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PhD Thesis

Effects of corporate volunteering on employee behaviors

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Introduction

Within the realm of organizational research, corporate volunteering has been defined as "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" (Grant, 2012, p. 593). As an increasingly popular practice within CSR, corporate volunteering (CV) has been seen as potentially linking the efforts of a company to contribute to sustainability, strengthen its corporate reputation, and create community-based support and employee engagement (Cycyota et al., 2016; Brzustewicz et al., 2021). Similarly, some scholars (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004; Peloza and Falkenberg, 2007) have also indicated that, in addition to economic bottom lines, positive environmental and social effects triggered by sustainability actions have become a priority for global companies. For example, The London Benchmarking Group (LBG), a global network of corporate community investment professionals, outlined in its 2015 annual report that corporate volunteering across its membership accounts for 7% of the overall contribution by companies to communities (Schlenkhoff-Hus, 2018). The Committee Encouraging Corporate Philanthropy (CECP), a coalition of more than 150 CEOs of major global companies, found that "53% of companies offered domestic Paid-Release-Time volunteer programmes in 2007. By 2012, 70% of companies had such a service" (Stroik 2013). In addition, Volonteurope (2015) indicated that Impact 2030, as a global private sector-led initiative, is "a testament to the importance now being accorded to corporate volunteering worldwide".

The analysis on the literature of corporate volunteering reveals that its concept has close associations with corporate social responsibility (CSR). For example, Gallardo et al. (2010, p. 62) suggested that "CV, which was originated with a philanthropic approach to social assistance, seems to be evolving towards a professional approach of added value, which is characteristic of CSR." With reference to the work conducted by Peloza and Shang (2011), CSR could be categorized into three broad categories: philanthropy, business practices, or product related. Of that, philanthropy is the dominant category of CSR activities and includes four main and popular forms in the systematic review. That is, cause-related marketing, cash donations, community involvement and employee volunteerism. Moreover, the internal and external benefits of CV could contribute significantly to organizational CSR strategies (Cycyota et al., 2016). Grant (2012, p. 610) also showed positive attitudes toward the

meaningfulness of researching corporate volunteering, that is "to study Corporate Volunteering as an increasingly widespread form of Corporate Social Responsibility".

Compared to the high importance of corporate volunteering on organizational development, only limited work could be found on the scope, knowledge structure and progress made within this literature (Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017). Grant (2012, p. 591) suggested that "Despite the importance of the sustained participation of employees in corporate volunteering programs, surprisingly little research has examined the factors that affect it." Similarly, Howard and Serviss (2021, p. 94) stated that "many authors have discussed employee volunteering more broadly, […] few provide a focused review of corporate volunteering programs". They also proposed that the theoretical development of corporate volunteering is not mature, and still needs more proper and accurate theories. On the other hand, the necessity of examining corporate volunteering at the individual level is proposed by some scholars (e.g., Wang et al., 2021). "Propositions about organizations are statements about human behavior" (March & Simon, 1958: 26), so it is employed individuals who are the main entities participating in corporate volunteering and generating its outcomes. In this vein, it is meaningful to shift the observation of corporate volunteering from the organizational level to the individual level. Thus, this thesis addresses the need to explain the essence of corporate volunteering and its influences on individual employee engagement in supporting relevant organizational outcomes.

The outcome of corporate volunteering is the main problem analyzed in this study. Howard and Serviss (2021) proposed that the potential relationship between corporate volunteering and employee attitudes (e.g., commitment) and the relationship between corporate volunteering and positive behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior) are most often researched by scholars (e.g., Houghton et al., 2009; Mozes et al., 2011). However, although these two outcomes are commonly focused on by papers, as well as by a well-established theoretical model (Rodell et al., 2016), there is still no consensus on the specific relationships between participation in volunteering and employee attitudes and behaviors. For example, Grant (2012) proposed that employee volunteering and workplace attitudes were positively related, while Mozes et al. (2011) believed that they were negatively related. To illustrate such an unclear relationship, Haski-Leventhal et al. (2019) explain that, even though there is a growing body of literature showing the relationship between corporate volunteering and workplace attitudes, it still lacks knowledge on the psychological mechanisms behind and leading to these outcomes. To respond to these arguments, this thesis has been designed.

The purpose of this thesis is to explore and explain the mechanisms by which corporate volunteering influences organizational commitment (OC) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) of employees participating in the volunteering.

Several reasons are considered in this thesis to examine the impact of corporate volunteering on the aforementioned attitudes and behaviors (i.e., OC and OCB). Firstly, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior are regarded as the most significant outcomes of corporate volunteering (Howard and Serviss, 2021). In the framework proposed by Rodell et al. (2016), OC and OCB are included in one subgroup, namely "work behaviors", as personal-level outcomes of corporate volunteering that all have powerful influences on employee and organizational success. As OC and OCB conceptually belong to the same subgroup, many scholars (e.g., Organ and Ryan, 1995; Bolon, 1997; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006) have also pointed out that they can influence each other. In order to avoid statistical error (e.g., common method variance; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), this thesis decided to separate its focus into two studies to explore the processes leading from corporate volunteering to, respectively, commitment and citizenship behavior. The choice of OC and OCB is motivated also by a theoretical background. Self-determination theory (SDT; Haski-Leventhal, 2019) provides the theoretical support to explain the mechanisms related to corporate volunteering, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. As explained by some scholars (e.g., Grant, 2007; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009), corporate volunteering, according to SDT, could be regarded as a means to satisfy employees' psychological needs in the workplace, which could in turn influence employees to commit affectively, and to act freely to help and benefit others. Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015) also found that employees could treat corporate volunteering as a stimulus to express organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors, if they perceived and interpreted organizational and supervisor support as a signal of care and well-being. On the other hand, some scholars (e.g., Brockner et al., 2014) attest to the value and meaning of researching the influence of corporate volunteering on work attitudes and behaviors. More specifically, if the mechanisms of corporate volunteering could paint a more optimistic picture of organizational commitment and citizenship behavior, it could definitely raise employees' morale and boost organizational productivity. Thus, by researching these two outcomes, the thesis could provide relevant and insightful explanations of corporate volunteering.

Additionally, in order to explain the processes leading from corporate volunteering to OC and OCB, several mediators are considered in this work, including positive relationships at work and job satisfaction. Substantial evidence could be found to prove the significance of job satisfaction in relation to OC and OCB (Katz, 1964; Bateman and Organ, 1983; Gaertner, 1999; Jernigan et al., 2002; Lok and Crawford, 2001). It has been suggested by Ragins and Dutton (2007) that positive relationships at work could function as a form of social capital, because high-quality connections in the organization generate valuable relational, economic, social and emotional assets. In addition, some papers (e.g., Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2011; Lechman and Popowska, 2020) have presented empirical evidence to illustrate how positive exchanges at work influence OC and OCB. In this vein, the development of specific hypotheses is included in the subsequent theoretical chapters.

In order to build the literature support and identify the importance of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior for corporate volunteering, meta-analysis was utilized preliminarily in this thesis. Then, the relationship between corporate volunteering and organizational commitment was examined based on the collected data in Study 1, and potential inner relationships with other related constructs were explored (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction). The sample data of Study 1 were collected in the banking sector in 2020 through self-reported online questionnaires. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilized to examine the moderating effects of corporate volunteering on organizational commitment. Study 2 mainly focused on the relationship between corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behavior. Since fewer companies organized corporate volunteering during the COVID-19 pandemic, the data in Study 2 was only investigated and collected from one financial service company that was still executing a CV program. In addition, due to fewer employees having participated in corporate volunteering during the pandemic, the sample size was small. Hence, in this study, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to ensure the quality of the proposed model.

The thesis makes several contributions. Firstly, it proposed empirical evidence to support the related theories (e.g., social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity). Haski-Leventhal et al.'s (2019) study, as the first paper to explore the psychological mechanisms related to employees' CV and positive workplace outcomes, calls for more empirical evidence to support their research. In response, the results of this thesis promote the understandings of corporate

volunteering and its outcomes underneath the mechanisms between perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work, job satisfaction and potential behavioral outcomes (i.e., affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior). Furthermore, based on the literature review, only rare quantitative papers focus on these relationships simultaneously in Poland. So, this thesis plays a pioneering role in exploring corporate volunteering and its individual outcomes. On the other hand, the results conducted by this thesis could provide some practical implications for organizations. In other words, this research may allow organizations to better understand the feelings and perceptions of employees engaged in corporate volunteering activities and what measures be will effective in motivating, recruiting and retaining employees as volunteers.

This work consists of six chapters. The first chapter presents the literature review on the essence of corporate volunteering and its related antecedents and outcomes in the thesis, especially the theoretical background to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. A meta-analysis was also conducted in this chapter to provide empirical support for the literature. The second and third chapters investigate how the relevant literature has addressed organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, respectively, related to corporate volunteering, as well as exploring related conceptual models and hypotheses. Then, the detailed information of Study 1 (corporate volunteering and organizational commitment) and Study 2 (corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behavior) is presented in the next two chapters. These include the process of data collection, the respondent characteristics, related measures and the results of hypotheses. Finally, this thesis discusses the two studies by briefly summarizing the major findings and including the theoretical and empirical implications, limitations and future research recommendations.

Chapter 1. Corporate volunteering

1.1. The essence of corporate volunteering

There is no consensus on the definition of corporate volunteering, as scholars have typically adopted different definitions and measurement approaches (Rodell et al., 2016). Maignan and Ferrell (2001) defined corporate volunteering as a salient activity of corporate social responsibility that could demonstrate proactive and discretionary corporate citizenship. Lorenz, Gentile and Wehner (2011) defined corporate volunteering comprehensively from the view of the company, saying that "the company invites its employees to engage voluntarily and actively beyond their specific job description in charitable endeavors—often in cooperation with nonprofit-organizations, while possibly investing additional resources". Additionally, some scholars (e.g., Do Paço et al., 2013) treat "employee volunteering" similarly to "corporate volunteering", although some scholars distinguish between the two concepts (e.g., Rodell et al., 2016). Rodell et al. (2016) defined employee volunteering as any volunteering exhibited by employees, regardless of whether the volunteering is conducted through a company initiative (i.e., corporate volunteering), or in the employee's own time (i.e., personal volunteering). That is, the concept of employee volunteering is larger than corporate volunteering. However, de Gilder et al. (2005) argued that employee volunteering could also be considered as volunteer work invested by the company during office hours, which blurs the distinction between corporate volunteering and employee volunteering. Compared to employee volunteering, corporate volunteering is often defined as the formal volunteering programs of organizations (Grant, 2012; Rodell et al., 2016).

Corporate volunteers should be distinguished from volunteers who are unpaid employees in the organization. As defined by Metz et al. (2017), volunteers are those individuals who provide services for an agency or organization without obligation and without receiving financial compensation from their work. Musick and Wilson (2008) proposed that, based on a "net-cost" definition of volunteering, volunteers sacrifice more than they gain from the experience. Rodell et al. (2016, p. 4) also explained that "the notion of volunteers 'sacrificing' is particularly problematic when defining employee volunteering, as many employees volunteer on company time and, thus, receive some form of monetary compensation". Thus, "corporate volunteers"

and “volunteers” are two different terms. This thesis only examines the effects of corporate volunteering on employee behaviors.

Some scholars (e.g., Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017) have proposed that corporate volunteering could be defined by three vital components. Rodell et al. (2016) also suggested that these components of corporate volunteering are akin to the three core elements of employee volunteering, and that could also be considered as a side note to demonstrate the blurred lines between the definitions of CV and EV. These three components of corporate volunteering are: (1) employees freely offer their time and competences to work for specific beneficiaries; (2) their actions are planned; (3) companies encourage and support them in participating in volunteering (Grant, 2012; Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017; Glińska-Neweś & Górka, 2020).

More specifically, the first dimension is that the company could provide free time to employees for volunteering, not simply financial donations (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Wilson, 2000). This means that the employees would participate in the volunteering activities actively, which is distinct from passive contributions requested by the organizations (e.g., that employees make financial donations). The key point is focused on the giving of time, regardless of whether employees utilize their professional skills and capacities during their volunteering time (Rodell et al., 2016). That is, if volunteering programs are outside of employees' normal work behaviors (e.g., a professor volunteering on a house build), then although their efforts are limited, they would still be considered as completing volunteering activities. Then, another key feature of corporate volunteering is “planned activities”, which implies these volunteering behaviors are not spontaneous acts of helping (Penner, 2002). Other scholars (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Clary et al., 1998) also support the idea that employees' actions could be regarded as a prototype of planned helping that often requires considerable planning, sorting out of priorities and matching of personal abilities and interests to the type of intervention. For example, an employee who registers to take care of and educate children on Saturdays is volunteering, while an employee who helps a disabled person to cross the road on the way to the company is not volunteering. The third feature is the positive role of companies involved in the volunteering. According to the definition of corporate volunteering suggested by Lorenz, Gentile and Wehner (2011), employees would be invited by the company to engage in the volunteering activities. Based on this definition, the role of the company in providing volunteering programs is described in the term “invites” (Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017), requiring the company's

active involvement in activities (Meijs & van der Voort, 2004). Additionally, some studies (Peloza & Hassay, 2006; Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017) categorize volunteerism as interorganizational and intraorganizational volunteerism. In the former case, the company provides time or financial assistance to its employees to carry out voluntary activities, while in the latter case the company itself organizes the provision of voluntary activities. As reported by the employee volunteering organization Instytut Wolontariatu Pracowniczego (2020), employees from Bank Gospodarstwa Krajowego could actively choose and participate in volunteering activities (e.g., "Wolontariat jest super" and "Dobro – Podaj dalej!"), as they knew perfectly well who in their immediate surroundings, their district or city, needs help. For example, in the "Małe marzenia do spełnienia" Christmas project, employed volunteers could impersonate Santa Claus and give gifts to needy children to deliver a smile and some hope. Even during the pandemic, volunteers organized what online and offline meetings were possible, and they also participated in unique soap-making workshops to raise the spirits of the sick and lonely.

For the definition of corporate volunteering, some aspects are debated by some scholars (e.g., Booth et al., 2009; Wilson, 2000). The first contested area is the motivation behind the volunteering behaviors. Although some papers would attribute the internal mechanism of such behaviors to a sort of altruism – that volunteering is "given freely", that it is "non-obligatory" or done with the purpose of "benefitting" others (Wilson, 2000; Penner, 2002; Rodell et al., 2016). Haski-Leventhal et al. (2019) also proposed self-determination theory to explain such altruistic motivations, as volunteering could be seen as a way to meet the basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. However, some scholars (e.g., Clary et al., 1998) proposed that volunteering intentions are diverse, such as fulfilling individual values, socializing with others and avoiding or escaping individual troubles. In this line, one question of volunteering motivations is raised – that is, whether the individual intentions of employees are the true motivations behind corporate volunteering. Booth et al. (2009) suggested that employees would participate in employee volunteering activities, in order to manage their supervisors' impressions of them, or in an attempt to receive recognition at work. Boštjančič et al. (2018) also provided empirical evidence to indicate that employees engaged more in corporate volunteering would have a higher level of autonomy and support from their coworkers and supervisors in the company. Another question is whether the volunteering activities could truly benefit employees. Some studies have shown that the employees could be seen to some extent as the beneficiary of volunteering activities. For example, Devereux (2008)

proposed a positive relationship between corporate volunteering participation and the development of employee competences. Corporate volunteering could offer more opportunities for employees to learn and develop their knowledge and skills by bridging diverse spheres of their personal resources, as volunteering activities are distinct from their work duties (Sundeen and Raskoff, 1994; Mirvis, 2012; Glińska-Neweś et al., 2019; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). However, the "net-cost" definition of volunteering proposed by Musick & Wilson (2008) indicates that volunteers sacrifice more than they receive in their volunteering activities. Although this definition was refuted by empirical research and is hard to evaluate, some scholars (e.g., Omoto &Snyder, 1995; Clary et al., 1998) still mentioned the concept of "sacrifice" in their definitions of volunteering. Rodell and his colleagues (2016) questioned whether the notion of "sacrifice" in corporate volunteering was not problematic, as many employees would participate in volunteering during office hours (e.g., MacPhail & Bowles, 2009) and, in turn, receive some form of compensation in the company.

The initial studies of corporate volunteering could be considered as the cornerstone of this field, and the increasingly complex theoretical models that stem from these established findings have also been created and developed subsequently (Howard & Serviss, 2021). For example, there are intricate theoretical models of corporate volunteering proposed in the research of Rodell et al. (2016) and Grant (2012) on the potential supported and unsupported relations in the perspectives of both individual and organization. The models could be considered as the theoretical core of this research directions by some papers (e.g., Hu et al., 2016; Skurak et al., 2019), which could motivate more new proposals and empirical evidence to test related theoretical relations and find some newly proposed relations. Additionally, the research of corporate volunteering regarding its antecedents and outcomes could be considered as the base in this field, and the development of this base has brought the study of corporate volunteering to an inflection point (Howard & Serviss, 2021).

In addition to the academic development of corporate volunteering, companies too have been paying more attention on the importance of corporate volunteering programs in recent years. Boccalandro (2009) proposed that over 90% of *Fortune 500* companies offer plenty of opportunities for employees to participate in employee volunteering activities and would also provide formal sponsorship and subsidies for employees to perform community service and outreach activities on company time. Some papers (Allen, 2003; Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015; Pajo & Lee, 2011) also pointed out that corporate volunteering has become one of the

fastest growing corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities, especially in the UK, Western Europe and North America. Booth, Park and Glomb (2009) suggested that the hours of corporate volunteering could increase by approximately 45% per year, if the company could support employees' volunteering in several ways (e.g., approve time off and modify schedules and the use of resources). For example, in 2021 alone, employees supported from the "VoluntEARS" program in Disney gave more than 340,000 hours to employee volunteering, although most volunteering activities were virtual due to COVID-19 restrictions (Disney, 2021).

1.2. Antecedents of corporate volunteering

Regarding the antecedents of employee participation in corporate volunteering, researchers often categorize them by three aspects: individual/employee, workplace and organizational/company levels (Rodell et al., 2016; Glińska-Neweś et al., 2019). Among them, some factors (e.g., demographic factors) could be found in the research on volunteering generally; others, however, are only utilized in the organizational context, such as the aspects of job design and work context (Grant, 2012). Detailed explanations are shown below.

Individual/employee factors. The studies related to corporate volunteering on the individual level mainly focus on the fields of sociology and social psychology (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Studies conducted by Hu et al. (2016) and Haski-Leventhal et al. (2019) proposed that certain employees are more likely to participate than others, which is typically explained in three aspects: (1) to satisfy pro-social, altruistic or empathic humanitarian concerns; (2) to comply with socially developed norms and gain a positive self-image and the social recognition of significant others; (3) to gain learning through new experiences for professional benefit. -Thus, research on corporate volunteering on the individual level could enhance the understanding of some individual differences. Based on such considerations, some scholars (e.g., Olson-Buchanan, Bryan & Thompson, 2013; Rodell et al., 2016) identified four main classes of antecedents associated with corporate volunteering in both general and organizational environment that included demographics, personality traits, motives and identity.

Demographic factors of corporate volunteering could be divided into two categories: one is gender, and the other includes age, education and tenure (Howard & Serviss, 2021). In order

to understand the relationship between gender and corporate volunteering, it is worth mentioning gender-role theories, which suggest that women are more likely to expect to be cared for and nurtured by others, as compared to men (Taniguchi, 2006; Crites et al., 2015). Based on this theory, it is explainable that women perhaps are more expected to participate in corporate volunteering. The first reason is that, compared to men, women are more socialized and caring toward others because of the education and information they received throughout their lives (Taniguchi, 2006; Crites et al., 2015). The second reason is that women often risk losing more than men if they cannot fulfill their roles well in society (Howard & Serviss, 2021). They give the example that a female employee is more likely to be labeled as "bossy" or worse if they are not obviously relationship-oriented. Therefore, female employees are more likely to participate in volunteering than male employees, as they would face more negative ramifications, even some potential penalties, for not participating in the organization. However, although many studies (e.g., Lee & Brudney, 2012; Cornwell & Warburton, 2014) tend to show that female employees are more active than males in volunteering, some scholars (e.g., Houston, 2006; Houghton, Gabel & Williams, 2009; Rodell, 2013) argued that the evidence of volunteering time spent by gender was mixed. For other individual antecedents (i.e., age, education and tenure), age was examined by some scholars (e.g., DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2007; Cornwell & Warburton, 2014; Musick & Wilson, 2008) and could positively influence corporate volunteering. Furthermore, the positive relationship between education and volunteering was also examined. That is, employees with a higher education were more likely to spend more time participating in volunteering activities (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006; Marshall & Taniguchi, 2012). To explain the significance between these demographics and corporate volunteering, some scholars (Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Fagenson, 1992) attributed it to the potential influence of power and autonomy. They explained that the older, more experienced and higher-educated employees typically had more organizational power and decision-making autonomy to motivate them to participate more in corporate volunteering, as they have more freedom to actively decide their behaviors over work tasks. Conversely, they also found that employees with less power and lower autonomy participated less in volunteering activities, even if they had available opportunities, which mainly occurred among those younger, less-experienced and less-educated employees in the company.

