

GIVING TIME, TIME AFTER TIME: WORK DESIGN AND SUSTAINED EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN CORPORATE VOLUNTEERING

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Corporate volunteering programs are important channels for expressing care and compassion, but little research has examined when and why employees sustain involvement. Integrating work design and volunteering theories, I introduce a model that explains how depleted task, social, and knowledge characteristics of jobs trigger compensatory motives during initial volunteering episodes. When these motives are fulfilled by volunteering projects, employees repeat participation, internalizing volunteer identities—contingent on pressure, matching incentives, recognition, managerial support, and targeted causes.

Corporate volunteering is an important vehicle for delivering care and compassion to causes and communities in need. Over 90 percent of Fortune 500 companies run employee volunteering programs, formally sponsoring and subsidizing employees' efforts to perform community service and outreach activities on company time (Boccalandro, 2009; Points of Light Institute, 2006). When a company supports volunteering efforts by approving time off, modified schedules, and the use of resources, the average employee volunteers 45 percent more hours per year (Booth, Park, & Glomb, 2009). For example, at The Limited, employees provide 100,000 hours of kindergarten tutoring to more than 1,400 schools annually (Marquis, Glynn, & Davis, 2007). At Disney, over the past quarter-century, employees have given more than five million hours through the VolunteARS program; in 2008 alone employees contributed more than 495,000 hours to help nonprofits specializing in education and literacy, hunger and homelessness, health care, child and family services, entertainment, community restoration, and the natural environment (Disney, 2009).

Corporate volunteering programs offer a number of distinctive advantages to nonprofits, particularly economies of scale for recruiting and organizing volunteer efforts (LBG Associates, 2004), and they appear to be on the rise (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007). In one study corporate volunteering programs were viewed as important by 31 percent of managers in 1992 and 81 percent by 1999, and such programs were part of 19 percent of company business plans in 1991 and 48 percent by 1999 (Points of Light Foundation and Allstate Foundation, 2000). Moreover, in a U.S. national survey, in 1989 17.9 percent of volunteers learned about opportunities for volunteering through their workplaces, and this number increased to 24.1 percent by 1998 (Toppe, Kirsch, & Michel, 2002). In the United Kingdom former Prime Ministers have been vocal in expressing their support for corporate volunteering programs. In 2000 Tony Blair encouraged employers to allow staff members one day per year for volunteering; in 2006 Gordon Brown articulated a "vision for our country to pioneer and be the first to achieve the day when... every employer has a volunteering scheme for their employees" (Brown, 2006; see also Bussell & Forbes, 2008). Overall, corporate volunteering programs have been described as "one of the fastest-growing areas of voluntary activity" in both North America and Western Europe (Bussell & Forbes, 2008: 364).

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Organizational scholars have sought to explain this growth in corporate volunteering programs: as a form of corporate social responsibility, these programs are thought to be strategic responses to community, institutional, and normative pressures for an organization to create and maintain a reputation as a good corporate citizen (Marquis et al., 2007). Indeed, managing a volunteer program is one of the metrics on which a company's level of social responsibility is evaluated (Waddock & Graves, 1994). However, the vast majority of research on corporate social responsibility has focused on the decisions of the corporate elite (Marquis et al., 2007), where executives "dress up like an organization" (Staw, 1991) to make philanthropic decisions from corner offices (e.g., Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999).

In contrast, a focus on corporate volunteering answers the call for an employee-centered understanding of corporate social responsibility (Wood, 2007), placing the emphasis squarely on employees' efforts to donate their time and skills in service of care and compassion. Indeed, because of the time and skill involved, employees tend to view corporate volunteering programs as a more important form of corporate social responsibility than philanthropic contributions (JA Worldwide, 2009). Employees are known to be more attracted to socially responsible firms (Turban & Greening, 1997), and in one survey more than half of employees indicated a preference to work for companies with volunteering programs (Deloitte, 2007). As such, executives have begun to view corporate volunteering programs as strategically valuable in attracting and recruiting qualified applicants, building skills, enhancing morale, and promoting retention of existing employees (Boccalandro, 2009; Bussell & Forbes, 2008; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; LBG Associates, 2004).

These benefits depend heavily on employee participation. Research suggests that when employees participate in corporate volunteering, they more strongly identify with and become more committed to their employers (Bartel, 2001; Grant, Dutton, & Rosso, 2008). However, many corporate volunteering programs struggle to maintain employee participation (Boccalandro, 2009; LBG Associates, 2004), since it is typically more difficult to retain volunteers than attract them (Penner, 2002). For corporate volunteering programs to

be effective in delivering care and compassion, sustained employee participation is critical for three key reasons.

First, in contrast to financial donations made by executives and managers, corporate volunteering programs are typically led by the bottom-up grassroots efforts of employees. Indeed, one study of U.S. companies indicated that most corporate volunteering programs are "planned, organized and executed by employees": 62 percent of these programs are directed by employees, of which 15 percent are solely driven by employees (Wainwright, 2005: 40). The initiation, management, implementation, and expansion of these programs depend on the efforts of long-term employee volunteers, who are responsible for substantial proportions of the time, energy, and skills that employees give to causes and communities (Muthuri, Matten, & Moon, 2009). For example, in Canada the top 25 percent of volunteers account for over 75 percent of the total hours given, and the top 10 percent of volunteers alone account for over 50 percent of the total hours (Statistics Canada, 2007). In corporate volunteering long-term participants typically contribute to many different types of projects and become champions of the cause, persuading coworkers, supervisors, and subordinates to join volunteering efforts (Muthuri et al., 2009; Wood, 2007).

Second, many causes require sustained attention and energy, not one-shot or short-term contributions (LBG Associates, 2004; Muthuri et al., 2009). Given the scale and scope of challenges faced by many nonprofits and communities, to ensure that a corporate volunteering program is more than lip service, it is important to engage employees in long-term efforts to contribute (Muthuri et al., 2009). Moreover, when employees persist in volunteering over time, they can earn the trust of key stakeholders, which opens the door for making more meaningful contributions (Booth et al., 2009; Muthuri et al., 2009).

Third, because volunteering efforts often require specific knowledge and skills, companies and nonprofit organizations spend considerable time and money training employees (Boccalandro, 2009). The average company budgets \$12.16 per employee to support volunteer programs (LBG Associates, 2004), and when employees sustain their volunteering efforts, organiza-

tions can allocate portions of these funds elsewhere.

Despite the importance of the sustained participation of employees in corporate volunteering programs, surprisingly little research has examined the factors that affect it. Existing studies have focused primarily on predicting the likelihood of volunteering, showing that employees are more likely to participate in corporate volunteering programs when they are older and highly educated (de Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005; Peterson, 2004). This evidence provides information about which employees are likely to become involved in corporate volunteering, but it offers sparse insight into the factors that motivate employees to sustain this involvement.

Only a handful of studies have examined sustained participation, which is typically measured in terms of the number of hours that employees volunteer. These studies suggest that sustained participation is shaped powerfully by the experiences that employees have while volunteering. For example, Booth et al. (2009) found that volunteering hours are more strongly associated with perceptions of skills acquired than with the time benefits, financial contributions, logistical support, and recognition provided by employers for volunteering. These perceptions of skill acquisition are known to be driven by how volunteer work is designed (Bartel, Saavedra, & Van Dyne, 2001; Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, & Kickul, 2005). This evidence is consistent with psychological and sociological research suggesting that experiences encountered while volunteering are the primary determinants of whether people decide to continue volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

