaramoorthy, M. & Barr, C. (2009). Company Support for Employee Volunteering: A National Survey of Companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics, 85*(2), 387–398.

Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of Corporate Social Responsibility to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(10), 1701-1719.

Brammer, S. J., & Pavelin, S. (2006). Corporate reputation and social performance: The importance of fit. *Journal of Management Studies, 43*(3), 435-455.

Bowen, H.R. (1953). *Social responsibilities of the businessman.* Harper, New York.

Brandsen T., Van de Donk, W. & Putters, K. (2005). Griffins or chameleons? Hybridity as a permanent and inevitable characteristic of the third sector. *International Journal of Public Administration, 28*, 749-765.

Brebels, L.G.G., De Cremer, D., Van Dijke, M.H. & Van Hiel, A. (2011). Fairness as social responsibility: a moral self-regulation account of procedural justice enactment. *British Journal of Management*, *22* (SI), S47-S58.

Brewis, G. (2004). Beyond banking: Lessons from an impact evaluation of employee volunteerism at Barclays Bank. *Voluntary Action*, *6*(3), 13-25.

Brudney, J. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2007). Winning volunteer scenarios: The soul of a new machine. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA), 24*(6), 68-79.

Bussell, H. & Forbes, D. (2008). How UK universities engage with their local communities: A study of employer supported volunteering. *International Journal of Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *13*, 363-378.

Caligiuri, P., Mencin, A. & Jiang, K. (2012). Win-Win-Win: The influence of company-sponsored volunteerism programs on employees, NGOs, and business units. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(4), 825-860.

Carroll, A. B. (1979). A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review, 4*(4), 497–505.

Carroll, A.B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility: evolution of a definitional construct. *Business and Society*, *38*, 268–295.

Carroll, A.B. & Shabana, K.M. (2010). The business case for Corporate Social Responsibility: A review of concepts, research and practice. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 12*(1), 85-105.

Chen, J.C., Patten, D.M. & Roberts, R.W. (2008). Corporate charitable contributions: A corporate social performance or legitimacy strategy? *Journal of Business Ethics, 82*(1), 131-144.

Chernev, A. & Blair, S. (2015). Doing well by doing good: The benevolent halo of Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(6), 1412-1425.

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 1516-1530.

Dahlsrud, A. (2006). How corporate social responsibility is defined: an analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 15*(1), 1-13.

Daly, S. (2011). Philanthropy as an essentially contested concept. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *23*(3), 535–557.

Davis, K. (*1973*). The case for and against business assumption of social responsibilities. *Academy of Management Journal,* 16*,* 312-322.

Emerson J. (2003). The blended value proposition: integrating social and financial return, *California Management Review, 45*(4), 35-51.

Evans, R. W. & Davis, W. D. (2011). An examination of perceived corporate citizenship, job applicant attraction, and CSR work role definition. *Business and Society*, *50*(3), 456-480.

Garriga, E., & Mele, D. (2004). Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. *Journal of Business Ethics, 53*(1–2), 51–71.

Gautier, A. & Pache, A.C. (2015). Research on corporate philanthropy: A review and assessment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(3), 343-369.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(4), 589-615.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E. & Rosso, B. (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(5), 898-918.

Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000). Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business and Society*, *39*(3), 254-280.

Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., Castellano, W. G., Han, K., & Kim, A. (2013). A mediated moderation model of recruiting socially and environmentally responsible job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 935-973.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2013). Employee engagement in CSR: The case of payroll giving in Australia. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 20*(2), 113-128.

Haski-Leventhal, D., Meijs, L. C. P. M., & Hustinx, L. (2010). The third-party model: Enhancing volunteering through governments, corporations and educational institutes. *Journal of Social Policy, 39*(1), 139-159.

Hemingway, C.A. (2013). *Corporate Social Entrepreneurship: Integrity Within.* Cambridge University Press, United Kingdom.

Houghton, S. M., Gabel, J.T.A., & Williams, D.A. (2009). Connecting the two faces of CSR: Does employee volunteerism improve compliance? *Journal of Business Ethics, 87*(4), 477-494.

Hustinx, L. & De Waele, E. (2015). Managing Hybridity in a changing welfare mix: Everyday practices in an entrepreneurial nonprofit in Belgium. *International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 26*(5), 1666-1689.

Jenkins, H. & Yakovleva, N. (2006). Corporate Social Responsibility in the mining industry: exploring trends in social and environment disclosure. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 14*, 271-284.

Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 31*(2), 386-408.

Kaptein, S.P. & Constantinescu, M. (2015). Mutually enhancing responsibility: A theoretical exploration of the interaction mechanisms between individual and corporate moral responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics, 129* (2), 325-339.

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and employee–company identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(4) 557-569.

Kim, S.Y. & Park, H. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility as an organizational attractiveness for prospective public relations practitioners. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *103*(4), 639-653.

Kotler, P. & Lee, N. (2005). *Corporate Social Responsibility – Doing the Most Good for Your Company and Your Cause.* John Wiley and Sons, Inc: New Jersey.

Lantos, G.P. (2002). The ethicality of altruistic corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 19*(3), 205–232.

Liket, K. & Simaens, A. (2015). Battling the devolution in the research on Corporate Philanthropy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *126*, 285–308.

Madison, T. F., Ward, S., & Royalty, K. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment and employer-sponsored volunteering. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3*(1)*,* 1-14.

Maignan I., Ferrell, O. C. & Hult, H. T. (1999). Corporate Citizenship: Cultural antecedents and business benefits. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(Fall), 455-469.

Maignan, I., & Ferrell, O. C. (2001). Antecedents and benefits of corporate citizenship: an investigation of French businesses. *Journal of Business Research*, *51*(1), 37-51.

McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. S. (2001). Corporate Social Responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 117-127.

Meijs, L. C. P. M. & Van der Voort, J. (2004). Corporate volunteering: from charity to profit-non-profit partnerships. *Australian Journal on Volunteering* 9(1), 21-31.

Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Brudney, J.L. (2007). Winning volunteer scenarios: The soul of a new machine. *International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, *14*(6), 68-79.

Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Kerkhof, M. (2001), Bedrijven als loyaliteitskader. *Humanistiek*, *8*, 18-25.

Morgeson, F. P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D. A., & Siegel, D. S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to human resource management and organizational behavior domains: A look into the future. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 805-824.

Musick, M. A., & Wilson, J. 2008. *Volunteers: A social profile*. Indiana University Press: Bloomington.

Muthuri, J. N., Matten, D. & Moon, J. (2009). Employee volunteering and social capital: Contributions to corporate social responsibility. *British Journal of Management, 20*(1), 75-89.

Omoto, A. M., & Snyder, M. 1995. Sustained helping without obligation: Motivation, longevity of service, and perceived attitude change among AIDS volunteers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*, 671-686.

Orlitzky, M., Schmidt, F. L., & Rynes, S. L. (2003). Corporate social and financial performance: A meta-analysis. *Organization Studies, 24*(3), 403–441.

Peloza , J., & Hassay, D. N. (2006). Intra-organizational volunteerism: Good soldiers, good deeds and good politics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 64* (4), 357-379.

Peloza, J., Hudson, S. & Hassay, D.N. (2009). The marketing of employee volunteerism. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*, 371–386.

Penner, L. A. 2002. Dispositional and organizational influences on sustained volunteerism: An interactionist perspective. *Journal of Social Issues*, *58*, 447-467.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M.R. (2002). The competitive advantage of corporate philanthropy. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(12), 56-69.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and society: The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review, 84*(4), 78-92.

Pache, A.C. & Santos, F. (2013). Inside the hybrid organization: selective coupling as a response to competing institutional logics. *Academy of Management Journal, 56*(4), 972–1001.

Rodell, J.B., Breitsohl, H., Schroder, M. & Keiting, D.J. (2015). Employee volunteering. A review and framework for future research. *Journal of Management, Online first*, 1-38.

Rodell, J.B. & Lynch, J. (2015). Perceptions of employee volunteering: Is it "credited" or "stigmatized" by colleagues? *Academy of Management Journal, Online first*, 1-65.

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Thornton, M. A., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2013). Applicants' and employees' reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility: The moderating effects of first-party justice perceptions and moral identity. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 895-933.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. (2013). Corporate volunteering: benefits and challenges for nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 24*(2), 163-179.

Samuel, O., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (in press). Exploring Partnerships from the Perspective of HSO Beneficiaries: The Case of Corporate Volunteering. Accepted for publication in the special issue: "Partnerships". In *Human Service Organizations, Governance and Leadership*.

Sen, S. & Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research* 38(2), 225-243.

Sobczak, A., Debucquet, G. & Havard, C. (2006). The impact of higher education on students' and young managers' perception of companies and CSR: an

exploratory analysis. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, *6*(4), 463-474.

Steel, K. (1995). Managing corporate and employee volunteer programs. In: T.D. Connors (Ed.). *The volunteer Management Handbook*. Wiley and Sons, New York (NY).

Tschirhart, M., & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate community service programs: Enhancing community capacity? In A. C. Brooks (Ed.), *Gifts of time and money: The role of charity in America's communities* (pp. 59–75). Rowman & Littlefield; Lanham MD.

Tschirhart, M. & St. Clair, L. (2008). Fine Lines: Design and Implementation Challenges in Employee Volunteer Programs. In: M. Liao-Troth (Ed.) *Challenges in Volunteer Management* (pp. 205-226), a volume in L. R. Jones and N. C. Roberts (Series Eds.) Research in Public Management.

Van Tulder, R. & Van der Zwart, A. (2006). *International Business-Society Management; Linking Corporate Responsibility and Globalization.* Routlegde: London.

Turker, D. (2009). How corporate social responsibility influences organizational commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *89*(2), 89-204.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*(3), 311-329.

Van Schie, S., Guentert, S.T. & Wehner, T. (2011). No corporate volunteering without volunteers. *International Journal of Business Environment* 4(2), 121-132.

Waddock, S. (2007). Leadership integrity in a fractured knowledge world. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 6*(4), 543-57.

Westhues, M., & S. Einwiller (2006). Corporate Foundations: Their Role for Corporate Social Responsibility. *Corporate Reputation Review, 9*(2), 144-53.

Wilson, J. 2000. Volunteering. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *26*, 215-240.

Wood, D. J. & Logsdon, J. M. (2001). Theorising Business Citizenship. In Andriof J. and McIntosh M., *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship* (83-103), Greenleaf, Sheffield.

World Bank (2013). World Bank–Civil Society Engagement: Review of Fiscal Years 2010-12. World Bank: Washington, DC. License: Creative Commons Attribution CC BY 3.0.

CHAPTER 2: WHO VOLUNTEERS THROUGH THE WORKPLACE? DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CORPORATE VOLUNTEERS, COMMUNITY VOLUNTEERS AND NON-VOLUNTEERS

Abstract

This study was designed to explore the question of who volunteers through the workplace. Despite the accumulation of research on corporate giving (in terms of both money and time) and, more specifically, on corporate volunteering, studies have yet to identify the characteristics of employees who engage in volunteering through the workplace. To address this gap in the existing knowledge, the present study compares the characteristics, attitudes, preferences and organization-related factors of corporate volunteers to those of community volunteers and non-volunteers within the same company. The study is based on a quantitative research design, using survey data from the national office of a large international company. The survey was distributed to all members of the total sample (i.e. all employees with corporate email addresses: 3705); 776 respondents ultimately completed the full survey. The results of multinomial logistical regression partially confirm the hypothesis that the personal and job-related characteristics, volunteer preferences, attitudes towards corporate volunteering and organization-related aspects of corporate volunteers differ from those of employees who are directly involved in the community or who do not volunteer at all. In particular, despite some similarities between employees who are engaged in community and those who participate in corporate volunteering, the results of this study could imply that many assumptions that could be made about the characteristics, attitudes and preferences of community volunteers should not be projected onto the context of

the workplace. These findings suggest that literature, models and assumptions about community volunteering should potentially not be simply applied to corporate volunteering, but that they should be carefully reconsidered within the specific context of the workplace. It is important to note that the outcomes remain highly specific to the context of the organization in which the study was conducted. This makes it impossible to draw any generalizable conclusions, and further research is needed to explore these initial insights in greater depth.

Introduction[5]

In contemporary society, there are many ways in which citizens can engage socially, with volunteering as one of the most obvious (Adler and Goggin, 2005). This concept, which has been the subject of a strong tradition of scholarship, refers to the reasons that people have for engaging in such behavior and the characteristics of those who do this (for an overview, see Musick and Wilson, 2008). Scholars have recently begun to examine the contingencies that affect volunteer involvement and, consequently, volunteer management (for a review, see Brudney and Meijs, 2014). For example, the specific contexts in which individual volunteers are solicited (e.g. the workplace or the school) might play an important role in determining who will and will not be attracted to particular types of engagement (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010).

As observed in the literature, third parties – including governmental organizations (Van den Bos, 2013), universities (Gazley et al., 2012) and companies (De Gilder et al., 2005; Krasnapolskaya et al., 2015) – are increasingly playing a role in promoting and enforcing individual volunteering behavior (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). For example, universities are encouraging students to engage in service learning (Gazley et al., 2012), and governmental organizations are actively designing and facilitating volunteer infrastructures that are favourable to volunteer behavior (Van den Bos, 2013). The workplace has also been identified a context that influences individual social behavior, including such extra-role behavior as corporate volunteering (De Gilder et al., 2005; Grant, 2012; Grant et al., 2008; Organ, 1988; Snell and Wong, 2007; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Corporate volunteering (also known as employee volunteering, workplace volunteering, and employer-supported volunteering) can be defined as discretionary workplace behavior in which employees volunteer at non-profit organizations on behalf of their employers (Van der Voort et al., 2009; Van Schie et al., 2011). It allows companies to enhance volunteering by eliminating some of the organizational and normative barriers that might prevent people from volunteering (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Without the influence of the corporate context and support, any volunteering by employees simply reflects private behavioral choices (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Houghton et al., 2009).

Corporate volunteering differs from other types of volunteering (e.g. service learning, community volunteering) because of the direct role of the workplace (e.g. managers, colleagues) in soliciting engagement (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Van der Voort et al., 2009). In community-based volunteering, this role is

often fulfilled by beneficiaries or charitable organizations (see also for charitable giving: Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011). Corporate volunteering could be seen as a non-traditional avenue through which individuals can engage in volunteering (Brewis, 2004; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Van Schie et al., 2011).

Despite the accumulating body of literature on corporate volunteering (Rodell and Lynch, 2015), few studies have attempted to identify the characteristics of individuals who are attracted to volunteering through the workplace (i.e. corporate volunteering). This chapter contributes to the literature by exploring the distinctiveness of corporate volunteers, focusing on differences between corporate volunteers, community volunteers (i.e. those engaged in volunteering outside the workplace; see also De Gilder et al., 2005) and non-volunteers. More specifically, I explore differences in the characteristics, attitudes, preferences for volunteer assignments and organization-related factors of these categories of volunteers.

This study is relevant in light of findings from previous work on context-specific volunteer involvement, which suggest that these types of volunteers might differ according to some of these variables. For example, Nesbit and Gazley (2012) demonstrate that the demographics and preferences of individuals who volunteer in professional associations differ from those of volunteers who engage in non-professional contexts. The organizational context might also influence individual behavior (Johns, 2006). It is important to learn more about the characteristics of individuals who are attracted to volunteering through the workplace. Such knowledge could help to explain who volunteers through the workplace, why individuals become involved in volunteering exclusively through the workplace and how this might contribute to the overall volunteer pool within society (Brudney

and Meijs, 2009). In addition, comparing corporate volunteers to other types of volunteers could help to clarify the extent to which the volunteer literature might be applicable to corporate volunteering or whether the prevailing general assumptions about volunteering should be reconsidered in light of the contingency of volunteering through the workplace.

In the following section, I position the research question by discussing the central concept of this chapter (i.e. corporate volunteering), emphasizing and contextualizing the importance of the current study. I then present nine hypotheses concerning on personal characteristics (demographics and job-related characteristics), attitudes (anticipated personal benefits, perceptions and social anxiety), volunteer preferences (relating to the interests of the company and specific characteristics of volunteer assignments) and organization-related factors (including organizational support and role modelling). After explaining the research context, sample, procedure, measures and tests, I present the results, as well as the conclusions and their implications for research and practice.

Volunteering and the workplace
Contrary to perceptions of many traditional non-profit organizations that involve volunteers, the number of people engaging in volunteering in Western countries has generally not decreased (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003; Hustinx et al., 2011). For example, longitudinal data indicate that volunteer participation rates have remained relatively stable at 42–48% in the Netherlands (Dekker and De Hart,

2009; CBS, 2015), 45–47% in Canada (Statistics Canada[6]); 25–29% in the United

States (Corporation for National and Community Service[7]); and 24–35% in

Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics[8]).[9] Nevertheless, such stability in

participation rates does not reflect stability in the forms of citizen engagement. On

the contrary, many scholars have observed a shift away from traditional types of

volunteering toward less traditional forms, including corporate volunteering

(Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Hustinx and Lammertyn,

2003; Hustinx et al., 2011).

In this context, corporate volunteering is the result of the efforts of

companies to encourage, facilitate or organize volunteer opportunities for

employees wishing to volunteer their time and skills to serve the local, domestic or

international community, without any additional individual compensation or

remuneration (Basil et al., 2009; Basil et al., 2011; Bussell and Forbes, 2008; De

Gilder et al., 2005; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Lee, 2011; Van der Voort et al.,

2009; Van Schie et al., 2011). It is defined as "employed individuals giving time

[through a company initiative] during a planned activity for an external non-profit

or charitable group or organization" (Rodell et al., 2015, p.4/5). Corporate

volunteering takes place within the context of informal and formal company

policies (Houghton, et al., 2009; Van der Voort et al., 2009), and it can be

---

[6] statcan.gc.ca/pub/11-008-x/2012001/t/11638/tbl01-eng.htm
[7] volunteeringinamerica.gov/national
[8] abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4102.0Chapter4102008
[9] Please note that these numbers are provided only as an illustration of the stability in rates within contexts. They should not be interpreted as indicating differences in participation rates between countries, as there is no consensus on the definition and measurement of volunteering

performed either in the employee's own time (with unpaid leave or other support from employer) or during official working hours (Meijs and Van der Voort, 2004). This form of volunteering offers employees a convenient way to combine volunteering with their professional work (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010), and it encompasses considerable diversity in the types of the activities that could be performed (Raffaelli and Glynn, 2014; Marquis et al., 2009; Marquis and Kanter, 2010).

In Western Europe and North America, corporate volunteering has been identified as the most commonly implemented activity within the framework of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (Basil et al., 2009; Pajo and Lee, 2011). It is therefore not surprising that it has received considerable attention in the management and business literature in recent decades. Studies have focused on such aspects as the consequences of corporate volunteering for the company (e.g. Caligiuiri et al., 2013; Grant, 2012; Madison et al., 2012) and for the employee (e.g. Rodell, 2013). To date, however, studies have tended to disregard the characteristics, attitudes and preferences of employees who engage in such behavior (notable exceptions include studies by Peterson, 2004 and by Zapala and McLaren, 2004 on the motivation for corporate volunteering, and by De Gilder et al., 2005 with regard to several personal characteristics). Little comparative research has been conducted on similarities and differences between employees who engage in corporate volunteering, those who engage privately in the community and those who do not volunteer at all. To address this gap in the existing knowledge, I

explore these differences based on the nine hypotheses described in the following section.

Hypotheses
Corporate volunteering and employee personal characteristics
Demographic characteristics

There is a rich body of literature explaining the demographic differences between volunteers and non-volunteers (for an extensive review, see Musick and Wilson, 2008). In general, volunteering is more common amongst women than it is amongst men, amongst married people than amongst single people are; amongst couples with children than amongst those with no children, amongst employed people than amongst unemployed people, amongst those with higher levels of education than amongst those with less education, and amongst churchgoers than amongst non-churchgoers (Musick and Wilson, 2008; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). These general differences between volunteers and non-volunteers nevertheless fall short of providing insight into differences with regard to the types of volunteering in which people engage. Specific contexts are likely to influence the type of volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Nesbit and Gazley, 2012). The corporate context is likely to influence the behavior of employees within the organization (Mowday and Sutton, 1993), even when it is externally oriented (i.e. towards the community). In this case, the workplace is a specific context that could be more likely to entice certain types of individuals to volunteer than would be the case with community volunteering (see also De Gilder et al., 2005). As reported by De Gilder and colleagues (2005), corporate volunteers appear to constitute a more homogenous category than is the case for community volunteers and non-

volunteers. For example, in the study by De Gilder and colleagues (2005), the respondents were more or less equally distributed across the various categories of age, marital status and religion. As revealed by the results of chi-square analyses, those who were attracted to corporate volunteering were similar to non-volunteers. Other authors have also suggested that corporate volunteering might attract different types of people to volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). For this reason, it is logical to expect differences between corporate volunteers and community volunteers based on the organizational context, but not between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers. I therefore hypothesize:

H1. The demographic characteristics of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers, but not from those of non-volunteers.

Job-related characteristics

According to the Current Population Survey conducted by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010), individuals with part-time contracts volunteer more than full-time employees do, thus suggesting the existence of replacement effects. This is in line with resource theory, which predicts that those with the most resources (in this case, time) are more likely to give (Musick and Wilson, 2008). It could be, however, that the resources needed in order to volunteer through the workplace differ from those needed to engage in other types of volunteering. An opposite effect may occur within the context of corporate volunteering, with people who work full-time being more inclined to engage in corporate volunteering. This is because many companies either organize corporate volunteer activities within working hours or arrange volunteer assignments to fit well within the schedules of

potential participants (Meijs et al., 2009). If this is the case, it should be easier for full-time employees to engage in this type of volunteering, as it would cause little conflict between working life and private life. It has also been argued that higher-status workers (including managers) are more likely to engage in volunteering because their jobs demand them to do so, particularly within the context of their professions (Nesbit and Gazley, 2012). If this is the case, higher-status employees might be more likely to engage in corporate volunteering, as it is related to their workplace. Moreover, particularly as noted in the literature on organizational citizenship behavior, one of the most prominent factors determining extra-role behavior (e.g. corporate volunteering) is job satisfaction, as people who tend to enjoy their work are also willing to put forth additional effort (Podsakoff et al, 2000; Organ and Konovsky, 1986; Organ and Lingl, 1995; Bateman and Organ, 1983). In the specific context of corporate volunteering, De Gilder and colleagues (2005) report that people whose attitudes towards their jobs are more positive are more likely to engage in corporate volunteering. This suggests that the job satisfaction of corporate volunteers might be higher than that of people who do not volunteer through the workplace. Based on these insights, I hypothesize:

H2. The job-related characteristics of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Corporate volunteering and employee attitudes

Perceived personal benefits

According to theory of planned behavior, attitudes towards specific behaviors (in this case, corporate volunteering) are positively related to the desired behavior. These attitudes are thought to stem from underlying beliefs, which link the behavior to some valued outcome to the individual (Ajzen, 1985). In other words, attitudes toward a given behavior are determined by an individual's evaluation of the (expected) outcomes associated with performing the behavior. In this case, people who engage in corporate volunteering should be more likely to have positive perceptions about the benefits of such behavior. I therefore hypothesize:

H3: Corporate volunteers are more likely to have positive perceptions of the personal benefits of corporate volunteering than are community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Perceptions of corporate volunteering

Employees differ in their perceptions of and attitudes towards social responsibility in the workplace (Rupp et al., 2006). For example, De Gilder and colleagues (2005) report that, although community volunteers are slightly more positive towards volunteering in general, corporate volunteers tend to have more favourable perceptions of community programs than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers. Houghton et al. (2009) argue that employees might refrain from corporate volunteering simply because they believe that volunteering belongs to the realm of private life rather than to the realm of the workplace. People who do participate in corporate volunteering (i.e. the actors who exhibit the behavior) typically enjoy what they are doing and expect positive effects in some way, and therefore should have more positive attitudes towards corporate volunteering (see

also De Gilder et al., 2005; Zapala and McLaren, 2004). For this reason, I hypothesize:

H4. Corporate volunteers perceive corporate volunteering more positively than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Social anxiety

Scholars have argued that psychological barriers (e.g. social anxiety) can influence the process of becoming involved in volunteering (Handy and Cnaan, 2007), particularly in the case of corporate volunteering (see Chapter X). Social anxiety refers to the extent to which people feel uncomfortable entering unfamiliar situations or situations in which other people already appear to be well connected (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). For example, it can be reflected in the reluctance to talk to strangers or engage in new social situations (De Botton, 2008). Social anxiety could thus pose an obstacle to volunteering in unfamiliar organizations (see Chapter 3). For example, individuals might feel anxious volunteering outside their known organizational contexts or with people who are unfamiliar to them. Volunteering in the workplace might provide an organizational context in which individuals feel less anxious about becoming engaged. Moreover, because volunteering through the workplace is often performed together with direct colleagues, it is likely to reduce feelings of anxiety. My fifth hypothesis is therefore:

H5. Corporate volunteers experience less social anxiety than non-volunteers do, but not less than community volunteers do.

Preferences and volunteer involvement
Issues related to the interests of the company

Many companies are involved in what is known as 'strategic corporate social responsibility' (Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006), in which a company aligns its socially responsible initiatives (including corporate volunteer initiatives) to its core business (Werther and Chandler, 2014). In this case, there some extent of 'fit' between the company's strategy and the mission of the charitable organization (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Porter and Kramer, 2002). Given that corporate volunteering constitutes extra-role behavior performed on behalf of the company, it is logical to expect that employees would consider the interests of the company in their choices concerning the types of volunteering in which they would like to be involved. For example, as argued by affective event theory, employees are likely to have a more favourable attitude towards social issues that are relevant to the organizations in which they work (Muller et al., 2014). Employees who engage in corporate volunteering should therefore be more interested in social issues that are more closely related to the company's core business and thus more relevant to the company. Based on this reasoning, I hypothesize:

H6: Corporate volunteers are more interested in addressing social issues that are associated with their companies than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Characteristics of volunteer assignment

Volunteering (including corporate volunteering) covers a wide range of activities (Marquis et al., 2009; Marquis and Kanter, 2010). Because the activities involved in corporate volunteering take place within the realm of work, the preferences that

corporate volunteers have with regard to volunteer activities might therefore differ from those of community volunteers or non-volunteers. Taken employee volunteering more brpFor example, Nesbit and Gazley (2012) identify differences between the volunteering preferences of community volunteers and those who volunteer in relation to their professions. The volunteer assignments in which individuals volunteering through professional associations engage tend to differ from those of community volunteers. For example, they are more likely to choose volunteer assignments based on their own expertise and skills (Nesbit and Gazley, 2012). In addition, Kutnet and Love (2003) report that one quarter of those who volunteer through the workplace do so alongside their co-workers. This might imply that corporate volunteers prefer activities in which they can work in teams with their colleagues.

H7. Corporate volunteers have more interest in volunteering in teams with their direct or indirect colleagues and/ or in skill-based volunteer opportunities than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Corporate volunteering and organization-related factors
Organizational support

Perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger et al., 1986) refers to a general belief on the part of employees that their work organizations value their contributions and care about their well-being. It is necessary in order to create a supportive work environment, which includes assistance with and consideration for the goals and values of employees. Research has shown that corporate volunteers are likely to perceive their workplaces as being supportive of this type of behavior (Muller et al., 2014). Those not engaged in corporate volunteering might perceive

less support from their employer to participate than those who do participate. I therefore hypothesize:

H8. Corporate volunteers perceive higher organizational support for engaging in corporate volunteering than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Role modelling

Previous studies have classified social support as a stimulus for employees to develop extra-role behaviors (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Social support at work has been identified as having a motivating potential and as being positively associated with engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). As suggested by the literature on volunteering, role models (e.g. peers or parents) increase the likelihood that people will volunteer (Musick and Wilson, 2008). Role model theory thus predicts that individuals should be more likely to volunteer when others in their direct environment exhibit similar behavior. This would imply that employees who engage in corporate volunteering should be likely to notice that their managers, peers and even customers exhibit similar behavior. I therefore hypothesize:

H9: Corporate volunteers experience greater role modelling in the area of corporate volunteering from their managers, colleagues and customers than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.

Methodology
Context
The study is designed as a deductive quantitative investigation to identify characteristics, preferences, attitudes and perceived organizational support amongst three categories of employees: corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers. In order to eliminate the effects of private volunteering in the

corporate volunteer category, I include a fourth category: 'dual volunteers', consisting of employees who volunteer both privately and through the workplace. This makes it possible to create pure categories of workplace volunteers and non-workplace volunteers. The study was conducted in a Dutch-based international company active in the energy sector. In 2010, the company established a corporate foundation and donated an endowment. The mission of the corporate foundation is to increase civic engagement amongst the employees of the company. The foundation pursues this mission by encouraging, facilitating and organizing volunteer activities for the employees of the company.

Procedure

The online questionnaire was distributed on 22 June 2015, followed by two reminders (the last reminder was sent on 6 July). The closing date for data collection was 13 July 2015. The questionnaire was sent by direct email to all of the company's employees in the Netherlands. Given the international character of the pool of employees, the questionnaire was distributed in both Dutch and English. Respondents could choose the language in which they wished to complete the survey. Both the email and the introduction to the questionnaire included information on the aim of the study, the target audience of study and the researcher's contact information for respondents wishing to ask questions or provide feedback. In conformity with standard research ethics, the materials included a statement concerning the voluntary character of participation and a guarantee that the responses would be treated confidentially. In addition, a contract between the company and the university specified that all information gathered within the framework of the study would be treated confidentially and with care at

all times. The questionnaire consisted of 28 items, including questions concerning

the respondent's personal characteristics, attitudes towards corporate volunteering,

volunteer preferences and organizational-related factors relating to corporate

volunteering. The information obtained was used to test the hypotheses outlined in

the previous section.

Sample

In all, the company has 4693 employees, although not all categories of employees

have company email addresses. The email containing the link to the questionnaire

was sent to the 3705 employees with company email addresses; 980 started the

survey, resulting in an initial response rate of 26%. Only 776 employees actually

completed the questionnaire, thus yielding a final response rate of 21%. On

average, respondents took 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The

respondents were tested (T-Test) for representativeness relative to the overall

sample (i.e. the employees of the company) according to two variables (i.e. gender

and age) for which information that is publicly available in the company's 2014

annual report. The comparison revealed no significant difference according to age.

The mean age of the respondents in the sample was 42.9 years, as compared to the

overall mean age of employees was 43.5 ($T(972)=-1.843$; $p>0.05$). The respondents

did differ significantly from the research sample according to gender. Women

comprised 37% of all respondents, as compared to 26% for the research sample as

a whole ($T(978)= 6.675$; $p<0.05$). T

To gain an overview of their overall volunteer profiles, respondents were

asked about their civic engagement in terms of volunteering, both privately and

through their employer. In all, 52% of the employees were active in some type of volunteering (corporate volunteering, community volunteering or both), and 48% were not involved as volunteers.

Variables and measurement
The primary focus of this study is on potential differences between employees who engage in corporate volunteering and those who do not. The dependent variable – 'employee involvement in volunteering' is divided into four categories: 1) corporate volunteers (i.e. those who engage in corporate volunteering); 2) private volunteers (i.e. employees who are involved in volunteering, but not through their employers); 3) non-volunteers (i.e. employees who are not engaged in any type of volunteering); and 4) dual volunteers (i.e. employees who volunteer both privately and through the workplace). The reference category is designated as consisting of 'pure' corporate volunteers.

To address differences between the groups, items were included in the questionnaire to measure several areas of interest. First, items were included to measure the following personal characteristics of employees: gender, age, level of education and household. Because the survey was conducted within a highly specific context (i.e. a company), other items measured several job-related characteristics: job satisfaction (one item, 5-point Likert scale: *To what extent do you feel satisfied with your job?*); type of contract (full-time versus part-time), job level (senior management, middle management, executive/operating staff, administration/support staff) and tenure. For the overall model, it is important to

include job satisfaction, as previous research suggests that this factor could potentially affect any positive outcomes of the survey (see Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Three variables were included to test the attitudes of the respondents: 1) perceptions of the personal benefits of corporate volunteering, 2) the degree to which the respondent would recommend corporate volunteering and 3) overall social anxiety. The first variable was measured according to a three-item semantic differential scale: 'To me, company-supported volunteer activities in the community are 1) pleasant-unpleasant, 2) useful-worthless and 3) satisfying-unsatisfying'. Exploratory factor analysis indicates that all communalities had values greater than 0.500 (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The total variance explained was 84.73%, and the Cronbach's Alpha score (0.907) indicated excellent reliability (0.700-0.800 is acceptable, 0.800–0.900 is good, 0.900–0.950 is excellent; see Kline, 2000). The degree to which respondents would recommend corporate volunteering to others was used to measure overall attitudes regarding corporate volunteer initiatives regardless of participation, as research has shown that people can be positively disposed to corporate volunteering without actually participating in it (Brammer et al., 2007). In this context, I distinguish between recommendations to colleagues, clients, and family and friends. Items were based on a Likert scale. The following is one example: 'To what extent would you recommend the activities of [NAME FOUNDATION] to 1) your friends and family 2) colleagues and 3) clients and others'. Communality values were greater than 0.500, the total variance explained was 79.72% and the Cronbach's Alpha score was 0.914. Finally, social anxiety with regard to volunteering was measured

according to four items (adapted from Robinson et al., 2008) addressing excitement about and avoidance of social situations. The following is an example: 'I avoid activities that make me interact with people whom I do not know'. Factor analysis reveals that the communalities had values greater than 0.500; the total variance explained was 75.87%, and the Cronbach's Alpha score was 0.833.

Employee preferences in volunteering were assessed according to three variables: interest in a social issue (particularly in relation to the company's core business) and characteristics of the volunteer assignment. Interest in the specific social issue most closely related to the core business was measured along a Likert scale representing the extent to which respondents considered the issue important to them, ranging from not important at all to very important. I measured the characteristics of the volunteer assignment by asking respondents to indicate which type of volunteer activity they considered most appealing to them: fundraising, hands-on activities, skill-based volunteering or social activities with beneficiaries. Respondents were also asked about their preferences with regard to types of involvement. More specifically, they were asked if (i.e. whether they would prefer to participate on an individual basis or in groups. Respondents preferring to work in groups were asked about their preferred group composition (e.g. direct colleagues, indirect colleagues, family and friends, employees from other companies).

Two additional variables were included in order to determine the possible influence of factors relating to the organization: perceived role modelling and the perceived level of organizational support for volunteering. To assess role

modelling, adapted a question from a study by Warburton and Terry (2000): 'How likely do you think it is that the following people or groups will participate in company-supported volunteering over the next 12 months?' (the groups consisted of supervisors, colleagues and clients). Responses options were arranged along a five-point Likert scale. Communality values were greater than 0.500, the total variance explained was 54.20% and the Cronbach's Alpha score was 0.713. To measure organizational support for volunteering, respondents were asked to indicate the extent (scale 1-5; ranging from totally not to very much so) to which they felt that their organization encouraged them to participate in volunteering.

Results

Multinomial logistic regression was performed in order to test the nine hypotheses regarding factors that could explain participation (or non-participation) in corporate volunteering, including the employees' personal characteristics, attitudes towards corporate volunteering and volunteer preferences, as well as organization-related factors.

Descriptive results

The descriptive outcomes of variables used in the study are presented in Table 1. In all, 215 respondents indicated that they had engaged in corporate volunteering, while 558 employees had not. Of the 215 employees who had participated in corporate volunteering, 88 respondents had engaged only in corporate volunteering, while the other 127 had been active both privately and through the workplace. Of the 558 employees who had not taken part in corporate volunteering, 184 volunteered only in their private lives, thus leaving 374 non-volunteers (see Figure 2.1).
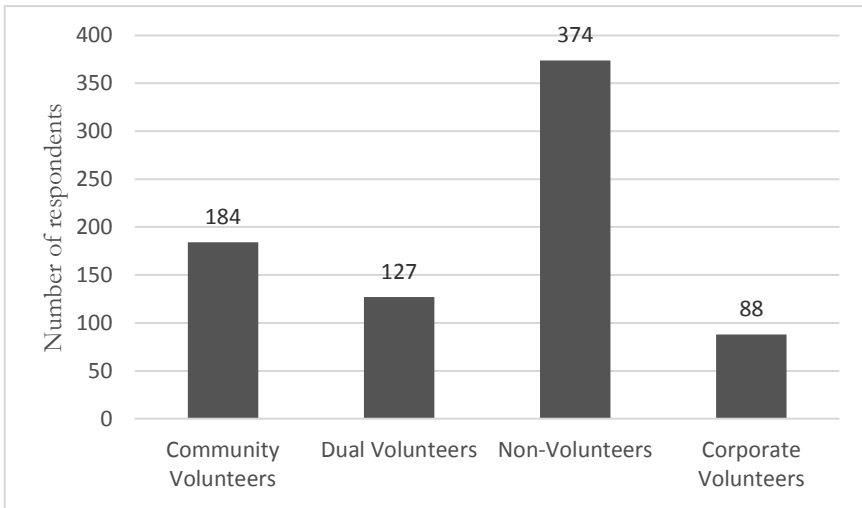
Figure 2.1: Bar chart of groups

Of all respondents in our sample, 63% were men and 37% were women, and the average age was 43 years. Slightly more than half of all respondents (51%) were married or cohabiting and had children; 27% were married or cohabiting, but without children; 5% were single parents; 15% were single with no children, and 3% described their household compositions as 'other'. In addition, 8% of all respondents had part-time contracts, and the average rate of job satisfaction amongst all respondents was 3.99 on a 1–5 scale.

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Sd.
Involvement (dependent variable)	773	1	4	24.735	0.97687
Demographic factors					
Household composition	771	1	4	31.984	105.722
Gender (0=male)	776	0	1	0.37	---
Education	765	1	3	19.373	---
Age	775	21	65	430.387	1.022.479
Job-related characteristics					
Type of contract	776	0	1	0.9188	---
Tenure	767	0.08	48	113.545	973.792
Job level	774	1	5	22.196	---
Job satisfaction	773	1	5	3.99	0.802
Valid	687				

Table 2.1: Descriptive statistics.

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Sd.
Volunteer preferences					
Issue related to core business	736	1	5	3.86	0.923
Activity: fundraising and campaigns	776	0	1	0.14	---
Activity: hands-on activities	776	0	1	0.54	---
Activity: skill-based volunteering	776	0	1	0.44	---
Activity: social activities	776	0	1	0.54	---
Activity: employee matching	776	0	1	0.13	---
Involvement: individual volunteering	776	0	1	0.3	---
Involvement: group-based volunteering with direct colleagues	776	0	1	0.62	---
Involvement: group-based volunteering with indirect colleagues	776	0	1	0.59	---
Involvement: group-based volunteering with employees of other companies	776	0	1	0.35	---
Organization-related factors					
Supportive organizational context	772	1	5	2.86	1.214
Role modelling	776	1	5	25	0.84041
Attitude towards corporate volunteering					
Satisfaction	773	1	5	29.851	104.409
Personal benefits	767	1	5	37.353	0.88401
Anxiety	770	1	5	17.589	0.85336
Valid N (listwise)	687				

Table 2.1: continued

Multinomial logistic regression model

The results of the multinomial logistic regression model based on 1) personal characteristics, 2) attitudes, 3) volunteer preferences and 4) organization-related factors are displayed in Table 2. The chi-square value for the overall model is 404.527 (p<0.00); the goodness-of-fit indicator is significant (p<0.01), and the r^2 (Nagelkerke) value of 0.483 can be considered sufficient (Cohen, 1988). I used list-wise deletion to deal with missing values.

The results in Table 2 indicate that, as predicted in H1, the demographic characteristics of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers. According to our data, the educational level of community volunteers was significantly lower (p<0.01) than that of corporate volunteers. Community volunteers tended to be older than corporate volunteers (p<0.05), while corporate volunteers were more likely to be married and to have children (p<0.05). The data further reveal that non-volunteers were less educated than corporate volunteers were, although they did not differ according to any of the other demographic variables included. There were no significant differences between corporate volunteers and those who engaged in both corporate volunteering and community volunteering (dual volunteers). Given that corporate volunteers differed according to some but not all of the demographic characteristics, and given the difference between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers with regard to educational level, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the job-related characteristics of corporate volunteers would differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers.

The data reveal no significant differences between the groups, however, and H2 must therefore be rejected. Hypotheses 3–5 predict attitudinal differences between corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers. The data support H3 ($p < 0.01$), which predicts that corporate volunteers are more likely to have positive perceptions regarding the personal benefits of corporate volunteering than are community volunteers and non-volunteers. The results provide only partial support for H4, which predicts that corporate volunteers are more likely to have positive perceptions of corporate volunteering than are community volunteers and non-volunteers. The only significant difference was observed between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers ($p < 0.01$). There was no support for H5, which predicts that corporate volunteers are less likely to be anxious about volunteering than non-volunteers are, but not less anxious than community volunteers. According to the results, the corporate volunteers responding to this survey experienced less anxiety than community volunteers did, but that they did not differ in this respect from non-volunteers.

Hypotheses 6 and 7 predict that the preferences of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers. With regard to H6, which predicts that corporate volunteers are more interested in issues relating to the interests and core business of the company than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers, the data reveal no differences between corporate volunteers and community volunteers, with only marginal differences between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers ($p < 0.10$). These results provide only weak and partial support for this hypothesis. With regard to H7, which concerns

differences in preferences for volunteer involvement, the analysis indicates that the

community volunteers in this study were significantly more likely than corporate

volunteers were (p<0.01) to engage in employee matching programs. They were

also significantly more likely than corporate volunteers were (p<0.05) to engage in

individual volunteering, although corporate volunteers were marginally more

interested than non-volunteers were (p<0.10) in social activities. The results thus

provide partial support for H7.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 concern differences in organizational support and

role modelling. The data confirm that the corporate volunteers in this study were

more likely than community volunteers and non-volunteers were (p<0.01) to feel

that the organization supported their engagement in volunteering (p<0.01). The

results nevertheless reveal no indication that role modelling affects the decision to

engage in corporate volunteering, as there were no significant differences between

the groups. Hypothesis 9 is therefore rejected.

Variables	Corporate Volunteers/Community Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Non-Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Dual Volunteers		
	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)
Intercept	4.853	1.663		8.647	1.573		-2.484	1.741	
Demographics									
Male	0.372	0.335	1.451	0.028	0.304	1.028	0.375	0.33	1.456
Female	0^b			0^b			0^b		
Community College	1.332	0.452	3.788***	0.92	0.416	2.510**	0.518	0.457	1.679
Bachelor's Degree	0.292	0.374	1.339	-0.138	0.334	0.871	-0.06	0.377	0.942
Master's Degree	0^b			0^b			0^b		
Age	0.042	0.019	1.043**	0.02	0.018	1.020	0.03	0.02	1.031
Reference category is indicated as 0^b									
* Significant p<0.10, ** Significant p<0.05, *** Significant p<0.01									

Figure 2.2: Outcomes of the multinomial logistic regression analysis

Variables	Corporate Volunteers/Community Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Non-Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Dual Volunteers		
	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)
Single, no children (household)	-0.427	0.455	0.653	-0.518	0.423	0.596	0.524	0.456	1.689
Single, with children (household)	-1.007	0.696	0.365	-0.57	0.614	0.566	0.286	0.603	1.331
Married/cohabiting / married, no children (household)	-0.722	0.368	0.486**	-0.169	0.333	0.845	-0.054	0.375	0.947
Married/cohabiting, with children (household)	0[b]			0[b]			0[b]		
Job-related characteristics									
Part-time employment	1.076	0.69	2.934	0.209	0.689	1.232	0.771	0.72	2.161
Full-time employment	0[b]			0[b]			0[b]		
Tenure	-0.009	0.021	0.991	-0.004	0.02	0.996	-0.007	0.021	0.993
Job Satisfaction	0.135	0.203	1.144	-0.04	0.185	0.961	-0.107	0.213	0.898

* Significant p<0.10, ** Significant p<0.05, *** Significant p<0.01

Reference category is indicated as 0[b]

Table 2.2. continued

Table 2.2. continued

Variables	Corporate Volunteers / Community Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers / Non-Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers / Dual Volunteers		
	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)
Volunteer preferences									
Issue related to the core business	-0.275	0.177	0.759	-0.298	0.166	0.742*	-0.49	0.179	0.612***
Activity: fundraising and campaigns	-0.196	0.436	0.822	0.037	0.396	1.038	-0.261	0.425	0.771
Activity: hands-on	-0.2	0.328	0.819	-0.365	0.305	0.694	-0.163	0.335	0.849
Activity: skill-based volunteering	0.221	0.328	1.248	-0.009	0.305	0.991	-0.117	0.334	0.89
Activity: social activities	-0.263	0.349	0.769	-0.602	0.323	0.548*	0.049	0.387	1.050
Activity: employee matching	1.503	0.501	4.494***	-0.568	0.542	0.567	1.339	0.513	3.814***
Reference category is indicated as 0[b]									

* Significant $p < 0.10$, ** Significant $p < 0.05$, *** Significant $p < 0.01$

Variables	Corporate Volunteers/Community Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Non-Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/ Dual Volunteers		
	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)
Involvement: individual volunteering	0.71	0.332	2.034**	0.015	0.316	1.015	-0.13	0.348	0.878
Involvement: group-based with direct colleagues	-0.107	0.343	0.899	0.165	0.321	1.179	-0.079	0.361	0.924
Involvement: group-based with indirect colleagues	-0.056	0.363	0.945	0.049	0.335	1.050	-0.175	0.376	0.84
Involvement: group-based with employees of other companies	0.049	0.333	1.050	0.067	0.307	1.070	0.333	0.333	1.395
Organization-related factors									
Role modelling	0.008	0.223	1.008	-0.88	0.207	0.916	0.397	0.233	1.487
Supportive organizational context	-0.413	0.151	0.661***	-0.298	0.141	0.742**	-0.074	0.156	0.929

Reference category is indicated as 0[b]

* Significant p<0.10, ** Significant p<0.05, *** Significant p<0.01

Table 2.2. continued

Variables	Corporate Volunteers/Community Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Non-Volunteers			Corporate Volunteers/Dual Volunteers		
	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)	B	SE	Exp(B)
Attitude towards Corporate Volunteering									
Personal benefits	-0.79	0.23	0.454***	-0.8	0.213	0.449***	0.702	0.256	2.018
Satisfaction	-0.263	0.205	0.769	-0.716	0.193	0.489***	0.006	0.213	1.006
Anxiety	-0.445	0.201	0.641**	0.064	0.181	1.066	-0.197	0.208	0.821

* Significant p<0.10, ** Significant p<0.05, *** Significant p<0.01

Reference category is indicated as 0[b]

Table 2.2. continued

Conclusions

This study was designed to identify who engages in corporate volunteering by testing how corporate volunteers differ from those who volunteer privately and from non-volunteers. The results provide partial conformation for my predictions that the personal characteristics, attitudes, volunteer preferences and organization-related factors of individuals who engage in corporate volunteering differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers (see also table 3). The data provide support for two of the nine hypotheses, with partial support for three hypotheses and no support for four hypotheses. In general, the results reveal only a few differences between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers, with the greatest differences observed between corporate volunteers and community volunteers. These results are likely to constitute the most important contributions of this study, as well as the most fruitful avenues for future research.

Hypotheses	Result
H1. The demographic characteristics of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers, but not from those of non-volunteers.	*
H2. The job-related characteristics of corporate volunteers differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers.	-
H3. Corporate volunteers are more likely to have positive perceptions of the personal benefits of corporate volunteering than are community volunteers and non-volunteers.	+
H4. Corporate volunteers perceive corporate volunteering more positively than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.	*
H5. Corporate volunteers experience less social anxiety than non-volunteers do, but not less than community volunteers do.	-
H6. Corporate volunteers are more interested in addressing social issues that are associated with their companies than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers.	*
H7. Corporate volunteers have more interest in volunteering in teams with their direct or indirect colleagues and/or in skill-based volunteer opportunities than is the case for community volunteers and non-volunteers.	-
H8. Corporate volunteers perceive higher organizational support for engaging in corporate volunteering than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.	+
H9. Corporate volunteers experience greater role modelling in the area of corporate volunteering from their managers, colleagues and customers than do community volunteers and non-volunteers.	-

+ is accepted, - is rejected and ∗ is partially accepted

Table 2.3: overview of outcomes

With regard to demographic differences, corporate volunteers appear to be more highly educated than community volunteers are. This result is somewhat surprising, given the context of the Netherlands (in which the study took place), where previous studies have indicated that people who volunteer tend to be more highly educated (Dekker and De Hart, 2009). Another study in a company in the Netherlands revealed no differences between corporate volunteers and community volunteers with regard to educational level (De Gilder et al., 2005). Given that corporate volunteering is a more non-traditional form of volunteering, it is not surprising that the average age of corporate volunteers in the current study was slightly younger than was the case for community volunteers, as younger people tend to be attracted to more non-traditional forms of volunteering (Hustinx et al., 2011). Other studies, however, have revealed no age differences between corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers (De Gilder et al., 2005). Our results suggest that corporate volunteers are more likely than community volunteers are to have partners and no children. This result is also surprising in light of a previous study, which concludes that there are no differences in household composition between corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers (De Gilder et al., 2005). This difference might be explained by economic theory, which suggests that people who have more time available are more likely to give (Musick and Wilson, 2008). In this case, employees with no children need less time for their families, thus possibly having more time (i.e. resources) available for corporate volunteering. In addition, resource theory would argue that couples with children often volunteer in environments directly associated with their children

(Musick and Wilson, 2008), thus possibly making community volunteers less likely to volunteer through their workplaces, due to commitments elsewhere.

The outcomes concerning job-related characteristics provide no support for my expectation that the corporate context would influence volunteer behavior through the workplace. For the employees in this sample, longer tenure nor job satisfaction did not contribute to either engagement. This result is in contrast to findings reported in studies on other types of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ and Ryan, 1995). The data also provide no support for the hypothesis that full-time employment increases the likelihood of being attracted to corporate volunteering (i.e. that community volunteers would be more attractive to employees with part-time contracts).

With regard to organization-related factors (as measured by role modelling and perceived organizational support), the data reveal no significant differences between corporate volunteers and the other groups with regard to role modelling. The finding that role modelling apparently does not influence the decision to become engaged in corporate volunteering is surprising, given that role-modelling theory is often advanced as an explanation in the volunteering literature (Musick and Wilson, 2008). Nonetheless, I need to note that I did not measure actual current or actual past behavior of peers, colleagues and customers. Rather, I used the expectations of the respondents to which they expect others to participate in corporate volunteering. The data do reveal differences between corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers with regard to perceived organizational support, however, with corporate volunteers being more likely to feel

that their organizations provide them with a context within which to become engaged. The corporate volunteers in this sample thus experienced a greater degree of organizational support than did either community volunteers or non-volunteers. This finding suggests that the perception that the employer is supportive of engagement could play an important role in encouraging employees to start volunteering.

In this sample, the perceptions that corporate volunteers had of corporate volunteer were no more positive than were those of community volunteers, although they did differ from those of non-volunteers. This finding is partly consistent with previous research, which has demonstrated that corporate volunteers tend to be more positively disposed towards corporate volunteering programs than are community volunteers and non-volunteers. In the current study, the perceptions that community volunteers and corporate volunteers had of corporate volunteering were equally positive. Nevertheless, the corporate volunteers apparently did have a different view of the potential gains to be realized by engaging in corporate volunteering. More specifically, corporate volunteers perceived that they had much more to gain from participation than was the case for either community volunteers or non-volunteers. This finding might be due to the fact that corporate volunteers had experience with volunteering through the workplace and might thus have vivid recollections of the actual gains. In this case, the anticipated personal benefits might be less than the actual perceived benefits. Nonetheless, this is important information to corporate volunteer managers as organizations can use

this to motivate people to engage in corporate volunteering by clearly outlining the benefits for participants.

The data provide no support for the hypotheses that corporate volunteers feel less anxious about volunteering than non-volunteers do, while not differing from community volunteers in this regard. The findings reveal an opposite outcome: in this sample, the level of anxiety experienced by corporate volunteers did not differ from that of non-volunteers, although it was lower than that of community volunteers. This result is quite surprising in light of previous studies, which report that non-volunteers experience greater social anxiety than volunteers do (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). Future research could examine the possible influences of context on this type of anxiety.

Volunteer preferences did not differ in the way I had anticipated. Corporate volunteers are not more likely than community volunteers to pursue volunteer activities related to the core business, but are a bit more likely to so than non-volunteers. This might imply that employees attracted (solely) to corporate volunteering might perceive this is (desired) extra role behavior (see Van Dyne and LePine, 1998) and are willing to go the extra mile for the organization. At least, they might associate corporate volunteering with their employer and their responsibilities at work. Not hypothesized, but corporate volunteers are less likely to engage in individual volunteer assignments than community volunteers. Although they are not more interested in group volunteering as a corporate volunteer activity than community or non-volunteers, this might suggest that corporate volunteers would prefer volunteering in groups as we did specifically ask about the corporate

volunteer preferences, not general volunteer preferences. If community volunteers would participate in corporate volunteering they are as likely as corporate volunteers to engage in group volunteer activities. However, they would be more likely to engage in employee matching programs and individual volunteering than corporate volunteers.