Regarding personal traits, Rodell et al. (2016) indicated that the closest construct to volunteering was prosocial personality (Penner et al., 1995), which was a two-dimensional construct composed of other-oriented empathy (prosocial thoughts and feelings) and

helpfulness (a behavioral tendency to help). Similarly, some scholars (Hu et al., 2006; Houghton et al., 2009) also proposed that prosocial traits, including prosocial orientations, ethical orientations and empathy, were the popular directions alongside corporate volunteering participation. These traits could reflect altruism from employees' behaviors. In other words, those employees who are more inclined to care about the interests of others are more likely to volunteer (Howard & Serviss, 2021). Furthermore, some studies (e.g., Elshaug & Metzer, 2001; Carlo et al., 2005) also found the significant relationship between personalities and volunteering in researching the five-factor model. In their research, the agreeable and extravert employees were more likely to decide to volunteer. However, Erez et al. (2008) found that the corporate volunteering time spent by employees was not influenced by personality.

The motives for volunteering have been examined by many studies (e.g., Calry et al., 1998; Rodell et al., 2016) and could be categorized generally as self- and other-oriented motives. Clary and Snyder (1999) explained that volunteering behaviors could be triggered when the volunteering served certain functions for individuals. Such an explanation is consistent with the propositions of Ajzen (1991) and Marta et al. (2014) – that perceptions are a key determinant of intentions and related behaviors. For the conceptual distinctions of self-oriented and other-oriented motives, the former mainly focus on the potential results for volunteers (e.g., to build or increase self-esteem, learn new knowledge and skills, and maintain social relationships), while the latter mainly focus on increasing well-being among the beneficiaries of the volunteering activities (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Clary et al., 1998; Musick & Wilson, 2008). Empirically, volunteering behaviors are typically not simply driven by a single motivation. In other words, self- and other-oriented motivations could influence corporate volunteering simultaneously (Geroy, Wright & Jacoby, 2000; Kiviniemi, Snyder & Omoto, 2002). For example, many studies (Peloza & Hassay, 2006; Peloza et al., 2009; Pajo & Lee, 2011; Brockner et al., 2014) found that altruistic and prosocial motives drive employees to participate in volunteering to deliver helping behavior, while they also hope to manage workplace relationships and impressions with supervisors through their participation.

The final individual antecedent of corporate volunteering is role identity, which is not examined by many studies on their relationship. Penner (2002) and Grube and Piliavin (2000) showed that prior volunteering experiences, prosocial values and individual differences would build the role identity of volunteering, which would influence volunteering hours and

persistence. Rodell (2013) suggested that employees with prosocial identity preferred to participate in more volunteering activities in the company.

Workplace factors. As suggested by Rodell et al. (2016), workplace factors generally include: job design and the work context.

Many papers (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rodell, 2013) have proposed the significance of the relationship between job design and employee volunteering. However, the interpretations of this significant relationship are completely opposite in different studies. Slattery et al. (2010) explained that employees appreciated their desirable job, as the job design was both interesting and challenging, and, in turn, they were more likely to reciprocate towards organizations by participating in corporate volunteering, which was consistent with the job characteristics model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). In other words, corporate volunteering, as a sort of spilled behavior, could motivate employees' positive attitudes toward job and organization (Willson & Musick, 1997). By contrast, some scholars (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grant, 2012) have suggested completely different interpretations based on the theories of work–nonwork relationships. They reported that corporate volunteering was driven by compensatory motives. More specifically, employees try to seek job meaningfulness from volunteering activities to compensate for what they feel to be a lack of meaningfulness in their work. Similarly, Rodell (2013) found that employees with less meaningful jobs are more likely to find compensation through meaningful volunteer experiences compared to employees with highly meaningful jobs. In addition, gender-specific differences might also affect the "job design–corporate volunteering" relationship to a certain degree (Marshall and Taniguchi, 2012).

Work context includes work schedules, payment schedules and job uncertainty, which could influence employees' autonomy on volunteering activities (Rodell et al., 2016). For work schedules, Gomez and Gunderson (2003) proposed that split shifts or telecommuting, as opposed to regular daytime work and rotating shifts, will make employees more likely to participate in corporate volunteering. Then, some papers (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2007) showed that payment schedule would influence volunteering participation, regardless of willingness to participate. They explained that time for volunteering was often granted by the organization, but that, compared to salaried employees, workers paid by the hour had fewer possibilities and less time to participate in corporate volunteering. Additionally, in order to identify the relationship between job uncertainty and employee volunteering,

Pavlova and Silbereisen (2014) noted that employees who actively focus on dealing with career uncertainty early in their careers were more likely to volunteer than those who simply disengaged from their perceived uncertainty.

Organizational factors. It could be categorized into several broad categories: CSR orientation, support (i.e., time, finance and logistics), employer recognition, publicity and organizational size (Brammer and Millington, 2005; Basil et al., 2011; Rodell et al., 2016). Committee Encouraging Corporate Philanthropy (CECP, 2014) reports that the participation rates of employee volunteering increase each year, which is consistent with the results reported by Points of Light Foundation (2006) that most companies have some connections with employee volunteering. Furthermore, some studies (e.g., Peterson, 2004b; Basil et al., 2009; Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015) examined different kinds of companies' involvements in supporting corporate volunteering to some extent, such as providing time awards for volunteering, recognizing employee volunteering and providing financial support in the form of donations to charities or reimbursement of employee volunteering costs.

As for the definitions of CSR orientation, based on the studies conducted by Tang and Tang (2012) and Sheel and Vohra (2016), it refers to the organization's propensity for ethical business practices and the benefits provided to the community surrounding the company. It can be described by expenditure on CSR initiatives and/or the extent to which the organization incorporates CSR into its values (e.g., mission statements, company reports and employee perceptions). Organizations with strong CSR orientations are more likely to encourage employees to donate their skills and time in corporate volunteering, because such volunteering initiatives could be beneficial and visible to the community, which could build a positive image and reputation for the companies (Sheel & Vohra, 2016).

Then, among different kinds of support, time-based support provided by the organizations is the most common in volunteering (Peterson, 2004b). Typically, time-based support includes two types: providing paid time off for employees and allowing employees to adjust their working hours to participate in volunteering (Rodell et al., 2016). For example, Cavallaro (2006) indicated that approximately 50% to 80% companies supported the first type of time-based support. After three years, Basil et al. (2009) found that approximately 80% of companies supported the second type. The financial and logistical support imply that the companies provide the monetary and physical assets to support employees' volunteering (Booth et al.,

2009). Compared to the time-based support, this category has a wider range of actions that include: providing employees with access to company facilities and equipment (e.g., Cavallaro, 2006; Basil et al, 2009); encouraging employees to participate in company volunteering (e.g., MacPhail & Bowles, 2009); and making financial contributions to relevant charities (e.g., Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015).

Employer recognition could typically be expressed in several forms to encourage employees, such as receptions or lunches, letters of appreciation, commendations, and articles in newsletters or newspapers (Peterson, 2004b; Cavallaro, 2006). The CECP (2014) reported that slightly more than 50% of companies indicated that their employees were participating in corporate volunteering with several forms of rewards and recognition. Companies use different strategies to deliver volunteering opportunities to their employees, whether passive (e.g., employees need to seek volunteering chances by themselves) or active (e.g., the organization actively discloses volunteering opportunities) (Basil et al., 2009; Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015). Furthermore, some companies also provide extra education for employees to understand the importance of volunteering and to make rational and suitable choices when they face diverse volunteering activities (Basil et al., 2009).

Finally, organizational size is also considered as a company-level antecedent of corporate volunteering (Basil et al., 2011). Howard and Serviss (2021) explained that organizational size was a strong factor influencing whether the organization could provide and arrange spare resources for volunteering opportunities for their employees. They proposed that, compared to large companies, smaller companies should utilize their more limited resources to maintain and perform necessary organizational functions to build their core competency, rather than allocating them to volunteering activities for employees. As noted by the core competency theory (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990), the company builds its core competency by developing its "fundamental bas[es] for the value added by the firm". In other words, the companies need to make sure that their core competency could help keep them safe from market competitions, and, if safe, they are qualified to arrange related resources to develop other organizational functions (e.g., CSR activities). In this vein, Basil et al. (2011) suggested that, compared to smaller companies, larger companies could maintain the core market competency while still having more resources available for employees to participate in related CSR activities (e.g., corporate volunteering). Larger organizations are more inclined to participate in corporate

volunteering to show their CSR responsibilities to the communities, which could also help them build positive business reputations and images.

However, some studies examining the relationship between organizational antecedents and corporate volunteering reached the opposite findings. For example, Peloza et al. (2009) found that the influences of time-based support and employer recognition on volunteering seemed unsignificant. Stukas et al. (1999) proposed that further volunteering intentions might decline when volunteers perceived the activities were mandatory. Their findings could provide the explanation for previous study conducted by O'Reilly and Chatman (1996), which reported that employees might resist or rebel if companies managed them based on formal rules and policies rather than on norms and behaviors.

1.3. Outcomes of corporate volunteering

As noted by Glińska-Neweś et al. (2019), the outcomes of corporate volunteering, especially the effects in employee behaviors and attitudes, have remained rather scattered in the literature. Previous studies (e.g., Harlow & Cantor, 1996; Musick, Herzog & House, 1999) have shown the outcomes of volunteering to include volunteers being more likely to have a higher level of self-esteem and life satisfaction, as well as better health and lower depression. With respect to corporate volunteering, Do Paço and Nave (2013) noted that it could help companies promote social equity, health and balance, as well as fostering a positive relationship between employees and related communities. In addition, positive outcomes of corporate volunteering also include increases in employee performance (Jones, 2010), organizational citizenship behaviors (Lin et al., 2010), work engagement (Glavas and Piderit, 2009), organizational commitment (Greening and Turban, 2000) and strength of interpersonal relationships (Glavas and Piderit, 2009). To sum up, the outcomes could be separated into two broad groups: employee-level and organizational-level outcomes. More specifically, the former includes four aspects (i.e., commitment, positive behaviors, satisfaction and well-being), and the latter includes two aspects (i.e., company reputation and company attractiveness)

Employee-level outcomes. The importance of commitment has been explained and proved by many studies (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). Meyer and Maltin (2010) concluded that employees were more inclined to show their satisfaction and commitment when they perceived

that their needs could be better met by participating in corporate volunteering. To understand the mechanism between corporate volunteering and commitment, work meaningfulness could be regarded as the mediator (Haski-Leventhal, 2019). Work meaningfulness is typically experienced by people when they feel worthwhile, useful and valuable (Kahn, 1990). In this vein, positive feelings (e.g., sense of value and significance) motivated by employees' participation in corporate volunteering could help them perceive work meaningfulness, which, in turn, more easily induces job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cohen-Meitar et al., 2009; De Roeck et al., 2014; Chaudhary and Akhouri, 2019).

Positive behaviors can be separated into two groups: job performance and employee retention (Rodell et al., 2016; Howard & Serviss, 2021). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and counterproductive behaviors are included in job performance, which are typically treated as, respectively, the positive and negative outcomes of corporate volunteering (Jones, 2010). To understand the positive association between OCB and corporate volunteering, Kim et al. (2010) interpreted that participation in corporate volunteering could build employees' trust and pride in their organization, subsequently fostering a strong organizational identification and motivating employees' positive workplace behaviors. In addition, as employees could learn and develop new skills through corporate volunteering, some studies (Bartsch, 2012; Mirvis, 2012; Belle, 2013; Do Paço et al., 2013) suggested that volunteering could facilitate employees' job-related and emotional competency, which also motivated employees' OCB to a certain degree. As for the relationship between employee retention and corporate volunteering, it is also examined by some studies (e.g., Peloza & Hassay, 2006). Typically, greater participation in corporate volunteering could significantly increase employees' retention in the organization, because volunteering provided extra opportunities for employees to cultivate their social capital to increase their social resources and expand the boundaries of their interpersonal relationships (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003; Peterson, 2004a; Glińska-Neweś et al., 2019). Peloza and Hassay (2006) also concluded that employees showed their intentions to seek other work opportunities if their companies potentially reduced support for corporate volunteering. To sum up, due to the norm of reciprocity, employees are more likely to perform workplace positive behaviors as a signal to pay back to the organization if they could perceive positively during corporate volunteering (Settoon et al., 1996; Hu et al., 2016).

Satisfaction was categorized by Rodell et al. (2016) as the subgroup of personal outcomes in the consequences of corporate volunteering. Some theories could be used to explain such a

factor. For example, the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) identified by Hackman and Lawler (1971) proposes three "critical psychological states" that should be reinforced if a job is to be internally motivating. In addition, Self-Determination Theory (SDT), proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), also indicates that, as the basis of human behaviors, different types of motivation vary with the degree of self-determination. As noted by Millette and Gagné (2008), these theories are often invoked to understand outcomes of employee volunteering. That is, corporate volunteering could be seen as a way for employees to achieve and satisfy their internal motivations (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009). Particularly, a variety of personal needs could be satisfied by corporate volunteering, such as a sense of accomplishment (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2013), a sense of belonging (e.g., Mojza et al., 2011) and a sense of meaningfulness (e.g., Brockner et al., 2014), which could help employees to develop and grow from the volunteering experiences. Although corporate volunteering often operates in group settings, and perhaps employees only participate in a certain component of broader projects, it could typically grant a higher sense of task identity to the employees involved (Millette & Gagné, 2008).

The last employee-level outcome is well-being. Volunteering activities could help employees balance the relationship between work pressure and individual well-being. For example, Mojza et al. (2011) concluded from a two-week diary study that employees could detach psychologically from their work by participating in volunteering activities. Moreover, their emotional states could become more positive and less negative the following day at work, as volunteering could meet their psychological needs to some extent. Similarly, studies conducted by Peloza and Hassay (2006) and Booth et al. (2009) also showed a positive association between employee volunteering and well-being. They proposed that employees participating in corporate volunteering would be more likely to receive recognition and appreciation from their supervisors for their efforts in the organization.

Organizational-level outcomes. Company reputation and company attractiveness, as noted by Rodell et al. (2016), could be regarded as the outcomes of corporate volunteering at the organizational level. Due to considerations on corporate volunteering improving the reputations and images of the company, some scholars (e.g., de Gilder et al., 2005) began to research their relationships theoretically and empirically. Previous studies (e.g., Wild, 1993) proposed that consumer behaviors could be affected by the perceived social responsibility of the company. Consistent with their findings, Veleva et al. (2012) suggested that consumers and

community members held positive attitudes toward corporate volunteering programs, which were typically perceived as a sort of selfless endeavor conducted by the company for the benefit of their community. In turn, consumers and community members could recognize and appreciate such beneficial organizational behaviors. Similarly, Mattila and Hanks (2013) indicated that thoughtful consumers were more likely to have positive perceptions of a company with a higher frequency of corporate volunteering participations. Correspondingly, most companies, from as early as 2000, have tried to organize and invest in employee volunteering in order to build harmonious public relations and a positive corporate image (Points of Light Foundation, 2000). Furthermore, corporate volunteering may positively influence company attractiveness, which might influence companies' recruitment process (Jones & Willness, 2013). Jones et al. (2014) found that, based on the related theories (e.g., social identity), recruitment materials that included information about corporate volunteering participation were more attractive to potential employees, because they signaled the prestige and value of the company. Deloitte Development (2011) shows that approximately 70% of millennials are inclined to decide where to work based on the extent of a company's community involvement. Points of Light (2019) also reports that approximately 94% of organizations show positive attitudes towards community engagement programs in order to support their marketing and PR initiatives.

1.4. Affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors as outcomes of employee participation in corporate volunteering. Results of Meta-Analysis

The meta-analysis of corporate volunteering (CV) was tested preliminarily for Study 1 and Study 2. The main purpose of this analysis is to provide the statistical support from related literature to emphasize the significance of and need to explore the effects of CV on affective commitment (AC) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). This could also shed light on the motivations of two studies in this thesis. In this vein, this meta-analysis only focused on how CV influences AC and OCB, respectively. It is notable that, although organizational commitment is a three-dimensional construct, only affective commitment, as one subdimension, was examined in the present thesis for several reasons. First, the conception and measurement of organizational commitment proposed by Mowday et al. (1982) is closest to the affective commitment proposed by Allen and Mayer (1997), which was also the measurement scale used in this thesis. Second, as recommended by Haski-Leventhal et al. (2019), affective commitment

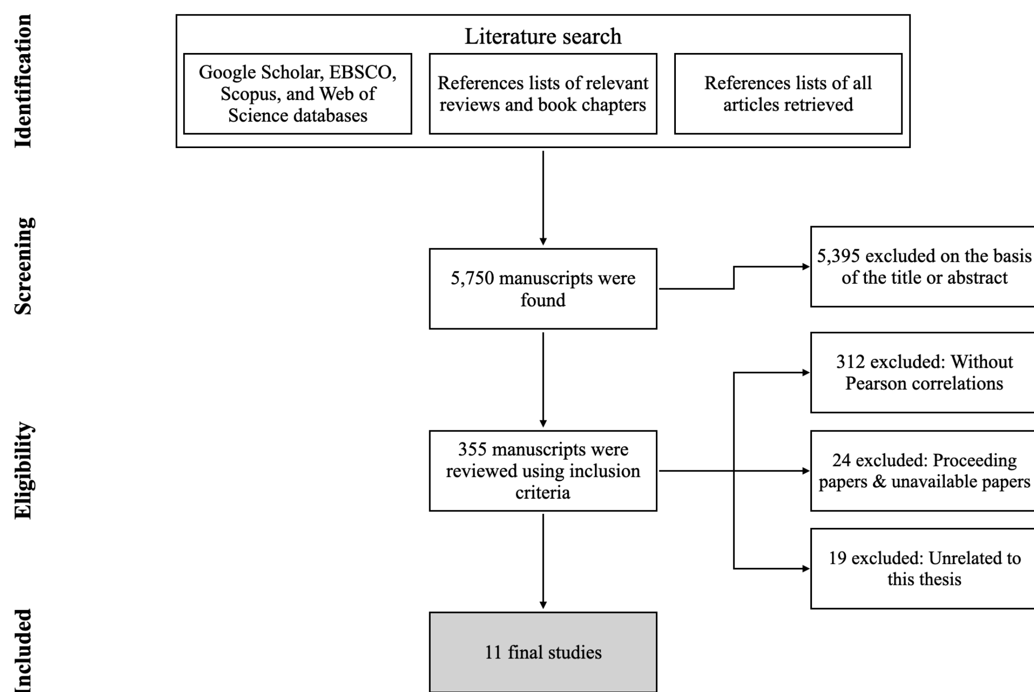
could help elucidate corporate volunteering based on the organizational psychological framework (e.g., self-determination theory). Third, many papers (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mohamed & Ali, 2016; Soulen, 2003; Williams & Hazer, 1986) have proved the significance between affective commitment and related constructs (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction). Many studies emphasize the importance of both AC and OCB on corporate volunteering. De Glider et al. (2015) provide empirical evidence for significant correlations among corporate volunteering, commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Frank-Alston (2001) suggested that corporate volunteering had a positive impact on affective commitment and productivity. Peloza and Hassay (2006) suggested that their insights from the OCB literature could be considered particularly relevant to the study of employee volunteering, because volunteering focused on understanding and motivating pro-social behaviors in the workplace. Thus, it seems worthwhile to examine the influence of AC and OCB in corporate volunteering activities.

Meta-analysis is defined as the process of integrating the results of multiple studies, primarily through a specific topic to systematically collect and analyze relevant literature (Shelby & Vaske, 2008). This meta-analysis referred to the Preferred Reporting of Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) criteria (Moher et al., 2015), as well as the calculating approach proposed by Hedges and Olkin (1985). The literature search was conducted in Google Scholar, EBSCO, Scopus and Web of Science databases in November 2021. Every keyword was searched and examined individually in these databases. This study used the keywords "Corporate", "Corporate-Sponsored", "Company", "Company-Sponsored", "inter-organizational", "interorganizational", "intra-organizational", "intraorganizational", "extra-organizational", "extraorganizational", "workplace" and "Employee" followed by "Volunteer*" (with quotations surrounding word pairs). Additionally, the study also searched the reference lists of all retrieved papers and chapters. In order to prevent publication bias (Borenstein et al., 2005), emails were also sent to relevant authors to ask for unpublished data or results. The software mainly used for meta-analysis was Comprehensive Meta-Analysis Version 3.3.

