

The motivational antecedents and performance consequences of corporate volunteering: When do employees volunteer and when does volunteering help versus harm work performance?

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ABSTRACT

Theoretical analyses and empirical studies are lacking on the antecedents, consequences, and contingencies of employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs. In response, we build on the motivation-based theory of volunteerism to explore the questions of why and when employees engage in company-sponsored volunteer programs and when corporate volunteering experience positively influences job performance at work. Using a three-wave time-lagged study with a sample from a large real estate company, we found that coworker corporate volunteering (but not leader role modeling of corporate volunteering) weakened and social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends strengthened the relationship between prosocial motivation and participation in volunteer programs. Furthermore, we discovered that when employees had positive learning experiences from corporate volunteering, their participation in volunteer programs did not distract from job performance, whereas when employees did not learn much from corporate volunteering, their corporate volunteering harmed job performance at work. The findings contribute to the literature on corporate volunteering and explain the joint influences of personal, social, and learning motives underlying corporate volunteering.

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1. Introduction

Employees have opportunities to donate their time and skills to serve others through a wide range of company-sponsored volunteer programs (Grant, 2012; Peterson, 2004a). Companies worldwide have increasingly adopted such programs as an important form of corporate social responsibility. The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2013), surveyed 518 human resource professionals and found that 20% reported that employees were given time off for volunteer activities, an increase from 15% in 2009. A survey of 203 European organizations showed that 80% had provided corporate volunteering programs for more than a year (Pérez et al., 2014). A study of 273 Chinese companies revealed that 53.50% encouraged employees to donate time for company-sponsored community work in 2012 and 2013 (Horizon Corporate Volunteer Consultancy, 2014).

Despite the growing popularity of company-sponsored volunteer programs, two important theoretical and practical issues remain. First, although more than 90% of Fortune 500 companies sponsor employee volunteer programs (Points of Light Institute, 2006), some employees decline to participate (Peterson, 2004b; Pérez et al., 2014). A study of 261 participating companies showed a mere 9% median employee participation rate in a volunteer program called matching gift program (Committee Encouraging Corporate Philanthropy [CECP], 2014). Intriguing questions naturally follow: Why do some employees actively volunteer while others do not? What personal and social factors affect their decisions? To answer those questions, many researchers suggest studying multiple motivations behind decisions to help others, especially strangers (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1991; Clary et al., 1998; Harrison, 1995; Mannino, Snyder, & Omoto, 2011; Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005; Rodell, 2013). Specifically, the motivation-based theory of volunteerism focuses on the volunteering motives that include desires (1) to fulfill prosocial, altruistic, or empathetic humanitarian concerns; (2) to adhere to socially developed norms and acquire positive self-images and social acceptance by important others; (3) to acquire learning through

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new experiences for career benefits (Penner et al., 2005). Thus, the motivational approach explains that personal values, social norms, and learning experiences drive volunteerism. Indeed, “volunteer behaviors do not depend solely on the person or on the situation, but rather depend on the interaction of person-based dynamics and situational opportunities” (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 159). Likewise, Grant (2012) developed a comprehensive theoretical framework on corporate volunteering to highlight how task, social, and knowledge characteristics affect sustained volunteerism (Grant, 2012). If both personal and situational factors uniquely contribute to employee volunteerism, research on one factor alone may yield narrow and piecemeal understandings of the antecedents of corporate volunteering. Thus, it is critical to consider concurrent influences from internal values and contextual factors.

Empirical research has provided mixed findings about multiple motives impacting corporate volunteerism. Some studies have shown that, when combined, prosocial motives have no significant relationship, and leaders’ and coworkers’ social support are insignificantly or negatively associated with employee volunteering participation (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Pelozo, Hudson, & Hassay, 2009); some studies reveal that prosocial motives and other social factors undermine each other’s positive influences on volunteerism (e.g., Kiviniemi, Snyder, & Omoto, 2002) or prosocial behaviors (Takeuchi, Bolino, & Lin, 2015); and others indicate that prosocial and social motivators can be mutually reinforcing and combine to enhance prosocial behaviors (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009). These empirical ramifications suggest that prosocial motives and different social and situational factors may generate differentiated interactive influences on employee volunteerism. Although researchers have suggested that prosocial values are fundamental motives behind employee volunteerism (Pelozo & Hassay, 2006; Penner et al., 2005), situational factors that enable or undermine prosocial motivation influence are largely unclear (Finkelstein, 2009). We take a step further and integrate social influence theory (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) to argue that the source of the social factors is essential: social influences from the work domain, such as leaders’ and coworkers’ reactions to corporate-sponsored volunteer programs, are likely to exert normative effects on employees’ decisions to volunteer, which substitutes for the influence of personal prosocial motives. On the other hand, life domain factors such as social support from family and friends, are less likely to emit normative pressures and more likely to act as a situational enhancer that confirms and magnifies self-views and prosocial motivations.

Second, in addition to examining the antecedents of corporate volunteering decisions, an equally important theoretical and practical question is whether corporate volunteering experience positively relates to work performance. Rodell (2013) in her pioneering research proposed two competing hypotheses: volunteering may (1) promote job performance by making employees more absorbed in their jobs, or (2) hurt job performance by distracting from task behaviors (Rodell, 2013). Results using 172 employed volunteers showed that job performance benefitted through enhanced job absorption. Scholars have suggested that employee volunteerism can be seen as a form of citizenship behaviors (Pelozo & Hassay, 2006), but citizenship behaviors may keep employees from competing and producing at work, as shown in studies of sales agency managers (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999), bank employees (Naumann & Bennett, 2002), and professional service consultants (Bergeron, Shipp, Rosen, & Furst, 2013). The contradictory theoretical viewpoints and findings imply that corporate volunteering can enhance or damage job performance, pointing to the possibility of boundary conditions. Indeed, volunteerism literature has suggested that how volunteerism relates to work-related outcomes depends on volunteer experiences (Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang, 2013; Jones, 2010). The

motivation-based theory of volunteerism notes that people value opportunities to acquire skills and knowledge through volunteer programs (Clary et al., 1998; Penner et al., 2005) and their learning experiences may directly affect their work evaluations (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). Thus, aligned with this theoretical perspective and to resolve the empirical ambiguities, we identify learning from corporate volunteering as a key contingency of the job performance effects and highlight that participation is more likely to enhance job performance when volunteers have positive learning experiences. This exploration of boundary conditions also offers practical contributions, as many companies hesitate to initiate programs because they are unsure about whether volunteerism takes time and energy away from the pursuit of financial goals (Double the Donation, 2014; Horizon Corporate Volunteer Consultancy, 2014). Therefore, discovering the conditions that will allow corporate volunteering to benefit job performance may help firms choose whether to adopt volunteer programs and how to design volunteer programs to be beneficial for job performance.

Our goal is to fill gaps in the extant research regarding corporate volunteering, extend theory and literature by exploring conditions that are more likely to motivate participation, and determine when volunteering enhances job performance. We draw on the motivation-based theory of volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998; Penner et al., 2005) as an overarching framework to explain how prosocial values and social influences from different domains jointly impact decisions to volunteer and also how volunteering provides learning that affects job performance. We offer three theoretical contributions to corporate volunteering research.