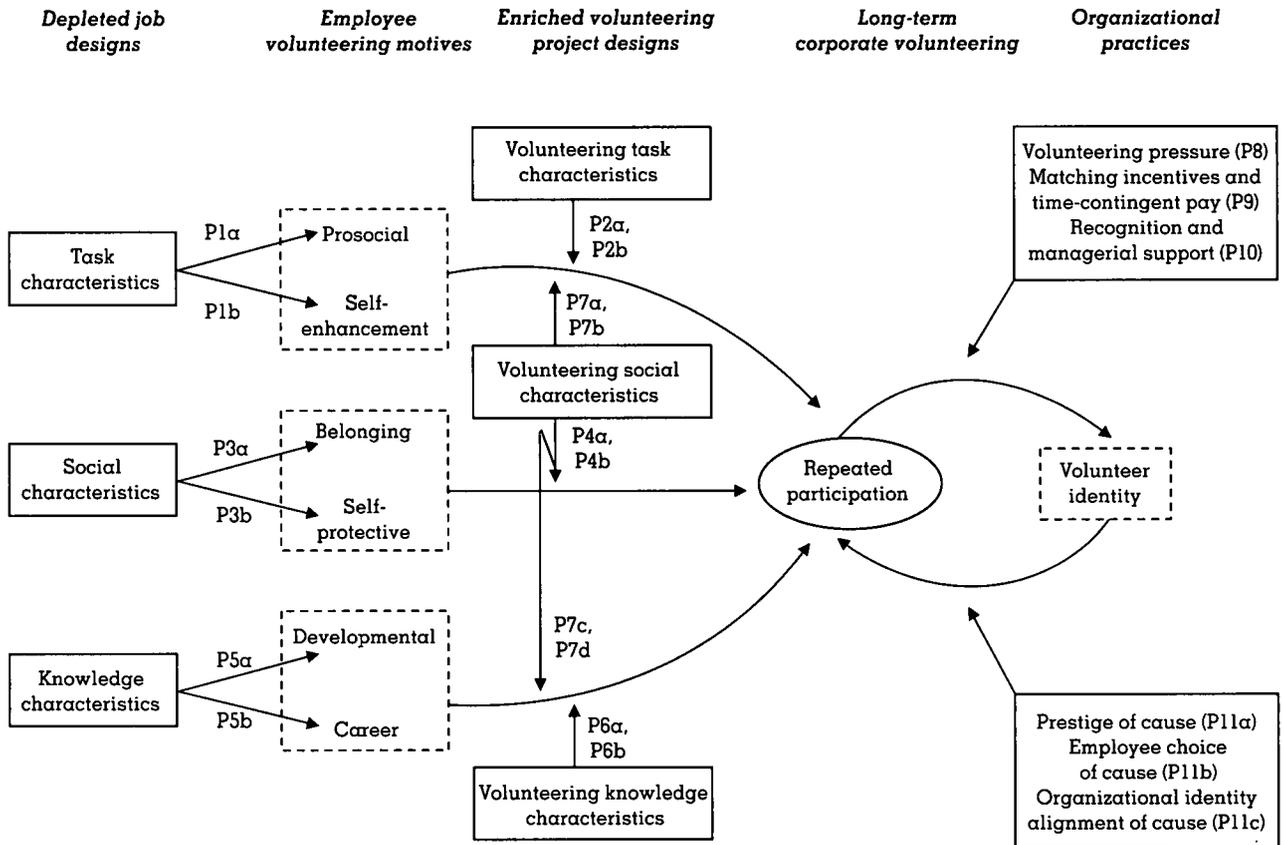
Although these studies provide clues that employees' experiences are likely to be an important determinant of sustained involvement, there is a dearth of theory and research explaining the factors that shape these experiences. As Tschirhart laments, "Employee volunteering is a research area desperately in need of theory. . . rigorous scholarship is needed" (2005: 25-26). To address this issue, I draw on theories of work design (Grant & Parker, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Extensive research has shown that the design of work has a foundational impact on employees' experiences of activities, projects, and

tasks (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Griffin, 1991; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). In particular, volunteering is a form of prosocial behavior (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005), and research has identified work design as a key driver of prosocial behaviors (Grant, 2007, 2008; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). The design of work is also a robust and consistent predictor of turnover: on average, meta-analytic evidence suggests that job characteristics explain as much, or even more, of the variance in turnover decisions as leadership and relationships, compensation, the work environment, or individual characteristics (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Given that the design of work is known to influence employees' experiences, prosocial behaviors, and turnover decisions, it is likely to have important implications for how long they sustain participation in corporate volunteering. However, as Pajo and Lee observe, "Most studies have paid scant attention to the characteristics of the volunteering activity" (2011: 469).

To deepen our knowledge about the factors that affect the sustainability of employee participation in corporate volunteering, I synthesize and extend core insights from research on work design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007) and motivational and role identity theories of volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). The work design literature sheds light on how the characteristics of both jobs and volunteering projects affect sustained participation, and the volunteering theories specify the motives, identities, and organizational practices that operate as central mechanisms and boundary conditions for these effects. I propose that during initial corporate volunteering experiences, depleted task, social, and knowledge characteristics of jobs trigger compensatory motives. When these motives are satisfied by characteristics of volunteering projects, employees are more likely to continue volunteering. Repeated participation then promotes the internalization of a volunteer identity that sustains participation over longer periods of time, contingent on organizational volunteering practices of pressure, matching incentives, recognition, managerial support, and targeted causes.

The model that summarizes these core arguments, displayed in Figure 1, is important from

FIGURE 1
The Volunteer Work Design Model



both theoretical and practical standpoints. Theoretically, the model opens up original avenues for understanding the factors that influence the short-term and long-term sustainability of employee volunteering within work organizations. Along with introducing a more employee-centered perspective on corporate social responsibility, it extends our understanding of caring and compassion by suggesting a novel way of conceptualizing organizational citizenship behavior. It also contributes to the work design literature by identifying reduced volunteering as an unintended consequence of job enrichment, as well as to volunteering research in psychology and sociology by revealing new contextual influences on volunteering motives and role identities. Practically, the model provides leaders, managers, and employees with actionable knowledge for facilitating the expression of care and compassion from work organizations toward external communities and causes. One of the primary strengths of work design is its

malleability: leaders, managers, and employees can exercise agency in shaping, sculpting, and reconfiguring how work is structured (Grant & Parker, 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). An explanation of how work design affects sustained participation in corporate volunteering can thus play a meaningful role in both illuminating and supporting organizational efforts to reduce human misery and solve social problems (Margolis & Walsh, 2003).

CORPORATE VOLUNTEERING AND WORK DESIGN

Volunteering refers to the act of freely giving one's time, knowledge, or skills for the benefit of other people, groups, or causes (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Wilson, 2000). Volunteering is a specific type of prosocial behavior that typically takes place in an organizational context (Penner, Brannick, Webb, & Connell, 2005). Corporate volunteering describes giving one's time, knowledge, or skills

as part of a community service, outreach, or social responsibility activity on company time without additional compensation or direct personal remuneration (Bussell & Forbes, 2008; de Gilder et al., 2005). Through corporate volunteering, employees are able to express care and compassion to beneficiaries or recipients outside the organization's boundaries.

My focus in this article is on employee participation in corporate volunteering. In political philosophy, participation refers to "active and responsible involvement" (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994: 767). In the context of corporate volunteering, participation refers to the extent to which employees initiate and sustain involvement in volunteering activities (Peterson, 2004). As discussed previously, my emphasis is on sustained participation—the extent to which employees repeat and maintain involvement in corporate volunteering.

To explain sustained volunteering, social scientists have developed two different theoretical frameworks: the role identity perspective and the motivational perspective (Penner et al., 2005; Wilson, 2000). According to the role identity perspective, which is prominent in sociology, sustained volunteering is caused by the internalization of a volunteering role such that it becomes part of one's identity or self-concept as a volunteer (Charng, Piliavin, & Callero, 1988; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). According to the motivational perspective, which is prominent in psychology, sustained volunteering is caused by the satisfaction of the functions or motives that the volunteer intends to serve (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Although both perspectives have proven successful in explaining variance in the duration with which individuals volunteer, the motivational perspective appears to apply earlier in the volunteering process than the role identity perspective (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). This is because individuals experience varying levels of satisfaction in each volunteering episode, task, project, and activity in which they engage, whereas role identities only tend to emerge through repeated behavioral engagement in volunteering over time (Penner, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Thus, I start from the premise that satisfaction of motives is a key precursor of the initial decision to repeat volunteering and that,

over time, this decision can become self-reinforcing through the development of a volunteer role identity.

Initial Corporate Volunteering Episodes and Repeated Participation

I begin by examining how motives emerge in employees' initial corporate volunteering episodes. According to the motivational perspective, individuals enter volunteering experiences with the expectation of fulfilling particular motives or functions (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Psychologists have identified six different motives that underlie volunteering: prosocial, belonging, self-enhancement, self-protective, developmental, and career (Clary et al., 1998).¹ These functions involve volunteering to benefit others (prosocial), build and strengthen relationships with others (belonging), increase self-esteem (self-enhancement), reduce guilt over one's good fortunes or distract attention away from personal problems (self-protective), learn or gain new knowledge and skills (developmental), and improve one's job prospects (career). Considerable research has established the existence, discriminant validity, and predictive power of these six volunteering motives (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998).

Recently, scholars have shown that these motives are rooted in more basic individual dispositions—psychological characteristics of the individual that arise through the confluence of genetic-biological propensities and life experi-

¹ Although the definitions match those specified by Clary and colleagues, I have modified three of the labels to avoid confusion. First, the prosocial motive was originally labeled *values* to capture "altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others" (Clary et al., 1998: 1517). This is misleading because each of the six motives addresses different values associated with volunteering; *prosocial* is the most appropriate term to capture the desire to help or benefit others (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Grant, 2007). Second, the communal motive was originally labeled *social*, but several of the motives have social implications; this motive addresses the specific desire to build relationships, which is best described as a belonging, affiliative, or communal motive (e.g., Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). Third, the developmental motive was originally labeled *understanding*, but corporate volunteering is often specifically directed toward learning skills as well as knowledge (e.g., Booth et al., 2009), which highlights the appropriateness of a broader label.

ences (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996). From a personality perspective, agreeableness and openness predict prosocial motives; neuroticism predicts belonging, self-enhancement, and self-protective motives; extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness predict developmental motives; and extraversion and neuroticism predict career motives for volunteering (Erez, Mikulincer, van Ijzendoorn, & Kroonenberg, 2008). Developmentally, aging is associated with increases in belonging motives and decreases in career and developmental motives for volunteering (Okun & Schultz, 2003). Together, these findings suggest that individual dispositions shape volunteering motives. Indeed, Clary et al. assumed that people express their basic motives in their volunteering activities, arguing that "people come with . . . motives important to them" (1998: 1529).