An important note has to be made on the assumption of causality in my research. My data analysis does not allow to draw any firm conclusions on the causality of the relationship I propose. I assume in my hypothesis and the data interpretation that the causality is from the identified independent variables (characteristics, attitudes, preferences) to the dependent variable (type of volunteering). However, I am aware that the causality could also be reversed (e.g. participating corporate volunteering could influence attitudes about corporate volunteering).

In conclusion, although there are important similarities between employees engaged in community volunteering and those engaged in corporate volunteering, many assumptions that could be made about the characteristics, attitudes and preferences of community volunteers cannot simply be projected onto context of the workplace. The results of this study thus contribute to the available knowledge by providing deep insight into the ways in which different types of people are attracted to different types of volunteer involvement. More specifically, this study demonstrates that, as a specific category, corporate volunteers who differ from community volunteers in many respects, while exhibiting fewer differences from non-volunteers. These findings provide empirical evidence that companies can

act as third parties to expand the overall pool of volunteers available to benefit non-profit organizations and civil society (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Meijs et al., 2009).

Implications

The results of this study relate to previous research on re-embedding volunteering and third-party involvement in volunteering. The finding that corporate volunteers differ more from community volunteers than they do from non-volunteers might be due to normative and organizational pressure within companies to start engaging in volunteering (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). The ability of corporate volunteering to attract different types of individuals might be explained by the tendency of companies either to require their employees to volunteer or to enable them to volunteer. For example, one could question the extent to which social teambuilding activities organized by departments (and, ultimately, by managers) truly constitute discretionary behavior on the part of the employee (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Because it is difficult for employees to decline an invitation to the annual corporate or departmental outing, such practices could be regarded as a form of coercion to take part in volunteering. Such pressure could be one reason why individuals who are not involved in the community start volunteering through the workplace. In addition, companies are able to eliminate some of the barriers that could impede individuals from volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Hustinx and Meijs, 2011; see also Chapter 3). For example, companies can organize volunteer opportunities, colleagues can solicit peers and companies can provide time off to volunteer. The finding that not everyone engages in corporate volunteering (558 did

not participate in corporate volunteering; 215 employees did participate in the program) suggests that these functions are limited as well. In future research, it would be interesting to explore the enabling and enforcing functions of companies (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Companies have an interest in having their employees engage in corporate volunteering, as participation in such programs has been shown to benefit the relationship between the employee and the organization (see also Chapters 4 and 5).

From the perspective of employee engagement in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR, which is the central theme of this dissertation), the results of this study do not justify the conclusion that employees who engage in volunteering through the workplace differ from those who do not (participants versus non-participants in corporate volunteering). From this perspective, employee participation in CSR appears to be somewhat more complex, particularly in the case of corporate volunteering. The ability to explain the various processes/forms of CSR engagement apparently requires identifying the ways in which people are involved in volunteering. In this regard, scholars should consider the differences and similarities between those individuals who are active in CSR programs and those who are either active or uninvolved in the community, thereby addressing possible enabling or enforcing mechanisms on the part of companies.

The results of this study also suggest that it might not be appropriate simply to project the insights of volunteering theory onto the context of the workplace. For example, although corporate volunteering often takes the form of short-term volunteer commitments in non-profit organizations (also conceptualized as episodic volunteering), the employees continue as members of the company.

Even if the non-profit organization does not ever see an employee again after the volunteer assignment, the employee remains active in the company. This situation might have implications for corporate volunteer managers within the company, as well as for the relationship between employees and the company, and between employees and their colleagues (see Chapters 6 and 7). Given the need for caution in applying the volunteering literature to the corporate context, I combine insights from the literatures on CSR (including employee engagement) and on volunteering throughout this dissertation (and particularly in Chapters 3, 4 and 5).

From the perspective of the non-profit and volunteer literatures, the findings of this study tentatively suggest that current volunteer theory may not be applicable to the case of volunteering through the workplace, possibly indicating that corporate volunteers potentially should be regarded as a different 'species' of volunteers. In particular, the data suggest that there are no simple conclusions regarding differences between volunteers (either corporate or community) and non-volunteers, given the few differences identified between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers. On the contrary, there are many differences between the pure types of volunteers. As such, this study highlights the need to go beyond simply comparing volunteers to non-volunteers, in order to investigate the possibility that different pathways to volunteering might influence the likelihood of particular types of individuals to engage.

For scholars of volunteering, this study provides further evidence of the need to investigate possible differences in the volunteering literature (including models of volunteer management models; see Meijs et al., 2009), given the presence of differences between basic assumptions (e.g. regarding demographic

characteristics, preferences and attitudes) concerning corporate volunteers and community volunteers. Proceeding from the assumption that corporate volunteers constitute a distinct type of volunteers, Chapters 6 and 7 are devoted to the implications of involving such volunteers.

The results of this study identify perceived organizational support as an important factor in attracting employees to volunteering. This finding implies that future studies should investigate ways in which companies could serve as catalysts for civic engagement amongst their employees. In other words, future research should examine the role of the workplace as a soliciting organization for volunteering. Chapters 3 and 4 report on conceptual efforts to this end.

Although findings of this study highlight interesting differences between corporate volunteers and those who do not engage in such behavior through the workplace, it is important to note that the outcomes are highly specific to the context of the organization in which the study was conducted. For this reason, the conclusions drawn here cannot be generalized to other contexts. Researchers with similar questions or interests are therefore cautioned against generalizing these findings and encouraged to test them in different contexts and samples. Despite the limitations of this study, its findings offer tentative justification for exploring the questions raised in the remaining chapters of this dissertation.

References
Adler, R.P. & Goggin, J. (2005). What do we mean by 'civic engagement'? *Journal of Transformative Education, 3*(3), 236-253.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl, & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Springer: Heidelberg.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands–resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*, 309–328.

Basil, D.B., Runte, M.S., Easwaramoorthy, M. & Barr, C. (2009). Company Support for Employee Volunteering: A National Survey of Companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics, 85*(2), 387–398.

Basil, D., Runte, M., Basil, M. & Usher, J. (2011). Company support for employee volunteerism: does size matter? *Journal of Business Research*, *64*(1), 61-66.

Bateman, T. & Organ, D. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee citizenship. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*, 586-595.

Bekkers, R. & Wiepking, P. (2011). Who gives? A literature review of predictors of charitable giving part one: religion, education, age and socialisation. *Voluntary Sector Review, 2*(3), 337-365.

Brammer, S., Millington, A. & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 18*(10), 1701-1719.

Brewis, G. (2004). Beyond banking: Lessons from an impact evaluation of employee volunteerism at Barclays Bank. *Voluntary Action, 6*(3), 13-25.

Brudney, J. L., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). It ain't natural: Toward a new (natural) resource conceptualization for volunteer management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *38*(4), 564-581.

Brudney, J.L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Models of Volunteer Management: Professional Volunteer Program Management in Social Work. *Human Service Organizations Management, Leadership & Governance, 38*(3), 297-309.

Bussell, H. & Forbes, D. (2008). How UK universities engage with their local communities: A study of employer supported volunteering. *International Journal of Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 13*, 363-378.

Caliguiri, P., Mencin, A. & Jiang, K. (2013). Win-Win-Win: The Influence of Company-Sponsored Volunteerism Programs on Employees, NGOs, and Business Units. *Personell Psychology, 66,* 825-860.

CBS (2015). *Sociale samenhang 2015. Wat ons bindt en verdeelt.* Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Den Haag, Nederland.

De Botton, A. (2008). *Status anxiety.* Random House LLC, New York, NY.

De Gilder, T. C. de, Schuyt, T. N. M., & Breedijk, M. (2005). Effects of an employee volunteering program on the work force: The ABN-AMRO case. *Journal of Business Ethics, 61*(2), 143-152.

Dekker P., & De Hart, J. (2009). *Vrijwilligerswerk in meervoud. Civil society en vrijwilligerswerk 5* [Volunteering in the plural form: Civil society and volunteering 5]. The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research (SCP).

Eisenberger, R., Hungtington, R., Hutchison, S. & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 500-507.

Gazley, B., Littlepage, L. & Bennett, T.A. (2012). What about the host agency? Nonprofit perspectives on community-based student learning and volunteering. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 41*(6), 1029-1050.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J.E. & Rosso, B. D., (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(5), 898-918.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(4), 589-615.

Handy, F., & Cnaan, R. A. (2007). The role of social anxiety in volunteering. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, *18*(1), 41-58.

Haski-Leventhal, D., Meijs, L. C., & Hustinx, L. (2010). The third-party model: Enhancing volunteering through governments, corporations and educational institutes. *Journal of Social Policy, 39*(1), 139-158.

Houghton, S. M., Gabel, J.T.A. & Williams, D.A. (2009). Connecting the two faces of CSR: Does employee volunteerism improve compliance? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*(4), 477-494.

Hustinx, L., & Lammertyn, F. (2003). Collective and reflexive styles of volunteering: A sociological modernization perspective. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 14*(2), 167-187.

Hustinx, L., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2011). Re-embedding volunteerism: In search of a new collective ground. *Voluntary Sector Review*, *2*(1), 5-21.

Hustinx, L. Meijs, L.C.P.M., Handy, F., & Cnaan, R. (2011). Repertoires of civic participation among university students. *Youth & Society, 44*(1), 95-117.

Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, *31*(2), 386-408.

Lee, L. (2011) Corporate volunteering: Understanding business implementation issues. *International Journal of Business Environment, 4*(2), 162-182.

Luo, X. & Bhattacharaya, C.B. (2006). Corporate Social Responsibility, customer satisfaction and market value. *Journal of Marketing, 70*(4), 1-18.

Kline, P. (2000). The handbook of psychological testing (2nd ed.). Routledge: London.

Krasnapolskaya, I., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). The relationship between corporate volunteering and employee civic engagement outside the workplace in Russia. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, Online first,* 1-33.

Kutner, G., & Love, J. (2003). *Time and money: An in-depth look at 45+ volunteers and donors: Findings from a multicultural survey of Americans 45 and older.* American Association of Retired Persons: Washington, DC.

Madison, T.F., Ward, S. & Royalty, K. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment and employer-sponsored volunteering. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3*(1), 1-14.

Marquis, C. & Kanter, R. (2010). *IBM: The Corporate Service Corps. HBS Case 409-106*, Harvard Business School: Boston, MA.

Marquis, C., Rangan, V. K., & Comings, A. (2009). *PNC financial: Grow up great. HBS Case 409-108*, Harvard Business School: Boston, MA.

Meijs L.C.P.M., Tschirhart M., Ten Hoorn E.M. & Brudney J.L. (2009). Effect of design elements for corporate volunteer programs on volunteerability. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 26*(1), 23-32.

Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Van der Voort, J.M. (2004). Reviewing partnerships: A developmental perspective of profit-nonprofit partnerships. *Journal of Volunteer Administration, 22*(3), 40-45.

Mook, L., Handy, F., Ginieniewicz, J. & Quarter, J. (2007). Volunteering in professional organizations: The case of ARNOVA. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 36*(3), 504-520.

Mowday, R. T., & Sutton, R. I. (1993). Organizational behavior: Linking individuals and groups to organizational contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology,* 44, 195–229.

Muller, A.R., Pfarrer, M.D. & Little, L.M. (2014). A theory of collective empathy in corporate philanthropy decisions. *Academy of Management Review*, *39*(1), 1-21.

Musick, M. A. & Wilson, J. (2008). *Volunteers: A social profile*. Indiana University Press, Bloomington.

Nesbit, R. & Gazley, B. (2012). Patterns of volunteer activity in professional associations and societies. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, *23*(3), 558-583.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.

Organ, D.W. & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive vs affective determinants of organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 157-164.

Organ, D.W. & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction and organizational citizenship Behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *135*, 339-350.

Organ, D.W. & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(4), 775-802.

Organ, D.W. (1997). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 85-97.

Pajo K & Lee, L. (2011). Corporate-sponsored volunteering: A work design perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 99(3), 467-482.

Peterson, D.K. (2004). Recruitment strategies for encouraging participation in corporate volunteer programs. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *49*(4), 371-386.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, *26*, 513-563.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 879-903.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M.R. (2002). The competitive advantage of corporate philanthropy. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(12), 56-69.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and society: The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review, 84*(4), 78-92.

Raffaelli, R. and Glynn, M.A. (2014), Turnkey or tailored? Relational pluralism, institutional complexity, and the organizational adoption of more or less customized practices. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(2), 541-562.

Robinson, N.G., Masser, B.M., White, K.M., Hyde, M.K., & Terry, D.J. (2008). Predicting intentions to donate blood among non-donors in Australia: an extended theory of planned behaviour. *Transfusion, 48*(12), 2559-2567.

Rodell, J.B. (2013). Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(5), 1274-1294.

Rodell, J.B. & Lynch, J. (2015). Perceptions of employee volunteering: Is it "credited" or "stigmatized" by colleagues? *Academy of Management Journal*, *Online first*, 1-65.

Rodell, J.B., Breitsohl, H., Schroder, M. & Keiting, D.J. (2015). Employee volunteering. A review and framework for future research. *Journal of Management*, *Online first*, 1-38.

Rupp, D.E., Ganapathi, J., Aguilera, R.V. & Williams, C.A. (2006). Employee reactions to corporate social responsibility: an organizational justice framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*, 537-543.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293–315.

Schauferli, W.B., Bakker, A.B. & Van Rhenen, W. (2009). How changes in job demands and resources predict burnout, work engagement and sickness absenteeism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(7), 893-917.

Sen, S. & Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research, 38*(2), 225-243.

Snell, R. S., & Wong, Y. L. (2007). Differentiating good soldiers from good actors. *Journal of Management Studies*, *44*(6), 883–909.

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2001). Principal components and factor analysis. In: *Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed., pp. 582–633). Allyn & Bacon: Needham Heights, MA.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2009). Volunteering in the United States, 2008. http://www.bls.gov/news.release/volun.nr0.htm.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010). Volunteering in the United States, 2009. http://www.bls.gov/news.release/volun.nr0.htm.

Van den Bos, C.M. (2014). *Using volunteering infrastructure to build civil society*. Published dissertation at Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K. & Meijs L.C.P.M (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics, 90*(3), 311-329.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 765–802.

Van Schie, S., Guentert, S.T., & Wehner, T. (2011). No corporate volunteering without volunteers. *International Journal of Business Environment*, *4*(2), 121-132.

Warburton, J., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Volunteer decision making by older people: A test of a revised theory of planned behavior. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 22,* 245-257.

Werther, W. B., & Chandler, D. (2014). *Strategic CSR*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zapala, G., & McLaren, J. (2004). A functional approach to employee volunteering: an exploratory study. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 9*(1), 41-54.

CHAPTER 3: CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AS PLANNED BEHAVIOR: INDIVIDUAL LEVEL BARRIERS AND ORGANIZATIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY BEHAVIOR[10]

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to explain why employees do not participate in corporate social responsibility and how organizations can intervene to stimulate employee participation. Given the numerous benefits of corporate social responsibility programs to the company, the employee, and society, many managers are facing internal and external pressure to increase employee participation. Drawing on the theory of planned behavior, augmented by existing literature on personal charitable giving behavior and corporate social responsibility, we detail five potential individual barriers to participation in such programs: perceived lack of behavioral control, lack of subjective norms, negative attitudes, lack of past experience/habits, and anxiety. We offer five organizational interventions for addressing these individual barriers and increasing participation in corporate social responsibility programs: organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and corporate social responsibility program design. We argue that variety in employee-participation opportunities and a supportive internal context have the greatest potential to increase employee participation in corporate social responsibility. We conclude the article with

---

[10] This chapter co-authored by Dr. Debbie Haski-Leventhal and Dr. Lucas Meijs (supervisor).

five suggestions that practitioners can implement to realize the greatest benefit from corporate social responsibility.

Introduction

Companies are increasingly allocating resources to corporate social responsibility (see Campbell et al., 2002). For example, a study by the Charity Aid Foundation (2014) shows an increase in corporate giving since 2007. In addition, research among 261 international companies confirms that a majority of these companies (64%) had increased their total community contributions between 2010 and 2013 (CECP, 2014). In this article, we conceptualize corporate social responsibility as corporate behavior in which money, time, products, services, and other resources are provided to support the community. In this view, corporate social responsibility focuses primarily on community affairs through charitable giving and employee volunteering (Wood and Logsdon, 2001). The increasing urgency of corporate social responsibility is being stimulated by several factors, including the changing role of companies in social issues and a widely held belief among consumers, employees, and other stakeholders that corporate social responsibility should be regarded as part of overall business performance. Academic research has demonstrated that participation in and favorable perceptions of corporate social responsibility programs can generate positive organizational outcomes (for recent reviews, see Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2015). For example, engaging in corporate social responsibility has been shown to improve a company's image and reputation, thereby affecting consumer preferences and buying behavior (Maignan et al., 1999). It also yields several HR advantages, including enhancing the willingness of employees to speak highly of their employers (Peloza and Hassay, 2006), their identification with the company (Upham,

2006), the development of their skills (Madison et al., 2012), organizational socialization (Rupp et al., 2013) and job performance (Rodell, 2013).

Given the numerous benefits offered by corporate social responsibility programs, many managers are facing pressure to increase employee participation in such activities (Peterson, 2004). Despite their efforts to organize effective programs, employee participation tends to be limited, and many companies are struggling to increase the number of participants (Peterson, 2004; Van der Voort et al., 2009; Zapala and McLaren, 2004). We define employee participation in corporate social responsibility as the voluntary, active involvement of employees in the corporate social responsibility efforts of their employers, either by responding to such corporate initiatives or by assisting in their development. In this conceptualization, employee participation in a corporate social responsibility program is at least recognized by the company and perceived as the employee supporting the effective functioning of the company. It need not be an explicit part of the formal reward system, however, as it remains discretionary behavior.

The discretionary character of employee participation in corporate social responsibility means that it is neither enforceable by the company nor part of the job description. It is nevertheless part of the desired extra-role behavior, which is a matter of personal choice. In line with the concept of organizational citizenship behavior (see Organ, 1988), refraining from such behavior is not regarded as punishable. This voluntary characteristic of corporate social responsibility behavior could nevertheless pose a challenge to achieving high participation rates. The theory of planned behavior identifies several factors that influence intentions and actual behavior, including

perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and attitudes (these are described below; see Ajzen, 1991). These factors can also be used to increase employee corporate social responsibility behavior among those who have previously refrained from participating. These insights can be supplemented by the literature on charitable giving, which examines individual barriers to charitable giving. We are therefore convinced that awareness of individual barriers that employees might face could help managers to steer the intentions of their employees, thereby encouraging the desired behavior (e.g., participation in corporate social responsibility).

In addition to being of interest to corporate social responsibility managers, this topic is relevant to the academic community. While corporate social responsibility at the organizational and institutional levels has been the subject of considerable investigation, the individual (i.e., micro) level has yet to receive sufficient attention (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Morgeson, et al., 2013). A large body of academic literature on corporate social responsibility has focused on the positive outcomes of employee participation in such activities or on the perception of such programs as organizational commitment, enhanced reputation, and profitability (for reviews, see Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Peloza and Shang, 2011). The ability of organizations to benefit from these outcomes, however, depends on their individual employees and their intentions to participate (Collier and Estaban, 2007). McShane and Cunningham (2012) stress the key roles of employees as ambassadors for and enactors of corporate social responsibility. However, not all employees are equally likely to engage (Rodrigo and Arenas 2008). This manuscript therefore focuses on these two important observations in the literature, with the goal of

enhancing our understanding of the engagement of employees in corporate social responsibility.

Scholars have called for further investigation of mechanisms that affect decisions to participate, stressing the importance of understanding employee needs with regard to corporate social responsibility (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Collier and Estaban, 2007; Grant, 2012; Peterson, 2004; Zapala and McLaren, 2004). To date, however, very few studies have examined the determinants of employee participation in corporate social responsibility. Notable exceptions include studies focusing on theories of motivation and the relationship between motivation and the intention to engage in corporate volunteering (see Peterson, 2004; Zapala and McLaren, 2004). This focus on individual factors (motivations) related to corporate volunteering has been criticized as theoretical and lacking a balanced consideration of internal motives and external influences (Greenslade and White, 2005), such as the organizational context. Taking the literature on the theory of planned behavior and planned giving as our primary conceptual foundation, we address this gap in the literature discussing individual factors that prevent employees from participating in corporate social responsibility. We also apply concepts from the literature on organizational behavior (e.g., organizational culture and leadership) to suggest organizational interventions that could help employees overcome individual barriers. This article thus contributes to the current literature on corporate social responsibility by identifying barriers to participation and suggesting potentially suitable organizational interventions.

We begin this article by explaining our focus on corporate social responsibility and employee participation in such efforts. In the second section, we

discuss a number of individual-level barriers that could impede employee participation in corporate social responsibility. The third section identifies organizational interventions that could affect these individual factors and that could potentially be used to encourage, stimulate, and motivate employees to become involved in corporate social responsibility. The article ends with a discussion of our conclusions and their implications for practitioners and academics in the field of corporate social responsibility, in addition to suggesting avenues for future research.

The role of companies and their employees in corporate social responsibility
Within the context of corporate social responsibility, employees and companies are mutually dependent. Although the equality of this relationship has yet to be examined in the existing literature, we do know that companies need employees in the development and implementation of their corporate social responsibility efforts, while employees need corporate support to engage in corporate social responsibility (Christensen et al., 2014; Collier and Estaban, 2007; Peterson, 2004; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2007). Without the corporate context and support, the donations or volunteering of employees would simply belong to the realm of private citizenship (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Employee participation in corporate social responsibility (and the lack thereof) is relevant only in corporate contexts in which it is valued and important. Within this context, employees are encouraged to become involved in corporate social responsibility programs through any of at least two important channels: donations of financial resources (e.g., payroll giving) and donations of time (e.g., corporate volunteering; see Tsang et al., 2009).

Corporate volunteering (also known as employee volunteering, employer-supported volunteering, and workplace volunteering) refers to volunteer activities

that are performed by employees and encouraged (or even facilitated) by their employing organizations (Brewis, 2004; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Identified as the most rapidly growing corporate social responsibility activity in the UK, Western Europe, and North America (Pajo and Lee, 2011), corporate volunteering takes place within the context of informal and formal company policies, and it can be performed either in the employee's own time (with unpaid leave or other support from employer) or during official working hours (Meijs and Van der Voort, 2004). In this context, companies deliberately involve themselves in volunteering by integrating relevant policies (Houghton et al., 2009; Van der Voort et al., 2009). Given the discretionary nature of corporate volunteering and the combination of an inward focus on corporate benefits and an outward focus on community benefits, participation in corporate volunteering has been identified as the clearest form of employee participation in corporate social responsibility (Grant, 2012). Generally, corporate volunteering practices vary from turnkey and tailored activities (Raffaelli and Glynn, 2014). An example of a turnkey activity is when employees volunteer to a local elementary school by painting classrooms and planting flowers (Marquis, Rangan, & Comings, 2009). Furthermore, IBM facilitates tailored volunteering by offering their employees overseas sabbaticals to use business skills to advance the technology capabilities of that country (Marquis & Kanter, 2010).

A second way in which employees can become actively involved in corporate social responsibility involves donations of money through payroll giving, defined as "on-going donations made by employees through salary deduction, usually to a charity, which was chosen by their employer, or to one of a few charities they may choose from" (Haski-Leventhal, 2013: 3). By definition, payroll-giving

constructions automatically require some level of involvement on the part of the company, as the donations are made through the organization's payroll system. Payroll giving resembles donations made by direct debit or recurring membership fees (NCVO, 2008). Many employers match the donations of their employees (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). In most cases, the givers receive immediate tax breaks on the entire marginal rate for unlimited donations, as the donations are deducted from their pay (Potter and Scales, 2008; Romney-Alexander, 2001). Payroll giving thus makes economic sense, and it can increase the value and impact of employee donations.

Despite the existence of various opportunities for employee participation in corporate social responsibility, research has documented relatively limited levels of participation in corporate volunteering and payroll giving. Anecdotal evidence from the Netherlands indicates that participation in corporate social responsibility tends to be limited to a specific group of employees, with maximum participation rates of less than 20% (Schuyt et al., 2013). Even this rate seems high when compared to the levels of participation reported by some leaders in the area of CSR (e.g., according to the Dow Jones Sustainability Index). To illustrate, a 2013 report by Allianz (UK)[11] refers to a participation rate of 19% in their corporate volunteering program. Over the last 15 years, the German company Henkel[12] reports participation rates of up to 12% in

---

[11] https://www.allianz.com/en/sustainability/performance/people/corporate_giving.html Consulted on 5 November 2014

[12] http://en.henkel-mea.com/sustainability/mit-initiative-6328.htm Consulted on 5 November 2014

corporate volunteering worldwide, while Tapcorp Holding (Australian)[13] reports that 7.6% of their employees have been active in corporate volunteering. Estimates of payroll giving are lower (see Haski-Leventhal, 2013). For example, Australia and New Zealand Banks[14] indicate that 7% of their employees donate money through the payroll-giving programs.

These participation rates reflect the challenge encountered by corporate social responsibility managers when attempting to involve employees in their programs. By definition, employee participation in corporate social responsibility is discretionary, individual behavior performed within a corporate context. Individual employees are thus free to decide whether to participate in such initiatives (Slack et al., 2015). Corporate social responsibility policies and actions are actually created, implemented, sustained, or avoided by individuals within organizations (Christensen et al., 2014). Nevertheless, employees too are looking to work for companies that are socially responsible and/or offer them an opportunity to contribute. Their motives to do so are based on instrumental (need for control), relational (need for belonginess) and moral (need for meaningfulness; Aguilera et al., 2007). Here, participating in corporate volunteering, particularly during workhours, is attractive to employees as it does not conflict with other 'greedy institutions' (Coser, 1974),

---

13

http://www.tabcorp.com.au/resources.ashx/shareholderreportschilddatadocuments/1466/FileName/9 23C134E1FC5CC4606BDD40844AD11FE/Concise_-_RG_-_People_-_Comm_-_Enviro_(0.3_Mb).pdf Consulted on 5 November 2014

[14] http://www.anz.com/about-us/corporate-responsibility/ Consulted on 5 November 2014

including obligations, duties or activities outside the workplace such as family time or leisure. As such, companies potentially reduces the transaction costs of individuals in their search for fitting volunteer opportunities (Meijs and Brudney, 2009; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Moreover, empirical research shows that corporate volunteering enhances meaningfull work experiences, particularly for those who experience less meaningfull jobs (Rodell, 2013). In addition, corporate social responsibility is also seen as a mechanism that create congruence between employers and employees based on their values and their actual behavior (Chapter 5). As it potentially serves both employees and employers, it is important to understand and address individual (i.e., micro-level) factors that could affect intentions to participate and actual participation in such efforts (see Rupp et al., 2014). From this individual perspective, we argue that non-participation in corporate social responsibility can be explained by the theory of planned behavior, as well as by factors that are known to impede individual participation in charitable giving, in both private life and the workplace.

In the following sections, we draw on concepts from the theory of planned behavior, complemented with insights from the literature on charitable giving and corporate social responsibility, to identify individual barriers to participation. We then introduce several organizational interventions for overcoming or altering these barriers.

Applying the Theory of Planned Behavior to Corporate Social responsibility: Barriers to Participation

The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that intention to perform a particular behavior is a function of the following: 1) perceived behavioral control (the

individual's perceptions regarding the capability of performing such behavior), 2) attitude toward such behavior (the individual's approval or disapproval of a behavior), and 3) subjective norms (the perceived expectations of others with regard to performing such behavior). It is argued by Ajzen (1991, p. 199) himself that these three basic elements can supplemented with other elements: "The theory of planned behavior is, in principle, open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention or behavior after the theory's current variables have been taken into account." As we are focusing on corporate social responsibility and in particular on corporate volunteering and payroll giving, we augment the basic elements with two particular functions that studies in the field of charitable giving have shown to be additional predictors: 4) anxiety (Robinson, et al., 2008), showing that individuals who hold concerns regarding a particular behavior (e.g., donating or volunteering) are less likely engage in that behavior; and 5) past experience, which has been identified as a predictor of future intentions and/or behavior, including with regard to volunteering and the donation of money (Ajzen, 1991; Knowles et al., 2012; Smith and McSweeney, 2007). In addition to explaining individual intentions, these factors subsequently affect individual behavior (Arjzen, 1991). As demonstrated in several studies, intention is the most proximal predictor of charitable giving behavior (Greenslade and White, 2005; Okun and Sloane, 2002; Warburton and Terry, 2000).

Although the theory is usually applied to the explanation of intentions and behavior, we use it to demonstrate that deficiencies in these five areas can impede employees from participating (see figure 3.1). We illustrate this point using literature

on charitable giving and corporate social responsibility. The application of these components of the theory of planned-behavior to the context of employee participation in corporate social responsibility can help us to understand barriers to participation in corporate social responsibility and to design organizational interventions for overcoming them, thus ultimately increasing employee participation in corporate social responsibility.

Lack of perceived behavioral control

Lack of experience

Anxiety

Employee participation in CSR

Lack of subjective norms

Negative attitudes

Figure 3.1: Barriers for employees to participate in CSR

Lack of Perceived Behavioral Control
According to the theory of planned behavior, individuals who perceive that they will have difficulty performing a particular behavior (including giving behavior) are less likely to have the intention to engage in such behavior (Smith and McSweeney, 2007). This is supported by various studies, which show that the lack of active engagement in volunteering and charitable giving can be explained by a perceived lack of time, skills, money or other resources (Sundeen and Raskoff, 2000; Sundeen et al., 2007). More specifically, research suggests that people who perceive that they lack financial

stability donate less money than those who perceive their financial situations as stable (Wiepking, 2007). Similarly, perceived time pressure plays a significant role in explaining why people choose not to volunteer (Hustinx, 2010).

Employees who do have resources available may regard these resources as unsuited to the particular corporate social responsibility programs of their companies. For example, a program might focus on soliciting financial donations, while the employee perceives behavioral control only with regard to volunteering. Alternatively, a corporate social responsibility program might focus on offering the professional expertise of employees to the community, while the employee prefers to be involved in providing services directly to the beneficiaries of a non-profit organization or to offer skills other than those used on the job. There could thus be a mismatch between the corporate social responsibility opportunities offered by the company and the initiatives to which potential participants would be able to contribute (Brudney and Meijs, 2009).

The perceived lack of information on the desired behavior has also been shown to have a negative relationship with employee participation (Slack et al., 2015). Research indicates that, in most companies, many employees are still unaware of corporate social responsibility opportunities, thus suggesting considerable potential for increasing employee participation (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Slack et al., 2015). Another form of unawareness or lack of understanding has to do with the specific social issues or charities addressed through corporate social responsibility. Research has shown that individuals are less inclined to donate their time or money to lesser-known charities (Peterson, 2004). Given that people tend to make decisions based on how well they are informed, lack of awareness and knowledge concerning corporate

social responsibility opportunities is likely to lead to a lack of perceived behavioral control and, consequently, to non-involvement.

Lack of subjective norms: Lack of perceived organizational support and pressure

As suggested by the theory of planned-behavior, subjective norms (i.e., perceived social support and pressure to conform to certain behavior) influence intentions to perform certain behavior and, in turn, actual behavior. Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the perceptions that employees have concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). High levels of POS are associated with beliefs that the organization values employees, cares for their well-being, and will continue to help them (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Higher levels of POS have also been shown to increase the likelihood of discretionary behavior, including increased participation in corporate social responsibility (Chen et al., 2009; Garavan et al., 2010). Related research on corporate sustainability shows that the degree of perceived supervisory support influences the decision making of employees with regard to sustainability-related behavior (Ramus, 2001, 2002; Zutshi and Sohal, 2003).

Meijs and colleagues (2009) identify five levels of pressure that a company can apply in its corporate social responsibility activities: 1) low social pressure through completely voluntary participation; 2) limited pressure to participate by emphasizing the rewards of volunteering; 3) moderate social pressure through the creation of clear expectations and information about the kind of volunteering desired; 4) high pressure through hierarchical expectancy, with volunteering as an important element in the functional evaluation of employees; and 5) maximum pressure through obligation. In

this light, theory of planned-behavior would suggest that lower levels of social pressure would be likely to decrease the likelihood of employees to perceive the subjective norms that would make them likely to participate. In the same vein, greater social pressure on employees to participate in corporate social responsibility behavior should increase the likelihood of employee participation (the desired behavior in this case). Given that we define corporate social responsibility in terms of discretionary behavior, however, maximum pressure through obligation is not an option in our model.

Negative attitude toward corporate social responsibility
According to the theory of planned behavior, a positive attitude toward a behavior is positively related to the intention to perform that behavior. Research on charitable giving supports this insight, as attitude has proven one of the strongest predictors of the intention to donate money (Knowles et al., 2012). Although it is not the strongest predictor, attitude has also been shown to have a significant influence on intentions to volunteer (Okun and Sloane, 2002). On the other hand, employees who perceive corporate social responsibility as undesirable are unlikely to become involved. Negative perceptions of corporate social responsibility tend to take one of three forms. First, employees might consider corporate social responsibility undesirable if it is not aligned with the primary mission and objectives of the company, thus diverting attention and energy away from the intended corporate goal (e.g., maximizing profit; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). For example, studies have indicated that some employees have negative attitudes toward corporate social responsibility unless it has clear benefits for the company and broader community (Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Somewhat contradictory to negative attitudes related to a perceived lack of desirability, a second negative attitude toward corporate social responsibility can stem from a perceived lack of authenticity. Stressing the instrumental benefits of corporate social responsibility for the company and its employees can generate skepticism and cynicism regarding the authenticity of the company's intentions. According to Van der Voort and colleagues (2009), some employees have an explicit need for external validation, which can decrease community impact and call the intentions of corporate social responsibility into question. Other scholars have identified at least two distinct standards with which employees form judgments on the corporate social responsibility of their employers: the relative alignment of the corporate social responsibility identity with the identity of the organization, and the actual initiatives of the corporate social responsibility program (McShane and Cunningham, 2012). Employees who doubt the authenticity and intentions of the company should thus logically be less likely to participate.

A third negative attitude toward corporate social responsibility could arise from the perception that such efforts constitute unacceptable organizational behavior. From a social exchange perspective, while personal engagement in charitable giving is reflected in private decision-making, employee participation in corporate social responsibility is based on an exchange between the employee and the organization (Slack et al., 2015). Research has suggested that corporate involvement in the charitable behavior of employees can be regarded as an intrusion into the private lives of employees, as they perceive volunteering and donating money as highly personal acts (Houghton et al., 2009). Although employees might be very active

in volunteering and donating money in their private lives, they might be unwilling to engage in such activities on behalf of the company (Slack et al., 2015).

Lack of past experience and habits in corporate social responsibility

Past experiences and habits have been shown to extend the theory of planned-behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and particularly within the context of charitable giving behavior (see e.g., Knowles et al., 2012; Smith and McSweeney, 2007; for a general meta-analysis of the theory of planned behavior, see Conner and Armitage, 1998). Studies have demonstrated that current volunteers are likely to have volunteered in the past, in addition to having parents or spouses who volunteer (Musick and Wilson, 2008). A similar pattern has been identified for donative behavior (Knowles et al., 2012; Smith and McSweeney, 2007; Wilhelm et al., 2008). As such, employees with no past experience in corporate social responsibility are likely to be less inclined to participate than are those who have participated in the past (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). This could post a challenge for organizations that are only starting their corporate social responsibility programs and struggling to involve more people.

Anxiety

People might encounter psychological barriers in the process of becoming involved in corporate social responsibility. One of the extensions of the basic model of the theory of planned behavior developed in the charitable giving literature is "donation anxiety" (or shyness; see Robinson et al., 2008). Anxiety refers to the extent to which people feel uncomfortable entering unfamiliar situations or situations in which other people already appear to be well connected (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). For example, anxiety can be reflected in the reluctance of individuals to talk to strangers or engage in new social situations (De Botton, 2004), possibly preventing them from

volunteering in an unfamiliar organization. In the case of monetary donations, anxiety might be based on concerns that individuals have in relation to the act of giving (see also Robinson et al., 2008). This might subsequently impede them from becoming involved as volunteers or donors, as such involvement would expose them to situations that they are likely to perceive as new and socially threatening, or in which they would feel uncomfortable. For example, they might feel anxiety volunteering outside their known organizational contexts or with people who are unfamiliar to them.

Organizational interventions supporting participation in corporate social responsibility

In order to achieve effective corporate social responsibility programs (in terms of employee participation), companies must either overcome the five barriers described above or transform the mechanisms that create them into catalysts for involvement. To this end, and based on literature from the field of organizational behavior, we present five potential organizational interventions, which mitigate the aforementioned barriers and encourage participation in corporate social responsibility: internal communication, culture, leadership, group and peer influence and program design. While we acknowledge that organizational factors (e.g., lack of leadership or a corporate culture that is not conducive to corporate social responsibility) could also create barriers that might impede individuals from participating in corporate social responsibility (see e.g., Slack et al., 2015), these interventions focus on supportive mechanisms at the organizational level. Figure 3.2 models the influence of the interventions to the barriers and will be explained accordingly.
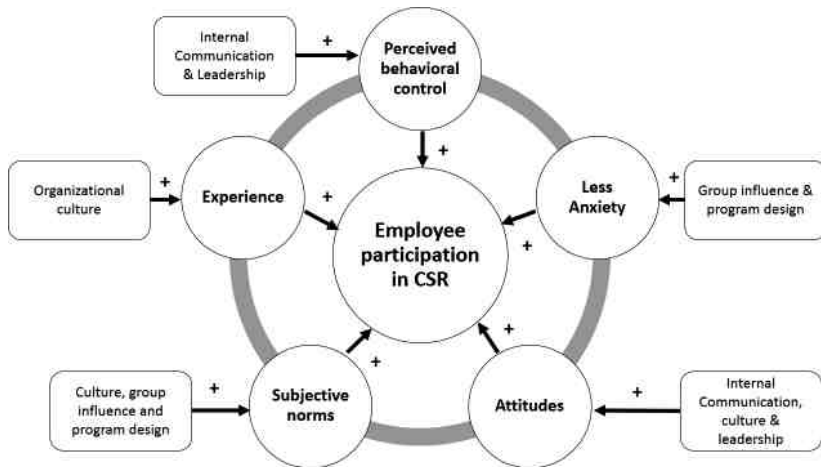
Figure 3.2: Employee participation in CSR model

1. **Develop an internal communication plan to promote corporate social responsibility**

Internal communication has been identified as an under-utilized and potentially powerful channel through which organizations can influence stakeholders (Dawkins, 2005). Studies have emphasized the crucial importance of intensive communication in any process of change, including behavioral change (Klein et al., 1999). It has been identified as a powerful mechanism for influencing employee corporate social responsibility behavior (Du et al., 2010). By providing more and better information about corporate social responsibility, companies could address any lack of awareness amongst their employees while having a positive influence on their *attitudes* (Slack et al., 2015). Research has found that communication strategies such as storytelling, informal communication, and coaching led to are important in this matter (Pounsford, 2007). Employees are apparently quite receptive to information about the corporate social responsibility activities of their organizations. In a study by Dawkins (2005), 65% of the employees indicated that they expected their employers to communicate with them concerning their social efforts. Communication about the

114

possibilities should therefore increase their *perceived behavioral control* by highlighting opportunities that draw on using their existing resources. As a consequence, communication about corporate social responsibility in general, as well as on the specific programs of the company is likely to increase the attitude and perceived behavioral control, thereby promoting the intentions and subsequent participation of employees.

Originating in the 1940s (Lewin, 1947), the unfreezing-change-refreezing model remains particularly useful. Within this context, communication in the unfreezing stage should focus on the positive attributes of the values of corporate social responsibility to increase the driving forces toward the desired condition – in this case, corporate social responsibility behavior (for a similar application of this model to the context of corporate sustainability, see Garavan et al., 2010). During this phase, employees should be kept informed about any changes and progress. Misconceptions should be addressed as well, in order to counteract any restraining forces (Lewin, 1947). At this stage, it is also important for the company to share its goals and responsibility with regard to corporate social responsibility, in order to enhance responsible behavior on the part of its employees (Ramus, 2002). During the refreezing stage, internal communication should focus on success stories stemming from the corporate social responsibility program and how it is influencing day-to-day practices within the organization.

2. **Create a favorable culture of corporate social responsibility**
The complex, widely researched concept of organizational culture has been defined as a set of shared mental assumptions that guide interpretation and action in organizations (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). It has been used to define appropriate

behavior for various situations (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). Identified as the most difficult aspect to change (Schein, 1992), organizational culture plays a significant role in shaping employee behavior. Scholars have proposed that specific organizational cultures (and subcultures) drive specific attitudes toward corporate social responsibility (Linnenluecke et al., 2007; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). Following this reasoning, if corporate social responsibility is an explicit part of the organizational culture and norms, it is likely to trigger certain behavioral responses (e.g., participation in corporate social responsibility) on the part of employees (Collier and Estaban, 2007).

The creation of a stimulating corporate culture that includes corporate social responsibility is likely to enhance the *attitudes* and *subjective norms* of corporate social responsibility. The program could become a part of "who we are" as an organization, and aspects of corporate social responsibility could be dispersed widely throughout the organization, including in its values and norms. Corporate social responsibility that is grounded in the basic values of the organization is more likely to increase the number of employees subscribing to the company's values in this regard (Rupp et al., 2013).

Volunteering and donating is not innate behavior; it is learned (Bekkers and Wiepking, 2010). The literature on organizational culture has also been connected to the concept of organizational socialization (Schein, 1990). It is a process of inheriting and disseminating norms, ideologies, and habits (Clausen, 1968). In the corporate context, socialization to corporate social responsibility could become part of the culture and value congruence between the organization and its employees (Chapter

5). Shared norms and value identities within the organizational context could be positively related to employee behavior (Chapter 5). Socialization and the creation of a corporate culture that is supportive of corporate social responsibility should therefore be able to alter *past experience and habits*.

3. **Develop supportive leadership styles**

At the organizational level, leadership can bear a major influence on a company's commitment to corporate social responsibility. It can also affect the engagement of employees in the company, including positive *attitudes* toward corporate social responsibility and participation. Researchers have identified the cognitive, conative, and linguistic processes of managers as important determinants of the perception and development of corporate social responsibility within companies (Basu and Palazzo, 2008). Some evidence suggests that the lack of certain types of leadership could have a negative influence on the way corporate social responsibility is perceived and acted upon (see e.g., Pearce and Manz, 2011). For example, organizational leaders with less desirable traits (e.g., narcissism, hubris, dominance) are unlikely to inspire followers to engage in corporate social responsibility behavior (Chatterjee and Hambrick, 2011; Judge et al., 2006).

Conversely, the presence of leadership that is supportive of corporate social responsibility could create positive attitudes toward corporate social responsibility and encourage employees to participate in corporate social responsibility (Christensen et al., 2014). Behavioral theories of leadership suggest that transformational leaders "raise followers' aspirations and activate higher order values such that followers identify with the leader and his or her mission/vision, feel better about their work, and work to perform beyond simple transactions and base expectations" (Avolio et

al., 2009: 428). In addition, "servant leadership" transcends profit-making initiatives and focuses on the improvement employees, organizations and society (Greenleaf, 1977), creating an environment that is supportive of employee involvement in corporate social responsibility (Liden et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Transformational and servant leadership could potentially affect corporate social responsibility attitudes, as these leadership styles include the exercise of influence through inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and positive role modeling (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Moreover, leaders are well able to stimulate managers to allocate time and resources that can enable employees to engage in such behavior (see Ramus, 2002). For example, they could stimulate managers to allow corporate volunteers to have flexible working hours or to volunteer within official working hours (Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005). It has also been argued that payroll giving tends to be preferred over private individual giving, due to the additional resources that the company donates to the charity (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). Leaders can include and stimulate such policies and practices within the organization. We therefore argue that corporate leaders have the potential to increase aspects of *perceived behavioral control* with regard to corporate social responsibility.

4. **Stimulate group and peer influence**
Employee behavior is strongly influenced by peer interactions and the notion of team membership. A strong team is characterized by a high level of cohesiveness and strong team norms (Hogg, 1992). Research has indicated that people are more likely to engage in particular behaviors if they are consistent with the norms of the groups to which they belong (Terry and Hogg, 1996). Fellow employees can be powerful advocates of a company's corporate social responsibility program toward other

employees (Dawkins, 2005), including corporate volunteering (Wilson, 2000). In addition, pre-existing groups and groups that are formed for the purpose of volunteering can help people to start and to continue to volunteer (Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan, 2009). Moreover, individuals prefer to learn about volunteering from people close to them (e.g., friends, family or colleagues; Handy and Cnaan, 2007), and they prefer to visit volunteering sites when accompanied by these people. Individuals tend to react positively to requests from those who are in close proximity to them, due to the potential negative consequences of misalignment with significant others. This effect has been demonstrated with regard to both volunteering and donating money (see Bekkers, 2004). We therefore argue that employees are likely to experience higher levels of *subjective norms* (and therefore be more likely to become involved in corporate social responsibility programs) if they are directly solicited by colleagues who are also involved. It is thus logical to expect that employees are more likely to engage in corporate social responsibility initiatives if they belong to groups whose norms embrace corporate social responsibility, if they are able to engage in corporate social responsibility activities with people who are familiar to them, and if they are solicited by colleagues.

Group and peer influence could also reduce *anxiety* toward charitable giving. It has been shown that "volunteering in familiar environments reduces the probability of engaging with new people or new environments, hereby reducing social anxiety" (Handy and Cnaan, 2007: 52). When they do choose to engage in corporate or other forms of volunteering, however, they prefer to do so alongside people with whom they are very familiar (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). In this case, the familiar environment consists of making charitable donations along with peers and

colleagues, as well as through the workplace. Consequently, companies that offer team volunteering or department outings are likely to reduce the barrier of anxiety, thereby increasing their success in engaging new participants in their programs. In addition, monetary donations preserve considerable social distance between the giver and the beneficiary. As such, people with anxiety often prefer to engage in this type of giving behavior instead of volunteering (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). For some employees with anxiety (particularly with regard to volunteering), calls for participation in payroll giving programs are likely to encourage them to start participating.

5. **Develop a broad corporate social responsibility program to increase variety in opportunities for participation**

We argue that maximizing employee participation in corporate social responsibility requires moving away from one-size-fits-all programs. Instead, companies should cater to the abilities, needs, and barriers of individual employees by offering a variety of opportunities for participation within an organizational context that is supportive of corporate social responsibility.

First, by offering or facilitating a wide variety of corporate social responsibility opportunities (e.g., payroll giving and corporate volunteering), a company could allow its employees to choose between donating their time/skills and donating their money, thereby addressing any *lack of perceived behavioral control*. For example, some employees might feel they have the necessary resources to donate money, while others are might be inclined to volunteer. In addition, different levels of autonomy attract different types of employees to corporate social responsibility programs (Van der Voort et al., 2009). While some employees prefer higher levels of

autonomy, others are more comfortable in following along with the activities of the organization (e.g., lower levels of autonomy). In some cases, higher levels of autonomy could result in organizational policies that provide employees with complete freedom to choose the causes for which they would like to volunteer (Boccalandro, 2009). Companies need only facilitate the efforts of these employees (e.g., allowing the use of printing facilities, offering flexible working hours or matching employee contributions; Van der Voort et al., 2009). In contrast, other employees might be more likely to participate if there are higher levels of involvement on the part of the company, combined with increased pressure to participate (see Van der Voort et al., 2009). These employees tend to conform to many desired behaviors, including participation in corporate social responsibility. As such, in addition to increasing behavioral control with various levels of autonomy, lower levels of autonomy could potentially increase the level of *subjective norms*.

Offering multiple types of opportunities might also reduce *anxiety*. For example, it has been shown that people who experience anxiety with regard to volunteering are often still willing to donate money. This form of involvement creates distance between the giver and receiver, making it easier for the giver (Handy and Cnaan, 2007). These barriers could be reduced further by organizing volunteer opportunities to fit the preferences of employees (e.g., during/outside working hours; volunteering based on either skills or social preference; team volunteering/individual volunteering), in addition to offering unique volunteering opportunities (e.g., family volunteering, online volunteering), thus catering to a wide range of abilities and needs (see also Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Discussion and conclusion

To date, studies of corporate social responsibility have paid little attention to ways of increasing employee participation in corporate social responsibility, focusing instead on the potential benefits of corporate social responsibility to the company (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). The manuscript sheds light on the ongoing challenge facing corporate social responsibility managers struggling with low and stagnating levels of employee participation. Proceeding from the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and drawing on the literature on charitable giving and corporate social responsibility, we propose a conceptual analysis of individual barriers and organizational interventions, demonstrating ways of connecting the two in order to increase employee participation in corporate social responsibility.

This article contributes to the existing literature in several ways. First, scholars have emphasized the benefits of employee participation in corporate social responsibility (for a recent review, see Aguinis and Glavas, 2012), and several have investigated the motivations for engaging in such behavior (e.g., Zapala and McLaren, 2004). Only a few studies have addressed the reasons underlying employee participation in corporate social responsibility. We contribute to the latter by demonstrating that the barriers identified in this manuscript (i.e., lack of perceived behavioral control, lack of subjective norms, negative attitudes toward corporate social responsibility, donation anxiety, and past experience/habits) all relate to employees' participation in corporate social responsibility.

A second contribution of this article is that it adds to the limited knowledge concerning mechanisms that stimulate employee participation in corporate social responsibility by introducing potential organizational solutions to the barriers

described (see also Slack et al., 2015). Previous studies have focused on the motivation to participate (e.g., Zapala and McLaren, 2004), while neglecting potential organizational influences on individual behavior. The literature thus lacks a balanced consideration of internal motives and external influences (Greenslade and White, 2005). In this manuscript, we demonstrate that barriers at the individual level can be addressed by organizational interventions, which in turn affect the likelihood of employee participation in corporate social responsibility.

Third, we offer a nuanced argument to the (academic) tendency to favor strategic corporate social responsibility (here corporate social responsibility) in which there is a strong emphasis to the alignment of corporate social responsibility activities to company's core business, including offering skill based volunteering (Porter and Kramer, 2006; Werther and Chandler, 2014). In this chapter, we offer a view that to engage employee and strategically utilize CSR, CSR activities should be in line with the interests and values of the employee, not perse the company. This is in line with earlier work of Peloza and Hassay (2006) who found that initiatives that were not strategically aligned with company's core business were very succesfull, particularly in terms of participation rates. Furthermore, unrelated to the core business does not only benefit internal marketing purposes for employee engagement in CSR, it also favors external perceptions as recent work found that even CSR activities (charitable giving) unrelated to the core business is beneficial to consumer perceptions due to the moral undertone of the company's motivation CSR. It is attenuated when consumers believe that the company's behavior is driven by self-interest rather than by benevolence (Chernev and Blair, 2015). As such, we propose that to engage more employees in corporate social responsibility activities, it is attractive to companies to

facilitate corporate social responsibility activities that combines activities which are aligned with core business (e.g. similar to strategic CSR) and those based on values of employees as private citizens, with the potential to be less strategic to the company (see also the two perspectives of Van der Voort et al., 2009).

While this article is aimed at increasing corporate social responsibility participation, it should be stated that it would not be realistic to expect all companies to succeed in involving all of their employees in their corporate social responsibility efforts, as the elements described in the theory of planned behavior are dynamic and thus subject to changing over time. Moreover, within the specific context of corporate social responsibility, the discretionary nature of the desired behavior does not allow for enforcement (Organ, 1988). For these reasons, we do not propose that changes in the organizational context are likely to always overcome all barriers for all employees. Nevertheless, understanding potential barriers and how to address them could help corporate social responsibility managers to develop their programs continuously, with the goal of maximizing the attractiveness of these programs to more employees.

Several factors could potentially affect the likelihood of organizations to address the barriers and the effectiveness of the interventions proposed in this manuscript. First, traditions of charitable giving behavior are stronger in some countries than they are in others (Salamon and Anheier, 1997), which could have an effect, particularly on multinational companies (in which corporate social responsibility is organized in local or national subsidiaries). For example, it has been reported that individuals in Anglo-Saxon countries have higher rates of charitable

giving behavior than do those in Eastern European countries or China (see the World Giving Index 2013[15]). Within this context, institutional-level socialization to charitable giving plays an important role in corporate social responsibility (Waldman et al., 2006). Furthermore, it is shown that is more likely for some types of industries to engage in corporate social responsibility than for others (see Brammer and Millington, 2003). For this reason, individual barriers are likely to be stronger and harder to address in some countries or industries than they are in others. As a consequence, in countries with relatively weak traditions of giving and industries in which it is less common to act upon corporate social responsibility, it is likely to be much more difficult to increase participation in corporate social responsibility. Similar to institutional-level influences (e.g., culture and traditions of giving), the barriers to participation could also be affected by the number of multicultural employees in companies. If the employees of a company are from highly diverse ethnic backgrounds, some of which have little tradition in giving, these employees are likely to perceive higher individual barriers to participation, making it more difficult to alter their intentions and behavior.

Practical implications

Our article has several practical implications for corporate social responsibility managers within companies. First, in their efforts to stimulate participation, many companies fail to address barriers at the individual level. In many cases, these obstacles are the result of highly complex processes (e.g., emotions, attitudes, or

---

15 https://www.cafonline.org/PDF/WorldGivingIndex2013_1374AWEB.pdf Consulted on 5 November 2014

perceptions), which are difficult to overcome with company policies. Although we have demonstrated, based on existing literature, that many barriers can be addressed within the organizational context, we acknowledge that such efforts are likely to be highly complex and time-consuming. Nevertheless, the link between individual barriers and organizational solutions that we present in this article should be particularly interesting to managers.