First, we widen theory and literature by investigating concurrent and interactive effects of employee prosocial motivation and social influences from both work and family domains. Although multiple motives are thought to inspire volunteerism, theoretical work does not explicitly explain how the motives interact, and empirical evidence is ambivalent and mixed. We integrate theories of motivation-based volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998; Penner et al., 2005) and social influences (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) to show that due to differences in the salience of normative influences, work-related factors and prosocial motivation create a substitutional person-situation interaction, and family and social support and prosocial motivation generate a synergistic person-situation interaction. Exploring multiple motives extends volunteerism theory and empirical work and advances knowledge of the antecedents of employee participation in corporate volunteering.

Second, joining Rodell (2013), we take a broader view by investigating reasons for volunteering and likely impacts on job performance, a key yet unresolved issue for scholars and practitioners. Volunteerism may contribute to job performance (Rodell, 2013), but the findings are inconsistent and contradictory theoretical concerns remain. We address the need to theorize and document how learning experience acts as a boundary condition that determines whether volunteering enhances job performance.

Third, we specifically focus on corporate-sponsored programs and connect the perspectives and interests of companies, employees, and communities. Social and organizational psychologists have primarily focused on underlying personal and work-related factors (Grant, 2012; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner et al., 2005) whereas sociologists have paid particular attention to how family and friends in the life domain shape volunteerism (Wilson, 2000). The two perspectives have rarely been integrated for a more complete account of employee volunteerism, an especially critical omission for corporate-sponsored volunteer programs that not only can include paid work time but also may take time away from family and friends (Points of Light Institute, 2010). Thus, our focus on social influences from personal, work, and life domains integrates the disconnected literatures on volunteerism, work, and life and offers balanced insights for better

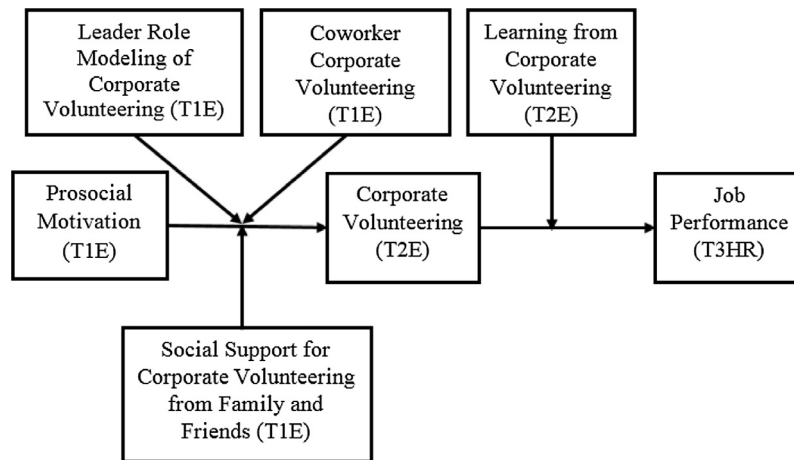


Fig. 1. Theoretical model. Notes. T1E = variable rated by employees at Time 1; T2E = variable rated by employees at Time 2, six months after Time 1; T3HR = variable obtained by Human Resources at Time 3, six months after Time 2 and one year after Time 1.

understanding the nature and influences of corporate-sponsored volunteerism. Fig. 1 describes the overall theoretical model.

2. Theoretical development and hypotheses

2.1. Motives underlying employee participation in corporate-sponsored volunteer programs

Much volunteerism research has used the motivation-based theoretical framework in psychology to explain why people engage in volunteerism. This perspective, originally proposed by Clary and Snyder (1991) and Clary et al. (1998), is summarized into three major motivational categories (Penner et al., 2005): (1) prosocial motives that raise people's empathetic concern for others; (2) social factors that indicate "how norms such as social responsibility and reciprocity can promote helping as people strive to maintain positive self-images or achieve their ideas and fulfill personal needs" (Penner et al., 2005, ps. 367–368); and (3) learning opportunities that help gain new skills and knowledge. Before employees decide whether to volunteer, individuals may first look to their prosocial motives and social factors (Clary & Snyder, 1999); the learning factor is more likely to be acquired during and after the volunteering experience and to affect people's post-volunteering behaviors. If learning from volunteering is positive, they may be more likely to continue volunteering regularly (Grant, 2012) and to perform more effectively (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). Thus, the motivation-based theory of volunteering serves as a unifying theoretical underpinning that answers our two research questions: Why do people participate in corporate volunteering? How does corporate volunteering affect subsequent work behaviors? Specifically, we argue that prosocial motivation and social factors from both the work and life domains exert an interactive influence on employees' decisions to participate in corporate volunteering and the learning factor explains whether engagement in corporate volunteering promotes or harms performance at work.

In exploring what makes people volunteer, as one of the volunteer motives, prosocial motivation, the desire to promote the welfare of others in need through volunteering (Batson, 1998; Grant, 2008), is considered "fundamental to many kinds of helping" (Penner et al., 2005, p. 368). Social factors are also critical, as volunteer behaviors may depend on many situational and social contexts (Clary & Snyder, 1999), especially for corporate-sponsored programs that operate in a wider context involving organizational and individual life social factors (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Unclear,

however, is how prosocial motivation and social factors from both work and life domains interactively impact volunteer decisions. Empirical research offers mixed viewpoints as to whether personal and social motives have positive, negative, or neutral synergy with volunteerism (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Kiviniemi et al., 2002; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2015). It may depend on whether the social factors come from the work or life domain. Theoretical work in organizational research argues that work factors can be compensatory motives and depleted social characteristics trigger participation in corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012). Sociology research generally agrees that family and friend support encourages volunteerism (Wilson, 2000). To connect the two research streams and to resolve the ambiguity of social roles and personal values for their joint impact on volunteerism, we integrate the motivation-based theory of volunteerism with social influence theory (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) to explain the differentiated social influences from work and family domains.

Consistent with the motivation-based theory of volunteerism, social influence theory suggests that people are fundamentally motivated to conform to social norms to be socially accepted and maintain positive self-assessments (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). When an influential individual or social group performs one thing, it creates a normative influence on the focal individuals, which govern their motivations to conform to the action (Moscovici, 1980). The social norms will be more impactful (1) if the sources are salient to the focal employees, such as authority (e.g., leaders) and similar others of a social group (e.g., coworkers), as they help meet the needs of social acceptance and positive self-assessment (Kallgren, Reno, & Cialdini, 2000), and (2) if the sources convey the normative information by actually performing rather than simply espousing the social roles (Cialdini & Trost, 1998), as compared with vocal promotion, behavioral modeling more accurately reflects the social reality. Those salient sources will influence conformity even if the followers' personal values fail to support the behaviors (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Cialdini, Kallgren, & Reno, 1991). However, non-salient social norms are too weak to elicit norm-congruent behaviors, so personal values will then guide behaviors. Applying this theoretical perspective to volunteerism in the workplace, authority figures and coworkers who model volunteerism are more likely to be salient substitutes for employees' personal prosocial motivations. On the other hand, emotional and vocal support from the life domain will not be powerful enough to replace prosocial motivation influences, but will instead positively confirm and reinforce prosocial values. Therefore, we theorize that *leader role modeling of corporate volunteering* and

coworker corporate volunteering provide the work domain social influences that will substitute for the positive effect of employees' prosocial motivations on corporate volunteering. Social influences in the life domain, *social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends*, will form a complementary effect that enhances the prosocial motivation effect on corporate volunteering.