Regarding the inclusion criteria, Figure 1 (PRIMA flow diagram, Moher et al., 2015) shows all the details of the process of the selected study. Initially, 5750 resources were identified in the meta-analytic database, including articles, dissertations, theses, unpublished data, conference presentations and book chapters. Coding was done by four researchers (including

the thesis author), and included: the titles, author(s) of the study, publication years, outcomes (relationships), research object(s), software(s), research area, publication languages, sample size, correlation coefficients, scales and the role of corporate volunteering. The meta-analysis also coded whether the source reported quantitative results regarding participation in a corporate volunteering program, which reduced the number of initial resources to 355. Then, the researchers coded whether the source reported an effect size (Pearson coefficient) representing the relationships of "CV–AC" and "CV–OCB". As suggested by Hedges and Pigott (2004), effect size (*r*-value) and related confidence interval were also analyzed in this thesis as important indicators to adjust the quality of related studies. Furtherly, 11 studies were recorded in the final list. The characteristics of those works are provided in Table 1.

Figure 1. PRIMA flow diagram



Source: Own study

Table 1. Characteristics of selected studies

Author(s)/Study name	Respondents	Year	Object	Area	Scales of CV	Role of CV	Outcome	Correlation
Bavik, 2019	238	2019	Employees & Supervisors	Hotel	A five-item volunteering scale (Rodell, 2013)	Mediator	CV to OCB	0.07
Cao, 2019 (thesis paper)	159	2019	-	Various	None, respondents are employees engaged in CV	Independent Variable	CV to OCB	0.18
Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015 (1st wave)	107	2015	Employees	Insurance Company	seven-item, developed from their qualitative study	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.14
Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015 (2nd wave)	102	2015	Employees	Airline Company	seven-item, developed from their qualitative study	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.26
Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015 (3rd wave)	95	2015	Employees	Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs)	seven-item, developed from their qualitative study	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.31
Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015 (4th wave)	97	2015	Employees	Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs)	seven-item, developed from their qualitative study	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.18
Hoerter, 2016 (thesis paper)	104	2016	Employees	Various	A sixteen-item volunteering scale (Hurst, 2012)	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.48
Huang, 2016	368	2016	-	Various	A two-item volunteering scale (Kim et al., 2010)	Mediator	CV to AC	0.31
Khari & Sinha, 2020	288	2020	Employees	Telecommunication	A sixteen-item volunteering scale (Hurst, 2012)	Dependent Variable	CV to AC	0.62
Loi et al., 2020	136	2020	Employees	Universities	A nineteen-item volunteering scale (Hyde & Knowles, 2013)	Independent Variable	CV to OCB	0.46
Rodell, 2013	171	2013	Employees	Various	A five-item volunteering scale (Rodell, 2013)	Mediator	CV to OCB	0.23
Rodell et al., 2017	229	2017	Employees	Various	A five-item volunteering scale (Rodell, 2013)	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.15
Sekar, 2021	461	2021	Employees	Various	A five-item volunteering scale (Rodell, 2013)	Dependent Variable	CV to AC	0.48
Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017	138	2017	Employees	Various	A dichotomous variable	Independent Variable	CV to AC	0.19

Source: Own study

The results of a fixed- or random-effect model (Table 2) were presented in the meta-analysis. A fixed-effect model is preferred with homogeneous studies, whereas a random-effect model is preferred with heterogeneous studies in a meta-analysis (Neely et al., 2010). Recommended by Higgins et al. (2003), Q and I-squared were used as two indicators of heterogeneity test. For I-squared, 25 percent, 50 percent and 75 percent are typically utilized as reference points to represent low, medium and high levels, respectively. The results (CV–AC: P-value is 0.000, I-square is 87.875; CV–OCB: P-value is 0.001, I-square is 80.966) in this study show high heterogeneousness. Thus, the analysis of these relationships would be performed according to the random effects model (Celiker et al., 2019).

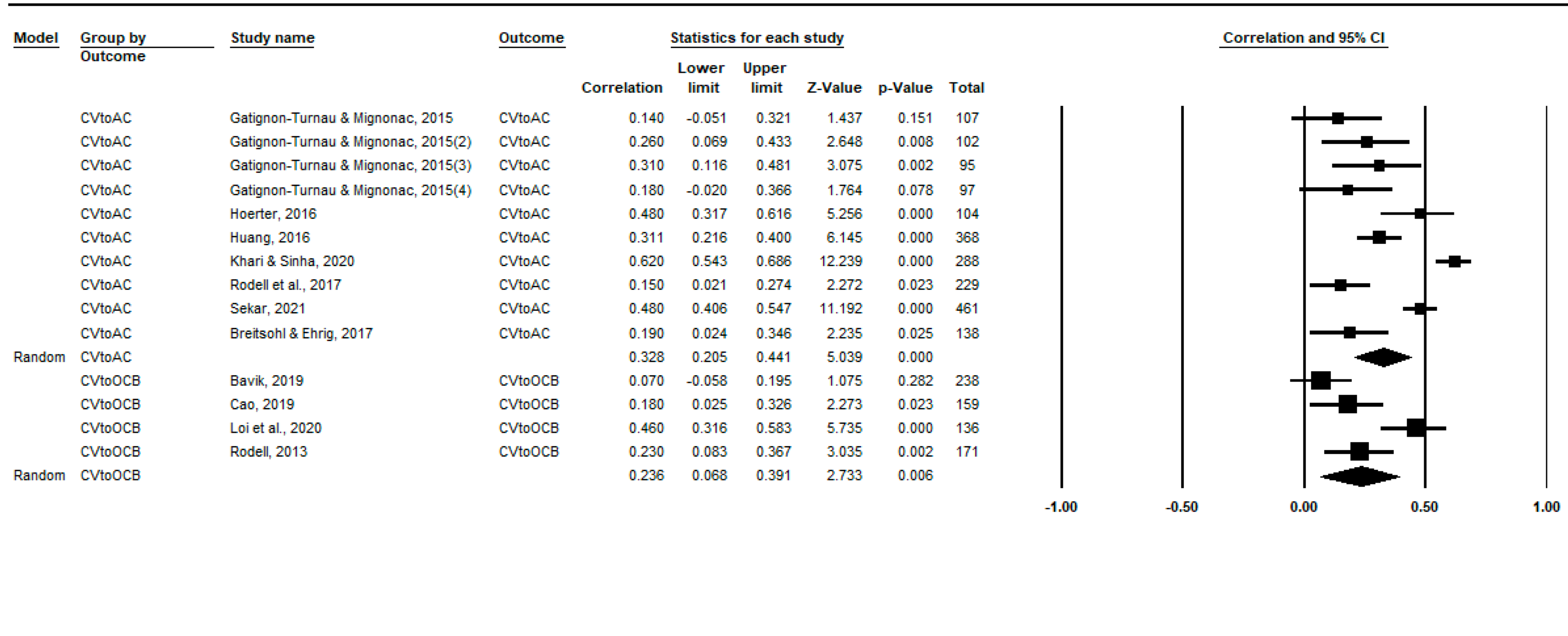
Table 2. Heterogeneity test

Relationship	Heterogeneity test				
	Q-value	df	P-value	I-squared	Result
Corporate Volunteering → Affective Commitment	74.228	9	**0.000**	**87.875**	**Heterogeneity**
Corporate Volunteering → Organizational Citizenship Behavior	15.761	3	**0.001**	**80.966**	**Heterogeneity**

Source: Own study

Regarding the results of the meta-analysis (Figure 2), the results show a positive and significant relationship between corporate volunteering and affective commitment (average correlation = 0.328, P-value=0.000, k=7, n=1989), as well as between corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behaviors (average correlation = 0.236, P-value=0.006, k=4, n=704). The forest plot (Figure 2) presented information on uncertainty of point estimates and effect sizes for each study in the meta-analysis (Card, 2015). More specifically, the black square and the length of the horizontal line through it refer to, respectively, the effect size and related confidence interval of each individual study. The black diamond and related line refer to the combined effect size and confidence intervals for the meta-analysis similarly (Perera et al., 2008; Celiker et al., 2019).

Figure 2. Meta-analysis results for corporate volunteering



Model	Group by Outcome	Study name	Outcome	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	Total
	CVtoAC	Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015	CVtoAC	0.140	-0.051	0.321	1.437	0.151	107
	CVtoAC	Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015(2)	CVtoAC	0.260	0.069	0.433	2.648	0.008	102
	CVtoAC	Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015(3)	CVtoAC	0.310	0.116	0.481	3.075	0.002	95
	CVtoAC	Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015(4)	CVtoAC	0.180	-0.020	0.366	1.764	0.078	97
	CVtoAC	Hoerter, 2016	CVtoAC	0.480	0.317	0.616	5.256	0.000	104
	CVtoAC	Huang, 2016	CVtoAC	0.311	0.216	0.400	6.145	0.000	368
	CVtoAC	Khari & Sinha, 2020	CVtoAC	0.620	0.543	0.686	12.239	0.000	288
	CVtoAC	Rodell et al., 2017	CVtoAC	0.150	0.021	0.274	2.272	0.023	229
	CVtoAC	Sekar, 2021	CVtoAC	0.480	0.406	0.547	11.192	0.000	461
	CVtoAC	Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017	CVtoAC	0.190	0.024	0.346	2.235	0.025	138
Random	CVtoAC			0.328	0.205	0.441	5.039	0.000	
	CVtoOCB	Bavik, 2019	CVtoOCB	0.070	-0.058	0.195	1.075	0.282	238
	CVtoOCB	Cao, 2019	CVtoOCB	0.180	0.025	0.326	2.273	0.023	159
	CVtoOCB	Loi et al., 2020	CVtoOCB	0.460	0.316	0.583	5.735	0.000	136
	CVtoOCB	Rodell, 2013	CVtoOCB	0.230	0.083	0.367	3.035	0.002	171
Random	CVtoOCB			0.236	0.068	0.391	2.733	0.006	

Note: See text for abbreviations.
Source: Own study

Then, several tests were performed in this thesis to detect the potential risk of publication bias in the meta-analysis. Classic fail-safe N, as a common approach, can analyze the number of new studies required, if the general probability value needs to be transformed into a critical value greater than that specified for statistical significance (Rosenthal, 1991; Üstün & Eryilmaz, 2014). The results (Table 3) show that the number of studies required to lead to a p-value greater than 0.05 (specified as a critical value) are 597 (CV–AC) and 35 (CV–OCB). To explain, no publication bias exists in the relationship between corporate volunteering and affective commitment. However, the Classic fail-safe N (35) of the relationship between corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behaviors needs some additional tests (see Table 3) to judge the potential influence of publication bias. The two-tailed p-value in Kendall's test (Begg & Mazumdar rank correlation test) and Egger's test are all insignificant (0.174 and 0.109, respectively), which indicates no publication bias in the relationship between corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behaviors (Begg & Mazumdar, 1994; Sutton, 2005; Celiker et al., 2019). Duval Tweedie's trim-and-fill method was also used to predict the number of studies that might be missing from the meta-analysis and its impacts on general findings (Üstün & Eryilmaz, 2014). Similar tests with insignificant results were also performed on the relationship between corporate volunteering and affective commitment. Additionally, the funnel scatter plot test (Figure 3 and 4) indicates that all studies are symmetrically scattered in the central parts, which also demonstrates visually that the results are not polluted by publication bias.

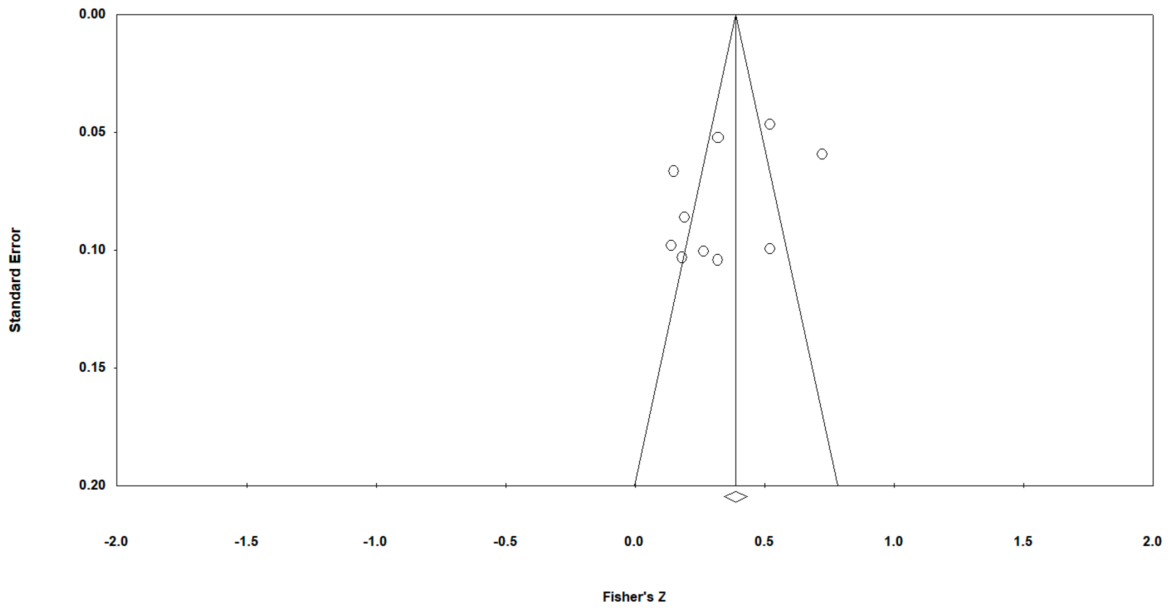


Figure 3. Funnel scatter plot (corporate volunteering and affective commitment)

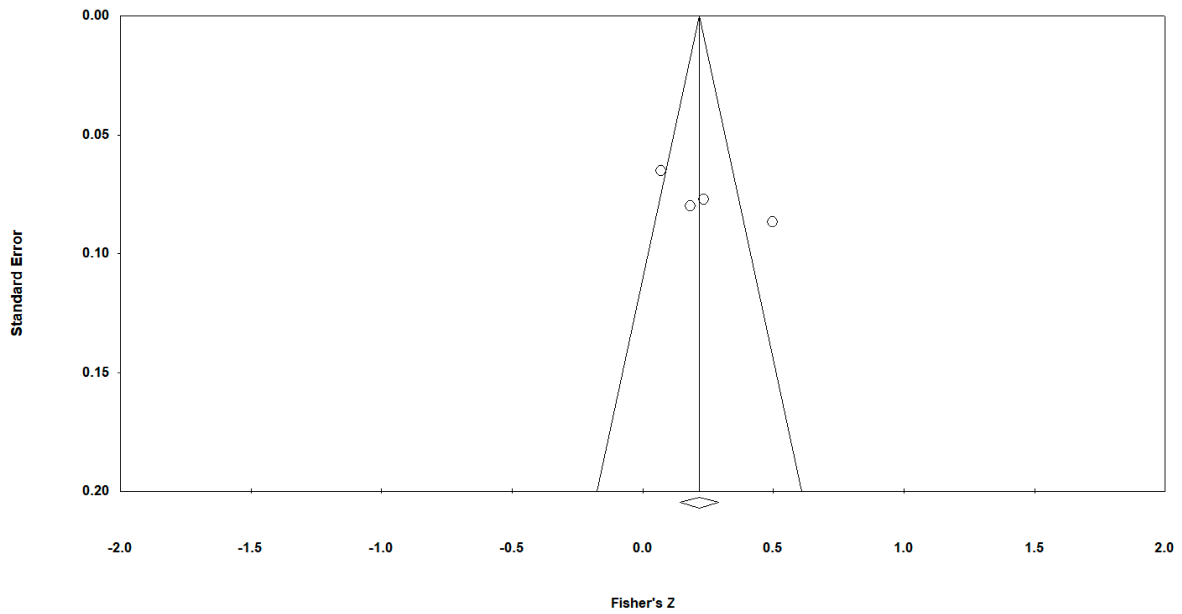


Figure 4. Funnel scatter plot (corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behaviors)

Table 3. Publication bias results

Relationship	Classic fail-safe N		Kendall's Test		Egger's Test		Trim and Fill (Random)	
	Missing studies	P-value	Z-value	P-value	T-value	P-value	Left	Right
CV → AC	597	0.000	0.268	0.788	1.495	0.173	0	2
CV → OCB	35	0.000	1.359	0.174	2.779	0.109	0	1

Note: See text for abbreviations.

Although many studies and conceptual papers focus on the benefits of CSR and CV (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), there is still a lack of knowledge on the mechanisms underlying the relationships between employee participation in CV and potential effects gained from it (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). Inspired by some literature (e.g., Howard & Serviss, 2021), affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior were selected as the outcomes of corporate volunteering to be researched in this thesis. Then, the significance results of meta-analysis proved the value and meaningfulness of this selection.

Haski-Leventhal et al. (2016) proposed that employees' participation in corporate volunteering could trigger their intrinsic motivations, which might motivate affective commitment. Then, many studies (Settoon et al., 1996; Peterson, 2004a; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Hu et al., 2016; Rodell et al., 2016; Sekar, 2021) also report that a higher level of affective commitment perceived by employees is always associated with a higher level of work engagement. That is, when employees could perceive more benefits in participating in corporate volunteering (e.g., develop job-related skills and job satisfaction), they were more likely to commit to their companies affectively and to be motivated to engage in more positive workplace behaviors. For example, some studies (Hu et al., 2016; Aggarwal & Singh, 2021) suggested a positive relationship between corporate volunteering and organizational citizenship behavior. Peloza and Hassay (2006) also indicated that the organization and related beneficiaries could benefit from these employees' positive workplace behaviors derived from corporate volunteering.

Many studies (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Bolon, 1997; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006) propose that a significant positive correlation exists between affective commitment and OCB. Moreover, these two constructs are conceptually similar to a certain degree, as they are both closely linked to positive feelings and affective reactions in workplace (Organ, 1997; Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Hauziński & Bańka, 2013). Taking into account this and the potential statistical risk (common method variance; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), affective commitment and OCB were analyzed separately in this thesis.

Chapter 2. The effects of corporate volunteering on affective commitment

2.1. Organizational commitment

Although organizational commitment (OC) is a popular topic in the field of management, specifically in organizational behavior and HRM (Cohen, 2003), it is still hard to find a persuasive and powerful definition, as there are different frameworks of OC. The framework of OC currently popular involves measuring it on a three-dimensional scale (affective, normative, continuance), as advanced by Meyer and Allen (1984) and rooted in and affected by earlier approaches (Becker, 1960; Porter et al., 1974). These different approaches at different points in time have played significant roles in advancing the theoretical and empirical development of OC, as well as the development of the concept, although each approach has its strengths and weaknesses. The following paragraphs will present different stages in the development of the construct of organizational commitment.

Commitment in "side-bet" theory

Howard Becker (1960) made the earliest attempt to build the basic framework of commitment between the individual and its organization based on the side-bet theory. The term "side-bet" was used by Becker (1960) to describe how accumulated investments made by employees will be lost if they leave the organization. More specifically, committed employees have totally or partially hidden investments in their organization. Then, the cost of hidden investments increases gradually with the working hours of the committed employee in the organization, which also increases the leaving cost for these employees, as they cannot find other opportunities to compensate this ever-increasing potential loss of costs. Ultimately, employees would keep their member identities and continue committing to the organization. Following such logic, Becker (1960) suggested that a significant relationship exists between OC and voluntary turnover, which was also tested by some scholars later (Alutto, Hrebiniak & Alonso, 1973). The measurement of OC in Becker's approach could evaluate the employee's intention to leave the organization, based on the negative correlation between commitment and turnover (i.e., higher commitment leads to lower turnover). In the end, this approach was replaced by other, better approaches. However, Becker (1960) built a strong theoretical foundation to motivate and influence the subsequent conceptualizations of organizational commitment. The

"commitment–turnover" relationship and side-bet theory also inspired Meyer and Allen (1991) to create "continuance commitment", as one dimension of the three-dimensional structure of OC that remains popular 'til today.

Commitment as psychological attachment

After a few years, at the suggestion of Porter et al. (1974), the theoretical framework of OC shifted to psychological attachment. They advanced the attitudinal approach, which described commitment as a sort of attitude, which was not influenced by other constructs, which in turn could mainly be explained by exchange theory rather than "side-bet" theory (Mowday, Potter & Steers, 1982). According to the paper of Mowday et al. (1979, p. 226), three characteristics of commitment were suggested: "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization". In other words, commitment was conceptually close to psychological attachment in the 1970s. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) designed a scale to measure OC that was based on the three characteristics mentioned above, namely the "Organizational Commitment Questionnaire" (OCQ). Some scholars (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982) proposed that the OCQ was a positive and innovative scale to measure commitment from attitudinal perspective. However, the opposing argument was that such "willingness of actions performing" related more to behavioral intentions than to attitudinal intentions (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Such debates motivated some scholars to measure OC on a shorter scale of OCQ (Iverson, 1999; Beck & Wilson, 2000), or to design new questionnaires as alternatives to OCQ (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1984). Of these new questionnaires, two OC scales formed the most popular and competitive approach. One is from the three-dimensional scale of OC proposed by Meyer and Allen (1984), and the other is from the shorter scale of OCQ proposed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). Notably, in the 1980s, the scale of commitment slowly shifted from a one-dimensional approach to a multi-dimensional approach.

