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Skills-based volunteering: A systematic literature review of the intersection of skills and employee volunteering

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ABSTRACT

Skills-based volunteering programs sit at the intersection of corporate philanthropy and human resources (HR). These programs enable employees to volunteer their specialized skills to support non-profit organizations, while developing new skills along the way. While these programs are the fastest growing way that firms deliver on their corporate social responsibility strategy, the academic literature has all but ignored them. However, there is ample opportunity to build an understanding of skills-based volunteering from existing research that crosses the realms of employee volunteering and skills. This systematic literature review of 36 peer-reviewed articles forms the basis of this paper, where we provide a definition of skills-based volunteering, and offer a theoretical model to guide future HR research and practice on skills-based volunteering.

1. Introduction

"Skills-based volunteering" has recently entered the corporate vernacular and is one of the fastest growing trends in corporate citizenship (CECP, 2020). Take, for instance, a project manager. A traditional employee volunteer program may invite her to distribute food to people who are struggling with homelessness, sell tickets to a charity event, or tidy a local park. Skills-based volunteering, on the other hand, would leverage her professional skills, such as project planning, quality control, or cost management to a third sector organization.² Not only does skills-based volunteering offer valuable expertise to non-profits, it promises to enhance employee skills that they can bring back to the workplace (Bengtson, 2020; Letts & Holly, 2017).

Scholars of human resources (HR) have been urging the field to consider *how* HR can contribute to sustainable development, play a key role in executing a firm's corporate social responsibility (CSR) strategy, and meet multiple stakeholder needs simultaneously (e.g., De Stefano et al., 2018; Hewett & Shantz, 2021; Stahl et al., 2020). Skills-based volunteering is a promising, timely, and practical way to meet these ends: non-profits benefit by leveraging the skills of volunteers; volunteers benefit by developing new skills; and firms benefit when employees transfer their new skills to the workplace. The expertise and responsibility for employee learning and development rests with HR, and therefore it holds the key to create synergies among these multiple stakeholders. Although scant scholarly research has directly focused on these programs (cf. Cook & Burchell, 2018; McCallum et al., 2013; Steimel, 2018), the broader literature on employee volunteering indicates the potential for employees to donate and develop skills while giving back to the

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² Including non-profit organizations, registered charities or social enterprises; herein referred to as non-profits.

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community (e.g., Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013; Pless & Maak, 2009). This work has largely demonstrated that skill utilization and development are a boon to employees, the firm, and non-profits. At a time when organizations are pursuing ways to accelerate their CSR strategies, and HR scholars and practitioners are seeking ways to contribute to them (e.g., Stahl et al., 2020), the time is right to shine a light on skills-based volunteering.

The purpose of this paper is to present a comprehensive review of research at the nexus of employee volunteering and skills. Such an endeavor is worthwhile for at least three reasons. First, while prior reviews have argued that HR has much to contribute to a firm's CSR strategy (e.g., De Stefano et al., 2018; Stahl et al., 2020; Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016), *how* this can be achieved has received little attention. This review points to a concrete way that HR can assist firms to integrate multiple stakeholder needs, thereby creating greater value for both business and society. Second while most research suggests that volunteering provides opportunities to learn, other findings warn of possible risks (e.g., Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015; Hu et al., 2016; Shantz & Dempsey-Brench, 2021). These mixed findings may frustrate practitioners searching for research-based prescriptions for implementing skills-based volunteering and may create difficulties for researchers who look to extend prior research and practice. Third, while Rodell et al. (2016) provided an operational definition of employee volunteering, our review of the literature suggests that skills-based volunteering programs are markedly different in several key ways. For theory to progress at this research frontier (De Stefano et al., 2018), we therefore offer an operational definition of skills-based volunteering programs (Podsakoff et al., 2016).

We contribute to HR scholarship by bringing together research findings spanning multiple disciplines to develop a framework to stimulate future research in this area. This review underscores the role of HR in skills-based volunteering, the relevance of distinguishing between giving and gaining skills, the importance of context in leveraging the benefits of these programs, and multiple stakeholder outcomes. We proceed by describing the protocol of this review, followed by a definition of skills-based volunteering. Next, we describe a framework that seeks to capture different strands of work that cross the realms of skills and volunteering. We conclude by providing implications for future HR research and practice.

2. Method

2.1. Literature search and inclusion criteria

We followed guidelines set forth by Short (2009) and Tranfield et al. (2003) as illustrated in Fig. 1. We first searched several computerized databases between February and March 2021 to identify potential studies for inclusion: ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete, and Web of Science. We used a Boolean search for studies that included the terms *corporat*, organisation*, organization*,* in combination with *volunteer** or *service-learning*, and *skill*, develop*, learn*, train** or *educat** in the title, abstract, or keyword sections of peer-reviewed papers. Since employee volunteering is a relatively new field of research, we did not restrict publication dates.

Covidence software was used to assist the review process. The initial search yielded 7195 potential articles; after duplicates were removed, 6834 articles were left for title and abstract review. Articles were excluded based on the following criteria: articles needed to (1) situate volunteering in a corporate context (personal volunteering undertaken by individuals outside of the work domain were

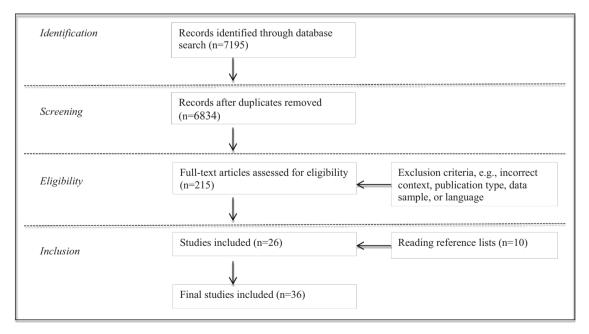


Fig. 1. Process of article selection.

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excluded); (2) report empirical data; and (3) include an employee-based sample (student, retired, or unemployed samples were excluded). The papers also needed to be published in (4) peer-reviewed journals; and (5) English. The first author undertook the initial round of exclusions, and when a title or abstract was unclear, the second author was invited to review. The authors discussed reasons for exclusion based on the eligibility criteria until a consensus was reached. This resulted in 215 articles for full-text review.