2.2. Leader role modeling of corporate volunteering and coworker corporate volunteering as substitutes for prosocial motivation influences

In the work domain, leaders and coworkers are both likely social roles that influence employees' motivation to volunteer (Clary & Snyder, 1991) because of their daily close interactions and impacts on feelings and experiences at work (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Yukl, 2010). We thus focus on leaders and coworkers who influence employees' prosocial motivations to volunteer by modeling participation. In line with social influence theory, people are more likely to conform to social influences from leaders and behave in accordance with the behaviors of leaders because leaders have greater exposure to influence attempts and greater impacts on followers than other single sources (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Kraut, Rice, Cool, & Fish, 1998). Leader role modeling of corporate volunteering does not mean that leaders would explicitly advocate or require participation through performance evaluations or compensations. Instead, rather than explicitly forcing participation, leaders' actual volunteerism will send strong informative signals of value and create normative influences encouraging participation (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). As such, leader role modeling is a powerful external motivator that diminishes the salience of internal prosocial motivation (Grant, 2012). Even if employees are not prosocially motivated, leaders' social influences are likely to be primary motivators. Consequently, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering weakens the positive connection between employee prosocial motivation and participation in volunteer programs.

Social influence theory also suggests that conformity with a valued group enhances self-assessment and social approval (Blanton & Christie, 2003). Faced with common events such as company-sponsored volunteer programs, individuals are likely to observe coworkers who have similar status and positions as their most likely reference sources (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Cialdini & Trost, 1998). As such, coworkers' volunteerism will trigger norm-congruent behaviors, but in the aggregate rather than as a single source. When coworkers often participate in corporate volunteering, they have a social influence on focal employees' needs for social approval and validation (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). They create implicit rather than tangible pressure for employees to gain social acceptance by the group (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Regardless of employees' prosocial motivations, they are likely to model their behaviors after their peers.

On the contrary, when leaders fail to model corporate volunteering or when coworkers are not actively engaged in corporate volunteering, explicit external normative influences will be missing and employees' internal prosocial motivation will be dominant in their decisions about volunteering. The situational strength literature also explains the influence of leader and coworker volunteering participation (Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010): When leaders and coworkers frequently engage in corporate volunteer programs, it sends a strong implicit cue that corporate volunteering is desirable and produces psychological pressure on employees to engage in these volunteer programs. This pressure in turn makes the influence of personal motives (i.e., prosocial motivation) on employee volunteerism less important (Hatrup & Jackson, 1996; Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009). Conversely, when leaders and coworkers are indifferent to the corporate volunteer programs, it

represents a weak situation where employees do not have external pressure to participate and their own prosocial motivation may become a main driver for them to engage in volunteer programs. Therefore, we expect that leader role modeling and coworker corporate volunteering substitute for prosocial motivation, and thus attenuate the positive relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering.

Hypothesis 1. Leader role modeling of corporate volunteering moderates the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs, such that the relationship is less positive when leader role modeling of corporate volunteering is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 2. Coworker corporate volunteering moderates the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs, such that the relationship is less positive when coworker corporate volunteering is high than when it is low.

2.3. Social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends as an enhancer of prosocial motivation influences

In contrast to work domain influences, influences of families and friends from the life domain are unlikely to create the normative influences that weaken the role of prosocial motivation. The social influence perspective explains that salient figures generate normative influences that overcome personal values in guiding behaviors (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Family and significant friends, however, may fail to foster conformity to norms because they do not trigger needs to comply with leaders in power or to gain group social approval. In addition, family and friends do not model participation behavior and thus do not generate salient external norms (Cialdini & Trost, 1998).

Social support from family and friends primarily describes their positive emotional reactions to corporate volunteering, such as trust, respect, confirmation, and affection of employees' participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs (Taylor & Pancer, 2007). When family and friends react favorably to corporate volunteerism (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), employees may see it as a way to satisfy their prosocial values. The motivational perspective of volunteerism explains that employees are more drawn to volunteerism if significant others favor the programs (Clary et al., 1998) and their internal prosocial values are more impactful if important others also appreciate and value their volunteering efforts (Grant, 2012). Consequently, when significant family members and friends support volunteering endeavors, employees are likely to perceive meaningfulness and value in company-sponsored volunteer programs for fulfilling their prosocial values. Furthermore, company-sponsored volunteer programs offer opportunities to perform socially beneficial activities during company-paid work time (De Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005), but prosocially motivated employees may choose to continue their service when they are off duty. Expending effort and energy after work inevitably drains resources from family and friends (Cowlshaw, Birch, McLennan, & Hayes, 2014; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Mowen & Suja, 2005). Thus, their attitudes are particularly relevant forces for countering the conflict (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Their encouragement and confirmation helps prosocially motivated employees reduce concerns and feel more positive about their investments in corporate volunteering.

In contrast, if family members and friends are indifferent or even cynical about volunteerism, prosocially motivated employees may question whether participation is meaningful for realizing their prosocial values. Thus negative experiences from the life

domain may discourage even employees high in prosocial motivation (Clary et al., 1998). Taken together, we expect that social support from the life domain strengthens the positive association between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering.

Hypothesis 3. Social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends moderates the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs, such that the relationship is more positive when social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends is high than when it is low.

2.4. Corporate volunteering and job performance: Learning as an enhancer

Next, we ask whether participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs relates to employees' work performance. Theoretical speculations from multiple domains have offered ambivalent views of the consequences of volunteering in relation to job performance and direct empirical evidence remains quite limited. One exception is a pioneering empirical study (Rodel, 2013) that proposed two opposing hypotheses about the influence of general volunteering on job performance: volunteering can enhance or harm job performance. Empirical support was provided for the "enhancement" hypothesis. Particularly, volunteering "recharges" employees for fresh concentration on their work. Empirical findings about other volunteer behaviors at work, such as citizenship behavior, however, show that prosocial behaviors are not necessarily beneficial for job performance, as they may reduce employees' energy and distract their attention from formal tasks (e.g., Bergeron et al., 2013; MacKenzie et al., 1999; Naumann & Bennett, 2002). Thus, the relation between corporate volunteering and job performance is likely to be subject to boundary conditions.

Consequences on work performance depend on employees' experiences as volunteers (Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Penner et al., 2005). Enriched task, social, and knowledge characteristics in corporate volunteering enlarge the beneficial effects of volunteer programs (Grant, 2012). In accordance, the motivation-based theory of volunteerism argues that employees are motivated to sustain their volunteerism when they find it has functional values for learning and career development (Clary et al., 1998). We therefore contend that employee participation in corporate volunteering is more likely to contribute to rather than detract from job performance when employees gain positive learning experiences by acquiring knowledge, skills, and capabilities they can apply to other domains such as regular work roles (Clary et al., 1998).

As employees practice their skills in novel contexts outside work, they may develop job-related problem-solving, leadership, interpersonal, and communication skills (Peterson, 2004a; Wild, 1993). Volunteers have varying learning experiences (Argote & Miron-Spektor, 2011), even when they are exposed to similar volunteer programs (Caligiuri et al., 2013). For example, some nursing home volunteers may find their communication with seniors as no difference from their daily interpersonal conversations, while others may learn how to appreciate different perspectives and outlooks, how to be careful listeners, or how to work effectively with people from different backgrounds. Similarly, volunteers in health institutions may vary in their experiences of learning skills such as stress management, counseling, or coordination. Research has shown that for those employees who sense they are able to acquire and develop skills through volunteer service, they feel their volunteering as more valuable (Caligiuri et al., 2013) and their jobs as more successful (Booth, Park, & Glomb, 2009).