In the following list, we summarize the five interventions for corporate social responsibility managers, as explained in detail throughout this manuscript. To enhance their applicability, we have included examples of how each intervention can be implemented in practice.

1. **Develop an internal communication plan to promote corporate social responsibility**
    Companies should integrate information about corporate social responsibility opportunities into familiar communication outlets (e.g., internal newsletters, annual reports, and employee-orientation documents). For example, Johnson & Johnson Medical in Australia has an engaging "community wall" with videos, photos and interactive screens to inform employees on corporate social responsibility opportunities and engage them. This would embed corporate social responsibility in every aspect of the company's operations and communicate it as a part of the company's norms and values. The use of these channels would also ensure that most employees would remain informed. The proposed process model of unfreezing-change-refreezing might also be useful to managers.

2. Create a favourable culture of corporate social responsibility

Companies should include values of corporate social responsibility in the core values of the organization. These values are based on the interest in community welfare that proceeds from the principle of public responsibility (Waldman et al., 2006). The addition of these elements to the core values of the organization could ensure that stakeholders (and more specifically for this manuscript, employees) are aware of what is most important to the organization. For example, the financial service provider ING includes community welfare and responsibility as its third core value: "We invest in our communities, support good causes, and encourage employees to participate in volunteer activities."[16] Ricoh includes corporate social responsibility values in two of its three founding principles ("Love your neighbors" and "Love your country"), as well as in its core values: "To be one global company, we must care about people, our profession, our society, and our planet."[17]

3. Develop supportive leadership styles

Companies should cultivate transformational and servant leadership styles by encouraging managers to facilitate and stimulate participation, to integrate corporate social responsibility into common practice, and to evaluate and praise the corporate social responsibility efforts of their subordinates (see also Ramus, 2002). For example, Paul Polman, the CEO of Unilever, demonstrates a supportive leadership style and engages the employees in corporate social responsibility through his "Sustainable Living Plan" (Kotler, 2011). Another way of promoting these types of leadership

---

[16] http://www.ing.com/About-us/Compliance/ING-Values-1.htm consulted on 8 May 2015.
[17] https://www.ricoh.com/about/commitment/philosophy/ consulted on 8 May 2015.

within the organization involves selecting (from inside or outside the organization) people who have traits of these types of leadership in their characters, including change agency, courage, belief in people, value-motivation, life-long learning, vision, and the ability to cope with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty (Tichy and Devanna, 1986). One suggestion would be to incorporate these characteristics into assessment tools.

4. **Stimulate group and peer influence**

   Companies should try to recruit corporate social responsibility ambassadors (or champions) throughout their organizations. These ambassadors should be employees who are strong believers in corporate social responsibility and who participate themselves. For example, PriceWaterhouseCoopers constantly maps its corporate social responsibility champions throughout the organization. The corporate social responsibility champions are involved in creating corporate social responsibility programs and in encouraging others to participate. As these personal solicitations to donate time or money are highly effective, particularly if made by those in close proximity to the potential giver (peer influence; see Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011), it should help to increase participation in corporate social responsibility.

5. **Develop a broad corporate social responsibility program to increase variety in opportunities for participation**

   Companies should develop a wide range of activities and opportunities, in order to appeal to the interests and abilities of a wide range of employees. There is no one-size-fits-all employee, and there should therefore be no one-size-fits-all program. While one employee might like to donate money, another might prefer to give time.

For example, ING and Australia and New Zealand Banks[18] offer their employees options to donate money and/or time. Similarly, some people might prefer to volunteer by themselves, while others like to volunteer in groups. It would also be wise to have a variety of charities in the pool, thus allowing employees to donate to organizations of their preference. In the United States, organizations can decide to support United Ways and employees can choose from a list where they would like to donate money to.[19]

Directions for future research
We have attempted to treat the topic as comprehensively as possible within the scope of this article. We nevertheless acknowledge the likely existence of individual barriers and organizational interventions other than those detailed here. Future studies should therefore examine mechanisms that impede participation, in addition to exploring solutions for overcoming these barriers. Our analysis offers no tools for measuring these barriers or the outcomes of the interventions. It would be valuable to develop such metrics in the future, thus allowing the empirical testing of our proposed relationships and the measurement of efficiency and effectiveness in each of the interventions suggested. This is particularly important in light of the extensive evidence of the numerous benefits that corporate social responsibility can offer to companies, employees, and the community. In addition to considering the number of employees participating in corporate social responsibility activities, future studies

[18] http://www.anz.com/about-us/corporate-responsibility/ Consulted on 5 November 2014

[19] http://www.unitedway.org/ Consulted on 8 May 2015.

should examine the intensity of participation (e.g., the amount of time or money donated) and how it could be increased, thereby enhancing the potential benefits to society. A comprehensive study addressing barriers, solutions, and their effects on participation in corporate social responsibility and the intensity, outcomes, and impact of such efforts is still needed. Finally, we support our arguments partly based on charitable giving literature. Though these insights are very interesting for corporate social responsibility literature, particularly on corporate volunteering and payroll giving, future research should try to better understand the theoretical and/or practical differences between private giving behavior and giving through the workplace.

References

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 38*(4), 932-968.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 179-211.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421-449.

Bass, B.M., & Riggio, R.E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. 2nd edition, Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ.

Basu, K. & Palazzo, G. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: A process model of sensemaking. *Academy of Management Review, 33*(1), 122-136.

Bekkers, R. (2004). *Giving and volunteering in the Netherlands: Sociological and psychological perspectives*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Utrecht, The Netherlands.

Bekkers, R. & Wiepking, P. (2011). Who gives? A literature review of predictors of charitable giving part one: religion, education, age and socialization. *Voluntary Sector Review*, *2*(3), 337-365.

Bhattacharya, C.B., Korschun, D. & Sen, S. (2008). Using corporate social responsibility to win the war for talent. *Sloan Management Review, 49*(2), 37-44.

Boccalandro, B. (2009). *Mapping success in employee volunteering: The drivers of effectiveness for employee volunteering giving programs and Fortune 500 performance.* Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship, Boston.

Brammer, S., & Millington, A. I. (2003). The effect of stakeholder preferences, organizational structure and industry type on Corporate Community Involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics, 45*(3), 213-226.

Brewis, G. (2004). Beyond banking: Lessons from an impact evaluation of employee volunteerism at Barclays Bank. *Voluntary Action, 6*(3), 13-25.

Brudney, J. L., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). It ain't natural: Toward a new (natural) resource conceptualization for volunteer management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *38*(4), 564-581.

Campbell, D., Moore, G. & Metzger, M. (2002). Corporate Philanthropy in the UK 1985-2002. Some empirical findings. *Journal of Business Ethics, 39*(1-2), 29-41.

CECP (2014). *Giving in numbers. The 2014 edition. An in-depth analysis of corporate giving and employee engagement data from 261 of world's leading companies.* Available via: http://cecp.co/pdfs/giving_in_numbers/GIN2014_Web_Final.pdf

Charitable Aid Foundation (2014). *Corporate giving by the FTSE 100*. Available via: https://www.cafonline.org/pdf/Corporate_Giving_FTSE100_August2014.PDF

Chatterjee, A., & Hambrick, D. C. (2011). Executive personality, capability cues, and risk taking: How narcissistic CEOs react to their successes and stumbles. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 56,* 202–237.

Chen, Z., Eisenberger, R., Johnson, K.M., Sucharski, I.V. & Aselage, J. (2009). Perceived organizational support and extra-role performance. Which leads to which? *The Journal of Social Psychology, 149*(1), 119-124.

Christensen, L., Mackey, A., & Whetten, D. (2014). Taking responsibility for corporate responsibility: The role of leaders in creating, implementing, sustaining, or avoiding socially responsible firm behaviors. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *28*(2), 164-178.

Clausen, J. A. (1968). *Socialization and Society.* Little Brown and Company, Boston.

Collier, J., & Esteban, R. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and employee commitment. *Business Ethics: A European Review, 16*(1), 19–33.

Conner, M. & Armitage, C.J. (1998). Extending the theory of planned behavior: a review and avenues for future research. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28*(15), 1429-1464.

Coser, L. A. (1974). *Greedy institutions: Patterns of undivided commitment*. Free Press: New York.

Dawkins, J. (2005). Corporate responsibility: the communication challenge. *Journal of Communication Management, 9*(2), 108-119.

De Botton, A. (2008). Status anxiety. Random House LLC, New York, NY.

Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2010). Maximizing business returns to corporate social responsibility (CSR): The role of CSR communication. *International Journal of Management Review, 12*(1), 8-19.

Eisenberger, R., Hungtington, R., Hutchison, S. & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*, 500-507.

Garavan, T.N., Heraty, N., Rock, A. & Dalton, E. (2010). Conceptualizing the behavioral Barriers CSR and CS in organizations: A typology and HRD interventions. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 12*(5), 587-613.

Gautier, A. & Pache, A.C., (2015). Research on Corporate Philanthropy: A Review and Assessment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(3), 343-369.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(4), 589-615.

Greenleaf, R.K. (1977). *Servant Leadership*. Paulist Press, New York, NY.

Greenslade, J.H., & White, K.M. (2005). The prediction of above-average participation in volunteerism: A test of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Volunteers Functions Inventory in older Australian adults. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *145*(2), 155-172

Handy, F., & Cnaan, R. A. (2007). The role of social anxiety in volunteering. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 18*(1), 41-58.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2013). Employee engagement in CSR: The case of payroll giving in Australia. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 20*(2), 113-128.

Haski-Leventhal, D. & Cnaan, R. A. (2009). Group processes and volunteering: Using groups to enhance volunteerism. *Administration in Social Work, 33*(1), 61-80.

Haski-Leventhal, D., Meijs, L. C., & Hustinx, L. (2010). The third-party model: Enhancing volunteering through governments, corporations and educational institutes. *Journal of Social Policy, 39*(1), 139-158.

Hogg, M. A. (1992). T*he social psychology of group cohesiveness: From attraction to social identity*. Harvester Wheatsheaf, London.

Houghton, S. M., Gabel, J.T.A. & Williams, D.A. (2009). Connecting the two faces of CSR: Does employee volunteerism improve compliance? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*(4), 477-494.

Hustinx, L. (2010). I quit, therefore I am? Volunteer turnover and the politics of self-actualization. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 39*(2), 236-255.

Judge, T. A., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2006). Loving yourself abundantly: Relationship of the narcissistic personality to self- and other perceptions of workplace deviance, leadership, and task and contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 763-776

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and employee–company identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(4), 557-569.

Klein, K. J., Tosi, H., & Cannella, A. A., Jr. (1999). Multilevel theory building: Benefits, barriers, and new developments. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 243-248.

Knowles, Simon R., Hyde, Melissa K., & White, Katherine M. (2012). Predictors of young people's charitable intentions to donate money: an extended theory of planned behavior perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*(9), 2096-2110.

Kotler, P. (2011). Reinventing marketing to manage the environmental imperative. *Journal of Marketing, 75*(4), 132-135.

Lewin, K. (1947). Group decision and social change. In: T. Newcomb & E. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in social psychology* (pp. 459-473), Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York.

Liden, RC, Wayne, SJ, Zhao, H, & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(2), 161-177.

Linnenluecke, M.K., Russell, S.V. & Griffiths, A. (2007). Subcultures and sustainability practices. The impact of understanding corporate sustainability. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, *18*, 432-452.

Madison, T.F., Ward, S. & Royalty, K. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment and employer-sponsored volunteering. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3*(1), 1-14.

Maignan, I., Ferrell, O. C. & Hult, G. T. M. (1999). Corporate citizenship: cultural antecedents and business benefits. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(4), 455-469.

Marquis, C. & Kanter, R. (2010). *IBM: The Corporate Service Corps*. HBS Case 409-106, Harvard Business School, Boston, MA.

Marquis, C., Rangan, V. K., & Comings, A. (2009). *PNC financial: Grow up great*. HBS Case 409-108, Harvard Business School, Boston, MA.

McShane, L. & Cunningham, P. (2012). To thine own self be true? Employees' judgments of the authenticity of their organization's corporate social responsibility program. *Journal of Business Ethics, 108*(1), 81-100.

Meijs, L. C. P. M. & Van der Voort, J. M. (2004). Corporate volunteering: From charity to profit – non-profit partnerships. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 9*, 21–32.

Meijs, L. C. P. M., Tschirhart, M., Ten Hoorn, E.M. & Brudney, J. L. (2009). Effect of design elements for corporate volunteer programs on volunteerability. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 26*(1), 23-32.

Mohr, L.A. & Webb, D.J. (2005). The effect of Corporate Social Responsibility and price on consumer responses. *Journal of Consumer Affairs, 39*(1), 121-147.

Morgeson, F.P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D.A. & Siegel, D.S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to the Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior domains: A look to the future. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(4), 805-824.

Musick, M. A. & Wilson, J. (2008). *Volunteers: A social profile*. Indiana University Press, Bloomington.

Nan, X. & Heo, K. (2007). Consumer responses to corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives: examining the role of brand-cause fit in cause related marketing. *Journal of Advertising, 36*(2), 63-74.

NCVO (2008). *UK Giving 2008: An Overview of Charitable Giving in the UK, 2007/08*. National Council for Voluntary Organisations, London.

Okun, M. A. & Sloan, E. S. (2002). Application of planned behavior theory to predicting volunteer enrollment by college students in a campus based program. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 30*(3), 243-249.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.

Pajo, K., & Lee, L. (2011). Corporate-sponsored volunteering: A work design perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics, 99*(3), 467-482.

Pearce, C. L. & Manz, C. C. (2011). Leadership centrality and corporate social ir-responsibility (CSIR): The potential ameliorating effects of self and shared leadership on CSIR. *Journal of Business Ethics, 102*(4), 563–579.

Peloza, J. & Hassay, D. N. (2006). Intra-organizational volunteerism: Good soldiers, good deeds and good politics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *64*(4), 357-379.

Peloza, J. & Shang, J. (2011). How can corporate social responsibility activities create value for stakeholders? A systematic review. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39*(1), 117-135.

Peterson, D.K. (2004). Recruitment strategies for encouraging participation in corporate volunteer programs. *Journal of Business Ethics, 49*(4), 371-386.

Potter, V. & Scales J. (2008). *Review of payroll giving.* Strategy Complete, London.

Porter, M. E. & Kramer, M.R. (2006). Strategy and Society: The Link between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility. *Harvard Business Review, 84*(12), 78-93.

Pounsford, M. (2007). Using storytelling, conversation and coaching to engage. *Strategic Communication Management, 11*(3), 32-35.

Raffaelli, R. & Glynn, M.A. (2014). Turnkey or tailored? Relational pluralism, institutional complexity, and the organizational adoption of more or less customized practices. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(2), 541-562.

Ramus, C. A. (2001). Organizational support for employees: Encouraging creative ideas for environmental sustainability. *California Management Review, 43*, 85-105.

Ramus, C. A. (2002). Encouraging innovative environmental actions: What companies and managers must do. *Journal of World Business, 37*, 151-164.

Ravasi, D. & Schultz, M. (2006). Responding to organizational identity threats: Exploring the role of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(3), 433-458.

Rhoades, L. & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 698-714.

Rodrigo, P., & Arenas, D. (2008). Do employees care about CSR programs? A typology according to their attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics, 83*(2), 265-283.

Robinson, N.G., Masser, B.M., White, K.M., Hyde, M.K., & Terry, D.J. (2008). Predicting intentions to donate blood among nondonors in Australia: an extended theory of planned behavior. *Transfusion, 48*(12), 2559-2567.

Romney-Alexander, D. (2001). Payroll giving in the UK: Donor incentives and influences on giving behavior. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7*(1), 84-92.

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Thornton, M. A. & Skarlicki, D. P. (2013). Applicants' and employees' reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility: The moderating effects of first-party justice perceptions and moral identity. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(4), 895-933.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1997). *Defining the nonprofit sector. A cross-national analysis.* Manchester University Press, Manchester, UK.

Schein, E. H. (1990). Organizational culture. *American Psychological Association, 45*(2), 109-119.

Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (2nd edition). Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Schuyt, T., Gouwenberg, B. & Bekkers, T. (2013). *Geven in Nederland 2013: giften, nalatenschappen, sponsoring en vrijwilligerswerk.* Reed Business Education, Amsterdam.

Sen, S. & Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001). Doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research, 38*(2), 225-243.

Slack, R.E., Corlett, S. & Morris, R. (2015). Exploring employee engagement with (Corporate) Social Responsibility: A social exchange perspective on organizational participation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *127*(3), 537-548.

Smith, J. R., & McSweeney, A. (2007). Charitable giving: The effectiveness of a revised theory of planned behaviour model in predicting donating intentions and behavior. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 17*, 363-386.

Sundeen, R. A., & Raskoff, S. A. (2000). Ports of entry and obstacles: Teenagers' access to volunteer activities. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 11*(2), 179-197.

Sundeen, R. A., Raskoff, S. A., & Garcia, M. C. (2007). Differences in perceived barriers to volunteering to formal organizations: Lack of time versus lack of interest. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 17*(3), 279-300.

Terry, D. J. & Hogg, M. A. (1996). Group norms and the attitude-behavior relationship: A role for group identification. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *22*(8), 776-793.

Tsang, S., Welford, R. & Brown, M. (2009). Reporting on community investment. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 16*(3), 123-136.

Tschirhart, M. & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate Community Service Programs: Enhancing Community Capacity? In: A. Brooks (Ed.) *Gifts of Time and Money in America's Communities* (pp. 59-75). United States of America: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Lanham, MD.

Upham, S. (2006). A model for giving. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship, 22*, 81-90.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K. & Meijs L.C.P.M (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics, 90*(3), 311-329.

Waldman, D.A., de Luque, M.S., Washburn, N., House, R.J., Adetoun, B., Barrasa, A. Bobina, M. Bodur, M., Chen, J., Debbarma, S., et al. (2006). Cultural and leadership

predictors of corporate social responsibility values of top management: a GLOBE study of 15 countries. *Journal of International Business Studies, 37*, 823-837.

Walumbwa, F.O., Hartnell, C.A., & Oke, A. (2010). Servant leadership, procedural justice climate, service climate, employee attitudes, and organizational citizenship behavior: A cross-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(3), 517-529.

Warburton, J., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Volunteer decision making by older people: A test of a revised theory of planned behavior. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 22*, 245–257.

Werther, W. B., & Chandler, D. (2014). *Strategic CSR*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Wiepking, P. (2007). The philanthropic poor: In search of explanations for the relative generosity of lower income households. *Voluntas, 18*(4), 339-358.

Wilson, J. (2000). Volunteering. *Annual Review of Sociology, 26*, 215-240.

Wood, D. J. & Logsdon, J. M. (2001). Theorising Business Citizenship. In: J. Andriof and M. McIntosh, *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship* (pp. 83-103), Greenleaf, Sheffield.

Zapala, G., & McLaren, J. (2004). A functional approach to employee volunteering: an exploratory study. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 9*(1), 41-54.

Zutshi, A., & Sohal, S. (2003). Stakeholder involvement in the EMS adoption process. *Business Process Management Journal, 9*, 133-148.

CHAPTER 4: UTILIZING CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY TO ESTABLISH MULTI-DIMENSIONAL PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT[20]

Abstract

This conceptual article proposes how corporate social responsibility (CSR) can be used to establish each of the five dimensions of person-environment fit (P-E fit): person-vocational fit, person-organization fit, person-job fit, person-group fit, and person-person fit. We draw on existing theory and literature to demonstrate that the contribution of CSR to P-E fit is likely to differ in the various stages of employment (including both the pre-hire and post-hire phases): pre-recruitment, recruitment, selection, socialization, and long-term tenure. We argue that a combination of a corporate, employer-led approach and an individual, employee-led approach might maximize the potential contributions of CSR to P-E fit during the various stages of employment. These insights form the foundation for a framework in which we connect the "what" (CSR), the "when" (during all employment stages), the "why" (P-E fit), and the "how" (through the continuum of two approaches) of this relationship.

Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is regarded as an increasingly important mechanism to serve instrumental or strategic organizational goals (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Liu, et al. 2013; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Porter and Kramer,

---

[20] This chapter is co-authored by Dr. Debbie Haski-Leventhal and Dr. Lucas Meijs (supervisor).

2002; 2006). For example, scholars have emphasized the relationship between CSR and reputation (Brammer and Pavelin, 2006), consumer evaluations (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Chernev and Blair, 2015), and consumer loyalty (Maignan, et al., 1999). Nevertheless, only a few recent studies address the psychological aspects of CSR with regard to employees and the outcomes that such activities are expected to achieve for the organization (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Rupp, et al., 2013). One emerging emphasis in research has to do with the relationship between CSR and aspects of human resources and organizational behavior, including the theory of Person-Environment (PE) fit (see Morgeson et al., 2013). This conceptual article contributes to this line of thought by focusing on the relationship between CSR and P-E fit as a desired organizational outcome.

The multi-dimensional term "P-E fit" (Edwards, 2008; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) refers to the congruence or match between individuals and their environments (Dawis, 1992; Edwards et al., 1998; Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987; Schneider et al., 1997). Recent studies have indicated that CSR can enhance various dimensions of P-E fit, including organizational attraction and employee retention (Coldwell et al., 2008; Jones et al., 2014; Zhang and Gowan, 2012). Although it has generated considerable insight, this line of research is fragmented, due to a tendency to focus on single dimensions of P-E fit, thereby disregarding the potential of CSR to contribute to other dimensions. At the same time, studies based on social exchange, identity and other theories (see e.g., Kim et al., 2010; Jones, 2010) tend to generalize their results to all employees, disregarding potential differences in the needs of employees with regard to CSR (Bathacharaya et al., 2008). Most of these

143

studies thus ignore the effects of CSR on various dimensions of P-E fit and within the various stages of employment, including both the pre-hire and the post-hire phases (for this categorization, see Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006).

This article represents a shift away from such fragmented and generalized treatments of CSR to address it from an integrated perspective, with the goal of demonstrating the potential contributions of CSR to various dimensions of P-E fit throughout all stages of employment. We also present two approaches with which to explain *how* organizations can use CSR. This contribution is particularly important in light of recent questions concerning whether different approaches to social responsibility produce different outcomes (Grant et al., 2008; Peloza and Hassay, 2006; Rodell and Lynch, 2015). Drawing on the existing literature, we argue that the combination of a corporate, employer-led approach and an individual, employee-led approach (see also Van der Voort et al., 2009) has the potential to maximize the contributions of CSR to the various dimensions of P-E fit throughout the various stages of employment.

To develop a convincing argument for these contributions, we begin by discussing the context and explaining our operationalization of CSR. We then present two approaches to CSR: employer-led and employee-led. In a subsequent section, we discuss the various stages of employment, linking them to the dimensions addressed within the theory of P-E fit (see Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006). Within this framework, we elaborate on how CSR and the two approaches could potentially achieve the primary goals associated with P-E fit in each stage of employment. We conclude the article by discussing its contribution to research and managerial practice.

Corporate Social Responsibility as the involvement in the community

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is increasingly being encouraged by internal and external stakeholders, including employees, governments, civil society organizations, and customers (Waddock et al., 2002). In this article, we follow CSR literature, in which CSR is regarded as the relationship between a company and the community in which it operates (Burke, 1999). Here, CSR involves corporate behavior in which money, time, products, services, and other resources are provided to support the community (Meijs and Van der Voort, 2004; Zadek et al., 2001). It focuses primarily on community affairs through charitable giving and employee volunteering (Wood and Logsdon, 2001).

In this article, we emphasize the role of CSR, which can range from the formal recognition of community involvement performed by current or prospective employees to the active facilitation and/or organization of such opportunities for current employees. Our primary motivation has to do with the potential of CSR as a means of establishing various dimensions of P-E fit in both the pre-hire and post-hire phases. As explained further in this article, organizations can explicitly consider volunteer experience on the résumés of potential candidates as a signal during recruitment (Handy et al., 2010). After employees have been hired, corporate volunteering can be used to enhance their skills (Bart et al., 2009).

Within this broad perspective, we focus on two particular manifestations of CSR –volunteering and monetary donations – as these activities have been recognized as the most commonly implemented within the social-responsibility strategies of companies (Aguilera et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2009) in Western Europe and North America (Pajo and Lee, 2011). The focus on these two activities further

allows us to support our reasoning with insights from the literature on private giving behavior. In line with the conceptualization developed by Cnaan and colleagues (1996), we view volunteering as discretionary behavior of individuals, without any formal remuneration, through and for a formal organization, and primarily for the benefit of others. Volunteering can take many forms, including hands-on and skills-based volunteering (Brudney and Meijs, 2007). Hands-on volunteer assignments include days of service (Raffaeli and Glynn, 2014), which could involve planting trees, helping sick children, or participating in fundraising events. Skills-based volunteering (see e.g., Mirvis, 2012) includes activities in which individuals use the same skills for both their paid and volunteer roles (e.g., a banker providing financial assistance to help the community).

Corporate volunteering refers to situations in which a company recognizes, encourages, or even facilitates volunteering for its current employees (see Brewis, 2004; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005; Van Schie et al., 2011). In corporate volunteering, the act of volunteering is the result of the deliberate involvement of a company through the integration of its policies in the professional sphere (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Houghton et al., 2009; Van der Voort et al., 2009). Volunteering through the workplace has been identified as the clearest form of discretionary behavior within organizations (Grant, 2012), as its focus is not purely internal (e.g., on the interest of the company and its employees), but also external, extending to NPOs (and their beneficiaries), who fall outside of the company's official mission (Hernandez, 2012).

Corporate philanthropy is another way in which companies can engage in their communities. In this regard, we follow Gautier and Pache (2013), who define

corporate philanthropy as voluntary cash donations to charitable causes, whether in the form of direct grants or through corporate foundations or similar vehicles. In their review, Gautier and Pache (2013) relate charitable cash giving to shareholder value, consumer attitudes and choices, community welfare, employee morale, and government support. Payroll giving is one way in which companies can implement corporate philanthropy and engage their workforces in such efforts. Payroll giving is defined as "on-going donations made by employees through salary deduction, usually to a charity, which was chosen by their employer, or to one of a few charities they may choose from" (Haski-Leventhal, 2013: 3). Many employers match the donations of their employees (Haski-Leventhal, 2013) and, in most cases, givers receive immediate tax benefits on the entire marginal rate for unlimited donations, as their donations are deducted from their pay (Potter and Scales, 2008; Romney-Alexander, 2001). Payroll giving thus makes economic sense for both employers and employees, and it can increase the value and impact of employee donations to the community (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). In the next section, we present two distinct approaches to these activities – employer-led and employee-led – which can be combined to create an integral approach during both pre-hire and post-hire phases of the employment process.

Corporate approaches to community involvement
Scholars have highlighted the importance of learning more about how the many different forms of CSR can affect its outcomes for companies and their employees (Grant et al., 2008; Grant, 2012; Rodell and Lynch, 2015). Drawing on insights from current literature, we present two approaches to CSR (see Figure 4.1), which can be

used to explain how it can be implemented and used in the various stages of employment (as discussed further in this article).

Employer-led	Employee-led
Organization dominant in decision-making process	Employee dominant in decision-making process
Familiarity fit between charity and company	Activity fit between charity and company
Emphasis on pre-determined corporate benefits	Emphasis on employee and community benefits
High restrictions on initiatives	Low restrictions on initiatives
Turnkey activities	Customized activities

Figure 4.1: Continuum of employer-led and employee-led approaches

Two broad approaches to CSR can be distinguished (see also Van der Voort et al., 2009), which needs further conceptual development. In the employer-led approach, the employer selects the charity, and the company is "proactive in the development of strategic volunteer opportunities for its employees" (see intra-organizational volunteerism in Peloza and Hassay, 2006, p. 360). In the employee-led approach, organizations enable employees to select the charities for which they wish to volunteer and provide passive support for their efforts (see inter-organizational volunteerism in Peloza and Hassay, 2006). The primary feature distinguishing these two approaches is whether the employee or the employer is dominant in the decision-making process concerning the volunteer experience, including with regard to process and goals.

The strategic implementation of employer-led CSR efforts requires a company to develop a top-down general CSR strategy in advance, in addition to

specifying the benefits it seeks to achieve for the community, as well as for the company and its employees (Werther and Chandler, 2014). In conceptual terms, the employer-led approach is best suited to require some extent of "fit" between the strategy of the company and the mission of the charity (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Porter and Kramer, 2002). In the employer-led approach, companies also tend to emphasize efforts that are likely to be perceived in a positive light by the general public. Scholars have thus argued that companies that are familiar to citizens (e.g., reputable companies) would be better advised to work with well-known charities, rather than with lesser-known causes. The matching of companies and charities with similar levels of name recognition creates a "fit" in terms of familiarity, thereby increasing the likelihood of favorable perception by the general public (Kim et al., 2011). Along the same lines, companies are likely to prefer activities that are easy to communicate to the public at large (e.g., days of service). Also known as "turnkey activities," such efforts can be standardized to serve large groups of individuals (Raffaeli and Glynn, 2014).

In the employee-led approach, CSR is more aligned with the preferences of individual employees. In this context, the fit depends on the match between the charity and the employee, without necessarily implying a corresponding fit between the corporation and the charity (Van der Voort et al., 2009). In the employee-led approach, the fit could center on particular activities sought by the employee. "Activity fit" thus refers to the extent to which the activities that individual employees perform during their community involvement at particular NPOs are consistent with the major interests of these employees (see also on organizational

level; Kim et al., 2012). For example, an employee who enjoys cooking might volunteer as a chef at a local soup kitchen. The benefits of such initiatives are thus better aligned with the individual than they are with the corporation (Meijs et al., 2009), although it should not be assumed that the interest of the individual will always differ from the interest of the company. Another implication of the choice to facilitate the volunteering preferences of employees can reduce restrictions, thereby opening such opportunities to the preferences of individual employees with regard to the terms and conditions of their volunteer involvement (see Van der Voort et al., 2009). In this context, therefore, the activities should be customized to serve specific needs (Raffaeli and Glynn, 2014). The benefit of this approach is that it provides employees with a sense of autonomy and control (Deci and Ryan, 2008; Grant, 2012). The ability to select the charity to which one gives through the workplace has been found to affect participation rates and giving levels (Grant, 2012; Haski-Leventhal, 2013; Romney-Alexander 2002). Scholars have identified donor choice as beneficial (Nesbit et al., 2012) and as a source of motivation for employees (Byrne, 2005). The organization nevertheless retains a role as facilitator. For example, employers could provide paid leave or support, or they could match the time or money donated by employees with monetary contributions (Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005). They could also showcase opportunities and actively support and encourage people in their efforts to investigate opportunities to volunteer or donate (Van der Voort and Meijs, 2004).

There is no one-size-fits all approach to CSR (Van der Voort et al., 2009), and employees are likely to differ in terms of their needs throughout the course of their employment. It is therefore important to consider ways in which CSR can

serve both the organization and employees (see Bhattacharya et al., 2012) in the various stages of employment. To this end, the next section introduces the theory of Person-Environment fit, including the stages of employment.

Dimensions of P-E fit and the stages of employment
The concept of P-E fit has been broadly defined as the congruence (or match) between the person and the environment (Dawis, 1992; Edwards, Caplan, and Harrison, 1998; Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987; Schneider et al., 1997; for an assessment of the development of the theory of P-E fit, see Edwards, 2008). In the course of developing this theory, researchers began to question the uni-dimensional approach, given the diversity with which scholars tended to interpret the "environmental" component (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006; Edwards, 2008). Subsequent studies therefore identify various dimensions of P-E fit, including Person-Organization (PO) fit (Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991), Person-Vocation (PV) fit (Holland, 1985; Moos, 1987), Person-Job (PJ) fit (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990), Person-Person (PP) fit (Graves and Powell, 1995), and Person-Group (PG) fit (Barsade et al., 2000; Becker, 1992; Hobman et al., 2003). The most commonly mentioned outcomes of P-E fit are increased job satisfaction, tenure, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance, along with reduced staff turnover and absenteeism (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Despite the considerable potential of P-E fit to contribute to desired organizational outcomes, it does not have the same effects on all employees (see Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006). A framework developed by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (see Figure 4.2) explain the types of fit and their associated outcomes that

are most relevant in the various stages of employment. The framework differentiates between the "pre-hire" and "post-hire" phases of the employment process, and it includes the most important topics from the literature (i.e., research emphases) with regard to the type of fit. The pre-hire phase comprises the following stages: 1) pre-recruitment, in which vocational choice of individuals and career counseling is important; 2) recruitment, which is characterized by minimum qualifications and recruiter effects; and 3) the selection of proper candidates, which involves the use of selection instruments and cultural fit. The post-hire phase comprises the following stages: 1) organizational socialization based on values and goal congruence, job satisfaction, and skills-based training; and 2) long-term tenure, in which turnover, satisfaction, attrition, retraining, group composition, and the relationship between leaders and subordinates is strengthened (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006; see Figure 4.2).

Pre-hire phase			Post-hire phase	
Pre-recruitment	Recruitment	Selection	Socialization	Long term tenure
PV fit	PJ fit	PJ fit	PJ fit	PO fit
	PP fit	PO fit	PO fit	PJ fit
				PV fit
				PG fit
				PP fit
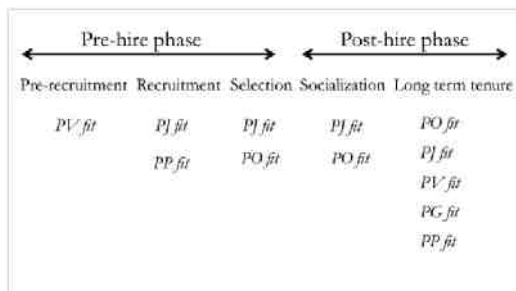
Figure 4.2: The stages of employment (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006)

In the next section, we demonstrate that CSR can serve to establish various dimensions of P-E fit in both the pre-hire and post-hire phases. In doing so, we respond to the call of Bhattacharya and colleagues (2012) to incorporate corporate social initiatives (including volunteering) that are "tailored to the often diverse needs of employees…. and configure their CSR [corporate social

152

responsibility] efforts to address the unique needs of employees." We devote particular attention to the long-term tenure stage, as it covers all dimensions of P-E fit.

Corporate Social Responsibility and P-E fit in various stages of employment
In all of the stages described above, CSR can be utilized to increase P-E fit. In this section, we demonstrate that CSR has the potential to address all dimensions of P-E fit in the various stages of employment. We also identify whether an individual, employee-led strategy or a corporate, employer-led strategy would be most likely to establish particular dimensions of P-E fit in a given stage of employment (for a discussion of employer-led strategies in this regard, see Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Pre-hire phase
Pre-recruitment
In the pre-recruitment stage, when companies are interested in influencing the career paths and vocational choice of the workforce, they can use CSR to invest in social initiatives that could support the development of the industry and/or their competitive context (see also Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006). In an article in the *Harvard Business Review*, Porter and Kramer (2006, p. 84) argue, "The ability to recruit appropriate human resources, for example, may depend on a number of social factors that companies can influence, such as the local educational system, the availability of housing, the existence of discrimination (which limits the pool of workers), and the adequacy of the public health infrastructure." As illustrated by Hess and colleagues (2002), Intel has a volunteer program in which employees provide science education to elementary and high school students in the Philippines and other developing countries, thus helping these children to understand and

appreciate technology. In turn, they hope that some of these children will choose to enter technical vocations, thereby achieving PV fit.

Given that the employer-led approach to CSR allows the company to choose both the target charity and the nature of the activities involved, it would appear better suited to achieve the goals relating to P-E fit during the pre-recruitment stage. In this manner, an organization can ensure that its CSR efforts are aimed at influencing the career paths and vocational choices of the workforce while benefiting the community and the beneficiaries of the services provided. Such forms of CSR allow companies to develop subsequent generations of employees.

Recruitment

In the recruitment stage, the aspects of greatest theoretical interest include minimum job qualifications, realistic job previews, and recruiter effects (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006). Recruiter effects relate to the influence of recruiters on the recruitment process (Powell, 1991). Two such effects have been shown to be of particular importance: the extent to which the recruiter is personable (e.g., the extent to which a recruiter exhibits caring, empathy, or concern) and informative (e.g., knowledgeable about the applicant, job, and organization; see Powell, 1991; Turban and Dougherty, 1992). In a market characterized by information asymmetry between employers and employees (Spence, 2002), recruiters can use their CSR efforts to signal to potential employees that the company is a caring and compassionate organization, thereby attracting the desired type of employees. Studies have indicated that prospective employees who perceive themselves as having socially responsible values tend to be attracted to socially responsible organizations (Evans and Davis, 2011). Such organizations are likely to be

particularly attractive to candidates with higher levels of education and to candidates from "Generation Y," as they tend to place higher value on CSR and, in turn, on the community involvement of companies (Greening, 2000; Sobczak et al., 2006). In other words, recruiters could use CSR to establish value congruence with job applicants and influence the perceived PP fit based on social responsibility.

The attractiveness of an organization is also affected by the pride that job seekers anticipate experiencing as a result of being affiliated with the organization (Jones et al., 2014). As such, CSR could be an effective reputation-management strategy toward prospective employees (Kim and Park, 2011). It could help companies to build positive reputations and attract the desired types of prospective employees. As observed by Tirole (1989), such reputational mechanisms work best through repeated interactions and strong flows of information. Advertised messages about an organization's values in the area of social responsibility have been shown to interact with the desire of applicants to have significant impact through their work, thereby having a positive effect on the intention to pursue employment with the company (Gully et al., 2013). Scholars have argued that such signals are enhanced by actual corporate behavior (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015). At the same time, CSR contributes to shaping realistic job previews, as it provides information about how job applicants might expect to be treated, valued, and socialized within the organization (Jones et al., 2014; Rupp et al., 2013), thus enhancing PJ fit.

To achieve the desired level of PP and PJ fit, employers could make it known that they combine the employer-led and employee-led approaches to CSR. Given that employers are interested in generating the broadest possible audience from to choose during the recruitment stage (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006),

communications directed toward prospective employees concerning the two approaches could be targeted toward different audiences. For some potential candidates, the prospect of working for an employer who organizes opportunities for community involvement could be highly attractive, thereby signaling the organization's dedication to both the community and the company's employees (Greening and Turban, 2000; Gully et al., 2013). Other prospective employees might be attracted to the fact that an organization supports employee-led CSR, as such an approach could signal that the organization encourages involvement and autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2008). The combination of the two approaches would therefore allow a company to signal its identity as an organization and to communicate what it considers important, in addition to providing candidates with a preview of what they could expect as employees.

Selection

In the selection stage, the organization's primary interests involve selection instruments, assessment centers, cultural fit, and human resource systems, which in turn establish PJ and PO fit (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006). At this point, it is important to acknowledge that community involvement does not affect human resource systems in the selection stage. As observed by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006), a human resource system essentially consists of an administrative IT solution, and community involvement cannot influence a technical system.

To establish PO and PJ fit, employers could screen prospective employees according to their experiences in the community as a means of selecting proper candidate that would fit the organization and the job in terms of value congruence and professional competencies. For example, a company might perceive the

volunteering and giving behavior of a prospective employee as indicators of characteristics that would be otherwise difficult to observe (e.g., good citizenship behavior). It has been suggested that employers should "recruit individuals prone to engage in organizational citizen behaviors and avoid individuals who are egocentric" (Organ, 1988). By demonstrating their civic values, applicants could signal to a potential employer that they possess qualities that distinguish them favorably from other candidates (Katz and Rosenberg, 2005). For example, appreciation for the community has been associated with such characteristics as empathy, concern for others, and integrity (Berger et al., 2007). In addition, organizations tend to seek candidates who share the same values (Schneider et al., 1995), including with regard to community involvement (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015). Companies could thus achieve PO fit by selecting candidates according to these characteristics.

Companies can also assess the competencies of applicants by considering their volunteer experiences and interpreting them as positive signals on their résumés (Menchik, and Weisbrod, 1987; Prouteau and Wolff, 2006). By adding their volunteering experience on their résumés, applicants can signal that they have engaged in involved or informal learning, thereby broadening their experience and skills training (Roza and Meijs, 2014). Research has indicated that volunteering is often perceived as a direct investment in human capital (e.g., Day and Devlin, 1998; Gomez and Gunderson, 2003; Menchik and Weisbrod, 1987; Segal and Weisbrod, 2002). For example, some studies have demonstrated that volunteers are more likely than non-volunteers are to have leadership competencies, social self-confidence, critical thinking skills, and conflict-resolution skills (Astin and Sax, 1998; Astin, et al., 1999). Community involvement could thus help recruiters to select the proper

candidates and to help applicants obtain appropriate positions, thereby enhancing PJ and PO fit.

At this stage, both employees and employers can use their community involvement to signal to each other that there is a high potential for a favorable PO and PJ fit. For employers, both employer-led and employee-led forms of CSR could be used as part of the selection process. For example, employers could discuss their CSR efforts during interviews and ask applicants about their attitudes and willingness to be involved. Applicants who have a rich experience of volunteering and giving, whether privately or through their former workplaces, could use this to signal to the employers that they are well suited to work for a company with a high level of social responsibility and that they would be willing and able to participate – and possibly take a leading role – in employer-led CSR efforts. The two approaches can thus be combined by both parties during the selection stage (see also Peloza and Hassay, 2006; Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Post-hire phase
Organizational socialization
Within the stage of organizational socialization, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) identify three main areas of interest: values and goal congruence, job satisfaction, and skills-based training, which in turn enhance PO and PJ fit. During the organizational socialization stage, it is particularly important for new employees to acquire the knowledge, skills, values, and behaviors that they need in order to become effective members of the organization (see also Schein, 1968). In this process, which is also known as "onboarding" (Bauer and Erdogan, 2011), CSR can be used to introduce new members to the organization (see Grant et al., 2008; Gully

et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2013). Research has indicated that the practice of offering employees opportunities to participate in CSR efforts (including corporate volunteering and payroll giving) can contribute to organizational socialization (Kim et al., 2010; Haski-Leventhal, 2013). Similar to the value congruence in the selection stage, studies have demonstrated that participation in and/or awareness of corporate volunteering on the part of employees can contribute to value congruence (Rupp et al., 2013) and behavioral congruence, both of which can lead to effective organizational socialization and PO fit (Haski-Leventhal et al, 2015).

Volunteering has also been advocated as a low-cost solution for corporate training needs (Caudron, 1994). Although most studies in this regard are based on self-reported data, they indicate that the skills and perspectives that employees acquire through volunteer activities include the following: people skills, an increased ability to work as part of a team, contacts that can be used at work, improved work teams, new and innovative ideas that can be used at work, knowledge sharing, the acquisition of new skills, and new perspectives on their own business (Bart et al., 2009; Muthuri et al., 2009). Skills-based volunteering (Mirvis, 2012) can be particularly helpful at this stage, as it can also help to develop the newcomer's paid-job skills and increase PJ fit.

In the organizational socialization stage, an emphasis on an employer-led approach would seem to be the most effective. Given the fundamental necessity of achieving a proper fit between the organization, the job, and the individual during this stage based on the needs of the organization (e.g., socialization), organizations should select their target charities and activities in such a way as to express their own organizational values and goals, thereby socializing new employees. In

159

addition, a high degree of fit is needed between the organization's overall strategy and identity and its involvement in CSR (Porter and Kramer, 2006; Werther and Chandler, 2014). Skills-based volunteering could contribute in this regard (Mirvis, 2012). It is important for the organization to determine what new employees need in order to perform well in their new roles and to design their CSR activities in this stage to correspond to these needs.

Long-term tenure
In the long-term tenure stage, all dimensions of P-E fit are important, although the mechanisms that affect them differ from those operating in the previous stages. In this stage, turnover and satisfaction are likely to affect PJ fit, career satisfaction, with retraining affecting PV fit, tenure and attrition affecting PO fit, group composition and demographics affecting PG fit, and vertical dyadic linkage and leader-member exchange affecting PP fit. In the long-term tenure stage, CSR is particularly likely to increase the motivation employees and their intentions to remain with the organization. Numerous studies have indicated that CSR can play a vital role in increasing employee engagement and organizational commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Caligiuri et al., 2012; Grant et al., 2008; Madison et al., 2012; Maignan, et al., 1999; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Kim et al., 2010; Peloza and Hassay, 2006; Turker, 2009). For example, Bartel (2001) draws on social identity theory to suggest that corporate volunteering enhances employee engagement among those who participate, as their perceived associations with their employers tend to increase their self-esteem. In addition, employee volunteering experiences can "create a positive energy from the act of volunteerism that has the effect of strengthening employees' affect toward their employers and producing higher employee

engagement overall" (Caligiuri et al., 2012, p.32). Moreover, empirical evidence has demonstrated the beneficial effect of CSR practices on employee morale, motivation, commitment, loyalty, and turnover (Tuffrey, 2003), in addition to having the potential to increase the willingness of employees to speak highly of their employers (Peloza and Hassay, 2006). As such, CSR can serve as a mechanism that increases employee retention, tenure, and satisfaction, while reducing turnover and attrition, in turn enhancing PO fit (see also Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015) and PJ fit.

Corporate volunteer programs can also be utilized for retraining employees (see also the selection and organizational socialization stage for the potential of volunteering with regard to skill development). For example, when Cisco's business substantially declined, the company used its corporate volunteer program to reallocate 81 employees to work for a nonprofit organization for one year. Rather than agreeing to a separation package, these employees agreed to earn far less salary in order to do so. This was nevertheless not the most important outcome for Cisco. Once their employees had returned to their regular working environments, Cisco realized that their experiences at the nonprofit organizations had served as an effective personal growth tool, with such effects as improved communication skills and conflict resolution (Hoyt, 2003). The experience had also enhanced the overall life satisfaction of the employees, as it had allowed them to engage in work that they considered both challenging and meaningful (Rodell, 2013). Other studies have demonstrated that corporate volunteering allows employees the opportunity to make a positive difference in the lives of others (Grant, 2007). Such experiences can lead to personal development by giving

meaning to life, offering the opportunity to see how others live, developing appreciation for what one has, and creating a sense of inner satisfaction (Muthuri et al., 2009), thereby enhancing PV fit.

Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) identify PG fit (i.e., the fit between an employee and other members of a team/group) as another important goal during the long-term tenure stage, including in terms of group demographics and group composition. Although CSR could not logically be expected to have much influence on group demographics, it does have the potential to affect group composition. One of the factors affecting group composition is group familiarity (for a review, see Moreland and Levine, 1994). Group members become familiar with each other through such experiences as training (Liang et al., 1995) and interaction prior to working together (c.f., Moreland and Levine, 1994). In this regard, CSR (particularly corporate volunteering) activities can provide the context for training. For example, a company might form groups to act as consultants to nonprofit organizations. While providing training in their own skill areas, the project brings employees into interaction with each other in a manner that facilitates group composition at work. Several studies have indicated that corporate volunteering – particularly when performed by groups or teams of employees – can be very helpful in establishing new relationships and strengthening existing ones (Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan, 2009; Muthuri et al., 2009).

Recent research has begun to address the effects of CSR on leader-member exchange (Mallory and Rupp, 2014) and vertical dyadic relationships. Strengthening the relationships between leaders and followers requires adhering to patterns of social exchange, which are based on the mutual exchange of valued tangible and

non-tangible resources (Graen and Scandura, 1987, p. 181; Martin et al., 2010, p. 37). In other words, "each party must offer something the other party sees as valuable and each party must see the exchange as reasonably equitable or fair" (Graen and Scandura, 1987, p. 182). In this regard, CSR could provide an environment in which leaders and followers could exchange these resources. For example, Bruce (1994) identifies recognition by superiors as a motivator for engaging in CSR (see intra-organizational volunteerism by Peloza and Hassay, 2006). Companies could use such joint engagement to encourage meaningful exchanges. While volunteering, leaders and other organizational members could share unique experiences that might strengthen their relationships (Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan, 2009). Moreover, in their volunteer roles (particularly in contexts other than skills-based volunteering), leaders could deliberately exchange roles with other organizational members, given that many volunteer activities call for skills or experiences other than those required in the volunteer's paid job (Tuffrey, 2003). Such experiences could help organizational leaders and members to develop greater appreciation for each other.

Finally, CSR can play a role when employees withdraw from the organization (e.g., through attrition or retirement), sometimes due to low P-E fit. Even in such cases, companies have an interest in retaining a good reputation as organizations and employers (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Du et al., 2010; Fobrum, 2005). They could use CSR to achieve this while helping employees in the transition to the next phase of their careers. Given that transferring to another position or leaving the organization do not always take place by choice on the part of the employee, the development of employability could logically be regarded as a

component of internal social responsibility, which has to do with the ethical treatment of employees and other internal stakeholders (Brammer et al., 2007).

Providing employees with volunteer opportunities during the course of their employment can help them to find meaningful leisure activities after retirement (Lum and Lightfoot, 2005; Musick et al., 1999; Musick and Wilson, 2003; Van Willigan, 2000; Wheeler et al., 1998), which have been associated with many health benefits (Musick and Wilson, 2003). For example, volunteering has been associated with social connectedness and a sense of belonging (Battaglia and Metzer, 2000; Musick, et al., 1999), both of which can enhance an individual's psychological state.

In the transition to other work, it is important for individuals to increase their employability (see e.g., Antoni, 2009; Spera et al., 2013; Zimmeck, 2010). Volunteering can enhance the likelihood of finding a job by enhancing an individual's résumé, network, skills, and self-esteem (Musick and Wilson, 2008). By exposing individuals to multiple social environments, volunteering offers the opportunity to experiment with various social structures – both familiar and unfamiliar – thereby helping them to develop their own personal worlds and work perspectives (Handy and Brudney, 2007).

A combination of employer-led and employee-led approaches to volunteering might offer the optimal solution, depending on the dimension of P-E fit that is to be achieved. First, an employer-led program has the potential to contribute to PP fit, given that leader-driven CSR activities allow the development of mutual relationships between leaders and followers at any level, regardless of their direct interaction at work (Mallory and Rupp, 2014). In addition, for

employees seeking to enhance their profiles within an organization, engaging in employer-led programs (particularly those supported by supervisors or senior managers) can be an attractive means of achieving this goal (see also Peloza and Hassay, 2006). Second, in order to establish PG fit, the organization should seek to attain the desired team composition by assuming a dominant role in the decision-making process concerning who is to participate in which activities. Third, in order to establish PV and PJ fit, the organization should offer opportunities that contribute to the development of professional skills (Mirvis, 2012), while also contributing to the job and vocation through autonomy and choice (Deci and Ryan, 2008). A combined approached should thus work well in this context. To enhance PO, we recommend a combined approach, which could help establish value and behavioral congruence (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015). Finally, as employees progress toward transition or attrition (reflecting a lack of PO fit), it is important to emphasize the needs of the employee and the ways in which social responsibility could play a pivotal role in meeting them. We therefore argue that an employee-led approach, in which employees have a clear say and autonomy with regard to the activities to be performed, would be more suitable in this context. In this way, the organization could encourage and support employees in their efforts to find volunteer activities that fit their current or future needs (Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Discussion and conclusion
Theoretical implications

      In this conceptual paper, we have introduced the potential of CSR to establish or enhance various dimensions of P-E fit in different stages of employment. We present the concept as an instrument based on various

combinations of employer-led and employee-led approaches. In Figure 4.3, we present our conceptual model, which is based on the original model developed by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006), extended to include the role of CSR and the two approaches that we have discussed (i.e., employer-led and employee-led).

Temporal stages	Main contribution of CSR	CSR approach	Dimension of P-E fit	Research Emphasis within fit
Pre-recruitment	Supporting industry development, including potential workforce	Employer-led approach	PV	Career Counseling
Recruitment	Signaling that the company is an engaged employer and identifying its desired prospects.		PJ	Minimum Qualifications Realistic Job Previews
	Seeking value congruence and influencing job pursuit intentions	Combined approach	PP	Recruiter Effects
Selection	Screening community activities for professional competencies, citizenship behavior, and value congruence	Combined approach	PJ	Selection Instrument Assessment Center
			PO	Cultural fit

Figure 4.3: Framework for CSR and P-E fit (extended by authors based on Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006)

Temporal stages	Main contribution of CSR	CSR approach	Dimension of P-E fit	Research Emphasis within fit
Socialization	Introducing new organizational members to the organization and helping them to acquire the professional skills needed for the job.	Employer-led approach	PO	Values
				Goals
			PJ	Job satisfaction
				Skills-based training
Long-term Tenure	Establishing value congruence and career satisfaction and functioning as a context for retraining, interpersonal interaction, and strengthening relationships among organizational members. Increasing employability and the likelihood of meaningful retirement	Combined approach		Turnover
			PJ	Satisfaction
				Career satisfaction
			PV	Retraining
			PO	Tenure
				Attrition
			PG	Group composition
				Vertical dyadic linkage
			PP	Leader-member exchange

Figure 4.3: *Continued*

The framework presented in this paper has both theoretical and practical implications, and it contributes to current research on CSR in various ways. It also highlights the need for additional empirical work on this topic, examining the relationships proposed in our framework.

The most important theoretical contribution of this framework is that it demonstrates the applicability of CSR to all dimensions of P-E fit. To the best of our knowledge, previous studies of CSR (and corporate community involvement) have focused on isolated dimensions (see e.g., Gully et al., 2014; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015), thereby ignoring the potential for a more integral view of the relationship. Our framework demonstrates the potential effects of CSR on each dimension of fit, albeit through differing approaches.