The first and second authors downloaded each article to determine eligibility. Articles were excluded on the same criteria as the screening process. Some papers were excluded for meeting several of the exclusion criteria. We did not prioritise the exclusion criteria; articles were removed using the first exclusion criteria evidenced within the text. The two co-authors met to discuss discrepancies that arose; for instance, one of us retained papers that focused on employee motivations to volunteer in a corporate volunteering context (that contain the motivation to acquire skills) while the other did not. After discussion, we chose to retain them in the sample, as they may inform employees' motivations to volunteer in skills-based programs.

From this process, 26 studies were retained, published from 1990 to 2021. These studies were again examined by the two coauthors of this paper to ensure that we had correctly included each. The first author examined the references section in each paper, leading to the discovery of ten additional articles. The final data sample consists of 36 studies, listed in the references with an asterisk (*).

2.2. Coding and analysis

We conducted manual content analysis using a qualitative coding method (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Pisani et al., 2017). We supplemented our qualitative coding method with thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to help us build an integrated framework. First, the two authors of this paper independently coded each article. Bibliographic data were entered into an Excel file for each article, including: author(s), publication date, method (qualitative, quantitative, or mixed), company(ies) studied, geographic location of sample, sample size, volunteer location (e.g., domestic or international), and volunteer duration. We also selected key phrases or brief sentences to organize data into "descriptive codes" (Miles & Huberman, 1994: 57). This led to additional codes: definition of the volunteering program; focus on giving or gaining skills; part of a formal training program; employee learning and development; learning support mechanisms (e.g., structured reflection or coaching); and potential downsides from learning from volunteering. We discussed the coding categories on an on-going basis to ensure that there was clarity and consistency in understanding, and when necessary, items were reclassified (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Once the data were coded, we met to discuss whether to combine, split or drop codes (Grodal et al., 2020), and initially formed six candidate themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). To ensure all data had been coded and applied appropriately, the entire data set was re-read; ensuring candidate themes accurately represented the data. We then wrote memos to progress understanding of each candidate theme and how they fit together (Braun & Clarke, 2006). We also created graphical models to visually represent the connections between themes (Verdinelli & Scagnoli, 2013). Through this iterative and systematic process of memo-writing, drawing models, in-depth discussions, and re-reading of data, we unearthed five key themes that represented the data: (1) program characteristics; (2) giving and gaining skills; (3) employee-volunteer characteristics; (4) context; and (5) firm and non-profit benefits.

We categorized the journals into disciplines, and found that the most represented category was HR/organizational behavior (33%), followed by Business Ethics (22%), Management (17%), Non-profit (14%) and Other Industry-Specific journals (14%). The locations of the studies were dispersed: Asia Pacific (4), European (5), Multiple locations (9), North American (12), the United Kingdom (5), and unknown (1). There was a near even split in methodology: 47% used qualitative, 36% used quantitative, and 11% employed mixed methods. Table 1 presents additional information of the articles reviewed, including theoretical perspectives, and summary information on the themes that arose in our thematic analysis: program characteristics, skills gained, skills given, volunteer characteristics, context, and firm and non-profit outcomes.

3. Definition of skills-based volunteering

The practitioner literature is rife with examples of skills-based volunteering programs. For instance, a global professional services firm partnered with New Women New Yorkers (NWNY), a non-profit organization that helps female immigrants gain employment. After identifying a match between the needed skills on both sides, determining the fit with the firm's strategy, and clearly defining the objectives, employees implemented a negotiation skills workshop for women clients at NWNY. The "employees leveraged their consulting and presenting skills, worked with and learned from senior colleagues, and even honed their own skills in negotiation" (Bengtson, 2020). Although we found a multitude of non peer-reviewed case studies like this, our review surfaced only three articles that specifically mention skills-based volunteering (Cook & Burchell, 2018;McCallum et al., 2013; Steimel, 2018). These articles relied on the Corporation for National and Community Service's (2014) definition of skills-based volunteering (McCallum et al., 2013; Steimel, 2018): "An employee skills-based volunteerism (ESBV) program matches the skills, expertise, talents, and education of individual employees with the specific needs of a non-profit organization". Following recommendations for construct definition (Pod-sakoff et al., 2016), we drew on this nascent definition, used insights from this systematic review, and case study materials from the practitioner literature (Bengtson, 2020; CECP, 2020; Points of Light, 2020) to offer the following definition of skills-based volunteering:

Skills-based volunteering is a strategically driven activity that involves employees donating job-related skills and acquiring or developing skills through voluntary contributions to an external non-profit organization that requires certain skill sets.

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There are four unique elements that set this definition apart from other forms of volunteering. First, it is a strategically driven activity that directly contributes to the firm's mission or CSR strategy. Whereas firms are often actively involved in other forms of employee volunteering (e.g., selecting the non-profit for volunteer opportunities, or program administration), skills-based volunteering programs clearly support a firm's stated purpose. For instance, Loosemore and Bridgeman (2017) studied a volunteering program that was purposefully aligned with the organization's priorities; the construction firm offered its employees an opportunity to volunteer for a non-profit organization that provides students from disadvantaged communities with career opportunities in the construction industry. Volunteer participation helped to develop industry awareness, which enabled the creation of future apprentices and graduate schemes. As firms are increasingly embedding CSR into their core strategy (Howard-Grenville, 2021; Stahl et al., 2020), direct links can also be made between skills-based volunteering and a firm's stated social or ecological purpose (Bart et al., 2009; Vian et al., 2007).

The second dimension is that skills-based volunteering encourages the donation of job-related skills. The donation of job-relevant skills can come in an array of forms; a chef may donate her skills to cook lunches for people experiencing homelessness, whereas a doctor may donate his skills through Médecins Sans Frontières. A focus on the donation of job-related skills differs from previous definitions of employee volunteering that are broader in nature (e.g., Pajo & Lee, 2011; Rodell et al., 2016). Although some definitions of employee volunteering include the donation of employee skills (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2019; Rodell, 2013), the current consensus is that job-relevant skill donation is not a necessary component of employee volunteering (Rodell et al., 2016).

The third dimension involves cultivating new or refining existing skills. This is a key distinction that departs from most established definitions of employee volunteering (e.g., Pajo & Lee, 2011; Rodell et al., 2016). However, this dimension aligns with international service-based learning programs, several of which appeared in our review. These programs are discrete volunteer assignments located in international settings that are designed to help volunteers build knowledge about themselves and their professional role, while contributing to the creation of social goods (Caligiuri et al., 2019; Pless et al., 2011). For instance, five papers in our review examined Project Ulysses, an international service-learning program run by PwC. Project Ulysses is embedded within a leadership development program that takes participants away from their desks to an international location for several months. However, employees do not need to travel to international locations to learn from their volunteering experiences, and the donation of skills can be delivered episodically, rather than through intense short bursts of time. Therefore, international service-learning programs may be a type of skills-based volunteering, so long as they meet the other criteria we outline here.