We further argue that after participating in corporate volunteering, when employees actually obtain opportunities to develop

new knowledge and skills, they are likely to possess enriched task resources that enhance their job performance. Newly learned skills, knowledge, and behaviors represent relatively permanent changes (Latham & Saari, 1979). As such, ingrained newly developed learning from corporate volunteering can be naturally applied to work tasks. Although used in different contexts, the potential skills developed in volunteer service, such as communication, problem-solving, time-management, and teamwork, can be generalized to the work domain. Thus, learning experiences from corporate volunteering can positively spill over to work (Wilson & Musick, 1997) and make volunteerism an asset for job performance. Empirical evidence has shown that job-related and social skills are positively associated with job performance (e.g., Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006; Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger, & Hemingway, 2005; Witt & Ferris, 2003).

Positive learning experiences are also likely to reshape employees' affective or motivational self-evaluations (Kraiger, Ford, & Salas, 1993). Recognizing that they have improved their skills, increased their knowledge, and helped others in need, employees will feel more confidence and personal satisfaction. The motivational approach considers opportunities to grow as a key motivation for volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). Thus, self-enhancement and growth from learning is likely to transfer to enhanced motivation for persisting in their work and achieving higher levels of job performance.

On the flip side, employees who fail to experience opportunities to develop and exercise knowledge and skills through volunteer programs may lack the instrumental resources to improve their job efforts and behaviors, so that participation in corporate volunteering will fail to benefit job performance. In summary, we propose that learning from corporate volunteering enhances the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance, such that corporate volunteering promotes job performance when employees have positive learning experiences from participation.

Hypothesis 4. Learning from corporate volunteering moderates the relationship between employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs and job performance, such that the relationship is more positive when learning from corporate volunteering is high than when it is low.

3. Method

3.1. Sample and procedures

To test our hypotheses, we collected data from a large real estate company in China. This company has been dedicated to social responsibility in many aspects. For example, the company devotes efforts to protect the environment by designing buildings that can save more energy. It also regularly initiates activities to raise and donate money to charity. As an important feature of its involvement in social activities, this company provides employees with opportunities to participate in a variety of corporate volunteer programs, such as raising public funds through marathons, providing education service for children of migrant workers with major diseases, promoting garbage classification in communities, and providing psychological counseling service for the families of the victims of major disasters.

The company allowed us to collect data from employees in a branch located in a major city in southern China. This branch provides a unique volunteer program for their employees, which is to identify children with congenital heart disease and investigate whether those children and their families are qualified to receive financial aid for medical surgery from the company. Employees can participate in this program through two activities. First,

employees can take the initiative to advocate this program by visiting the places where the basic medical resources are scarce and collect information of children with congenital heart disease. Second, employees can help evaluate whether children whose families have applied for this program are qualified to receive the financial support. For this task, two employees work independently to visit the family of a sick child and evaluate whether the child's disease is covered by this program, whether the child requires urgent surgery, and whether the child's family is poor enough to qualify for this program. After their visits, employees submit reports regarding whether they recommend the child to receive financial aid for medical surgery to their branch independently. The branch gives employees time off to engage in this program. However, because some sick children live in the rural areas that are far away from the branch, employee volunteers may also spend non-work hours (e.g., weekends) and contribute personally the expenses associated with their participation. Based on our interviews with 10 randomly selected employees and managers in the participating pool, we found that on average, 70% of interviewees' volunteer time was during normal work hours granted by the company to participate in volunteer programs and 30% came from their after-work time. This sample provides an appropriate context to test our research model and serves to contribute to the external validity of volunteerism theory in a non-U.S. setting.

We collected three-wave data over one year study period in this branch. At Time 1, we solicited the non-managerial employees to voluntarily participate in an online survey about their demographic characteristics, prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, and social support for corporate volunteering of family and friends. The online survey system showed that out of the 400 invited employees, 202 provided complete information for the Time 1 survey (response rate = 50.5% at Time 1). At Time 2, six months after Time 1, we invited the 202 respondents of the Time 1 survey to report their participation in this volunteer program in the past six months as well as their learning from volunteering experience. We received completed responses of 150 employees (response rate = 74.26% at Time 2). Out of the 150 participants, 123 employees were under 35 years old (82%), 98 were male (65%), and 147 had bachelor or master degrees (98%). On average, they had worked at the current company for 35.65 months ($SD = 41.21$). We found no significant differences in demographic characteristics between employees who only participated in the Time 1 survey and those who participated in both Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. At Time 3, six months after Time 2 and one year after Time 1, we obtained employees' job performance from archival records of the company. The job performance information was available for 139 employees (response rate = 92.67% at Time 3). The overall response rate for completed data across three times during the one-year study period was 34.75%, which is comparable with other time-lagged studies reported in the literature (e.g., Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006). We also followed Goodman and Blum's (1996) approach to determine whether attrition might have biased results. In two separate logistic regression analyses in which we used Time 1 variables to predict participation at Time 2 and used both Time 1 and Time 2 variables to predict responses at Time 3, we found no significant results, suggesting that the attrition was random.

3.2. Measures

All the variables except for job performance were assessed by using subjective measures that were originally written in English. We followed Brislin's (1986) back-translation procedure to translate them into Chinese. We measured all variables on a 7-point Likert-type scale (e.g., 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree)

except for corporate volunteering of employees, which was assessed using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Almost Never to 5 = Very often).

3.2.1. Prosocial motivation

At Time 1, we measured prosocial motivation with a five-item scale adapted from Grant and Sumanth (2009). We replaced "tasks" in the original items with the name of the volunteer program provided by the branch and asked participants to think of the beneficiaries of this volunteer program as "others" referenced in the scale. Some sample items included "I get energized by working on this volunteer program that has the potential to benefit others" and "I like to work on this volunteer program that has the potential to benefit others." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.92.

3.2.2. Leader role modeling of corporate volunteering

We also measured leader role modeling with three items with the highest factor loadings from Rich's (1997) role modeling scale. Items were adapted to assess leader role modeling in participating in this volunteer program. The three items we used are "My manager provides a good model for me to follow to participate in this volunteer program."; "My manager leads by being an example in participating in volunteer programs"; and "My manager sets a positive example for others to follow to participate in volunteer programs". To assuage concerns about the reliability of the three-item scale with the original five-item scale, we compared these items with the full scale using a separate sample from 211 full-time U.S. employees whose company sponsor volunteer programs. We found that the three items we used were strongly and positively related to the two excluded items with lower factor loadings (average $r = 0.82$, all $ps < 0.001$). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.94.

3.2.3. Coworker corporate volunteering

We also asked employees to provide their ratings on their coworkers' volunteering activities by using the five-item volunteering scale in Rodell (2013). We modified the items to indicate coworkers' engagement in the specific volunteer program. An example item was "My coworkers give their time to participate in this volunteer program." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.96.

3.2.4. Social support for corporate volunteering of family and friends

We used the four-item scale developed by Taylor and Pancer (2007) to measure the support of family and friends for volunteer involvement. Sample items were "My family and friends are very supportive of my involvement in this volunteer program" and "My family and friends support me in my efforts put in this volunteer program." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.93.

3.2.5. Corporate volunteering

At Time 2, six months after Time 1, we adapted five items from Rodell (2013) to assess how often participants were involved in the volunteer program in the past six months (since the first survey). This measure is positively and strongly related to other measures of volunteering (e.g., volunteering frequency and volunteering hours) in Rodell (2013). Sample items included "I give my time to help this volunteer program" and "I engage in activities to support this volunteer program." The Cronbach's alpha was 0.91.