The multi-dimensional structure of commitment

The purpose of O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) approach is to resolve problems that occurred in the OCQ, such that the distinctions between the antecedents and consequences of commitment, as well as the basis of attachment, could be better understood. They defined

commitment as the psychological attachment of a person to an organization, to the extent that the attachment could be differentiated in three dimensions: instrumental involvement for external rewards (compliance), involvement for the desire of affiliation (identification), and involvement for the consensus of the value between individual and organization (internalization). Particularly, they suggested a clear conceptual distinction between these three factors; “compliance” could be regarded as the instrumental exchange, while the other two factors were the psychological attachments. However, some scholars criticize O’Reilly and Chatman’s definition of commitment. For example, Vandenberg, Self and Sep (1994) proposed that the “identification” dimension was conceptually similar to the OCQ scale. Bennett and Durkin (2000) also questioned whether the “identification” and “internalization” scales overlapped with each other structurally.

Unlike the views put forward by the followers of Becker's approach (Ritzer & Trice, 1969; Alutto et al., 1973; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986), Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed a new perspective to measure side-bet theory. Following their thoughts, direct measurements of the individual perception based on the number and magnitude of the side bets are better. To test this, they initially measured the relationships via some common scales of commitment and developed two new scales of commitment, namely “affective commitment” and “continuance commitment”. With regard to these new scales, affective commitment could be seen as an improved version – even an evolution – of OCQ, and a great tool for measuring commitment via recognizing the positive feelings identified with, attached to and involved in the organization. As for continuance commitment, Meyer and Allen suggested it as a better substitute for Becker’s side-bet approach. Unlike affective commitment, continuance commitment is intended to measure employees’ commitment to the organization, which is mainly related to employees’ leaving cost. After several years, they suggested the third new scale “normative commitment” (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991), which could be described as a sense of obligation inside employees – mainly influenced by culture and socialization – to stay in the organization rather than leaving. These three new scales were described as a “three-component conception of OC”, which means that “[…] distinguishable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment, that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees” (Allen & Mayer, 1990, p. 4). Then, more and more scholars (Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994; Jaros, 1997; Ko et al., 1997) began to choose this new three-dimensional scale to measure commitment.

Meanwhile, criticism of this three-dimensional OC scale was also offered. The negative opinions were mainly reported in studies by Vandenberg and Self (1993) and Ko et al. (1997). Vandenberg and Self (1993) advanced a longitudinal study (three time points) to test the scales of affective and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984), while a strong instability of factor structures was found in their research across three waves. In other words, the instability of the factor structure has the potential to induce inaccurate results. Another strong criticism by Ko et al. (1997) argued that there were conceptual problems in Meyer and Allen's scales that may result in psychometric difficulties in measurement. Their criticism was that, although the three-dimensional OC commitment was a "psychological state", Meyer and Allen (1984) did not offer a specific explanation of each commitment (i.e., affective, continuance and normative). More specifically, Ko et al. (1997) argued that Becker's approach was more congruent with the behavioral approach than with the attitudinal approach proposed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). Ko et al. leveled the same critique at Meyer et al.'s conceptualization of continuance commitment. In addition, Ko et al. (1997) questioned whether there were unclear conceptual distinctions between affective commitment and normative commitment. In response, Meyer and Allen (1997) made some improvements to the scales that had strong reliability and construct reliability.

In this thesis, based on the self-determination theory, affective commitment is regarded as a psychological outcome of corporate volunteering, and it is also associated with workplace resources (i.e., perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work) and attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction) (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). Therefore, in the conceptual model, the aforementioned variables will be used to explain the effects of corporate volunteering on employee behaviors. In the following paragraphs, the rationale for hypotheses is presented.

2.2. Antecedents of organizational commitment and the role of corporate volunteering. Hypothesis development

2.2.1. Organizational commitment and perceived supervisor support

Some papers (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Eisenberger et al., 2002) have proposed that employees could develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which their supervisors care

about their contribution and well-being. This was known as "perceived supervisor support". Burke, Borucki and Hurley (1992) proposed that supervisor support was the degree to which employees perceived that a supervisor offered employees support, encouragement and concern. Perceived supervisor support includes instrumental and socio-emotional support (Amabile et al., 2004), such as helping employees when their workload increases and assisting employees with the fulfilment of their duties (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Perceived supervisor support is also regarded as the important antecedent of perceived organizational support, which refers to the employees' perception of how the organization values their contribution and well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Compared to the indiscriminate resources (e.g., sick leave policies) provided by perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), supervisors play a more important role in many individual treatments, such as determining the amount of merit pay (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Moreover, to employees, supervisors often represent the agency of the organization, communicating the organization's policies, goals, expectations, etc. (Dawley et al., 2010; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Guchait et al., 2015). On the other hand, employees who feel supported by their supervisors and organization are more likely to be committed to the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001; Tang & Tsaur, 2016) and have higher job satisfaction (Karatepe et al., 2003; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010).

Social exchange theory could provide a theoretical explanation for the relationship between commitment and perceived supervisor support (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961). Based on this theory, employees are more likely to provide affective commitment and engage in positive behaviors towards their organization if they perceive and experience positive feelings from their supervisor (Meyer & Allen, 1991). George et al. (1993) explained that supportive supervisors typically provide instrumental aid to orient employees' attention to work and emotional aid to reduce their psychological stress. Once such interactions happen, employees perceive their supervisor positively and will subsequently consider how to reciprocate to their supportive supervisor and organization (Kartika et al., 2017). Wang (2014) also proposed that positive employee perceptions could lead to better acceptance of organizational goals and values. Thus, supervisor support theoretically has a positive influence on positive emotion (Cole et al., 2006) and affective commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Empirical studies (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Soulen, 2003; Wang, 2014; Nichols, Swanberg & Bright, 2016) have also indicated the positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and affective commitment. Perceived supervisor support could enhance the emotional ties of the

employees to their organization (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). When employees' well-being and contribution to the organization are valued by their supervisor, affective commitment will also increase (Ng & Sorensen, 2008). Similarly, Soulen (2003) proposed that workers' affective commitment was affected by supervisor support, which could influence work performance accordingly.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

H1: There is a positive relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).

2.2.2. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and perceived supervisor support

Job satisfaction is a relatively complex concept (Aziri, 2011) that can be traced back to the Great Depression in the late 1920s and 1930s. Due to the Great Depression, more and more scholars focused on job dissatisfaction and the reasons behind it. Fisher and Hanna (1931) suggested that the primary driver of job dissatisfaction was chronic emotional maladjustments. Although earlier work mentioned a potential relationship between emotion and job satisfaction (Fisher and Hanna, 1931), the measurements of job satisfaction were still limited in papers (Organ & Near, 1985). The limited development of job satisfaction inspired the creation of a related theory, called "Affective Event Theory (AET)", that theorized a direct relationship between affective reactions and job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). From the 1990s on, studies increasingly focused on the affective perspective of job satisfaction (Judge, Zhang & Glerum, 2020). Due to many scholars being involved in job satisfaction, there was still no consensus on its definition (Harrison et al., 2006). One of the most cited definitions of job satisfaction is Spector's (1997) description as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (p. 2). Based on Spector's definition, job satisfaction was a sort of affective reaction, similarly as proposed in previous studies. For example, Locke (1969, 1976) indicated that job satisfaction was a positive emotional feeling, and personal feelings were more important than personal needs.

Job satisfaction and affective commitment

The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction has been proved by many papers, especially job satisfaction as an independent variable, and organizational commitment as a dependent variable (Gaertner, 1999; Jernigan et al., 2002; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Mowday et al., 1982). Based on the three-component model (Meyer & Allen, 1990), affective commitment is a desired-based part of organizational commitment and could be treated as an employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1978) proposed that affective commitment was a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. In this line, Patrik and Sonia (2012) suggested that an affectively engaged employee could identify strongly with the organization's goals and strongly expected to remain part of the organization. In other words, the affectively engaged employee is more willing to commit to the organization, because he or she "wants to". Thus, it is meaningful to research the relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction in this thesis, as affective commitment is conceptually closed to psychological and emotional attachment.

Williams and Hazer (1986) suggested that job satisfaction was an antecedent of affective commitment. Fu, Bohlander and Jones (2009) also concluded the strongest relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment, compared to normative and continuance commitment. In other words, a higher level of satisfaction is associated with a higher level of affective commitment. Thus, Meyer et al. (1993) proposed that organizations could support and satisfy employees' needs positively to enhance their positive feelings towards the organization, which might motivate their affective commitment to behave positively. Conversely, Begley and Czajka (1993) found that stressed and displeased employees were more likely to provide weak affective commitment to the organization. On the other hand, the meta-analysis conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that affective commitment might be low among employees who were unsure of the organization's expectations of them, or their expected behaviors were in conflict with the organization's values. In other words, employees' affective commitment is not only influenced by job satisfaction. In this vein, perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work were also selected in this thesis as antecedents of affective commitment.

Perceived supervisor support and job satisfaction

The supervisor is always treated as a salient part in affecting employees' job satisfaction (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Pursley (1974) advanced that job dissatisfaction was an inevitable result if the top manager could not support his or her subordinates in a quasi-military organizational culture. Durham et al. (1997) proposed that the supervisors in the organization could build the work environment and communicate information and feedback to employees, supervisors' behaviors might also influence employees' emotional reactions. Furthermore, supervisors are in charge of enforcing the practices and rules of the organization with subordinates (Ellison, 2004). The previous study suggested by Eisenberger et al. (1986) showed that supervisors could be seen as the agent of the organization, and their attitudes could also represent the attitude from the organization to the employees in some degree, because they had the discretion and responsibility to manage and assess subordinates' performance.

For perceived supervisor support, some papers (Wicks, 2005; Kula & Guler, 2014) indicated its specific measures. For example, supervisors show tolerance to those employees who have difficulties with tasks, and they also provide employees incentives to work better. Sometimes, hearing complaints from employees is also an important way to show supervisor support, in order to mitigate employees' stress, even if such behavior means nothing substantive but only makes employees feel better (Wicks, 2005). Emotional support experienced by employees can reverberate in other workers and promote a supportive work climate in the organization, which could potentially foster job satisfaction (Siu et al., 2010). However, supervisor support perceived by employees may change, even in the same organization. Kula and Guler (2014, p. 211) advanced that: "Employees in the same law enforcement agencies but different departments can perceive the same rules and procedures differently because of the management styles of their supervisors."

Regarding the empirical evidence on the relationship between perceived supervisor support and job satisfaction, Eisenberger et al. (1997) suggested that the quality of workplace social support perceived by employees was strongly related to job satisfaction. Pienaar, Sieberbagen and Mostert's (2007) study indicated that social support from supervisor strongly influenced job satisfaction, which was congruent with previous research (LaRocco & Jones, 1978). Ganster et al. (1996) also proposed that supervisors' roles within the organization directly affected employees' physical and emotional well-being. In addition, some papers (e.g., Jaramillo et al., 2005; Toch, 2002) also find that a lack of management and supervisory support could increase job stress and decrease job satisfaction.

For the mediated role of job satisfaction, Mohamed and Ali (2016) suggested that the positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and affective commitment was mediated by job satisfaction. To explain, job satisfaction was derived and grew from the work environment (Story & Castanheira, 2019). Perceived supervisor support plays a vital role in building a supportive work environment, which is also associated with related workplace attitudes (e.g., affective commitment) (Day & Bedeian, 1991; Eisenberger et al., 2002). In this line, it could be deduced that perceived supervisor support contributes to positive emotion (e.g., job satisfaction) and positively influences employees' affective commitment to the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Cole et al., 2006). Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

H2: Job Satisfaction (JS) mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).

2.2.3. Organizational commitment, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction

To understand the interpersonal relationships, some studies (Berscheid & Lopes, 1997; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003) have explained that the communications between two people commonly involve mutual awareness and social interaction, which could be seen as a specific connection in daily life and working environment. This connection that resulted from the encounter between dyadic parties could be brief, short-term or enduring (Ferris et al., 2009). More specifically, Dutton and Heaphy (2003) suggested that the connection could be categorized into two forms: high-quality and low-quality connections. Previous research (Hallowell, 1999; Gersick, Bartunek & Dutton, 2000) had indicated that high-quality connections at work significantly influenced the achievement of both individual and organizational outcomes, regardless of whether the connection was only of five minutes or long-lasting, which could make people thrive at work to some degree. A high-quality connection typically has three features between two people (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003): high emotional carrying capacity (i.e., a connection could withstand more absolute emotion and more emotion of varying kinds); tensility (i.e., better resilience to respond to conflicts and accommodate changes in distinct conditions); and degree of connectivity (i.e., open possibilities for action and creativity via building expansive emotional spaces). However, a low-quality, toxic connection could have a

damaging emotional and psychological toll on individuals in work organizations (Williams & Dutton, 1999; Frost, 2003). Dutton (2003, p. 8) also explained low-quality connection thus: "Corrosive connections are like black holes: they absorb all of the light in the system and give back nothing in return."

Gittell (2002) advanced the idea that one important manifestation of high-quality relationships was found in relational coordination, defined as "a mutually reinforcing process of interaction between communication and relationships carried out for the purpose of task integration" (p. 300). When employees playing different roles in the organization have relational coordination (e.g., high-quality communication/relationship), that could increase the organization's information-processing capacity and thereby enhance coordination effectivity (Gittell, 2003). As to the positive outcomes of high-quality connection on individuals and organizations, Roberts (2007) proposed four dimensions of mutuality: mutual benefit, mutual influence, mutual expectation, and mutual understanding. The emotional support for the mutuality could be explained as the power of trust between dyadic parties (Pratt & Dirks, 2007; Ferris et al., 2009).

Positive relationships at work and affective commitment

Kahn (2007) suggested that the relationships among organizational members could be considered as a primary and central factor affecting employees' attitudes and behaviors in their organizational life, as it could significantly influence how they thought, felt and performed at work. Previous studies (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Ratajczak-Mrozek et al., 2021; Klimas et al., 2023) also routinely considered whether the quality of workplace relationships, including coworker and hierarchy relationships, could make some differences in related outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, performance and turnover). However, the definitions of work relationships are generally scattered across literatures and could be categorized into several forms: coworker and team members (Hackman, 1987), leaders and subordinates (Bass, 1981), group members (Smith & Berg, 1987) and mentors (Kram, 1985). Among them, some specific work relationships build the potential connections with attitudinal variables (e.g., organizational commitment). For example, Sherony and Green (2002) proposed that the great diversity in coworker exchanges had a correlation with organizational commitment. Heaphy and Dutton (2008) also advanced the idea that the positive interpersonal connections were well associated with both individual and work-related outcomes. The positive connections and

interactions in the organization could foster positive interpersonal relationships that perhaps facilitate employees' sense of fulfilment (Reich & Hershcovis, 2011). In other words, employees might be fulfilled by the "need to belong" through the positive work relationships, further creating a community of belonging in the organization (Baker & Dutton, 2007). In this way, Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001, p. 825) explained that employees with affective commitment to their organization would more easily perceive "a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement in the organization's activities, their willingness to pursue the organization's goals".

On the other hand, the job demands–resources model (JD-R model; Bakker et al., 2003) provides theoretical support for the relationship between positive relationships at work and affective commitment. Based on the theory, job resources could motivate employees to complete actual goals, which could provoke feelings of success, which further enhance organizational commitment (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) include the physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that could be located at the level of the organization at large (e.g., career opportunities), at the interpersonal level (e.g., supervisor and coworker connection), at the level of the organization of work (e.g., participation in decision-making) and at the task level (e.g., performance feedback). That is, positive relationships at work could be regarded as a sort of job resource in the organization (Dutton & Ragins, 2017). Hence, the hypothesis tested was as follows:

H3: There is a positive relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC).

Positive relationships at work and job satisfaction

Many studies (e.g., Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009) support the idea that work relationships strongly influence employees' attitudes and behaviors and positive relational interactions at work are associated with more favorable work attitudes. Similarly, McLennan (2005) suggested that the interactions with other people in organization could be regarded as the greatest source of strength. Adams and Bond (2000) also suggested that job satisfaction is the strongest predictor of social and professional relations in the workplace. Based on related literature (Sias, 2008; Ragins & Dutton, 2007; Reich & Hershcovis, 2011), interpersonal relationships encompass several sorts of relationships, such as supervisor–subordinate

relationships, peer worker relationships, and workplace friendships. That is, the employee perhaps engages in several different sorts of relationships, and could thus be regarded as belonging to different groups in the organization at a general level. The reference groups could be conceptualized as the employee's "social network" in the organization (Ibarra & Andrews, 1993) – that is, a patterned and repeated structure of interactions among employees in the organization. In this network, the individuals who have more well-connected and high-quality relationships could be associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Shaw, 1964; Brass et al., 2004). However, individuals with zero or single relationship in the organizational network could report less satisfaction than those with multiple ties (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979).

Empirically, several papers (e.g., Bleseveral, 2004; Dunn, 2003) have focused on the workplace interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction, especially in the nursing sector. Purpora and Blegen (2015) proposed that peer relationships positively influenced job satisfaction among hospital staff registered nurses. Some papers (e.g., Newman & Maylor, 2002) advanced the idea that the quality of teamwork potentially influenced job satisfaction. Team member exchange and work group exchange were found to be positively associated with job attitudes (Seers, 1989; Seers, Petty & Cashman, 1995; Dunegan, Tierney & Duchon, 1992). Additionally, the interactions with colleagues and supervisors could provide employees with direct help, feedback, information and emotional support (House, 1981). Such social support could help employees better cope with job demand and feel valued and enmeshed in the organizational network with communication and mutual obligation (Frese, 1999). Employees in a supportive climate with positive interpersonal relationships are more inclined to stay in their job with higher job satisfaction (Irvine & Evans, 1995; Karsh et al., 2005).

For the role of job satisfaction related to positive relationships at work and affective commitment, Kubichka (2016) proposed that the relationship between coworker exchange and affective commitment could be mediated by job satisfaction. Mayo (1945) proposed the earliest study to research workplace relationships and their influence on emotional factors, especially when employees received satisfaction in the workplace. High-quality workplace relationships commonly bring strong social support to employees, and this could be treated as an important source of employee satisfaction (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2012). On the other hand, Williams and Hazer (1986) suggested a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment. A higher level of job

satisfaction could enhance employees' affective commitment and decrease the turnover intention in the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Thus, it can be hypothesized that:

H4: Job Satisfaction (JS) mediates the relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC).

Additionally, some papers found that perceived supervisor support had a positive relationship with supervisor–subordinate relationships (Hsieh, 2012; Gkorezis, 2015) and also with peer relationship (Aquino et al., 1999; Baker & Dutton, 2007; Reich & Hershcovis, 2011). The paper conducted by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) proposed positive outcomes of perceived supervisor support that included job satisfaction, affective commitment and better work relationships with employees. When employees feel they are valued and cared about by their supervisor, then, based on the norm of reciprocity, they might build a higher level of trust and affective commitment (Kahn, 2007; Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007; Stephens et al., 2013). Hughes (2019) also proposed that if employees perceive supportive behaviors from their supervisor, regardless of emotional or instrumental support, they are more likely to pay back a higher level of commitment and engagement to maintain the positive relationships in the organization (Pohl & Galletta, 2017). Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

H5: Positive relationships at work (PRW) mediate the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).

2.2.4. Corporate volunteering as a moderator of links between organizational commitment and its antecedents

Corporate volunteering could cause positive workplace outcomes by serving individual employees, which would indirectly increase affective commitment and job satisfaction (Rodell, 2013; Haski-Leventhal, Kach & Pournader, 2019). Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008) advanced the idea that CV could strengthen employees' affective commitment by changing how employees viewed themselves and their organization. There is also a growing body of literature to show the positive relationship between CV and positive workplace attitudes (e.g., de Gilder et al., 2005; Peterson, 2004a). The longitudinal study conducted by Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015) proposed that corporate volunteering could provide a stimulus for positive

employee reciprocation (e.g., increased affective commitment to the company). Some papers (e.g., Pajo & Lee, 2011) suggested that corporate volunteering could trigger a "prosocial sensemaking process" among employees to motivate them to build a stronger emotional bond with their organizations. More specifically, corporate volunteering could improve employees' moral excellence and confidence, increase their intention to share values with the organization, meet their higher expectations and enhance their acceptance of the organization (Schwochau, Delaney, Jarley & Fiorito, 1997; Huang, 2016).