The final dimension is that non-profits require the skills that are donated to them. These may be process-related (designed to help the operation of the non-profit itself) or programmatic-related (designed to help non-profit clients; Almog-Barr & Schiller, 2018). This may seem obvious, yet research suggests that in some cases, the volunteer skills that are offered to non-profits fail to meet their needs (Cook & Burchell, 2018). Skills-based volunteering programs ensure that volunteers have the needed knowledge and skills that will benefit the non-profit or its cause, often through a matching process. For instance, at IBM, skills are matched via a technological platform jointly managed by IT and HR called On Demand Community that registers employees' skills and the needs of non-profits (McCallum et al., 2013). In other cases, skills-matching is conducted via brokerages, an increasingly common third-party organization that liaises between firms and non-profits to ensure that skill demand matches supply (Cook & Burchell, 2018).

Clear definitions are important because they set the guardrails for future research. In the articles that we examined, only 36% presented a clear definition of the type of volunteering program that was studied, and the boundaries of different types of volunteering programs are ambiguous. We present Fig. 2 that outlines the main definitions of different forms of volunteering that have been discussed in the literature. When we looked across these definitions, vis-à-vis our own, a unifying thread was the extent to which the volunteering program was tied to the firm's strategy and HR practices. At the top of the figure is volunteering that is carried out by employees without the knowledge of their employer (Peloza & Hassay, 2006), and narrowing to the bottom is skills-based volunteering, whereby international service-based learning and developmental assignments are types of skills-based volunteering, so long as they fulfill other criteria as outlined above. Many papers in our review relied on Rodell et al. (2016) or Pajo and Lee's (2011) definitions of employee volunteering, both of which lack specificity regarding alignment with a firm's strategy or HR practices. We see 'employee volunteering' as an umbrella term for those that appear below it. The numbers on the curves of the figure denote the number of articles in our review that met these definitions.

Our definition of skills-based volunteering is an ideal type, and not all of the papers that we reviewed squarely fit this definition. Instead, we see elements of skills-based volunteering across the studies, and an opportunity to guide future research and practice by specifying its key elements. In what follows, we develop a model of skills-based volunteering based on the literature reviewed, to showcase its important elements, ultimately delivering promising outcomes for firms and non-profits.

4. Theoretical model

4.1. Overview

Our analysis of the literature produced five key themes, and we incorporate them in Fig. 3 to provide a map of our current understanding of skills-based volunteering. We discuss each theme, in turn, in the subsequent sections. First, at the heart of skills-based volunteering is the program itself. Our definition implies that skills-based volunteering programs are strategically oriented, and we describe ways in which this manifests (alignment with the firm's mission or CSR agenda) and HR's role in aligning learning and development with volunteering activities. In the second section, we show how these attributes give rise to employee skill use and skill development. Third, we draw on papers that examined volunteers' individual characteristics for volunteering in a corporate context to identify tensions between these characteristics with skills-based volunteering. Fourth, our review identified three features of context:

Table 1

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A summary of articles reviewed.

| Citation | Theoretical perspectives | Method | Program characteristics | Skills Gained | Skills Given | Volunteer characteristics | Context | Firm outcome | Non-profit outcome |
|------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|--|------------------|--|-----------------------|--|---|
| Baillie Smith and Laurie (2011) | Post colonialism theory | Qualitative: multi- source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Volunteer motivation | - | - | Access to business skills; sustainable impact; volunteer development takes priority |
| Bart et al. (2009) | Service-learning theory | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | Interpersonal skills | - | Volunteer motivation | Line manager | - | - |
| Bartel (2001) | Identity theory | Mixed methods: multisource, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy | Interpersonal skills | - | Volunteer motivation | Line manager | Employee performance | Access to business skills |
| Bartsch (2011) | Adult learning, emotional learning and experiential learning theories | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Existing skills | - | Employee performance | - |
| Booth et al. (2009) | Gift exchange and social exchange theories | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | - | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical skills | - | - | - | Employee performance | Future volunteerism |
| Breitsohl and Ehrig (2017) | Functionalist motivation theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Supported by the firm | - | - | Volunteer motivation | - | - | - |
| Bussell and Forbes (2008) | - | Mixed methods: single source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical | - | - | Line manager | Employee performance | Access to business skills |
| Caligiuri et al. (2013) | Employee engagement and Stakeholder theories | Quantitative: multi- source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | - | Technical skills | - | Non-profit support | Employee attitudes; employee performance | Sustainable impact; future volunteerism |
| Caligiuri et al. (2019) | Social learning theory | Quantitative: multi- source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | - | Non-profit support | - | - |
| Camilleri (2016) | - | Qualitative: multi- source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | Technical skills | Technical skills | - | - | Employee performance | Access to business skills |
| Cook and Burchell (2018) | _ | Mixed method: multi-source, time lagged | Mixed | Interpersonal skills | - | Volunteer motivation; tensions and motivations | Non-profit support | - | Sustainable impact; partnerships are resource intensive and can lead to mission drift |
| De Gilder et al. (2005) | - | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | - | - | Volunteer motivation | Co-worker | Employee performance | - |
| Gaarder and McCommon (1990) | - | Qualitative: multi- source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | - | Technical skills | - | - | Firm-level performance | Access to business skills; partnership development |
| Geroy et al. (2000) | - | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | Interpersonal skills | - | - | Line manager | Employee performance | _ |