3.2.6. Learning from corporate volunteering

We assessed learning from corporate volunteering with 7 items with highest factor loadings from Taylor and Pancer's (2007) nine-item scale. Those items reflect the skills learnt from volunteer experience. Sample items were "I am broadening my

problem-solving skills through my experience in this volunteer program” and “I am learning how to better interact with people through my participation in this volunteer program.” We used the additional sample described above to validate this shortened scale. The 7 selected items were strongly and positively related to the other 2 items with lower factor loadings (average $r = 0.49$, all $ps < 0.001$). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.96.

3.2.7. Job performance

At Time 3, one year after Time 1, different from other management studies that often measure job performance using supervisor ratings on subjective scales, job performance in this study was assessed using a balanced scorecard composite of archival measures provided by the branch. The branch evaluates an employee's job performance based on key performance indicators such as completion rate of sales and profit targets and performance evaluation of employee's daily work by supervisors. At the end of each quarter, the human resources department provides employees with feedback on their work and progress and categorizes employees' performance into four classes (i.e., 1 = failed, 2 = qualified, 3 = good, and 4 = excellent). This measure was used by the company to determine individual performance effectiveness and rewards. We used the result of the most recent evaluation conducted by the HR department.

3.2.8. Control variables

We also included several theoretically-relevant control variables. Age was controlled because scholars have suggested that because people of different ages have different social roles and outlooks on life, they may have different attitudes toward volunteering different, and the rate of volunteering peaks in middle age (Wilson, 2000). Age was measured on a five-point scale with an interval of 5 years (i.e., 1 = 25 years old and younger; 2 = 26–30 years old; 3 = 31–35 years old; 4 = 36–40 years old; 5 = older than 40 years old). Gender was controlled because women were found to be more likely to be volunteers than men (Reed & Selbee, 2000). Gender was measured with a dichotomous variable (0 = male; 1 = female). Organizational tenure was controlled for as the length of staying in the organization may influence people's interpretations of company-sponsored activities such as volunteer programs. Organizational tenure was measured with the number of months an individual employee had been in the company on the Time 1 survey.

4. Results

4.1. Discriminant validity

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in LISREL 8.72 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2004) to examine discriminant validity of six study variables assessed using subjective measures (i.e., prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, social support from family and friends measured at Time 1, and corporate volunteering and learning from corporate volunteering measured at Time 2, six months later). As presented in Table 1, the hypothesized 6-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2(362) = 560.22$, $p < 0.001$; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.06, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96; Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.96). We also compared this baseline model against a number of alternative models. The baseline model fit significantly better than a 5-factor model combining the two work-domain social factors (i.e., leader role modeling of corporate volunteering and coworker corporate volunteering) as one factor ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 1026.14$, $p < 0.001$), a 4-factor model combining work- and life-domain social factors (i.e., leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, and social support from family and friends) as one factor ($\Delta\chi^2(9) = 1646.57$, $p < 0.001$), and a 2-factor model combining variables measured at Time 1 (i.e., prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, and social support from family and friends) and measured at Time 2 (i.e. corporate volunteering and learning from corporate volunteering) as two separate factors ($\Delta\chi^2(14) = 2823.76$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, the hypothesized model fit significantly better than a single-factor model combining all subjective measures ($\Delta\chi^2(15) = 4058.27$, $p < 0.001$). These results suggest the conceptual distinctions among the variables.

4.2. Hypothesis testing

Table 2 displays means, standard deviations, and correlations for key variables of this study. We conducted Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) via Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to test all hypotheses simultaneously. Fig. 2 presents the SEM results. The overall model provided a reasonable fit with the data ($\chi^2 = 22.33$, $df = 9$, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.10, SRMR = 0.03). Hypotheses 1 and 2 propose that leader role modeling of corporate

Table 1
Results of confirmatory factor analyses.

Model description	χ^2 (df)	$\Delta\chi^2$ (df) ^a	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	IFI
1. The hypothesized 6-factor model (prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, social support for corporate volunteering, corporate volunteering, and learning from corporate volunteering as 6 independent factors)	560.22 (362)		0.06	0.05	0.96	0.96
2. A 5-factor model combining leader role modeling of corporate volunteering and coworker corporate volunteering as one factor, and the other 4 variables as 4 independent factors	1586.36 (367)	1026.14*** (5)	0.15	0.15	0.85	0.85
3. A 4-factor model combining leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, and social support for corporate volunteering as one factor and the other 3 variables as 3 independent factors	2206.79 (371)	1646.57*** (9)	0.18	0.19	0.78	0.79
4. A 2-factor model combining variables measured at Time 1 (prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, and social support for corporate volunteering) as one factor, and variables measured at Time 2 (corporate volunteering and learning from corporate volunteering) as the other factor	3383.98 (376)	2823.76*** (14)	0.23	0.20	0.68	0.65
5. A 1-factor model combining all subjective measures across two times	4618.49 (377)	4058.27*** (15)	0.28	0.24	0.59	0.59

Notes. $N = 150$. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; IFI = Incremental Fit Index; df = degrees of freedom.

^a All models were compared with Model 1.

*** $p < 0.001$.

Table 2
Means, standard deviations, and correlations.^a

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	2.47	1.17	–								
2. Gender (0 = male; 1 = female)	0.35	0.48	–0.10	–							
3. Organizational tenure	35.65	41.21	0.55***	0.09	–						
4. Prosocial motivation (T1E)	6.41	0.82	0.09	0.01	0.13	(0.92)					
5. Leader role modeling (T1E)	5.41	1.29	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.30***	(0.94)				
6. Coworker corporate volunteering (T1E)	4.92	0.87	0.10	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.17*	(0.96)			
7. Social support for corporate volunteering (T1E)	5.95	0.96	0.11	–0.02	0.12	0.56***	0.32***	0.13	(0.93)		
8. Corporate volunteering (T2E)	3.25	0.78	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.18*	0.44***	0.21**	(0.91)	
9. Learning from corporate volunteering (T2E)	5.74	0.96	–0.01	0.03	0.04	0.16	0.34***	0.23**	0.24**	0.42***	(0.96)
10. Job performance (T3HR)	2.57	0.86	0.04	–0.20*	0.13	0.16	0.30***	–0.06	0.23**	0.00	0.33***

Notes. $N = 139$ for job performance, $N = 150$ for all other variables. Cronbach alphas are in parentheses on the diagonal.

^a Leader role modeling = Leader role modeling of corporate volunteering; Social support for corporate volunteering = Social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends; T1E = variable rated by employees at Time 1; T2E = variable rated by employees at Time 2, six months after Time 1; T3HR = variable obtained by Human Resources at Time 3, six months after Time 2 and one year after Time 1. We measured prosocial motivation, leader role modeling of corporate volunteering, coworker corporate volunteering, social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends, and learning from corporate volunteering on a 7-point Likert-type scale (e.g., 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) and used a 5-point Likert-type scale to assess corporate volunteering of employees (1 = Almost Never to 5 = Very Often). Job performance was rated by Human Resources every quarter based on a categorization of four classes (i.e., 1 = failed, 2 = qualified, 3 = good, and 4 = excellent).

* $p < 0.05$.