With respect to the relationships between CV and job satisfaction, some studies could provide corresponding theories and empirical data to support and explain. For example, Mobley (1982) suggested that corporate volunteering could improve employees' attitude and morale, which directly influence job satisfaction. Grant (2012) also implied that employees were more likely to establish personal and professional satisfaction through participation in volunteering activities. However, there is limited empirical evidence to support the effects of CV on perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work (Benevene et al., 2018; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). Aisbett et al. (2015) mentioned the importance of perceived supervisor support to volunteers. Glińska-Neweś et al. (2021) provide empirical evidence to support the moderated role of corporate volunteering on perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work. Based on these considerations, the following hypotheses are posed:

H6: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS), positive relationships at work (PRW), Job Satisfaction (JS) and affective commitment (AC):

H6a: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).

H6b: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC) via job satisfaction (JS).

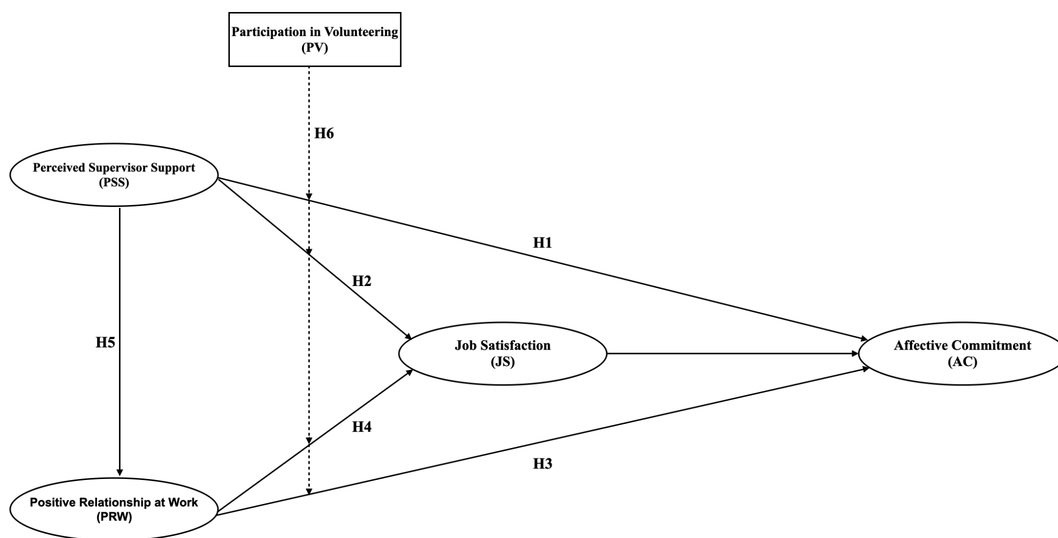
H6c: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC).

H6d: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC) via job satisfaction (JS).

H6e: Participation in volunteering moderates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC) via positive relationships at work (PRW).

Figure 5 shows the conceptual model including all hypotheses posed for this study.

Figure 5. Conceptual model (Study 1)



Source: Own study

2.3. Methodology

2.3.1. Sample and data collection

This study aims to investigate the influence of corporate volunteering on affective commitment and related employee attitudes (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction). The research data were collected from April to June of 2020 via an online self-completion questionnaire. The sample included employees from organizations located in Poland and offering corporate volunteer programs. Companies were selected from the ranking list on the Responsible Business Forum (Responsible Business Forum, 2019). Among these companies, four accepted an academic invitation to provide data by sending

questionnaires to their employees. Only one company in the banking sector was selected for analysis in this study, as the samples for the other three companies were not large enough to be regarded as representative and support the analysis. The selected company is a Polish bank with almost 100 years of history supporting domestic and international cooperation to counter the negative effects of cyclicality of the economy (OurBank, 2021). The CSR mission of this company is to support sustainable social and economic growth in Poland. In addition, the selected company has substantial volunteering experiences. For example, this company is currently involved in the "Wolontariat jest super!" (OurBank, 2023) program to support and develop social activities of bank employees to benefit the communities and social organizations they live and work in. As to the characteristics of the collected data, females (78.5%) had a higher response rate than males (21.5%), and ages ranged mostly between 31 and 45 years, and especially between 36 and 40 years (22.4%). Over half of employees had no experience in corporate volunteering (58.8%). For more details of demographic characteristics see Table 4.

Table 4. Demographics of respondents

Demographics	Category	Percentage (Valid sample = 724)
Sex	Female	78.5%
	Male	21.5%
Age	Less than 26	5.4%
	26-30	12.1%
	31-35	14.5%
	36-40	22.4%
	41-45	16.9%
	46-50	10.7%
	More than 50	17.9%
Tenure	Less than 11 years	51.2%
	11-20 years	29.7%
	21-30 years	13.5%
	31-40 years	4.6%
	More than 40 years	1.0%
Position	Manager	25.1%
	Non-manager	74.9%
Household	Single	14.5%
	Household without children	24.5%
	Household with children	61.0%
Participation in Volunteering	Volunteering in company	14.0%
	Volunteering outside company	12.2%
	No Volunteering	58.8%
	Volunteering in & outside company	15.1%

Source: Own study

2.3.2. Measures

Job satisfaction was measured by the three-item scale of Price and Mueller (1983). For example, "I find real enjoyment in my job" and "Most days I am enthusiastic about my job". It was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Perceived supervisor support was measured by the eight-item scale of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002). For example, "The supervisor values my contribution to organizational well-being" and "The supervisor really cares about my well-being". It was measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Positive relationships at work was measured by the seven-item scale of Carmeli (2009). For example, "I feel that my co-workers like me" and "We are committed to one another at work". It was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Affective commitment was measured by Bańka, Wołoska and Bazińska's (2002) Polish version of the six-item scale created by Meyer and Allen (1997). For example, "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "I feel part of family in my organization". It was measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

For the measurements of *employee participation in corporate volunteering (PV)*, the thesis proposed a nominal scale based on research by Glińska-Neweś (e.g., Glińska-Neweś & Górka, 2020), including:

(1) employee participates in corporate volunteering organized in the company he/she works in now (PV in company);

(2) employee participates in volunteering organized outside the company he/she works in now (PV outside company);

(3) employee does not participate in any kind of volunteering (No PV);

(4) employee participates in volunteering organized both in and outside the company he/she works in now (PV in & outside company).

Furthermore, this paper also categorized employee participation in volunteering (PV) into only two groups by combining the measurements mentioned above in order to find potential correlations in the comparison of whether employees participate in corporate volunteering activities or not. More specifically, the first group, called "Do PV", includes all volunteering activities participated in by employees, no matter in or outside company, which is the integration of the three subgroups of PV above (i.e., PV in company, PV outside company, and PV in & outside company). The second group, called "No PV", represents those employees who do not participate in any volunteering activities.

All related items of questionnaires used for this study are shown in the Appendix.

2.3.3. Data analysis

This study mainly uses structural equation modeling (SEM) in Mplus version 8.3 to test related hypotheses. There are three main steps. The first step is to perform confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the convergent and discriminant validity and reliability of sample data. Then, the second step is to analyze the multiple mediation effects in a bootstrapping approach (5,000 bootstrapping samples) (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Finally, the third step is to test the conditional indirect effects (moderated mediation) in a bootstrapping approach (5,000 bootstrapping samples). In addition, considering the potential bias caused by the cross-sectional study, this study also tested the common method variance (CMV) using the unmeasured latent marker construct (ULMC) technique (Richardson et al., 2009) to prove that the result was not affected by CMV. The test results of each stage are presented in the next part, as well as Model fit indices, including The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (Byrne, 2010).

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Common Method Variance (CMV)

Podsakoff and Organ (1986) proposed that common method variance (CMV) arose if research data, regardless of independent or dependent variable, was collected from the same respondents and measured in the same source. The presence of common method variance could threaten the conclusion validity by influencing the correlations of the model in the study. To test such bias, some statistical remedies are proposed, such as Correlational Marker Technique (Lindell & Whitney, 2001), CFA Marker Technique (Williams et al., 2003), and Unmeasured Latent Method Construct (ULMC) (Widaman, 1985). Since the research did not have *ex-ante* design (e.g., Marker Variable) to avoid CMV, the paper chose ULMC to test CMV, which was also recommended in the study by Podsakoff et al. (2003).

Harmon's one-factor test was analyzed first to test CMV in SPSS, as commonly used in many papers (e.g., Kushwaha & Agrawal, 2015; Singh & Verma, 2019). In this result, there is only one individual factor (51.142%) in the data, which means this factor could explain 51.142% of total variance. According to the rule of thumb, the model is affected by CMV, because a single factor could explain a loading larger than 50%.

However, Podsakoff et al. (2003) argued that Harmon's one-factor test was insensitive and got only a reassuring result. Thus, this study used the ULMC technique, which could test CMV whether in non-congeneric or congeneric view (Richardson et al., 2009). Based on the procedures suggested by Williams et al. (1989), this study calculated and compared the model fits of congeneric trait/method model (χ^2=129.537, df=57) and non-congeneric trait/method model (χ^2=269.519, df=70). After comparison, Table 5 shows that the model fit of the congeneric model is significantly better than the other ($\Delta\chi^2$=139.982, Δdf=13, P-value=0.000). Then, the trait/method-R model was built, which was identical to the trait/method model, but the construct correlations between independent variables and dependent variables were constrained equally to the correlations of the trait-only model. Finally, the model fit of trait/method-R model (χ^2=144.224, df=63) should compare with the model fit of congeneric trait/method model (χ^2=129.537, df=57), that the result was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$=14.687, Δdf=6, P-value=0.000). So, the result was influenced by common method bias.

Of note, the common method variance is perhaps impossible to completely eliminate in a particular study (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and the "corrected" result produced via statistical

remedies is also perhaps not of high accuracy (Richardson et al., 2009). This is because each post-statistical remedy has its own limitations, and it is more complex to control CMV in a multiple-equation system, such as mediating effects models (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, Podsakoff et al. (2003) explained that the CMV correction technique was designed to "reduce the plausibility of method biases as an explanation of the relationships observed between the constructs of interest". In response, this study decided to correct the results by ULMC correction technique (congeneric perspective), as shown and explained below (Table 8).

Table 5. Common Method Bias Variance (ULMC)

	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	**P-value**
Trait/method Model (Noncongeneric) Default Model	269.519	70	139.982	13	**0.000*****
Trait/Method Model (Congeneric) Default Model	129.537	57			
Trait/method-R Model (Congeneric) Default Model(Correlation setting)	144.224	63	14.687	6	**0.000*****
Trait/method Model (Congeneric) Default Model	129.537	57			

Note: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

2.4.2. Confirmatory factor analysis

This study tested the reliability and validity of the model by conducting confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The model fit indicates that the model fits the data well. More specifically, the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) are above 0.90 (0.962 and 0.955, respectively), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) are both significantly below 0.08 (0.057 and 0.039, respectively) (Iacobucci, 2010).

Table 6 shows the detailed results of convergent validity test and reliability test. The results of all items are significant (P-value<0.05), and all standardized factor loadings are above 0.6. The purpose of convergent validity is to test whether the measurement's factor loadings all significant (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) and what the level of items' intercorrelation is (Cunningham et al., 2001). Furthermore, the results of average variance extracted (AVE), which represents the average interpretability of latent variables to their items, are all

satisfactory in the model (0.703, 0.703, 0.664 and 0.806), all being larger than 0.50 (Hair et al., 1992). The results of Cronbach's Alpha (α) (0.902, 0.876, 0.886 and 0.925) and composite reliability (CR) (0.904, 0.876, 0.888 and 0.926) are also satisfactory, which are used to test the internal consistency and construct's reliability. According to previous studies (Nunnally, 1978; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), they all exceed recommended values (Cronbach's alpha: 0.7; CR: 0.6).

Table 7 shows the result of discriminant validity test to prove that the correlations between latent variables are less than the internal correlations of these variables. Fornell and Larcker (1981) asserted that each correlation between any two latent variables should be less than its square root of AVE. Thus, the model passed validity and reliability tests.

Table 6. CFA analysis (Convergent Validity & Reliability test)

Dimension	Item	Unstd.	SE	Z	P-value	Std	Cronbach α	CR	AVE
PRW	PRW1	1.000				0.773	0.902	0.904	0.703
	PRW2	1.269	0.053	23.967	0.000	0.836			
	PRW3	1.359	0.051	26.428	0.000	0.912			
	PRW4	1.247	0.053	23.437	0.000	0.825			
PSS	PSS1	1.000				0.828	0.876	0.876	0.703
	PSS6	0.995	0.042	23.848	0.000	0.814			
	PSS8	1.057	0.042	24.890	0.000	0.872			
AC	AC2	1.000				0.810	0.886	0.888	0.664
	AC3	1.107	0.047	23.436	0.000	0.793			
	AC4	1.096	0.043	25.333	0.000	0.873			
	AC5	1.019	0.045	22.651	0.000	0.781			
JS	JS1	1.000				0.919	0.925	0.926	0.806
	JS2	0.940	0.028	33.325	0.000	0.857			
	JS3	1.039	0.028	37.605	0.000	0.916			

Note: See text for abbreviations.

Table 7. CFA analysis (Discriminant Validity)

	Mean	SD	AVE	PRW	PSS	AC	JS
PRW	3.900	0.799	0.703	**0.838**			
PSS	4.460	1.425	0.703	0.462	**0.838**		
JS	4.608	1.407	0.664	0.536	0.596	**0.815**	
AC	3.712	1.026	0.806	0.518	0.580	0.789	**0.898**

Note: See text for abbreviations. Diagonal elements are the square root of AVE.

2.4.3. Moderated mediation analysis (SEM model)

Moderation and mediation in this paper could be estimated via bootstrap method (5,000 times), which is a good non-parametric method to estimate indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

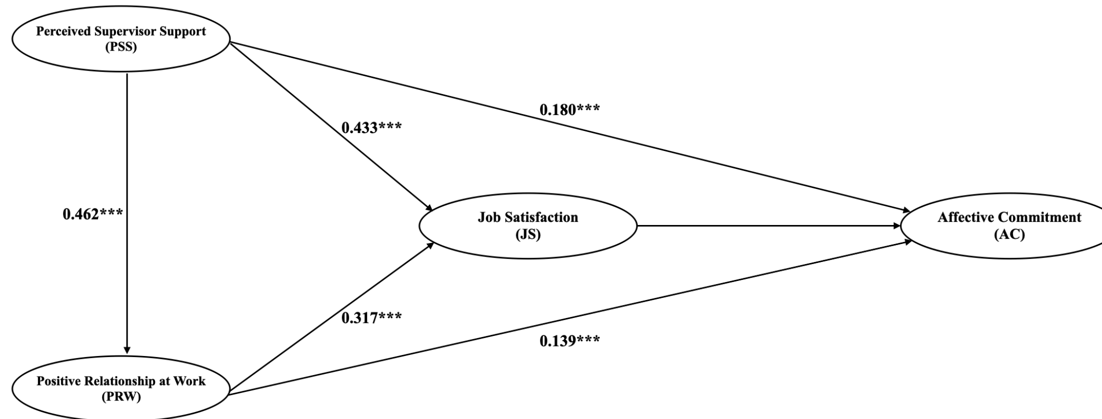
For the mediation, detailed results are described in Table 8. The direct (H1 & H3) and indirect (H2, H4 and H5) relationships between the constructs were tested. The result comprises two parts: before ULMC correction and after ULMC correction. Before correction, model fit shows the good fit of the proposed model (χ^2=276.238; χ^2/df=3.89; CFI=0.973; TLI=0.965; RMSEA=0.063; SRMR=0.040) (Iacobucci, 2010). All hypotheses (1–5) are supported.

After correction, though the accuracy of CMV correction is not persuasive enough, it could reduce the plausibility of method bias in the proposed model and in the mediating effects model (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Based on these considerations, this study chose the ULMC correction technique recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003). Table 8 shows the detailed result after CMV correction. Compared to the result before ULMC, only H1, H3 and H4 are supported by the data. More specifically, the direct positive relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC) is significant (H1: P-value=0.022), and two indirect relationships mediated by job satisfaction (JS) are all significant (H3 & H4: P-value=0.000). Figure 6 presented the model with standardized path coefficients referring to H1–H5 after ULMC correction.

Table 8. Direct & indirect effect (mediation) without moderator

Hypothesis	Indirect & Direct effect	Point Estimate (Unstd.)	Product of coefficient			Standardized coefficient	Bootstrap 5000 times (95% Confidence Interval)				CMV Correction (Partial Correlation)			Comparison	Result
							Percentile		Bias-corrected Percentile						
			SE	Z	P-value		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Unstd.	Std.	P-value		
H1	PSS→AC	0.176	0.043	4.097	**0.000*** **	0.180	0.093	0.261	0.093	0.262	0.144	0.127	**0.022***	**Same**	**Support**
H2	PRW→AC	0.287	0.081	3.559	**0.000*** **	0.139	0.130	0.446	0.130	0.447	0.185	0.081	0.156	Different	Reject
H3	PSS→JS→AC	0.258	0.036	7.188	**0.000*** **		0.192	0.334	0.193	0.337	0.289		**0.000*** **	**Same**	**Support**
H4	PRW→JS→AC	0.401	0.065	6.193	**0.000*** **		0.284	0.537	0.287	0.543	0.421		**0.000*** **	**Same**	**Support**
H5	PSS→PRW→AC	0.063	0.018	3.466	**0.001** **		0.028	0.100	0.030	0.102	0.013		0.324	Different	Reject

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001. See text for abbreviations.



Note: *, **, *** indicate that the coefficient is statistically significant, respectively, at $p<0.05$; $p<0.01$, $p<0.001$.

Figure 6. Empirical model (Study 1)

Then, multi-group analysis (MGA) was utilized with 5,000 times bootstrap method in this study, as it is an appropriate analytical technique to test moderation effects, especially on an entire model (MacKinnon, 2011; Memon et al., 2019). Since the moderator is a categorical moderator "employee participation in corporate volunteering (PV)" in the proposed model, the test of moderations was built on comparisons. As discussed before, the moderation of AC was compared in two conditions: PV in four categories (PV in company vs. PV outside company vs. No PV vs. PV in & outside company); PV in two categories (Do PV vs. No PV). The result of moderations (hypothesis 6) is reported in Table 9.

For the first condition, four categories of PV could be classified in six comparisons, specifically:

(1) PV in company vs. PV outside company;
(2) PV in company vs. No PV;
(3) PV in company vs. PV in & outside company;
(4) PV outside company vs. No PV;
(5) PV outside company vs. PV in & outside company;
(6) No PV vs. PV in & outside company.