However, research on motivation and work design opens up the possibility of a different interpretation. As Vallerand (1997) has explained, employees can carry global motives with them across life domains, but contextual and situational factors play a critical role in activating and strengthening the motives they bring to particular domains, roles, and activities.² As such, beyond individual characteristics, the design of work may have a substantial impact on the motives that employees experience in their initial volunteering epi-

sodes at work. In other words, the motives that employees expect to fulfill through corporate volunteering may be shaped by their jobs.

In general, job design is known to play an important role in activating and strengthening different types of motives (Grant & Parker, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). To provide a systematic, theoretically driven framework for understanding job characteristics, I draw on classic and contemporary research on work design (for reviews see Fried, Levi, & Laurence, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2009; Humphrey et al., 2007). Scholars have rated work design as one of a very small number of theoretical perspectives in organizational behavior that is simultaneously high in validity, importance, and usefulness (Miner, 2003).

Job characteristics. Classic models of work design focus on the task characteristics of jobs—the nature of the work activities themselves (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Jobs with enriched task characteristics provide task significance (products and services having a substantial, lasting impact on others), identity (completion of a whole piece of work from start to finish), autonomy (freedom in decision making, work methods, and scheduling), and feedback (information about performance; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). When these task characteristics are enriched, jobs provide a sense of meaningfulness (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), an experience that is widely valued in life (Heine, Proulx, & Vohs, 2006) and at work (Casco, 2003; Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987).

In contemporary research scholars have paid growing attention to the social and knowledge characteristics of work (Humphrey et al., 2007). Social characteristics are the structural features of jobs that influence employees' interpersonal interactions and relationships (Grant, 2007). Jobs with enriched social characteristics provide opportunities to work and interact with other people inside and outside the organization, develop friendships, and exchange support (Grant & Parker, 2009). When these social characteristics are enriched, jobs fulfill the desire for connection with others (Humphrey et al., 2007), which is a core motive in life (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and at work (Barrick et al., 2002). Knowledge characteristics are the structural features of jobs that affect the development and utilization of information and skills (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). Jobs with enriched

² I focus on motives—the reasons to which people attribute their actions (Clary et al., 1998; Kehr, 2004)—rather than needs for two reasons. First, classic need theories adopted a hydraulic, hierarchical approach reminiscent of drive-reduction principles, assuming that when a need is fulfilled, individuals move on to pursue other needs (e.g., Alderfer, 1972; Maslow, 1954; for recent reviews see Kenrick, Giskevicius, Neuberg, & Schaller, 2010, and Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). In contrast, volunteering research shows that when motives are fulfilled, individuals continue gravitating toward the activity that provided fulfillment (Clary et al., 1998; see also Berridge, 2004, and Ryan & Deci, 2000). Second, to qualify as a psychological need, a goal or desire must be "innate, essential, and universal" (Ryan & Deci, 2000: 74). Rather than theorizing about global motives, I am pursuing the more modest aim of exploring motives at the contextual and situational levels (see Vallerand, 1997), which allows for the possibility that motives can be acquired rather than innate (Murray, 1938) and differentially activated by environmental forces (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989). Thus, when I refer to volunteering motives, I am concerned with context-specific, activated desires that—when fulfilled by a volunteering experience—enhance employees' intrinsic interests in pursuing this experience again.

knowledge characteristics provide opportunities to solve problems, process complex information, and acquire, apply, and hone specialized (deep) and varied (broad) skills (Morgeson & Campion, 2002; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). When these knowledge characteristics are enriched, jobs enable employees to learn and master skills (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997), fulfilling the desire for competence, which is a central desire in life (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and at work (Barrick et al., 2002). In summary, I assume that most employees value at least some degree of enrichment in task, social, and knowledge characteristics of jobs.

Job characteristics and compensatory motives. How do these job characteristics affect employees' motives? It is tempting to assume that enriched job designs will strengthen motives for corporate volunteering. For example, employees with enriched task, social, and knowledge characteristics may feel grateful to the organization for providing desirable jobs (Slattery, Selvarajan, Anderson, & Sardessai, 2010) and may reciprocate with stronger commitment to participating in the organization's volunteering program. In addition, enriched job characteristics may generate positive affect (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000), which may have the spillover effect of causing employees to view corporate volunteering in a more positive light (George & Brief, 1992). However, the motivational perspective (Clary et al., 1998) suggests that employees only tend to repeat volunteering when they engage in the experience with strong motives. When employees' jobs are enriched, their core motives are likely to be satisfied: task enrichment provides meaning (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), social enrichment offers connection (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), and knowledge enrichment enables learning (Parker et al., 1997). This satisfaction should reduce the likelihood that employees will continually participate in corporate volunteering since they are already gaining what they seek at work through their jobs (Kulik et al., 1987; Rodell, 2010).

As such, I present a compensatory perspective on how job characteristics influence motives. I propose that when employees engage in corporate volunteering, depleted job characteristics can trigger motives to fill gaps in their work experiences. According to the meaning maintenance model (Heine et al., 2006), when meaning

is threatened in one domain, individuals look to other domains to find and reaffirm meaning. As Wilson summarizes, "Some people find in their volunteer work compensation for what is denied them in paid employment. . . . some volunteers are quite explicit about seeking compensation for deprivations they experience in their paid employment" (2000: 221-222). Accordingly, as I explain in more detail below, when employees lack enriched job designs, they will experience stronger motives to compensate for these job designs in their initial corporate volunteering episodes.

Before turning to these ideas, it is important to distinguish the motives that employees expect to fulfill through corporate volunteering from the reasons they engaged in the activity in the first place. Research suggests that employees can make the choice to participate in a corporate volunteering activity for a multitude of reasons, including being asked directly (Brudney & Gazley, 2006; de Gilder et al., 2005; Toppe et al., 2002), feeling pressured or coerced by a peer or superior (Basil, Runte, Easwaramoorthy, & Barr, 2009; Houghton, Gabel, & Williams, 2009; Peterson, 2004), being committed to the organization (Peloza, Hudson, & Hassay, 2009; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), or receiving paid time off, matching incentives, donations, and other benefits that enhance the desirability of volunteering at work (Basil et al., 2009; Booth et al., 2009; Peterson, 2004). However, once employees decide to participate in a corporate volunteering activity, their motives—the functions that they expect volunteering to serve (Clary et al., 1998)—can be influenced by the characteristics of their jobs that activate compensatory desires or goals (e.g., Heine et al., 2006; Rodell, 2010; Wilson, 2000).

Satisfaction of motives through corporate volunteering projects. According to the motivational perspective, individuals repeat volunteering when they are satisfied that the experience has fulfilled their motives (Clary et al., 1998; Lester et al., 2005; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; for a review see Penner et al., 2005). This is consistent with organizational research showing that the attitude of satisfaction—a favorable evaluation of an experience or behavior—is a robust and reliable predictor of repeated engagement in that experience or be-

havior (e.g., Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Spector, 1997).

During initial corporate volunteering episodes, the extent to which employees' motives are fulfilled is likely to depend on the characteristics of their volunteering projects. A volunteering project is a temporally bounded activity in which employees give time, energy, knowledge, and/or skills (Little, 1989; Lydon & Zanna, 1990). In general, research suggests that satisfaction is enhanced when experiences in one set of projects compensate for those that are absent in others (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; McGregor & Little, 1998). Put differently, employees often seek out experiences in one domain of life that substitute for what is missing in other domains, a pattern known as "supplemental compensation" (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000: 181). Consistent with this view, research suggests that volunteering participation is a stronger predictor of life satisfaction when individuals lack satisfying work (Harlow & Cantor, 1996). Thus, employees should be satisfied with—and thereby more likely to repeat participation in—corporate volunteering when their motives are fulfilled by initial volunteering projects.

Indeed, the motivational perspective suggests that sustained participation in volunteering depends on whether "volunteer service tasks do or do not afford opportunities to fulfill" the motives that individuals bring to the volunteering experience (Clary et al., 1998: 1529). Supporting this viewpoint, Houle, Sagarin, and Kaplan found that "people do differentiate tasks based on the volunteer motives they satisfy. . . . a task can be classified in terms of the motive(s) it does or does not satisfy" (2005: 342). Like jobs, corporate volunteering projects can be classified according to task, social, and knowledge characteristics. In a qualitative study of employees involved in corporate volunteering, Geroy, Wright, and Jacoby (2000) found that the three most commonly reported benefits were the meaningfulness of the tasks, the social contacts made, and the knowledge and skills gained. Other studies have identified similar themes in corporate volunteering projects that map closely onto the categories of task, social, and knowledge characteristics (Bussell & Forbes, 2000; Peterson, 2004). Table 1 provides references to research demonstrating that

each of these characteristics varies in volunteering projects, along with examples of corporate volunteering projects that exemplify high levels of each task, social, and knowledge characteristic.

However, it is critical to note that these characteristics can be present in outside volunteering projects, not only corporate volunteering projects. When depleted job designs activate compensatory motives, why will employees pursue these motives in the context of corporate volunteering, rather than volunteering outside of work or engaging in other nonwork activities? Research highlights two complementary reasons why corporate volunteering is likely to be a particularly attractive venue in which to pursue compensatory motives: salience and opportunity. First, motivation research shows that when motives are triggered in a domain, such as work, they tend to be expressed toward multiple activities within that domain (Vallerand, 1997). When depleted job designs trigger compensatory motives in the work domain, employees are likely to pursue these motives in corporate volunteering projects, which are also situated in the work domain. This notion is consistent with evidence that information processing is domain dependent (Baddeley, 1982): compensatory motives are most likely to be salient and accessible in the work context, where they were originally activated and encoded by depleted job designs.