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

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| Citation | Theoretical perspectives | Method | Program characteristics | Skills Gained | Skills Given | Volunteer characteristics | Context | Firm outcome | Non-profit outcome |
|--|--|---|--------------------------------------|--|----------------------|--|--------------------------------|--|--|
| Gitsham (2012) | Experiential learning; Whole person learning; Cognitive learning | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | - | - | Line manager | Employee attitudes | - |
| Hu et al. (2016) | Motivation- based theory of volunteerism | Quantitative: single source, time lagged | Supported by the firm | - | _ | _ | Line manager;co- worker | Employee performance | _ |
| Jones (2016) | Social learning theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Supported by the firm | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical skills | Technical skills | - | - | - | - |
| Loosemore and Bridgeman (2017) | - | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical skills | Technical skills | Existing skills; volunteer motivation | Line manager | Employee performance | - |
| McCallum et al. (2013) | Adult learning theory | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Existing skills | - | Talent and leadership pipeline; employee attitudes | Access to business skills; sustainable impact; partnership development |
| Muthuri et al. (2009) | Social capital theory | Qualitative: multi- source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | Interpersonal skills | Interpersonal skills | - | Co-worker | Talent and leadership pipeline | Access to business skills; partnership development |
| Nave and do Paço (2013) | Functionalist motivation theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Supported by the firm | Interpersonal skills | - | Volunteer motivation | - | Employee performance | - |
| Oware and Mallikarjunappa (2020) | Legitimacy theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | - | - | - | - | Line manager | Firm-level performance; employee attitudes | - |
| Peloza and Hassay (2006) | - | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | - | - | Volunteer motivation | Line manager; co- worker | Employee attitudes | - |
| Peloza et al. (2009) | Social exchange theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Aligned with firm strategy | - | - | Existing skills; volunteer motivation | Co-worker | - | Future volunteerism |
| Peterson (2004a) | - | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Mixed | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical skills | - | Existing skills | - | - | - |
| Peterson (2004b) | Functionalist motivation theory | Quantitative: single source, cross- sectional | Mixed | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Pless and Borecká (2014) | - | Qualitative: single source, cross- sectional | Mixed | Mainly interpersonal skills, some technical skills | Technical skills | Existing skills | - | Talent and leadership pipeline | Access to business skills; sustainable impact |
| Pless and Maak (2009) | Narrative theory | Qualitative: single source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Existing skills | - | Talent and leadership pipeline | Access to business skills |
| Pless et al. (2011) | Experiential learning theory | Mixed methods, single source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | _ | Existing skills | - | 1 1 | Access to business skills |
| Pless et al. (2012) | Experiential learning theory | Qualitative: single source, time lagged | Aligned with firm strategy and HR | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Existing skills | - | Talent and leadership pipeline | - |

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

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| Citation | Theoretical perspectives | Method | Program characteristics | Skills Gained | Skills Given | Volunteer characteristics | Context | Firm outcome | Non-profit outcome |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| | perspectives | | characteristics | | | characteristics | | | |
| Prayukvong and | Buddhist | Qualitative: single | | | | | | | |
| Rees (2010) | economics | source; cross- | | | | | | | |
| | framework | sectional | | | | | | | |
| Steimel (2018) | - | Qualitative: single | Aligned with firm | Interpersonal skills | Technical skills | Volunteer | Co-worker | - | Partnership development |
| | | source, cross- | strategy and HR | | | motivation; tensions | | | |
| | | sectional | | | | and motivations | | | |
| Tuffrey (1997) | - | Quantitative: single | Aligned with firm | Mainly interpersonal | - | - | - | Employee attitudes | - |
| | | source; cross- | strategy and HR | skills, some technical | | | | | |
| | | sectional | | skills | | | | | |
| Turner et al. (2021) | Functionalist | Qualitative: single | Supported by the | Interpersonal skills | Interpersonal skills | Existing skills; | - | Employee | - |
| | motivation | source; cross- | firm | | | volunteer motivation | | performance | |
| | theory | sectional | | | | | | | |
| Vian et al. (2007) | - | Mixed methods; | Aligned with firm | Mainly interpersonal | Mainly technical | Existing skills | Line | Talent and leadership | Sustainable impact |
| | | multi-source, cross- | strategy and HR | skills, some technical | skills, some | | manager; co- | pipeline | |
| | | sectional | | skills | interpersonal skills | | worker | | |
| Zappala and | Functionalist | Quantitative: single | Aligned with firm | Interpersonal skills | - | Volunteer | - | Employee attitudes | Future volunteerism |
| McLaren (2004) | motivation | source, cross- | strategy | | | motivation | | | |
| | theory | sectional | | | | | | | |
| Totals: | - | - | 34 | 27 | 17 | 21 | 17 | 26 | 17 |

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Extra-organizational: It is performed outside of one's role as an employee and, as a result, provides only minimal, indirect benefit to the firm (Peloza & Hassay, 2006: 360)

Inter-organizational: Volunteer initiatives that are supported by, but not strategically aligned with the firm and therefore, in this form of volunteerism the goals and strategy of the corporation are secondary to the philanthropic interests of its employees (Peloza & Hassay, 2006: 359)

Employee volunteering: Employed individuals giving time during a planned activity for an external non-profit or charitable group or organization (Rodell et al., 2016: 57); it can include formal or informal policies and programs (Pajo & Lee, 2011; also called 'corporate volunteering' (Loosemore & Bridgeman, 2018).

Intra-organizational: Volunteer efforts made by employees within company-sanctioned programs on behalf of causes/organizations selected by their employer (Peloza & Hassay, 2006: 360)

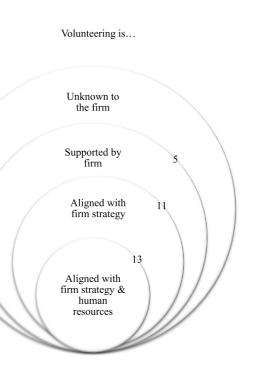
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Skills-based: Skills-based volunteering is a strategically driven activity that involves employees donating job-related skills and acquiring or developing skills through voluntary contributions to an external non-profit organization that requires certain skill sets

International service-based learning/corporate volunteerism: Involves sending participants in teams to developing countries to work in cross-sector partnerships with nongovernmental organizations and social entrepreneurs, supporting them in their fight against pressing global problems (Pless et al., 2012: 873); see also Caligiuri et al. 2019

Development assignments: Release of an individual during company time to undertake a community task, structured to develop skills (Tuffrey, 1997: 33)

Fig. 2. Key definitions in the literature.



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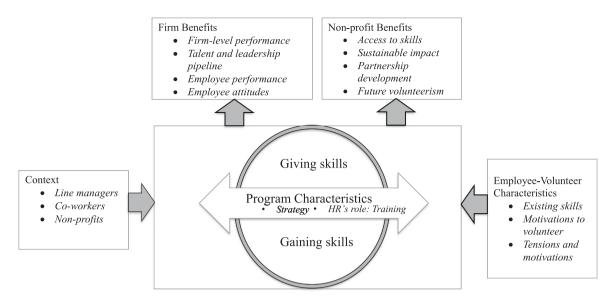


Fig. 3. Theoretical model.

line managers; co-workers; and non-profit involvement. Skills-based volunteering programs do not reside in a vacuum, but instead, these contextual features shape employees' experiences of programs. Finally, we summarize the outcomes of skills-based volunteering, showing that while it holds potential to create positive outcomes for both business and society, it also entails risks.