The model fit is good in the proposed model (χ^2=654.343; χ^2/df=1.90; CFI=0.958; TLI=0.955; RMSEA=0.071; SRMR=0.080) (Iacobucci, 2010). The results report that employee participation in volunteering (PV) moderates the partial model. That is, only hypothesis 6b, 6c and 6e are partially supported, specifically:

- H6b (PSS → JS → AC): "PV in company" and "No PV" (unstandardized coefficient is -0.181, p=0.020, lower bound is -0.324, upper bound is -0.018), i.e., the coefficient is higher when an employee does not participate in any volunteering;

- H6c (PRW → AC): "PV in company" and "No PV" (unstandardized coefficient is 0.518, p=0.048, lower bound is 0.028, upper bound is 1.049), i.e., the coefficient is higher when an employee participates in volunteering in the company;

- H6e (PSS → PRW → AC): "PV in company" and "No PV" (unstandardized coefficient is 0.169, p=0.046, lower bound is 0.027, upper bound is 0.363), i.e., the coefficient is higher when an employee participates in volunteering in the company;

For the second condition, the comparison of PV is easier, that is “Do PV vs. No PV”. The model fit is satisfactory (χ^2=412.211; χ^2/df=2.54; CFI=0.966; TLI=0.962; RMSEA=0.065; SRMR=0.051) (Iacobucci, 2010). Only hypotheses 6c and 6e are partially supported, specifically:

- H6c (PRW → AC): “Do PV” and “No PV” (unstandardized coefficient is 0.334, p=0.050, lower bound is 0.008, upper bound is 0.681), i.e., the coefficient is higher when an employee participates in volunteering;

- H6e (PSS → PRW → AC): “Do PV” and “No PV” (unstandardized coefficient is 0.086, p=0.035, lower bound is 0.012, upper bound is 0.173), i.e., the coefficient is higher when an employee participates in volunteering;

Table 9. Conditional direct & indirect effect (moderation)

Comparison	Indirect & Direct effect	Point Estimate (Unstd.)	Product of coefficient			Bootstrap 5000 times (95% Confidence Interval)			
						Percentile		Bias-corrected Percentile	
			SE	Z	P-value	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
*PV in 4 Category (**PV in company** vs. **PV outside company** vs. **No PV** vs. **PV in & outside company**)*									
PV in company vs. PV outside company	PRW→JS→AC	-0.138	0.264	-0.524	0.600	-0.648	0.404	-0.709	0.353
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.174	0.110	-1.581	0.114	-0.403	0.028	-0.405	0.025
	PSS→PRW→AC	0.121	0.098	1.238	0.216	-0.069	0.316	-0.062	0.327
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	0.280	0.337	0.829	0.407	-0.349	0.950	-0.365	0.928
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	0.269	0.165	1.633	0.103	-0.053	0.596	-0.045	0.603
PV in company vs. NO PV	PRW→JS→AC	-0.222	0.151	-1.474	0.140	-0.500	0.084	-0.486	0.110
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.181	0.077	-2.335	**0.020***	-0.324	-0.018	-0.324	-0.018
	PSS→PRW→AC	0.169	0.085	1.997	**0.046***	0.014	0.343	0.027	0.363
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	0.518	0.262	1.979	**0.048***	0.015	1.033	0.028	1.049
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	0.163	0.137	1.189	0.234	-0.085	0.451	-0.096	0.444
PV in company vs. PV in & outside company	PRW→JS→AC	0.016	0.190	0.082	0.935	-0.350	0.403	-0.409	0.355
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.203	0.156	-1.301	0.193	-0.567	0.058	-0.542	0.075
	PSS→PRW→AC	0.098	0.107	0.921	0.357	-0.102	0.314	-0.099	0.319
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	0.230	0.371	0.621	0.534	-0.473	0.964	-0.497	0.951
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	0.072	0.211	0.339	0.734	-0.315	0.511	-0.324	0.496
PV outside company vs. NO PV	PRW→JS→AC	-0.084	0.247	-0.340	0.734	-0.570	0.398	-0.520	0.480
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.007	0.101	-0.066	0.948	-0.188	0.210	-0.187	0.213
	PSS→PRW→AC	0.048	0.057	0.846	0.397	-0.057	0.168	-0.046	0.184
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	0.238	0.254	0.937	0.349	-0.282	0.708	-0.267	0.726
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	-0.105	0.119	-0.883	0.377	-0.326	0.146	-0.332	0.130
PV outside company vs. PV in & outside company	PRW→JS→AC	0.154	0.277	0.555	0.579	-0.383	0.712	-0.374	0.725
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.029	0.171	-0.172	0.864	-0.409	0.264	-0.391	0.277
	PSS→PRW→AC	-0.023	0.088	-0.256	0.798	-0.196	0.154	-0.205	0.146
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	-0.049	0.373	-0.133	0.895	-0.773	0.676	-0.779	0.673
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	-0.197	0.201	-0.983	0.325	-0.564	0.220	-0.584	0.202
NO PV vs. PV in & outside company	PRW→JS→AC	0.238	0.171	1.391	0.164	-0.112	0.578	-0.188	0.518
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.023	0.149	-0.152	0.879	-0.378	0.208	-0.351	0.217
	PSS→PRW→AC	-0.071	0.072	-0.987	0.323	-0.219	0.069	-0.248	0.048
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	-0.288	0.299	-0.962	0.336	-0.868	0.318	-0.897	0.287
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	-0.092	0.175	-0.525	0.599	-0.414	0.274	-0.421	0.268
*PV in 2 category (**Do PV** vs. **No PV**)*									
Do PV vs. No PV	PRW→JS→AC	-0.130	0.121	-1.078	0.281	-0.373	0.105	-0.368	0.110
	PSS→JS→AC	-0.061	0.066	-0.927	0.354	-0.187	0.072	-0.190	0.068
	PSS→PRW→AC	0.086	0.041	2.109	**0.035***	0.006	0.165	0.012	0.173
	Direct effect (PRW→AC)	0.334	0.170	1.963	**0.050***	-0.003	0.666	0.008	0.681
	Direct effect (PSS→AC)	0.036	0.088	0.405	0.686	-0.138	0.206	-0.139	0.204

Note: Unstandardized Coefficients. *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001. See text for abbreviations.

To sum up, employees engaged in corporate volunteering, compared to non-volunteers, are more likely to commit to the organization affectively. Employees' positive workplace relationship are positively associated with affective commitment. In addition, job satisfaction is a significant mediator connecting job resources and affective commitment in this study.

2.5. Discussion on the results of Study 1

The purposes of Study 1 were to explore the model of affective commitment and its predictors and to test whether corporate volunteering has effects on such model. More specifically, the thesis explored and tested the potential relationship between affective commitment and other possible predictors (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction) of the company's banking sector in Poland. The data from the sample partially

supported the initial hypotheses. The results (after CMV correction) showed a positive relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC), mediated by job satisfaction (JS). Furthermore, job satisfaction (JS) also provides an explanation of the relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC). In addition, corporate volunteering (CV) in the study could directly or indirectly moderate the PSS–AC and PRW–AC relationships significantly.

Theoretical implication

This study contributed to understanding the theory in employees' participation on corporate volunteering. Firstly, the results of this study reflect and more greatly highlight the importance of corporate volunteering. Some scholars (e.g., Bidee et al., 2013) have emphasized that corporate volunteering could satisfy the basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. In addition, many studies (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) have explained these psychological needs mentioned in self-determination theory (SDT). Grant (2007) proposed that employees could feel autonomy in acting freely to benefit others, gain competence in successfully helping others and feel relatedness in connecting actions to outcomes that matter in the lives of other people. In addition, some scholars (Grant, 2008; Rodell, 2013) have suggested that corporate volunteering could be regarded as an alternative means for employees to satisfy psychological needs. The results in this study provide valuable evidence to connect SDT and corporate volunteering that are also consistent with previous studies (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Furthermore, this is true not only in the organizational context, but the results in this study also provide a more specific lens through which to observe a mechanism related to job resources and attitudes when employees participate in corporate volunteering. Some scholars (Peterson, 2004a; Plewa et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2016) theorize that corporate volunteering could satisfy employees' psychological needs, which could also positively affect workplace attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and affective commitment) and interpersonal relationships. Handy et al. (2000) also explained that employees were more likely to perceive the benefits (to them and to others) of volunteering if these benefits outweighed the corresponding costs. In this way, van Schie et al. (2018) suggested the potential connection between corporate volunteering and SDT theory. Thus, this study provides valuable evidence of how SDT theory explains the influence of corporate volunteering on employees' workplace attitudes.

In addition, this thesis makes several contributions to social exchange theory in the fields of employee attitudes and job resources. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) in the organization, regardless of supervisor–subordinate relationship or co-worker relationship, social exchange activities between two parties could build reciprocity, influencing employee job satisfaction and affective commitment. Many papers (Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009; Mustapha, 2013) empirically support such a positive relationship. This study contributes empirical evidence to support the claim that perceived supervisor support and positive relationship at work strengthens job attitudes, especially when employees participate in corporate volunteering.

This study proved that affective commitment was positively associated with perceived supervisor support and positive relationship at work, which were mediated by job satisfaction. Such a finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Alkhateri et al., 2018). After the correction of common method variance, however, hypotheses are partially supported by the collected data. That is, the significance still exists in direct and indirect relationship between perceived supervisor support and affective commitment. However, the mediator of positive relationships at work was not supported. These findings are contrary to the initial hypotheses. They also differ from the explanation provided by Dutton and Heaphy (2003) that the features of high-quality connections (i.e., positive relationships at work) are indicated by higher emotional carrying capacity. For the debates on positive relationships at work, this perhaps has two reasons.

Firstly, although Podsakoff et al. (2003) proposed the importance of detecting and correcting common method variance, they also indicated that the accuracy of correction may not persuasive. Richardson et al. (2009) also compared the differences of three main approaches to common method bias, namely "CFA marker technique", "correlational marker technique" and "ULMC technique", in congeneric and non-congeneric views. After comparison, they found that ULMC could better detect the existence of common method bias, but such an approach might also remove too much variance as compared to other approaches. Thus, the limitation of ULMC correction technique perhaps significantly influences related hypotheses in this study.

In other words, ULMC technique corrected too much variance of hypotheses (H2[1] & H5[2]), which may have resulted in the insignificance of the indirect and direct relationship between perceived supervisor support and affective commitment.

Secondly, the design of the conceptual model perhaps has the risk of inducing insignificance to related hypotheses. According to the theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959), two sorts of needs of workers should be fulfilled – hygiene (extrinsic) and motivator (intrinsic) needs. Hygiene (Extrinsic) needs refer to the context in which the job has to be done, such as supervision, interpersonal relations, fair pay and job security. If only hygiene (extrinsic) needs are to be filled, according to the theory, it would not lead to employees' job satisfaction but to a "neutral state" of neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction. In this vein, perceived supervisor support and positive relationships measured in the model are hygiene (extrinsic) needs, which might not significantly lead to greater job satisfaction. In addition, when employees perceive that they are valued and respected, the organization's promotional system is open and fair, and resources are spent on developing staff, then they are more likely to stay and tell others about it (Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998). Therefore, the lack of measurement of motivator (intrinsic) needs might also influence those rejected hypotheses.

Practical implication

The results on corporate volunteering contribute several practical suggestions for the organization. Firstly, the results reported that employee participation in volunteering, as compared to the non-participation of other employees, was positively associated with affective commitment. Thus, the organization could organize corporate volunteering periodically to cultivate employees' positive emotion to increase their satisfaction and possibly their affective commitment. In addition, it is necessary to design the work in the organization to promote employees' sustained participation in corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012). Some papers (e.g., Grube & Piliavin, 2000) also advance that the experiences encountered while volunteering are the primary determinants of whether people decide to continue volunteering. Such findings provide us an approach in which supervisors and managers could view corporate volunteering

[1] *H2: Job Satisfaction (JS) mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).*

[2] *Positive relationships at work (PRW) mediate the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC).*

as a sort of substitute for motivating those employees whose jobs lack enrichment; participation might compensate employees' otherwise lower satisfaction and commitment.

Based on the current research results on mediations, regardless of whether the proposed model is corrected by ULMC technique, this study examined the importance of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction could significantly influence both the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and affective commitment (AC) and the relationship between positive relationship at work (PRW) and affective commitment (AC). Thus, the manager should focus more on employees' job satisfaction. Boles et al. (2007) have suggested various facets of job satisfaction that could be used as a reference by managers in the organization to make corresponding policies and decisions in the future. They listed aspects such as satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with company policy, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with co-workers. Djurkovic et al. (2008) also indicate that the policy should be against negative behaviors (e.g., workplace bullying), and it should genuinely care about employees' well-being. In addition, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) mentioned that a procedurally fair reward system should show employees that the organization respects their rights and dignity. Many papers (e.g., Carsten & Spector, 1987; Judge et al., 2001) have also proved that job satisfaction is a key construct influencing performance and turnover in the organization. Therefore, the manager or supervisor should consider more deeply how to design company policy and corporate volunteering to motivate employees' job satisfaction and other positive attitudes (e.g., meaningfulness), in order to promote employees' positive work behaviors to benefit the organization.

On the other hand, the organization could build a friendly working environment for employees to cultivate positive working relationships. More specifically, the organization should focus on improving the quality of workplace relationships. Casimir et al. (2014) suggest that a positive organizational culture and climate that required all members to treat others with dignity and respect was one way to improve the quality of leader–member relationships. The reason to build such a culture could be explained by Bass et al. (1987) – that managers at lower levels tend to emulate the attitudes and behaviors of senior managers. It is therefore incumbent on senior managers to emphasize the importance of developing positive leader–follower relationships and to lead by example. In addition, the quality of leader–member relationship could also influence the co-worker relationship (Sherony & Green, 2002). In fact, it seems advisable for supervisors to develop high-quality leader–member exchanges with all

subordinates in order to enhance the quality of co-work exchange in the organization. From the organizational view, it is necessary to design a reasonable structure to shape potential connections between different employees. Brass (1984) found that employees acquired influence in the eyes of supervisors and non-supervisors through their relative position in a social network. Different positions give people different access to resources that other people value, thereby increasing interdependence and influence (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003).

Perceived supervisor support is another key point for affective commitment and job satisfaction in this study. For the supervisor in the organization, it is better to seek out employee feedback and suggestions, which could help employees feel supported by the supervisor and maintain a good personal relationship in the workplace. Gordon et al. (2019) have suggested that supervisors could schedule regular one-on-one meetings, which could further reinforce to employees their value through building and strengthening supervisor–employee relationships. In this vein, it is important for supervisors to learn and understand how various support behaviors may be viewed and perceived by employees, such as caring about employees' well-being, listening to employee opinions, providing help, appreciating extra effort, addressing concerns, etc. In other words, it is possible to capitalize on the potential for supervisors and leaders to develop new working roles in the organization (Griffin, Patterson & West, 2001). For example, they could increase job variety to encourage and support employees' skill development. Furthermore, supervisors could also work closely with their employees to understand where their stress is coming from, which could make employees feel supported and satisfied with their job experience (Kalliath et al., 2020).

Limitations and future direction

Firstly, this study only focused on examining the moderating role of "employee participation in corporate volunteering". Although the data collected in this study did not find any meaningful moderations, further research could combine the corporate volunteering with other demographic factors, such as the comparison of high-income and low-income employees' volunteering participation, the comparison of female and male employees' volunteering participation, and comparison of single and unmarried employees' volunteering participation. Such research could deepen the research to find more specific results, which could help us target whether other factors could also influence corporate volunteers. For example, Wang et al. (2014) proposed the relationship between gender differences and affective commitment.

However, there is a gap in the research on the moderating influence of corporate volunteering and other potential factors on affective commitment. It is interesting to examine whether interactions between corporate volunteering and other moderators exist in the model of affective commitment.

Then, the data collected in this study is only from one company in Poland, as the sample company has substantial volunteering experience in the banking industry. However, it also means that the results might not be representative in reflecting whether employees in other industries could be more likely to commit affectively when they participated in volunteering. Therefore, further studies could collect data in diverse ways, such as from multiple companies in the same industry and from different industries. Furthermore, the research could include two or more countries, if possible, not only in Poland, which could help us compare the same model in different countries. For example, Peyrat-Guillard and Glińska-Neweś (2010) proposed the study of organizational commitment through the comparison of Polish and French samples. In other words, further study could collect more respondents to support a multi-group analysis between industries and countries in corporate volunteering.

The last limitation in Study 1 relates to it being a cross-sectional study. The sample data were all from the same company's respondents, collected from a single source and at a single point. Further study could conduct a longitudinal study of affective commitment. The cross-sectional design of this study restricts the ability to establish causal relationships between the variables (Plewa et al., 2015), allowing us only to focus on the correlations between several variables. A longitudinal study could overcome these restrictions. Although this study found that significant relationships exist in the proposed model of affective commitment, it is unknown whether the significance of relationships would change over time. For example, the result, based on the collected data, is significant in time wave 1, but the results in other time waves are all insignificant. Furthermore, a longitudinal study could ignore the influence of common method variance (CMV). Although this study used the ULMC method to detect and correct CMV in this study, the accuracy of the technique is controversial (Richardson et al., 2009), and such a technique cannot eliminate CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, affective commitment and corporate volunteering is a good direction to explore longitudinally in the future.

Chapter 3. The effects of corporate volunteering on organizational citizenship behavior

3.1. Organizational citizenship behavior

History and definition of OCB

In the early 1970s, most scholars had a consensus that productivity should derive from skills, technology, and the levels of reward. However, some scholars (e.g., Katz, 1964; Cherrington et al., 1971; Gannon & Noon, 1971) argued that job satisfaction might influence productivity. Katz (1964) proposed that job satisfaction could be regarded as a consequence and condition of innovative and spontaneous behavior. Katz explained that the spontaneous behavior triggered by job satisfaction could also promote organizational productivity, while such behavior was not included in the contract. The purpose/thoughts of mentioning such behaviors were to respond to the circumstances in which some contingencies were not considered in organizational planning, and such spontaneous behaviors could be used to work out these contingencies so as to protect the effectiveness of the organization. Although some scholars have positive attitudes toward the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, no empirical result could prove such arguments, and thus those researchers regarded it as "naive folk wisdom" (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

In considering that "naive folk wisdom", Organ (1977) differed from those scholars who firmly believed in no satisfaction–performance relationship, and he proposed that the proposition, though not empirically supported, should not be rejected prematurely. Organ (1977) suggested that "performance" could be considered as a multi-dimensional conception that could be categorized more specifically, such as in terms of regular attendance, helping younger coworkers during office hours, and encouraging subordinates. Interestingly, Organ's thoughts are somewhat akin to the "spontaneous behaviors" proposed by Katz (1964). Then, Bateman and Organ (1983) labeled such "spontaneous behaviors" as "citizenship behaviors". After a few years, Organ (1988) did more comprehensive research on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), which integrated prior studies and Organ's then-understanding of and contributions to OCB.

Organ (1988) proposed the definition of OCB that has since then been widely accepted, as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Thus, following Organ's words, OCB should have several characteristics: (a) Discretionary behaviors. Organ (1988) proposed that the discretionary behavior was completely a matter of personal choice, rather than requirements expressed explicitly in the employment contract; (b) Such behavior is not directly recognized by the formal reward system. In other words, Organ (1988) suggested that "such returns not be contractually guaranteed" (p. 5). Specifically, the rewards derived from OCB are at best indirect and uncertain, which is completely distinct from those formal contributions (e.g., technical advancement) that are very likely with a formal reward system; (c) The promotion of organizational effectiveness. Integrating the two points stated above, the outcomes of behaviors (OCB) should have a positive influence on the organization. However, some scholars (Hirschman, 1970; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) argued against Organ's definition on OCB thusly: first, the definition has a bias that excludes political and moral factors; second, the "discretionary behaviors", as extra-role behaviors, are inconsistent with the views of some observers, even some respondents; and third, it is difficult to judge whether "non-contract rewards" are caused by extra-role or in-role behaviors. In response, Organ (1997, p. 95) proposed a new definition of OCB as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place".

The multi-dimensional structure of OCB

Organ (1988) suggested a taxonomy of OCB that was widely accepted by scholars and still is to this day. The taxonomy of OCB includes five dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988; MacKenzie et al., 1993). More specifically, altruism (narrower than the altruism mentioned by Smith et al. [1983]) is helping behavior excluded in the formal contract (e.g., an experienced employee is willing to help a younger employee in the organization); conscientiousness is discretionary behavior that goes well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization, such as regular attendance, obeying organizational rules and regulations, not taking extra breaks; sportsmanship is the employee's willingness to tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances without complaining (e.g., not complaining about trivial matters in the organization); courtesy is a discretionary employee behavior aimed at preventing work-related

problems with others (e.g., more discussions and communication with subordinates before taking action); civic virtue is behavior that an employee responsibly participates in or is involved in, or that expresses concern about the life of the organization. Podsakoff et al. (1990) were the first to examine the measurements of OCB items based on Organ's five-dimension taxonomy. Subsequently, many empirical studies (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Tansky, 1993) began to focus on OCB measurements that rated the extent to which they agreed that the employees' behaviors reflected these items.

After the basic OCB dimensions were identified and accepted by most scholars, some studies tried to classify and combine these dimensions into different, non-overlapping subgroups. For example, Williams and Anderson (1991) contributed significantly to the new OCB dimensions, including OCBI (Organizational Citizenship Behaviors targeted toward the individuals) and OCBO (Organizational Citizenship Behaviors targeted toward the organization). Different from Organ's (1988) five-dimension taxonomy, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that altruism and courtesy could be included in OCBI, and that the other three dimensions (sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness) fitted in OCBO. For this taxonomy, Organ (1997) indicated that this new dimension could be seen as "something neutral and more likely to guard against the preconceived connotations" (Organ, 1997, p. 94). Furthermore, some studies (e.g., Robinson & Morrison, 1995) pay more attention to the specific form of OCB dimensions. For example, Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) focused on exploring voice behavior and helping behavior. Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) researched the different forms of voice behaviors. Organ (2018) also proposed that voice could be treated as a form of criterion in OCB measures. The main implication of such research is that a better understanding of such behavior in a relatively specific working environment is needed.

3.2. Organizational citizenship behavior and corporate volunteering

The theoretical connection between organizational citizenship behavior and corporate volunteering have been explored and examined by many scholars (e.g., Rodell et al., 2016). Generally, it could be explained in two ways. The first explanation mainly focuses on the sense of identification (connection). Organ (1988) suggested that the discretionary and cooperative behaviors referred to in OCB could promote effective organizational functioning. Riketta (2005) proposed the significant association between higher organizational citizenship behavior and

stronger organizational identification. More specifically, Jones (2010) explained that OCBs, whether OCBI or OCBO, could promote the further organizational goals and interests, and employees with high organizational identity are motivated to do so. High identification is built on a sense of respect and pride for the company's support of organizational activities (e.g., corporate volunteering) (de Gilder et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2010). Logically, such identification could cause a cross-domain enhancement effect on employee engagement and commitment, as well as on behaviors in the workplace (Rodell, 2013). Another explanation is related to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Corporate volunteering, as a "low-cost training option", provides an opportunity for employees to develop and improve work-related skills (e.g., communication and interpersonal skills) (Caudron, 1994; Booth et al., 2009). In other words, corporate volunteering participation could be regarded as a source of satisfying needs in the organization. If employees perceived that their needs were better satisfied by volunteering activities, that would develop their commitment to "pay it back" to the organization to maintain reciprocity (Settoon et al., 1996; Meyer and Maltin, 2010). For this reason, employees are expected to engage in positive employee behaviors (e.g., OCBs).