Second, work design research shows that depleted job designs tend to free up time, energy, and attention for other roles, projects, and activities while at work (Elsbach & Hargadon, 2006; see also Roy, 1959, and Xie & Johns, 1995). Employees with depleted job designs thus have the opportunity to allocate their available work time, energy, and attention toward corporate volunteering, rather than using personal time to volunteer. Thus, when depleted job designs activate compensatory motives, corporate volunteering is the context in which employees are most likely to experience these motives as salient and recognize opportunities to pursue and fulfill them. As Pajo and Lee summarize, "Unique elements intrinsic to the work context do provide opportunities for employees to satisfy motives and to realize benefits that other volunteering activities cannot easily supply" (2011: 469).

TABLE 1
Examples of Volunteering Project Characteristics

Volunteering Project Category	Volunteering Project Characteristic	Empirical Evidence	Corporate Volunteering Example from Bocalandro (2009)
Task characteristics	Task significance	Bartel, Saavedra, & Van Dyne (2001); Lester, Tomkovich, Wells, Flunker, & Kickul (2005); Schroer & Hertel (2009)	At Lockheed Martin employees volunteer to provide assistance to wounded soldiers, which has an important impact on their health and well-being
	Task identity	Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al. (2005); Schroer & Hertel (2009)	At McGraw-Hill employees volunteer to provide communication services from start to finish—from promotional and marketing materials to website content to grant applications and annual reports
	Autonomy	Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al. (2005); Schroer & Hertel (2009)	At Wells Fargo employees are able to spend up to four months volunteering to help a nonprofit of their choice
	Feedback	Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al., 2005; Schroer & Hertel (2009)	At eBay, Capital One, and Unum, managers collect data on how corporate volunteering efforts affect the communities served
Social characteristics	Interdependence, friendship opportunities, interaction with insiders	Bartel (2001); Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al. (2005)	At Aetna employees volunteer in teams to provide disaster relief, education, community building, and medical services
	Beneficiary contact	Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al. (2005); Penner & Finkelstein (1998)	At Southwest Airlines pilots meet weekly with elementary school children who benefit from their mentoring
Knowledge characteristics	Skill variety	Bartel et al. (2001); Lester et al. (2005); Schroer & Hertel (2009)	At Exxon-Mobil employees volunteer to prevent malaria, leveraging skills to fundraise to support the purchase of mosquito nets, distribute these nets in Africa, and assist with medical treatment and health communications
	Specialization	Lester et al. (2005)	At Kraft employees deepen their product development and packaging skills through volunteering at a jam-making factory in Madagascar
	Information processing	Lester et al. (2005)	At Eli Lilly employees volunteer to help organizations develop strategies for improving their efficiency
	Problem solving	Lester et al. (2005)	At IBM employees volunteer to generate creative solutions to economic development and information technology challenges in developing countries

Depleted Job Designs, Compensatory Motives, and Satisfying Project Characteristics

In summary, I have argued that during initial corporate volunteering episodes, depleted job designs will activate compensatory motives, and when these motives are fulfilled by corporate volunteering projects, employees will be more likely to continue volunteering. These arguments provide the scaffolding for a model of volunteer work design (see Figure 1). In the fol-

lowing sections I develop propositions specifying how depleted task, social, and knowledge characteristics of jobs are likely to trigger distinct motives during employees' initial corporate volunteering episodes and how volunteering project characteristics can compensate for job characteristics to fulfill these motives.³

³ The work design literature also calls attention to individual differences in growth need strength—which align

Effects of task characteristics on prosocial and self-enhancement motives. Job designs lacking in task enrichment are likely to activate prosocial and self-enhancement motives during initial corporate volunteering episodes. First, task significance is an avenue for expressing and fulfilling prosocial motives (Grant, 2008) and is a core influence on meaningfulness in work (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). According to the meaning maintenance model (Heine et al., 2006), when meaning is threatened in one domain, people are motivated to search for meaning in other domains. As such, when a lack of task significance threatens employees' opportunities to express and fulfill prosocial motives through their jobs, employees are likely to seek out ways to express and fulfill these prosocial motives through corporate volunteering (Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009).

Second, when jobs are depleted in task significance, as well as in identity, autonomy, and feedback, they may activate the self-enhancement motive during initial corporate volunteering episodes. Maintaining a positive self-concept depends on feeling valued and trusted, competent, and self-determined (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Steele, 1988). When jobs lack task significance, employees' work has a less distinctive and enduring impact on others, leading them to question the extent to which their contributions are valued and appreciated by others (Grant, 2008). When jobs lack task identity and feed-

back, employees receive little information about their performance and end results, making it difficult to judge their competence and success (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Weick, 1984). When jobs lack autonomy, employees have their choices constrained and feel that they are not trusted with the responsibility to make important decisions (Clegg & Spencer, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Accordingly, when employees lack task significance, identity, autonomy, and feedback in their jobs, they will be more likely to seek self-enhancement through corporate volunteering.

In turn, task enrichment in volunteering projects is likely to fulfill these prosocial and self-enhancement motives, compensating for depleted task characteristics in jobs and promoting repeated participation in corporate volunteering. Research has shown that volunteering projects vary in terms of task significance, identity, autonomy, and feedback (Bartel et al., 2001; Lester et al., 2005; Pajo & Lee, 2011; Schroer & Hertel, 2009). When a corporate volunteering project is high in task significance, employees are likely to feel that their contributions benefit others, which will fulfill their prosocial motives (Grant, 2008), encouraging them to continue volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). For example, Grube and Piliavin (2000: 113) found that when individuals reported that the volunteer work they did "contributes in important ways," they volunteered significantly more hours. Similarly, Rodell (2010) found that the meaningfulness of a volunteering project, as rated by one's peers, was positively associated with the number of hours that employees volunteered for United Way. Further, when a corporate volunteering project has high task significance, identity, autonomy, and feedback, employees will feel that their self-enhancement motives are fulfilled, since they can see their progress and results and feel competent and trusted to work on important activities (Lester et al., 2005). As a result, employees will be more likely to participate again (Clary et al., 1998). Together, these arguments suggest the following.

Proposition 1: The lower the task enrichment in a job, the stronger the activation in initial corporate volunteering episodes of (a) prosocial motives and (b) self-enhancement motives.

closely with developmental motives—as contingencies for positive psychological and behavioral reactions to enriched task characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). However, several decades of research have yielded equivocal results (e.g., Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992; Tiegs, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992). One explanation for the inconsistent evidence is rooted in the notion that growth need strength is not a purely exogenous individual disposition but is endogenously influenced by the design of work (Kulik et al., 1987), yielding complex patterns of dynamic interdependence between work design and growth need strength. My approach builds on this interpretation by suggesting that job characteristics influence developmental motives for corporate volunteering. However, instead of assuming that depleted jobs will reduce developmental motives (Kulik et al., 1987), I draw on the meaning maintenance model (Heine et al., 2006) to propose that depleted jobs can motivate employees to express developmental motives in other domains—namely, in corporate volunteering projects that fall beyond the scope of formal job responsibilities. In a subsequent section I discuss how the depletion of specific knowledge characteristics of jobs is likely to activate developmental motives for corporate volunteering.

Proposition 2: Enriched task characteristics in corporate volunteering projects moderate the effects of (a) prosocial motives and (b) self-enhancement motives on repeated participation such that the effects are more positive when task enrichment in volunteering projects is higher.

Effects of social characteristics on belonging and self-protective motives. Job designs lacking in social enrichment are likely to activate belonging and self-protective motives during initial corporate volunteering episodes. When jobs fail to provide opportunities for social interaction, friendships, and social support, employees will be especially likely to seek out opportunities for connections and distractions in corporate volunteering as a substitute. Social psychological research reveals that individuals are most motivated to seek out connections when they are absent (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010). In addition, individuals experience greater personal distress when they lack support and strong ties (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010), which motivates them to search for distractions in other domains, especially volunteering, as an antidote to their distress (Li & Ferraro, 2005). Thus, a lack of socially enriched job characteristics will strengthen employees' belonging and self-protective motives during their initial corporate volunteering episodes.

In turn, social enrichment in volunteering projects is likely to fulfill these belonging and self-protective motives, compensating for depleted social characteristics in jobs and promoting repeated participation in corporate volunteering. Research has shown that volunteering projects vary in terms of interdependence and interactions with other people both inside and outside the organization (Bartel et al., 2001; Lester et al., 2005; Pajo & Lee, 2011). Interactions with other people inside the organization are common in volunteering projects that involve teamwork. A study of a nationally representative sample of Canadian firms showed that 45 percent of those with corporate volunteering programs include some group volunteering (Basil et al., 2009), much of which is structured around team challenges and assignments (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009; Muthuri et al., 2009). Research shows that employees give more

hours when a corporate volunteering project is structured in teams (Peterson, 2004) and that volunteering can contribute to feelings of belonging (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Sonnenstuhl, 2001; Mojza, Lorenz, Sonnentag, & Binnewies, 2010). I expect that this trend will be more pronounced for employees who lack socially enriched job designs, which strengthen their belonging or self-protective motives in corporate volunteering. A key function of interdependent volunteering projects lies in fulfilling belonging motives by reducing functional boundaries, status differences, and power distance. When individuals work interdependently across differences, they are less likely to rely on stereotypes and more likely to appreciate each other's unique knowledge bases, skills, and experiences, all of which increase liking, trust, and cohesion (Aronson, 1978; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Interdependence enables employees to seek and receive help, facilitating mutual appreciation and bonding on a more human, personal level (Anderson & Williams, 1996; de Jong, Van der Vegt, & Molleman, 2007).