Second, studies on CSR have tended to neglect the fact that not all employees respond to social initiatives in the same way (Bhatacharaya et al., 2008). Many existing studies focus on only one stage of employment (for recruitment, see e.g., Greening and Turban, 1997) or fail to specify the types of employees for whom their results have implications. Relationships have been identified between CSR and organizational identity (Kim et al., 2010), job satisfaction (Jones, 2010), meaningfulness at work (Rodell, 2013), and human capital (Muthuri et al., 2009) without examining whether these effects occur in the same way for different types of employees. The framework that we have developed based on the theory of P-E fit allows for a more integral assessment of CSR and its effects by differentiating employees according to the various stages of employment stages and addressing the various dimensions of fit.

Third, this framework corresponds to recent research that has begun to acknowledge that specific types of practices are likely to bear an influence on the outcomes and effectiveness of CSR and corporate community involvement (see Grant, 2012; Grant, et al., 2008; Penner et al., 2005; Rodell and Lynch, 2015). The propositions regarding the different approaches to CSR (i.e., employer-led and employee-led) address this issue, suggesting ways in which organizations can provide organizational support and to which ends. Although we have attempted to explain how CSR could be utilized to achieve specific goals by offering various combinations of the two approaches, we acknowledge that the further development of these insights will require additional research. In particular, future studies could examine how various forms of activities affect particular organizational outcomes (see also Rodell and Glynch, 2015; Grant, 2012; Grant et al., 2008; Van der Voort et al., 2009).

In addition to the strategic orientation of CSR to external stakeholders such as the community, competitive context and consumers (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Liu et al., 2013; Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006), we show that CSR has also many internal strategic advantages. In particular, we focused on P-E fit as the most prominent business (and, indirectly, economic) value. By addressing the employer-led and employee-led approaches to CSR, our frameworks also demonstrate how companies could be more strategic in their use of CSR. We demonstrate that the two approaches could potentially play a vital role in achieving P-E fit and, ultimately, contributing to overall corporate performance, although one approach might be more suitable than the other in some stages of employment. Existing

research makes little distinction between types of approach and activities (for an exception see Liu et al., 2013). In particular, studies have paid little attention to the employee-led approach, even though it is common practice in many companies (Van der Voort et al., 2009). Insight into a balanced approach is important, given existing evidence that a narrow focus on only one approach might generate double-edged audience effects, as some employees might object to the chosen approach (Van der Voort et al., 2009). For example, an employer-led approach to CSR could be perceived as controversial, possibly triggering an ideological debate among organizational members. This could result in an "ownership dilemma" (Van der Voort et al., 2009) or fine lines of appropriateness (Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005), as some might perceive community involvement as a highly personal act (Houghton et al., 2009). By providing a balance between the employer-led and employee-led approaches to CSR, we have provided additional insight into how companies can use their socially responsible activities in a strategic manner.

In addition to demonstrating how CSR can be used to enhance or establish various dimensions of P-E fit, our framework offers insight into how CSR can be used in the context of attrition or in situations in which there is a lack of PO fit. To the best of our knowledge, this constitutes a novel approach to utilizing CSR, as it is yet to be described as a powerful mechanism for employees in transition. Although scholars have acknowledged the powerful role that volunteering can play in the employment process (see e.g., Franzen and Hangartner, 2006) or within the context of active aging after retirement (e.g., Martinson and Minkler, 2006), it has yet to be

described as a mechanism that companies could use to facilitate the efforts of their employees in this stage.

Although our paper emphasizes the instrumental potential of CSR to establish or enhance P-E fit, it is important not to ignore its contribution to society. The further development of the business case for CSR also has the potential to enhance its benefits for the broader community. For example, studies have provided evidence that the CSR activities that employees perform through their employers can have spill-over effects to private community involvement (Krasnapolskaya et al., 2015). In addition, as more companies become involved in providing support to the community, this can enhance the organizational capacity of non-profit organizations and charities to achieve their missions and improve their service to beneficiaries (Samuel et al., 2013; Samuel et al., in press; Roza et al., 2013).

Practical implications
For practitioners, our paper offers an innovative framework for using CSR to establish all aspects of PE throughout the various stages of employment. In addition to creating social impact and social value, companies often use their CSR efforts instrumentally or strategically, in order to achieve various organizational goals (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2013; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Porter and Kramer, 2006). In this article, we develop this approach further and shed light on how it can be used to achieve fit. Our framework provides an integrated perspective for managers responsible for Human Resource Management and/or CSR, as it specifies different approaches to CSR in different stages of employment. In addition to explaining the potential outcomes of CSR, the

combination of the two approaches presented in this framework could help companies to encourage more employees to engage in such behavior, thus eventually increasing the rate of engagement (Van der Voort et al., 2009; see also chapter 3).

We also demonstrate the potential of CSR as an interesting alternative for organizational socialization and learning. Previous studies have indicated that CSR can enhance PO fit, as well as value and behavioral congruence (e.g., Gully et al., 2013; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2015; Rupp et al., 2013). Our study is also consistent with the concepts of experience-based and experiential learning (Kolb, 1979; 1984). In this regard, employees could learn soft or hard skills through their experiences volunteering for non-profit organizations.

Our framework combines CSR practices to suggest an alternative organizational approach to people withdrawing from the company. Particularly for those approaching retirement age, community involvement could lead to a meaningful retirement, with all of its associated advantages (Morrow-Howell et al., 2003; Thoits and Hewitt, 2001). For example, people who remain active in society later in life are less depressed (Musick and Wilson, 2003) and enjoy an enhanced quality of life (Fraser et al., 2009), as volunteering is likely to provide social connectedness and a sense of belonging (Battaglia and Metzer, 2000; Musick et al., 1999). In light of evidence that corporate volunteers are also likely to volunteer in private life (De Gilder et al., 2005), organizations could encourage such behavior by socializing employees to volunteering. To this end, we suggest managerial practices that companies could use to help retiring employees begin volunteering privately and reaping the associated benefits (Musick and Wilson, 2008).

Our paper further strengthen the argument that CSR is increasingly gaining a more central position in the organization, connecting CSR with other functional areas in the organization. We argue that the only way to utilize CSR to the fullest advantage requires integrating it into the policies and practices for which it has potential benefits. In particular, this conceptual paper has shown how CSR can be used in light of Human Resource Management, including the internal consequences and the external consequences such as improving the competitive context for prospective employees. As such, we suggest the need for close collaboration between those responsible for human resource management and those responsible for CSR. Additionally, close collaboration with those responsible for communication is important, in order to signal the company's efforts both internally and externally. This is particularly important with regard to communications with external stakeholders in the pre-hire phase (including the general public and prospective job applicants) and with regard to internal communication aimed at encouraging involvement by employees and other internal stakeholders in the post-hire phase.

Finally, in this article, we have limited our treatment of CSR to the perspective of P-E fit, restricting our analysis to the categorization of research areas identified by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006). We nevertheless suggest that, in practice, CSR could also serve other areas of interest to companies, even those extending beyond P-E fit. These applications could be particular relevant for Human Resource managers (see also Morgeson et al., 2013). For example, Human Resource managers would do well to investigate the potential of volunteering for facilitating re-organization processes or for providing support to employees who are

between job roles or assignments. For example, when Nedcar, a major Dutch automotive manufacturer, needed to reconstruct one of its factories, the company needed to re-allocate 1500 employees. Because alternative positions were available for only 300 employees, the remaining 1200 people were faced with the prospect of being laid off until the new factory was completed. The company devised a program in which these employees could participate as volunteers for local non-profit organizations (ANP, 2013).

Conclusion

In this conceptual paper, we argue that CSR can be used an instrument for establishing various dimensions of P-E fit throughout all stages of employment. Based on this argument, we developed a conceptual framework that explains the outcomes of P-E fit along a continuum of organizational approaches to CSR. We suggest that, in order to maximize benefits related to the workplace, CSR should be highly directed by the company in the initial stages of employment, while the influence and voice of employees should be more apparent in later stages, with regard to the facilitation of volunteering. These initial suggestions can enhance the general understanding of ways in which organizations can influence the outcomes of their involvement in volunteering.

References

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(3), 836-863.

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility. A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932-968.

Antoni, D. G. (2009). Intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivations to volunteer and social capital formation. *Kyklos*, *62*(3), 359-370.

Astin, A. W., & Sax, L. J. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. *Journal of College Student Development*, *39*, 251-263.

Astin, A.W., Sax, L.J. & Avalos, J. (1999). Long term effects of volunteerism during the undergraduate years. *The Review of Higher Education, 22*(2), 187-202.

Barsade, S. G., Ward, A.J., Turner, J.D.F. & Sonnenfeld, J.A. (2000). To your heart's content: a model of affective diversity in top management teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 45*(4), 802-837.

Bart, C., Baetz, M. C., & Pancer, S. M. (2009). Leveraging human capital through an employee volunteer program: the case of Ford Motor Company of Canada. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, *10*(1), 121-134.

Bartel, C. A. (2001). Social comparisons in boundary-spanning work: Effects of community outreach on members' organizational identity and identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*(3), 379-413.

Basil, D.B., Runte, M.S., Easwaramoorthy, M. & Barr, C. (2009). Company Support for Employee Volunteering: A National Survey of Companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics, 85*(2), 387–398.

Battaglia, A. M., & Metzer, J. (2000). Older Adults and Volunteering: A Symbiotic Association. *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, *5*(1), 5-12.

Bauer, T. N., & Erdogan, B. (2011). Organizational socialization: The effective onboarding of new employees. In: Zedeck, S. (Ed), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, 3* (pp. 51-64). American Psychological Association, Washington DC, US.

Becker, T. E. (1992). Foci and bases of commitment: Are they distinctions worth making? *Academy of Management Journal*, *35*(1), 232-244.

Berger, I. E., Cunningham, P. & Drumwright, M.E. (2007). Mainstreaming Corporate Social Responsibility: Developing markets for virtue. *California Management Review, 49*(4), 132-157.

Bhattacharya, C. B., Sen, S., & Korschun, D. (2008). Using corporate social responsibility to win the war for talent. *MIT Sloan management review*, 49(2), 37-44

Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of Corporate Social Responsibility to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(10), 1701-1719.

Brammer, S. J., & Pavelin, S. (2006). Corporate reputation and social performance: The importance of fit. *Journal of Management Studies, 43*(3), 435-455.

Brewis, G. (2004). Beyond banking: Lessons from an impact evaluation of employee volunteerism at Barclays Bank. *Voluntary Action*, *6*(3), 13-25.

Brudney, J. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2007). Winning volunteer scenarios: The soul of a new machine. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA), 24*(6), 68-79.

Byrne, J. (2005). Forming a culture of giving: A case study in successful university internal fundraising. *Metropolitan Universities, 16*(4), 71-84.

Caldwell, D. F. & O'Reilly, C.A. (1990). Measuring person-job fit with a profile comparison process. *Journal of Applied Psychology 7*(5), 648-657.

Caligiuri, P., Mencin, A. & Jiang, K. (2012). Win-Win-Win: The influence of company-sponsored volunteerism programs on employees, NGOs, and business units. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(4), 825-860.

Caudron, S. (1994). Volunteers efforts offer low-costs training options. *Personnel Journal, 73*(6), 38-44.

Chatman, J. A. (1989). Matching people and organizations: selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 36*, 459-484. DOI: 10.5465/AMBPP.1989.4980837

Chernev, A. & Blair, S. (2015). Doing well by doing good: The benevolent halo of Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(6), 1412-1425.

Cnaan, R. A., Handy, F., & Wadsworth, M. (1996). Defining who is a volunteer: Conceptual and empirical considerations. *Nonprofit and voluntary sector quarterly*, *25*(3), 364-383.

Coldwell, D. A., Billsberry, J., Van Meurs, N., & Marsh, P. J. (2008). The effects of person–organization ethical fit on employee attraction and retention: Towards a testable explanatory model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *78*(4), 611-622.

Dawis, R.V. (1992). Person–environment fit and job satisfaction. In: C.J. Cranny, P.C. Smith, & E.F. Stone (Eds.), *Job satisfaction* (pp. 69–88). Lexington: New York.

Day, K. M., & Devlin, R. A. (1998). The payoff to work without pay: Volunteer work as an investment in human capital. *Canadian Journal of Economics*, *31*(5), 1179-1191.

De Gilder, D., Schuyt, T. N. M. & Breedijk, M. (2005). Effects of an employee volunteering program on the work force: The ABN-AMRO case. *Journal of Business Ethics, 61*(2), 143-152.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *9*(1), 1-11.

Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2010). Maximizing business returns to corporate social responsibility (CSR): The role of CSR communication. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *12*(1), 8-19.

Edwards, J. R. (2008). Person-Environmental Fit in organizations: An assessment of theoretical progress. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *2*(1), 167-230.

Edwards, J. R., Caplan, R. D. & Harrison, R.V. (1998). Person–environment fit theory: Conceptual foundations, empirical evidence, and directions for future

research. In C.L. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of organizational stress* (pp. 28–67). Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Evans, R. W. & Davis, W. D. (2011). An examination of perceived corporate citizenship, job applicant attraction, and CSR work role definition. *Business and Society*, *50*(3), 456-480.

Fobrum, C.J. (2005). A world of reputation research, analysis and thinking — Building corporate reputation through CSR initiatives: evolving standards. *Corporate Reputation Review, 8*(1), 7-12.

Franzen, A., & Hangartner, D. (2006). Social networks and labor market outcomes: the non-monetary benefits of social capital. *European Sociological Review, 22*(4), 353-368.

Fraser, J., Clayton, S., Sickler, J., & Taylor, A. (2009). Belonging at the zoo: Retired volunteers, conservation activism and collective identity. *Ageing and society*, *29*(3), 351-368.

Gautier, A. & Pache, A.C., (2013). Research on corporate philanthropy: A review and assessment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(3), 343-369.

Gomez, M. & Gunderson, R. (2003). Volunteer activity and the demands of work and family. *Industrial Relations, 58*(4), 573-589.

Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 175-208). JAI Press: Greenwhich CT.

Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(2), 393-417.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(4), 589-615.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E. & Rosso, B. (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(5), 898-918.

Graves, L. M. & Powell, G.N. (1995). The effect of sex similarity on recruiters' evaluations of actual applicants: A test of the similarity-attraction paradigm. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(1), 85-98.

Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000). Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business and Society*, *39*(3), 254-280.

Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., Castellano, W. G., Han, K., & Kim, A. (2013). A mediated moderation model of recruiting socially and environmentally responsible job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 935-973.

Handy, F., & Brudney, J. L. (2007). When to use volunteer labor resources? An organizational analysis for nonprofit management. *Vrijwillige Inzet Onderzocht, 4*(supplement), 91-100.

Handy, F., Hustinx, L., Kang, C. H., Cnaan, R. A., Brudney, J., Haski, D., Holmes, K., Meijs, L., Pessi, A., Ranade, B., Yamauchi, N. & Zrinscak, S. (2010). A cross-cultural examination of student volunteering: Is it all about résumé building? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 39*(3), 498-523.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2009). Altruism and volunteerism: The perceptions of altruism in four disciplines and their impact on the study of volunteerism. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, *39*(3), 271-299.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2013). Employee engagement in CSR: The case of payroll giving in Australia. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 20*(2), 113-128.

Haski-Leventhal, D., & Cnaan, R. A. (2009). Group processes and volunteering: Using groups to enhance volunteerism. *Administration in Social Work*, *33*(1), 61-80.

Haski-Leventhal, D., Meijs, L. C. P. M., & Hustinx, L. (2010). The third-party model: Enhancing volunteering through governments, corporations and educational institutes. *Journal of Social Policy, 39*(1), 139-159.

Hernandez, M. (2012). Toward an understanding of the psychology of stewardship. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(2): 172 - 193.

Hess, D., Rogovsky, N. & Dunfree, T.W. (2002). The next wave of corporate community involvement: corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review, 44*(2), 110–125.

Hobman, E. V., Bordia, P. & Gallois, C. (2003). Consequences of feeling dissimilar from others in a work team. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(3), 301-325.

Holland, J. L. (1985). *Making vocational choices: A theory of careers* (2nd Edition). Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Houghton, S. M., Gabel, J.T.A., & Williams, D.A. (2009). Connecting the two faces of CSR: Does employee volunteerism improve compliance? *Journal of Business Ethics, 87*(4), 477-494.

Hoyt, D. (2003). Corporate philanthropy at Cisco Systems. Aligning business and social interests. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 68-73.

Jansen, K.J. & Kristof Brown, A. (2006). Toward a multidimensional theory of person-environmental fit. *Journal of Managerial* Issues, *18*(2), 193-212.

Jones, D. A. (2010). Does serving the community also serve the company? Using organizational identification and social exchange theories to understand employee responses to a volunteerism programme. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*(4), 857-878.

Jones, D. A., Willness, C., & Macneil, S. (2014). Why are job seekers attracted by corporate social performance? Experimental and field tests of three signal-based mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*(2), 383-404.

Katz, E., & Rosenberg, J. (2005). An economic interpretation of institutional volunteering. *European Journal of Political Economy*, *21*(2), 429-443.

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and employee–company identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(4) 557-569.

Kim, S.Y. & Park, H. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility as an organizational attractiveness for prospective public relations practitioners. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 103(4), 639-653.

Kim, N., Sung, Y. & Lee, M. (2012). Consumer evaluations of social alliances: The effects of perceived fit between companies and non-profit organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 109*(2), 163-174.

Kolb, D. A. (1976). Management and the learning process. *California Management Review, 18*(3), 21-31.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.

Krasnapolskaya, I., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). The relationship between corporate volunteering and employee civic engagement outside the workplace in Russia. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, Online first,* 1-33.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person–job, person–organization, person–group, and person–supervisor fit. *Personnel psychology*, *58*(2), 281-342.

Liang, D. W., Moreland, R., & Argote, L. (1995). Group versus individual training and group performance: The mediating role of transactive memory. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 21*(4), 384–393.

Liu, G., Eng, T.Y and Ko, W.W. (2013. Strategic directions of corporate community involvement. Journal of Business Ethics, 115(3), 469-487.

Lum, T.Y. & Lightfoot, E. (2005). The effects of volunteering on the physical and mental health of older people. *Research on Aging, 27*(1), 31–55.

Madison, T. F., Ward, S., & Royalty, K. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment and employer-sponsored volunteering. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3*(1)*,* 1-14.

Maignan I., Ferrell, O. C. & Hult, H. T. (1999). Corporate Citizenship: Cultural antecedents and business benefits. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(Fall), 455-469.

Maignan, I., & Ferrell, O. C. (2001). Antecedents and benefits of corporate citizenship: an investigation of French businesses. *Journal of Business Research*, *51*(1), 37-51.

Mallory, D.B. & Rupp, D.E. (2014). "Good leadership": Using corporate social responsibility to increase enhance leader-member exchange. In: T. Bauer and B. Erdogan (eds). *The Oxford Handbook of Leader-Member Exchange.* University of Oxford Press: Oxford.

Martin, R., Epitropaki, O., Thomas, G., & Topakas, A. (2010). A critical review of leader–member relationship (LMX) research: Future prospects and directions. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 25*, 61–91.

Martinson, M. & Minkler, M. (2006). Civic engagement and older adults: A critical perspective. *The Gerontologist, 46*(3), 318-324.

McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. S. (2001). Corporate Social Responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 117-127.

Meijs, L. C. P. M. & Van der Voort, J. (2004). Corporate volunteering: from charity to profit-non-profit partnerships. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 9*(1), 21-31.

Meijs, L. C. P. M., Tschirhart, M., Ten Hoorn, E.M. & Brudney, J. L. (2009). Effect of design elements for corporate volunteer programs on volunteerability. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 26*(1), 23-32.

Menchik, P. L., & Weisbrod, B. A. (1987). Volunteer labor supply. *Journal of Public Economics*, *32*(2), 159-183.

Mirvis, P. (2012). Employee engagement and CSR: Transactional, relational, and developmental approaches. *California Management Review*, *54*(4).

Moos, R. H. (1987). Person-Environment congruence in work, school, and health care settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 31*, 231-247.

Moreland, R. L., & Levine, J. M. (1994). The composition of small groups. In E. Lawler, B. Markovsky, C. Ridgeway, and H.Walker (Eds.), *Advances in group processes* (Vol. 9). JAI: Greenwich, CT. .

Morgeson, F. P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D. A., & Siegel, D. S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to human resource management and organizational behavior domains: A look into the future. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 805-824.

Morrow-Howell, N., Hinterlong, J., Rozario, P. A., & Tang, F. (2003). Effects of volunteering on the well-being of older adults. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *58*(3), S137-S145.

Muchinsky, P.M., & Monahan, C.J. (1987). What is person–environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *31*(3), 268–277.

Musick, M. A., & Wilson, J. (2003). Volunteering and depression: The role of psychological and social resources in different age groups. *Social science & medicine*, *56*(2), 259-269.

Musick, M. A., & Wilson, J. (2008). *Volunteers: A social profile*. Indiana University Press.

Musick, M. A., Herzog, A. R., & House, J. S. (1999).Volunteering and mortality among older adults: Findings from a national sample. *Journal of Gerontology: Social Sciences, 54*(3), 173–180.

Muthuri, J. N., Matten, D. & Moon, J. (2009). Employee volunteering and social capital: Contributions to corporate social responsibility. *British Journal of Management, 20*(1), 75-89.

Nesbit, R., Christensen, R. K., & Gossett, L. M. (2012). Charitable giving in the public workplace: A framework for understanding employees' philanthropic performance. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *35*(3), 449-474.

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J. & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*(3), 487-516.

Pajo, K. & Lee, L. (2011). Corporate-sponsored volunteering: A work design perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics, 99*, 467-482.

Peloza , J., & Hassay, D. N. (2006). Intra-organizational volunteerism: Good soldiers, good deeds and good politics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 64* (4), 357-379.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M.R. (2002). The competitive advantage of corporate philanthropy. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(12), 56-69.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and society: The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review, 84*(4), 78-92.

Potter, V*., &* Scales J. (2008). *Review of payroll giving.* Strategy Complete: London.

Powell, G.N. (1991). Applicant reactions to the initial employment interview: exploring theoretical and methodological issues. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*(1), 647-683.

Prouteau, L., & Wolff, F. C. (2006). Does volunteer work pay off in the labor market? *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, *35*(6), 992-1013.

Raffaelli, R. & Glynn, M.A. (2014). Turnkey or tailored? Relational pluralism, institutional complexity, and the organizational adoption of more or less customized practices. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(2), 541-562.

Rodell, J.B. (2013). Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(5), 1274-1294.

Rodell, J.B. & Lynch, J. (2015). Perceptions of employee volunteering: Is it "credited" or "stigmatized" by colleagues? *Academy of Management Journal, Online first*, 1-65.

Romney‑Alexander, D. (2002). Payroll giving in the UK: Donor incentives and influences on giving behaviour. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *7*(1), 84-92.

Roza, L. & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2014). Involved learning. In: *Volunteering and youth services. Essential readings on volunteering and volunteer management for social work, social policy and urban management.* Meijs, L.C.P.M., Metz J.W. and Bridges-Karr, L. (Eds). SWP, The Netherlands.

Roza, L., Meijs, L., Hustinx, L., & Shachar, I. (2013). *Costs and benefits of involving corporate volunteers in NPOs.* Working paper resulting from the Penn Social Impact Doctoral Fellowship Program of the School of Social Policy and Practice (June 2013) Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (USA).

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Thornton, M. A., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2013). Applicants' and employees' reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility: The moderating effects of first-party justice perceptions and moral identity. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 895-933.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. (2013). Corporate volunteering: benefits and challenges for nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 24*(2), 163-179.

Samuel, O., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (in press). Exploring Partnerships from the Perspective of HSO Beneficiaries: The Case of Corporate Volunteering. Accepted for publication in the special issue: "Partnerships". In *Human Service Organizations, Governance and Leadership*.

Schein, E. H. (1968). Organizational socialization and the profession of management. IMR: *Industrial Management Review, 9*(2), 1-16.

Schneider, B., Kristof, A.L., Goldstein, H.W., & Smith, D.B. (1997). What is this thing called fit? In N.R. Anderson & P. Herriott (Eds.), *Handbook of selection and appraisal* (2nd ed., pp. 393–412). Wiley: London.

Segal, L. M., & Weisbrod, B. A. (2002). Volunteer labor sorting across industries. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, *21*(3), 427-447.

Sen, S. & Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research* 38(2), 225-243.

Smith, D.H. (1975). Voluntary action and voluntary groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *1*, 247-270.

Sobczak, A., Debucquet, G. & Havard, C. (2006). The impact of higher education on students' and young managers' perception of companies and CSR: an

exploratory analysis. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, *6*(4), 463-474.

Spence, M. (2002). Signaling in retrospect and the informational structure of markets. *American Economic Review*, *92*(3), 434-459.

Spera, C., Ghertner, R., Nerino, A., & DiTommaso, A. (2013). Volunteering as a pathway to employment: Does volunteering increase odds of finding a job for the out of work. *Washington, DC: Office of Research and Evaluation, Corporation for National and Community Service.*

Thoits, P. A., & Hewitt, L. N. (2001). Volunteer work and well-being. *Journal of health and social behavior*, *42*(2), 115-131.

Tirole, J. (1989). *The theory of industrial organisation*. MIT Press: Cambridge.

Tschirhart, M., & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate community service programs: Enhancing community capacity? In A. C. Brooks (Ed.), *Gifts of time and money: The role of charity in America's communities* (pp. 59–75). Rowman & Littlefield: Lanham, MD.

Tuffrey, M. (2003) *Good companies, better employees – how community involvement and good corporate citizenship can enhance employee morale, motivation, commitment and performance.* The Corporate Citizenship Company: London.

Turban, D.B. & Dougherty, T.W. (1992). Influences of campus recruiting on applicant attraction to firms. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(4), 739-765.

Turker, D. (2009). How corporate social responsibility influences organizational commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *89*(2), 89-204.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*(3), 311-329.

Van Schie, S., Guentert, S.T. & Wehner, T. (2011). No corporate volunteering without volunteers. *International Journal of Business Environment, 4*(2), 121-132.

Van Willigan M. (2000). Differential benefits of volunteering across the life course. *Journal of Gerontology, 55*(5), 308–18.

Vancouver, J. B. & Schmitt, N.W. (1991). An exploratory examination of person-organization fit: Organizational goal congruence. *Personnel Psychology, 44*(2), 333 352.

Waddock, S.A, Bodwell, C. & Graves, S.B. (2002). Responsibility. The new business imperative. *Academy of Management Executive, 16*(2), 132-148.

Werther, W. B., & Chandler, D. (2014). *Strategic CSR*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Wheeler, J. A., Gorey K. M., & Greenblatt, B. (1998). The beneficial effects of volunteering for older volunteers and the people they serve: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 47*(1), 69–79.

Wood, D. J. & Logsdon, J. M. (2001), 'Theorising Business Citizenship', In Andriof J. and McIntosh M., *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship* (pp. 83-103), Greenleaf, Sheffield.

Zhang, L., & Gowan, M. A. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, applicants' individual traits, and organizational attraction: A person–organization fit perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(3), 345-362.

Zimmeck, M. (2010). The Compact 10 years on: government's approach to partnership with the voluntary and community sector in England. *Voluntary Sector Review*, *1*(1), 125-133.

CHAPTER 5: CONGRUENCE IN CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: CONNECTING THE IDENTITY AND BEHAVIOR OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES[21]

Abstract

The multi-disciplinary interest in social responsibility on the part of individuals and organizations over the past 30 years has generated several descriptors of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and employee social responsibility (ESR). These descriptors focus largely on socially responsible behavior and, in some cases, on socially responsible identity. Very few authors have combined the two concepts in researching social responsibility. This situation can lead to an oversimplification of the concept of CSR, thereby impeding the examination of congruence between employees and organizations with regard to social responsibility. In this article, we connect two dimensions of social responsibility – identity and behavior – to build a Social-Responsibility Matrix consisting of four patterns for classifying the social responsibility of employees and employers: Low Social Responsibility, Identity-based Social Responsibility, Behavior-based Social Responsibility and Entwined Social Responsibility. The positioning of employers and employees on the same matrix (as determined by internal, relational, and/or external factors) is vital for assessing the level of congruence between employers and employees with regard to social responsibility and for discussing the possible outcomes for both parties. These identity and behavior-based patterns, determinants, and levels of congruence

---

[21] This chapter is co-authored by Dr. Debbie Haski-Leventhal and Dr. Lucas Meijs (supervisor) and is accepted for publication in Journal of Business Ethics. Full reference: Haski-Leventhal, D., Roza, L. and Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). Congruence in corporate social responsibility: connecting the identity and behaviour of employers and employees. *Journal of Business Ethics*, online first.

connecting employees and employers, form the foundation for the multi-dimensional, dynamic ESR-CSR Congruence Model, as exemplified in a case-study. This contribution enhances the existing literature and models of CSR, in addition to improving the understanding of employee-employer congruence, thereby broadening the array of possibilities for achieving positive organizational outcomes based on CSR.

Introduction

In the past 30 years, interest in corporate social responsibility (CSR) has reached new levels, both in research and in practice, with particular emphasis on positive outcomes (for a recent review, see Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). These positive outcomes range from financial performance, positive reputation, talent attraction, and consumer brand loyalty to organizational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction (Liu et al., 2013; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001). Many scholars have developed descriptors of CSR, focusing on the organizational level of analysis (see e.g., Carroll, 1991; Porter and Kramer, 2011; Zadek, 2004; 2007). Most of these studies, however, focus on companies and not on employees. Although scholars have recently begun to recognize the importance of employee engagement in CSR (Aguilera et al., 2007; Rupp et al., 2013), the literature is still sparse, with only 4% of all published academic articles on CSR focusing on individual level of analysis (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012).

The recent attention to employees and CSR has generated descriptors of employee involvement in CSR (Hemingway, 2005; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008; Slack et al., 2015). Unfortunately, however, these descriptors are incompatible with organizational-level descriptors. To date, little effort has been made to consider the

consequences of combining a particular pattern of social responsibility on the part of the organization (i.e., CSR) with another pattern of social responsibility on the part of the employee (i.e., employee social responsibility, or ESR). Conceptual differences in the constructs for the organizational and individual levels of analysis make it impossible to compare companies and their employees. To address this void, we present corporate and employee patterns based on similar constructs, thus allowing us to examine the consequences of particular patterns of social responsibility on the part of organizations and employees.

These constructs and patterns are based on the observation that current studies on CSR tend to focus either on the relationship between **CSR identity** and organizational outcomes (Marin and Rubio, 2009; Perez and Rodriques del Bosque, 2012; Rolland and Bazzoni, 2009), or on the organizational outcomes of actual **CSR behavior** (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Kim et al., 2010; Knox and Maklan, 2004). Developing a full understanding of the consequences of congruence between companies and employees in terms of social responsibility (analogous to P-O fit), however, requires understanding what happens when the two constructs socially responsible identity and socially responsible behavior are connected or separated.

By adopting this approach, we enhance existing models by using similar theoretical constructs for both the individual (ESR) and the organizational (CSR) levels to create a dynamic matrix comprising of four patterns of social responsibility. The novelty here does not reside so much in the patterns based upon identity and behavior as it does in the applicability of these patterns to both employees and organizations. Such comparisons are particularly relevant when

discussing potential congruence between organizations and their employees with regard to social responsibility. We draw on person-organization fit (P-O fit) theory to explain the potential consequences of this congruence (or lack thereof). The patterns can be used to describe the ongoing changes in engagement in social responsibility at the level of both company and employee, in addition to demonstrating how the two levels interact to influence each other and increase the level of congruence in social responsibility.

The article begins with an examination of identity-related and behavioral aspects of social responsibility at the organizational level (i.e., CSR) and at the individual level (i.e., ESR). We then elaborate on the construction of a matrix that can typify these parallel constructs. To develop descriptors based on the integral view of social responsibility (i.e., a focus on elements of both identity and behavior), we present a matrix highlighting four patterns of engagement in social responsibility: Low Social Responsibility, Identity-based Social Responsibility, Behavior-based Social Responsibility and Entwined Social Responsibility. After explaining the dynamics of the model, we discuss the determinants of patterns of engagement in social responsibility. We use the matrix to assess the level of ESR-CSR congruence. We illustrate the applicability of the matrix according to a case study, in addition to discussing the implications for practice and directions for additional research.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Employee Social Responsibility (ESR)

Since the 1970s, many different definitions have emerged for the concept of CSR. Some definitions (e.g., Carroll, 1979) focus on types of responsibility (i.e., financial,

legal, ethical and philanthropic); others (e.g., Freeman, 1984) focus on stakeholders, and still others focus on the action taken (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). One definition that includes both identity (values and respect) and actions (decision-making) can be found in Aaronson (2003): "Business decision making linked to ethical values, compliance with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities, and the environment around the world" (p. 310). In this article, we refer to CSR as a combination of an organization's socially responsible identity and socially responsible behavior, aimed at the promotion of some social good.

Like organizations, employees have particular values and attitudes with regard to social responsibility. We therefore propose the parallel concept of ESR, defined as the combination of an employee's socially responsible identity and socially responsible behavior aimed at the promotion of some social good. The identity component of ESR may be manifested in strong universal and benevolent values (Schwartz, 1994), strong opinions on sustainability, and/or the desire for the employer to act responsibly and sustainably (Hemingway, 2005; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). Employees may also behave in a socially responsible manner through active participation in the CSR efforts of their employers, as in corporate volunteering (Van der Voort et al., 2009) or payroll giving (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). Furthermore, employees may initiate "employee-led CSR," consisting of efforts involving giving and sustainability originating with employees. Although employees can obviously engage in private forms of social responsibility outside the workplace, this article concentrates only on employee social responsibility (ESR) within companies.

Socially Responsible Identity and Behavior

In this article, we discuss two separate aspects of social responsibility: 1) identity and 2) behavior. These two aspects are applicable to both organizations (i.e., employers) and individuals (i.e., employees). Our conceptualization of socially responsible identity is in line with the concept of "prosocial identity," as addressed in the literature on organizational behavior (Grant et al., 2008). At the individual level, **ESR identity** reflects the notion that many employees identify themselves as giving, caring (i.e., socially responsible) individuals (Aquino and Reed, 2002). Identity refers to self-concept, which consists of the self-beliefs and self-evaluations of individuals, constituting a critical component of their affective and cognitive systems (Campbell et al., 2003). Employee self-concept is a multi-dimensional, multi-faceted, and dynamic structure that is systematically present in all aspects of social information processing (Markus and Wurf, 1987). As argued by Higgins and colleagues (1985), there are at least three classes of self-conceptions: the "actual" self, the "ideal" self, and the "ought" self. Each of these self-conceptions can be tied to ESR. Employees with strong socially responsible identities see themselves as morally and ethically responsible, at least in terms of the ideal self and the ought self, if not the actual self as well.

The term "organizational identity" refers to the uniqueness of the organization, as manifested in its business strategy, espoused values, and philosophy (Gray and Balmer, 1998). It can be regarded as the DNA underlying all of an organization's activities (Eccles et al., 2012), and it can include elements of social responsibility or ethics. Companies with ethical corporate identities are regarded as ethical according to their social connectedness, openness, critical reflexivity, and

responsiveness (Balmer et al., 2007). Companies with socially responsible organizational identities are perceived as helpful, caring, and benevolent (see also prosocial identity; Grant, 2007). A distinct socially responsible organizational identity can develop as the values of CSR are formally distributed throughout the organization in order to direct the organizational mission and vision (Perez and Rodriques del Bosque, 2012). Given our particular interest in the level of congruence between the organization and the employee, we adopt the conceptualization of "conceived identity" developed by Balmer and Greyser (2002), which refers to "the perceptions of the company – its multi-attribute and overall corporate image and corporate reputation – held by relevant stakeholders" (p. 17).

Socially responsible behavior also "represents a broad category of acts that are defined by some significant segment of society and/or one's social group as generally beneficial to other people" (Penner et al., 2005, p. 366). More specifically, **ESR behavior** includes the socially responsible actions of employees in the workplace, along with their participation in the CSR efforts of their employers. It can be seen as a form of extra-role behavior, defined as discretionary behavior intended to benefit the organization (Macey and Schneider, 2008). In line with the concept of extra-role behavior (see organizational citizenship behavior; Organ, 1988), ESR is usually not enforceable by the company; it is not usually included in the job description, and it is not usually recognized explicitly in the formal reward system. Employees can demonstrate ESR behavior in the workplace both informally and through formalized corporate policies (Tschirhart and St Clair, 2005).

Although the concept of socially responsible behavior originated in studies on human behavior (e.g., prosocial behavior), the abundant CSR literature has shown that organizations also demonstrate socially responsible behavior (see also Benabou and Tirole, 2010). In this regard, **CSR behavior** refers to the ways in which a company chooses to behave toward its various stakeholders (Freeman, 1984). It can be directed toward external stakeholders (e.g., consumers, suppliers, communities, and the environment), as well as toward internal stakeholders (in most cases, employees) (Brammer et al., 2007; Castka et al., 2004). It may also involve a variety of behaviors, including corporate philanthropy, addressing social issues, ethical behavior, sustainability, and community involvement.

At both levels, socially responsible behavior has a close, bi-directional relationship to socially responsible identity. We act upon our self-perceptions (Benabou and Tirole, 2010) and, in turn, our behavior and actions affect the ways in which we perceive ourselves (Shamir et al., 1993). Recent research suggests that employees refer to two different standards when forming judgments on the CSR of their employers: 1) the extent to which the image advanced in the CSR program aligns with the organization's identity and 2) the actual initiatives of the CSR program (McShane and Cunningham, 2012). In many cases, however, both individuals and organizations tend to disconnect these two dimensions, failing to act upon values or engaging in behavior that is not based on identities or values. For example, in an article on organizational citizenship behavior, Van Dyne and colleagues (1994) argue that cynicism can lead individuals to engage in behavior that is not consistent with their values, for self-serving reasons. To investigate the extent to which companies and employees correspond to each other in terms of social

responsibility, we must therefore examine both dimensions of social responsibility (i.e., behavior and identity), along with the various combinations that are likely to emerge. This is particularly important in the light of the potential consequences implied by congruence (or the lack thereof).

The Social-Responsibility Matrix
The dual dimensions of identity and behavior are not inherently connected. Individuals and organizations can (and often do) identify with particular ethics and values while behaving in ways that do not reflect these ideals.
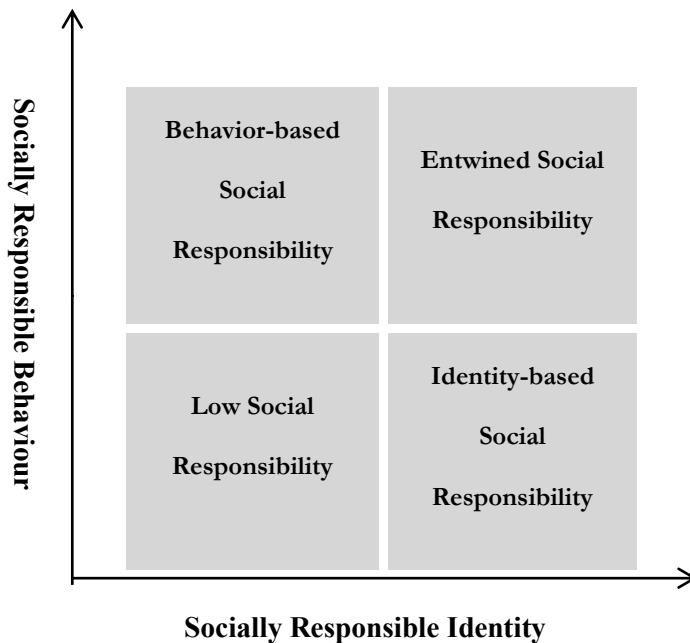

Figure 5.1: The social responsibility matrix

We therefore use these two dimensions of social responsibility to create a matrix consisting of four possible patterns of engagement in social responsibility, based on high and low and high levels of identity and low and high levels of behavior. The

four patterns are: Low Social Responsibility, Identity-based Social Responsibility, Behavior-based Social Responsibility and Entwined Social Responsibility. The Social-Responsibility Matrix allows us to compare organizations and employees and identify the level of congruence between them.

1. **Low Social Responsibility**: This category includes employees and companies with low levels of socially responsible identity and behavior. Employees with low levels of ESR are indifferent toward social or environmental issues in the context of their workplace. They may also avoid participating in the CSR programs of their employers (e.g., due to lack of willingness or interest), demonstrating low levels of socially responsible behavior at work. At the organizational level, this pattern characterizes companies that adopt the narrowest possible view of business responsibility, concentrating exclusively on maximizing shareholder value (Friedman, 1970; Werther and Chandler, 2011). They make no attempt to demonstrate social responsibility in either their organizational identity or their actions toward their stakeholders. Research has indicated (Lange and Washburn, 2012) that such companies have the potential to be harmful to society and the environment (e.g., Enron and Goldman-Sachs, see Bratton and Levitin, 2013), depending on a variety of factors (e.g., their size, core activity and broader impact).

2. **Identity-based Social Responsibility**: This pattern is characteristic of organizations and employees who perceive and project themselves as socially responsible, while taking little or no action to support such self-perceptions (see also Kallio, 2007). Although they may communicate values of social responsibility to external stakeholders, they do not act accordingly. Individual employees exhibiting this pattern might lack the time, willingness, and/or opportunity to

participate in CSR activities or to behave in a socially responsible manner at work. They may have done so in the past, and they may do so in the future, but at any given point, actual or perceived barriers might make them unavailable, incapable, or unwilling to participate (Van der Voort et al., 2009). At the organizational level, Identity-based Social Responsibility can refer to companies whose socially responsible identities are not consistent with their actual practices (see also Hill, 2004). Such companies might profess high levels of interest in social responsibility and sustainability, as expressed in their strategy and values, while demonstrating very low levels of actual socially responsible behavior.

3. **Behavior-based Social Responsibility**: Some employees and organizations may demonstrate a very high level of involvement in socially responsible behavior without subscribing to values associated with such behavior and without adopting a corresponding identity. This pattern is the converse of Identity-based Social Responsibility, reflecting high levels of socially responsible behavior accompanied by low levels of socially responsible identity. For both employers and employees, social responsibility at work can be used for self-serving goals (see e.g., Osuji 2011 on instrumental vs. ethical CSR), or it can be a result of coercion, whether implicit or explicit (Husted and De Jesus Salazar, 2006). For example, some employees might participate in corporate volunteering only as a way to gain favor with their managers or to contribute to a favorable reputation for their organizations (see e.g., Brammer and Millington, 2005; Fobrum, 2005) without incorporating any element of social responsibility into their identities at work. In other cases, employees could be coerced into taking part in the CSR activities of their organizations, even if they have very low levels of ESR identity. Companies could be forced to donate money

through regulations (e.g., the Companies Act, 2013 in India requires targeted companies to spend 2% of their net profits on CSR activities; see Jain and Com, 2014). Such activities are sometimes referred to as *greenwashing* (Lyon and Maxwell, 2011), in which a company discloses positive information on its environmental or social performance without actually valuing CSR.

4. **Entwined Social Responsibility**: In this pattern of engagement in social responsibility, identities and behaviors are aligned. Social responsibility is a part of who individuals or organizations are and what they do (Lui et al., 2013). At the individual level, employees combine work-related self-concepts that reflect high levels of social responsibility with participation and leadership in the CSR efforts of their companies. For example, employees that have this pattern of social responsibility can either become involved in their employers' CSR programs (if there are any) and/or develop employee-led CSR within their workplace (Van der Voort et al., 2009). At the organizational level, Entwined social responsibility has similar features of strategic CSR, which is "the incorporation of a holistic CSR within a firm's strategic planning and core operations so that the firm is managed in the interests of stakeholders to achieve maximum economic and social value over the medium to long term" (Werther and Chandler, 2014, p. 40). Albeit not explicit, this definition of strategic CSR connects identity (i.e., firm's strategy) and behavior (core operations). These companies' social missions and values create distinctive organizational cultures that are also integral to their performance (Austin and Leonard, 2008). Entwined CSR could enhance credibility among stakeholders. As argued by Becker-Olsen and colleagues (2006), the credibility of CSR policies (at

least among consumers) depends on there being at least a minimal level of coherence between CSR behavior and CSR identity.

It is important to note that employees and organizations may demonstrate one pattern with regard to particular aspects of CSR while demonstrating other patterns for other aspects. For example, an employee can advocate the company's efforts in the area of sustainability, while not participating in the company's corporate volunteering program. Similarly, a company can operate an excellent program of corporate philanthropy and corporate volunteering, while engaging in practices that harm the environment.

It is also important to note that the positions within the matrix are not static. Employees and organizations can shift in any direction over time and in response to socialization and experiences. For example, positive experiences can shift an employee from Low ESR to Entwined ESR, while negative experiences can have the opposite effect. The matrix presents social responsibility as a non-linear process, with various stages at which companies and employees can be positioned. As explained in the following section, the positions of and changes in patterns of socially responsible engagement are subject to three types of determinants: internal, relational, and external.

Determinants of the Social Responsibility Patterns
Theories from organizational management, organizational psychology (e.g., Ryan and Deci, 2000), and other disciplines (e.g., business ethics) can be used to group potential determinants of the position of employees and companies within the Social Responsibility Matrix into three broad categories. First, internal factors include characteristics of the person/organization, including background variables

and motivations. Second, relational factors (e.g., processes and mutual affect) relate to the interaction between the organization and the employee. Finally, patterns of social responsibility can also be affected by external factors, which are outside the direct control of the organization or the employee. Given the dynamic nature of the pattern positions on the matrix (which involve the assessment of both identity and behavior at a given moment), it is important to note that these determinants can also be seen as mechanisms that have the potential to shift employees or organizations from one pattern to another, thus affecting congruence levels indirectly.

Internal factors

The internal factors affecting patterns of social responsibility include **background variables**. For employees these variables include gender, income, job level, and tenure with the organization (Brammer et al., 2007; Haski-Leventhal, 2013; Potter and Scales, 2008; Romney-Alexander, 2002). For example, studies have indicated that women are more likely to have strong universal and benevolence values (Struch et al., 2002) and that they are more likely to participate in CSR programs (Haski-Leventhal, 2013). For organizations, size, age, industry type, organizational structure, and other background characteristics can play a key role in positioning companies according to CSR patterns (Brammer and Millington, 2004; Haski-Leventhal, 2013). Research shows that companies in competitive markets are more likely to engage in corporate philanthropy (Zhang et al., 2010). Organizational leadership (e.g., CEOs with a strong ESR) can also play a crucial role in changing an organization's pattern of CSR (e.g., Christensen et al., 2014; Greening and Gray, 1994; Weaver et al., 1999; Weaver and Trevino, 1999). Most importantly, a

company's core business (e.g., tobacco) and activities can have a substantial impact on its CSR, and thus on its pattern of identity and behavior.

Specific **motivations** for CSR or ESR can also play an important role in the positioning of patterns of social responsibility. Studies have revealed multiple potential drivers for the extent to which employees are concerned with the CSR of their employers (Aguilera et al., 2007; Rupp et al., 2013). These drivers include instrumental, relational, heuristic, and moral motives (Rupp et al., 2013). Specific patterns of social responsibility can satisfy specific motivations (e.g., Behavior-based Social Responsibility for instrumental needs), thereby determining the positions of individuals within the matrix. Organizations can also have a variety of motives (e.g., instrumental, moral, relational) for engaging in CSR (Aguilera et al., 2007). For example, a company with purely instrumental motives for engaging in CSR would demonstrate high levels of socially responsible behavior and low levels of socially responsible identity. Such a company would thus reflect Behavior-based CSR.

Studies have shown that certain **leadership** styles within an organization can facilitate a more socially responsible culture (Christensen et al., 2014) and that the choices that managers make with regard to CSR affect the manner in which social responsibility is perceived and developed within an organization (Basu and Palazzo, 2008). For example, servant leadership, in which the leadership orientation goes beyond profit-making initiatives to focus on improving followers, organizations, and society (Greenleaf, 1970) can increase CSR identity and/or behavior (Liden et al., 2008). In addition, organizations can actively facilitate CSR programs (e.g., corporate volunteering or payroll giving) in order to engage employees in ESR behavior (Van der Voort et al., 2009).

Relational Factors

The social-responsibility pattern of an employee or an organization can also be determined by the dynamics of the relationship between them. Through **mutual affect**, organizations have the ability to influence the positions of their employees with regard to social responsibility, and *vice versa*. An organization with a strong and accessible CSR program can affect the behavior of employees and encourage them to participate, thereby altering their ESR behavior (Cornelius et al., 2008). On the other hand, employees can initiate CSR programs, thereby affecting the behavior of their employers. We argue that both companies and employees can use mutual affect to change the social-responsibility pattern of the other, thereby affecting the level of congruence. We nevertheless acknowledge the imbalance in the distribution of power between employees and employers, with the organization generally having a stronger influence on the employees (Gulati and Sytch, 2007).

The positioning of employees and organizations within the matrix can also be affected by several **processes**. The process of organizational socialization teaches employees to adopt organizational values and expected behavior (Schein, 1967), including attitudes toward social responsibility at work. For example, employees who are attracted to an organization due to its reputation for CSR or those who are exposed to CSR during selection are more likely to participate in CSR once employed (Gully et al., 2013). At the organizational level, CSR learning processes (Zadek, 2004) initiated by the leadership or due to external pressures or other reasons can affect a company's pattern of social responsibility. Furthermore, in line with the instrumental model of CSR, companies become more aware of the benefits of social responsibility as they invest more effort into it (Liu et al., 2013).

This process can also contribute to positioning of companies within the Social-Responsibility Matrix.

External Factors

A third group of determinants affecting the social-responsibility patterns of employees and companies consists of external factors. For employees, the external factors affecting ESR patterns include family and work obligations, as well as broader social norms (Cialdini and Goldstein, 2004). In recent times, social norms have been changing, with increasing awareness of social and environmental issues (Morsing and Schultz, 2006), thus affecting the sense of social and environmental responsibility in the workplace. The media are playing an important role in this awareness-raising process, as they pay increasing attention to such topics as sustainability, human rights, ethical (and unethical) behavior, volunteerism, and community needs. This process can affect perceptions of social norms, including individual social responsibility and ESR.

At the organizational level, several external factors can influence CSR behavior and identity. First, stakeholder pressure is a prominent determinant of corporate engagement in CSR (Brammer and Millington, 2004; Helmig et al., 2016). For example, non-profit organizations are increasingly pushing companies to assume social and environmental responsibility (Utting, 2005), and governments are passing regulations and policies that pressure companies to pay more attention to ethics and sustainability (Albareda et al., 2008). Consumers and activists can also push for increased CSR and better industry standards through boycotts, social media pressure, and other means (Matten and Moon, 2008; Zadek, 2004). Second, particular industries also seem to affect the identity and/or behavior of

organizations within them. For example, tobacco companies continue to struggle with creating a CSR identity while operating within a sector that is perceived as harmful to human health. Organizations in the financial services industry tend to exhibit high levels of CSR behavior, as they appear to be very much involved with the community (Brammer and Millington, 2003). Finally, in addition to affecting the organizational cultures of the organizations acquired, mergers and acquisitions by larger companies affect identities, behaviors, and patterns relating to CSR (Austin and Leonard, 2008).

Patterns of Social Responsibility and Levels of Congruence
According to the theories of person-environment fit and person-organization fit, an individual's attitudes and behaviors within an organization are influenced by the level of congruence between the individual and the organization (Argyris, 1957; Pervin, 1989). P-O Fit has been defined in a variety of ways, including in terms of value congruence and goal congruence (Kristof, 1996). We extend the concepts of fit and congruence by including socially responsible behavior and values (as part of socially responsible identity) to demonstrate potential fit or congruence between employees and companies. As discussed in the previous sections, employee assessments of the CSR efforts of companies are influenced by both values and behavior (McShane and Cunningham, 2012).

Studies that include multiple conceptualizations as basis for congruence produce stronger effects because they tap into multiple mechanisms in which congruence has an impact (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). We therefore examine social responsibility congruence based on the two aforementioned constructs: identity and behavior. Consequently, we propose that congruence on the social-responsibility

patterns of companies and employee range from *full ESR-CSR congruence* (i.e., actors manifest exactly the same pattern); via *single-dimensional ESR-CSR congruence* (i.e., the two actors share the same level of either behavior or identity, but not both); to *no ESR-CSR congruence* (i.e., the actors share neither identity nor behavior levels). As illustrated in Table 1, each of the 16 possible combinations leads to a particular type of congruence and related outcomes and challenges.