** $p < 0.01$.

*** $p < 0.001$.

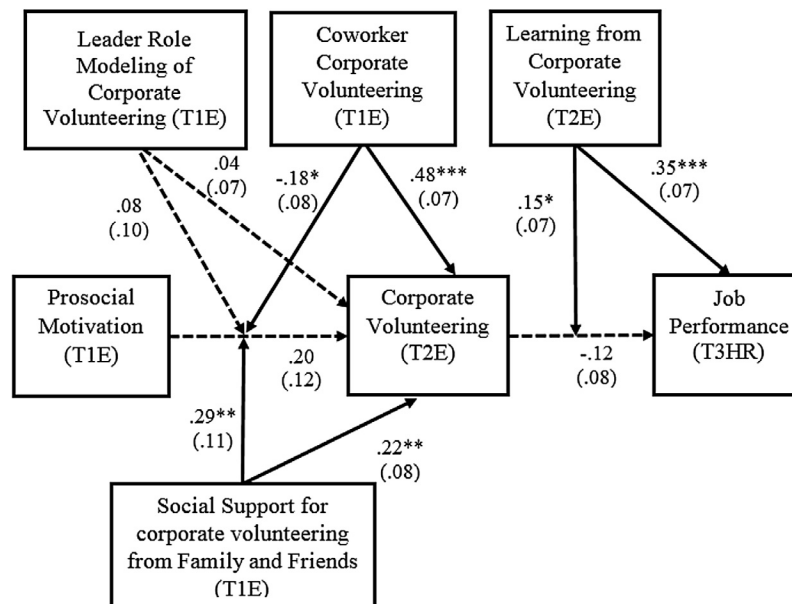


Fig. 2. Structural equation modeling results with all hypotheses tested simultaneously. Notes. T1E = variable rated by employees at Time 1; T2E = variable rated by employees at Time 2, six months after Time 1; T3HR = variable obtained by Human Resources at Time 3, six months after Time 2 and one year after Time 1. The coefficients reported were standardized and the number below each coefficient in the parentheses indicates the standard error (s.e.) of each coefficient. The overall model fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 22.33$, $df = 9$, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.10, SRMR = 0.03. R square for corporate volunteering was 0.33 (s.e. = 0.06, $p < 0.001$) and R square for job performance was 0.21 (s.e. = 0.06, $p < 0.001$). For the sake of readability, the coefficients of the relationships between control variables (i.e., age, gender, and organizational tenure) and the study variables were not presented in the figure. Among the control variables, employee gender was negatively related to job performance ($\beta = -0.25$, s.e. = 0.08, $p < 0.001$) and organizational tenure was positively related to job performance ($\beta = 0.20$, s.e. = 0.09, $p < 0.05$). None of the control variables were significantly related to corporate volunteering. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

volunteering and coworker corporate volunteering act as a substitute of the relationship between employee prosocial motivation and participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs, such that the relationship is less positive when leader role modeling is high than when it is low (Hypothesis 1) or when coworker volunteering is high than when it is low (Hypothesis 2). As shown in Fig. 2, after including the control variables and the main effects, the interaction between leader role modeling of corporate volunteering and employee prosocial motivation measured at Time 1, on employee participation in corporate volunteer programs rated at Time 2, six months after Time 1, was not significant ($\beta = 0.08$, s.e. = 0.12, $p > 0.05$), but the interaction between coworker corporate volunteering and employee prosocial motivation was

significantly negative ($\beta = -0.18$, s.e. = 0.08, $p < 0.05$). To further determine the nature of the patterns of the interactive effect, we plotted the simple slopes for the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering at 1 standard deviation above and below the mean of coworker corporate volunteering in Fig. 3 (Aiken & West, 1991). Consistent with our expectation in Hypothesis 2, the results suggest that the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering was not significant when coworker corporate volunteering was high ($B = 0.04$, s.e. = 0.13, $t = 0.31$, $p > 0.05$) but was significantly positive when coworker volunteering was low ($B = 0.35$, s.e. = 0.12, $t = 2.83$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported and Hypothesis 2 was supported.

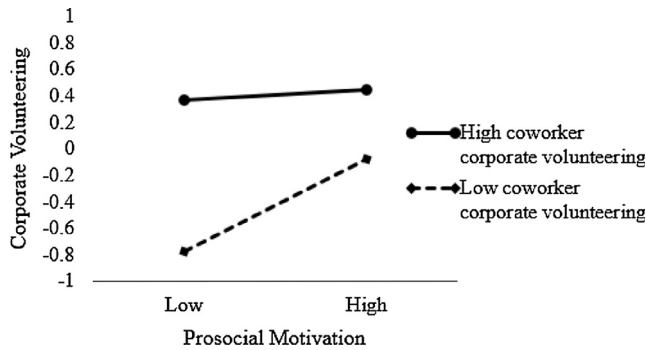


Fig. 3. Moderating effect of coworker corporate volunteering on the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering.

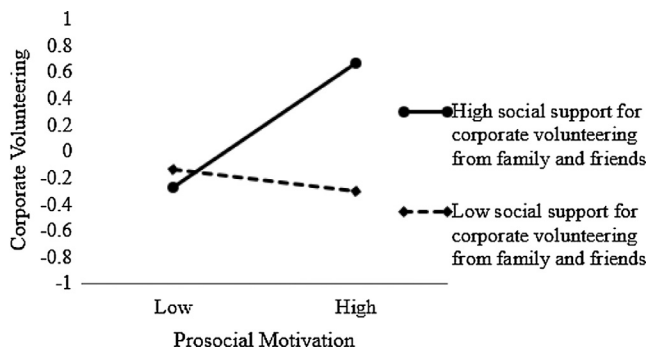


Fig. 4. Moderating effect of social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends on the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering.

Hypothesis 3 suggests that social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends acts as an enhancer of the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee participation in company-sponsored volunteer programs, such that the relationship is more positive when social support of family and friends is high than when it is low. As shown in Fig. 2, the interactive term of prosocial motivation and social support of family and friends was significantly positive ($\beta = 0.29$, $s.e. = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$). To further support the nature of the interaction, Fig. 4 revealed that the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering was significantly positive when social support from family and friends was high ($B = 0.47$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $t = 10.58$, $p < 0.001$) than when social support was low ($B = -0.08$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $t = -1.81$, $p > 0.05$). These results provided support for Hypothesis 3.¹

Hypothesis 4 proposes the moderating role of learning from corporate volunteering in the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance, such that the relationship becomes more positive when learning from corporate volunteering is high than when it is low. Fig. 2 showed that the after including all control variables and the main effects, the interaction between corporate volunteering and learning from corporate

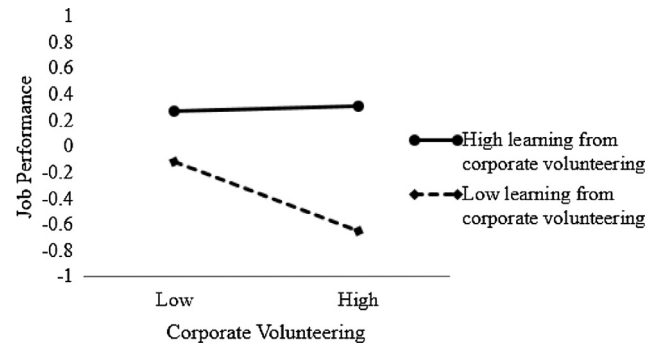


Fig. 5. Moderating effect of learning from corporate volunteering on the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance.

volunteering obtained at Time 2, six months after Time 1, in relating to job performance at Time 3, one year after Time 1, was significantly positive ($\beta = 0.15$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.05$). Fig. 5 further described the pattern of the interactive effects: when employees had high levels of learning from volunteering, their participation in corporate volunteer programs was positively but not significantly related to job performance ($B = 0.02$, $s.e. = 0.13$, $t = 0.15$, $p > 0.05$); on the other hand, when employees had low learning from volunteering, participation in corporate volunteer programs became significantly and negatively related to job performance ($B = -0.27$, $s.e. = 0.14$, $t = -1.98$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Combined, the results revealed that coworker corporate volunteering negatively moderated the relationship between employee prosocial motivation and participation in corporate volunteer programs, such that the relationship was not significant when coworker corporate volunteering was high but was significantly positive when coworker corporate volunteering was low. Leader role modeling of volunteering, however, did not moderate this relationship. Social support from family and friends, on the other hand, positively moderated the relationship between employee prosocial motivation and participation in corporate volunteer programs, such that the relationship was only significantly positive when social support from family and friends was high. Furthermore, the results discovered that learning from corporate volunteering moderated the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance, such that the relationship was positive yet insignificant when learning from volunteering was high but became significantly negative when learning from volunteering was low.