Further, interdependence can help employees who typically do not interact to feel that their contributions are valued by their team members (Hertel, Konradt, & Orlikowski, 2004). Muthuri et al. studied a U.K. manufacturing company in which volunteering projects were based on "team assignments . . . because they enable strong internal ties among the volunteering team . . . as a result of the ongoing involvement and intensity of commitment" (2009: 83). Similarly, Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan (2009: 70) reviewed evidence that when employees volunteer together, they form "distinct history, stories, and identity" that facilitate bonding. For instance, a Pillsbury employee stated that volunteering provided opportunities to get to know coworkers: "I was struck by how similar our stories are . . . it's these types of things that really bring us together" (Bartel, 2001: 397). As another example, when Air Canada employees volunteer to take underprivileged children facing physical, mental, or social challenges to a Disney park, they "share a strong and meaningful bonding that is private within the context of the loose relationships of a complex workplace" (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009: 71). Thus, socially enriched volunteering projects are likely to fulfill belonging motives, increasing the like-

likelihood of repeated participation (Clary et al., 1998) in corporate volunteering.

Socially enriched volunteering projects are also likely to fulfill self-protective motives. Interactions with other people outside the organization are common in volunteering projects that involve beneficiary contact (Bartel et al., 2001; Lester et al., 2005; Pajo & Lee, 2011; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). When employees interact with beneficiaries, they are able to put their personal problems in perspective, which is likely to reduce their feelings of distress. In a study of corporate volunteering projects at Pillsbury designed to help students, the elderly, disabled people, and low-income families, Bartel (2001) found that when employees interacted with these client beneficiaries, they were able to make social comparisons that helped them cope with difficult circumstances. One employee reflected, "Even on our worst days at work, we know that tomorrow will be better. . . . [The clients] face serious struggles every day; that's a hard way to live" (Bartel, 2001: 397). Contact with the beneficiaries of corporate volunteering projects is thus likely to compensate for jobs lacking in social enrichment, fulfilling self-protective motives and enhancing the probability of repeated participation. These lines of reasoning give rise to the following.

Proposition 3: The lower the social enrichment in a job, the stronger the activation in initial corporate volunteering episodes of (a) belonging motives and (b) self-protective motives.

Proposition 4: Enriched social characteristics in corporate volunteering projects moderate the effects of (a) belonging motives and (b) self-protective motives on repeated participation such that the effects are more positive when social enrichment in volunteering projects is higher.

Effects of knowledge characteristics on developmental and career motives. Job designs lacking in knowledge enrichment are likely to activate developmental and career motives during initial corporate volunteering episodes. When jobs fail to provide opportunities for skill variety, specialization, information processing, or problem solving, employees will experience strong developmental and career motives for

corporate volunteering. The lack of opportunities to acquire and apply broad and deep skills through their jobs will motivate employees to search for ways to learn through their initial corporate volunteering activities. Indeed, research suggests that volunteering can provide mastery experiences (Mojza et al., 2010), compensating for job characteristics that fail to facilitate development (Mojza & Sonnentag, 2010). In addition, the absence of skill variety, specialization, information, and problem solving may encourage employees to view corporate volunteering as an avenue for developing their careers by demonstrating their abilities to handle more complex tasks. Accordingly, the lack of knowledge enrichment in job characteristics will strengthen employees' developmental and career motives during their initial corporate volunteering episodes.

In turn, knowledge enrichment in volunteering projects is likely to fulfill developmental and career motives, compensating for depleted knowledge characteristics in jobs and promoting repeated participation. Research has shown that corporate volunteering projects vary in terms of opportunities to acquire new skills and solve complex problems (Boccalandro, 2009; Booth et al., 2009; Lester et al., 2005). These knowledge characteristics of corporate volunteering projects qualify as a form of "stretchwork" (O'Mahony & Bechky, 2006), enabling employees to develop valued skills they otherwise would not have the chance to practice or use in their existing jobs, and, thus, are likely to satisfy developmental motives, increasing the likelihood of repeated participation (Clary et al., 1998). Indeed, studies have shown that individuals experience greater learning and development when volunteering projects involve the acquisition and application of a variety of skills (Bartel et al., 2001; Lester et al., 2005). Enriched knowledge characteristics in volunteering projects may also fulfill career motives by helping employees learn about new career opportunities and goals and by providing new perspectives and skills they can bring back to their jobs (Wilson & Musick, 2003; Wuthnow, 1995). As one employee stated, corporate volunteering provides "exposure to a variety of . . . situations that help me be more creative at work" (Geroy et al., 2000: 285). As such, enriched knowledge characteristics in corporate volunteering projects are likely to compensate for the absence of knowledge

enrichment in a job, satisfying developmental and career motives and, thus, encouraging repeated participation (Clary et al., 1998). These ideas are summarized in the following propositions.

Proposition 5: The lower the knowledge enrichment in a job, the stronger the activation in initial corporate volunteering episodes of (a) developmental motives and (b) career motives.

Proposition 6: Enriched knowledge characteristics in corporate volunteering projects moderate the effects of (a) developmental motives and (b) career motives on repeated participation such that the effects are more positive when knowledge enrichment in volunteering projects is higher.

Crossover from socially enriched volunteering characteristics to motives triggered by depleted task and knowledge characteristics of jobs. The preceding sections have explained how the motives activated by depleted task, social, or knowledge characteristics of jobs can be fulfilled by corporate volunteering projects that are enriched on corresponding dimensions. However, there is also reason to expect that socially enriched corporate volunteering projects have spillover benefits that satisfy motives triggered by depleted task or knowledge characteristics of jobs. According to theoretical perspectives on communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), social participation is an important source of both meaning and learning. When employees volunteer in collaboration with others or as part of a community, they can develop a deeper sense of shared purpose and identity in their contributions (Wenger, 1998), which is likely to compensate for depleted task characteristics of jobs, and they can gain new insights from fellow participants (Wenger, 1998), which may compensate for depleted knowledge characteristics of jobs.

Research on volunteering provides more specific insights into how socially enriched corporate volunteering projects are likely to fulfill specific motives triggered by depleted task and knowledge characteristics of jobs. First, interdependence and interactions with insiders and outsiders in corporate volunteering projects are likely to fulfill the developmental and career motives triggered by depleted knowledge char-

acteristics of jobs. Studies have shown that when volunteers work with peers or client beneficiaries, they are able to share knowledge and learn from each other's expertise (Bartel et al., 2001; Lester et al., 2005; Pelozo & Hassay, 2006). For example, a manager explained that team projects serve as a "great platform for sharing business information and expertise" (Muthuri et al., 2009: 83). Interactions with coworkers and beneficiaries in corporate volunteering projects also enable employees to build and strengthen networks, which may fulfill career motives by giving them access to connections that can help them advance (Muthuri et al., 2009; Pelozo & Hassay, 2006). In these ways socially enriched corporate volunteering projects can substitute for low knowledge enrichment in jobs, satisfying developmental and career motives and increasing the probability of repeated participation.

Second, beneficiary contact in corporate volunteering projects is also likely to fulfill the prosocial and self-enhancement motives triggered by depleted task characteristics. Studies suggest that volunteers with strong prosocial motives seek out more beneficiary contact four and five months later (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). This is because beneficiary contact can fulfill prosocial motives by enabling employees to see how their efforts have a meaningful impact (Grant, 2007; Grant et al., 2007). Beneficiary contact is also likely to fulfill the self-enhancement motives triggered by depleted task characteristics. In her study of corporate volunteering projects at Pillsbury, Bartel (2001) found that interacting with client beneficiaries enabled employees to make social comparisons that portrayed their own qualifications, fortunes, and identities in a more favorable light. For example, employees stated that most clients "are not treated well by society; we receive more respect," "won't have the opportunity to . . . hold the types of high-paying jobs that we have," and "don't have the advantage of a college degree like we do" (Bartel, 2001: 397). Interacting with the beneficiaries of corporate volunteering projects is therefore likely to fulfill employees' prosocial motives to help others and self-enhancement motives to increase their self-esteem, thereby encouraging repeated participation.

Proposition 7: Enriched social characteristics in corporate volunteering

projects moderate the effects of (a) prosocial motives, (b) self-enhancement motives, (c) developmental motives, and (d) career motives on repeated participation such that the effects are more positive when social enrichment in volunteering projects is higher.

Sustaining Long-Term Volunteering: Internalizing a Volunteer Identity and Organizational Contingencies

Thus far I have proposed that depleted task, social, and knowledge characteristics of jobs trigger different motives that can be fulfilled by characteristics of corporate volunteering projects, enhancing the likelihood of repeated participation. However, research suggests that as employees participate in multiple volunteering projects, specific experiences are no longer the most important driver of sustained volunteering over longer periods of time. According to the role identity perspective, the strongest predictor of long-term engagement in volunteering is the internalization of the volunteering role into one's identity or self-concept (Charng et al., 1988). From a sociological viewpoint, the repeated act of volunteering leads employees to internalize the particular role as a more salient and central part of their identities (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999).