Employee/ employer	Entwined CSR	Behavior-based CSR	Identity-based CSR	Low CSR
Entwined CSR	Full congruence Outcomes: P-O Fit, attraction, commitment and retention (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Verquer et al, 2003) Challenge: sustaining high levels of CSR engagement and congruence (Austin and Leonard, 2008)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: potential for organizational citizenship behavior (Jones, 2010) Challenge: socializing employees into socially responsible identity (Du et al, 2010)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: possibly positive HR outcomes due to shared values, such as organizational identification (Kim et al, 2010) Challenge: creating opportunities for active participation (Van der Voort et al, 2009)	No congruence Outcomes: employee indifference (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008) Challenge: engaging employees in both identity and behavior
Behavior-based CSR	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: employee partipation in CSR (Jones, 2010) with risk of lack of positive outcomes, but not maximized due to gap (Osuji, 2011) Challenge: building a socially responsible identity (McShane and Cunningham, 2012)	Full congruence Outcomes: employee participation in CSR (Jones, 2010). Possible disengagement and organizational withdrawal (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005) Challenge: aligning interests, values and actions (McShane and Cunningham, 2012)	No congruence Outcomes: employee disengagement and organizational withdrawal (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005) Challenge: align identity and behavior (Osuji, 2011).	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: employee indifference, lack of trust (Hansen et al, 2011) Challenge: socialize employees into company's CSR values (Du et al, 2013)
Identity-based CSR	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: possibly positive HR outcomes due to shared values, but risk of disengagement due to the lack of action (Kim et al, 2010) Challenge: employee-led CSR (Van der Voort et al, 2009)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: employee resentment (Wymer and Samu, 2003) lack of trust (Hansen et al, 2011) of commitment (Verquer et al, 2003; Kim et al, 2010;Kristof-Brown et al, 2005) Challenge: aligning interests, values (McShane and Cunningham, 2012)	Full congruence Outcomes: P-O fit on SR identity alone; attraction, retention and commitment (Verquer et al, 2003; Kim et al, 2010;Kristof-Brown et al, 2005) Challenge: employee-led CSR to change the CSR identity and values (Van der Voort et al, 2009)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: disengaged employees (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005); lack of trust (Hansen et al, 2011) Challenge: socialize employees into company's CSR values (Du et al, 2013)
Low CSR	No congruence Outcomes: employee disengagement and organizational withdrawal (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005) Challenge: employee-led CSR (Van der Voort et al, 2009)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: HR outcomes not related to E-CSR; potential danger for lack of trust (Hansen et al, 2011) Challenge: employee-led CSR to stimulate company to organize CSR (Van der Voort et al, 2009)	Single-dimensional congruence Outcomes: disengaged employees (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008) Challenge:	Full congruence Outcomes: indifferent employees (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008) Challenge: stakeholder pressure (Brammer and Millington, 2004); Challenge: social and environmental challenges (Bratton and Levitin, 2013)

Table 5.1: Social Responsibility Pattern Combinations and Consequences

Full ESR-CSR Congruence

Four of the combinations presented in Table 1 lead to full ESR-CSR congruence

(i.e., when both actors are positioned on the same social responsibility pattern).

Based on the theory of P-O fit and related research detailed below, we argue that

particular outcomes are likely to emerge when full congruence occurs, depending on

the specific patterns in which both actors are positioned. It is argued that combined

dimensions of congruence (here, Entwined Social Responsibility) are more likely to

capture a more holistic assessment of P-O fit and have a stronger connection than

single-dimensional congruence (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Firstly, full ESR-CSR congruence on Entwined Social Responsibility can

generate several positive **outcomes** in the workplace. Employees are more likely to

remain within the organization and to report higher levels of job satisfaction and

organizational commitment (for a meta-analysis, see Verquer et al., 2003; Kristof-

Brown et al., 2005).

Secondly, full congruence on Behavior-based Social Responsibility might

also produce positive outcomes, as employees participate in the CSR efforts of their

employers. Studies show that employees who are actively involved in CSR programs

are more likely to remain in their organizations and to exhibit higher levels of

organizational citizenship behavior and role performance (Jones, 2010). This also

suggests that behavior-based congruence can lead to several positive workplace

outcomes. In these cases, however, the positive outcomes may not be maximized,

due to the gap between identity and behavior (Osuji, 2011).

Thirdly, full ESR-CSR congruence on Identity-based Social Responsibility can produce high levels of value congruence leading to specific potentially positive outcomes, such as attraction, retention and commitment (Verquer et al., 2003). For example, employees with strong social values identify more strongly with CSR oriented organizations, and in turn, show high levels of organizational identification (Kim et al., 2010). Moreover, employees whose self-concept is based on social responsibility tend to have positive attitudes toward the CSR practices of their employers (Morris, 1997). As observed by Rupp and colleagues (2013, p. 899), "this would only occur if the social responsibility was something that the employee valued *a priori*".

Finally, in the case of full congruence in the pattern of Low Social Responsibility, one of the outcomes could be disengaged employees (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). To achieve employee engagement, companies might need to exert additional effort (e.g., in terms of salary, holidays, brand loyalty, and interest in the product) as social responsibility plays in these companies no part in establishing congruence between employees and their companies.

However, even when full ESR-CSR congruence occurs, **challenges** are likely to emerge. While high ESR-CSR congruence on the Entwined Social Responsibility pattern is likely to require sustained high levels of engagement and congruence in terms of social responsibility, companies cannot rest on their laurels, believing that they have achieved the highest levels of CSR and related congruence. Ongoing efforts are needed to maintain this pattern of engagement in social responsibility, possibly by exploring new directions in CSR (e.g., creating shared

value), altering stakeholder expectations, and increasing awareness concerning new problems and updated regulations (see for example Albareda et al., 2008; Beddewela and Fairbrass, 2015; Brammer and Millington, 2003, 2004; Helmig et al., 2016; Pearce and Manz, 2011). In the case of full congruence on Behavior-based or Identity-based Social Responsibility, the challenge could be maintaining the congruence when one of the parties (employees or employers) could increase the current low identity/behavior and congruence could be lost. Therefore, the challenge on behavior-based congruence would be building a socially responsible identity (McShane and Cunningham, 2012) and on identity-based congruence it would be to increase socially responsible behavior to align values with actions (Osuji, 2011). When full congruence occurs on Low Social Responsibility, the challenges may not be obvious at first, since both employers and employees are indifferent to social responsibility. However, such a company could have a challenge dealing with external stakeholders (Brammer and Millington, 2004; Helmig et al., 2016) and could pose a different challenge to the community and the environment in which it operates (Bratton and Levitin, 2013).

Single-dimensional ESR-CSR congruence
Table 1 also includes eight pattern combinations in which employers and employees share either the same level of identity or the same level of behavior, but not both. The result is single-dimensional ESR-CSR congruence. Due to the gap between identity and behavior, the positive outcomes are more limited than in the full congruence combinations. When employees and employers both share high levels of socially responsible identity (e.g., Entwined CSR + Identity-based ESR), positive outcomes may emerge due to shared values, such as organizational identification

(Kim et al., 2010). When both employees and employer share high socially responsible behavior (Entwined ESR + Behavior-based CSR), we might see employee participation in CSR and related positive outcomes (Jones, 2010) with risk of lack of trust and lack of value congruence (Hansen et al., 2011).

It should be noted that Single-dimensional ESR-CSR congruence could also occur because employees and employers share low levels of socially responsible behavior or identity (e.g., Low CSR + Behavior-based ESR). In these instances, outcomes could either be negative (e.g., employee disengagement) or unrelated to social responsibility (see for other drivers of P-O fit: Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Challenges also emerge where there is single-dimensional ESR-CSR congruence. As suggested by P-O fit theory and related research, employees and employers strive for congruence (Cable and Parsons, 2001; Meglino et al., 1989; Veage et al., 2014) and therefore both actors are likely to strive for higher levels of congruence through mutual influence. Alignment of values, interests and actions are important to achieve the potential positive outcomes, such as organizational commitment and retention (see also McShane and Cunningham, 2012). The imbalance of power generally leads employers to hold more power to influence and socialize employees than the other way around (Gulati and Sytch, 2007). Within the context of ESR-CSR congruence, however, we argue that employees may also have the power and the motivation to affect the CSR congruence levels of their employers. Influence could originate with employees (see Van der Voort et al., 2009), particularly if they exhibit the pattern of Entwined ESR and their employers do not.

For example, when employees are positioned on Entwined ESR in a company with Behavior-based CSR, the challenge for employees is to influence the CSR identity of their employer. Employee-led CSR initiatives (actions) within the organization are more suitable for companies characterized by Identity-based CSR (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). Such initiatives take a bottom-up approach, in which employees shape CSR activities within the organization, with or without the formal support of the organization (see Van der Voort et al., 2009).

In turn, companies with higher levels of socially responsible identity and/or behavior than is common among their employees can intervene by socializing the employees to CSR values or by increasing participation and awareness (Du et al., 2010; also see Bhattacharya et al., 2008 for the overall importance of employee engagement in CSR). Processes of socialization are likely to have a strong impact on ESR-CSR congruence (Duarte, 2010), as they help employers identify employees who fit the culture and values of their organizations (Gully et al., 2013). Organizations can also use their resources (e.g., role modeling on the part of corporate leadership or corporate communication) to stimulate awareness of and participation in CSR efforts (Du et al., 2010).

No ESR-CSR congruence
Lastly, four pattern combinations lead to **no ESR-CSR congruence**, with companies and employees sharing neither socially responsible identity nor socially responsible behavior. These patterns pose a challenge to companies wishing to achieve a congruent and possibly engaged workforce based upon social responsibility. No ESR-CSR congruence is likely to result in one of three employee responses to the company: indifference, resentment, and disengagement. For an

employee with low ESR in a company positioned on Entwined CSR, the lack of ESR-CSR congruence may result in **indifference**. Because they are uninterested in or unaware of the CSR positioning of their employers, such employees are also likely to be indifferent to the lack of congruence on social responsibility (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). On the other hand, Entwined ESR combined with Low CSR could lead to **disengagement** and other negative outcomes (e.g., detachment, absenteeism and intention to leave, see Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). These outcomes could be avoided, however, if the employee feels empowered to lead a change in the company's socially responsible organizational identity and socially responsible behavior (Lamberti and Lettieri, 2009). Finally, other pattern combinations could lead to **resentment**. For example, resentment could occur when one actor exhibits Identity-based Social Responsibility and the other exhibits Behavior-based Social Responsibility, as this combination is likely to be accompanied by low levels of trust (Wymer and Samu, 2003). Trust is particularly important in the context of CSR, as research has shown that trust plays a mediating role between CSR and the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of employees, including turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behavior (Hansen et al., 2011).

In the case of no congruence, the challenge for both employer and employees would be to influence each other's values and behavior to match their own. It is possible that the party with the higher levels of socially responsible identity would work harder to change the other, due to strong values and high level of conceived importance (Veage et al., 2014). In the case of employees with higher levels of socially responsible behavior than their employer, the challenge for the employees would be to initiate employee-led CSR, while employers with higher

levels of socially responsible behavior will need to increase levels of participation

through policy (Van der Voort et al., 2009).

The ESR-CSR Congruence Model
Based on the building blocks presented in this article, we present the ESR-CSR

Congruence Model in Figure 5.2. This Model offers a foundation for understanding

congruence in terms of social responsibility in the workplace, as well as its potential

outcomes. The model summarizes the way in which combinations of socially

responsible identity and socially responsible behavior produce specific patterns of

social responsibility, which are also influenced by the three groups of determinants

mentioned above. This yields three possible levels of ESR-CSR congruence, each

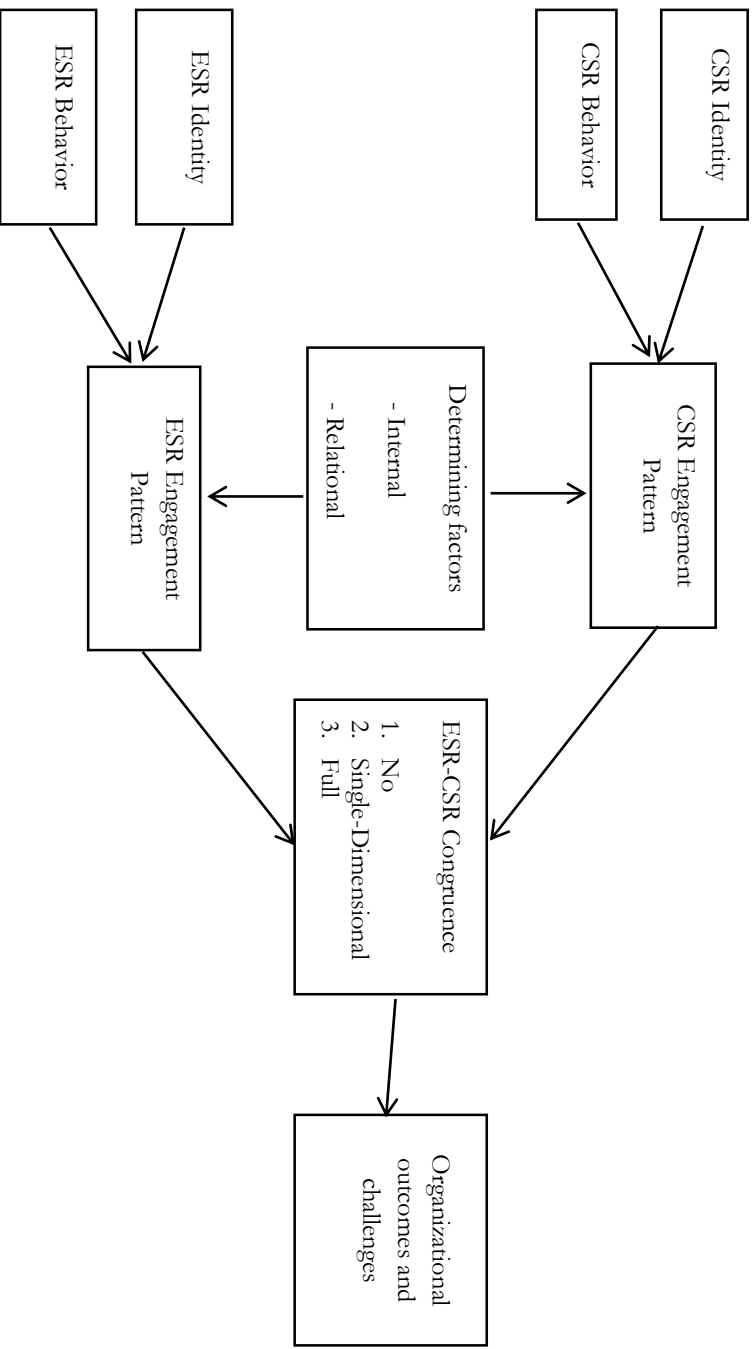associated with particular outcomes and challenges as detailed above.

Figure 5.2: The ESR-CSR Congruence Model

Illustrating the Model: Ben & Jerry's Shifting Patterns

To show the applicability of our ESR-CSR Congruence Model, we will illustrate the dynamic character of this model, along with its patterns, determinants, outcomes and challenges by using the case study of Ben & Jerry's. Based on various sources, we show how organizations and the employees can be positioned on a specific pattern; the dynamic nature of pattern positioning; the influence of internal, relational and external factors; and the levels of ESR-CSR congruence, including the consequences thereof.

In the early days of Ben & Jerry's (founded in 1978), the young company's leadership – consisting of the two founders (i.e., an *internal factor*) – was "committed to a variety of social causes on both a local and a large scale" (p. 2). Similar to our concept of *conceived social responsible identity*, the company's employees and many of its stakeholders came to view the company as an "enduring leader in CSR" (Murray, 2014, p.1) and as a pioneer in the area of CSR (Carter, 2013). Using the Social-Responsibility Matrix to examine the company, we see that Ben & Jerry's demonstrated high levels of *socially responsible identity* (the company's mission comprised three equal parts: product, economic, and social), combined with high levels of *socially responsible behavior*, including generous giving and leading social campaigns. As the company acts upon their stated values at this point, Ben & Jerry's can thus be positioned within the pattern of *Entwined CSR*, as was expressed by one of the company's advisors: "We are not just another ice cream company, but one that works hard to have our social mission expressed in all we do" (Austin and Leonard, 2008, p. 84).

The company also received CSR awards and employees were highly involved in various social causes, including demonstrations for peace. The *Entwined Social Responsibility* patterns of both the employee and the organizations led to high levels of *ESR-CSR congruence* between the employer and employees, and in turn led to an engaged workforce:

For many employees, the distinctive culture was a factor that attracted them to the company, and/or kept them there once they had experienced it (…). One employee commented: "I took quite a big pay cut to come to Ben & Jerry's, and I came because I had been working in corporate America for 17 years and I was sick of it. I wanted to see what was different, and it was very, very, very different." (Austin and Quinn, 2005, p. 2)

In 2000, Ben & Jerry's was acquired by another company, Unilever (*external factor*). This acquisition led to significant criticism from customers, franchisees, and social activists, who claimed that Ben & Jerry's was "selling out" (Murray, 2014), which could be seen as a concern about the *CSR positioning* of the company.

There was a gap between the two companies in terms of their *patterns of CSR engagement*. In many cases of mergers and acquisitions, employees tend to develop confusion regarding their social identity (Hogg and Terry, 2000) and their sense of commitment and affiliation are also affected (Cartwright and Cooper, 2014). Similarly, employees of Ben & Jerry's did not perceive Unilever as being consistent in its CSR identity and behavior (i.e., they did not recognize a pattern of *Entwined CSR* on the part of Unilever), and this mismatch led to a lower level of *ESR-CSR congruence* (Page and Katz, 2012). Indeed, four years after the acquisition,

only 30% of the employees felt that Ben & Jerry's had remained true to its roots and origins (Austin and Quinn, 2005). This was particularly difficult for employees who joined the company in its early days, as they were not well suited to the changes inherent in growing the company rapidly and moving into a relationship with a larger strategic partner (Austin and Leonard, 2008).

In its efforts to push Ben & Jerry's toward financial sustainability, Unilever imposed several restrictions on the company's and employees' socially responsible behavior (*internal factor* on organizational level and *relational factor* on employee level). For example, Ben & Jerry's traditionally took highly visible political positions but Unilever's code of ethics required the company to remain apolitical, and employees were no longer allowed to use the brand name while participating in an anti-war march (Austin and Leonard, 2008). This *internal factor* (restrictions by the parent company, Unilever) gradually pulled Ben & Jerry's away from its *pattern of Entwined CSR*, affecting the company's *identity and behavior*, in addition to affecting the *ESR behavior* among its employees.

It should be noted, however, that subsidiaries with *Entwined CSR* could also influence the position of the parent company and in turn increase *ESR-CSR congruence levels*, which Austin and Leonard (2008) refer to as "reverse osmosis" (p. 88). In the years following the acquisition, Ben & Jerry's gradually tried to influences Unilever on sustainability issues, for example shifting toward 100% Fairtrade sources for Ben & Jerry's products (West, 2010). This has (together with other important factors) contributed to changes in the *CSR pattern* of Unilever.

In 2009, the new CEO of Unilever, Paul Polman, launched a "sustainable living plan," which would lead the company toward a pattern of *Entwined CSR*. Polman is quoted as stating, "Our ambitions are to double our business, but to do that while reducing our environmental impact and footprint. But the road to well-being doesn't go via reduced consumption. It has to be done via more responsible consumption" (Kotler, 2011). According to Unilever's annual reports, these changes increased the level of engagement among all of Unilever's employees – in the parent company, as well as in its subsidiaries, including Ben & Jerry's (Unilever, 2013). In 2010, 83% reported being proud to work for the company (Carrington, 2012).

This allowed Ben & Jerry's to gradually move back to their previous *CSR pattern*. Although Ben & Jerry's has become more financially driven since its acquisition, its CEO appointed by Unilever, Yves Couette, explained that Ben & Jerry's was still committed to its ideals of CSR and that these aims are not in conflict: "the best way to spread Ben & Jerry's enlightened ethic throughout the business world was to make the company successful" (Caligiuri, 2013). Indeed, looking back, the founders admitted that rather than expecting Ben & Jerry's to affect Unilever, they were relieved that, during the years, Unilever has refrained from changing Ben & Jerry's (Cave, 2015). Letting Ben & Jerry's be "who they are" (i.e., maintaining their *CSR identity*) also created opportunities for employees to once more demonstrate high levels of *ESR*, as discussed by Jerry Greenfield: "The company's interest in environmental issues came from the people who worked at Ben & Jerry's. It was the employees who noticed things like the melted ice-cream

that we were washing down the drain. So we arranged for it to go to pig farmers"
(West, 2010).

Recently, Jerry Greenfield said that Polman (Unilever's CEO) is an
"exceptional leader", showing that the companies are now on the same *CSR pattern*
(Cave, 2015). This is important, since similar organization identity (including *CSR
identity*) in acquisitions can lead stronger employee social identity (Hogg and Terry,
2000), which in turn can affect *ESR-CSR congruence*. Moreover, Greenfield explained
that they try to strengthen their CSR pattern of the organization, to be less
vulnerable to *internal, external or relational factors*: "But what Ben and I were interested
in was institutionalizing the values of the company so that it wouldn't matter if Ben
and Jerry were hit by a truck tomorrow. The company would still stand for what it
stood for." (Cave, 2015).

Since the shift in Unilever toward *Entwined CSR* (after 2009), Ben & Jerry's
has also regained its *high levels of socially responsible identity and behavior*, and it now
attaches its brand to many causes, including peace. In 2010 the company shifted
toward 100% Fairtrade sources globally and in 2012 it achieved B Corp certification
(an assessment of the social and environmental performance of for-profit
companies). Consequently, its employees are once again demonstrating a high level
of engagement (Kaye, 2012).

The case of Ben & Jerry's demonstrates the dynamics of the ESR-CSR
Congruence Model, illustrating how changes in external, internal and relational
factors can affect CSR and ESR patterns on the Social Responsibility Matrix. It also
demonstrates how such shifts can lead to changes in the relationship between an

organization and its employees including levels of congruence and employee engagement, in addition to illustrating how different organizational outcomes can emerge when an employer shifts between patterns.

Discussion

The most important contribution of the ESR-CSR Congruence Model to existing models of CSR is its applicability to both employees and employers. To date, most CSR models have focused either on companies (e.g., Carroll, 1991 or Zadek, 2007) or on employees (e.g., Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008; Slack et al., 2015). As we argue, however, understanding of ESR-CSR congruence requires comparing the social-responsibility patterns of employees to those of the employing organization according to the same model. Our model also contributes by applying the notion of fit within the context of CSR, according to the theory of P-E fit (Argyris, 1957; Pervin, 1989). In our view, any discussion of P-E fit or P-O fit first requires the development of a model that would allow us to compare "apples to apples." Having the same four patterns for both employers and employees allows us to analyze the level of fit that emerges when one pattern (e.g., Entwined ESR) meets another (e.g., Behavior-based CSR).

A second contribution of the ESR-CSR Congruence Model involves the connection between identity and behavior, which allows a more multi-dimensional typology than is possible with the existing linear typologies (e.g., Carroll's pyramid or Zadek's learning process). The Social-Responsibility Matrix demonstrates that, although behavior can be clearly related to organizational identity and *vice versa*, this is not always the case (Van Dyne et al., 1994). One example is the distinction

between Identity-based Social Responsibility and Behavior-based Social Responsibility. According to Osuji (2011), if socially responsible identity and behavior are not aligned, the gap could create dissonance, possibly leading to a lack of trust between employees and employers, and even to harmful behavior (see examples in Bratton and Levitin, 2013). Positive CSR outcomes are limited when CSR is used instrumentally to serve the company and not the community (Matten and Moon, 2008).

A third unique contribution of the ESR-CSR Congruence Model is its dynamic nature. Shifts in the patterns of employees or companies automatically cause shifts in the combination of employee and company, and consequently in the level of congruence between these two actors. Full ESR-CSR congruence can be achieved or lost at any given moment. We argue that actors with higher levels of socially responsible identity and/or behavior are the most likely to encourage actors with lower levels to increase their socially responsible identities and or behavior. We therefore assume that, in most cases, the direction in which these changes take place is likely to be toward higher levels of socially responsible behavior and identity, and thus toward higher levels of congruence. As indicated by research suggesting that certain leadership styles can lead to corporate social irresponsibility, however, it is also possible for players with sufficient strength to pull other actors to lower levels (Pearce and Manz, 2011).

Contribution to Managerial Practice
The ESR-CSR Congruence Model and its components (the Social-Responsibility Matrix, the determinants, and the potential outcomes) can be used as a guide for

positioning and developing companies with regard to CSR. Companies can identify their positions within the Social Responsibility Matrix, which will help them define their goals for future development. The model could be extremely helpful for individuals (at all job levels) seeking to improve the current positions of their companies with regard to social responsibility. Such shifts could involve developing the organization's socially responsible identity (e.g., changing values, mission statement, or culture), its socially responsible behavior (e.g., sustainability, philanthropy or corporate volunteering), or both. While companies (and employees) could theoretically change in ways that make them less sustainable and responsible, recent evidence does indicate that some companies have tended to increase rather than to decrease their levels of social responsibility (Kotler, 2011).

The ESR-CSR Congruence Model demonstrates the importance of drawing a clear link between an organization's socially responsible identity and its actual CSR behavior. Consistency between these two aspects (at least at the higher levels) can translate into a positive reputation for CSR among all stakeholders, including employees (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Du et al., 2010). Evidence suggesting that employees are increasingly concerned about the social responsibility of their employers (Lancaster and Stillman, 2002; Yang and Guy, 2006) might imply that employees prefer to work for companies that demonstrate Entwined CSR, although additional research is needed to confirm this speculation.

The determinants detailed in this model, particularly the relational ones, have specific practical implications, as they provide an explicit illustration of what can be done in order to shift from a pattern of low socially responsible identity and/or behavior to a higher one, if desired by a company or an employee. They

thus demonstrate how one actor can act to elicit an increase in the level of social-responsibility congruence. The model is based on the assumption that employees can also be powerful agents of change, not restricted to passive participation in CSR programs, but capable of initiating bottom-up efforts (see also Van der Voort et al., 2009). This approach differs from the common perception that it is always the company that changes the positioning of the employee, as it has more power (Gulati and Sytch, 2007).

Companies can influence congruence levels through recruitment, selection, and attrition (Schneider, 1987; Schneider et al., 1995). Given that **attraction** to potential employers is based on the perceived congruence of individual characteristics with the attributes of these companies (Schneider et al., 1995), it could also be enhanced by ESR-CSR congruence, as suggested in an emerging body of research (Gully et al., 2013). The ways in which employees perceive a company's ethics, values, and social responsiveness play a significant role in shaping their perceptions of the attractiveness of the organization (Greening and Turban, 2000). A company's CSR identity might enhance identity attractiveness (Marin and Ruiz, 2007) even more than its other features do (e.g., financial success; Marin and Ruiz, 2007). During the **selection** phase, CSR and ESR can be used to signal desired attributes to the other side, possibly leading to mutual selection (Gully et al., 2013).

Communicating the company's socially responsible identities and behavior to its employees (see also Gully et al., 2013) and creating opportunities for employees to be involved in designing, leading, and participating in its CSR efforts could also increase congruence, possibly generating positive workplace outcomes. Working in partnership with employees and enabling employee-led CSR might be

key conditions for using social-responsibility congruence to create long-term employee engagement and achieve additional positive outcomes. Although these outcomes are not necessarily the only reason for a company to become socially responsible, they can be of considerable importance.

Finally, the case of Ben & Jerry's illustrates the complexity of our model in the case of mergers and acquisitions, particularly of small and socially responsible companies by big international corporations. In recent years, multinational corporations have been acquiring relatively small companies that have iconic status as socially progressive brands (such as Body Shop by L'Oreal, Tom's of Maine by Palmolive-Colgate and many others) due to the double value concept: the multinational corporations increase their social value (and related business benefits) while the small icons increase their profits, visibility and social impact (Austin and Leonard, 2008). From the perspective of our Model, during this major change, there can be confusion among employees regarding the CSR position of their employer(s). At the same time, the parent company and the acquired company affect each other's positioning and the ESR-CSR congruence levels could also be affected.

Directions for Future Research
The ESR-CSR Congruence Model offers an alternative approach to capturing, defining, and measuring the social responsibility of employees (ESR) and companies (CSR). The combination of patterns in the model offers a novel way of explaining the relationship between social responsibility and specific positive outcomes (e.g., human resource management outcomes). Additional research is required in order to test the model, to develop metrics for it, and to conduct further assessment of the

outcomes of particular patterns of social engagement and congruence in the area of social responsibility. Table 1 holds a variety of hypotheses on possible results of pattern combinations, which could be empirically tested.

Additional conceptual and empirical research is needed in order to specify the operationalization of the constructs of high and low levels of socially responsible identity and behavior. Instruments are needed for measuring the components of these identities and behavior for both companies and employees. Metrics are also needed for assessing the determinants of specific patterns of social responsibility and the relationships between such determinants and patterns. It would be interesting to establish whether these determinants (e.g., weak/strong organizational leadership) could also be used as indicators of particular levels of socially responsible identity and behavior. Such tools would allow the next step of examining levels of congruence in employee and corporate social responsibility, along with their relationships to various outcomes.

While this article focuses on social-responsibility congruence between companies and employees, similar models could be developed and investigated with regard to other stakeholders (e.g., consumers, suppliers, shareholders, and the broader social environment), affecting outcomes other than those described here (e.g., brand loyalty and shared value).

Conclusion

The ESR-CSR Congruence Model contributes to the limited literature on micro-levels of CSR (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012), by adding another dimension to existing models of CSR. The model proposed in this article is the first unified model to address both companies and employees, thereby expanding upon existing CSR

typologies that focus on a single level of analysis. The connection between identity and behavior progresses beyond linear models of CSR (e.g., Carroll, 1991; Zadek, 2007) to offer a more complex approach. The model emphasizes the importance of ESR-CSR congruence, demonstrating the possible influence of internal, relational, and external factors. The model can be used to assist employers and employees achieve their high CSR potential and affect each other in order to achieve high ESR-CSR congruence, with the ultimate goal of realizing positive organizational outcomes.

References

 Aaronson, S. A. (2003). Corporate responsibility in the global village: The British role model and the American laggard. *Business and Society Review*, *108*(3), 309-338.

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 836-863.

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility. A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932-968.

Albareda, L., Lozano, J. M., Tencati, A., Midttun, A., & Perrini, F. (2008). The changing role of governments in corporate social responsibility: drivers and responses. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, *17*(4), 347-363.

Aquino, K., & Reed, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 1423-1440.

Argyris, C. (1957). *Personality and organization; the conflict between system and the individual*. Harpers: Oxford, England.

Austin, J. E. & Leonard. D. (2008). Can the virtuous mouse and the wealthy elephant live happily ever after? *California Management Review*, *51*(1), 77-102.

Austin, J. E., & Quinn, J. (2005). *Ben & Jerry's: Preserving Mission & Brand within Unilever.* Harvard Business School: Cambridge.

Balmer, J. M. T., & Greyser, S. A. (2002). Managing the multiple identities of the corporation. *California Management Review*, *44*(3), 72-86.

Balmer, J. M. T., Fukukawa, K., & Gray, E. R. (2007). The nature and management of ethical corporate identity: A commentary on corporate identity, corporate social responsibility and ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *76*(1), 7-15.

Basu, K., & Palazzo, G. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: A process model of sensemaking. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(1), 122-136.

Bhattacharaya, C.B., Sen, S. & Korschun, D. (2008). Using Corporate Social Responsibility to win the war for talent. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *49*(2), 37-44.

Becker-Olsen, K. L., Cudmore, B. A., & Hill, R. P. (2006). The impact of perceived corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(1), 46-53.

Beddewela, E. & Fairbrass, J. (2015). Seeking legitimacy through CSR: Institutional pressures and corporate responses of multinationals in Sri Lanka. *Journal of Business Ethics, Online first,* January 2015, 1-20.

Benabou, R., & Tirole, J. (2010). Individual and Corporate Social Responsibility. *Economica, 77*, 1-19.

Brammer, S., & Millington, A. I. (2003). The effect of stakeholder preferences, organizational structure and industry type on Corporate Community Involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *45*(3), 213-226.

Brammer, S., & Millington, A. I. (2004). Stakeholder pressure, organizational size, and the allocation of departmental responsibility for the management of corporate charitable giving. *Business & Society*, *43*(3), 268-295.

Brammer, S. & Millington, A. (2005). Corporate reputation and philanthropy: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 61*(1), 29-44.

Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of Corporate Social Responsibility to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(10), 1701-1719.

Bratton, W. W., & Levitin, A. J. (2013). A transactional genealogy of scandal: From Michael Milken to Enron to Goldman Sachs. *Southern California Law Review, 86*, 783-921.

Cable, D. M., & Parsons, C. K. (2001). Socialization tactics and person-organization fit. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*(1), 1-23.

Caligiuri, P. (2013). *Cultural agility: Building a pipeline of successful global professionals.* San-Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, J. D., Assanand, S., & Paula, A. D. (2003). The structure of the self-concept and its relation to psychological adjustment. *Journal of Personality*, *71*(1), 115-140.

Carrington, L. (2012). Global vision. *Business Reporter, July 2012, 11-12.*

Carroll, A. B. (1979). A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review, 4*(4), 497-505.

Carroll, A. B. (1991). The pyramid of corporate social responsibility: Toward the moral management of organizational stakeholders. *Business Horizons*, *34*(4), 39-48.

Carter, J. (2013). *Corporate Social Responsibility: Ben & Jerry's.* Munich: GRIN Publishing.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2014). *Mergers and acquisitions: The human factor.* Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.

Castka, P., Balzarova, M. A., Bamber, C. J., & Sharp, J. M. (2004). How can SMEs effectively implement the CSR agenda? A UK case study perspective. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 11*(3), 140–149.

Cave, A. (2015, January 4). Sweet dreams of men on a mission: Jerry Greenfield is more enthusiastic than ever for ice cream with a conscience, he tells Andrew Cave. *The Sunday Telegraph.*

Christensen, L. T., Mackey, A., & Whetten, D. (2014). Taking responsibility for corporate responsibility: The role of leaders in creating, implementing, sustaining, or avoiding socially responsible firm behaviors. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 28*(2), 164-178.

Cialdini, R. B., & Goldstein, N. J. (2004). Social influence: Compliance and conformity. *Annual Review Psychology*, *55*, 591-621.

Cornelius, N., Todres, M., Janjuha-Jivraj, S., Woods, A., & Wallace, J. (2008). Corporate social responsibility and the social enterprise. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *81*(2), 355-370.

Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2010). Maximizing business returns to corporate social responsibility (CSR): The role of CSR communication. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *12*(1), 8-19.

Duarte, F. (2010). Working with corporate social responsibility in Brazilian companies: The role of managers' values in the maintenance of CSR cultures. *Journal of Business Ethics, 96*(3), 355-368.

Eccles, R.G., Miller Perkins, K. & Serafeim, A.G.E (2012). How to become a sustainable company? *MIT Sloan Management Review*, URL: http://www.mapfre.com/portal/CFormacion/bol4/Docs/012013/7_sustainablecompany.pdf

Fobrum, C.J. (2005). A world of reputation research, analysis and thinking — Building corporate reputation through CSR initiatives: evolving standards. *Corporate Reputation Review, 8*(1), 7-12.

Freeman, R.E. (1984). *Stakeholder management: framework and philosophy*. Pitman, Mansfield, MA.

Friedman, M. (1970). The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *New York Times Magazine*, 13 September, 1-6. Article Stable URL: http://www.umich.edu/~thecore/doc/Friedman.pdf

Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 393-417.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J.E. and Rosso, B. D., (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(5), 898-918.

Grant, A. M., Molinsky, A., Margolis, J., Kamin, M., & Schiano, W. (2009). The performer's reactions to procedural injustice: When prosocial identity reduces prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*(2), 319-349.

Gray, E. R., & Balmer, J. M. T. (1998). Managing corporate image and corporate reputation. *Long Range Planning*, *31*(5), 695-702.

Greening, D. W. & Gray, B. (1994). Testing a model of organizational response to social and political issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(3), 467-498.

Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000). Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business & Society*, *39*(3), 254-280.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1970). *The servant as a leader*. Indianapolis, IN: Greenleaf Center.

Gulati, R., & Sytch, M. (2007). Dependence asymmetry and joint dependence in interorganizational relationships: Effects of embeddedness on a manufacturer's performance in procurement relationships. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *52*(1), 32-69.

Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., Castellano, W. G., Han, K., & Kim, A. (2013). A mediated moderation model of recruiting socially and environmentally responsible job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 935-973.

Hansen, S. D., Dunford, B. B., Boss, A. D., Boss, R. W., & Angermeier, I. (2011). Corporate social responsibility and the benefits of employee trust: A cross-disciplinary perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *102*(1), 29-45.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2013). Employee engagement in CSR: The case of payroll giving in Australia. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, *20*(2), 113-128.

Helmig, B., Spraul, K., & Ingenhoff, D. (2016). Under positive pressure: How stakeholder pressure affects corporate social responsibility implementation. *Business and Society*, *55*(2), 151-187.

Hemingway, C. A. (2005). Personal values as a catalyst for corporate social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *60*(3), 233-249.

Higgins, E. T., Klein, R., & Strauman, T. (1985). Self-concept discrepancy theory: A psychological model for distinguishing among different aspects of depression and anxiety. *Social Cognition*, *3*(Special Issue), 51-76.

Hill, R. P. (2004). The socially-responsible University: Talking the talk while walking the walk in the college of business. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, *2*(1), 89-100.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. I. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, *25*(1), 121-140.

Husted, B. W., & de Jesus Salazar, J. (2006). Taking Friedman seriously: Maximizing profits and social performance. *Journal of Management Studies*, *43*(1), 75-91.

Jain, A., & Com, M. (2014). The mandatory CSR in India: A boon or bane. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, *4*(1), 301-304.

Jones, D. A. (2010). Does serving the community also serve the company? Using organizational identification and social exchange theories to understand employee responses to a volunteerism program. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(4), 857-878.

Kallio, T. J. (2007). Taboos in corporate social responsibility discourse. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *74*(2), 165-175.

Kaye, L. (2012). Ben & Jerry's, now certified B Corp. Retrieved on 15 February 2015 from http://www.triplepundit.com/2012/10/ben-jerrys-certified-corp/

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and employee–company identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(4) 557-569.

Knox, S., & Maklan, S. (2004). Corporate social responsibility: Moving beyond investment towards measuring outcomes. *European Management Journal*, *22*(5), 508-516.

Kotler, P. (2011) Reinventing marketing to manage the environmental imperative. *Journal of Marketing*, *75*(4), 132-135.

Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: an integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, *49*(1), 1-49.

Kristof-Brown, A.L., Zimmerman, R.D. & Johnson, E.C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: a meta-analysis of person-job, person-group, person-organization and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(2), 281-342.

Lamberti, L., & Lettieri, E. (2009). CSR practices and corporate strategy: Evidence from a longitudinal case study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*(2), 153-168.

Lancaster, L. C., & Stillman, D. (2002). *When generations collide: Who they are. Why they clash. How to solve the generational puzzle at work.* HarperBusiness: New York.

Lange, D., & Washburn, N. T. (2012). Understanding attributions of corporate social irresponsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(2), 300-326.

Left, S. (2005, April 28). If it's melted, it's ruined. *The Guardian*. Retrieved on 15 February 2015 from http:/www.theguardian.com.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(2), 161-177.

Liu, G., Eng, T. Y., & Ko, W. W. (2013). Strategic directions of corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *115*(3), 469-487.

Lyon, T. P., & Maxwell, J. W. (2011). Greenwash: Corporate environmental disclosure under threat of audit. *Journal of Economics and Management Strategy*, *20*(1), 3–41.

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*(1), 3-30.

Marin, L., & Ruiz, S. (2007), "I Need You Too!" Corporate identity attractiveness for consumers and the role of social responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *71*(3), 245-260.

Marin, L., Ruiz, S., & Rubio, A. (2009). The role of identity salience in the effects of corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *84*(1), 65-78.

Markus, H., & Wurf, E. (1987). The dynamic self-concept: A social psychological perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*; *38*(1), 299-338.

Matten, D., & Moon, J. (2008). "Implicit" and "explicit" CSR: A conceptual framework for a comparative understanding of corporate social responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(2), 404-424.

McShane, L., & Cunningham, P. (2012). To thine own self be true? Employees' judgments of the authenticity of their organization's corporate social responsibility program. *Journal of Business Ethics, 108*(1), 81-100.

McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. S. (2001). Corporate Social Responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 117-127.

Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(3), 424-432.

Morris, S. A. (1997). Internal effects of stakeholder management devices. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *16*(4), 413-424.

Morsing, M., & Schultz, M. (2006). Corporate social responsibility communication: stakeholder information, response and involvement strategies. *Business Ethics: A European Review, 15*(4), 323-338.

Murray, J. (2014). *Ben & Jerry's struggles with corporate social responsibility in an international context*. Retrieved on 15 February 2015 from

http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2443318

Neill, J. D., & Stovall, O. S. (2011). Stakeholder salience and corporate social responsibility: Evidence from three companies. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, *21*(3), 71-78.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington Books: Lexington, MA.

Osuji, O. (2011). Fluidity of regulation-CSR nexus: The multinational corporate corruption example. *Journal of Business Ethics, 103*(1), 31-57.

Page, A., & Katz, R. A. (2012). *The truth about Ben and Jerry's*. Indianapolis: Indiana University Press.

Pearce, C. L., & Manz, C. C. (2011). Leadership centrality and corporate social irresponsibility (CSIR): The potential ameliorating effects of self and shared leadership on CSIR. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *102*(4), 563-579.

Penner, L. A., Dovidio, J. F., Piliavin, J. A., & Schroeder, D. A. (2005). Prosocial behavior: Multilevel perspectives. In S. T. Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & A. E. Kazdin (Eds.), *Annual Review of Psychology*, *56*, (pp. 365-392). Annual Reviews: Palo Alto, CA.

Pérez, A., & Rodriques del Bosque, I. R. (2012). The role of CSR in the corporate identity of banking service providers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *108*(2), 145-166.

Pervin, L. A. (1989). Persons, situations, interactions: The history of a controversy and a discussion of theoretical models. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(3), 350-360.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2011). Creating shared value. *Harvard Business Review, 89*(1/2), 62-77.

Potter, V*., &* Scales J. (2008). *Review of payroll giving.* Strategy Complete*:* London.

Rodrigo, P., & Arenas, D. (2008). Do employees care about CSR programs? A typology of employees according to their attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *83*(2), 265-283.

Rolland, D., & Bazzoni, J. O. K. (2009). Greening corporate identity: CSR online corporate identity reporting. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, *14*(3), 249-263.

Romney-Alexander, D. (2002). Payroll giving in the UK: Donor incentives and influences on giving behavior. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7*(1), 84–92.

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Thornton, M. A., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2013). Applicants' and employees' reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility: The moderating effects of first-party justice perceptions and moral identity. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(4), 895-933.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 68-78.

Schein, E. H. (1967). Organizational socialization and the profession of management. *MIT Sloan Management Review*.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(3), 437-453.

Schneider, B., Goldstein, H., & Smith, D. B. (1995). The ASA framework: An update. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(4), 747-773.

Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues*, *50*(4), 19-45.

Shamir B., House R. J., & Arthur M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, *4*(4), 577-594.

Slack, R. E., Corlett, S., & Morris, R. (2015). Exploring employee engagement with (Corporate) Social Responsibility: A social exchange perspective on organisational participation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *127*(3), 537-548.

Struch, N., Schwartz, S. H., & Van Der Kloot, W. A. (2002). Meanings of basic values for women and men: A cross-cultural analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*(1), 16-28.

Tschirhart, M., & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate community service programs: Enhancing community capacity? In A. C. Brooks (Ed.), *Gifts of time and money: The role of charity in America's communities* (pp. 59–75). Rowman & Littlefield: Lanham, MD.

Unilever (2013). *Annual report and accounts 2013: Making sustainable living commonplace*. Retrieved on 15 February 2015 from http://www.unilever.com/images/Unilever_AR13_tcm13-383757.pdf

Utting, P. (2005). Corporate responsibility and the movement of business. *Development in Practice*, *15*(3-4), 375-388.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(4), 765-802.

Veage, S., Ciarrochi, J., Deane, F. P., Andresen, R., Oades, L. G., & Crowe, T. P. (2014). Value congruence, importance and success and in the workplace: Links with well-being and burnout amongst mental health practitioners. *Journal of Contextual Behavioral Science*, *3*(4), 258-264.

Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*(3), 473-489.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*(3), 311-329.

Weaver, G. R., & Trevino, L. K. (1999). Compliance and value orientated ethics programs: Influences on employees' attitudes and behavior. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *9*(2), 315-335.

Weaver, G. R., Trevino, L. K., & Cochran, P. L. (1999). Corporate ethics programs as control systems: Influence of executive commitment and environmental factors. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*(1), 41-57.

Werther, W. B., Jr., & Chandler, D. (2011). *Strategic corporate social responsibility: Stakeholders in a global environment.* Sage Publications Ltd: United Kingdom.

West, N. (2010, March 27). Eco hero Ben Cohen and Jerry Greenfield, ice-cream evangelists. *The Daily Telegraph*, p. 75. Retrieved on 15 February 2015 from Lexis Nexis.

Wymer W. W., & Samu, S. (2003). Dimensions of business and nonprofit collaborative relationships. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *11*(1), 3-22.

Yang, S. B., & Guy, M. E. (2006). Genxers versus Boomers: Work motivators and management implications. *Public Performance and Management Review, 29*(3), 267-284.

Zadek, S. (2004). The path to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Harvard Business Review*, *82*(12), 125-132.

Zadek, S. (2007). *The civil corporation*. Earthscan: London.

Zhang, R., Zhu, J., Yue, H., & Zhu, C. (2010). Corporate philanthropic giving, advertising intensity, and industry competition level. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *94*(1), 39-52.

Abbreviations: CSR (corporate social responsibility), ESR (employee social responsibility), P-E fit (person-environment fit), P-O fit (person-organization fit).

CHAPTER 6: DEVELOPING THE NPO CASE OF CORPORATE VLUNTEERING; CONNECTING OUTCOMES TO CONDITIONS

Abstract[2223]

In this contribution, we further develop the nonprofit case of corporate volunteering, including the underlying conditions. Our analysis is based on 39 semi-structured qualitative interviews with 43 NPO employees responsible for corporate volunteer programs. The findings reveal that corporate volunteering can enhance the organizational capacity of NPOs, including providing additional resources, increased ability to recruit volunteers, organizational learning, increased quantity and quality of service delivery and organizational and issue awareness. Simultaneously, it does not come without challenges as it also holds the potential to harm organizational capacity through transaction costs, mission drift, diminished quality of services and reputation damage. In addition, our analysis identifies conditions under which these outcomes arise, including the involvement of intermediary organizations, perceived resource dependence, and the orientation of the collaboration (program versus project). We use these insights to formulate propositions that could be tested in future deductive research, in addition to deriving implications for theory and practice.

Introduction

Many scholars have been focusing on the outcomes of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for companies (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015). As such, business and management scholars have firmly developed the business case of corporate volunteering, including those relating to HR, such as organizational identification and organizational commitment (see e.g., Caliguiri et al., 2013; Grant et al., 2008, Kim and Park, 2011; Madison et al., 2012) and related to marketing (Chernev and Blair, 2015). Other studies have focused on the implications of corporate volunteering for corporate employees, including satisfaction and meaningfulness (De Gilder et al., 2005; Rodell, 2013; Rodell and Lynch, 2015). Despite this strong business case scholars can present for CSR (and corporate philanthropy likewise), scholars have yet to examine the NPO or social case of CSR, as -to date- we know little about how this development in the corporate sector may affect the beneficiary non-profit organizations (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Allen, 2003; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Harris, 2012; Liket and Simaens, 2015). Indeed, it is argued that "there has been no corresponding social case, no rationale developed from the NGO/NPO perspective" (Allen, 2003 p.57).

This statement was recently confirmed based on 13 interviews with NPO managers of 8 Swiss nonprofits that were operating in different fields (Samuel et al., 2013). Samuel and colleagues found that the nonprofits studied did not display strategic behavior towards corporate volunteering (no clear rationales, wide variation in the organization of the work and no clear corporate volunteer management) and that the benefits that CV can bring to NPOs are still to a large extent being perceived as 'potentials' or an 'aspired state' rather than an 'achieved

reality' for the nonprofits. While benefits were difficult to find, "challenges were identified more easily, and some of the interviewed managers doubted that current corporate volunteering could keep up with its potential." (Samuel et al., 2013 p.174). The authors even suggested that nonprofits did not look at corporate volunteering as a new form of volunteerism, but rather as initiatives by the corporation and as a point of entry for further donations.

Samuel et al. (2013) thus revealed that what concerns corporate volunteering, the NPO perspective remains underdeveloped and NPOs are lacking clear rationales. This rationale is important however, as nonprofit organizations (NPOs) are becoming increasingly dependent upon support from corporations (Brammer and Millington, 2003; Foster and Meinhard, 2005). We choose the focus particularly on corporate volunteering as the implementation of CSR in NPOs as this is considered as the most implemented effort of CSR by companies in Western countries (see for example, Basil et al., 2009). In this study, we follow the definition of Rodell et al (2015) who define corporate volunteering as "employed individuals giving time [through a company initiative] during a planned activity for an external non-profit or charitable group or organization" (Rodell et al., 2015, p.4/5).

Recent exploratory research has suggested that the involvement of corporate volunteers in NPOs can influence the private civic engagement of individuals, particularly in countries that lack a strong tradition of formal volunteering (Krasnapolskaya et al., 2015). Scholars have further demonstrated that NPOs can experience benefits from such arrangements as well, including increased resources and enhanced organizational legitimacy (Samuel et al., 2013; Schiller and

Almog-Bar, 2013; Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005), in addition to workplace motivators for the NPO employees and volunteers of (see chapter 7). Corporate volunteering has been shown to enhance both the commitment and attachment of donors to the NPOs involved (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012). At the same time, engaging employee volunteers also presents a number of challenges. Examples include the introduction of a different institutional logic in NPOs, the replacement of current paid staff and volunteers, and creaming by corporate volunteers (see chapter 7), but also reputational risk, exploitation by the company and additional costs (Allen, 2003). In some cases, NPO employees[24] might perceive such initiatives as threatening their traditional volunteer programs (Hustinx et al., 2008). Finally, recent exploratory work has addressed the beneficiaries of NPOs, including a critical view of the engagement of corporate volunteers in the eyes of the beneficiaries (Samuel et al., in press; Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005).

Despite these recent insights on the effects of corporate volunteering on beneficiaries and civil society, scholars are increasingly calling for more research on the NPO perspective on corporate volunteering, further refining the NPO case of corporate volunteering (see Grant et al., 2008; Grant, 2012; Rodell, 2013; Rodell and Lynch, 2015). Therefore, the current study aims to address this need using an explorative qualitative study involving 39 semi-structured interviews with NPO

---

[24] In this paper, we use the term "NPO employees" to refer to all individuals working for an NPO on a regular basis, according to some type of contract (e.g., economic or psychological).

employees in the Netherlands and Belgium, all bearing responsibility for corporate volunteering within their organizations. Conducted from the perspective of the NPO, the study is intended to provide a comprehensive, in-depth assessment of the opportunities and challenges presented by corporate volunteering, as well as the conditions under which these outcomes arise. Based on the outcomes, we formulate seven propositions that could be tested in future research. This exploratory study contributes to the literature by suggesting several pathways and theoretical angles for the further study of corporate volunteering from the NPO perspective.

In the following sections, after introducing our methodology, we provide an empirical overview of opportunities and challenges for NPOs, along with three conditions under which they arise. We conclude by discussing implications for theory and suggesting directions for future research.

Methods

This research is exploratory and inductive in nature, with the primary goal of mapping a phenomenon that has yet to be described sufficiently in literature (Neuman, 1994). We have opted for a qualitative research design, as it is an appropriate strategy for gaining insight into situations for which further explanation is needed (Bryman, 2008). The sample is purposive, based on the selection of information-rich cases through maximum-variation sampling. The sample includes variation in social theme, type of organizational-funding tradition, and level of experience with employee volunteering projects. Additionally, we included intermediary organizations (e.g. matchmakers between NPOs and companies) as outside experts as they are closely involved with NPOs regarding their corporate

volunteer activities. In this respect, we feel that intermediary organizations are able to access facilitating and obstructing outcomes as a result of involving corporate volunteers, including conditions. We do acknowledge that this exploratory research design, including the sampling strategy poses limitations to our study, including the lack of generalizability and theory testing. However, we consider it appropriate for generating useful insights that allow the formulation of propositions in the early stages of scholarly investigation which could further lead to theory testing and more deductive research designs.

The data were derived from 39 interviews with 43 professionals as representatives of 39 NPOs in the Netherlands and Belgium having at least some experience with involving corporate volunteers. Of all interviews, 18 were conducted in Belgium and 21 were conducted in the Netherlands. There is little difference between the two neighboring countries with regard to the context and development of corporate volunteering. The Netherlands and a large part of Belgium (i.e., Flanders) share the same language (Dutch), and they have similar non-profit regimes (i.e., corporatist; see Salamon and Anheier, 1998). In the interest of transparency, while keeping the anonymity of the respondents, we refer to the interviews with Belgian respondents with letters, using numbers to identify the interviews with Dutch respondents.

Most of the respondents were volunteer coordinators and program managers, with responsibility for employee volunteering programs within their respective NPOs. 8 respondents were employed in intermediary NPOs (i.e., matchmaking organizations aimed at connecting companies and NPOs and

facilitating their collaboration). Again, in the interest of transparency, we refer to the interviews with intermediary organizations by adding INT to the in-text reference.