4.2. Program characteristics

4.2.1. Aligns with firm strategy

The scholarly and practitioner literatures have drawn attention to the importance of tying volunteer activities to the firm's strategy. For instance Mirvis and Googins (2006), suggested that organizations move through stages of implementing employee volunteer programs. At a nascent stage, employers support episodic, undeveloped volunteering activities that tend to be initiated by employees. As firms become more sophisticated in their approach, employees' efforts become increasingly linked to community needs while producing benefits for the firm. Although we found no research that directly examines the outcomes of strategically aligned programs, scholars attest that a strategic approach creates synergistic value for the firm and society (Camilleri, 2016) by directing employees' expertise and development needs (Bart et al., 2009; Peloza et al., 2009), which may help develop employees' competencies (e.g., Camilleri, 2016; De Gilder et al., 2005; Peloza & Hassay, 2006). Research shows that employees who participated in a formal volunteer program perceived greater job-related skill enhancement compared to those who volunteered informally (Peterson, 2004a) and firms that market their volunteering programs as a way for employees to develop skills have higher rates of participation (Peterson, 2004b). We build on this prior work by articulating two ways in which intra-organizational programs can align with a firm's strategy: volunteer activities support a firm's mission and/or their CSR strategy.

Firms that tie volunteering activities to their mission encourage employees to volunteer in ways that will support their core purpose. For instance, Hershey Food Corporations joined the Accelerated Cocoa Production Project, a partnership run by two non-profit organizations in collaboration with United States (US) and Belizean government agencies, due to growing concerns over the global decline in cocoa production and quality. The organization identified a business need to join the partnership; it aligned with their mission and long-term strategic objectives. This enabled the firm to ensure a steady flow of quality cocoa to continue the production of goods, while benefitting Belizean farmers by offering employees' specialist skills to equip them with capabilities to improve production (Gaarder & McCommon, 1990). In another example, volunteers who worked in a company operating in the oil and natural gas sector were encouraged to volunteer to promote knowledge in topics that aligned to the firm's mission, such as energy efficiency and road traffic safety (Nave & do Paço, 2013).

Skills-based volunteering can also be tied to a firm's CSR strategy. The private sector is increasingly positioning itself as an important social change agent, due to the seemingly unending wave of corporate scandals, declining trust in domestic and global institutions, and the rising saliency of grand challenges, such as climate change, poverty, and geopolitical unrest (e.g., Howard-Grenville, 2021; Stahl et al., 2020). Volunteer programs can help to realize some of the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), such as SDG17, which suggests that grand challenges need to be addressed through inter-sectorial partnerships (UN SDG, 2021). For example, Pfizer's Global Health Fellows Program was created to support its CSR strategy, touting that it has "initiated a unique program of international corporate volunteering that attempted to integrate these two concepts, pairing international partnerships in capacity building with employee volunteering" (Vian et al., 2007: 31). Pfizer loaned their employees' competencies to beneficiaries who required specific skills, such as managing clinical trials, pharmacy management systems, grant writing, and application for

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laboratory accreditation (Vian et al., 2007). Another example is Ford Motor Company's volunteering program, which seeks to align their activities to the needs of stakeholders both inside and outside the organization: "As a company, we are responsible for the welfare of our customers, our employees and our society" (Bart et al., 2009: 124).

Not all of the articles in our review showcased volunteering programs that were strategically aligned with the firm's mission or CSR strategy. We saw several examples of what Peloza and Hassay (2006) called inter-organizational volunteering, where organizations provide passive support to employees, and provide an unfocused or "scatter gun" approach to volunteering (Geroy et al., 2000: 286). For example, Breitsohl and Ehrig (2017: 278, 269) examined European subsidiaries of a US-based manufacturing firm. The study made explicit reference that the "employee volunteering program allows employees to create their own projects...freely choose beneficiaries...projects are completely employee-driven and independent from company strategy" and as such, programs were "weakly tied to the workplace".

4.2.2. HR's role: training and development

A strategic approach to skills-based volunteering implies that learning and development practices support volunteering programs. These programs therefore position HR as a key player in tying a firm's goals with greater social or ecological good. For instance, PwC's Project Ulysses is a flagship leadership development program that was positioned as "one of the major strategic pillars of the firm" (Pless et al., 2012: 879). The goals of the program were interwoven into its design and the Head of Global Talent Development ran a weeklong induction phase, where participants become familiarized "with the overall vision of the Ulysses learning experience in the context of PwC's strategy" (Pless et al., 2012: 879).

We noted several features of programs that embed volunteering into learning and development. First, some firms initiate a process to identify the skills their current workforce can offer, which informs volunteer program design and implementation (e.g., Pless et al., 2011; Pless et al., 2012). This is consistent with the broader training literature, which suggests that employee skill identification is an important first step in designing and implementing training (Allen, 2006; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2019). An example is Pfizer's Global Health Fellows Program that identifies and matches "the unique knowledge, skills, and abilities of its selected employees to each Global Health Fellow initiative" (McCallum et al., 2013; 487). Another study that examined this same program found that skill identification enabled non-profits to "design the scope of work for the three- to six-month assignments and select Fellows" (Vian et al., 2007; 31).

A second theme that arose is that some organizations embedded volunteering activities into talent management or career progression programs. For instance, Novartis developed the Entrepreneurial Leadership Program, an "action-based leadership development program sending global teams of talent to emerging markets to develop a solution to country-specific health challenges" (Pless & Borecká, 2014: 531). Programs such as these explicitly connect volunteering with skill development (Pless & Borecká, 2014; Vian et al., 2007) and often involve competitive selection (e.g., Pless et al., 2011, 2012; Vian et al., 2007).

A third feature of some programs is learning support mechanisms, including reflection and coaching (e.g., Bartsch, 2011; Pless & Maak, 2009; Prayukvong & Rees, 2010), and 360-degree feedback, meditation, yoga, storytelling, team building and project-based learning (Pless et al., 2011; Pless et al., 2012). Whereas most of the studies in our sample were in-house programs, Bartsch (2011) investigated the 'Blickwechsel' program, an outsourced management development initiative that blends volunteering with learning and development. The program used coaching, reflection, and goal setting to help managers identify learning from volunteering activities, and how to apply it into their professional role. This is important, as many employees only come to realize what they learn from volunteering once they have an opportunity to reflect on their experiences (Shantz & Dempsey-Brench, 2021).