From a psychological viewpoint, the development of a volunteer identity can be further illuminated by theories of self-perception (Bem, 1972) and sensemaking (Weick, 1995). After volunteering, employees make sense of their choices and identities by observing their behavior. Because they have repeatedly made a voluntary choice to give, help, and contribute, employees tend to make internal attributions for their behavior, inferring that they care about the recipient (Aronson, 1999; Flynn & Brockner, 2003; Jecker & Landy, 1969; Piliavin & Charng, 1990), that they are people who care about giving in this particular role (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), or that they are simply the type of person who cares about others in general (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010). As Shamir proposed, when an employee volunteers to contribute, this "clarifies and affirms his or her self-concept. The higher the relevant identity . . . the more likely is the person to be motivated to contribute" (1990: 325).

Consistent with these arguments, several laboratory experiments have shown that when individuals voluntarily help recipients, they come to view themselves as caring more about helping these recipients (Aronson, 1999; Jecker & Landy, 1969) and as individuals who are helpful, generous, caring, and kind (Williamson & Clark, 1989). Furthermore, in field research Grant et al. (2008) found that when employees at a Fortune 500 company volunteered to contribute to others in need, they perceived themselves as more caring, compassionate, and helpful individuals. In addition, field studies of volunteers have shown that past experience with volunteering is positively associated with the internalization of a volunteer identity, which, in turn, contributes to sustained participation (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin & Callero, 1991; for reviews see Penner, 2002, and Van Dyne & Farmer, 2004).

However, the reciprocal relationship between repeated participation and the internalization of a volunteer identity is likely to depend on contingencies at the organizational level. Grube and Piliavin observed that "research on volunteering has largely ignored the fact that most volunteering takes place within organizational contexts" (2000: 1109). To address this gap I explore how the internalization of a volunteer identity depends on organizational practices of volunteering pressure, matching incentives, recognition, and managerial support. I also examine how the contribution of a volunteer identity to long-term participation in corporate volunteering depends on targeted causes. I selected these organizational practices because they have been identified as key dimensions along which corporate volunteering programs vary (Basil et al., 2009; Boccacalandro, 2009; Booth et al., 2009; LBG Associates, 2004; Peterson, 2004) and because they capture key organizational characteristics that are implicated by the role identity perspective on volunteering (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner, 2002). To explain their effects I draw on self-determination theory (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000), which is centrally concerned with the conditions under which behaviors are internalized into one's identity.

Organizational pressure for volunteering. Organizations vary in the amount of pressure they place on employees to volunteer (Bartel, 2001; Brudney & Gazley, 2006; Houghton et al., 2009), sometimes going as far as including volunteering in performance evaluations (Basil et al.,

2009; Peterson, 2004) or even requiring participation (Duncan & Richardson, 2005). Research shows that this pressure to participate, known as the paradox of "mandatory volunteerism," is associated with a higher number of hours volunteered (Grube & Piliavin, 2000), yet it can reduce future volunteering intentions (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). These seemingly contrasting findings can be explained by Kelman's (1958) classic distinction between compliance and internalization, as well as by research on the overjustification effect (Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973). When organizations place pressure on employees to volunteer, employees often comply by engaging in the behavior to avoid penalties and/or obtain approval (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). However, the pressure provides an external justification to which they can attribute volunteering, preventing them from internalizing it as a self-determined, intrinsically motivated choice (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Lepper et al., 1973). In the absence of pressure, employees are more likely to feel personally responsible for the decision to volunteer, which will increase the likelihood of internalizing the volunteer identity (Stukas et al., 1999). Thus, I expect that repeated engagement will contribute to the internalization of a volunteer identity when organizational pressure to volunteer is low rather than high.

Proposition 8: The effect of repeated engagement in corporate volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer role identity is moderated by organizational pressure to volunteer such that the effect is positive when pressure is low and negative when pressure is high.

Matching incentives for volunteering. Organizations also vary in the degree to which they provide employees with matching incentives for volunteering. Approximately half of U.S. and Canadian companies provide donations that are directly linked to employee volunteering (Basil et al., 2009; LBG Associates, 2004). These incentives typically involve the company's making a financial contribution to an organization chosen by employees in exchange for volunteering hours (Peterson, 2004) but can also include the donation of prizes, gift certificates, food, clothing, and event fees (Booth et al., 2009). For example, Symantec designed a volunteer chal-

lenge in which employees who contributed at least twenty-five hours received grants of \$1,000 to give to the nonprofit of their choice, which appeared to yield an increase in hours volunteered of over 230 percent from the previous year (Boccalandro, 2009). Although little empirical research has directly examined their consequences, in a rare exception Peterson (2004) found that matching incentives were associated with a greater number of hours volunteered by employees.

However, incentives can undermine internalization by signaling that the behavior is externally controlled rather than internally chosen (Deci et al., 1999). As such, the strength of impact of these matching incentives is likely to depend on the organization's pay practices. Hourly payment (DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2007a) and billing time (DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2010) are two organizational practices that have been documented to decrease volunteering. These time-contingent pay practices are known to lead employees to view their time in terms of money, making it more difficult to justify volunteering without pay (DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2007b, 2010). For employees with these types of time-contingent pay, matching incentives for volunteering may be particularly important in facilitating the internalization of a volunteer identity, since employees may view repeated volunteering as a waste of time if there are no matching incentives to extend the contributions of their efforts. Indeed, Pfeffer and DeVoe found that "hourly payment as an organizational practice . . . consistently makes salient the monetary value of one's time and serves to make a portion of one's chronic self-concept related to economic evaluation more frequently accessible to the active self-concept" (2009: 501). Research suggests that "the activation of money and economics as aspects of a person's self-concept is one mechanism" that explains why time-contingent pay reduces uncompensated volunteering (Pfeffer & DeVoe, 2009: 500). For employees who receive time-contingent pay, given that money becomes a salient dimension of the self-concept, internalizing a volunteer identity is likely to depend on associating volunteering with money, which can be facilitated by the presence of matching incentives. In contrast, for employees who receive salaried pay, matching incentives will be less relevant to their evaluations and identities; these employees will be likely to internalize a volunteer identity after

repeated volunteering even if matching incentives are not available. I thereby predict a three-way interaction in which matching incentives strengthen the effect of repeated volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer identity when pay is time contingent.

Proposition 9: The effect of repeated engagement in corporate volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer role identity is moderated by matching incentives for volunteering and pay practices such that the effect of matching incentives is stronger for employees with time-contingent pay.

Organizational recognition and support for volunteering. Research also suggests that recognition and support for volunteering may influence the effects of repeated volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer identity. Recognition is a symbolic reward (Mickel & Barron, 2008), a frequently used communication of public appreciation for volunteering that often takes the form of awards, mentions in company newsletters, or events such as special receptions and meals (Basil et al., 2009; LBG Associates, 2004). Although many companies provide recognition for employee participation in volunteering programs, by making employees' volunteering efforts more visible, recognition can be self-verifying, aligning one's public image with one's private self-concept as a helpful person (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; see also Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010). However, studies have returned equivocal results with respect to the relationship between recognition and long-term engagement in volunteering (Booth et al., 2009; Peterson, 2004).

These conflicting findings can be reconciled by exploring how the effects of recognition on the internalization of a volunteer identity depend on managerial support for volunteering. According to self-determination theory, external reinforcements such as recognition can increase internalization when delivered in a supportive rather than controlling manner (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). As such, recognition is only likely to lead employees to internalize a volunteer identity if the volunteering program has strong managerial support, which involves a climate of encouragement, senior management role modeling, and facilitative procedures that varies substantially between organizations

(Boccalandro, 2009; see also Basil et al., 2009). Research shows that individuals are most likely to internalize a volunteer identity when important others value their volunteering efforts (Finkelstein et al., 2005; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Managerial support signals to employees that corporate volunteering efforts are valued, amplifying the identity relevance of volunteering. Indeed, in a qualitative study of corporate volunteering, Pelozo and Hassay found that "employees reported that management support was important if their involvement was to be recognized and rewarded" (2006: 371). Providing quantitative evidence in line with this assertion, in laboratory and field experiments Fisher and Ackerman (1998) showed that recognition only motivated people to volunteer more hours when their efforts were important to the group providing the recognition. From a self-determination theory perspective (Ryan & Deci, 2000), recognition in conjunction with managerial support is likely to sustain employees' experiences of volitional, autonomous self-regulation of volunteering behavior, promoting internalization. If recognition occurs without managerial support, employees may be more likely to interpret the recognition as controlling, which limits internalization (Deci et al., 1999). Accordingly, I predict a three-way interaction in which recognition and managerial support for volunteering in tandem strengthen the effect of repeated volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer identity.

Proposition 10: The effect of repeated engagement in corporate volunteering on the internalization of a volunteer role identity is jointly moderated by recognition and managerial support such that the effect is most positive when recognition and managerial support are high.