Although theoretical approaches related to OCB and corporate volunteering are relatively fruitful in these years, the empirical evidence is still unmature. The meta-analysis conducted by Howard and Serviss (2021) offers similar findings – that only a few qualified studies empirically investigate employee outcomes (e.g., positive employee behaviors) and corporate volunteering, which is consistent with the findings in this thesis. The results reported that a positive relationship existed between positive behaviors and corporate volunteering. The limited studies, however, are not persuasive as empirical evidence to illustrate the "OCB–corporate volunteering" relationship. Rodell et al. (2016) also questioned whether the findings of the individual-level consequences of volunteering are overwhelmingly positive. Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015) suggested an exception study, that the positive relationship between corporate support for volunteering and organizational commitment might disappear if employees attributed this support to public relations motives. Kiviniemi et al. (2002) proposed that volunteering that satisfied multiple motivations was associated with greater stress and lower satisfaction as compared to volunteering that satisfied a single motivation. Therefore, although these experiments are not conducted in employee volunteering exclusively, it hints that the potential mechanism between corporate volunteering and OCB stills need to be explored and examined empirically.

To sum up, it is necessary to examine the significance of corporate volunteering and OCB. In addition, some scholars (Mobley, 1982; Grant, 2012; Aisbett et al., 2015; Benevene et al., 2018; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019; Glińska-Neweś et al., 2021) have proposed the effects of corporate volunteering on workplace attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction) and resources (i.e., perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) also provides theoretical support connecting OCB and workplace attitudes and resources. Thus, this thesis plans to explore the potential mechanisms among corporate volunteering, perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. The related hypotheses will be presented subsequently.

On the other hand, notably, this study will examine only employee volunteers. Several reasons were considered and listed as follows. Firstly, based on the job absorption theory (Kahn, 1990; Rodell, 2013), employee-volunteers could be "charged" in participating activities, providing them with psychological resources. Then, these perceived psychological resources could indirectly motivate volunteers to engage in citizenship behaviors. Similarly, based on the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2003), volunteers more easily get job resources (e.g., supervisor support), which will be positively associated with OCB. Role identity theory (Jones, 2010; Rodell et al., 2016) also implies that corporate volunteering could help employees build strong identity, which motivates them to engage in OCB. Consistently, some studies report similar empirical evidence. De Glider et al. (2015) proposed that, compared to non-volunteers, employee volunteers showed higher positive levels of OCB and job attitudes. Boštjančič et al. (2018) suggested that employees who participated in volunteering were more enthusiastic in work engagement and tended to work with higher dedication, vigor and absorption. Cao (2019) also indicated that, even when employee participation in volunteering was low, such programs significantly influenced employees' work-related perceptions and behaviors. In this vein, compared to non-volunteers, it seems more meaningful to probe the study of OCB among volunteers. Therefore, the aforementioned variables (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior) will be used in the conceptual model to explain what motivates employee-volunteers to behave positively at work. In the following paragraphs, the rationale for the hypotheses is presented.

3.3. Antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior among employee-volunteers. Hypothesis development

3.3.1. Perceived supervisor support and organizational citizenship behavior

Although few studies have explicitly researched the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), such a relationship is well documented (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1997) and supported by relatively clear theoretic backstones (i.e., social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity) (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Some scholars (e.g., Guchait & Back, 2016) have proposed that the relatively clear theoretical support for the relationship between PSS and OCB make it too obvious to be worthy of investigating, which may explain why few studies on this relationship exist.

The explanations of both social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) clarify that the supportive behaviors received from the organization or related representatives could create a sense of obligation to reciprocate the favors, which is expressed through behaviors beneficial to the supportive source. In other words, individuals in the organization will attempt to reciprocate to those who benefit them. From the perspectives of employees, PSS could be considered as a sort of assurance available from their supervisors, especially when employees need to deal with stressful situations (Randall et al., 1999). Besides, supervisors are typically regarded as agents of the organization (Guchait & Back, 2016). Thus, the norm of reciprocity motivates employees who receive a supervisor's support to seek to balance their inputs and outcomes in relation to others (Flynn, 2003). Flynn also suggested that the existence of reciprocity could be explained by the notion of fairness. More specifically, when employees believe that their leaders can be trusted to be fair, employees will repay their positive and beneficial behaviors to the supervisor, which also contributes to a high-quality exchange relationship in the organization (Organ, 1988; Lambert, 2000). Additionally, some papers have indicated the importance of perceived supervisor support, which was not only a reason for entering in exchange relationship with supervisors (Blau, 2017; Zinta, Virginia, Dan & Zachary, 2011) but also played a significant role in building leader–member exchange relationship, especially in the early stages of this relationship's formation (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998).

As proposed by Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002), compared to traditional in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior is especially suited to being regarded as a reciprocal behavior. Empirically, Podsakoff et al. (2000) performed a meta-analysis to conclude that significant positive relationships existed in the perceptions of fairness, perceived supervisor support, and OCB. Le Pine et al. (2002) proposed that supervisory support could enhance citizenship behaviors. Zellars et al. (2002) suggested that employees exhibited low levels of citizenship behaviors if they perceived less support from their supervisors. Thus, perceived supervisor support plays a critical role in influencing organizational citizenship behaviors. In the organizational context, Boštjančič et al. (2018) provided empirical evidence that both corporate volunteering and corporate volunteering climate are positively and statistically significantly associated with supervisor support. That is, employees who participated more corporate volunteering programs would perceive a higher level of supervisor support. To explain, when employees perceive that participation in volunteering could help them leave a good impression on a supervisor and manager, which will help them get support from the supervisor, then, driven by compensation motives and the norm of reciprocity, employees are more likely to perform positive work behaviors to pay back the organization (House, 1981; Organ, 1988; Karsh et al., 2005; Rodell, 2013). Hence, the following hypothesis is posed:

H7: There is a positive relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among employee-volunteers.

3.3.2. Job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior

The relationship of job satisfaction to OCB can be traced back to a study by Katz (1964) on the arguments as to whether spontaneous behaviors driven by "intrinsic job satisfaction" could promote organizational performance. Substantial evidence (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983), regardless of theoretical or empirical support, could be found in the literature to support the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Based on social exchange theory, employees are more likely to perform OCB as reciprocal behaviors for the organization if they are satisfied with their job (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Taking into account this theoretical background, many studies (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991) also find a very positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. For example, Bateman and Organ (1983) suggested that employees dedicated their efforts and displayed behaviors beneficial to organizations only when they

perceived a high level of job satisfaction. Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that the cognitive component (vs. affective component) of job satisfaction could significantly predict what they labeled OCBI (i.e., altruism) and OCBO (i.e., generalized compliance). Organ and Ryan (1995) concluded similarly, in a meta-analysis of 55 studies, that employees' job attitudes, especially job satisfaction and organizational commitment, predicted OCB better than other disposable variables. When employees participate in corporate volunteering programs, compared to employees without volunteering opportunities, they perceive a higher level of satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Peterson, 2004a). In addition, corporate volunteering also offers the chance for employees to learn and develop job-related skills (e.g., teamwork and communication skills) that could increase their sense of accomplishment and well-being (Rodell et al., 2016). Paço and Nave (2013) also reported that satisfaction with corporate volunteering could bring employees a greater level of happiness. On the other hand, some papers (e.g., de Gilder, Schuyt & Breedijk, 2005) indicate that corporate volunteering positively affects organizational citizenship behavior. It could be explained that employees participating in corporate volunteering programs foster their organizational pride and identification, thus enhancing job satisfaction and promoting more citizenship behaviors (Jones, 2010). Therefore, based on the considerable support on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, it is reasonable to suggest that a positive relationship exists between these two variables, especially among employee-volunteers.

The relationship between perceived supervisor support and job satisfaction is found to be significant by many studies (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1997). For example, Pienaar, Sieberbagen and Mostert (2007) proposed that supervisor support had a positive impact on job satisfaction. Conversely, the absence of supervisor support could decrease job satisfaction and increase job stress (Toch, 2002). Moreover, some papers demonstrate that the specific measures of perceived supervisor support could enhance employee satisfaction, such as high tolerance for task completion, hearing employees' complaints, and emotional support (Siu et al., 2010; Wicks, 2005). Furthermore, the literature (Boštjančič et al., 2018; Peterson, 2004a) reports that employees participating more in corporate volunteering activities typically expressed higher levels of perceived supervisor support and job satisfaction compared to employees without volunteering experience. Thus, the following hypothesis is posed:

H8: Job satisfaction (JS) mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among employee-volunteers.

3.3.3. Positive relationships at work and organizational citizenship behavior

Based on the theory of relational coordination proposed by Gittell et al. (2006), high-quality relationships manifest in shared goals, shared knowledge and mutual respect, which could create a positive social environment for people to perform and act within. Kahn (2007) suggested that a high-quality relationship was more likely to make people feel valued and appreciated, which might motivate them to engage more in work processes and tasks. Some papers (Kahn, 1990; Choi, 2006; Dutton & Ragins, 2007) indicate that workplace interpersonal relationships had a significant impact on people and their engagement in interpersonal social behaviors. Luthans (2002) also made similar findings, that a positive organizational behavior perspective contributed to the study of work relationships in the area of positive connections. Conversely, low-quality workplace connections could be damaging to individuals and ultimately to organizations (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). Thus, it is reasonable to assume some degree of relationship between positive relationships at work and organizational behaviors. However, rarely do empirical studies in the literature prove the significance of this relationship directly.

Generally, workplace relationships significantly impact employee behaviors in organizations (Glińska-Neweś, 2014). More specifically, both internal and external relationships could be regarded as prisms through which individuals perceive, understand and assess their life and work (Blustein, 2011; Reis et al., 2000). The relationships involved in the organization shape how individuals complete daily tasks, sometimes encouraging them to do work contractually not required of them (Halbesleben, 2012; Kahn, 2007). Gradually, interpersonal trust could be found within "deep" relational forms (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). The social exchange framework treats trust as an important manifestation that predicts OCB at both individual and organizational levels (Singh & Srivastava, 2009).

Empirically, some studies (e.g., Love & Forret, 2008) suggest that team–member exchange had a significant and positive influence on OCB. To explain such a relationship, individual employees may approach their immediate work group members and seek them out as a source of information to compare perceptions and beliefs, given the interdependence of tasks and the proximity of colleagues (Brass et al., 2004). In other words, employees define their roles in the

organization through how they look to other members of the work team (Feldman, 1981; Kram & Isabella, 1985). Hence, one's coworkers provide meaning and direction for individual behavior in organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). When a high level of social interaction exists, it is expected that individuals will go above and beyond the requirements of their job roles to engage in extra-role behaviors (e.g., OCB) (Love and Forret, 2008). Furthermore, a recent study by Preffer et al. (2022) emphasized the importance of corporate volunteering, which could enhance interpersonal interactions in the organization. More specifically, they explained that employees participating more in corporate volunteering could experience a higher level of personal social bonding and organizational identification, while they also felt less stressed and healthier, and were accompanied by higher levels of job satisfaction and work engagement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

H9: There is a positive relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among employee-volunteers.

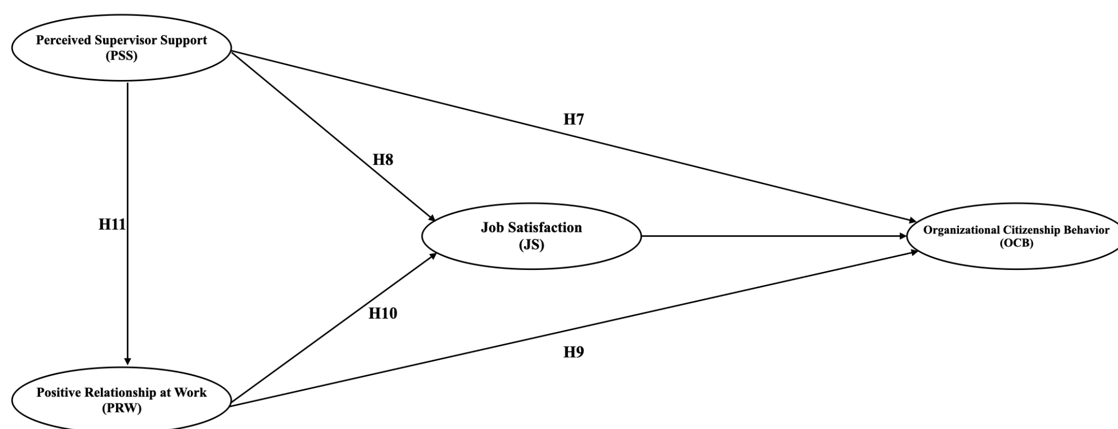
Additionally, the relationship between positive relationships at work and job satisfaction could be supported by some studies (e.g., Adams & Bond, 2000). Brass et al. (2004) also reported that employees located in more high-quality connections were more likely to have greater job satisfaction. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) suggested that positive relationships were related to a higher level of work relationships with employees, perceived supervisor support, and job satisfaction. That is, support perceived from supervisor decreases employees' work stress, which could motivate them engage more in activities in the organization to maintain reciprocal relations with the supervisor and other employees (Baker & Dutton, 2007; Hughes, 2019; Pohl & Galletta, 2017). With respect to the organizational activities, corporate volunteering activities could significantly influence supervisor support, workplace relationships and job satisfaction (Boštjančič et al., 2018; Preffer et al., 2022; Peterson, 2004a). In this vein, the following hypotheses are posed:

H10: Job satisfaction (JS) mediates the relationship between positive relationships at work (PRW) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among employee-volunteers.

H11: Positive relationships at work (PRW) mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among employee-volunteers.

Figure 7 shows the conceptual model built on the hypotheses developed in this chapter.

Figure 7. Conceptual model (Study 2)



Source: Own study

The following chapters will present methods, results and discussion.

3.4. Methodology

3.4.1. Sample and data collection

This study aims to investigate the influence of corporate volunteering on organizational citizenship behaviors and related employee attitudes (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction). Respondents were selected from one financial service company in Poland, as this was the only company that organized volunteering during the coronavirus pandemic and responded positively to data collection requests. This company was qualified as "the only loan company that prepares a CSR report" and was honored by the Volunteer Center Association (Stowarzyszenia Centrum Wolontariatu) as "25 years of continuous volunteering activities in Poland" (OurLoan, 2022). Due to the long experience and history of the sample companies and the limitations of data collection during the pandemic, the final sample for this study only included employees who had previously participated in corporate volunteering programs. The sample size for this study was determined using the ten

times rule suggested by Hair et al. (2011) to ensure the quality of any studies. The rule states that the minimum sample of a PLS model should be equal to "10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in structural model". Figure 1 involves four constructs in the conceptual model. According to the ten times rule criterion, the minimum sample size should be 30 respondents. In this way, the sample size in this study (35 respondents) is above the required minimum. The research data was collected from February to April from a financial institution in 2022 through an online self-completion questionnaire. During that period, home/online working caused by the COVID-19 epidemic led to a reduction in corporate volunteering activities, which also explained the small sample size. As to the characteristics of the collected data, females (82.9%) present a higher response rate than males (17.1%), and ages range mostly between 23 and 57, with tenure extending up to 22 years. Managerial and non-managerial positions in the collected data are about 34.3% and 65.7%, respectively. Additionally, the household structure is one with children for 60 percent of the sample.

3.4.2. Measures

Perceived supervisor support was measured by the eight-item scale of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002). For example, "The supervisor values my contribution to organizational well-being" and "The supervisor really cares about my well-being". It was measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Positive relationships at work were measured by the seven-item scale of Carmeli (2009). For example, "I feel that my co-workers like me" and "We are committed to one another at work". It was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Job satisfaction was measured by the ten-item scale of Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002). Sample items include "In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work" and "The mission/purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important". It was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

Organizational citizenship behavior was measured by the ten-item scale of Spector, Bauer and Fox (2010). For example, "Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge" and "Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time". It was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Never" to "Very often".

All related items of questionnaires used for this study are shown in Appendix.

3.4.3. Data analysis

This study primarily used IBM SPSS Statistics version 26 and SmartPLS version 3.3.3 to analyze the data. The variance-based PLS-SEM method was utilized because it could handle the reflectometry model and the relatively small sample size of this study compared to covariance-based SEM methods (Barclay et al., 1995; Chin, 1998; Chin et al., 2003). Furthermore, several papers (Farooq, 2016; Hair et al., 2017) have shown that PLS-SEM can simultaneously estimate causal relationships between all potentials and handle measurement errors in the structural model. Therefore, PLS-SEM is the most suitable for this study (Farooq & Radovic-Markovic, 2017). Furthermore, as the guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2017) were considered, this study evaluated the measurement model separately before evaluating the structural model. Two steps were performed in this study. First, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to test the convergent and discriminant validity and reliability of sample data and to check common method variance. The second step tested multiple mediation effects in bootstrapping approach (5,000 bootstrapping samples) (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In addition, importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) (Ringle and Sarstedt, 2016) was performed as a *post-hoc* analysis to further understand all variables in the proposed model.

3.5. Results

3.5.1. Confirmatory factor analysis

The reliability and validity of the model were tested by confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Table 10 shows the results of the convergent validity test and the reliability test. The results of all items are significant (P-value<0.05), and all standardized factor loadings are above 0.6. Furthermore, the results of average variance extracted (AVE) are all satisfactory

(0.633, 0.725, 0.653 and 0.621), all being larger than 0.50 (Hair et al., 1992). The results of Cronbach's Alpha (α) (0.855, 0.905, 0.823 and 0.848) and composite reliability (CR) (0.896, 0.929, 0.883 and 0.891) are also satisfactory. According to previous studies (Nunnally, 1978; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), they are all above recommended values (Cronbach's alpha: 0.7; CR: 0.6). On the other hand, the results of discriminant validity test (Table 11) are also satisfactory (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Thus, all validity and reliability tests were passed.

As recommended by many scholars (e.g., Kushwaha & Agrawal, 2015; Singh & Verma, 2019), the potential threat of common method variance was tested by Harmon's single-factor test in SPSS. Based on the assumption mentioned in the paper of Podsakoff and colleagues (2003), common method variance is a serious problem when a single latent factor will account for more than 50% of the total variance of the measures. In this study, there is only one individual factor (44.511%) in the data, which means this factor could only explain 44.511% of total variance. Thus, the risk of common method variance could be ignored in this study.

Table 10. CFA analysis (Convergent Validity & Reliability test)

Dimension	Item	Std.	SE	Z	P-value	Cronbach α	CR	AVE
PSS	PSS3	0.738	0.117	6.334	0.000	0.855	0.896	0.633
	PSS4	0.860	0.040	21.586	0.000			
	PSS5	0.765	0.115	6.637	0.000			
	PSS6	0.825	0.065	12.636	0.000			
	PSS8	0.786	0.080	9.810	0.000			
PRW	PRW1	0.890	0.052	16.945	0.000	0.905	0.929	0.725
	PRW2	0.895	0.041	21.984	0.000			
	PRW3	0.774	0.100	7.739	0.000			
	PRW4	0.865	0.037	23.114	0.000			
	PRW6	0.827	0.069	11.951	0.000			
JS	JS1	0.807	0.087	9.283	0.000	0.823	0.883	0.653
	JS3	0.786	0.075	10.482	0.000			
	JS9	0.827	0.073	11.312	0.000			
	JS10	0.812	0.064	12.706	0.000			
OCB	OCB1	0.731	0.121	6.026	0.000	0.848	0.891	0.621
	OCB2	0.812	0.105	7.764	0.000			
	OCB5	0.838	0.069	12.166	0.000			
	OCB6	0.777	0.089	8.698	0.000			
	OCB7	0.779	0.119	6.569	0.000			

Note: See text for abbreviations.

Table 11. CFA analysis (Discriminant Validity)

	Mean	SD	AVE	PSS	PRW	JS	OCB
PSS	3.954	0.915	0.633	**0.796**			
PRW	4.160	0.757	0.725	0.528	**0.851**		
JS	3.993	0.930	0.653	0.762	0.718	**0.808**	
OCB	3.851	0.750	0.621	0.333	0.625	0.442	**0.788**

Note: See text for abbreviations. Diagonal elements are the square root of AVE.

3.5.2. Testing of hypothesized relationships (including mediations)

As recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008), mediation was estimated by bootstrap method (5,000 times). The direct (H7 and H9) and indirect (mediation) relationships (H8, H10 and H11) between the constructs were tested. All results are reported in Table 12. Only hypothesis 9 (P-value=0.024) was supported in the study. The R-square of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is 0.390 (39.0 %), which is the moderate level suggested by Chin (1998). This

means that ~39.0% covariance of OCB was explained by other independent variables (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction) in this study. Figure 8 presents standardized path coefficients of each relationship in the proposed model.