4.3. Gaining and giving skills

4.3.1. Gaining skills

The vast majority of research suggests that employees gain interpersonal skills in areas such as leadership, teamwork, and communication. Although some studies showed that employees developed technical skills, such as financial planning, media relations (e.g., Bussell & Forbes, 2008), office (e.g., Booth et al., 2009; Loosemore & Bridgeman, 2017; Pless & Borecká, 2014; Tuffrey, 1997) and project management capabilities (e.g., Jones, 2016; Peterson, 2004a; Tuffrey, 1997), in the main, most research points to employees' development of broader interpersonal skills. For instance, Vian et al. (2007: 33) found that 78% of supervisors reported that employee volunteers displayed greater levels of "professional and personal skills", whereas 38% agreed that employees gained "new technical or scientific learning". Echoing these findings, Booth et al. (2009) found that 79% of respondents agreed that they gained interpersonal skills from volunteering, while only 32% reported that they gained technical skills.

Although employees tended to report multiple areas of development, the most frequently reported interpersonal skill was leadership or management (14 papers), followed by teamwork or collaboration (10 papers), and communication, influencing or presentation (9 papers) skills. Research has shown that the amount of time that is dedicated to volunteering influences the number of skills developed, and the depth of skill acquisition. Booth et al. (2009) found that volunteer hours predicted employees' perceptions of the amount of skills they acquired. Their analyses indicated a curvilinear relationship between volunteer hours and number of acquired skills such that skill acquisition may reach a level of diminishing returns. Jones (2016) showed that employee skill development was higher for those who attended a greater number of pre-volunteering preparation classes, which strengthened their self-efficacy for skill improvement in areas such as mentorship, motivating others, speaking clearly, and teamwork. Jones also found that employees who practiced specific skills (e.g., communicating performance expectations, giving performance feedback, and public speaking) more during their volunteer experience also reported increased improvement in those skills.

Some studies proposed that an international environment was integral to skill development. Ten studies investigated volunteering in an international environment, where scholars attested that it played a significant role toward capability development because it

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pushed volunteers outside of their comfort zone (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Pless & Maak, 2009). The use of international contexts was particularly germane to studies that looked to develop cross-cultural, global leadership and cultural intelligence skills. For example, Caligiuri et al. (2019) and Pless et al. (2012) found that volunteering in a global context enhanced cross-cultural competencies, while Pless and Maak (2009) identified that international volunteer assignments facilitated understanding of complex social issues, tolerance for other ways of life, and developed responsible global leadership skills.

Another condition that enables skill development is the perceived safety of the environment in which to develop skills (Tuffrey, 1997). Volunteer experiences that are designed to develop skills often offer stretch opportunities that require a safe environment to practice new skills (Bussell & Forbes, 2008; Caligiuri et al., 2013). For instance, in Deloitte's IMPACT Day, employees apply and develop their professional expertise in activities such as mentoring and consulting in a low-risk context. This provides employees with various opportunities to practice skills that are needed in the workplace (Camilleri, 2016).

4.3.2. Giving skills

Whereas volunteers are more likely to develop interpersonal skills, they are more likely to donate job-related technical skills. For instance, Caligiuri et al. (2013) found that employees donated skills in marketing, business development, change management, research and development, project management, supply chain management, IT and data management, and human resources. In another study, one of Pillsbury Company's volunteer programs consisted of business and school partnerships, where volunteers taught economically underprivileged students work-related concepts (Bartel, 2001). There was some evidence that volunteers donated interpersonal skills too, albeit this arose less frequently. For instance, Vian et al. (2007) found that volunteers provided non-profit managers with encouragement and structure, role modelling the types of leadership skills that were required.

4.3.3. Interconnectedness of giving and gaining skills

So far, we have bifurcated skill donation and development to make a conceptual clarification, which is important in ways that we detail in the next section. However, research has evidenced that employees and firms often see them as interconnected. For example, Turner et al. (2021) examined university faculty members who volunteered in an Academic Pediatric Association and Educational Scholars Program, an initiative that blends volunteerism with learning and development to help clinicians professionally develop. Volunteers highlighted that participation provided them with the opportunity to give back *while* developing new skills. In other examples, employees are matched to projects to give skills, and at the same time, they are encouraged to develop new ones. For instance, employees who participated in Accenture's development partnership loaned their consulting expertise to the non-profits to give "developing communities and organizations... access to crucial business skills in developing countries that can act as an engine for sustainable growth", while providing "stretch opportunities" that enabled volunteers to "enjoy a rewarding career break which allows them to develop a wide range of skills whilst making a real difference where the need is greatest" (Baillie Smith & Laurie, 2011: 552). While these dual purposes may resonate with some employees, doing so may pose unique challenges depending on the motivational profiles of volunteers. We address this issue in the subsequent section.

4.4. Employee-volunteer characteristics

4.4.1. Existing skills

Employee volunteers have the potential to add significant value to non-profits by using their diverse knowledge, skills and abilities. Employees' existing skills influence the types of skills that they can give to non-profits and gain from their involvement. For instance, a professional painter may donate her skills by painting fences, whereas a management consultant may donate his skills by assisting a non-profit with a business plan. Conversely, employees develop or refine skills in which they need development; a person who lacks empathy may build this capability through mentoring non-profits, or a person who lacks facilitation skills may develop this skill through volunteering to chair non-profit board committees.

The existing skillsets of employees influence features of skills-based volunteering programs in several ways. An identification of existing skills enables firms and non-profits to allocate employees to non-profits that need their specialized skillset (Loosemore & Bridgeman, 2017; Peloza et al., 2009; Vian et al., 2007). Or in other cases, employees themselves volunteer for specific projects because they believe their skills can contribute to the cause (Peterson, 2004a; Turner et al., 2021). Skill identification also enables firms to cocreate opportunities with non-profits for employees to develop. The leadership development programs that we reviewed earlier showcase examples of how firms partner with non-profits to design volunteering activities that strategically develop skills that the firm deems important, and presumably, these are the same skills in which employees require development (e.g., Bartsch, 2011; Pless et al., 2011; Pless & Borecká, 2014).