5. Discussion

Although companies are increasingly adopting volunteer programs as a form of corporate social responsibility, we still do not know why some employees participate while others decline or whether and when corporate volunteering positively relates to job performance (Rodell, 2013; Wilson, 2000). Our study represents active efforts to seek answers and to offer meaningful theoretical and empirical contributions to the corporate volunteering literature.

5.1. Theoretical implications

Our key contribution lies in extending the theory and literature of volunteerism by showing that multiple interacting motives determine antecedents and consequences of employee participation in corporate volunteering. In accordance with the motivation-based theory of volunteerism (Clary & Snyder, 1991;

¹ We did supplementary analyses with each of the three moderators in the relationship between prosocial motivation and corporate volunteering entered separately. The results were consistent with the primary analysis with all interactions included. Specifically, in the model with coworker corporate volunteering as a moderator, the interaction between coworker corporate volunteering and prosocial motivation was significantly negative in relating to participation in corporate volunteer programs ($\beta = -0.37$, $s.e. = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$). In a separate model with social support from family and friends as a moderator, the interactive effect between social support and prosocial motivation was significantly positive ($\beta = 0.33$, $s.e. = 0.10$, $p < 0.001$).

Penner et al., 2005), people may participate in volunteering activities not just because of their internal prosocial values, but also due to influential social roles (e.g., colleagues at work and important others in life) and situational factors (e.g., knowledge characteristics and learning experiences of volunteering). However, theoretical development on the synergistic influences of multiple motives is surprisingly silent, and empirical evidence on their concurrent impacts is rather ambivalent. Building on the motivation-based theory of volunteerism and person-situation interactive approach of volunteerism (Clary & Snyder, 1999), we find that prosocial motivations interact differently with social factors from work and life domains to determine volunteering decisions. We show that coworker corporate volunteering substitutes for, and social support for corporate volunteering from family and friends strengthens, the positive effect of prosocial motivation on employee participation in volunteer programs. Furthermore, financial and social responsibility goals do not conflict; volunteerism does not distract from job performance when it provides positive learning experiences. We thus provide theoretical explanation and empirical assessment of *why* and *when* employees participate in company-sponsored volunteer programs and *when* corporate volunteering benefits or harms job performance. Using a time-lagged designed study, we take a contingency approach to enrich extant corporate volunteering research and provide preliminary insight for scholars and practitioners on antecedents and consequences of company-sponsored volunteerism.

Our research is connected with and extends Grant's (2012) framework. To our knowledge, Grant's is the only management theory that comprehensively discusses factors contributing to corporate volunteering. The theory builds on the motivation-based perspective of volunteerism to argue that employees seek opportunities for self-improvement and connections through corporate-sponsored volunteer programs when work fails to provide meaningful task characteristics (e.g., task autonomy, significance), supportive social interactions and friendships, or opportunities for skill variety and specialization. Grant (2012) highlighted work factors relating only to the jobs but not to volunteer programs. We focus instead on how leaders and coworkers directly respond to volunteer programs and whether their important social roles influence participation. We echo Grant's emphasis on work-related contexts for their critical role and substitutional impacts, but we build on and extend the framework by incorporating social factors from both work and life domains.

In another related and novel addition to the literature, we consider social influences from both work and life domains. Psychology and organization literatures have primarily discussed personal values or job characteristics that influence volunteerism (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Grant, 2012). Sociology literature has paid particular attention to the family domain (Wilson, 2000), but few researchers have integrated the perspectives or explored relationships among family, social, and work factors. We recognize that employees are holistically motivated by many influences from various domains. Specifically, we integrate motivation-based theory of volunteerism (Penner et al., 2005) and social influence theory (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) to argue that work and life domains have different salience and impacts on social normative influences interacting with employees' prosocial motivations. Because company-sponsored volunteer programs are workplace activities, leaders and coworkers will have stronger influences because their direct participation in volunteer programs will establish salient and normative influences that overcome the importance of employees' prosocial motivations. Family and friends in the life domain lack the institutional boundary and are less likely to generate salient norms. Instead, we find that life domain social support highlights the positive influence of prosocial motivation and interacts with prosocial motivation to affect volunteering decisions.

Thus, we integrate work, family, and social contexts with corporate volunteering and subsequent performance outcomes.

Interestingly and unexpectedly, we find that coworker but not leader participation replaces the positive role of employee prosocial motivation, perhaps because coworkers are more likely than leaders to elicit normative influences regarding needs to fit and be accepted by the work group (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Moscovici, 1980). Although social influence theory suggests that people behave in accordance with the advice of authority figures to gain rewards (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004), when leaders participate in corporate volunteering they are providing role models, which is not the same as explicit and vocal promotion of corporate volunteering or the use of rewards or punishment to coerce participation. Thus, leaders' participation is likely to send informative influences rather than normative pressure and may be too weak to suppress the impact of employees' prosocial motivation. In a study addressing different questions, coworker participation had a negative main effect on attitudes toward corporate volunteering and explicit manager support had no significant impact, contradicting the authors' expectations (Peloza et al., 2009). Future research should provide further empirical evidence and address the issue more deeply to better understand influences of leaders and coworkers in employee volunteering decisions.

We were also concerned with effects of corporate volunteering on job performance. Although company-sponsored volunteer programs are thought to have strategic value (Grant, 2012), empirical evidence for the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance is quite limited. Rodell (2013) conducted a pioneering study that investigated two contradicting directions of the relationship between employee volunteering and job performance and revealed that volunteering enhanced job performance. We extend that research and provide theoretical and empirical accounts of the conditions that will allow volunteerism to enhance or damage job performance. We find that volunteering has varying relationships with job performance depending on learning experiences gained from corporate volunteering. Interestingly, volunteering was positively but insignificantly related to job performance when volunteering provided valuable learning opportunities, but was significantly and negatively related to job performance in the absence of learning experiences. Employee participation in corporate volunteer programs had a nonsignificant overall main effect on job performance ($\beta = -0.12$, $s.e. = 0.08$, $p > 0.05$). Although the result provided support for the moderating effect of learning from corporate volunteering, it diverges from our expectation that corporate volunteering will be positively related to job performance when employees learn from volunteering experience. There are two potential explanations for why this might be. First, previous research on other volunteer behaviors at work has shown that engaging in prosocial behaviors may distract employees' attention from formal tasks (e.g., Bergeron et al., 2013; MacKenzie et al., 1999; Naumann & Bennett, 2002), which may offset the positive influence of the learnt volunteering experience on work performance. Second, different from other research studying volunteering behavior in general (e.g., Rodell, 2013), we focused on company-sponsored volunteer programs. Employees who volunteer on their own are likely to have more options and to choose the ones that are most interesting and best satisfy their needs for learning (Clary et al., 1998). Company volunteer programs, on the other hand, may offer limited choices, and may not necessarily match employees' interests and desires or enhance employees' capabilities that are beneficial to work performance. We encourage further replications of our research for a deeper understanding of corporate volunteering's impact on job performance and behavioral outcomes.