Table 12. Direct & indirect effect (mediation)

Hypothesis	Indirect & Direct effect	Standardized coefficient	Product of coefficient			Bootstrap 5000 times (95% Confidence Interval)				Result
						Percentile		Bias-corrected Percentile		
			SE	Z	P-value	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
H7	PSS→OCB	0.020	0.257	0.077	0.938	-0.494	0.545	-0.651	0.429	Reject
H8	PSS→JS→OCB	-0.016	0.170	0.093	0.926	-0.331	0.354	-0.363	0.322	Reject
H9	PRW→OCB	0.635	0.280	2.266	**0.024***	-0.142	0.985	-0.156	0.980	**Support**
H10	PRW→JS→OCB	-0.013	0.151	0.086	0.923	-0.252	0.367	-0.293	0.314	Reject
H11	PSS→PRW→OCB	0.336	0.174	1.928	0.054	-0.100	0.621	0.042	0.713	Reject

Note: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001. See text for abbreviations.

Note: *, **, *** indicate that the coefficient is statistically significant, respectively, at p<0.05; p<0.01, p<0.001.

Figure 8. Empirical model (Study 2)

3.5.3. Importance-performance map analysis (IPMA)

IPMA (also known as importance performance matrix analysis or priority map analysis) is a practical statistical tool in PLS-SEM to analyze the extended estimates of path coefficients in a visual way (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). More precisely, the IPMA shows a comparison of importance (i.e., the total effectiveness of the preceding constructs in predicting the target construct) and performance (i.e., the average latent variable score) (Farooq et al., 2018). In this

thesis, OCB is a target construct that is predicted by three predecessors (i.e., perceived supervisor support; positive relationships at work; job satisfaction). The results of IPMA for this study are presented in Figure 9, which shows that "positive relationships at work" has the highest importance performance score (0.604). Statistically, this means that organizational citizenship behavior would increase by 0.604 (*ceteris paribus*), if "positive relationships at work" increased by one unit. Moreover, the results also reveal the lowest performance exists in "perceived supervisor support" (73.608), which indicates that there is great room to improve this construct. The completed results are provided in Table 13 for readers.

Table 13. Importance-performance map analysis for organizational citizenship behavior

Latent variables	Importance	Performances
Job satisfaction	-0.024	75.160
Perceived supervisor support	0.266	73.608
Positive Relationship at Work	**0.604**	**79.172**

Note: Bold values indicate the highest importance (total effect) and highest performance value.

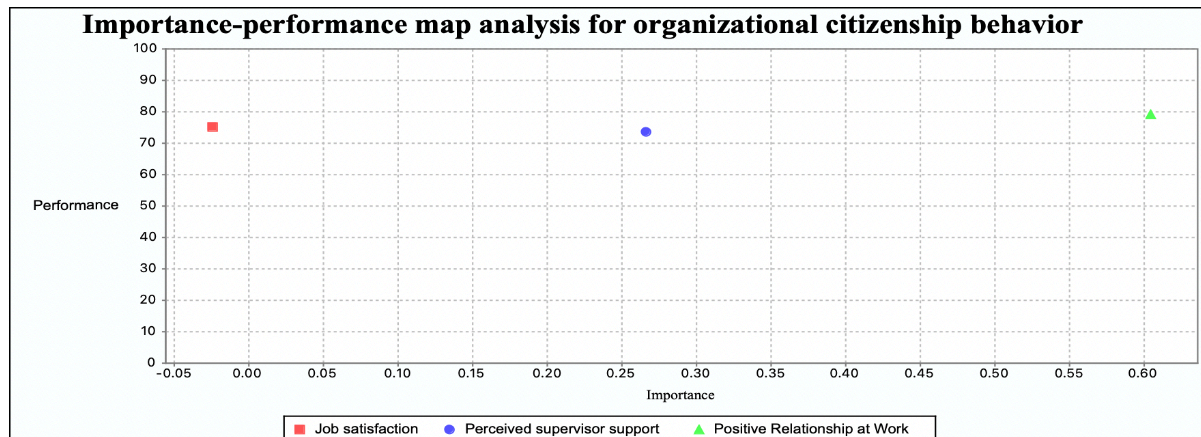


Figure 9. Importance-performance map analysis for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Therefore, only one hypothesis was supported in this study. That is, among employee volunteers, positive relationships at work were positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. Additionally, IPMA results reported that the construct of perceived supervisor support might not fit well with the collected data. The following chapters will present a discussion.

3.6. Discussion on the results of Study 2

The purpose of this study was to explore the model of organizational citizenship behavior and its predictors in corporate volunteering. More specifically, the paper examined the potential relationship among employee-volunteers between organizational citizenship behavior and other possible predictors (i.e., perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction). The results partially support the related hypotheses. Only the result for a direct relationship between positive relationships at work and organizational citizenship behavior was positive and significant via empirical evidence for respondents participating in corporate volunteering.

Theoretical implication

This study proposed several contributions to promote related theoretical development. Firstly, the results in this study provide evidence to support social exchange theory in corporate volunteering. Based on the concept of social exchange suggested by Blau (1964), due to its unspecific nature, a broad range of helping behaviors are allowed without a strict *quid-pro-quo* sense of reciprocity. Similarly, Organ (1990) proposed that social exchanges were an open-ended concept that also confirmed the significance of social exchange on the performance of OCB. When an individual plans to reciprocate a favor received from another person, it could be considered as the "starting mechanism" of the exchange relationship (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). Taking into account corporate volunteering, this study proved the significance of social exchange theory and the reciprocity norm in an organizational context, especially for employees' participation in corporate volunteering. Love and Forret (2008) also suggested that individuals could continue to engage in low-risk exchanges with one another if indeed reciprocity takes place. In addition, apart from instrument- and task-oriented benefits received in social exchanges, employees also look for intrinsic and emotional benefits from such exchange relationships, such as social approval from work groups and a sense of belonging (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Blau, 1964; Lawler, 2001). For example, Schermuly and Meyer (2016) proposed that coworkers could perceive work meaningfulness and structure through offering bonds of exchange relationships. This study extended social exchange theory from employees' attitudes and resources to work behaviors, that a significant positive relationship existed between positive relationships at work and organizational citizenship behavior, which was also consistent with previous studies. Bowler and Brass (2006) found that the strength of

relationship influenced both the giving and receiving of helping behaviors among employees in manufacturing. Love and Forret (2008) also illustrated that employees who perceived a high-quality exchange relationship were be more likely to perform organizational citizenship behaviors in the organization.

However, the relationships related to perceived supervisor support, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior in this study were insignificant, which was inconsistent with many studies (e.g., Le Pine et al., 2002). Such inconsistence might be explained theoretically in two ways. Firstly, although the norm of reciprocity is considered as a universal norm (Gouldner, 1960), it still has potential risk to build exchanges between coworkers. In other words, employees might do nothing to reciprocate efforts made on the other's behalf, as an individual's perception of the evaluation of reciprocity and subsequent exchange interactions with others may differ from those of others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). That is, if an employee has no consciousness on the norm of reciprocity to respond in the favor of others (supervisor or subordinate), based on stable social exchanges, this employee has no chance to establish mutual trust and fortify social bonds, nor to pay positive behaviors back in the organization (Blau, 1986; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Another possible explanation is referred as the "reverse buffering" effect (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). That is, an employee perhaps complains to coworkers in the organization, and, in turn, these coworkers could provide support and legitimacy to the complaints, which might deepen the employee's dissatisfaction with the organization (Love & Forret, 2008). In this vein, the employee might be able to maintain a positive interpersonal relationship with these employees, even with his or her supervisor, as they all complain about the organization.

Furthermore, this study has contributed to understanding social exchange theory with regard to what motivated employee-volunteers' engagement in positive work behavior, with results in line with previous studies (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Bateman & Organ, 1983). Due to the limited empirical studies of organizational citizenship behavior in a corporate volunteering context, this study extends previous research on social exchange in organizations by providing evidence that employees reciprocate through OCB in response to high-quality positive relationships at work. More specifically, corporate volunteering provides an opportunity for employees to build connections with others and derive a sense of meaningfulness and belonging from these experiences (Geroy et al., 2000; Rodell, 2013). Since corporate volunteering could provide a "low-cost training option" for employees to enhance their work-related skills (e.g.,

communication, interpersonal skills and active listening) (Caudron, 1994; Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013), which could lead to greater well-being (e.g., satisfaction and happiness) (Mojza et al., 2011; Paço and Nave, 2013), employees are in turn more likely to engage in citizenship behavior rather than counterproductive behavior (de Gilder, Schuyt & Breedijk, 2005; Jones, 2010). Additionally, Rodell et al. (2016) proposed that only a handful of studies explored the performance implications of employee volunteering related to work behaviors. In this way, this study provides a valuable response to the call made by Rodell et al. (2016).

Practical implications

Inspired by the findings of this study on corporate volunteering, supervisors should pay more attention to how to cultivate a high-quality work relationship in the organization. Rodell et al. (2016) proposed that corporate volunteering was a managerial practice that was tested by previous studies and was widely evident in today's business environment. Thus, supervisors play a crucial role in corporate volunteering activities. Some studies (e.g., Framer et al., 2015) have also suggested that the utility of managerial actions could reinforce the value of high-quality relationships that balance uniqueness and belonging in work groups.

Additionally, supervisors could build clear expectations that each employee has differentiated strengths to benefit the organization while making them perceive that they are valued by the organization for their uniqueness and contributions, in order to enhance their sense of belonging. Supervisors also need to pay more attention to how to respond to employees immediately and positively to enhance their emotional bonds to the organization and thus their positive spontaneous behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior). To consolidate relationship between supervisors and employees, corporate volunteering could provide a platform to share information and communicate actively. Additionally, flexibility of corporate volunteering activities is needed, with supervisors providing more options for employees, such as blood drives, holiday fundraisers, mentoring and youth activities. As Spreitzer et al. (2012) suggested, employee volunteering in a relatively new environment could motivate employees to learn and apply their skills and provide them a sense of vitality, because employees could feel that they were contributing to a greater good. Furthermore, the workplace atmosphere could be nurtured – and high-quality interactions created – by employee volunteering, which might also promote employees' engagement in citizenship behaviors to a certain degree. On the other hand, some studies (e.g., Sun et al., 2013) suggest increasing the level of procedural

fairness climate to influence the effects of a high-quality workplace relationship on OCB. To illustrate, they proposed that "appropriate treatment of favorability and fairness in resource allocation is a crucial element in gaining and sustaining positive work outcomes among employees, […] these outcomes may influence employees' OCB" (p. 223). Finally, supervisors could give employees freedom to choose their preferred volunteering programs and respect their choices, in order to motivate them benefit the corporation actively. Rodell et al. (2016) proposed that the newest generation of employees places significant value on volunteering opportunities when evaluating employers. The extent to which employees enjoy and believe in the volunteering programs they do, and the value they feel in doing them, will promote OCB and also make them perform better at work. Thus, supervisors may consider how to encourage and implement employee volunteering initiated by employees.

Limitations and future direction

Although the findings of this study shed light on several important issues, some limitations need to be discussed. As discussed above, the COVID-19 epidemic led to the relatively small sample size in this study. It is above the minimum requirements proposed by Hair et al. (2011), but such rules of thumb cannot support a more complex conceptual model based on the collected data. Thus, researchers could collect more respondents to recheck the significance of this proposed model in the future. In addition, further studies could examine the model more specifically. For example, five dimensions (i.e., altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and consciousness; Organ, 1988) or two dimensions (i.e., OCBI and OCBO; Williams & Anderson, 1991) of the OCB scale could be replaced in the proposed model to examine the internal connections related to corporate volunteering. Besides, other potential moderations could also be considered in the future to provide extra findings to enrich the detail of proposed models. For example, it would be interesting if the significant relationship(s) in the model could be moderated by gender, which could also provide specific practical implications for the organization.

Additionally, the effects of corporate volunteering on the proposed model have been tested empirically, contributing to the development of relevant theories. However, the industry involved in this study was restricted to only one company in the field of financial services due to the influence of both epidemic situations and time constraints. The results cannot provide persuasive advice and support at a general level. Thus, more respondents from the financial

services industry or related industries are needed to explore further and provide more persuasive findings. Moreover, comparative analysis of different countries and cultures in the proposed model is recommended further to expand the context of research on corporate volunteering.

Finally, it is notable that this study only focused on the effects of corporate volunteering on positive attitudes and behaviors. In order to examine the effects of corporate volunteering completely, it is necessary to explore CV from both its bright and dark sides. For example, Goudas et al. (1995) argued the negative effects of employee volunteering, as volunteering was sometimes compulsory. Hu et al. (2016) also suggested that corporate volunteering might harm organization performance if employees did not learn much from volunteering. Thus, further study could explore the negative effects of corporate volunteering. In addition, further study could explore the effects of CV on both positive and negative job constructs. For example, Zhang et al. (2021) examined the influence of CV on work engagement and work–family conflicts simultaneously, as well as the buffer effects across these relationships.

Chapter 4. General discussion and conclusions

Two studies in this dissertation try to explore whether corporate volunteering influences affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, as well as related effects on perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction. Generally, both studies provide a "business case" for corporate volunteering, which suggests a rationale for organizing CV in companies. The findings proposed that employees participating in corporate volunteering could strengthen some important attitudes and behaviors.

However, employees engaged in corporate volunteering cannot significantly improve these relationships compared to employees not participating in any corporate volunteering, based on the results conducted in Study 1. More specifically, employees without volunteering experience, compared to employees participated in corporate volunteering organized by the company, are more inclined to feel satisfaction and commit affectively when they perceive instrumental or emotional support from their supervisor. By contrast, the literature (e.g., Boštjančič et al., 2018) suggests that employees with corporate volunteering experience are positively and significantly associated with perceived supervisor support, which could also motivate employees' repayment behaviors to express their job satisfaction. Satisfied employees are more likely to commit affectively, as they are enmeshed in the organizational network related to their supervisor (Grant, Dutton & Rosso, 2008; Frese, 1999). Interestingly, this thesis voices the opposite regarding the effects of corporate volunteering. It is reasonable to doubt whether the characteristics of the collected data are the cause of the insignificant results on corporate volunteering. In Study 1, female respondents (78.5%) greatly outnumber male respondents (21.5%), and they all work in the same bank. According to the empirical research conducted by Loosemore and Bridgeman (2018), female responses to corporate volunteering in the construction industry are significantly different from male responses. The reason is that most young females treat construction industry as a male-dominated domain, and they are often discouraged from entering this industry by their families and teachers (Powell et al., 2010). Hence, females could raise their awareness to gain more benefits (e.g., gain more construction industry knowledge and skills), especially in the "cognitive" and "extrinsic" aspects, compared to males. Similarly, the majority of respondents in Study 1 are female and only involved in the banking sector. The homogeneity of respondents and the industry perhaps caused the insignificant effect of corporate volunteering on affective commitment. Further research could

focus on whether respondents' characteristics could significantly influence the potential mechanism of corporate volunteering.

Furthermore, the results from Study 2 proposed that corporate volunteers were more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior when they perceived positive relationships at the workplace. This explains why experience in corporate volunteering activities fosters high-quality interpersonal relationships in the organization, as well as motivating spontaneous positive behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors). That is, social bonding and organizational identification strengthened by corporate volunteering programs could promote a high level of job satisfaction (Preffer et al., 2022), as well as citizenship behavior (Jones, 2010). However, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior reported in Study 2 shows an inconsistent result. Although considerable studies (e.g., de Gilder, Schuyt & Breedijk, 2005; Williams & Anderson, 1991) prove that positive relationships exist between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior, some papers (e.g., Budiman et al., 2014) still express a different voice. Budiman and his team argued that the insignificance related to job satisfaction and OCB could be attributed to the potential influence of dependent variables (e.g., organizational culture and emotional intelligence). Thus, further study could pay more attention to whether the effects of corporate volunteering on OCB could be buffered by some theoretical related dimensions. Additionally, the results proposed the significance of direct relationships related to perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction among employee-volunteers, which supports the related literature (Preffer et al., 2022) emphasizing the influence of corporate volunteering on job resources in the organization. To sum up, this study made a valuable contribution to enrich our understanding of the effects of corporate volunteering on related dimensions, especially on affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Conclusion

As a corporate social responsibility practice, the importance of corporate volunteering has been perceived by many companies, as it could benefit organizational reputation and motivate employees' engagement (Brzustewicz et al., 2021). Interestingly, some papers (Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017; Grant, 2012) found it questionable that only limited work had examined CV's state of development as an academic field. Howard and Serviss (2021) also proposed that further research should explore more specific antecedents and outcomes of

employees' participation in corporate volunteering programs. Based on the theoretical framework of corporate volunteering proposed by Rodell et al. (2016), this thesis focused on the outcomes of corporate volunteering, as it was significantly related to organizational performance and employees' retention. Of that, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior commonly attract many scholars to research, while the potential influence of corporate volunteering on these two structures is still unmature (Howard & Serviss, 2021). Additionally, this thesis separated affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior to analyze, as some papers (Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Hauziński & Bańka, 2013) argue that they are theoretically close to some extent. With reference to the related theories (e.g., social exchange theory and job demands-resources model), perceived supervisor support, positive relationships at work and job satisfaction were also selected in this thesis.

The results of the two studies partially support the hypotheses established based on the related literature. More specifically, the positive and significant relationships leading both perceived supervisor support and positive relationships at work to job satisfaction were all supported in the two studies. Study 1 also proposed that supervisor support could motivate a greater level of affective commitment to the organization, which could also be positively mediated by job satisfaction. However, the indirect relationship between perceived supervisor support and affective commitment could be weaker if employees participate more in corporate volunteering activities. With regard to employee-volunteers, Study 2 reported that perceived supervisor support was positively associated with positive relationships at work. Moreover, this study also found that employees located in high-quality workplace relationship could be motivated to engage in more organizational citizenship behaviors. To sum up, this thesis explores the mechanisms by which corporate volunteering quantitively influences affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

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Appendix

Questionnaire on perceived supervisor support in Study 1 and 2:

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
1. The supervisor values my contribution to organizational well-being.							
2. The supervisor fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)							
3. The supervisor would ignore any complaint from me. (R)							
4. The supervisor really cares about my well-being.							
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the supervisor would fail to notice. (R)							
6. The supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.							
7. The supervisor shows very little concern for me. (R)							
8. The supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.							

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

Questionnaire on positive relationships at work in Study 1 and 2:

	Strongly disagree 1	Somewhat disagree 2	Neither disagree nor agree 3	Somewhat agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1. I feel that my co-workers like me. (PR)					
2. I feel that my co-workers and I try to develop meaningful relationships with one another. (PR)					
3. I feel that my co-workers understand me. (PR)					
4. The relationship between my co-workers and myself is based on mutuality. (M)					
5. We are committed to one another at work. (M)					
6. There is a sense of empathy among my co-workers and myself. (M)					
7. I feel that my co-workers and I do things for one another. (M)					

Source: Carmeli, A. (2009). Positive work relationships, vitality, and job performance. In C. E. J. Härtel, N. M. Ashkanasy, and W. J. Zerbe (Eds.), *Emotions in Groups, Organizations and Cultures* (Research on Emotion in Organizations, Vol. 5, pp. 45–71), Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Questionnaire on job satisfaction in Study 1:

	Strongly disagree 1	Somewhat disagree 2	Neither disagree nor agree 3	Somewhat agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1. I find real enjoyment in my job.					
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.					
3. I feel well satisfied with my job.					

Source: Price, J. L. & Mueller, C. W. (1983). Professional turnover: The case of nurses. *Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, 3(2), 97–99.

Questionnaire on job satisfaction in Study 2:

	Strongly disagree 1	Somewhat disagree 2	Neither disagree nor agree 3	Somewhat agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1. I know what is expected of me at work.					
2. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.					
3. At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.					
4. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.					
5. There is someone at work who encourages my development.					
6. At work, my opinions seem to count.					
7. The mission/purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important.					
8. My associates (fellow employees) are committed to doing quality work.					
9. In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress.					
10. This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow.					

Source: Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L. & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(2), 268–279.

Questionnaire on affective commitment in Study 1:

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree 7
1. I am proud to tell others I work at my organization.							
2. Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.							
3. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization, even if I wanted to.							
4. I owe a lot to my organization.							
5. I can tell I feel in my organization like in my family.							
6. I really feel that problems faced by my organization are also my problems.							

Source: Bańka, A., Bazińska, R. & Wołowska, A. (2002). Polska wersja Meyera i Allen skali przywiązania do organizacji. *Czasopismo Psychologiczne*, 8(1), 65–74.

Questionnaire on organizational citizenship behavior in Study 2:

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?	Never 1	Rarely 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very often 5
1. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.					
2. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.					
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.					
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.					
5. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.					
6. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.					
7. Volunteered for extra work assignments.					
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.					
9. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.					
10. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.					

Source: Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A. & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(4), 781–790.