4.4.2. Employee-volunteer motivation

The literature suggests that employee volunteers are motivated by a mix of altruistic and egoistic motives. Most research that examines volunteer motivation is anchored in Clary et al.'s (1998) functional approach to volunteer motives. In this approach, volunteers are motivated to (1) express their altruistic or humanitarian *values*; (2) seek to *understand* by increasing their knowledge, skills and competencies; (3) *enhance* their personal self and psychological development; (4) develop and strengthen *social* relationships; (5) *protect* themselves from negative feelings; and/or (6) gain professional skills to enhance one's *career*. We found four quantitative studies that directly examined these motives from samples of employee volunteers (Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017; Nave & do Paço, 2013; Peloza et al., 2009; Zappala & McLaren, 2004). By and large, the values motive is the strongest in each study, followed closely by the understanding motive, in all but one that did not measure the understanding motive (Peloza et al., 2009). Altruism and the desire to

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develop new skills also featured in qualitative investigations as important motives to participate in employee volunteering programs (Peloza & Hassay, 2006; Turner et al., 2021).

Although these twin-motives – altruism and understanding – are the strongest motivations to volunteer (i.e., highest mean values), they are not always related to anticipated outcomes. For instance, Peloza et al. (2009) found egoistic motives (a combination of understanding, career, and social networks) was significantly related to employee positive attitudes toward volunteering, whereas altruism was not. In another study, Breitsohl and Ehrig (2017) found that values and protective motives were positively related to volunteer participation, whereas enhancement and social motives were not. Interestingly, understanding and career motives were more pronounced for those who did not participate in the volunteering program. Despite the methodological limitations of these single-source, cross-sectional designs, and questions concerning what can be concluded from asking non-volunteers their motivations to volunteer, these two studies raise the possibility that what motivates employees to volunteer may not be the same factors that lead to their decision to participate, or satisfaction with the volunteering program.

A potential reason for this mixed picture may be due to the exclusive reliance on Clary et al.'s framework of motives, which was designed and has mostly been studied, in the context of general volunteers, rather than employees. Scholars have argued that in a work-related context, there are likely to be other motivations to volunteer. For instance, Peloza and Hassay (2006) suggested that employee volunteers might be motivated to be 'good soldiers', or to act as an ambassador of the firm. They reported that employees of an oil company suggested that it was their duty to support their organization, and they were motivated to enhance or change public perception of their employer. They found other manifestations of the 'good soldier', including motivations to be a 'good friend' to work colleagues, to be seen as 'part of the team', and to nourish relationships to increase efficiencies in the workplace (p. 368). Peloza et al. (2009) found that employees' egoistic motives and motives to help the employer were correlated, suggesting that employees may be motivated to help their employer to receive indirect egoistic benefits, such as skill development.

Turner et al. (2021) found evidence of another motivation to volunteer: to use existing skills. Specifically, they investigated the motives of university faculty members who suggested that they volunteered because they had the requisite skills in a specific area or had a reputation in the community for expertise that was needed. Whereas Clary et al.'s understanding motive captures the desire to gain new knowledge or skills, Turner et al. found that faculty were more likely to join the volunteering program if they believed that their skills would be valuable.

A final motivation that surfaced in our review was to meet corporate expectations, or in some cases, employees felt forced to volunteer (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Cook & Burchell, 2018; Steimel, 2018). For instance, Bart et al. (2009: 125) noted that although Ford "attempts to ensure that the program is seen as voluntary by not formally surveying or measuring employees about their participation", several employees still felt compelled to volunteer. Feeling forced to volunteer may arise from other actors or institutions; Loosemore and Bridgeman (2017) found that a number of interviewees felt compelled by their client's CSR agenda or industry-wide certification initiatives. Whether feeling forced to volunteer leads to negative consequences is, however, debatable. Although there is little research on the outcomes of mandatory volunteering, Zappala and McLaren (2004) found a high degree of felt compulsion to volunteer among a sample of volunteers who worked in an Australian bank, but interestingly, they also found that this did not create feelings of resentment or annoyance that may have arisen due to external pressure.

4.4.3. Tensions and motivations

Several tensions may arise when motives are overlaid with skills-based volunteering. Take, for instance, whether volunteers want to donate their skills. Some research shows that donating job-specific skills is positively appraised by volunteers because they can clearly see the impact of their volunteering work (Steimel, 2018). However, not all volunteers want to donate their skills, and instead want to volunteer in activities that are entirely outside of their core work (Cook & Burchell, 2018). For example, Steimel (2018: 137) interviewed a volunteer with strong technical IT skills who explained that they wanted to volunteer to make lunches for people who were experiencing homelessness, yet when the non-profit learned of their technical skills, their role was diverted. The participant complained, "If I'm supposed to be in a place to make sandwiches and they find out I can use a spreadsheet, all of a sudden I'm doing spreadsheets, when really all I wanted to do was make sandwiches".

A second tension may arise for employees who do not want to donate their skills because they believe it would devalue their industry or job role. Volunteering a person's expertise is seen by some as cheapening their skills. For example, a graphic designer stated: "If someone has an organization and they're looking around for someone to do design for free and they make that ask, there's that expectation that what the designer does isn't really valuable". This was echoed by a doula, who commented: "there's a lot of lashback for doing free births. They think it devaluates the industry as a whole" (Steimel, 2018: 140). Volunteers may therefore be hesitant to donate their job-specific skills because it undermines their professional status.

A third tension may arise because volunteering may be at odds with many volunteers' primary motivation to volunteer, that is, values (Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017; Nave & do Paço, 2013; Peloza et al., 2009; Zappala & McLaren, 2004). The very notion of skills-based volunteering may elicit the perception that it is designed to benefit the firm, employee, or both, in addition to the beneficiary. For many, this may undermine the purpose of volunteering: to give, not to gain. Although some research has shown that individuals tend to have positive responses toward personal development through volunteering (De Gilder et al., 2005), Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2021) reported preliminary evidence that some volunteers became angry and defensive when they were asked whether they had learned from their volunteering experiences. They found that some volunteers' expressed moral outrage, characterized by anger directed toward those perceived to violate one's ethical standards (Goodenough, 1997). Volunteers suggested that it was immoral to insinuate that volunteering can be an avenue to skill development, presumably because it conflicted with their primary motivation to volunteer.

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4.5. Context

4.5.1. Line managers

For some time, HR scholarship has recognized the importance of line manager implementation of HR practices (Nishii & Wright, 2008; Steffensen et al., 2019). Line managers shape the way that employees experience, and therefore form perceptions about HR practices (Den Hartog et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2009), and the evidence that we reviewed showed that employee perceptions of volunteering programs are likewise shaped by line managers. Research has identified several roles that line managers' play in supporting (or inhibiting) volunteer programs. For instance, line managers are gatekeepers of volunteer programs (Bussell & Forbes, 2008; Vian et al., 2007); they exert informative influence by providing information to encourage volunteering (Hu et al., 2016), or normative influence by pressuring employees to volunteer (Bussell & Forbes, 2008). Line managers also role model by volunteering themselves (Bart et al., 2009; Peloza & Hassay, 2006).