Targeted causes. Finally, research suggests that repeated engagement in volunteering can foster a general role identity as a volunteer or a specific role identity associated with the particular cause, volunteering program, or beneficiary organization, such as an American Cancer Society volunteer (Grube & Piliavin, 2000), an IBM Corporate Service Corps volunteer, or a Writers to the Rescue volunteer at McGraw-Hill (Boccalandro, 2009). Specific role identities are potent catalysts for sustaining involvement in corporate volunteering as a unique outlet for self-

expression, whereas general identities tend to encourage more dispersed volunteering efforts in a range of domains (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). When employees identify strongly with a target, they are willing to become involved in and make sacrifices on behalf of initiatives that benefit the target, since these initiatives reflect on their private and public images (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009). Thus, long-term participation in corporate volunteering is most likely when the volunteer identity internalized is specific to the program or cause.

Specific role identities are likely to be cultivated by a corporate volunteering program's focus on targeted causes, such as health care, education, the arts, and the natural environment (Basil et al., 2009; Liu, Liston-Heyes, & Ko, 2009). In a survey of Fortune 500 companies, Boccalandro (2009) identified focusing on targeted causes as a key driver of the effectiveness with which a corporate volunteering program serves both the public good and strategic business objectives. According to the role identity perspective, specific volunteer identities are fostered by organizational-level attributes of prestige and value congruence (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). First, the prestige of the targeted cause refers to the degree to which the issue and organization are granted respect and status by organizational members and outsiders (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Employees are more likely to develop a specific role identity when the cause carries prestige, which makes it more worthy of incorporating into one's identity. Indeed, research suggests that when the cause is prestigious, volunteers are more likely to internalize it as part of their specific role identities (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). For example, when a corporate volunteering program contributes to solving an important social problem or partners with a prestigious charity, employees will be more likely to internalize the cause in their identities.

Second, value congruence can be fostered by either granting employees choice in selecting the cause or selecting causes that align with the organization's identity. Some organizations allow employees to choose the cause for which they volunteer (Boccalandro, 2009). This facilitates value congruence by creating a sense of self-determination and ownership (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and allowing employees to contribute in ways they find personally meaningful (Clary et al., 1998), enhancing the likelihood that they will

develop a specific volunteer identity that is tied to the program and their causes of choice (Peloza et al., 2009). Alternatively, the cause can also be value congruent when it is aligned with the organization's identity, focusing on issues that are central, distinctive, and enduring (Albert & Whetten, 1985) to the organization (e.g., Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000; Menon & Kahn, 2003; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Because employees tend to be attracted to, selected by, and retained in organizations with congruent identities (Schneider, 1987), as well as socialized to embrace these identities (Chatman, 1991), repeated volunteering for a cause that is aligned with the organization's identity is likely to resonate with employees' core values, enhancing the likelihood of internalization. For example, Porter and Kramer (2006) described how Microsoft sends volunteers to community colleges to help solve IT problems, which is likely to be value congruent given that it aligns with Microsoft's identity as an IT company. Similarly, Pajo and Lee (2011) found that IBM employees resonated with volunteering initiatives that bring technology into schools, since they view technology as a core dimension of the company's distinctive identity.

Proposition 11: The effect of volunteer identity on long-term corporate volunteering is moderated by targeted causes such that the effect is more positive when the cause is (a) prestigious, (b) self-selected by employees, or (c) aligned with the organization's identity.

DISCUSSION

To explain why and when sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering occurs, I have developed a model that integrates and extends theories of work design and volunteering. I have proposed that depleted job characteristics can lead employees to pursue different motives in corporate volunteering, which can be fulfilled by enriched volunteering projects, encouraging repeated participation. Over time, repeated participation can be self-sustaining through the cultivation of a volunteer identity, depending on organizational practices related to volunteering.

Theoretical Contributions

These propositions offer important implications for theory and research on caring and compassion in organizations, on work design, and on volunteering.

Caring and compassion in organizations. My framework complements the dominant focus on social responsibility at the top of organizations (e.g., Agle et al., 1999; Marquis et al., 2007), answering calls for new theoretical perspectives to explain employee participation in corporate volunteering (Benjamin, 2001; Booth et al., 2009; Tschirhart, 2005; Wood, 2007). To this end, my approach fills critical gaps in existing knowledge about the antecedents of sustained employee participation. Whereas previous research focused on the consequences of participation (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Grant et al., 2008) and the individual and program characteristics that predict the likelihood and extent of participation (e.g., Booth et al., 2009; de Gilder et al., 2005; Peloza et al., 2009; Peterson, 2004), my perspective introduces job and volunteering project characteristics as central catalysts for repeated participation in corporate volunteering. My approach also calls attention to motives as intervening mechanisms that explain how volunteering projects can compensate for depleted job designs. In addition, my perspective underscores that organizational practices are not only direct antecedents of participation but also moderate its reciprocal relationship with volunteer identity. Together, these insights advance our understanding of the factors that sustain employee participation in corporate volunteering.

My approach also presents a new way of understanding employees' involvement in caring and compassion. In management research, employees' efforts to care and express compassion are studied as forms of prosocial or organizational citizenship behaviors. By definition, citizenship is a class of discretionary actions undertaken by employees to contribute to other people or the organization (Organ, 1988), such as by providing help. However, researchers have typically limited citizenship behaviors to those that are directed toward benefiting coworkers, supervisors, and customers (for a review see Podsakoff et al., 2000). Coworkers, supervisors, and customers are beneficiaries whose interests often align directly with the or-

ganization's. As such, engaging in citizenship behaviors toward these beneficiaries is frequently viewed as a role requirement and obligation (Morrison, 1994) and a core dimension of job performance (e.g., Harrison et al., 2006), and it tends to garner higher performance appraisals, better reputations, more rewards, and higher promotion rates (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2000). This evidence calls into question the propriety of the prevailing view that helping coworkers, supervisors, or customers is truly an act of citizenship (Bolino, 1999).

Sustained participation in corporate volunteering represents an alternative way of conceptualizing citizenship behavior. Because it is often directed toward beneficiaries and causes that extend beyond the organization's mission, volunteering is less likely to be formally expected and rewarded than helping coworkers, supervisors, and customers. Volunteering also more closely resembles the view of citizenship in political philosophy, which emphasizes acting out of concern for the welfare of an entire community, not only one's focal group or organization (Van Dyne et al., 1994). By studying corporate volunteering as a purer, more unambiguous form of citizenship behavior, management scholars may gain a deeper grasp of the forces that motivate employees to offer care and compassion to communities, charities, and disadvantaged and underprivileged groups. Although we know much about the factors that affect prosocial behaviors directed toward supervisors, coworkers, and customers who are directly involved with the organization's work (for a review see Podsakoff et al., 2000), scholars have devoted scant attention to why employees engage in long-term prosocial behaviors on behalf of beneficiaries who fall outside the organization's core activities, products, and services. My model takes a step toward enriching our comprehension of the forces that drive employees' expressions of care and compassion toward beneficiaries outside the boundaries of the organization's work.

Work design. The unique value added of organizational scholarship depends in part on contributing back to the theoretical perspectives that inform our research (see Heath & Sitkin, 2001). As such, it is worthwhile to consider how this article contributes back to research on work design and volunteering. For work design theory and research, my approach challenges the dom-

inant assumption that enriched job characteristics enhance employees' contributions to their organizations. Extensive research suggests that when employees work in jobs with enriched task, social, and knowledge characteristics, they tend to manifest more favorable attitudes, higher task performance, more frequent citizenship behaviors, and greater retention (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987; Griffin, 1991; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007). My perspective complicates this assumption by suggesting that jobs lacking in enrichment may motivate employees to contribute to their organizations in other ways, such as through volunteering. Although scholars have recognized that jobs can be too enriched (Elsbach & Hargadon, 2006; Warr, 2007; Xie & Johns, 1995), research has yet to explore the possibility that low enrichment, when coupled with avenues for contributing to the organization outside the scope of one's job responsibilities, can enhance employees' contributions. This strikes an interesting contrast with Penner's speculation that "if companies want to increase voluntary prosocial actions among their employees, they need to design jobs that are highly motivating and interesting, and that provide feedback to the job occupant" (2002: 459). Although this may be true for traditional citizenship behaviors, I have proposed that the opposite is the case for corporate volunteering, where jobs lacking in enrichment may trigger motives and free up time, energy, and attention.

Along with suggesting that job enrichment may carry the unintended consequence of reducing long-term volunteering, my approach also highlights the interplay between work and other life domains as a significant force in shaping how employees respond to their jobs. In focusing on job characteristics, work design researchers have traditionally overlooked the fact that these characteristics unfold in tandem with employees' experiences of other activities (cf. Kohn & Schooler, 1978, 1982). By accentuating how job designs can influence volunteering motives and interact with volunteering projects, my approach reinforces the value of investigating how work design affects employees' actions beyond the boundaries of their work.

The social science of volunteering. To the volunteering literature in psychology and sociology, my perspective offers three core contributions. First, my model extends the motivational perspective on volunteering by opening up new

insights about the contextual factors that affect volunteering motives. As discussed previously, psychologists have assumed that these motives are endogenous to the volunteer's dispositions—rooted in basic personality traits and developmental experiences (Clary et al., 1998; Erez et al., 2008; Okun & Schultz, 2003). My approach suggests that jobs also play a critical role in shaping the motives that people attach to volunteering. In particular, I proposed that prosocial and self-enhancement volunteering motives are triggered by depleted task characteristics of jobs, belonging and self-protective motives are triggered by depleted social characteristics, and developmental and career motives are triggered by depleted knowledge characteristics. These propositions suggest that although the dispositions that individuals carry with them can influence volunteering motives, these motives can also be shaped by work design as an important but neglected contextual and situational force.