The interviews were based on open-ended questions, following a semi-structured interview method and using an interview guide as a tracking tool (Babbie, 2008). The questions addressed such themes as motivation to get involved in corporate volunteer initiatives, both positive and more critical reflections on the consequences resulting from corporate volunteer initiatives at their organization and the development of such initiatives within the NPO. The data from the transcribed interviews were analyzed using Atlas-Ti, a coding software package that provides a structured mechanism for identifying the relevant text phrases for detailed interpretation (Froschauer and Lueger, 2003). In this process, we followed the principles of conventional qualitative data analysis, avoiding the use of preconceived categories and instead allowing the categories to flow from the data and allowing new insights to emerge (Kondracki and Wellman, 2002). The interviews were conducted in Dutch, except three interviews held in Belgium which were conducted in English (marked as NPOs M, N and P). The text fragments appearing throughout this article have been translated into English by the authors.

Results
In general, most respondents talked more about the opportunities that corporate volunteering and the overall relationship of their NPOs with the companies could potentially bring to their organizations than they did about the challenges that such arrangements could pose. A potential explanation could be that they were quite content with the involvement of corporate volunteers or because they were

reluctant to take a critical stance toward actors that are also their donors, or are likely to become their donors. Their responses thus provide a broader and more detailed overview of opportunities than it does of challenges. The next section identifies five opportunities and four challenges, followed by a section on three conditions under which these outcomes arise.

Opportunities

One way in which NPO capacity is built is through various forms of financial and non-financial support that companies provide when involving their employees in projects with NPOs. The business–nonprofit collaboration of many of the NPOs included in our research began with corporate volunteering. Some respondents indicate that they start by trying to persuade employee volunteers to make on-site visits and experience what their organizations stand for and what they actually do. After such experience and the development of some level of understanding and commitment from the company, the NPO tries to acquire additional resources. As suggested by one of our respondents, many NPOs tend to see companies as "cash cows" (NPO_K_INT), with abundant – or even unlimited – financial resources, while others tend to focus on the variety of resources provided by companies: "This way, we [the NPO] can bring on board a lot of additional money, volunteers, and means and allocate them to various projects" (NPO_2). Partner companies can also introduce NPOs to groups and organizations in other networks. One respondent explains that collaborating with companies "…is of major importance as it functions as a springboard to individuals [private donors]. Those individuals account for the largest proportion of our funding portfolio. Companies account for only 10%, but are the springboard to new private donors" (NPO_14).

Communications regarding joint efforts between companies and NPOs can help to enhance awareness and understanding of the NPOs and the issues they address among current and prospective donors, and other stakeholders. For example, as explained by one respondent:

They [the company] take a journalist along, which is also beneficial to us [the NPO]. I think it is pretty cool that it [the project] is mentioned in the local newspaper and that other companies hear of it. Plus, that [citizens in] our region see that what we do is not something strange. It is an integrated part [of our society], which belongs to [NAME REGION] (NPO_4).

In many cases, awareness of particular NPOs and the issues that they address arises from the on-site experiences of corporate volunteers and their corporate managers, In this regard, interaction with the NPO during a volunteer assignment can also broaden a corporate volunteer's horizon and understanding of the issue at hand and the NPO. As illustrated by one respondent:

The most important reason why we involve employees of [Names two companies] is to introduce [employees] to a different part of our society, where they would otherwise never come. Let's be honest: we [affluent people] live in reservations, while the rest often live in ghettos. In this context, we play an advocacy role in introducing this to these employees, whose only knowledge of disadvantaged areas comes from what they see on television (NPO_12).

As explained by the NPO professionals, such corporate volunteers use storytelling to spread their knowledge and understanding concerning issues and the

organizations that address them. This is particularly interesting, as the NPO can use "the company … [as] a platform through which we can reach a large group of people … who are telling others about the importance of the [beneficiaries]" (NPO_6). As such, the experiences of corporate volunteers potentially yield spill-over effects into their networks as corporate volunteers share their experiences with others outside the NPO, including colleagues, family and friends. In turn, they also become more aware of the NPO and the social issue. In this respect, business–nonprofit collaboration is used to create awareness of particular NPOs, as well as with regard to broader social issues.

A third way in which corporate involvement can increase the organizational capacity of NPOs is by enhancing the ability of NPOs to recruit and retain volunteers. As observed by several interviewees, the involvement of corporate volunteers can introduce these employees to volunteering in general, as well as to the particular NPO and its cause, thereby possibly attracting new regular and corporate volunteers. As stated by one interviewee, "By collaborating with these large companies, we [the NPO] were able to build a large network of potential volunteers…" (NPO_5). Interviewees told us that several of their corporate volunteers had indeed continued their involvement, in order to "… find out the activities so that they [corporate volunteers] could connect to us [NPO] and help the organization in a more private way" (NPO_N). They expressed a desire to be involved "not just as corporate volunteers, but as regular volunteers" (NPO_10). Another observation is that, because the company serves as a pool of potential volunteers, it becomes easier to recruit volunteers for future projects once a

company has participated in a project and communicated about it internally. As illustrated by one respondent:

I think most of them [companies] have a newsletter – a magazine or something – and that things appear in that, or photos on the website, as they are always making loads of pictures….So I think they use this internally…particularly at [name company] during the past year. They started out with two groups and, later that year, they were already looking at their other locations. Last year, the group was immediately filled. It does work (NPO_C).

Corporate volunteers also contribute specific resources, including experience, knowledge, and skills, thereby supporting NPOs through learning. The corporate volunteer's knowledge can be of direct use to the NPO (e.g., a corporate volunteer with a background in IT could build a new website for the NPO), even when it is not embedded in organizational policies and practices. This is single-loop learning. [25] The involvement of corporate volunteers can also generate double-loop learning by facilitating the transfer and embedding of knowledge within the organization. As reflected in several cases described by our interviewees, such learning can result in changes in organizational culture and management practices. For example, one NPO

had a workshop of a [corporate] trainer in the context of corporate community involvement […for] the cluster managers and team leaders, focusing on management and leadership... It showed some issues, particularly cultural aspects...

---

[25] For a conceptualization of single-loop and double-loop learning, see Argyris (1976).

The [flaws in] culture of our organization became apparent when we got involved with third parties [companies]… [Now] we say, "Look guys, we really can't do that [particular behavior] anymore" (NPO_13).

In such cases, companies thus provide reflection on the functioning of the NPO and suggest avenues for internal improvement.

Corporate volunteering can also offer NPOs who directly provide services to beneficiaries various opportunities for improving the services they grant to beneficiaries or remain the same level of services after cuts. Several of our interviewees reported using corporate volunteers as a way of providing "… an additional gift …" (NPO_11) to beneficiaries. In some cases, NPOs feel pressured to involve corporate volunteers in the aftermath of recent severe budget cuts: "If we want to continue delivering services to our clients, it [involving corporate volunteers] is a necessity" (NPO_1). Corporate volunteers can also allow NPOs to improve both the quantity and quality of their services by increasing the ratio of caregivers to beneficiaries. Time donated by corporate volunteers can be used to supplement the regular programs of NPOs, thus helping to fulfill specific needs that would otherwise remain unaddressed. One interviewee was particularly pleased with this possibility, "[…] because we [the NPO] usually do not offer any activities on weekends" (NPO_11).

Challenges
In addition to opportunities presented above, our interviewees referred to various challenges and less favorable consequences of corporate volunteering for NPOs. Although corporate involvement can raise awareness for NPOs, it can also place

them at risk of reputational damage. As recounted by one respondent from a youth-development program:

Of course, we don't want to associate our organization with companies that produce alcohol, tobacco, or with those involved in child labor, gambling, and I'm probably forgetting a few…This applies not only to the people [companies] with whom we collaborate for the content of our program [e.g., volunteers], but also for the people [organizations] who support us financially" (NPO_5).

Indirect costs resulting from reputational damage could decrease the ability of NPOs to raise funds from individual donors.

Managing relationships with corporate partners can also impose transaction costs (i.e., expenses associated with coordination and production) on NPOs. Costs of coordination are similar to those associated with managing obstacles to volunteering. Here, with corporate volunteering, these transaction costs are rather high as NPOs customize their volunteer assignments to the preferences of corporate volunteers and their companies. For example, some NPOs create delineated tasks, organize one-day events, design enjoyable team-building projects, and adjust their schedules to suit those of participating companies and/or corporate volunteers. Interestingly, however, they rarely make such adjustments for their regular volunteers. The involvement of corporate volunteers also requires NPOs to use a considerable amount of resources, which they might otherwise have invested directly into their missions. For example, some companies donate only their time. In such cases, the NPO must bear the costs of direct materials (e.g., supplies, refreshments), in addition to the costs of coordination and the investment of

human resources (e.g., supervision by paid staff). While NPOs aim to ensure that corporate volunteers have a positive experience (in the hope of building longer and broader relationships with corporate partners), some NPOs decide against (or at least question the desirability of) collaborations involving corporate volunteering with companies that do not cover such costs.

Information obtained from the interviews suggests that the introduction of corporate volunteers has the potential to impair the quality of services provided by NPOs. Several respondents suggested that working with corporate volunteers can be harmful to beneficiaries: "Some of our employees indicate that [the involvement of corporate volunteers] might be too intense for our beneficiaries; sometimes, they [beneficiaries] just need peace and quiet …" (NPO_4). Many respondents indicated being careful with the direct involvement with corporate volunteers as working directly with beneficiaries requires a particular set of skills which corporate volunteers do not always have. In contrast, others indicated that, "it is often the [NPO] employees who see this as an obstacle rather than the clients themselves" (NPO_10).

Given the lack of specific task-related skills, the potential damage associated with corporate volunteering in such contexts might outweigh any potential benefits to their service delivery.

Underlying Conditions Influencing Outcomes of Corporate Volunteering
In the previous section, we identified five opportunities for NPOs to enhance their organizational capacity and four challenges. As we are questioning why these consequences occur for NPOs if they involve in corporate volunteer initiatives, we

analyzed the data and identified three factors that either facilitate the creation of

opportunities (benefits) for NPOs or obstruct such positive outcomes thus posing

particular challenges to NPOs. Based on these conditions, we have formulated

seven propositions that could be tested in future research.

Condition 1: Power imbalance
One condition that influences outcomes is power imbalance. According to resource

dependence theory (RDT), resources form the basis of power, thus giving the

organization with the greatest resources the most power in partnerships (see Pfeffer

and Salancik 1978). In many cases, the power balance in business–nonprofit

collaboration favors the company, given that the NPO is usually dependent on the

company's resources, while the company does not depend on the NPO in any

crucial way. Such power imbalances are expressed in both material and cultural-

ideological terms. Some NPOs in our sample are materially dependent on money

from corporations as a major source of funding for their core activities. Some of

these interviewees reported feeling pressured by companies to involve corporate

volunteers, as companies are becoming less inclined to solely donate money. They

would like to involve their employees as well, and some NPO managers feel

complied to facilitate this, even when the activities are not entirely consistent with

the internal needs and priorities of the organization. These NPOs perceive that

companies "…actually have to come to us…[and] we are grateful that these

organizations come to us" (NPO_E). These types of NPOs are more dependent on

what companies would like to share with them, thus rendering the design of

corporate volunteering heavily dependent on the suggestions and offers of the

company which in potential could lead to mission drift or diminishes the current

quality of services of the NPO. One of our interviewees recounted the following strategy: "Come by, and we'll see, what you [company] want, and we just adapt to that" (NPO_11). Even those that depend largely on public funding need corporate funds as a means of enhancing their activities or as a buffer against future public-funding cuts.

Proposition 1: A perceived imbalance in material power in favor of the company increases the risk of mission drift, or diminish the quality of services.

Cultural-ideological power imbalance can also emerge through the proliferation of corporate managerial techniques in the nonprofit sector (cf. Roberts et al., 2005), which creates an ideological dominance of corporate logic within the nonprofit sphere. This type of logic is being increasingly adopted by NPOs, as illustrated by the following quotation:

[Our organization] operates according to very entrepreneurial principles with quality checks, with a board, with…sound financial principles and systems that are put into place, going after the sponsors, aggressive fundraising. Yes, I see it as a company. And I hope that more and more non-profits will evolve into more social enterprises instead of simply depending on government grants (NPO_M).

As noted by our interviewees, although such perceived power imbalance might produce effects that are convenient for NPOs in terms of learning, they often do not help the organizations achieve their actual missions and potentially risk mission drift. In many cases, such effects have no bearing on the goals of the NPO, and organizations would do well to question the wisdom of engaging with companies on these terms (Weisbrod, 2004).

Proposition 2a: Cultural-ideological power imbalance in favor of the company can increase organizational learning,

Proposition 2b: Cultural-ideological power imbalance increases the likelihood of mission drift.

In contrast, NPOs are less likely to perceive material and cultural ideological power imbalances when they are less dependent on the resources of companies. In such contexts, NPOs are able to request exactly what they want from companies and to specify the conditions under which companies can engage, resulting in acquiring activities that supports the current mission. One respondents firmly illustrates:" I determine, or all those people here [at the NPO] determine, the content and there is a clear distinction between being a sponsor and [influencing] the content" (NPO_5).

This approach often results in company support that has a direct and effective impact on the NGO's mission. Those that take the initiative to establish new relationships with companies or other third parties (e.g., schools) are convinced of the benefits that they have to offer, and they are often able to organize corporate volunteering on their own terms, directing the companies contributions supportive of their service provision and ability to ask to the resources they really need (both material and non-material resources).

Proposition 3a: A (perceived) balance in material and cultural-ideological power decreases the risk of mission drift

Proposition 3b: A (perceived) balance in material and cultural-ideological power increases NPOs'
ability to solicit additional resources, increase the quality and quantity of its services, and enhancing
its ability to recruit volunteers to the task.

Condition 2: Program versus project orientation

Within the context of corporate volunteering, a clear distinction can be drawn between program orientation and project orientation, based on the temporal character of the collaboration. Organizations collaborating with specific corporate partners from a program orientation tend to have longer-term relationships with these companies. Program orientation deepens the commitment of the company and generates additional opportunities for the NPO. In many cases, NPOs engaged in actual programs with companies receive other resources (e.g., money, means) as well, in addition to the time of the corporate volunteers. These organizations are also able to establish programs involving longer-term engagement between their beneficiaries and the corporate volunteers (e.g., mentoring projects and coaching trajectories). A program orientation might thus enable deeper, more meaningful relationships between beneficiaries and corporate volunteers, potentially increasing the services of the NPO. At the same time, intensive collaboration between the NPO and the company also can stimulate mission drift. Also, the deeper the connection between the NPO and the company, the stronger the association between the two organizations. Particularly in situations where companies are controversially or negatively in the news, this potentially harms the NPO.

Proposition 4a: Program orientation increases the likelihood that NPOs will attract additional
resources, achieve organizational learning, obtain legitimacy, and recruit volunteers,

Proposition 4b: Program orientation increases the risk of mission drift and reputational damage.

Not all companies are amenable to such a program orientation, however, and many prefer to commit only to short-term projects. Similarly, many NPOs organize short-term, ad hoc corporate volunteering projects, often lasting no longer than one day. Through such projects, corporate volunteers provide additional services to beneficiaries and perform tasks for which NPO employees lack time and which require no formal education or particular expertise. As explained by one respondent, these tasks need not always be performed by the same volunteer: "They [the NPO] work with a logbook, so that every step is neatly administered. Someone who is new is able to scan the booklet briefly or ask the project leader" (NPO_9).

Although such projects fail to tap the potential of highly-skilled corporate volunteers, they do increase the ability of NGOs to provide services. In some cases, they can even enhance the quality of these services by increasing the ratio of caretakers to beneficiaries. At the same time, project orientation is more likely to increase the transaction costs of corporate volunteer initiatives. As one respondent illustrates:

"Some companies see you [the NPO] as an event organization where they can just drop everything. This is very time consuming to us… 'We [the company] want to come and do something nice and you [the NPO] should just arrange it.' And they did not even pay for it! We are too afraid to say no. That is our problem, we should think about this more carefully. We are too inclined to think: this is yet another major organizations with which we can score within the organization [NPO]" NPO_13.

Proposition 5a: Project orientation increases the quantity and quality of their services.

Proposition 5b: Project orientation increases transaction costs

Condition 3: Involvement of intermediary organizations

Finally, the outcomes of corporate volunteering for NPOs are affected by the decision to work with intermediary organizations. These "matchmakers" facilitate partnerships between companies and NPOs. Such organizations are convenient for NPOs that lack networks of companies and experience with organizing ad-hoc projects and longer-term programs. Intermediary organizations educate less-experienced NPOs in the organization of corporate volunteering, in addition to providing them with networks for future collaboration. For example, as noted by one interviewee, "more than half of our [the NPO's] initial connections with companies stemmed from the matchmaking organization" (NPO_E). Despite the initial relevance of intermediary organizations, however, some NPOs also indicate a preference for "working almost independently of the intermediary organization" [NPO_]. Some NPOs remained engaged independently with "companies who had initially been introduced by the intermediary, but those companies adopted a sort of patronage with our organization because they sympathize with our organization" (NPO_E). Most of the relationships with intermediaries described by our respondents appear to be short-lived, as NPOs prefer to use the funds that intermediaries charge for facilitating relationships with companies to pursue their own goals. Furthermore, the process of working through an intermediary is time-consuming, given the indirect communication between parties, and NPOs are better able to design programs for their own organizations, given their knowledge of what is most suitable for their beneficiaries. As explained by one interviewee, "When we

started I always referred the companies who called me to the broker […] Now I don't [...] We just see what we can do for each other […] I think that we are now better able to connect companies to our volunteer initiatives" (NPO_10).

Proposition 6a: The involvement of intermediary organizations can enhance the ability of NPOs to recruit volunteers, attract additional resources, and realize quantitative increases in service delivery

Proposition 6b: The involvement of intermediary organizations increases the risk of mission drift, and raise transaction costs.

Proposition 7a: Decisions concerning whether to engage an intermediary organization depends upon the development of corporate volunteering initiatives within the NPO.

Proposition 7b: In the initial stage of developing the involvement of corporate volunteers, the engagement of an intermediary organization can maximize the capacity of the NPO.

Proposition 7c: NPOs with established corporate volunteer programs can maximize their capacity by not engaging intermediary organizations.

Our findings are summarized in Table 1.

NPO OUTCOMES		CONDITIONS	PROPOSITIONS
Opportunities	**Challenges**		
Increased NPO capacity	*Decreased NPO capacity*		
Catalyst for additional resources (money, means, media, mass)	Transaction costs (coordination, production, relationship management)	Perceived resource dependence: material and cultural power imbalance	Proposition 1: A perceived imbalance in material power in favor of the company increases the risk of mission drift, or diminish the quality of services.
Increased ability to recruit volunteers	Program versus project orientation	Involvement of intermediary organization	Proposition 2a: Cultural-ideological power imbalance increase organizational learning.
Organizational learning and improved functioning	Mission drift		Proposition 2b: Cultural-ideological power imbalance increases the likelihood of mission drift.
Increased quantity and quality of service delivery	Diminished quality of services		Proposition 3a: A (perceived) balance in material and cultural-ideological power decreases the risk of mission drift.
Increased organizational and issue awareness	Reputation damage		Proposition 3b: A (perceived) balance in material and cultural-ideological power increases NPOs' ability to solicit additional resources, increase the quality and quantity of its services, and enhancing its ability to recruit volunteers to the task.
			Proposition 4a: Program orientation increases the likelihood that NPOs will attract additional resources, achieve organizational learning, obtain legitimacy, and recruit volunteers.
			Proposition 4b: Program orientation increases the risk of mission drift and reputational damage.
			Proposition 5a: Project orientation increases the quantity and quality of their services.
			Proposition 5b: Project orientation increases transaction costs.
			Proposition 6a: The involvement of intermediary organizations can enhance the ability of NPOs to recruit volunteers, attract additional resources, and realize quantitative increases in service delivery
			Proposition 6b: The involvement of intermediary organizations increases the risk of mission drift, and raise transaction costs.
			Proposition 7a: Decisions concerning whether to engage an intermediary organization depends upon the development of corporate volunteering initiatives within the NPO.
			Proposition 7b: In the initial stage of developing the involvement of corporate volunteers, the engagement of an intermediary organization can maximize the capacity of the NPO.
			Proposition 7c: NPOs with established corporate volunteer programs can maximize their capacity by not engaging intermediary organizations.

Table 6.1: Summary of findings on corporate volunteering for NPOs

Discussion

This study aims to further refine the NPO case of corporate volunteering by identifying the opportunities and challenges of involving corporate volunteers for NPOs and identifies three conditions which influences these outcomes. The results indicate that the opportunities experienced by NPOs include the ability to attract additional resources (e.g., money, means, media, mass), and enhanced ability to recruit volunteers, achieve organizational learning, increase the quantity and quality of their service delivery, while raising awareness concerning particular NPOs and the issues they address. The critical reflections of the NPO professionals participating in this study nevertheless reveal a number of challenges, including transaction costs (e.g., coordination, production, and relationship management), mission drift, diminished quality of services, and reputation damage. The results also reveal three conditions under which these outcomes are likely to arise, including power balance (or imbalance), the orientation of the collaboration (program versus project), and the involvement of an intermediary organization. Based upon our findings, we formulated seven propositions based on the influence of the three conditions on the opportunities and challenges which could be tested in future research.

Our findings relate and contribute to previous research in several ways. Our findings on opportunities and challenges are related what is found in earlier research. For example, our findings on acquiring additional resources, organizational and issue awareness and attracting new volunteers and organizational learning confirm earlier empirical studies on corporate volunteering (Samuel et al., 2013; Schiller and Almog-Bar, 2013). Furthermore, consistent with

previous conceptual research (e.g., Austin and Seitanidi, 2012), our results suggest that the involvement of corporate volunteers deepens and strengthens the connection between the two organizations. Corporate volunteering allows NPOs to obtain resources that they need in order to achieve their missions, while increasing their capacity. One way in which NPO capacity can be built is through various forms of financial and nonfinancial support provided by companies (see also Van der Voort and Meijs, 2004).

In addition, our findings suggest that some NPOs are aware of the potential reputational hazards of collaborating with certain companies. Interestingly, the literature on the fit between NPOs and companies from a corporate perspective suggests that companies with high brand awareness should collaborate with NPOs with high brand awareness, as consumers are likely to perceive a logical fit between the two organizations, thereby adopting a more favorable attitude toward the company (Kim et al., 2012). Although we cannot draw any conclusions from the NPO perspective on this claim, we do know that the NPOs in our sample have a slightly different view of the form that this fit should take. Many of our respondents expressed a desire to work with large organizations, as they perceived them to have the greatest resources available for allocation. At the same time, many indicated that they would not like to collaborate with companies whose products or services are harmful for their beneficiaries, regardless of the familiarity of that organization. This suggests that companies and NPOs might differ with regard to the types of fit they seek.

In addition and also related to the issue of awareness, our research suggests that involving corporate volunteering enables NPOs to strengthen their societal advocacy role by increasing organizational and issue awareness Advocacy is defined as active interventions by organizations on behalf of the collective interests they represent. These interventions have the explicit goal of influencing public policy or the decisions of any institutional elite (Onyx et al. 2008; Onyx et al., 2010). In this regard, our results suggest that NPOs can use corporate volunteering as a way to influence the public debate on issues by creating awareness and understanding of particular issues or sectors. The ways in which our respondents presented their strategies of advocacy resembles to be incremental and non-confrontational which is also known as "advocacy with gloves" (see Onyx et al., 2010) as they are trying to establish issue and organizational awareness by facilitate corporate volunteers' experiences with the issue and their organization.

A recent study on corporate product giving in the USA provides a critical reflection on corporate support, including challenging consequences for NPOs such as logistic issues and transaction costs (Gazley and Abner, 2014). Despite the different challenges this study identifies compared to ours, both studies appear to have a more critical reflection on the involvement of resources of businesses and the corresponding transaction costs. In addition, in both studies, NPOs noted that they continue to collaborate with companies regardless of their relative satisfaction with the collaboration (e.g., even when challenges outweigh the benefits). Many of our interviewees reported feeling internal and/or external pressure to involve corporate volunteers, even if the activities were not entirely consistent with the

internal needs and priorities of their NPOs. According to Weisbrod (2004), the advisability of continuing such endeavors is questionable, as many NPOs would do better to invest the time and energy demanded by corporate volunteering relationships into achieving their stated missions (). In particular, companies that prefer to participate with project orientation without entering any long-term commitment might therefore be characterized as high-risk investors, introducing considerable uncertainty for the NPO (Jones, 2007). By using considerable resources to continue exploiting activities with companies, NPOs can compromise their ability to carry out their missions, thus jeopardizing their organizational survival (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). We therefore suggest that, in order to ensure the success of the collaboration for both parties, NPOs should ensure that the involvement of corporate volunteers will meet their own organizational needs (see also Gazley and Abner, 2014).

Another contribution to literature is our findings which indicate that NPO capacity building is subject to certain conditions, including perceptions of power (im)balance, the orientation of the collaboration (program versus project), and the involvement of an intermediary organization. These findings also relate to earlier research, most particular the power imbalance. First, on power imbalance correspond to recent research, which demonstrates that NPOs often adopt a deliberate strategy of positioning themselves as the weaker partner within collaborations. Accepting power imbalance allows NPOs to collaborate with a wide array of different partners, thereby diversifying their donor pools (Schiller and Almog-Bar, 2013). Although we found no evidence of such a deliberate strategy in

our sample, the findings do suggest that perceptions of power balance or imbalance can affect the potential of corporate volunteering for NPOs.

In addition, our finding that the outcomes is subjected to the orientation of the collaboration; program orientation versus project orientation. This related to theories within organizational theory. The outcomes are subjected to the longevity of the collaboration, either short term, ad-hoc versus long-term, more structural. In addition, our study is based on organizations which greatly differ in how they acquire their resources. For example, some organizations are largely dependent on public funding, while others on private funding. Third, some organizations are volunteer-run organizations while others are paid staff dominated. Within organizational theory, we therefore suggest future research should also look into contingency theory where studies further identify the conditions (or constrains) under which the outcomes occur (see also Brudney and Meijs, 2014).

Most novel of our study is the discussion of an emerging interest in the potential role of intermediary organizations in business-nonprofit partnerships. This is not surprising, given the complexity inherent in cross-sector collaboration. Although intermediary organizations perform organizational boundary-spanning functions and act as facilitators for collaboration, they have yet to receive much attention from scholars (Lee, 2015). We argue that these organizations can have both positive and negative effects on the capacity-related outcomes of cross-sector collaboration for NPOs, and therefore call for additional study on their particular role and effects.

The three conditions presented in this paper connect to resource dependency theory, organizational theory and boundary spanning theory and resulted in seven propositions which could be used in future research. These studies could take more deductive approaches using these insights and theories, including cross-sectional studies. Moreover, examining the perceptions of various stakeholders (e.g., corporate and NPO managers, NPO employees, corporate and regular volunteers, and beneficiaries) would strengthen our understanding of the outcomes for the intended beneficiary organization (see e.g., Samuel et al., in press).

Another related avenue for research involves the comparison of various types of corporate involvement in NPOs. Although we are aware that there are various ways in which companies can collaborate or at least have philanthropic relationships with NPOs (e.g., corporate volunteering, cause-related marketing, donations of money or means, or the involvement of corporate networks; see Van der Voort and Meijs, 2004), there is little comparative research that compare these different types of involvement and their outcomes (see also Rodell and Lynch, 2015). Such knowledge could be used to encourage NPO managers to reflect on the opportunities and challenges associated with various forms of involvement. Further challenges are posed by the variety of tasks for which corporate volunteers are currently being used and the varying duration of their involvement. For example, scholars have argued that corporate volunteering is generally applied in the form of turnkey or customized activities (Raffaelli and Glynn, 2014), but we know little about how this affects the beneficiary organization. Finally, our results suggest that intermediary organizations can play a key role. Although they are

widely used in practice, little is known about their roles or benefits in NPO–business collaborations (for an exception, see Lee, 2015).

Conclusion

This article provides a deeper understanding of the NPO case of corporate volunteering and how this arises by presenting conditions under which these outcomes emerge. The opportunities and challenges identified in this study are largely consistent with previous research, further substantiating these studies by providing empirical evidence from a different empirical setting. We supplement these studies in three important ways. First, we demonstrate the presence of single-loop and double-loop learning and identify the risk of decreases in service quality. Our results also show that corporate volunteering can provide NPOs with insight into alternative organizational practices that could be beneficial to them. Finally, a novel contribution of this study is that we specify the conditions under which these opportunities and challenges arise. We demonstrate that outcomes are subject to power imbalance and resource dependence, program or project orientation, and the involvement of intermediary organizations. Far from being mutually exclusive, these conditions often overlap, thus demonstrating the complexity of organizing such relationships. Given the exploratory nature of our study, we make no claim that these conditions are exhaustive, but merely that they open pathways to future research.

References

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility. A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932-968.

Allen, K. (2003). The social case for corporate volunteering. *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, 8(1), 57-62.

Austin, J. E., and Seitanidi, M. M. (2012). Collaborative value creation: A review of partnering between nonprofits and businesses: Part 1. Value creation spectrum and collaboration stages. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 726-758.

Babbie, E. A. (2008). *The basics of social research* (fourth edition). Thomson Learning, Inc. USA.

Basil, D.B., Runte, M.S., Easwaramoorthy, M. & Barr, C. (2009). Company Support for Employee Volunteering: A National Survey of Companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics, 85*(2), 387–398.

Brammer, S., & Millington, A. (2003). The effects of stakeholder preferences, organizational structure and industry type on corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *45*, 213-226.

Brudney, J.L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Models of volunteer management: Professional volunteer program management in social work. *Human Service Organizations Management, Leadership & Governance, 38*(3), 297-309.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Caliguiri, P., Mencin, A. & Jiang, K. (2013). Win-Win-Win: The influence of company-sponsored volunteerism programs on employees, NGOs, and business units. *Personell Psychology, 66*(4), 825-860.

Chernev, A. & Blair, S. (2015). Doing well by doing good: The benevolent halo of Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(6), 1412-1425.

De Gilder, T. C. de, Schuyt, T. N. M., and Breedijk, M. (2005). Effects on an employee volunteering program on the work force: The ABN-AMRO case. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *61*(2), 143-152.

Foster, M. K*., & Meinhard, A.G. (*2005*).* The diversity of revenue sources among voluntary organizations in Canada. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 15*(3)*,* 43-60.

Froschauer, U., & Lueger, M. (2003). *Das Qualitative Interview* [The qualitative interview]. Facultas: Stuttgart.

Gautier, A. & Pache, A.C. (2015). Research on corporate philanthropy: A review and assessment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(3), 343-369.

Gazley, B. & Abner, G. (2014). Evaluating a product donation program: Challenges for charitable capacity. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 24*(3): 337-355.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(4), 589-615.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E., & Rosso, B. (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal*, *51*(5), 898-918.

Harris, M. E. (2012). Nonprofits and Business: Toward a Subfield of Nonprofit Studies. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 892-902. DOI: 10.1177/0899764012443735

Hustinx, L., Haski-Leventhal, D. & Handy, F. (2008). One of a kind? Comparing episodic and traditional volunteers in a Philadelphia Ronald McDonald House. *International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, *25*(3), 50-69.

Jones, M. B. (2007). The multiple sources of mission drift. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *36*(2), 299-307. DOI: 10.1177/0899764007300385

Kim, S.Y. & Park, H. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility as an organizational attractiveness for prospective public relations practitioners. *Journal of Business Ethics, 103*(4), 639-653.

Kim, N, Sung, Y. & Lee, M. (2012). Consumer evaluations of social alliances: The effects of perceived fit between companies and non-profit organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 109*(2), 163-174.

Kondracki, N. L., & Wellman, N. S. (2002). Content analysis: Review of methods and their applications in nutrition education. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, *34*(4), 224-230.

Krasnapolskaya, I., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). The relationship between corporate volunteering and employee civic engagement outside the workplace in Russia. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, Online first,* 1-33.

Lee, L. (2015). Understanding the role of the broker in business non-profit collaboration. Social Responsibility Journal, 11(2), 201-220.

Liket, K. & Simaens, A. (2015). Battling the devolution in the research on Corporate Philanthropy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *126*, 285–308

Madison, T.F., Ward, S., & Royalty, K. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment and employer-sponsored volunteering. *International Journal of Business and Social Science 3*(1)*,* 1-14.

Neuman, W. L. (1994). *Social Research Methods*, 2nd ed. London: Allyn and Bacon.

Onyx, J. A., Dalton, B. M., Melville, R., Casey, J. P., & Banks, R. (2008). Implications of government funding of advocacy for third-sector independence and exploration of alternative advocacy funding models. *Australian Journal of Social Issues, 43*(4), 631–648

Onyx, J.A. , Armitage, L., Dalton, B., Melville, R., Casey, J. & Banks, R. (2010). Advocacy with gloves on: The "manners" of strategy used by some third sector organizations undertaking advocacy in NSW and Queensland. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 21*, 41-61.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). *The external control of organizations: A resource dependence perspective*. Harper and Row: New York.

Raffaelli, R. and Glynn, M.A. (2014), Turnkey or tailored? Relational pluralism, institutional complexity, and the organizational adoption of more or less customized practices. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(2), 541-562.

Rodell, J. B. (2013). Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, amj-2012.

Rodell, J. B., Breitsohl, H., Schroder, M. & Keiting, D.J. (2015). Employee volunteering. A review and framework for future research. *Journal of Management*, *Online first*, 1-38.

Rodell, J. B. & Lynch, J. (2015). Perceptions of employee volunteering: Is it "credited" or "stigmatized" by colleagues? *Academy of Management Journal, Online first*, 1-65.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1998). *Defining the nonprofit sector. A cross-national analysis* (first edition). Manchester University Press, Manchester, UK.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. (2013). Corporate volunteering: benefits and challenges for nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 24*(2), 163-179.

Samuel, O., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (in press). Exploring Partnerships from the Perspective of HSO Beneficiaries: The Case of Corporate Volunteering. Accepted for publication in the special issue: *Partnerships in Human Service Organizations, Governance and Leadership*.

Schiller, R. S., & Almog-Bar, M. (2013). Revisiting collaborations between nonprofits and businesses: A NPO-centric view and typology. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *42*(5), 942-962.

Tschirhart, M. and St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate Community Service Programs: Enhancing Community Capacity? In A. Brooks (Ed.) *Gifts of Time and Money in America's Communities* (pp. 59-75), Lanham, MD, United States of America: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Van der Voort, J. M. & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2004). Partnerships in Perspective: About Sustainable Relationships between Companies and Voluntary Organisations. *The Nonprofit Review, 4*(1), 9-18. DOI: 10.11433/janpora.4.9

Weisbrod, B. A. (2004). The pitfalls of profits. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 2(3), 40-47.

CHAPTER 7: THE NPO CASE FOR CORPORATE VOLUNTEERING: A MULTI-LEVEL PERSPECTIVE

Abstract

The "non-profit case" (as opposed to the business case) for corporate volunteering is complex, requiring a multi-level perspective on the outcomes. To date, scholars have focused primarily on organizational outcomes, disregarding the implications for non-profit staff members and the consequences for non-profit organizations. A multi-level perspective is thus crucial to understanding the complexity of non-profit outcomes when involving corporate volunteers. Findings from 39 semi-structured qualitative interviews with NPO staff members responsible for corporate volunteering reveal specific outcomes (both positive and negative) of working with corporate volunteers for NPO staff (micro-level), as well as consequences for NPOs (meso-level). We identify three specific program characteristics of corporate volunteer involvement (temporary involvement, task assignment and integration into regular programs) that influence these outcomes. Based on exploratory research, we advance a multi-level model for future research on the dynamics and consequences of involving corporate volunteers for NPOs and their staff.

Outcomes of Corporate Volunteering for Non-profit Organizations: The Need for a Multi-Level Perspective

Scholarly interest in business–nonprofit collaborations has increased rapidly in recent years. Within this context, this study focuses specifically on corporate volunteering (also referred to as "employee volunteering" or "employer-sponsored volunteering") as a distinct and increasingly popular activity within business–nonprofit collaborations. In this discussion, we aim to advance understanding of the rationales that non-profit organizations (hereafter NPOs) have for involvement in corporate volunteering (see also Harris, 2012) by exploring individual and organizational outcomes of interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff on the NPO work floor.

Corporate volunteering is defined as "employed individuals giving time [through a company initiative] during a planned activity for an external non-profit or charitable group or organization" (Rodell et al., 2015, p.4/5). These activities may be performed either within or outside official working hours, and either with or without additional compensation to the employee. Although such activities might stretch the understanding of volunteering (see also Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005), they are never part of the employee's official job description (Bussell and Forbes, 2008; Rodell et al., 2015). They may be performed either individually or in teams, as either one-off or longer-term projects, and according to either competences or professional skills (Rodell et al., 2015; Van der Voort and Meijs, 2004). This conceptualization of corporate volunteering excludes private volunteering by employees without the involvement of the company (Houghton et al., 2009; Rodell et al., 2015).

Corporate volunteering differs from community-based volunteering in that the direct solicitation to engage takes place through the workplace (e.g. managers, colleagues), and not through NPOs or their beneficiaries (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). The involvement of corporate volunteers in NPOs complicates the relationship between the two partner organizations, as compared to the case of relationships limited to monetary donations (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a). Instead of NPO staff members managing the relationship with companies solely through the corporate representative, involving corporate volunteers in NPOs includes an integration of external individuals (i.e. corporate volunteers) into the NPO (routine) practices. These individuals introduces among others a different institutional logic (see also Schiller and Almog-Bar, 2013). Consequently, corporate volunteering thus involves individual-level interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff.[26]

Although most research on corporate volunteering has focused on outcomes for corporations and their employees (see for an overview Rodell et al., 2015), recent scholars have focused on outcomes for NPOs in order to develop the "non-profit case" (as opposed to the "business case;" Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013; Schiller and Almog-Bar, 2013) for involving corporate volunteers. According to some studies, the benefits to NPOs do not always outweigh the costs, and some NPOs doubt whether corporate volunteering can ever realize its potential (Allen,

---

[26] In this paper, we use the term "NPO staff" to refer to all individuals working for an NPO on a regular basis, according to some type of contract (e.g., economic or psychological).

2003; Samuel et al., 2013). This is partly due to the unwillingness of companies to compensate NPOs for the additional financial costs incurred while facilitating corporate volunteers (Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013). Other effects could include mission drift, as NPOs seek to satisfy (and possibly feeling exploited by) their corporate partners (Allen, 2003). Nevertheless, the same authors report that NPO managers engage corporate volunteers to realize activities that would not otherwise be possible and to provide a point of entry for potential donations (Samuel, et al, 2013; Allen, 2003). The involvement of corporate volunteers also introduces new human resources to NPOs, enhances the capacity of NPO staff, creates opportunities to educate outsiders about the issues with which they work (Caligiuri et al., 2013) and increases the possibility of influencing corporate behavior (Allen, 2003). Although NPOs tend to be aware of the benefits and challenges of corporate volunteering, Samuel and colleagues (2013) report that NPOs do not display strategic behavior towards corporate volunteering, lacking the clear rationale and management tools needed in order to exploit the advantages of this business–nonprofit collaboration. In general, they argue that NPOs continue to perceive the benefits of corporate volunteering as "aspired states" rather than as "achieved realities."

The NPO case for corporate volunteering warrants further scrutiny. Although existing studies tentatively identify both meso-level and micro-level outcomes, a more systematic assessment and a more refined summary of these levels is needed (see also the integrative framework developed by Rodell, 2015, p. 9). Relationships between individual-level and organizational-level outcomes have

yet to be understood. A multi-level perspective on the outcomes of corporate volunteering could help NPOs to develop strategies for engaging corporate volunteers in ways that would maximize their own benefits (see Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013). While many theories have been developed at the level of organizations and partnerships between companies (or governments) and NPOs (see e.g., Gazley and Brudney, 2007; Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a; 2012b), individual-level conditions (or contingencies, see Brudney and Meijs, 2014) that could explain the emergence of particular outcomes have yet to be explored. A clear overview of program conditions of corporate volunteering and related outcomes could help NPOs to find optimal matches between particular types of volunteers and specific tasks (Graff, 2006).

The multi-level perspective advanced in this research note is particularly relevant, given the pressure that donors often place on NPOs to involve corporate volunteers (Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013). Such strategic necessities pose fundamental challenges to volunteer management, which has not traditionally involved the element of organizational coercion. Nevertheless, not all corporate volunteers are pressured to participate. Although employees are unlikely to accept strong coercion to volunteer in the context of their jobs (Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2008), they are likely to experience some social pressure or encouragement by managers or peers. Such initiatives ultimately depend upon the acceptance and support of employees (Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2008).

This research note addresses two key questions: 1) *What are the outcomes for NPOs and their staff resulting from interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff?* 2)

Which program conditions affect these outcomes? Proceeding from these questions, we refine and expand existing literature on the NPO case for corporate volunteering by presenting insight into the multi-level outcomes of interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff. We thus provide an initial impetus for building a more complex, comprehensive theoretical understanding of the implications of involving corporate volunteers in NPOs. We draw on qualitative research data obtained from 39 semi-structured interviews. Consistent with previous research (i.e., Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013), we conducted interviews with NPO staff members responsible for corporate volunteering within their organizations, including their perceptions and reflections on individual-level outcomes for NPO staff members directly involved with corporate volunteers. After describing our methods, we present results from our exploratory research. We conclude by discussing the implications of our results for the literature on corporate volunteering and suggesting directions for future research.

Methods

Given its primary purpose of characterizing and mapping a phenomenon that has yet to be described sufficiently in literature, our study follows an inductive, qualitative research design (Neuman, 1994). We conducted 39 interviews with 43 professionals having at least some experience with corporate volunteering in 39 NPOs in the Netherlands and Belgium. Eighteen of the interviews were conducted in Flanders, Belgium, and 21 were conducted in the Netherlands. The two neighboring countries differ little with regard to the context and development of corporate volunteering. They share the same language (Dutch) and have similar non-profit regimes (i.e., corporatist; see Salamon and Anheier, 1998).

The NPOs included in this study were selected in order to achieve maximum variation (Patton, 2005) in terms of size, scope (i.e., activity at the local, regional, or national level), organizational structure, funding sources, target group, and mission. This strategy was intended to capture the breadth of corporate volunteering opportunities within NPOs and the breadth of the potential outcomes. Several respondents (8) were employed by intermediary organizations aimed at connecting and facilitating collaboration between companies and NPOs. Of the NPOs included, 17 were active in social services and 9 were active in education and youth development; 5 were campaigning organizations, and 8 were intermediary organizations that match companies and NPOs.

Most of the respondents were volunteer coordinators, managers, or corporate relations workers, with responsibility for corporate volunteering initiatives. We deliberately selected key figures within the organizations, as their positions were likely to allow the most comprehensive overview of corporate volunteering in their organizations. All respondents from intermediary organizations were directors, providing their perspectives on the facilitation of partnerships between companies and NPOs involving corporate volunteers. Our arguments are thus based on the perceptions of these key figures, and not on the perceptions of those directly involved. Although NPO staff members who are involved directly could likely provide better information on outcomes, our respondents' experiences with coordinating and organizing programs and arranging interactions between employees gave them a broader overview of the outcomes

and associated conditions. Their reflections are thus legitimate for investigating our research questions.

The semi-structured interviews were based on open-ended questions, using an interview guide as a tracking tool (Babbie, 2008). A guideline was developed in order to ensure consistency across interviews and the inclusion of all topics of interest. The guideline included an introductory section clarifying the conditions (e.g., confidentiality guarantee and background of the research), followed by key questions. Topics addressed included the development of corporate volunteering programs in the respondents' organizations, their motivation for facilitating corporate volunteering, the management of corporate volunteers, and the perceptions of staff and clients concerning the involvement of corporate volunteers. Interesting responses were followed up with probes for deeper information.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. To ensure reliability, the transcripts were analyzed by two authors. Coding software (Atlas-Ti) was used to screen and sort textual material before interpreting the data, providing a structured mechanism for identifying relevant text fragments for detailed interpretation (Froschauer and Lueger, 2003).[27] We adopted a conventional inductive (i.e., "grounded") approach when analyzing our qualitative data, avoiding

---

[27] The Dutch text fragments appearing throughout this article were translated into English by the authors.

the use of preconceived categories and allowing the categories and new insight to emerge from the data (Kondracki and Wellman, 2002).

Data analysis began with repeated readings of the full transcripts to generate familiarity with the content of the data (Tesch, 1990). We then highlighted words and phrases that appeared to represent key thoughts of the respondents. These initial codes were grouped and recoded into broader categories, which were used to create meaningful clusters (see Patton, 2005). This process revealed two general topics: 1) outcomes for NPOs due to interactions between corporate and NPO staff, 2) conditions under which these outcomes emerged. The results of the analysis were discussed by all authors in order to construct the most suitable interpretative framework. In the interest of transparency, NPOs from the Netherlands are identified by numbers, while those from Belgium are identified by letters.

It is important to note that our respondents framed and illustrated corporate volunteering largely at the individual level, concerning volunteers without any ongoing commitment to the NPO (cf. episodic volunteering). Data from our maximum-variation sample suggest that, in the countries under investigation, the actual volunteer involvement of corporate employees resembles that of episodic, non-structural commitment. No representative data are available with which to verify this preliminary observation. Although it is important to acknowledge the context-specific limitation of the scope of our findings, the predominance of corporate volunteering as a non-structural engagement has been confirmed in other

countries as well. For example, Low and colleagues (2007) report that 76% of all corporate volunteering activities in the UK were occasional or one-off.

Results
Multi-level Outcomes of Interactions between Corporate Volunteers and NPO Staff

This section concerns respondents' perceptions concerning the outcomes of involving corporate volunteers for NPOs. Our findings indicate that corporate volunteer involvement has individual-level outcomes with organizational-level consequences. After classifying these outcomes as either favorable or harmful consequences for individuals and organizations, we identify program-related conditions affecting the multi-level outcomes.

Favorable consequences of corporate volunteer involvement
As described by one interviewee, NPO staff can "learn from the people from the business sector" (NPO_1), thereby reflecting **single-loop** and **double-loop learning.** Single-loop learning reflects individual learning that is helpful for organizations, but that does not question current organizational functioning, in contrast to double-loop learning.[28] Corporate volunteers contribute specific resources, including experience, knowledge, and skills, supporting NPOs through single-loop learning. The knowledge of corporate volunteers can be of direct benefit to the NPO (e.g., a corporate volunteer with a background in IT could teach NPO staff to build a new website), even without questioning current organizational policies and practices.

---

[28] For the conceptualization of single-loop and double-loop learning, see Argyris, C. (1976). Single-loop and double-loop models in research on decision making. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *21*(3), 363-375.

According to one respondent, corporate volunteers "… come from a totally different world" (NPO_A). In other words, their institutional logics differ from those of the NPO. For this reason, interactions with corporate volunteers could provide NPO staff with insight into alternative organizational practices and generate new ideas for their own organizations. For example, "…because they are accustomed to working with targets, you might have to work a bit harder once in a while. They have a different work ethos, they have a different drive" (NPO_1). Such experiences result in double-loop learning by facilitating the transfer and embedding of knowledge within the organization. Such learning called practices within the NPO into question. As illustrated by one respondent, "You suddenly start to wonder, 'Why are we actually here? What do we want?'" (NPO_11). This could ultimately lead to changes (e.g., in organizational culture and management practices):

"Due to the changing dynamics in our healthcare sector [in the Netherlands], we are seeing a need for more professionalization, for different behavior. Although this didn't matter much to our organization in the past, it's now a necessity. We [NPO staff members] have gradually come to realize this [through the interaction with corporate employees]" (NPO_13).

Interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff members can also enhance **employee satisfaction** in the NPO by generating appreciation and recognition for their efforts:

Collaboration with external parties results in personal growth for our [NPO] staff … [Corporate volunteers] tell my staff, "… what you're doing is great …" [and] that their work is not being taking for granted (NPO_11).

This is further exemplified by how the *lack of* corporate volunteer involvement might have a converse effect:

[Corporate volunteers say to NPO staff:] You couldn't do this job unless it were your calling. You [NPO employee] must have an explicit reason for performing this job. You don't just become a group leader; you couldn't keep it up … [As such,] group leaders also grow when they receive compliments… [Without corporate volunteers], I think it would take some of the wind out of their sails…that would affect our staff as well (NPO_20).

Corporate volunteers can also help to relieve NPO staff from the burden of their work and/or enable them to provide additional services to their clients. For example, corporate volunteers can help to improve both the quantity and quality of services by increasing the ratio of caregivers to beneficiaries. Several of our interviewees reported using corporate volunteers to provide "... an additional gift …" (NPO_11) to beneficiaries. Time donated by corporate volunteers can be used to supplement the regular programs of NPOs, thus helping to fulfill specific needs that would otherwise remain unaddressed. One interviewee was particularly pleased with this possibility, "[…] because we [the NPO] usually don't offer activities on weekends" (NPO_11). Corporate volunteers can also support the daily routines of NPO staff and take over some tasks. As observed by several interviewees,

corporate volunteers support NPO staff by providing "support in the day-to-day work of regular staff" (NPO_1). As one respondents recalls:

[Company] signed up with us and was looking for a short-term project. They came and performed all kinds of tasks. Basically, they prepared… our annual festival in September. We always invest a week of our time doing the preparations ourselves, but now they [corporate volunteers] did it (NPO_R).

Additional services and work relief can **enhance service delivery**.

Harmful consequences of corporate volunteer involvement
In addition to its favorable outcomes, the introduction of corporate volunteers can also have harmful outcomes for NPO staff and their organizations. First, **staff dissatisfaction** might result from the fear of replacement and "cherry-picking" that might occur when involving corporate volunteers. Some of our respondents reported increasingly using corporate volunteers to compensate for budget deficits. From the organizational perspective, this could be interpreted as an innovative way of responding to changes in resource availability. From the perspective of NPO staff, however, the involvement of corporate volunteers could signal a threat of replacement. As explained by one interviewee:

Suppose we were to say, "Let's involve corporate volunteers in the community together with our regular [ongoing] volunteers." It's not inconceivable that they [regular volunteers] would feel a bit threatened in their volunteering/voluntary jobs" (NPO_B).

In addition, because corporate volunteers are usually less expensive, paid NPO staff members might perceive them as threatening. As one interviewee clearly acknowledged, "They [corporate volunteers] perform tasks that would otherwise have been done by our regular staff" (NPO_7). Another respondent explained that the unions were closely monitoring corporate volunteering in their organization, in order to ensure that they were not being used to replace paid staff.

…it's something that the union is monitoring. …[W]hen we started with [corporate] volunteering, [the union] was quite suspicious of what they [corporate volunteers] were going to do, and whether they were going to replace us [NPO staff] at work. So we had a good conversation with the union about this… If it [involving corporate volunteers] were to be on a more regular basis, I think we would have a problem with our union" (NPO_H).

The type of relationship between NPO staff and corporate volunteers depends heavily upon the organization's tradition of volunteer involvement. Many NPOs in our sample that have traditionally been dominated by paid staff are increasingly implementing corporate volunteering programs. Given its relative novelty in these organizations, volunteering (corporate or otherwise) has no long tradition upon which to draw. This could spark conflicts between NPO staff and corporate volunteers. For example, tensions could arise if staff members were to perceive some corporate volunteers as having more experience or better skills.

Other interviewees indicated that they sometimes opt to satisfy corporate volunteers at the expense of their own staff, as corporate volunteers bring additional resources. This creates dissatisfaction due to cherry-picking practices that

favor corporate volunteers. For example, corporate volunteers are often called upon to carry out annual outings with beneficiaries, because their companies reimburse all expenses. As one volunteering coordinator mentioned, "Those [corporate] volunteers are cherry-picking. They're doing all the fun stuff" (NPO_11). Dissatisfaction with basic working conditions can lead to overall employee dissatisfaction, or at least to a resistant attitude toward involving corporate volunteers. The involvement of corporate volunteers in NPOs could thus generate employee dissatisfaction.

As suggested by several respondents, a second harmful consequence of working with corporate volunteers is that it might **impair the quality of services** provided to beneficiaries if NPO staff members are forced to compensate for corporate volunteers who lack the appropriate skills. Although corporate volunteers are assumed to have valuable skills, their skills might not match the needs of the NPO. For example, companies wishing to perform service in the form of gardening, maintenance, or similar activities are usually not specialized in these tasks, and not every volunteer has the skills needed to perform them well. In addition, because specific skills are required for working with people with mental or physical disabilities, the potential damage associated with corporate volunteering in such contexts might outweigh any potential benefits. For this reason, many respondents expressed reluctance to expose at least some of their clients directly to corporate volunteers. One respondent observed, "Some of our staff members indicate that [involving corporate volunteers] might be too intense for our beneficiaries, who just need peace and quiet sometimes …" (NPO_4), while

another indicated that "it is often the [NPO] staff members who see this as an obstacle rather than the clients themselves" (NPO_10).

In contrast to work relief, corporate volunteers can also increase the workload of NPO staff. For example, the involvement of large numbers of temporary volunteers could impose excessive burdens: "The [operational staff]… don't always have the time for that [corporate volunteer projects], particularly given the increasing demand from companies wanting to be involved" (NPO_7). As argued by another respondent: "…you also have to invest enough of our own [staff] hours to organize those projects [for corporate volunteers], to prepare well…" (NPO_C). In addition, although corporate volunteers could provide additional services at times when there are usually no activities (see earlier in this article), some respondents also expressed feeling forced to adapt to corporate schedules, applying the principle of "you ask, we serve."

Underlying Conditions Affecting the Outcomes of Corporate Volunteering
The second step of our analysis concerns conditions related to the outcomes of corporate volunteering for NPOs. We identified three factors that facilitate outcomes for NPOs.