5.2. Practical implications

Our research offers valuable practical insights for companies and employees. First, our findings have valuable implications for companies wanting to encourage participation in volunteer programs. From a selection standpoint, companies may focus on prosocial motivation when selecting new employees because prosocial motivation sets the basis for participation in volunteer programs and becomes especially important when the volunteer programs have not attracted the attention of most employees. Furthermore, our finding of the substitutional person–situation interaction between prosocial motivation and coworker corporate volunteering accentuates the role of coworkers, especially when employees lack internal prosocial motivations. Companies can recognize the most excellent volunteers to motivate employees who lack prosocial motivation. Given that the life domain has a synergistic social support influence on prosocial motivation, companies may appeal to families and friends, perhaps by inviting them to educational seminars advocating volunteerism benefits and designing programs that reward their participation.

Second, companies should note that volunteer programs are less likely to distract from job performance when employees perceive that volunteering can give them positive learning experiences. Rather than doubt consequences, organizations should recognize that they can harmonize financial and social goals while contributing to the collective good (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Thus, companies should favor “win-win-win” decisions (Caligiuri et al., 2013, p. 825) that include initiatives to sponsor volunteer programs to fulfill social responsibilities with opportunities for employee learning. To assure that volunteer programs relate positively to job performance, companies should design programs that provide learning opportunities to develop skills that can be applied to the work domain. Employees should also recognize that although they give their time for free, they can gain valuable learning experiences, acquire new skills, build confidence, enhance their job performance, and contribute to the community.

5.3. Limitations and future directions

Our research is subject to several limitations that point to intriguing areas for future research. First, we integrate theories of social influence and the motivational approach of volunteerism to explain person–situation interactions between work and life social roles and prosocial motivation on corporate volunteering. We argue that volunteering behaviors of leaders and coworkers, but not emotional support from family and friends, are likely to exert normative and informative influences on employees and elicit their corresponding norm-congruent behaviors. Although consistent with the theory, we do not directly measure the underlying social norms coworkers or leaders generate. Contextual factors may also affect social normative influences. Leaders who have more positional or referent power are more likely to be influential role models, as will coworkers who are more similar and valuable to focal employees (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). These conditions point to future comprehensive examinations of social influences and social norms associated with leaders and coworkers. An anonymous reviewer suggested that when prosocially motivated employees see that their coworkers and leaders have already engaged in volunteer programs, they may feel that their volunteer service will have little additional prosocial impact, so they will fulfill their prosocial desires elsewhere. That is, leaders' and coworkers' volunteering behaviors may weaken employees' internal motivation to volunteer, for different reasons. Thus, several intriguing research questions remain: How do leaders' and coworkers' corporate volunteering participation affect employee perceptions of the social climate for volunteering and their

subsequent volunteer decisions? What contextual factors would inhibit or facilitate the creation of salient social norms? How would norm or climate influences alter the relation between employees' prosocial desires and volunteering choices?

Second, volunteerism is considered to be a universal phenomenon (Clary et al., 1998; Curtis, Grabb, & Baer, 1992) and corporate volunteering programs are gaining popularity throughout the world (Allen, Galiano, & Hayes, 2011; Cowlshaw et al., 2014). In 2015, 62.6 million people in the United States participated in volunteer programs (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016) and more than 100 million in China participated (China Volunteer Service Federation, 2015). Thus, our sample from China extends the external validity of the volunteerism theory originated and developed in the Western context. Using Rodell's (2013) five-item scale, employees indicated the frequency of participation on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *almost never*, 2 = *rarely*; 3 = *occasionally or sometimes*; 4 = *often*; 5 = *very often*). The average employee rating was 3.25 of 5; 59.7% indicated at least occasional participation. The mean value is comparable with the values Rodell (2013) reported with employee samples from the United States (mean = 3.10 of 5 in Study 1, and mean = 3.92 of 5 in Study 2). Although the participation rate is higher than the median value (9%) reported in CECF (2014), a follow-up study among the largest American companies that sponsored the same volunteer programs discovered that employee participation varies widely by company, with employee participation as high as 70% (American Express) or 65% (Microsoft), or as low as 3% (Xerox) or 5% (Nike and General Mills) (Double the Donation, 2016). Thus, our study constructs and findings using a large, private real estate company from China are compatible with those in the Western settings. Furthermore, the conceptual arguments used to derive the theory and hypotheses were not culturally bounded. Research on other prosocial behaviors such as citizenship behaviors have shown that the prosocial behaviors observed in the West can be generalized to China (e.g., Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009).

Nevertheless, given societal differences between the United States and China (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), we still need to consider whether our findings are culturally specific. People from more collectivist countries such as China, South Korea, and Mexico are likely to be more sensitive to peer behaviors and more likely to adjust their volunteering behaviors in accordance with the group in contrast with employees in more individualistic countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom. Similarly, employees in greater power distance cultures or cultures valuing conformance may be more submissive to volunteering behaviors of authority figures. Finkelstein (2011) showed that neither individualism nor collectivism was predictive of volunteering time, but suggested that people with different levels of individualism and collectivism may possess different reasons to volunteer. Thus, we encourage future research into the great array of cultural contexts to detect potential boundary roles of national cultural values.

We follow two recent representative studies (Rodell, 2013; Rodell & Lynch, 2016) that use self-reported volunteering measures. The subjective measure may be subject to social desirability concern, although employees may have the best knowledge about their volunteering engagement, and although companies often use employee self-reports to track participation rates and time expended (Booth et al., 2009; Points of Light Institute, 2010). Thus, more objective measures, such as third-party evaluations, might be more accurate.

Last, although companies often allow employees to perform volunteer work on company time to encourage participation in sponsored volunteer programs, some volunteer activities are conducted outside company time (Points of Light Institute, 2010). Indeed, our interviews with some randomly selected managers

and employees revealed that 30% of volunteer work time occurred after work. However, we did not measure volunteer time spent on and off company time, so we cannot state whether volunteer time divided between work and life domains alters influences of the two domains. If volunteer work is restricted to work hours, family support may be less important. If volunteer work occurs after work hours, life domain social support may be more salient. However, Pelozo et al. (2009) discovered that the time voluntary work was performed did not affect decisions to participate. Future research may further explore the role of time to more deeply understand how the social factors from different domains influence corporate volunteering.

6. Conclusion

Building on the motivation-based theory of volunteerism, our research provides theoretical and empirical accounts of *why* and *when* employees participate in company-sponsored volunteer programs and *when* corporate volunteering benefits or harms job performance. Integrating the social influence theory, we connect social factors from the work and life domains in affecting employee volunteer decisions and discover that coworker corporate volunteering substitutes, while social support from family and friends enhances, the positive association between employee prosocial motivation and their participation in corporate volunteer programs. Furthermore, we identify employees' learning experiences from corporate volunteering as a key boundary condition of the relationship between corporate volunteering and job performance. We hope our study stimulates future research for deepening the understanding of corporate volunteering and its antecedents and consequences.

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