Second, my approach extends the role identity perspective by identifying new contextual moderators of the reciprocal relationship between repeated volunteering and volunteer identities. Little research has examined the role that organizations play in shaping volunteer identities, and exceptions have focused on main effects of a small subset of organizational practices (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner, 2002). My perspective offers fresh insights into how repeated participation may have stronger effects on identity internalization when pressure is low, matching incentives are available for those who receive time-contingent pay, and recognition for volunteering is coupled with managerial support, as well as into how the internalization of a volunteer identity will lead to more sustained participation when the cause is prestigious and identity congruent. These insights fill a gap in extant knowledge about how organizational practices moderate the relationship between volunteer role identities and participation.

Third, this article provides both psychologists and sociologists with a framework for classifying the characteristics of volunteering tasks, projects, activities, and roles. In the majority of existing studies, researchers have measured the perceived fulfillment of volunteering motives without investigating the characteristics of volunteering projects that cause this fulfillment (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein et al., 2005). The few studies that have measured character-

istics of volunteering projects have focused on a relatively narrow, arbitrary set of attributes. For example, Houle et al. (2005) presented a list of eight different volunteering tasks, ranging from typing and data entry to reading and designing brochures, seeking to identify volunteering motives that predicted interest in each task without specifying the underlying characteristics of the tasks. As another example, Grube and Piliavin (2000) examined the personal importance of contributions, which is analogous to task significance, as well as having friends who volunteer, which bears a resemblance to several social characteristics. In comparison, my model offers psychologists and sociologists a more comprehensive, theoretically grounded, and empirically supported framework for examining the task, social, and knowledge characteristics of volunteering work, which may facilitate efforts to build and test theory about the factors that affect satisfaction and participation in volunteering roles.

Future Directions

Along with testing the model empirically, researchers may pursue several exciting lines of inquiry into corporate volunteering. First, there may be relationships between constructs in the model that my propositions do not address. As one example, employees' volunteering motives may directly influence the internalization of a volunteer identity and repeated volunteering (e.g., Finkelstein et al., 2005; Pelozo et al., 2009). Employees with strong self-enhancement and career motives may be particularly sensitive to recognition and the prestige of the cause, whereas employees with strong prosocial motives may be more receptive to the notion of a self-concept as a volunteer, regardless of organizational practices (Finkelstein et al., 2005). As another example, job design may moderate the effects of the internalization of a volunteer identity on repeated participation. From a resource allocation perspective, enriched job designs may limit the time, energy, and attention employees have available for other activities (Bergeron, 2007), running the risk of creating role conflict (Farmer & Fedor, 2001).

More generally, demands from other roles may curtail the deviation-amplifying spiral between a volunteer identity and repeated participation (Musick, Herzog, & House, 1999). On a

related note, research has yet to provide clear evidence about the effects of corporate volunteering on employees' behaviors on the job (Rodell, 2010). Researchers may begin exploring this question by using frameworks developed to examine work-family spillover (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Enriching effects of volunteering may include enhancing energy, social support, knowledge, skills, organizational identification, and commitment; depleting effects may include sapping energy, framing one's job in a more negative light, and creating role conflict. We need a more comprehensive understanding of the conditions under which corporate volunteering enriches versus depletes job performance and relevant job behaviors, as well as its broader effects on employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

Second, my model does not capture the distinction between corporate volunteering programs focusing on caring and those focusing on compassion. Caring involves serving others by giving one's cognitive, emotional, and physical self in meaningful relationships (Kahn, 1993), whereas compassion involves attending and responding to pain and suffering caused by disasters, tragedies, and stressors (Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006). Programs focusing on caring may be more conducive to sustainable participation, since projects can be scheduled on a more predictable basis, but programs focusing on compassion may attract a larger number of employees in times of need (e.g., Penner et al., 2005).

Third, my focus on the independent effects of different motives for corporate volunteering overlooks their potential interactive effects. Research has produced conflicting evidence, with some studies suggesting that multiple motives can lead to stress, perceived costs, and reduced fulfillment and satisfaction (Kiviniemi, Snyder, & Omoto, 2002), but with other studies suggesting that multiple motives can enhance persistence (Grant & Mayer, 2009). It will be critical to address this controversy by examining the conditions under which different types of volunteering motives support versus undermine each other. In addition, future research should address the impact of motivational incentives on participation, such as creating team competitions or offering corporate volunteering as a reward, as is common with pro bono work in consulting and law (Rhode, 2005). Such rewards

may enhance norms of professional responsibility, embedding care and compassion more deeply in organizations.

Fourth, I assume that because the desires for meaningfulness, connection, and competence are thought to be universal (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Heine et al., 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000), depleted task, social, and knowledge characteristics will activate compensatory motives in corporate volunteering. However, these effects may depend on employees' global motivations and personality traits, with employees varying in their preferences for different job characteristics (e.g., Kulik et al., 1987)—and thus in the effects of these characteristics on their volunteering motives.

Fifth, it is unclear whether my model can explain variations in participation within corporate volunteering programs. For example, when a volunteering project satisfies a motive by compensating for a depleted job characteristic, do employees choose different types of volunteering projects, or do they seek out more sustained fulfillment of the motive by repeating participation in the same type of project? Sixth, on a more macro level, it will be important to understand the factors that influence organizational decisions about how to structure corporate volunteering programs, especially with respect to the provision of sustained volunteering projects.

Finally, given that the factors that initiate volunteering differ from those that maintain it (Penner, 2002; Penner et al., 2005), my focus on sustained participation provides little insight into the initial decision to volunteer at rather than outside work. As noted earlier, research suggests that the decision is influenced by factors such as motives; social expectations; organizational commitment; and time, financial, and logistical benefits (Basil et al., 2009; Booth et al., 2009; Pelozo et al., 2009; Peterson, 2004). It will be useful to understand the differential effects of motives on initial versus sustained participation. Further, organizational scholarship calls attention to other factors that may be relevant to initial participation. For example, research indicates that employees differ in their boundary management preferences: segmentors prefer to maintain a clear separation between work and other life domains, whereas integrators prefer to blur these boundaries (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Corporate volunteering is an integrating policy (Rothbard et al., 2005), since it

brings what is traditionally a personal role into the professional sphere (Houghton et al., 2009). Integrators are likely to be enthusiastic about corporate volunteering because it allows them to build multiplex relationships, express multiple identities, and fulfill multiple roles simultaneously in a "win-win" fashion (Rothbard et al., 2005). Segmentors are likely to react more negatively to corporate volunteering programs, which may interfere with their desires for privacy and role separation, even if they are not personally involved (Rothbard et al., 2005; see also de Gilder et al., 2005: 144). These preferences may influence decisions to participate in and attitudes toward corporate volunteering programs. It would also be fascinating to examine whether repeated engagement in corporate volunteering begins to shift segmentors' preferences toward integration.

Practical Implications

The framework developed in this article has valuable implications for leaders, managers, and employees. For leaders and managers the model can provide guidelines for sustaining participation in corporate volunteering. It is unlikely that leaders and managers would intentionally design depleted jobs to encourage sustained participation in volunteering. Rather, recognizing that depleted jobs are a reality in many organizations around the world (Davis, 2010; Grant & Parker, 2009), it may be fruitful for leaders and managers to approach volunteering projects as a substitute for enriched jobs. Insofar as employees whose jobs lack enrichment are more likely to be motivated by and available for repeated participation, leaders and managers can seek to identify depleted job characteristics and work with partner organizations to design volunteering projects that compensate to fulfill employees' motives. By tailoring the task, social, and knowledge characteristics of initial volunteering projects to substitute for enriched job characteristics and satisfy relevant motives, leaders and managers can enhance the degree to which employees continue to participate in corporate volunteering.

To encourage the internalization of a corporate volunteer identity and the long-term sustainability of participation, leaders and managers can work to reduce pressure, combine recognition with support, target prestigious

causes that are selected by employees or align with the organization's identity, and offer matching incentives when employees are paid hourly. These steps are likely to be useful to employees as well, given that many corporate volunteering programs and projects are initiated, organized, structured, and implemented by employees themselves (Wainwright, 2005; Wood, 2007). For employees the framework may also serve as a map for both choosing and crafting volunteering projects. Employees can identify preferred volunteering project characteristics based on job characteristics and motives, and can select and modify projects accordingly to enhance satisfaction and the sustainability of participation.

CONCLUSION

Corporate volunteering has taken organizations by storm, but organizational scholars have only begun to take notice. Until very recently, research on corporate volunteering was dominated by practitioners. Insofar as problem-driven research remains a central starting point for scholarly inquiry (Davis & Marquis, 2005; Lawrence, 1992), we have a responsibility to catch up and contribute to the conversation. In the wake of pressing social problems and rising expectations for organizations to help, the time is ripe to study corporate volunteering as an increasingly widespread form of corporate social responsibility. A work design lens represents a generative first step toward both illuminating and enhancing sustained employee participation in corporate volunteering programs that deliver care and compassion to those in need.

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