The first condition emerging from the data is the **temporary engagement** of corporate volunteers, which affects outcomes for NPO staff. Episodic interactions can offer short-term task relief and enhance additional services, in addition to cultivating appreciation for the work of NPO staff. As argued previously, corporate volunteers can increase the beneficiary–caretaker ratio, and the temporary character of such arrangements might diminish the fear of

replacement (unless corporate volunteers perform low-skilled activities that could easily be performed by anyone). One challenge related to the temporary character of corporate volunteering is that it often leads to cherry-picking, as NPOs attempt to ensure that corporate volunteers have a good experience, even if their involvement is short-term.

The outcomes of corporate volunteering are also affected by the **type of involvement** of corporate volunteers. Similar to the organization of traditional volunteering, many NPOs adopt various combinations of corporate volunteering. Some corporate volunteers are used for routine tasks (e.g., routine care of clients, financial counseling, physical maintenance). Others are used for programs and projects outside of the regular tasks of NPO staff. In such cases, anything that corporate volunteers do is supplementary to the regular services of the NPO. The integration of corporate volunteers into the routine tasks of an NPO is likely to increase the fear of replacement. Nevertheless, the support of corporate volunteers can provide work relief for NPO staff. Such contexts are also more likely to cultivate appreciation on the part of corporate volunteers, as they actually experience the routine work of NPO staff. In contrast, the use of corporate volunteers for additional programs can damage motivation by leaving NPO volunteers to perform necessary but perhaps less desirable tasks (i.e., cherry-picking by corporate volunteers).

Another influential factor involves **the assignment** of corporate volunteers to either skill-based or hands-on tasks. Skill-based assignments draw upon the professional knowledge, expertise, and skills of corporate volunteers (e.g.,

developing marketing pitches, improving the NPO's newsletter, management and/or beneficiary counseling). In contrast, hands-on assignments tend to involve social or maintenance activities (e.g., outings with NPO staff and beneficiaries; renovation). Skill-based involvement increases the transferability of skills, knowledge, and expertise toward NPO staff, and it can introduce NPO staff members to different organizational practices, possibly increasing their effectiveness. Challenges associated with this type of involvement include the increased likelihood that NPO staff members will feel threatened by the corporate volunteers. As observed by one respondent, working with highly skilled corporate volunteers "… also demands skills from your own staff..." (NPO_L).

Hands-on assignments allow corporate volunteers to see what NPO staff members do for their beneficiaries, thus possibly enhancing various motivating factors. For example, corporate volunteers who realize the difficulty and complexity of working with certain types of beneficiaries are more likely to develop appreciation for such work. Assisting during activities also provides additional task relief for NPO staff. Despite these benefits, however, the use of corporate volunteers to perform hands-on activities (particularly low-skilled activities) is likely to exacerbate the fear of replacement. Furthermore, hands-on corporate volunteers could generate resentment and demotivation if NPO staff members perceive that corporate volunteers are taking all of the enjoyable tasks while leaving them to perform the less pleasant work.

Discussion and Conclusion

As observed by Allen (2003), although the business rationale for corporate volunteering has become well established and widely accepted, "there has been no corresponding social case, no rationale developed from the NGO/NPO perspective" (p.57). More recently (in a research note in this journal), Harris (2012) observes a lack of NPO perspectives on nonprofit–business collaboration: "We need to understand… [to what] extent those benefits are achieved in practice" (p. 897). Samuel and colleagues (2013) confirm these concerns, observing a lack of clear rationales, strategic behavior, and adequate management tools among NPOs collaborating with companies through corporate volunteering. The "business case" clearly prevails (Harris, 2012). To date, most authors have suggested that nonprofits should engage in such collaborations by defining organizational goals and clarifying expectations with partners at the beginning of each project, subsequently implementing strategies, measuring/evaluating the outcomes of assignments, and providing feedback to corporate partners (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a; 2012b; Samuel et al., 2013).

Our study –the first to propose a multi-level perspective on the outcomes of corporate volunteering for NPOs – highlights the complexity underlying such a generic approach. While we acknowledge the importance of the "bottom-line test" – "does corporate volunteering (…) help to achieve the organization's mission? Does it help address current priorities? Is it worth the cost; is the return on investment sufficient to justify the investment?" (Allen, 2003, p.58) – our findings identify multiple levels and dimensions that should to be considered in order to provide satisfactory answers.

Our exploratory study suggests that certain program characteristics of corporate volunteering should be regarded as structural conditions affecting individual-level interactions among corporate volunteers and NPO staff, in addition to having important individual-level outcomes with organizational-level implications. In Figure 7.1, we present our multi-level model, which also summarizes our empirical findings.

Our inductive exploratory modeling resembles Rodell's (2013) integrative framework containing multi-level antecedents and consequences, which is based on a literature review of corporate volunteering from the business perspective. Although our exploratory study does not provide an exhaustive overview of all possible conditions and outcomes, it highlights the necessity of disentangling antecedents and outcomes at multiple levels in order to understand the NPO case for corporate volunteering. General formulations of the benefits of corporate volunteering in terms of "helping to achieve the organization's mission" (Allen, 2003) should be broken down into complex micro-dynamics with multiple individual and organizational level outcomes.
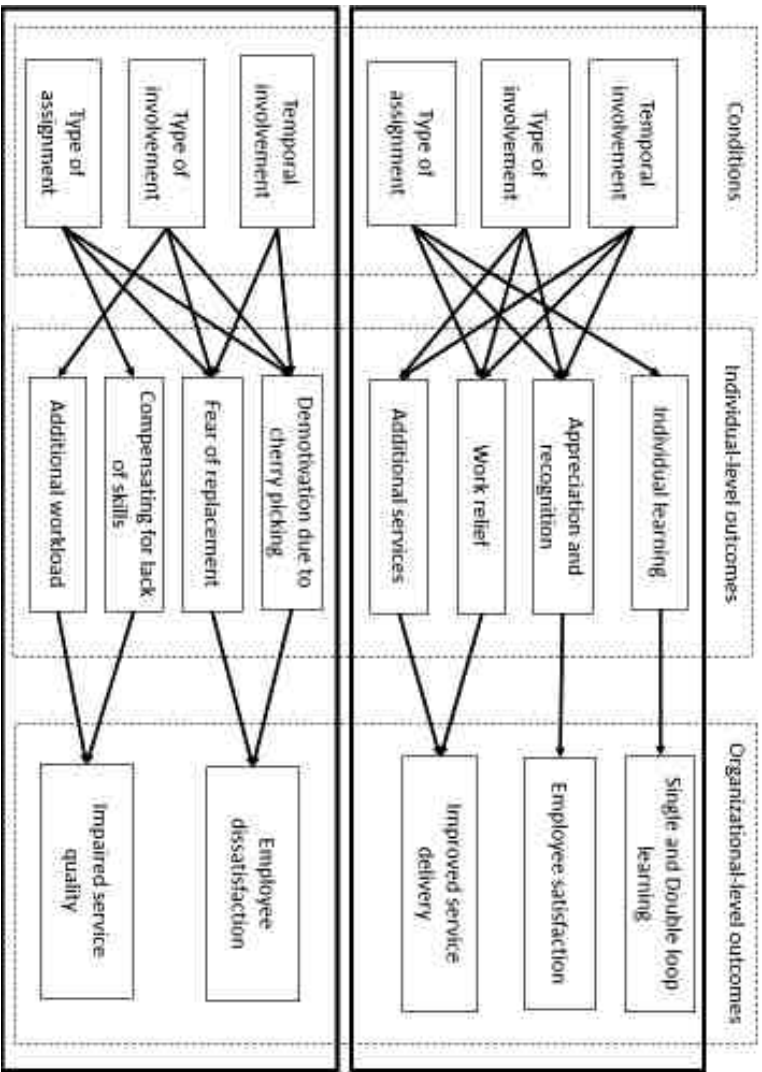
Figure 7.1: Multi-level model of corporate volunteer involvement

Our study yields four additional lessons for nonprofit professionals and scholars. First, as Rodell (2015) concludes from the corporate perspective, the benefits of corporate volunteering for NPOs relate to both NPO performance and individual work behavior. Building a successful NPO case thus requires considering both dimensions. Second, borrowing insights from Herzberg's two-factor theory (1964),[29] our study indicates that corporate volunteering should be regarded as a workplace factor that alters both the job environments and the job characteristics of NPO staff. Corporate volunteering thus introduces additional motivating *and* hygiene factors into the workplace, thereby influencing both employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Third, and following from the previous point, because corporate volunteering can be regarded as a workplace characteristic, the implementation and management of corporate volunteering programs cannot be separated from the human resource and volunteer management practices of NPOs. Finally, our study emphasizes the importance of the nature and design of corporate volunteering programs in the generation of certain outcomes (cf. Allen, 2003).

Given the limitations of this research note, we offer several suggestions for researchers interested in this domain. First, following Rodell (2015), we encourage researchers to elaborate our initial multi-level model into an integrative

---

[29] Herzberg (1964) argues that certain factors in the workplace cause employee satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction. In particular, motivating factors are largely related to the nature of the work (e.g., recognition; the job itself), whereas factors leading to dissatisfaction are largely situated in the job environment (e.g., pay, working conditions). For this reason, Herzberg refers to these factors as "hygiene" factors, related to "maintenance."

framework for future research on corporate volunteering from the NPO perspective. In addition, the program conditions that we have identified should presumably be seen as only one condition. Future research should also consider characteristics of NPOs, other workplace characteristics, and individual factors. Further refinement and more systematic research on contingencies is needed (see also Brudney and Meijs, 2014). Second, the analytical dimensions of the outcome level in our model would benefit from further refinement, given the contextual limitations of our research. Third, a central limitation of our exploratory study was its focus on a specific class of actors – NPO professionals – in this multi-actor collaboration. Additional studies could examine additional actors, particularly including beneficiaries, who have received less research attention in comparison to the corporate actors (for a recent exception, see Samuel et al., forthcoming). The NPO case for corporate volunteering will remain incomplete until we understand how it affects NPO beneficiaries. Fourth, in many NPOs, the primary concern associated with involving volunteers is balancing efforts to attract and manage them against the benefits that they bring to the organization (Brudney and Meijs, 2009). Corporate volunteering, which has recently become an increasing potential source of volunteers (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010), introduces many aspects that affect both sides of this aspired equilibrium. We therefore encourage researchers to develop an approach to corporate volunteer management that does not approach corporate volunteering as a separate activity but as one that inherently affects broader organizational processes as a workplace characteristic, thus changing the job environment and the nature of the job for both NPO staff (both paid and unpaid).

Our model also has implications for practitioners in the nonprofit sector. As emphasized by Harris (2012), NPO managers "…need research evidence to enable them to make informed choices about cross-boundary initiatives" (p. 899). Such evidence could stimulate NPO managers seeking to involve corporate volunteers to consider what they wish to achieve from corporate volunteer involvement, even though no straightforward line can be drawn between project objectives, program characteristics, and outcomes. In addition to the intended goals and direct results of the corporate project, contingent outcomes result from the unavoidable influence of corporate volunteering on workplace characteristics. Such projects introduce new organizational roles and practices that interfere with NPO staff, and the nature of interactions between corporate volunteers and NPO staff remains unclear. Given the complexity and contingency of implementing particular types of corporate volunteering programs in particular nonprofit workplaces, the development of best-practice scenarios for collaborating with corporate partners through corporate volunteering should clearly go beyond assessing the needs of the NPO.

References

Allen, K. (2003). The social case for corporate volunteering. *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, *8*(1), 57-62.

Austin, J. E., & Seitanidi, M. M. (2012a). Collaborative value creation: A review of partnering between nonprofits and businesses: Part 1. Value creation spectrum and collaboration stages. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 726-758.

Austin, J. E., & Seitanidi, M. M. (2012b). Collaborative value creation: A review of partnering between nonprofits and businesses. Part 2: Partnership processes and outcomes. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(6), 929-968.

Babbie, E. A. (2008). *The basics of social research*. Fourth Edition. Thomson Learning, Inc. USA.

Brudney, J. L., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). It ain't natural: Toward a new (natural) resource conceptualization for volunteer management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *38*(4), 564-581.

Brudney, J. L., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2014). Models of volunteer management: Professional volunteer program management in social work. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, *38*(3), 297-309.

Bussell, H. & Forbes, D. (2008). How UK universities engage with their local communities: A study of employer supported volunteering. *International Journal of Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *13*, 363-378.

Caligiuri, P., Mencin, A. & Jiang, K. (2013). Win-Win-Win: The Influence of Company-Sponsored Volunteerism Programs on Employees, NGOs, and Business Units. *Personnel Psychology, 66,* 825-860.

Froschauer, U., & Lueger, M. (2003). *Das Qualitative Interview* [The qualitative interview]. Stuttgart: Facultas, 2003.

Gazley, B., & Brudney, J. L. (2007). The purpose (and perils) of government-nonprofit partnership. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *36*(3), 389-415.

Graff, L. L. (2006). Declining profit margin: When volunteers cost more than they return. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration. 24*(1), 24-32.

Grant, A. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(4), 589-615.

Harris, M. E. (2012). Nonprofits and business: Toward a subfield of nonprofit studies. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 892-902.

Haski-Leventhal, D., Meijs, L. C. P. M., & Hustinx, L. (2010). The third party model: Enhancing volunteering through governments, corporations and educational institutes. *Journal of Social Policy*, *39*(1), 139–158.

Herzberg, F. (1964). The motivation-hygiene concept and problems with manpower. *Personnel Administration, 27*(1), 3-7.

Kondracki, N. L., & Wellman, N. S. (2002). Content analysis: Review of methods and their applications in nutrition education. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, *34*(4), 224-230.

Low, N., Butt, S., Paine, E.A. & Smith, J. (2007) *Helping Out: a national survey of volunteering and charitable giving.* The Cabinet Office: London.

Neuman, W. L. (1994). *Social Research Methods* (2nd edition). Allyn and Bacon: London.

Pajo, K., & Lee, L. (2011). Corporate-sponsored volunteering: A work design perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *99*(3), 467-482.

Patton, M. Q. (2005). *Qualitative research*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd: New York, NY.

Rodell, J. B., Breitsohl, H., Schroder, M. & Keiting, D. J. (2015). Employee volunteering. A review and framework for future research. *Journal of Management*, *Online first*, 1-38.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1998). Social origins of civil society: Explaining the nonprofit sector cross-nationally. *Voluntas: International journal of voluntary and nonprofit organizations*, *9*(3), 213-248.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. (2013). Corporate volunteering: Benefits and challenges for nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 24*(2), 163-179.

Schiller, R. S., & Almog-Bar, M. (2013). Revisiting collaborations between nonprofits and businesses: A NPO-centric view and typology. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *42*(5), 942-962.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*.Falmer: Bristol, PA.

Tschirhart, M. & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate Community Service Programs: Enhancing Community Capacity? In A. Brooks (Ed.) *Gifts of Time and Money in America's Communities* (pp. 59-75), Lanham, MD, United States of America: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Tschirhart, M. and St. Clair, L. (2008). Fine Lines: Design and Implementation Challenges in Employee Volunteer Programs. In M. Liao-Troth (Ed.) Challenges in Volunteer Management, a volume in L. R. Jones and N. C. Roberts (Series Eds.) *Research in Public Management* (pp. 205-226).

Van der Voort, J. M. & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2004). Partnerships in perspective: About sustainable relationships between companies and voluntary organisations. *The Nonprofit Review, 4*(1), 9-18.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1. Overview of the dissertation

This dissertation provides a broad overview of antecedents, interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR, based on a variety of methodological approaches, including conceptual, review-based, inductive and deductive strategies. The empirical studies in this dissertation vary from quantitative analysis in Study 1(Chapter 2) to qualitative analyses in Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7).

In Study 1, I investigate antecedents of employee engagement in CSR. I identify individuals in the workplace who are likely to engage in CSR initiatives by analysing their attitudes, characteristics and preferences, as compared to those who are unengaged and those who are engaged in social behavior (i.e. volunteering) through other channels (i.e. community volunteers). The results reveal that corporate volunteers differ from community volunteers on all of these aspects, although they do not differ on all of the specific antecedents that I had anticipated. In Study 2, I identify five potential barriers obstacles (i.e. antecedents) to employee engagement in CSR and propose five potential organizational interventions that companies could use to eliminate these barriers. In Studies 3 and 5 (Chapters 4, 6 and 7), I examine how organizational interventions can affect the consequences of employee engagement in CSR. In Study 3 (Chapter 4), I incorporate potential antecedents and organizational interventions that create such consequences by examining the relationship between CSR and Person-Environment Fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) and how organizations can design their initiatives to influence

this fit. Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7) adopts a non-profit perspective on CSR by identifying interventions (i.e. conditions) that influence the social case for CSR. In Study 4 (Chapter 5), I combine antecedents, interventions and consequences by developing a theoretical model for how employers and employees can create Person-Organization Fit, in addition to addressing the positive and negative outcomes of this fit. The relationship between the research questions and the studies are illustrated in the Introduction of this dissertation.

With the objective of enhancing understanding concerning antecedents and organizational interventions for and consequences of employee engagement in CSR, six chapters of this dissertation are devoted to the presentation of results from five studies. In the following sections, I provide a concise overview of the findings reported in these chapters, relating them to the overall research question. Based on this discussion, I highlight implications for theory and practice, including suggestions for future research.

8.2 Summary of the main findings

Table 1 provides a summary of the research gap, the main findings of the studies and the theoretical and practical contributions of these studies. Studies 1 and 5 (Chapters 2, 6 and 7) are based on empirical evidence, whether deductive (Study 1) or inductive (Study 5). The remaining chapters are conceptual, based on reviews and theory development.

In Study 1 (Chapter 2), which focuses on identifying individuals who are likely to engage in CSR, I build upon theories of volunteering and organizational citizenship to develop hypotheses concerning the differences between corporate

volunteers and those who engage through their own initiatives (i.e. community volunteers) and non-volunteers. First, the findings reveal that some employees are indeed involved in volunteer initiatives only through the workplace, without being engaged privately. This suggests that different types of people might be attracted to involvement with and without the corporate context acting as a stimulus for engagement. I formulate nine hypotheses to explain these differences. The results of the study provide partial conformation for my predictions that the personal characteristics, attitudes, volunteer preferences and organization-related factors of individuals who engage in corporate volunteering differ from those of community volunteers and non-volunteers. The data provide support for two of the nine hypotheses,[30] including the claim that corporate volunteers are more likely to have positive perceptions of the personal benefits of corporate volunteering than are either community volunteers or non-volunteers and the claim that corporate volunteers perceive greater organizational support for engaging in corporate volunteering than do either community volunteers or non-volunteers. The results also provide partial support for four hypotheses. Although corporate volunteers differ from community volunteers on some demographic characteristics (age, educational level and household), they do not differ according to gender. Non-volunteers are more likely to have less formal education. In partial support for my hypothesis, the results indicate that corporate volunteers assess the anticipated benefits of corporate volunteering more positively than non-volunteers do,

---

[30] A table summarizing the outcomes of the hypotheses is provided in Chapter 2.

although their assessments are similar to those of community volunteers. In addition, corporate volunteers are more likely than non-volunteers are to prefer to be involved in volunteering that relates to the core business of the company, although they do not differ from community volunteers in this respect.

The data do not support four of the hypotheses. First, corporate volunteers experience no greater role modelling in the area of corporate volunteering from their managers, colleagues and customers than do either community volunteers or non-volunteers. Second, corporate volunteers do not experience less social anxiety than non-volunteers do, although they do experience less social anxiety than community volunteers do. Third, there are no job-related differences between corporate volunteers and community volunteers or non-volunteers. In general, the results reveal only a few differences between corporate volunteers and non-volunteers, while greater differences are observed between corporate volunteers and community volunteers. Finally, the results provide no support for the hypothesis that corporate volunteers have more interest in volunteering in teams with their direct or indirect colleagues and/or in skill-based volunteer opportunities than is the case for either community volunteers or non-volunteers. Corporate volunteers do have less interest in employee matching and individual volunteer assignments than community volunteers do, and they are marginally more likely than non-volunteers are to engage in social activities.

In Study 2 (Chapter 3), I address barriers that impede employees from participating, as many CSR managers experience a ceiling/bar in the percentages of employees who are able and willing to engage. In this study, I draw upon the theory

of planned behavior, augmented by theories and literature on individual charitable giving (donation of time and/or money) to show that employees might feel impeded from engaging in CSR. I identify five potential individual barriers to CSR participation: 1) perceived lack of behavioral control (e.g. the perception that one does not have the opportunity to engage), 2) lack of subjective norms (e.g. the perception that such behavior is not expected of one), 3) negative attitudes (e.g. perception that there would be no benefit to engagement), 4) lack of past experience/habits (e.g. one has never volunteered or donated money before) and 5) anxiety (e.g. eagerness to do something outside of one's own comfort zone). To address these barriers, I draw upon organizational theories to identify five potential organizational interventions that could help employees overcome these barriers: organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and CSR program design. For example, internal communication about the experiences and stories of colleagues who have participated could influence employee attitudes concerning engagement in CSR. In addition, providing group-based volunteer opportunities could arguably reduce anxiety associated with becoming engaged. According to one particularly interesting finding from Study 1, employees who participate in CSR experience less anxiety than do those who volunteer in the community, although their levels of anxiety are similar to those of non-volunteers. This result contrasts with findings reported in previous studies on differences between volunteers and non-volunteers (see Handy and Cnaan, 2007). These inconsistencies might be explained by the methodological constraints of the studies. In this dissertation, Study 1 is subject to selection bias, as it not representative of the entire population within the research context, instead being

limited to a single context (i.e. one company). The study by Handy and Cnaan (2007) is based on information from a non-random convenience sample. Future studies should therefore devote greater attention to investigating social anxiety as a possible explanation. In summary, as argued in Study 2, variety in employee participation opportunities and a supportive internal context offer the greatest potential to increase employee participation in CSR.

In Study 3 (Chapter 4), I examine ways in which CSR can serve as an intervention for influencing desired organizational outcomes. in this context, I propose how CSR initiatives (and various approaches to them) could be used to establish each of the five dimensions of person-environment fit (P-E fit): person-vocational fit, person-organization fit, person-job fit, person-group fit, and person-person fit (see Kristoff-Brown et al., 2005). For example, CSR could influence the vocational choices of individuals by investing in certain areas of education (e.g. projects that promote technical studies amongst young people). In addition, CSR has the potential to influence person-organization, person-group and person-person fit by addressing shared values concerning CSR (e.g. the importance of taking care of others). It could also contribute to shaping realistic job previews, as it provides information about how job applicants are likely to be treated, valued and socialized within the organization. Drawing upon existing theory and literature, I demonstrate that the contribution of CSR to PE fit is likely to differ in the various stages of employment (including both the pre-hire and post-hire phases): pre-recruitment, recruitment, selection, socialization, and long-term tenure. I argue that a combination of a corporate, employer-led approach and an individual, employee-

led approach to CSR is likely to maximize the potential contributions of CSR to P-E fit during the various stages of employment. The model I propose presents an overarching view of the relationship between CSR and PE fit, thereby addressing the overly fragmented state of the existing literature on this relationship.

In Study 4 (Chapter 5), I integrate antecedents, interventions and consequences in a multi-level approach. I argue that existing typologies of CSR tend to be oversimplified, as they are often based on single dimensions and levels. This is particularly problematic with regard to the relationship between organizations and their employees. For example, this is consistent with theories on person-organization fit (see also Chapter 4), which attempts to explain relationships between levels (thus taking a multi-level approach). To this end, I developed a multi-dimensional, multi-level typology that includes identity and behavior as the two major components of CSR, in addition to addressing the applicability of these two components to both employers and employees. I refer to these patterns as identity-based social responsibility, low social responsibility, behavior-based social responsibility and entwined social responsibility. In order to determine the potential outcomes of the fit between employers and employees (or the lack thereof), I identify three groups of characteristics that could be expected to affect the positioning of employees and employers: internal, relational and external factors (e.g. demographic or organizational characteristics, mutual influence and stakeholder pressure). I subsequently assess the level of congruence between the employers and employees with regard to CSR and discuss the potential outcomes

of fit (or the lack thereof) according to this aspect. These elements form the foundation for te model I present and illustrate with a case study.

In the final study of my dissertation (Chapters 6 and 7), I shift my focus from the corporate perspective on employee engagement in CSR to the non-profit perspective on the engagement of corporate employees in CSR. Both of these exploratory studies include NPO interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR for NPOs, given the ample body of existing academic research on the non-profit perspective on CSR and, more specifically, on corporate volunteering (Harris, 2012; for exceptions, see Allen, 2003; Samuel et al., 2013; Schiller and Almog-Bar, 2013; Tschirhart and St. Clair, 2005). In Chapter 6, I focus specifically on the organizational-level outcomes of collaborations between businesses and non-profit organizations based on corporate volunteering. According to the findings, corporate volunteering is likely to enhance the organizational capacity of NPOs, including their ability to provide additional resources, recruit volunteers, realize organizational learning, in addition to increasing the quantity and quality of service delivery and raising awareness concerning their organizations and the issues they address. At the same time, such collaborations pose a number of challenges, as they also have the potential to harm organizational capacity through transaction costs, mission drift, diminished quality of services and reputation damage. The results of the analysis further identify conditions under which these outcomes are likely to arise, including the involvement of intermediary organizations, perceived resource dependence and the orientation of the collaboration (i.e. program versus project). I formulate seven

propositions relating to the conditions and the outcomes that could be tested in future research.

In Chapter 7, I adopt a multi-level perspective on corporate volunteer involvement in NPOs, as the consequences of corporate volunteering are not restricted to the organizational level. I argue that the development of a 'non-profit case' (as opposed to a business case) for corporate volunteering is complex and that it should include a multi-level perspective on the outcomes. In the development of this non-profit case, scholars have thus far tended to focus primarily on organizational outcomes (see also Chapter 6), thereby ignoring the implications for NPO staff members and the consequences of these implications for their organizations. A multi-level perspective is thus crucial to a comprehensive understanding of the complexity of the outcomes of involving corporate volunteers for NPOs. The findings of this study reveal that specific outcomes (both positive as negative) of working with corporate volunteers for NPO staff members, with consequences for NPOs. The results of the study further identify three specific program characteristics of corporate volunteer involvement (i.e. temporary involvement, task assignment and the degree of integration in regular programs) that could affect the outcomes presented. Based on exploratory research, the chapter advances a multi-level model for guiding future research on the dynamics and consequences of involving corporate volunteers for NPO staff members and their organizations.

Chapter	Research gap	Main findings	Theoretical implications	Practical implications
2: Who volunteers through the workplace?	Despite the accumulation of research on corporate volunteering, studies have yet to identify the characteristics of individuals who are likely to engage in volunteering through the workplace. There is an ample body of comparative research on different types of volunteers.	The characteristics, preferences and attitudes that corporate volunteers activate employee engagement in the community. Traditional volunteer recruitment models and how organizations similar to those of community volunteers, but they differ from those of community volunteers in many aspects.	Companies are able to activate employee engagement in the community. Traditional volunteer recruitment models, and NPO managers (including volunteer managers) should be aware that corporate volunteers differ from other types of volunteers, having their own characteristics, attitudes and preferences.	Within companies, CSR managers should be cautious of using traditional volunteer models, and NPO managers (including volunteer managers) should be aware that corporate volunteers differ from other types of volunteers, having their own characteristics, attitudes and preferences.
3: Individual-level barriers and organizational interventions for employee engagement in CSR	Despite the numerous existing studies on the benefits of CSR, scholars have yet to explain why employees do not engage in CSR and how organizations can encourage such behaviour.	Five potential individual barriers are identified: perceived lack of behavioral control, lack of subjective norms, negative attitudes, lack of past experience/habits and anxiety. In addition, five organizational interventions are proposed to address these barriers and increase participation in CSR: organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and CSR program design.	Employees may refrain from CSR behavior due to barriers at the individual level, which could be reduced or eliminated by interventions at the organizational level. As such, theory development concerning employee engagement in CSR would benefit from a multi-level approach.	Within companies, CSR managers should collaborate with other departments (e.g. internal communications HRM) in their efforts to address barriers to employee engagement in CSR programs.

Table 8.1: Overview of the findings reported in this dissertation

Chapter	Research gap	Main findings	Theoretical implications	Practical implications
4: Utilizing CSR to establish multi-dimensional Person-Environment fit	Only a few recent studies address the psychological aspects of CSR, including its consequences for P-E fit. Studies that do address this issue tend to focus on single dimensions of P-E fit, thereby disregarding the potential of CSR to contribute to all dimensions.	The contribution of CSR to P-E fit is likely to differ in the various stages of employment (including both the pre-hire and post-hire phases); pre-recruitment, recruitment, selection, socialization, and long-term tenure. I argue that a combination of a corporate, employer-led approach and an individual, employee-led approach is likely to maximize the potential contributions of CSR to P-E fit during the various stages of employment.	These insights form the foundation for a framework in which I connect the 'what' (CSR), the 'when' (during all employment stages), the 'why' (P-E fit) and the 'how' (through the continuum of employment, including two approaches) of this relationship.	Present an innovative framework for CSR managers, in order to establish all aspects of P-E fit throughout the various stages of employment, including the suggestion to use a combination of employer-initiated and employee-initiated initiatives.
5. Congruence in CSR: Connecting the identity and behavior of employers and employees	Descriptions of CSR focus largely on socially responsible behavior and, in some cases, on socially responsible identity. Very few authors have combined the two concepts in researching social responsibility. This situation can lead to an oversimplification of the concept of CSR, thereby impeding the examination of congruence between employees and organizations with regard to social responsibility.	In this article, we connect two dimensions of social responsibility – identity and behavior – to build a Social-Responsibility Matrix consisting of four patterns for classifying the social responsibility of employees and employers. The positioning of employers and employees on the same matrix (as determined by internal, relational and/or external factors) is vital for assessing the level of congruence between employers and employees and for discussing the possible outcomes for both parties.	It contributes to the limited literature on micro-levels. The model is the first unified model to address both companies and employees and the connection between identity and behavior offers a more complex CSR model. It includes a demonstration of the possible influence of internal, relational and external factors.	The model can be used to help employers and employees achieve their highest CSR potential and affect each other in order to achieve high ESR-CSR congruence, with the ultimate goal of realizing positive organizational outcomes.

Table 8.1: Continued

Chapter	Research gap	Main findings	Theoretical implications	Practical implications
6. The NPO case for employee engagement in Corporate Social Responsibility	Despite the strong business case that can be presented for CSR, scholars have yet to examine the NPO case for CSR, as the academic community has yet to elaborate how this development in the corporate sector could potentially affect the NPOs that benefit from it.	Corporate volunteering can both enhance the organizational capacity of NPOs and harm organizational capacity. The inductive analysis identifies conditions under which these outcomes are likely to arise, including the involvement of intermediary organizations, perceived resource dependence, and the orientation of the collaboration.	The study provides a comprehensive, in-depth assessment of organizational-level outcomes of corporate volunteering for NPOs, as well as the conditions under which these outcomes are likely to arise. Seven propositions are formulated that could be tested in future research.	This chapter contributes to the development of the NPO case for corporate volunteering, which NPO managers can use to legitimize the involvement of such volunteers and to create strategies for their collaborations with businesses.
7. The NPO case for corporate volunteering: A multi-level perspective	Despite an increasing interest in developing the non-profit case for corporate volunteering, non-profit scholars have yet to understand how this phenomenon is likely to affect the individual level (i.e. non-profit staff members) and, consequently, how the individual level affects organizational level outcomes.	Working with corporate volunteers has specific outcomes (both positive and negative) for NPO staff members, including workplace motivators and de-motivators. These outcomes are conditioned by three specific program-related characteristics of corporate volunteer involvement. A preliminary model for explaining the dynamics and consequences of involving corporate volunteers for NPO staff members and their respective NPOs is presented.	By examining the interaction between corporate volunteers and non-profit staff members, I develop a multi-level approach to the involvement of corporate volunteers in NPOs, thereby further refining the social case for corporate volunteering, in addition to identifying conditions that can be influenced by NPO managers (including volunteer managers).	I propose that the importance of recognizing that involving corporate volunteers has effects (both positive and negative) for the NPOs that are involved, as well as for their staff members. I also propose that NPO managers have the capacity to influence the outcomes of this involvement by carefully considering the manner in which they choose to involve corporate volunteers.

Table 8.1: Continued

323

8.3 Implications for theory

As presented in the preceding section, each of the chapters in this dissertation makes specific contributions to both research and practice. In addition to the individual contributions of each chapter, the results can be combined to address the three sub-questions investigated in this dissertation, and thereby to answer the overall research question: *What are the antecedents, interventions and consequences of employee engagement in CSR?*

In three of my studies, I identify antecedents. In Studies 1 and 2, I identify individual-level antecedents of employee engagement in CSR, including characteristics, attitudes, preferences and organizational support (Study 1), augmented by perceived behavioral control (or the lack thereof), subjective norms (or the lack thereof) and experience (or the lack thereof; Study 2). In Study 4, I identify individual and organizational level antecedents of employee engagement in CSR, including internal (e.g. motivations), mutually affecting (e.g. CSR initiators and pressures) and external (e.g. media) factors.

In four of my studies, I identify organizational interventions. In Study 2, I identify organizational culture, leadership, internal communication, group and peer influence, and approach to CSR. In addition, Studies 3 and 4 emphasize that the manner in which opportunities for employees to engage in CSR are actually organized (i.e. employer-led or employee-led) influences the outcomes. In Study 5 (Chapters 6 and 7), I adopt the NPO perspective to suggest several organizational interventions that are likely to influence the consequences of employee engagement in CSR for NPOs. Particularly as demonstrated in Chapter 7, program design (i.e.

the manner in which employee engagement is organized in practice) is likely to affect the outcomes as well. For example, I report that involving corporate volunteers in NPOs in episodic, short-term engagements could potentially affect the capacity of an NPO to provide services to its beneficiaries (either positively or negatively).

Finally, three of the studies (discussed in four of the chapters) focus on consequences (both positive and negative) of employee engagement in CSR for companies and their employees, as well as for NPOs and their staff members. These consequences relate to two generic themes that are common to both sectors: 1) employee engagement in CSR enhances organizational capacity and the relationship between the staff members and their organizations. Although the negative consequences for NPOs are addressed in greater detail in this study, the results do indicate that in such activities can promote organizational learning in both companies and NPOs, and that it can help both corporate employees and NPO staff members to feel more attached to their respective organizations. A detailed summary of the studies and how they answer the three sub-questions (and thus the overall research question) is presented in Figure 8.1.
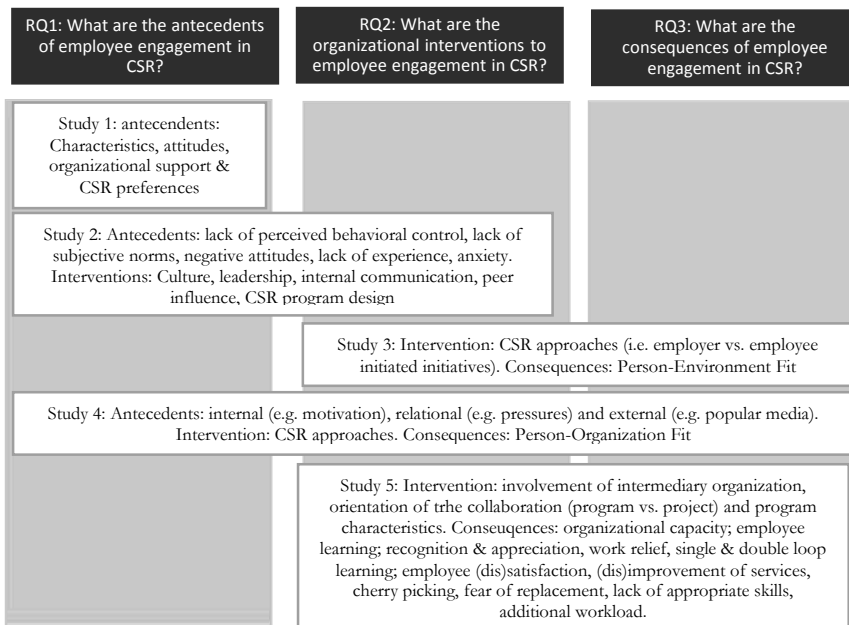
Figure 8.1: Overview of outcomes, in relation to the research questions

In addition to the specific contributions that the individual studies make to theory development by focusing on antecedents, interventions and/or consequences, the insights provided by this dissertation as a whole provide food for discussion on at least three additional overarching general themes: 1) multi-level and multi-disciplinary perspectives on CSR, and 2) strategic CSR and 3) the non-profit perspective on CSR. I elaborate on these overall implications in the following sections.

8.3.1 Multi-level perspectives on CSR

In a comprehensive review of 588 journal articles and 102 books and book chapters on CSR, Aguinis and Glavas (2012) stress that 'CSR is primarily studied at the macro level (i.e., institutional or organizational level) compared to the micro level (i.e., individual level). Accordingly, there is a need for a multilevel [perspective] and review…' (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012, p. 933; see also Aguilera, et al., 2007; Lindgreen and Swaen, 2010). It is at this point that my dissertation enters the discussion by offering micro-level, multi-level and multi-disciplinary perspectives on CSR. Studies 1 and 2 address the individual level of analysis by identifying the characteristics of individuals are willing to engage in CSR efforts and the reasons that other individuals might have for refraining from such behavior. In Study 2, I also adopt a multi-level approach by suggesting theory-driven interventions at the organizational level (in addition to those at the individual level) that are likely to encourage employees to engage in CSR, or at least to provide the organizational context and resources that employees need in order to engage. In Study 3, I cross disciplinary boundaries by demonstrating how CSR can contribute to the field of HRM, drawing upon theories inherent to that field (for a discussion of the need for such contributions, see the overview by Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). Particularly valuable contributions of this study include its use of a multi-level theory (focused on micro-macro relationships; Person-Environment Fit theory), which remains uncommon for studies of CSR (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Powell and Colyvas, 2008). In particular, I explain macro-level outcomes of CSR according to multi-level dynamics between individuals, organizations and other actors. In Study 4, the multi-level approach is applied to the development of a typology that is applicable to both

individuals and organizations, along with a multi-level (employees and organizations) and multi-dimensional (identity and behavior) model that explains the antecedents and consequences of lack of fit between organizations and employees with regard to CSR. Study 5 contributes to the development of multi-level approaches by presenting the multi-level dynamics of employee engagement in CSR from a non-profit perspective.

As demonstrated by these multi-level perspectives, effective implementation and execution of CSR is an interdependent and interconnected play between employees and their organizations, which mutually influences each other on among others (Studies 2, 3 and 4). For non-profit scholars, the multi-level model demonstrates the complexity of facilitating CSR, which subsequently influences processes and outcomes on multiple levels (see Study 5). To my knowledge, Study 5 is one of the first to identify multi-level decision-making conditions of NPO managers with regard to the involvement of corporate employees (e.g. orientation, program design and the use of intermediaries).

8.3.2 Strategic CSR
In this dissertation, I touch upon strategic CSR explicitly in Studies 2, 3 and 4, and implicitly in Study 5. Although there are many discussions of what is included in (or excluded from) the concept of strategic CSR (see e.g. Burke and Logsdon, 1996), McWilliams and Siegel (2010) define strategic CSR as 'any "responsible" activity that allows a firm to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage, regardless of motive'. In Studies 3 and 4, I demonstrate the strategic character of community involvement, as it yields substantial business-related benefits to the company, contributing to the effectiveness of the organization in accomplishing its mission,

albeit indirectly. I take issue with the operationalization of strategic responsible activity in terms of alignment with the *core business* (see Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Werther and Chandler, 2010). Throughout this dissertation, I demonstrate that such studies tend to adopt an overly restricted view of the concept of strategic CSR by disregarding organizational efforts (i.e. community involvement) that pursue organizational goals, despite (or due to the lack of) any direct link to the core business, as long as they allow 'the firm to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage' (McWilliams and Siegel, 2010, p. x). On the contrary, and based on Studies 3 and 4, I argue that strategic CSR could also involve the alignment of *core values*. For example, the results of Studies 3 and 4 explicitly demonstrate the benefits of CSR in terms of attracting and retaining important resources, largely as a result of value congruence (see also the claims made by Coldwell et al., 2008; Evans and Davis, 2011; Greening and Turban, 2000; Gully et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2014; Zhang and Gowan, 2012). As such, the alignment of CSR with core values would appear to be more appropriate, as the role of value congruence is widely recognized as a mechanism that attracts, socializes and retains employees (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Schneider, 1987; Schneider et al., 1995). The role of values has also been recognized in the area of marketing, in which scholars have reported that company-consumer congruence and consumer evaluations are based on shared beliefs, morality and values, as reflected in CSR efforts (Chernev and Blair, 2015; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

From the non-profit perspective, albeit implicitly, I start building the case for strategic CSR for NPOs. In Study 5, I elaborate the NPO case for employee

engagement in CSR (i.e. the involvement of corporate volunteers in NPOs). In addition to its theoretical value to non-profit scholars, the case can serve as a building block with which practitioners can begin to develop a strategic approach to involving corporate volunteers in their organizations. If organized well, such an approach could contribute to the overall capacity of NPOs to fulfil their missions. At the organizational level (Chapter 6), as well as at multiple levels (Chapter 7), I demonstrate how practitioners can use CSR (i.e. corporate volunteering) to the benefit of their organizations, in addition to showing how the outcomes of such initiatives can be determined by the manner in which they are organized. Similar to the definition developed by McWilliams and Siegel (2010), strategic CSR for nonprofits could be defined as *utilizing the contributions of any 'responsible' activity of companies to allow a non-profit organization to achieve its mission.* My point is not to advocate the incorporation of this term into practice and scholarship regarding NPOs; it is the way of thinking about utilizing resources for organizational goals that has the potential to contribute (albeit indirectly) to the overall well-being of the organization in the long term.

8.3.3 Nonprofit perspective on CSR
This dissertation also contributes to the literature on CSR and NPOs by analyzing the non-profit perspective on employee engagement in CSR. All recent reviews on corporate philanthropy and CSR detail the abundance of literature addressing the corporate perspective on the outcomes, strategies and processes of CSR (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simeans, 2015). Furthermore, one review on corporate volunteering includes the processes of employee engagement in CSR (i.e. corporate volunteering), although it does not address the

influence of employee engagement in CSR for the beneficiary organizations (Rodell et al., 2015). The literature on cross-sector partnerships and non-profit collaboration also contains overviews and reviews calling for research on the outcomes and impact of such initiatives for NPOs, including their beneficiaries (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b; Harris, 2012). As detailed in Study 5 (chapters 6 and 7), I address this gap by developing propositions and models to generate insight into the non-profit perspective on employee engagement in CSR. In addition to contributing to the development of the NPO case for employee engagement in CSR and the conditions under which the particular outcomes arise, I argue that non-profit scholars should include strategic CSR (or an equivalent concept) to their research agenda (as detailed in the previous paragraph).

8.4 Implications for managerial practice

My dissertation offers important insights to CSR managers in companies and volunteer managers in NPOs who would like to engage corporate employees in their programs. A third group that might be interested in this dissertation consists of governments and citizens.

Corporate managers could use the information regarding the antecedents of employee engagement to develop internal marketing strategies to encourage employees to engage in their CSR initiatives. For example, Study 1 has implications based on who might be likely to engage, as well as according to the characteristics of those who are likely to remain uninvolved in CSR. Given that corporate volunteers are usually recruited by their corporate managers, NPO managers should be aware that these volunteers are likely to differ from community volunteers (e.g.

in attitudes and characteristics). This also implies that traditional recruitment strategies for volunteers simply do not hold in the context of corporate volunteering.

An additional area in which this study offers insight to CSR managers has to do with the identification of barriers to participation and, more importantly, interventions that their organizations could use to stimulate participation. Moreover, my further elaboration of the HRM business case for employee engagement in CSR (Studies 3 and 4) offers CSR practitioners insight into the possibilities of employee engagement in CSR. In Study 5, I provide NPO managers with similar information. To create effective strategies, it is important for both CSR and NPO managers to build the case for their respective organizations. By identifying consequences, I present the potential case to companies and NPOs, including various positive and negative aspects of employee engagement in CSR.

Beyond its direct implications for practitioners, this dissertation has several practical implications that extend beyond the main research question. In general, it is important for CSR managers to understand that the logic in NPOs differs from the prevailing logic in companies and that business logic (e.g. efficiency) simply does not always work in the NPO sector. In addition, CSR managers should realize that the commonly touted win-win situation is not a given. They should be also be aware of potential negative influences (e.g. power imbalance, resource dependency of NPOs) on NPOs and their operations, in addition to recognizing that what they wish to share may not always be of any actual use to the NPO they seek to help. For this reason, CSR managers should discuss with their NPO partners regarding

what would be most helpful. An open dialogue and negotiations should result in more balanced outcomes, thus approaching the desired win-win situation. In the ideal scenario, CSR should include at least some positive social impact. Study 5 could be helpful in this regard.

Another point that should be realized by companies (including managers of Communication/Marketing/HR/Strategy) is that CSR should not be the exclusive domain of any single department. Internal collaboration between managers in various areas and those responsible for CSR is crucial to optimizing the strategic benefits of CSR. In Studies 2, 3 and 4, I emphasize the importance of linking various departments to the successful implementation and execution of CSR programs (including employee engagement), which requires a supportive organizational environment. The incorporation of CSR into a variety of departments/areas could also help these departments to achieve their goals. In other words, while CSR managers need the involvement of other departments, these other departments also need CSR in order to maximize long-term effectiveness. For example, Studies 3 and 4 clearly demonstrate the importance of the link between HR and CSR. In this regard, HR managers should be aware that employee engagement in CSR could well be a revolutionary approach to success in achieving at least some of their HR goals.

For volunteer managers in NPOs, I suggest that the involvement of corporate volunteers is a complex yet potentially fruitful prospect, if managed properly. Three implications are particularly important in this regard. First, as I have demonstrated, companies are able to encourage people to volunteer who might

otherwise not engage in such activities. This suggests that companies have the capacity to activate engagement amongst inactive citizens (in this case, employees). As such, companies constitute a potential source for recruiting new volunteers. A second implication of this dissertation, however, is that volunteer managers in NPOs should be aware that they are unlikely to gain the access that they would need in order to recruit these potential volunteers directly. Instead, these volunteers are most likely to be recruited by corporate managers. Although this situation might seem obvious to corporate managers, it fundamentally changes the nature of volunteer management for the NPO, given that volunteer managers are accustomed to recruiting and selecting their volunteers themselves (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Given that the involvement of corporate volunteers requires an organizational relationship with the company, volunteer managers within NPOs should possess some commercial skills, or at least a rudimentary grasp of stakeholder management. Such skills are important, as these volunteer managers must manage both the corporate volunteers and the relationship with the company. This dissertation offers suggestions for how to build a business case with which to convince companies to become involved (along with their employees), as well as a social case with which to convince the directors and governance boards of NPOs to engage with companies. A third important implication for volunteer managers in NPOs is that their decision-making power bears an important influence on the outcomes of their collaborations with companies (more specifically, the involvement of corporate volunteers).

This dissertation also has implications for governments and citizens. For citizens working within companies, it suggests that companies are willing to support community engagement amongst their employees. As demonstrated by the illustrations and examples presented in this dissertation, there are many ways in which to become engaged. In this regard, I also present many positive outcomes that employees could realize by becoming engaged. These outcomes are not limited of interest to the organization, but can also be of personal benefit to individual employees (e.g. skill development, bonding with colleagues and others, broadening the horizon and deepening understanding of societal issues, socialization to the company). It is important to note that the wider implications of a company's involvement in CSR (particularly community involvement) are not always positive. In many countries, companies can realize substantial tax benefits through their corporate philanthropy (i.e. donations). In a sense, this implies that corporations are using the taxpayers' money: if not for the donations, they would have paid more in taxes. For this reason, citizens should consider the broader desirability of strategic CSR. In a sense, citizens are indirectly paying to enhance brand awareness or to co-finance the HR objectives of specific companies. In addition, in contrast to consumers, who make deliberate decisions to buy from particular companies, citizens have no direct say with regard to the companies who will benefit from such tax reductions or with regard to the NPOs (and beneficiaries) that will benefit from this money. Companies are free to choose the NPOs that they wish to support, while citizens have no say at all, even though they also pay in part for these

efforts.[31] On a more positive note, companies that engage in community involvement could have chosen to allocate this money elsewhere. For example, they could have chosen to use it for investments or on fringe benefits for their employees rather than for 'doing good'. Furthermore, in addition to supporting NPOs, when companies engage in communities, they (and their employees) are likely to become more aware of developments in society and raise awareness concerning particular social issues, NPO organizations, in addition to developing mindsets that lead them to consider community interests when developing their products and services.

8.5 Directions for future research

In addition to their contributions to research and practice (as discussed in the previous sections and chapters), the findings and insights presented in this dissertation could also direct researchers towards new avenues for research, some of which extend beyond the suggestions stated in the individual chapters.

Both the contributions and the limitations of this dissertation create interesting pathways for future research. First, although Study 2 draws upon the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1961) in order to develop a conceptual explanation of barriers to employee engagement in CSR, this theory could also be used to conduct empirical tests of hypotheses regarding employee engagement (or non-engagement) in CSR. Given the specific context and the role of values and

---

[31] Similarly, one could argue that investors should be concerned that companies are not allocating the money properly in the interests of their shareholders. Nevertheless, the abundance of literature on the business case for CSR offers a wealthy of evidence for opposing this argument.

identity in CSR (see Studies 3 and 4), the theoretical approach could be expanded by including measures of value congruence in order to explain why employees do or do not engage in CSR. In addition, this dissertation raises questions concerning the types of engagement that could be explained by the theory of planned behavior. Future empirical studies should examine the extent to which the theory of planned behavior explains engagement in a variety of types of employee involvement in CSR (e.g. payroll giving versus employee matching and corporate volunteering).

Throughout this dissertation, the role of corporate foundations has remained largely implicit, and its potential influence on the outcomes of the various studies has been largely ignored. These foundations are independent legal entities aimed at the public good, having been established by firms whose names are often part of the names of these foundations (e.g. Alliander Foundation, Vebego Foundation, ING Nederland Foundation, Nuon Foundation). In any case, such foundations tend to identify themselves as corporate foundations (see also Moody et al., 2011 on the characteristics of family foundations). In many cases, these foundations are closely intertwined with their companies. For example, the majority of the operating income and other resources of these foundations may be funded by gifts from their founding firms, and their boards are often composed of owners, directors or high-level managers from their founding firms (Rey-Garcia et al., 2012). In addition, corporate foundations can serve to span the boundaries between their major donors (i.e. the founding companies) and the NPOs they support (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013). Although these foundations are becoming increasingly visible throughout society, academic research is limited, and a thorough understanding of

their role in the philanthropic and corporate sectors is lacking, as is insight into their functioning. Further research on these foundations is needed in order to address such questions as: Why do companies establish separate legal entities instead of making charitable donations directly (aside from reasons relating to tax exemptions, which are not available in every country)? What is the role of corporate foundations in global philanthropy (for an overview of global philanthropy, see Wiepking and Handy, 2015) or in broader society, particularly within different civil society regimes (see Salamon and Anheier, 2000)? What is the legitimacy of corporate foundations and towards whom (e.g. society, donors, other)? What is the independence or interdependence between companies and corporate foundations? Do corporate foundations operate according to two institutional logics (as is the case with social entrepreneurs; see Battilana and Lee, 2014), or might they build their own institutional logics? What are the corresponding governance issues? There are obviously many avenues to explore in this regard.

In this dissertation (and particularly in Study 5), I provide a balanced and nuanced view on the outcomes of employee engagement in CSR from the NPO perspective. Although I briefly touch upon potential disadvantages related to the lack of congruence in CSR (Chapter 5), future research should include investigations of potential disadvantages of employee engagement in CSR. For example, a recent study demonstrates that the colleagues of employees who engage in CSR practices can be quite critical in their evaluations of such participation (Rodell and Lynch, 2015). According to this study, co-workers tend to applaud their colleagues for their corporate volunteering if they perceive such participation as

intrinsically motivated and to stigmatize those whose participation they perceive to be serving purposes of impression management. Additional research is need in order to provide a more balanced view of this phenomenon.

In general, although the process of developing this dissertation has been highly illuminating for me, it appears to have raised more questions than it has answered. This is as it should be, and I am eager to delve further into questions concerning the intersection of business and society.

References

Ajzen I. 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 179-211.

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 836-863.

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility. A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932-968.

Allen, K. (2003). The social case for corporate volunteering. *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, *8*(1), 57-62.

Burke, L. & Logsdon, J.M. (1996). How corporate social responsibility pays off. *Long Range Planning, 29*(4), 395-441.

Chernev, A. & Blair, S. (2015). Doing well by doing good: The benevolent halo of Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(6), 1412-1425.

Coldwell, D. A., Billsberry, J., Van Meurs, N., & Marsh, P. J. (2008). The effects of person–organization ethical fit on employee attraction and retention: Towards a testable explanatory model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *78*(4), 611-622.

Evans, R. W. & Davis, W. D. (2011). An examination of perceived corporate citizenship, job applicant attraction, and CSR work role definition. *Business and Society*, *50*(3), 456-480.

Grant, A. M. (2012). Giving time, time after time: Work design and sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(4), 589-615.

Grant, A. M., Dutton, J. E. & Rosso, B. (2008). Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(5), 898-918.

Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000). Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business and Society*, *39*(3), 254-280.

Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., Castellano, W. G., Han, K., & Kim, A. (2013). A mediated moderation model of recruiting socially and environmentally responsible job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 935-973.

Harris, M. E. (2012). Nonprofits and business: Toward a subfield of nonprofit studies. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(5), 892-902.

Herlin, H. & Pedersen, J.T (2013). Corporate Foundations: Catalysts of NGO–Business Partnerships? *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, *50*, 58-90.

Hernandez, M. (2012). Toward an understanding of the psychology of stewardship. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(2), 172 - 193.

Hoeffler, S. & Keller, K.L. (2002). Building brand equity through corporate societal marketing, *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 21* (Spring), 78–89.

Jones, D. A., Willness, C., & Macneil, S. (2014). Why are job seekers attracted by corporate social performance? Experimental and field tests of three signal-based mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*(2), 383-404.

Kristof-Brown, A.L., Zimmerman, R.D., & Johnson, E.C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person–job, person–organization, person–group, and person–supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, *58*, 281–342.

Lindgreen, A., & Swaen, V. 2010. Corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 12*, 1-7.

McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. S. (2001). Corporate Social Responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 117-127.

Moody, M. Lugo Knapp, A., & Corrado, M. (2011). What is a family foundation? *The Foundation Review*, 3(4), 47-61.

Pfeffer, J. & Veiga, J.F. (1999). Putting people first for organizational success. *Academy of Management Executive, 13*(2), 37-48.

Powell, W. W., & Colyvas, J. A. 2008. Microfoundations of institutional theory. In R. Greenwood, C. Oliver, K. Sahlin, & R. Suddaby (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of organizational institutionalism* (pp. 276-298). Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.

Rey-Garcia, M., Martin-Cavanna, J. & Alvarez-Gonzalez, L. I. (2012). Assessing and Advancing Foundation Transparency: Corporate Foundations as a Case Study. *The Foundation Review*, *4*(3), 77-89.

Rodell, J. B. & Lynch, J. (2015). Perceptions of employee volunteering: Is it "credited" or "stigmatized" by colleagues? *Academy of Management Journal, Online first*, 1-65.

Salamon, L. M., & Anheier, H. K. (1998). Social origins of civil society: Explaining the nonprofit sector cross-nationally. *Voluntas: International journal of voluntary and nonprofit organizations*, *9*(3), 213-248.

Samuel, O., Wolf, P. & Schilling, A. (2013). Corporate volunteering: benefits and challenges for nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 24*(2), 163-179.

Schiller, R. S., & Almog-Bar, M. (2013). Revisiting collaborations between nonprofits and businesses: A NPO-centric view and typology. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *42*(5), 942-962.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(3), 437-453.

Schneider, B., Goldstein, H., & Smith, D. B. (1995). The ASA framework: An update. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(4), 747-773.

Sen, S. & Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research, 38*(2), 225-243.

Tschirhart, M., & St. Clair, L. (2005). Corporate community service programs: Enhancing community capacity? In A. C. Brooks (Ed.), *Gifts of time and money: The role of charity in America's communities* (pp. 59–75). Rowman & Littlefield: Lanham, MD.

Van der Voort, J. M., Glac, K., & Meijs, L. C. P. M. (2009). "Managing" corporate community involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*(3), 311-329.

Van Schie, S., Guentert, S.T. & Wehner, T. (2011). No corporate volunteering without volunteers. *International Journal of Business Environment, 4*(2), 121-132.

Werther WB, Chandler D. 2014. *Strategic CSR*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Wiepking, P. & Handy, F. (2015). *Palgrave Research Companion to Global Philanthropy*. Palgrave Macmillan, London, UK.

Zhang, L., & Gowan, M. A. (2012). Corporate social responsibility, applicants' individual traits, and organizational attraction: A person–organization fit perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(3), 345-362.

APPENDIX 1: OVERVIEW OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Figures:

Tables:

APPENDIX 2: LIST OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Dutch-based companies/corporate foundations
Nuon Foundation

Alliander Foundation

Vebego Foundation

KPMG

Ricoh

IBM

Tommy Cares

ING Foundation Nederland

Nationale Nederlanden

Delta Loyd Foundation

ANWB

Dutch NPOs
Amerpoort

Dress for Succes

I Care

Idahoeve

IMC Weekendschool

Kidsright

Natuurmonumenten

Laluz

Nederland Cares

Pameijer

Reinaerde

Resto van Harte

Sherpa

Sos Kinderdorpen

Stichting Opkikker

Stichting Present

Trajectum

VSO

Nationale Vereniging de Zonnebloem

Zonnehuizen

Jinc

Belgium NPOs
'T Lampeke vzw

'T Zwart Goor

Vzw begeleidingscentrum Stappen

Natuurpunt vzw

De Okkernoot vzw

Iona vzw

Fedasil Broechem

De Lovie

Vzw Time4Society

Fund Isaan

Business and Society

Maks vzw

Network For Training Entrepreneurship (NFTE) Belgium

Human Business [Hu-Bu]

ToolBox vzw-asbl

Vluchtelingenwerk

Child Focus

vzw Huize Monnikenheide

Besix

APPENDIX 3: ABOUT THE AUTHOR AND PORTFOLIO

About the author

Lonneke Roza (1984) has a long track record with Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University where she obtained both her Bachelor and Master degree. During her Master program she specialized in Global Business and Stakeholder Management, where she realized that she was most interested the potential societal positioning and social value of businesses. In 2009, when she wrote her matser thesis at Fortis Foundation Netherlands (a corporate foundation which is now known as ABN AMRO Foundation), Lonneke got particular interested in community involvement strategies of companies and how they potentially could serve as part of the solution for societal issues, rather than being considered as part of the problem. During her PhD she soon specialized in employee engagement in Corporate Social Responsibility focused on community involvement strategies (i.e. corporate citizenship; corporate community involvement; corporate philanthropy). She has published various articles on this topic in international peer review journals, books and popular outlets (see for a full overview her publication list below). Also, during her entire PhD Lonneke developed herself as a contract researcher on a variety of research topics, teacher, and coach (see portfolio).

Currently, Lonneke is the leading editor of a two-year research project on Corporate Foundations. Particular to her profile is her ability to translate academic insights into practical relevant information in the form of booklets, workshops and other. Among others, this results in her leading a knowlegde lab on Corporate

Citizenship, a collaborative (research based) arrangement between 11 corporate partners and Rotterdam School of Management. Next to these academic endeavors, Lonneke is currently involved as a CSR manager at The Hague University of Applied Sciences, where she puts into practice what she studies in academia and she volunteers at several organizations, including a local theater and Junior Chamber International. Community involvement, building bridges and sharing and applying her knowledge where needed are at the heart of her core values, personality and interests.

Portfolio
General Information

Lonneke Roza

Arien Brandsteeg 24

4201GG Gorinchem

The Netherlands

Phone: 0031 645 304 190

Email: lonnekeroza@casema.nl

Date of Birth: 05-02 1984

Nationality: Dutch

Linkedin: nl.linkedin.com/in/lonnekeroza/

Qualifications

Ph.D., Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University, Nederland. Theme: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), with specific interest in Corporate Community Involvement (CCI). Date of defense: 8 September 2016.

MSc. in Global Business and Stakeholder Management, Rotterdam School Of Management, Erasmus University. Topics focused on CSR and Stakeholder Management. Degree earned including additional 10 ECTS in 2009.

Exchange program at: VSE School of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic. January-May 2008.

B.A. in Business Administration, Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University. Degree earned in 2007.

Employment history (only relevant history is included)

Paid positions

September 2009 – present. PhD Student/Candidate, Researcher and Teacher at Rotterdam School of Management Erasmus University, Department of Business-Society Management.

June 2007 – August 2009. Research and teaching assistant Rotterdam School of Management Erasmus University, Department of Business-Society Management.

Awards, prizes, honours, invitations

1. Participant in PhD Fellows Program ARNOVA (Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action) November 2014.

2. Invited research/PhD fellow at Macquarie University, Sydney in July 2014.

3. Participant in PhD Fellows program, School of Social Policy and Practice, University of Pennsylvania, June 2013.

4. Participant in the PhD Fellows Program ISTR (International Society for Third Sector Research) July 2012.

Volunteering

January 2015 - present. Active member Junior Chamber International, Chamber Gorinchem.

September 2003 - present. Hostess at Theater Peeriscoop (local theatre).

Professional disciplinary involvement

Journal Reviewer for Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly

Journal Reviewer for Journal of Business Ethics

Conference reviewer for ERNOP 2015

Conference discussant at ISTR 2014

Conference Discussant at ARNOVA 2014

Research projects

2014-present. Co-founder and Leader of Knowlegde Lab on Corporate Citizenship. Collaborative research project between Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus

University and 11 companies on Corporate Social Responsibility with a focus on Corporate Citizen activities.

2014. Researcher on the role of the government in our 'big society'. Research commissioned by the municipality of Rotterdam.

2013. Researcher on a European chapter of entrepreneurs' transition to philanthropy. A collaborative project with Bloch Management School, Kansas City.

2011-2013. Researcher on the impact of The International Award for Young People.

2011-2012. Project manager of research project: The value of volunteering. This project was commissioned by ZonMw (Dutch governmental organization that funds research in the area of heathcare and welfare).

2009-2011. researcher on several small projects, for example motivation of volunteers in mentoring mentally incompetent individuals, managing volunteers in the police force, and a supportive background document for the legislative proposal on curricula based community involvement of high school students.

Outreach activities (only most relevant and recent ones are included)

2016: Workshop on behalf of Nassau Fundraising for 12 fundraising organizations on how to collaborate with companies.

2016: Third annual meeting for Corporate Social Responsibility Managers. This year's theme: Global Corporate Citizenship.

2014-present: Founder and leader of Circle of Research Corporate Community Involvement in the Netherlands; a network of 9 leading companies and corporate foundation on this topic.

2015: Interview for GOED (GOOD) Magazine for the 10th Anniversary of Vebego Foundation.

2015: Interview for People Power (online radio) on corporate volunteering (in Dutch): http://people-power.nl/medewerker-vrijwilligerswerk/

2015-2016: Workshops for multinational companies, including for example PriceWaterCoopers, Triodos Bank, Nuon, and ABN AMRO, on Corporate Volunteering and Human Resource Management.

2015: Member of the jury committee for the Social Innovation Award of ABN AMRO at PROVADA.

2012-2015: Workshops and in organizing committee of the annual meeting of 30 corporate managers active in Corporate Community Involvement and CSR.

2010-2016: Workshops for Non-profit organizations, companies and intermediaries on Corporate Community Involvement/Nonprofit-Business collaboration.

Teaching

2010-2015: Master Elective: Doing Good Done Better; Effective Management of Philanthropic NGOs. Co-teaching and coaching, organizing and coordination.

2010-2015: Thesis Coach and co-reader in the bachelor (Business Administration) and master program (Mainly Global Business and Stakeholder Management).

2014: Minor: Consultancy to social entrepreneurs: Teaching and coaching, organizing and coordination.

2010-2013: Minor: Consultancy to social entrepreneurs: Co-teaching and coaching, organizing and coordination.

2013-current: Part-Time Master Business Administration: core course Research Skills: Applied research to benefit Social Enterprises. Teaching and coaching.

Scholarly and professional publications, including work in progress
NB: Marked with "**" are publications or work in progress related to the dissertation.

Refereed journal articles

1. **Haski-Leventhal, D., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). Congruence in Corporate Social Responsibility: Connecting Identity & Behavior, Employers & Employees. Online first at Journal of Business Ethics.

2. Hoogervorst, N., Metz, J.W., Van Baren, E.A. & Roza, L. (2015). The Relational Value of Volunteers: How Perceived Altruism and Sincerity Help to Develop Affect-based Trust Relationships with Clients. Online first at Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly.

3. **Krasnopolskaya, I., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). The relationship between corporate volunteering and employee civic engagement in Russia. Online first at Voluntas.

4. **Samuel, O., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (accepted). Exploring partnerships from the perspective of Human Service Organizations' [non-profit] beneficiaries. Human Service Organizations' Management, Governance and Leadership.

5. Metz, J., Roza, L., Van Baren, E.A, Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Hoogervorst, N. (accepted). Differences between paid and unpaid social services for beneficiaries. The European Journal of Social Work.

6. Roza, L., Becker, A., Baren van, E.A. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2011). *The "Why" of Older Volunteers: Do Employment and Loss of Spouse Influence the Motivation of Older Volunteers?* International Journal of Volunteer Administration, Volume XXXVIII, No. 1 March 2011.

Journal articles submitted

7. **Roza, L. Shachar, I & Hustinx, L. Developing the social case of corporate volunteering: A multi-level approach. Submitted

8. **Roza, L., Haski-Leventhal, D. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as Planned Behavior: Individual-level Barriers and Organizational Interventions for CSR Participation. Submitted.

Refereed articles in progress

9. ** Roza, L., Spraul, K., Handy, F. Who volunteers through the workplace? Differences between corporate volunteers, community volunteers and non-volunteers. Expected submission to Voluntas.

10. **Shachar, I., Roza, L. Hustinx, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. The professional connectionists: on the coordination of corporate volunteering projects. Expected submission fall 2016.

11. **Roza, L., Haski-Leventhal, D., & Meijs, L.C.P.M. How Corporate Social Responsibility enhances Multi-Dimensional Person-Environment Fit. Expected submission to Journal of Business Ethics.

12. ** Roza, L. Explaining employee engagement in CSR; a test of theory a planned behavior.

13. ** Roza, L., Maas, S.A., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Strike, V. Family business and philanthropy: how family values influence corporate foundation governance.

Scholarly book chapters

14. **Roza, L., Vermeulen, M., Meijs, L. & Liket, K. (2014). Contemporary European E2P: towards an understanding of European philanthrepreneurs. Chapter in: Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurs' Engagement in Philanthropy – Perspectives. Edward Elgar Publishing.

15. Roza, L. & Handy, F. (2014). The economic value of volunteering in youth development. Chapter in: Meijs, L.C.P.M., Bridges-Karr, L. & Metz, J.W. Perspectives on volunteering in the Pedagogic Civil Society: A common approach to parenting support and youth development.

16. **Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Involved learning. Chapter in: Meijs, L.C.P.M., Bridges-Karr, L. & Metz, J.W. Volunteering and Youth Services. Essential readings

on volunteering and volunteer management for social work, social policy and urban management.

17. Baren, E.A. van, Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Metz, J.W. & Hoogervorst, N. (2014). On contemporary volunteering and volunteer management as building blocks for the pedagogic civil society. In L. Bridges Karr, L.C.P.M Meijs & J. Metz (Eds.), Volunteering and Youth Services. Essential readings for social work, social policy and urban management. Amsterdam: SWP. p. 33-52

18. Hoogervorst, N., Baren, E.A. van, Metz, J.W., Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Propositions concerning the use of volunteers to provide support to children and their parents. In L. Bridges Karr, L.C.P.M Meijs & J. Metz (Eds.), Volunteering and Youth Services. Essential readings for social work, social policy and urban management. Amsterdam: SWP. p. 91-105

19. Metz, J.W., Hoogervorst, N., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Baren, E.A. van & Roza, L. (2014). The pedagogic value of volunteering in child and youth development. In L. Bridges Karr, L.C.P.M Meijs & J. Metz (Eds.), Volunteering and Youth Services. Essential readings for social work, social policy and urban management. Amsterdam: SWP. p. 107-118

20. Metz. J.W., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Baren van, E., & Hoogervorst, N. (2012). Grenzen aan de civil society [Boundaries to civil society]. Chapter in: Jumelet, H., Wenink, J. Zorg voor onszelf? Eigen kracht van jeugdigen, opvoeders en omgeving, grenzen en mogelijkheden voor beleid en praktijk. Den Haag.

21. Metz. J.W., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Baren van, E., & Hoogervorst, N. (2012). Unique value of volunteering for the upbringing of children. Chapter in: Georg von

Schnurbein, Daniel Wiederkehr, Herbert Ammann eds. Volunteering between Freedom and Professionalisation. Basel.

22. **Stubbe, W., Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Moodithaya, M.S. (2011). Public Perceptions of Corporate Community Involvement: A net-cost approach among university students in India and the Netherlands. Chapter in: Refining the roles of business', NGOs and Governments. Mission for a better global society. Eds., Moodithaya, M.S., Thingalaya, N.K., Shetty, N.S. and Joshi, G.V.. Manak Publications, New Delhi, India.

Academic book in progress:

23. **Roza, L., Von Schnurbein, G., Bethmann, S. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. Combining philanthropy and business: Research handbook on Corporate Foundations. Edited scholarly book in collaboration with 12 scholars in the field of (Corporate) Philanthropy, Corporate Social Responsibility and Foundations. Interested publisher: Springer. *Note: Externally funded research project by 20 companies, private foundations and research institutes in The Netherlands and Switzerland. Timeline: 2016-2017.*

Conference Papers and panels

24. ** Roza, L., Bethmann, S., Meijs, L.C.P.M., & Von Schnurbein. (accepted 2016). Corporate foundations: Civil society organizations or corporate tool? ISTR 2016. Stockholm, Sweden.

25. **Roza, L. (accepted 2016). Corporate Foundations as catalyst for civic engagement; how to engage the 'unengaged' in cross sector social initiatives. Conference on Cross Sector Social Interactions, Toronto Canada.

26. ** Roza, L., Von Schnurbein, G., Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). Panel: On the boundary of for-profit and philanthropy: Corporate Foundations. November 2015 at ARNOVA, Chicago. Panel organizer.

27. **Roza, L. (2015). A contingency approach to effective management of third party volunteers. Paper presented at ERNOP, Paris, July 2015.

28. **Roza, L., Haski-Leventhal, D. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2015). Not why, but how! Corporate involvement in volunteering at the workplace: towards a program design model. Paper presented at ERNOP, Paris, July 2015.

29. **Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Van Vliet, L. (2015). The next step: actively incorporating foundations and corporate social responsibility into policies of municipalities. Paper presented at ERNOP, Paris, July 2015.

30. **Roza, L. (2014). A contingency approach to effective management of employee volunteers. Paper presented at Arnova, Denver, November 2014.

31. **Roza, L. Meijs, L.C.P.M., Shachar, I & Hustinx, L. (2014). Opportunities and challenges for NPO while engaging in corporate volunteering. Paper Presented at ISTR, Munster Germany, July 2014.

32. **Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Haski-Leventhal, D. (2014). Explaining the relationship between volunteering and the workplace: combining an employee and employer perspective. Paper Presented at ISTR, Munster Germany, July 2014

33. **Roza, L. Meijs, L.C.P.M., Shachar, I & Hustinx, L. (2012). Implementation of corporate volunteering from a nonprofit perspective: an exploratory research. Paper presented at ARNOVA, Indianapolis, United States, November 2012.

34. Metz, J.W., Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Van Baren, E.A. & Hoogervorst, N. (2012). Differences between paid and unpaid social services for beneficiaries. Paper

presented at Annual Conference of Arnova in November, Indianapolis, United States.

35. **Roza, L. Meijs, L.C.P.M., Shachar, I & Hustinx, L. (2012). Why do nonprofit organizations engage in employee volunteering? The rationale of Nonprofit-Business Collaboration. Paper presented at a workshop on Corporate Philanthropy organized by ZEW Mannheim & ERNOP, September 2012 Mannheim, Germany.

36. **Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Hustinx, L. & Shachar, I. (2012). When civil society flirts with market: designing a corporate volunteer program. Paper presented on the Bi-Annual Conference of International Society for Third Sector Research in July, Siena, Italy.

37. Metz, J.W., Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Van Baren, E.A. & Hoogervorst, N. (2012). The added value of volunteering to youth development. Paper presented on the Bi-Annual Conference of International Society for Third Sector Research in July, Siena, Italy.

38. Metz, J.W., Baren van, E.A., Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Hoogervorst, N. (2011). The unique value of volunteering for childrearing. Volunteer work between freedom and professionalization, European University of Voluntary Service (EFU), Basel, Switzerland.

39. **Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Verlegh, P. (2010). Designing a corporate community program: How corporate volunteering can be instrumental for personal fulfillment and Loyalty. Paper presented at the CRRC Marseille.

40. **Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Roza, L. (2010). The effects of a corporate community program; what is in it for the employee and the organization? Paper presented at Volunteering Counts: A volunteering research conference, 1st - 2nd March 2010, Manchester.

Professional publications

41. **Roza, L. (2015). The business case van Maatschappelijk Betrokken Ondernemen. https://www.werktrends.nl/de-business-case-van-maatschappelijk-betrokken-ondernemen

42. **Roza, L. & Meijs, L. (2015). How non-profit organizations, companies and intermediaries can apply corporate community involvement to strengthen society. A collection of facts from research 2015. Rotterdam School of Management. http://api.rsm.nl/files/index/get/id/a2f07710-3149-11e5-a8f2-c1f2fd97c5e3

43. **Roza, L. & Meijs, L. (2015). Durf eisen te stellen aan vrijwilligerswerk van bedrijven [Be selective in corporate volunteering]. http://www.socialevraagstukken.nl/site/2015/04/13/durf/

44. **Roza, L., Stubbe, W. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Why and how Non-Profit organizations, companies and intermediary organizations can utilize Corporate Community Involvement to strenghten the community. Practical application of research findings. Rotterdam School of Management. http://discovery.rsm.nl/articles/detail/116-a-practical-approach-to-corporate-community-involvement/

45. **Roza, L. & Meijs, L.C.P.M. (2014). Het inzetten van vrijwilligerswerk voor samenleving, organisatie en individu [Utilizing volunteering to benefit civil society, organizations and individuals]. Chapter in: Filantropie in Nederland. Eds. Lucas Meijs. Stichting Maatschappij en Onderneming, Den Haag.

46. **Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Hustix, L. & Shachar, I. (2013). Cost and Benefits of involving corporate volunteers in NPOs. Output of Fellowship Program at University of Pennsylvania.

    http://www.sp2.upenn.edu/app/uploads/2014/07/socialimpactfellows_Roza.pdf

47. **Wijnbergen, A. van, Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L. & Baren, E.A. van. (2013). *The effectiveness of brokerage institutions*. Paper. Erasmus Centre for Strategic Philanthropy.

48. **Roza, L. (2012). A practical approach to corporate volunteerism. ECSP Insight, Vol. 3, 3rd Quarter, pp. 12-15.

49. **Roza, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., & Verlegh, P. (2011). The rewards of corporate giving. RSM Insight. Management Knowledge. Vol. 4 (4th quarter), pp. 10-11.

50. Baren van, E.A., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Metz, J. & Hoogervorst, N., (2011). Hoe derde partijen, zoals overheden, bedrijven en fondsen, hedendaags vrijwilligerswerk, vrijwilligersmanagement en de civil society kunnen bevorderen [How third parties including governments, companies and endowed foundations can enhance contemporary volunteering, volunteer management and civil society]. Research Paper. Rotterdam: Erasmus Centre for Strategic Philantropy: 1-32.

51. Meijs, L.C.P.M., Huisman, W.H.A. & Roza, L. (2011). *De economische waarde van het vrijwilligerswerk door Humanitas [The economic value of volunteering of Humanitas]*. Paper. Erasmus Centre for Strategic Philanthropy.

52. Huisman, W., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Baren van, E.A., Metz, L., & Hoogervorst, N. (2011). *Vrijwilligerswerk in de media: termen in de Nederlandse samenleving*. [Volunteering in the Media; definitions and conceptualizations in The Netherlands]. Paper. Erasmus Centre for Strategic Philanthropy.

53. Ploeg, F.A., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Roza, L., Metz, J., Hoogervorst, N. & Baren van, E.A. (2011). *De taakverdeling tussen beroepskrachten en vrijwilligers: Waarom deze taken aan verschillende medewerkers wordt toegekend [Task division between paid staff and volunteers]*. Paper. Erasmus Centre for Strategic Philanthropy.

54. Bridges Karr, L., Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Roza, L. (2010). De praktijk leert: Een uitgebreide tussenstand na 2 jaar invoering van de maatschappelijke stage in het voortgezet onderwijs [Lessons learned after two years of social internships for high school students]. Den Haag, The Netherlands: Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap [Ministry of Education, Culture and Science].

55. Meijs, L. & Roza, L. (2010). *Voluntairs en vrijwillige politieambtenaren binnen de politie: waar liggen de blokkades voor een vrijwilligersvriendelijke cultuur?* [Volunteers within the police force; barriers for a volunteer friendly culture]. Paper. Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University.

56. **Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Roza, L. (2010). Werknemersvrijwilligerswerk: goed of slecht voor het vrijwilligerswerk? [Corporate volunteering; a positive or negative trend within volunteerism?] Chapter in: Chinese vrijwilligers: over de driehoeksverhouding tussen vrijwilligerswerk, activering en arbeidsmarkt (pp. 65-86) [New volunteers: triangulation between volunteering, civil activation and employment]. Brussel: Politeia.

57. Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Roza, L. (2009) *De waarde van vrijwilligerswerk van ouderen [Value of volunteering of seniors]*. Geron: tijdschrift over ouder worden & samenleving; jaargang 11, nr. 4 (december 2009) 39-40.

58. Meijs, L.C.P.M. & Roza, L. (2009). *Werven van vrijwilligers en het inspelen op hun verwachtingen: op weg naar nieuw vrijwilligersmanagement. Van nachtmerrie naar zoete*

werkelijkheid [Recruiting volunteers by addressing expectations; avenues for new volunteer management]. Paper. Rotterdam School of Management.

59. **Roza, L. (2009). Effects of Corporate Community Involvement. Master Thesis. Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University.

ERIM PH.D. SERIES RESEARCH IN MANAGEMENT

The ERIM PhD Series contains PhD dissertations in the field of Research in Management defended at Erasmus University Rotterdam and supervised by senior researchers affiliated to the Erasmus Research Institute of Management (ERIM). All dissertations in the ERIM PhD Series are available in full text through the ERIM Electronic Series Portal: http://repub.eur.nl/pub. ERIM is the joint research institute of the Rotterdam School of Management (RSM) and the Erasmus School of Economics at the Erasmus University Rotterdam (EUR).

DISSERTATIONS LAST FIVE YEARS

Abbink, E.J., *Crew Management in Passenger Rail Transport*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L.G. Kroon & Prof.dr. A.P.M. Wagelmans, EPS-2014-325-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76927

Acar, O.A., *Crowdsourcing for Innovation: Unpacking Motivational, Knowledge and Relational Mechanisms of Innovative Behavior in Crowdsourcing Platforms*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. J.C.M. van den Ende, EPS-2014-321-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76076

Akin Ates, M., *Purchasing and Supply Management at the Purchase Category Level: strategy, structure and performance*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J.Y.F. Wynstra & Dr. E.M. van Raaij, EPS-2014-300-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50283

Akpinar, E., *Consumer Information Sharing*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. A. Smidts, EPS-2013-297-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50140

Alexander, L., *People, Politics, and Innovation: A Process Perspective*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.G. Barkema & Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2014-331-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77209

368

Almeida e Santos Nogueira, R.J. de, *Conditional Density Models Integrating Fuzzy and Probabilistic Representations of Uncertainty*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. U. Kaymak & Prof.dr. J.M.C. Sousa, EPS-2014-310-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51560

Bannouh, K., *Measuring and Forecasting Financial Market Volatility using High-frequency Data*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.J.C. van Dijk, EPS-2013-273-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38240

Ben-Menahem, S.M., *Strategic Timing and Proactiveness of Organizations*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda & Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch, EPS-2013-278-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39128

Benning, T.M., *A Consumer Perspective on Flexibility in Health Care: Priority Access Pricing and Customized Care*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. B.G.C. Dellaert, EPS-2011-241-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23670

Benschop, N, *Biases in Project Escalation: Names, frames & construal levels*, Promotors: Prof.dr. K.I.M. Rhode, Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur, Prof.dr. M.Keil & Dr. A.L.P. Nuijten, EPS-2015-375-S&E, hdl.handle.net/1765/79408

Berg, W.E. van den, *Understanding Salesforce Behavior using Genetic Association Studies*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. W.J.M.I. Verbeke, EPS-2014-311-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51440

Betancourt, N.E., *Typical Atypicality: Formal and Informal Institutional Conformity, Deviance, and Dynamics*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. B. Krug, EPS-2012-262-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/32345

Bliek, R. de, *Empirical Studies on the Economic Impact of Trust*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J. Veenman & Prof.dr. Ph.H.B.F. Franses, EPS-2015-324-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78159

Blitz, D.C., *Benchmarking Benchmarks*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.G.Z. Kemna &

Prof.dr. W.F.C. Verschoor, EPS-2011-225-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22624

Boons, M., *Working Together Alone in the Online Crowd: The Effects of Social

Motivationsand Individual Knowledge Backgrounds on the Participation and Performance of

Members of Online Crowdsourcing Platforms*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.G. Barkema & Dr.

D.A. Stam, EPS-2014-306-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50711

Brazys, J., *Aggregated Marcoeconomic News and Price Discovery*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.

W.F.C. Verschoor, EPS-2015-351-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78243

Burger, M.J., *Structure and Cooptition in Urban Networks*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.A.

van der Knaap & Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur, EPS-2011-243-ORG,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26178

Byington, E., *Exploring Coworker Relationships: Antecedents and Dimensions of Interpersonal

Fit,Coworker Satisfaction, and Relational Models*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van

Knippenberg, EPS-2013-292-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/41508

Camacho, N.M., *Health and Marketing: Essays on Physician and Patient Decision-

Making*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S. Stremersch, EPS-2011-237-MKT,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23604

Cancurtaran, P., *Essays on Accelerated Product Development*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. F.

Langerak & Prof.dr.ir. G.H. van Bruggen, EPS-2014-317-MKT,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76074

Caron, E.A.M., *Explanation of Exceptional Values in Multi-dimensional Business Databases*,

Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. H.A.M. Daniels & Prof.dr. G.W.J. Hendrikse, EPS-2013-

296-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50005

Carvalho, L. de, *Knowledge Locations in Cities: Emergence and Development Dynamics*,

Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L. Berg, EPS-2013-274-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38449

Consiglio, I., *Others: Essays on Interpersonal and Consumer Behavior*, Promotor: Prof.dr. S.M.J. van Osselaer, EPS-2016-366-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79820

Cox, R.H.G.M., *To Own, To Finance, and To Insure - Residential Real Estate Revealed*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D. Brounen, EPS-2013-290-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/40964

Deichmann, D., *Idea Management: Perspectives from Leadership, Learning, and Network Theory*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. J.C.M. van den Ende, EPS-2012-255-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/31174

Deng, W., *Social Capital and Diversification of Cooperatives*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.W.J. Hendrikse, EPS-2015-341-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77449

Desmet, P.T.M., *In Money we Trust? Trust Repair and the Psychology of Financial Compensations*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D. de Cremer, EPS-2011-232-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23268

Dollevoet, T.A.B., *Delay Management and Dispatching in Railways*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.P.M. Wagelmans, EPS-2013-272-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38241

Doorn, S. van, *Managing Entrepreneurial Orientation*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J.J.P. Jansen, Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch, & Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, EPS-2012-258-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/32166

Douwens-Zonneveld, M.G., *Animal Spirits and Extreme Confidence: No Guts, No Glory?* Promotor(s): Prof.dr. W.F.C. Verschoor, EPS-2012-257-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/31914

Duca, E., *The Impact of Investor Demand on Security Offerings*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A. de Jong, EPS-2011-240-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26041

Duyvesteyn, J.G. *Empirical Studies on Sovereign Fixed Income Markets,* Promotor(s):

Prof.dr P.Verwijmeren & Prof.dr. M.P.E. Martens, EPS-2015-361-F&A,

hdl.handle.net/1765/79033

Duursema, H., *Strategic Leadership: Moving Beyond the Leader-Follower Dyad*,

Promotor(s): Prof.dr. R.J.M. van Tulder, EPS-2013-279-ORG,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39129

Eck, N.J. van, *Methodological Advances in Bibliometric Mapping of Science*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2011-247-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26509

Elemes, A, *Studies on Determinants and Consequences of Financial Reporting Quality,*

Promotor: Prof.dr. E.Peek, EPS-2015-354-F&A,

http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79037u

Ellen, S. ter, *Measurement, Dynamics, and Implications of Heterogeneous Beliefs in*

Financial Markets, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. W.F.C. Verschoor, EPS-2015-343-F&A,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78191

Erlemann, C., *Gender and Leadership Aspiration: The Impact of the Organizational*

Environment, Promotor: Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2016-376-ORG,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79409

Eskenazi, P.I., *The Accountable Animal*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. F.G.H. Hartmann,

EPS-2015-355-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78300

Essen, M. van, *An Institution-Based View of Ownership*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J. van

Oosterhout & Prof.dr. G.M.H. Mertens, EPS-2011-226-ORG,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22643

Evangelidis, I., *Preference Construction under Prominence*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.M.J.

van Osselaer, EPS-2015-340-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78202

Faber, N., *Structuring Warehouse Management*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. MB.M. de Koster, Prof.dr. Ale Smidts, EPS-2015-336-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78603

Fernald, K., *The Waves of Biotechnological Innovation in Medicine: Interfirm Cooperation Effects and a Venture Capital Perspective,* Promotor(s): Prof.dr. E.Claassen, Prof.dr. H.P.G.Pennings & Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur, EPS-2015-371-S&E, http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79120

Fourne, S.P., *Managing Organizational Tensions: A Multi-Level Perspective on Exploration, Exploitation and Ambidexterity*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J.J.P. Jansen & Prof.dr. S.J. Magala, EPS-2014-318-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76075

Gharehgozli, A.H., *Developing New Methods for Efficient Container Stacking Operations*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. M.B.M. de Koster, EPS-2012-269-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/37779

Gils, S. van, *Morality in Interactions: On the Display of Moral Behavior by Leaders and Employees*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2012-270-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38027

Ginkel-Bieshaar, M.N.G. van, *The Impact of Abstract versus Concrete Product Communications on Consumer Decision-making Processes*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. B.G.C. Dellaert, EPS-2012-256-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/31913

Gkougkousi, X., *Empirical Studies in Financial Accounting*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.M.H. Mertens & Prof.dr. E. Peek, EPS-2012-264-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/37170

Glorie, K.M., *Clearing Barter Exchange Markets: Kidney Exchange and Beyond*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.P.M. Wagelmans & Prof.dr. J.J. van de Klundert, EPS-2014-329-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77183

Hekimoglu, M., *Spare Parts Management of Aging Capital Products,* Promotor: Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2015-368-LIS, http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79092

Heij, C.V., *Innovating beyond Technology. Studies on how management innovation, co-creation and business model innovation contribute to firm's (innovation) performance*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch & Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, EPS-2012-370-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78651

Heyde Fernandes, D. von der, *The Functions and Dysfunctions of Reminders*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.M.J. van Osselaer, EPS-2013-295-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/41514

Heyden, M.L.M., *Essays on Upper Echelons & Strategic Renewal: A Multilevel Contingency Approach*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch & Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, EPS-2012-259-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/32167

Hoever, I.J., *Diversity and Creativity*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2012-267-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/37392

Hogenboom, A.C., *Sentiment Analysis of Text Guided by Semantics and Structure,* Promotor(s):Prof.dr.ir. U.Kaymak & Prof.dr. F.M.G. de Jong, EPS-2015-369-LIS, http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79034

Hogenboom, F.P., *Automated Detection of Financial Events in News Text*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. U. Kaymak & Prof.dr. F.M.G. de Jong, EPS-2014-326-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77237

Hollen, R.M.A*., Exploratory Studies into Strategies to Enhance Innovation-Driven International Competitiveness in a Port Context: Toward Ambidextrous Ports,* Promotor(s) Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. Van Den Bosch & Prof.dr. H.W.Volberda, EPS-2015-372-S&E, hdl.handle.net/1765/78881

Hoogendoorn, B., *Social Entrepreneurship in the Modern Economy: Warm Glow, Cold Feet*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.P.G. Pennings & Prof.dr. A.R. Thurik, EPS-2011-246-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26447

Hoogervorst, N., *On The Psychology of Displaying Ethical Leadership: A Behavioral Ethics Approach*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D. de Cremer & Dr. M. van Dijke, EPS-2011-244-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26228

Hout, D.H. van, *Measuring Meaningful Differences: Sensory Testing Based Decision Making in an Industrial Context; Applications of Signal Detection Theory and Thurstonian Modelling*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen & Prof.dr. G.B. Dijksterhuis, EPS-2014-304-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50387

Houwelingen, G.G. van, *Something To Rely On*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D. de Cremer & Prof.dr. M.H. van Dijke, EPS-2014-335-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77320

Hurk, E. van der, *Passengers, Information, and Disruptions*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L.G. Kroon & Prof.mr.dr. P.H.M. Vervest, EPS-2015-345-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78275

Hytonen, K.A., *Context Effects in Valuation, Judgment and Choice: A Neuroscientific Approach*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. A. Smidts, EPS-2011-252-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30668

Iseger, P. den, *Fourier and Laplace Transform Inversion with Applications in Finance*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2014-322-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76954

Jaarsveld, W.L. van, *Maintenance Centered Service Parts Inventory Control*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2013-288-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39933

Jalil, M.N., *Customer Information Driven After Sales Service Management: Lessons from Spare Parts Logistics*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L.G. Kroon, EPS-2011-222-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22156

Kappe, E.R., *The Effectiveness of Pharmaceutical Marketing*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S. Stremersch, EPS-2011-239-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23610

Karreman, B., *Financial Services and Emerging Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.A. van der Knaap & Prof.dr. H.P.G. Pennings, EPS-2011-223-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22280

Khanagha, S., *Dynamic Capabilities for Managing Emerging Technologies*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, EPS-2014-339-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77319

Kil, J., *Acquisitions Through a Behavioral and Real Options Lens*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.T.J. Smit, EPS-2013-298-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50142

Klooster, E. van 't, *Travel to Learn: the Influence of Cultural Distance on Competence Development in Educational Travel*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. F.M. Go & Prof.dr. P.J. van Baalen, EPS-2014-312-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51462

Koendjbiharie, S.R., *The Information-Based View on Business Network Performance: Revealing the Performance of Interorganizational Networks*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. H.W.G.M. van Heck & Prof.mr.dr. P.H.M. Vervest, EPS-2014-315-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51751

Koning, M., *The Financial Reporting Environment: The Role of the Media, Regulators and Auditors*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.M.H. Mertens & Prof.dr. P.G.J. Roosenboom, EPS-2014-330-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77154

Konter, D.J., *Crossing Borders with HRM: An Inquiry of the Influence of Contextual Differences in the Adoption and Effectiveness of HRM*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J. Paauwe

& Dr. L.H. Hoeksema, EPS-2014-305-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50388

Korkmaz, E., *Bridging Models and Business: Understanding Heterogeneity in Hidden Drivers of Customer Purchase Behavior*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.L. van de Velde & Prof.dr. D. Fok, EPS-2014-316-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76008

Kroezen, J.J., *The Renewal of Mature Industries: An Examination of the Revival of the Dutch Beer Brewing Industry*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens, EPS-2014-333-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77042

Kysucky, V., *Access to Finance in a Cros-Country Context*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L. Norden, EPS-2015-350-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78225

Lam, K.Y., *Reliability and Rankings*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. Ph.H.B.F. Franses, EPS-2011-230-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22977

Lander, M.W., *Profits or Professionalism? On Designing Professional Service Firms*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J. van Oosterhout & Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens, EPS-2012-253-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30682

Langhe, B. de, *Contingencies: Learning Numerical and Emotional Associations in an Uncertain World*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. B. Wierenga & Prof.dr. S.M.J. van Osselaer, EPS-2011-236-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23504

Lee, C.I.S.G, *Big Data in Management Research: Exploring New Avenues*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.J. Magala & Dr W.A. Felps, EPS-2016-365-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79818

Legault-Tremblay, P.O., Corporate Governance During Market Transition: Heterogeneous responses to Institution Tensions in China, Promotor: Prof.dr. B. Krug, EPS-2015-362-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78649

Lenoir, A.S. *Are You Talking to Me? Addressing Consumers in a Globalised World,*
Promotor(s) Prof.dr. S. Puntoni & Prof.dr. S.M.J. van Osselaer, EPS-2015-363-
MKT, http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79036

Leunissen, J.M., *All Apologies: On the Willingness of Perpetrators to Apologize*,
Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D. de Cremer & Dr. M. van Dijke, EPS-2014-301-ORG,
http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50318

Li, D., *Supply Chain Contracting for After-sales Service and Product Support*, Promotor(s):
Prof.dr.ir. M.B.M. de Koster, EPS-2015-347-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78526

Li, Z., *Irrationality: What, Why and How*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H. Bleichrodt, Prof.dr.
P.P. Wakker, & Prof.dr. K.I.M. Rohde, EPS-2014-338-MKT,
http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77205

Liang, Q.X., *Governance, CEO Identity, and Quality Provision of Farmer Cooperatives*,
Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.W.J. Hendrikse, EPS-2013-281-ORG,
http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39253

Liket, K., *Why 'Doing Good' is not Good Enough: Essays on Social Impact Measurement*,
Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur & Dr. K.E.H. Maas, EPS-2014-307-STR,
http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51130

Loos, M.J.H.M. van der, *Molecular Genetics and Hormones: New Frontiers in
Entrepreneurship Research*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.R. Thurik, Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen,
& Prof.dr. A. Hofman, EPS-2013-287-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/40081

Lovric, M., *Behavioral Finance and Agent-Based Artificial Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.
J. Spronk & Prof.dr.ir. U. Kaymak, EPS-2011-229-F&A,
http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22814

Lu, Y., *Data-Driven Decision Making in Auction Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir.

H.W.G.M. van Heck & Prof.dr. W. Ketter, EPS-2014-314-LIS,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51543

Manders, B., *Implementation and Impact of ISO 9001*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. K. Blind,

EPS-2014-337-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77412

Markwat, T.D., *Extreme Dependence in Asset Markets Around the Globe*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr. D.J.C. van Dijk, EPS-2011-227-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22744

Mees, H., *Changing Fortunes: How China's Boom Caused the Financial Crisis*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr. Ph.H.B.F. Franses, EPS-2012-266-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/34930

Mell, J.N., *Connecting Minds: On The Role of Metaknowledge in Knowledge Coordination*,

Promotor: Prof.dr.D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2015-359-ORG,

http://hdl.handle.net/1765/78951

Meuer, J., *Configurations of Inter-firm Relations in Management Innovation: A Study in*

China's Biopharmaceutical Industry, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. B. Krug, EPS-2011-228-

ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22745

Micheli, M.R., *Business Model Innovation: A Journey across Managers' Attention and*

Inter-Organizational Networks, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J.J.P. Jansen, EPS-2015-344-S&E,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78241

Mihalache, O.R., *Stimulating Firm Innovativeness: Probing the Interrelations between*

Managerial and Organizational Determinants, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J.J.P. Jansen,

Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch, & Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, EPS-2012-260-S&E,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/32343

Milea, V., *News Analytics for Financial Decision Support*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. U.

Kaymak, EPS-2013-275-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38673

Naumovska, I., *Socially Situated Financial Markets: A Neo-Behavioral Perspective on Firms, Investors and Practices*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens & Prof.dr. A. de Jong, EPS-2014-319-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76084

Nielsen, L.K., *Rolling Stock Rescheduling in Passenger Railways: Applications in short term planning and in disruption management*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L.G. Kroon, EPS-2011-224-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22444

Nuijten, A.L.P., *Deaf Effect for Risk Warnings: A Causal Examination applied to Information Systems Projects*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.J. van der Pijl, Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur & Prof.dr. M. Keil, EPS-2012-263-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/34928

Osadchiy, S.E., *The Dynamics of Formal Organization: Essays on bureaucracy and formal rules*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens, EPS-2011-231-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23250

Ozdemir, M.N., *Project-level Governance, Monetary Incentives, and Performance in Strategic R&D Alliances*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. J.C.M. van den Ende, EPS-2011-235-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23550

Peers, Y., *Econometric Advances in Diffusion Models*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. Ph.H.B.F. Franses, EPS-2011-251-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30586

Peters, M., *Machine Learning Algorithms for Smart Electricity Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. W. Ketter, EPS-2014-332-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77413

Porck, J., *No Team is an Island: An Integrative View of Strategic Consensus between Groups*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen & Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2013-299-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50141

Porras Prado, M., *The Long and Short Side of Real Estate, Real Estate Stocks, and Equity*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. M.J.C.M. Verbeek, EPS-2012-254-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30848

Poruthiyil, P.V., *Steering Through: How organizations negotiate permanent uncertainty and unresolvable choices*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens & Prof.dr. S.J. Magala, EPS-2011-245-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26392

Pourakbar, M., *End-of-Life Inventory Decisions of Service Parts*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2011-249-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30584

Pronker, E.S., *Innovation Paradox in Vaccine Target Selection*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.J.H.M. Claassen & Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur, EPS-2013-282-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39654

Protzner, S. *Mind the gap between demand and supply: A behavioral perspective on demand forecasting,* Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.L. van de Velde & Dr. L. Rook, EPS-2015-364-LIS, *http*://repub.eur.nl/pub/79355

Pruijssers, J.K., *An Organizational Perspective on Auditor Conduct*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. J. van Oosterhout & Prof.dr. P.P.M.A.R. Heugens, EPS-2015-342-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78192

Retel Helmrich, M.J., *Green Lot-Sizing*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.P.M. Wagelmans, EPS-2013-291-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/41330

Rietdijk, W.J.R. *The Use of Cognitive Factors for Explaining Entrepreneurship,* Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.R. Thurik & Prof.dr. I.H.A. Franken, EPS-2015-356-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79817

Rietveld, N., *Essays on the Intersection of Economics and Biology*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.

A.R. Thurik, Prof.dr. Ph.D. Koellinger, Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen, & Prof.dr. A. Hofman, EPS-2014-320-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76907

Rijsenbilt, J.A., *CEO Narcissism: Measurement and Impact*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.G.Z. Kemna & Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur, EPS-2011-238-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23554

Rösch, D. *Market Efficiency and Liquidity,* Promotor: Prof.dr. M.A. van Dijk, EPS-2015-353-F&A, http://hdl.handle.net/1765/79121

Roza-van Vuren, M.W., *The Relationship between Offshoring Strategies and Firm Performance: Impact of innovation, absorptive capacity and firm size*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda & Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch, EPS-2011-214-STR, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/22155

Rubbaniy, G., *Investment Behaviour of Institutional Investors*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. W.F.C. Verschoor, EPS-2013-284-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/40068

Schoonees, P. *Methods for Modelling Response Styles*, Promotor: Prof.dr P.J.F. Groenen, EPS-2015-348-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79327

Shahzad, K., *Credit Rating Agencies, Financial Regulations and the Capital Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. G.M.H. Mertens, EPS-2013-283-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39655

Sousa, M.J.C. de, *Servant Leadership to the Test: New Perspectives and Insights*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg & Dr. D. van Dierendonck, EPS-2014-313-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51537

Spliet, R., *Vehicle Routing with Uncertain Demand*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker, EPS-2013-293-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/41513

Staadt, J.L., *Leading Public Housing Organisation in a Problematic Situation: A Critical*

Soft Systems Methodology Approach, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. S.J. Magala, EPS-2014-308-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/50712

Stallen, M., *Social Context Effects on Decision-Making: A Neurobiological Approach*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. A. Smidts, EPS-2013-285-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39931

Tarakci, M., *Behavioral Strategy: Strategic Consensus, Power and Networks*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg & Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen, EPS-2013-280-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39130

Teixeira de Vasconcelos, M., *Agency Costs, Firm Value, and Corporate Investment*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. P.G.J. Roosenboom, EPS-2012-265-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/37265

Troster, C., *Nationality Heterogeneity and Interpersonal Relationships at Work*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2011-233-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23298

Tsekouras, D., *No Pain No Gain: The Beneficial Role of Consumer Effort in Decision-Making*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. B.G.C. Dellaert, EPS-2012-268-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/37542

Tuijl, E. van, *Upgrading across Organisational and Geographical Configurations*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L. van den Berg, EPS-2015-349-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78224

Tuncdogan, A., *Decision Making and Behavioral Strategy: The Role of Regulatory Focus in Corporate Innovation Processes*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ing. F.A.J. van den Bosch, Prof.dr. H.W. Volberda, & Prof.dr. T.J.M. Mom, EPS-2014-334-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/76978

Uijl, S. den, *The Emergence of De-facto Standards*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. K. Blind, EPS-2014-328-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77382

Vagias, D., *Liquidity, Investors and International Capital Markets*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. M.A. van Dijk, EPS-2013-294-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/41511

Veelenturf, L.P., *Disruption Management in Passenger Railways: Models for Timetable, Rolling Stock and Crew Rescheduling*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L.G. Kroon, EPS-2014-327-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77155

Venus, M., *Demystifying Visionary Leadership: In search of the essence of effective vision communication*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2013-289-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/40079

Vermeer, W., *Propagation in Networks: The impact of information processing at the actor level on system-wide propagation dynamics,* Promotor: Prof.mr.dr. P.H.M.Vervest, EPS-2015-373-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79325

Visser, V.A., *Leader Affect and Leadership Effectiveness:How leader affective displays influence follower outcomes*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. D.L. van Knippenberg, EPS-2013-286-ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/40076

Vlam, A.J., *Customer First? The Relationship between Advisors and Consumers of Financial Products*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. Ph.H.B.F. Franses, EPS-2011-250-MKT, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/30585

Vries, J. de, *Behavioral Operations in Logistics,* Promotor(s): Prof.dr M.B.M de Koster & Prof.dr. D.A. Stam, EPS-2015-374-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/79705

Waltman, L., *Computational and Game-Theoretic Approaches for Modeling Bounded Rationality*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr.ir. R. Dekker & Prof.dr.ir. U. Kaymak, EPS-2011-248-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26564

Wang, T., *Essays in Banking and Corporate Finance*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. L. Norden

& Prof.dr. P.G.J. Roosenboom, EPS-2015-352-F&A,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/78301

Wang, Y., *Information Content of Mutual Fund Portfolio Disclosure*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr. M.J.C.M. Verbeek, EPS-2011-242-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/26066

Wang, Y., *Corporate Reputation Management: Reaching Out to Financial Stakeholders*,

Promotor(s): Prof.dr. C.B.M. van Riel, EPS-2013-271-ORG,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38675

Weenen, T.C., *On the Origin and Development of the Medical Nutrition Industry*,

Promotor(s): Prof.dr. H.R. Commandeur & Prof.dr. H.J.H.M. Claassen, EPS-2014-

309-S&E, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/51134

Wolfswinkel, M., *Corporate Governance, Firm Risk and Shareholder Value*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr. A. de Jong, EPS-2013-277-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/39127

Yang, S., *Information Aggregation Efficiency of Prediction Markets*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr.ir. H.W.G.M. van Heck, EPS-2014-323-LIS,

http://repub.eur.nl/pub/77184

Zaerpour, N., *Efficient Management of Compact Storage Systems*, Promotor(s):

Prof.dr.ir. M.B.M. de Koster, EPS-2013-276-LIS, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/38766

Zhang, D., *Essays in Executive Compensation*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. I. Dittmann, EPS-

2012-261-F&A, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/32344

Zwan, P.W. van der, *The Entrepreneurial Process: An International Analysis of Entry and

Exit*, Promotor(s): Prof.dr. A.R. Thurik & Prof.dr. P.J.F. Groenen, EPS-2011-234-

ORG, http://repub.eur.nl/pub/23422

Employee engagement in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is essential to the success of such initiatives within organizations. Organizations –and companies in particular- are increasingly looking for ways to involve their employees in CSR. Particularly, community involvement initiatives are the most implemented CSR strategies in which employees are involved -at least in Western Europe and North America. This is not surprising as academic research has shown it yields numerous benefits for the company, such as organizational commitment, developing social and human capital and pushes (social) innovations. At the same time, these initiatives are assumed to create social value as well. Despite these compelling insights, -to date- research has yet to develop on employee engagement on micro and multi-level, including developing insights on the effects on beneficiary non-profit organizations (NPOs). To fill this gap, this dissertation addresses three main research areas. First, it investigates who engages in CSR and to what extend to they differ who are privately involved and those who are unengaged in social initiatives. Secondly, this dissertation reveals the barriers for those who refrain from such behavior and how organizations can take measures to lower these barriers, and consequently increase engagement rates. The third part of the dissertation takes multi-level perspectives on the outcomes of employee engagement in CSR, both from a business and NPO perspective. Here, it furthers the understanding of both the business case and social case of CSR, including much needed micro and multi-level approaches.

ERiM

The Erasmus Research Institute of Management (ERIM) is the Research School (Onderzoekschool) in the field of management of the Erasmus University Rotterdam. The founding participants of ERIM are the Rotterdam School of Management (RSM), and the Erasmus School of Economics (ESE). ERIM was founded in 1999 and is officially accredited by the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences (KNAW). The research under taken by ERIM is focused on the management of the firm in its environment, its intra- and interfirm relations, and its business processes in their interdependent connections.

The objective of ERIM is to carry out first rate research in management, and to offer an advanced doctoral programme in Research in Management. Within ERIM, over three hundred senior researchers and PhD candidates are active in the different research programmes. From a variety of academic backgrounds and expertises, the ERIM community is united in striving for excellence and working at the forefront of creating new business knowledge.

ERiM

ERIM PhD Series
Research in Management