Our review suggests that line managers do more than merely encourage (or discourage) employees to volunteer; they also have the capacity to help employees to learn from their volunteering efforts. In their gatekeeping role, for instance, there is some evidence that line managers' decisions to allow employees to volunteer is informed by the extent to which managers anticipate that employees will professionally develop (Bussell & Forbes, 2008). The broader literature on transfer of training suggests that line managers play an important part in helping employees to transfer learning to the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2019). One way they do so is via goal setting, whereby managers help employees to set goals to develop and use new skills. For instance, Bussell and Forbes (2008) examined volunteering programs for employees in several UK higher education institutions. In one, employees are required to outline their learning objectives, which need to be approved by their line managers, and in a second, the volunteering activity needs to reflect the learning and development outcomes that are outlined in the appraisal process; employees are asked to document, together with their manager, how the volunteering will positively impact their role at the institution.

Line managers also have the capacity to influence the extent to which employees develop new skills. For instance, line manager attitudes toward volunteering were important for the development of skills in volunteering programs at IBM and HSBC. Gitsham (2012: 305) found that the "extent to which participants felt supported, encouraged, recognised and rewarded was a factor some identified in the outcomes of the learning experience being achieved". Furthermore, Hu et al. (2016) reported a positive correlation between line manager role modelling of volunteering and learning from volunteering, and Geroy et al. (2000) discovered that employees who engage in volunteer programs with high managerial support perceived to gain higher overall rewards from volunteering.

4.5.2. Co-workers

Similar to line managers, co-workers can influence volunteering participation through role modelling, and they can provide informative and normative pressures to volunteer (e.g., De Gilder et al., 2005; Muthuri et al., 2009; Peloza & Hassay, 2006). Research by Hu et al. (2016) revealed the importance of co-worker support by showing that it substitutes for prosocial motivation; in other words, employees do not need to be pro-socially motivated to engage in volunteering if their coworkers already volunteer. However, not all research suggests that co-workers positively influence each other to volunteer; in one study, employees preferred to volunteer with those outside of their work group to expand their network (Peloza et al., 2009).

A small collection of studies has found that co-worker volunteering is positively related to learning from volunteering. Hu et al. (2016) found a positive correlation between the two, and in a qualitative study, co-worker's engagement in a skills-based volunteer program facilitated colleague development (Vian et al., 2007). We also found evidence that co-workers influence skill donation. For instance, Steimel (2018) found that most skills-based volunteers were recruited via their co-workers who were familiar with their skills. As such, co-workers help one another to find volunteering opportunities that enable them to use their skills, and they contribute to one another's development while volunteering together.

4.5.3. Non-profit support

A major driver for non-profits to engage with corporate volunteer programs is to access employees' skills. The implication is that they are motivated to secure volunteers who want to donate their professional skills, not necessarily develop new ones. However, many non-profits recognize that firms seek volunteer opportunities for their employees to not only donate skills, but also develop new ones. Non-profits are therefore increasingly seeking deeper engagement with firms to develop skills-based volunteer opportunities to facilitate mutual gain (Cook & Burchell, 2018).

There is some evidence that non-profits can influence employees' learning from volunteering. For instance, beneficiaries shape the extent to which employees believe they are making a positive contribution to the non-profit and when employees believe their volunteering efforts contribute meaningfully to the beneficiary, they are more likely to develop skills (Caligiuri et al., 2013). The quality of the business-non-profit partnership is also important. Non-profits that actively work with businesses to develop long-term developmental projects may be more likely to provide experiences that lend themselves to employee development (Cook & Burchell, 2018).

4.6. Firm outcomes of skills-based volunteering

4.6.1. Firm-level performance

A widely held assumption is that firm-level benefits arise from encouraging employees to volunteer in skills-based activities (Bussell & Forbes, 2008; Geroy et al., 2000). For example, Camilleri (2016) suggested that individual learning from volunteering culminates into organizational learning; as firms nurture their employees' skills via volunteering, firms capture this in the form of greater human capital and financial performance. Furthermore, scholars have commented that volunteering programs can increase the ethical culture

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of the organization (Pless et al., 2012) and attract new talent (Loosemore & Bridgeman, 2017). However, we found only two studies that directly examine firm-level outcomes of volunteer programs that are tied to skills. Oware and Mallikarjunappa (2020) investigated 80 firms listed on the Indian stock market and found that firms with volunteering programs that entail employee skill use are associated with greater firm financial performance. Gaarder and McCommon's (1990) qualitative case study of Hershey's partnership with the Accelerated Cocoa Production Project showed that their involvement led Hershey to streamline business operations, increase farm yields, and decrease production costs.

4.6.2. Talent and leadership pipeline

Whereas research on the outcomes at the firm level is scarce, there is plentiful research at the individual level of analysis that may lead to firm benefits. For instance, many of the volunteering activities that are embedded into leadership development or talent management programs are designed to cultivate a pool of global leaders (e.g., Pless et al., 2011; Pless & Borecká, 2014; Vian et al., 2007). For example, after program completion, participants of PwC's Project Ulysses assumed greater leadership roles within the firm (McCallum et al., 2013). These types of programs also benefitted the firm through new business development. A study that examined volunteering programs across six organizations found that employees who volunteered brought new knowledge to the business, such as information on their supply chains, and country-specific information that could be useful to penetrate developing markets (Pless & Borecká, 2014). Likewise, Muthuri et al. (2009) evidenced that learning from volunteering sparked business development opportunities; volunteers' new insights led the firm to create new financial products tailored to new customers.

4.6.3. Employee performance

Research also suggests that learning from volunteering may have positive individual performance outcomes. For instance, Booth et al. (2009) found a positive relationship between employees' skill development from volunteering and perceptions of job success; with each one-unit increase of perceptions of skill acquisition, employees believed that they were 43% more successful at work. De Gilder et al. (2005) found that volunteers who positively appraised their company's volunteer program and who personally developed from it, reported strong levels of performance and attendance at work. In another study, supervisors of employee volunteers reported that volunteers worked harder, were more enthusiastic about their work, more cooperative with others, and paid more attention to detail (Bartel, 2001). Furthermore, employees enrich their team-work skills through volunteering (e.g., Nave & do Paço, 2013; Turner et al., 2021), which may have implications for firm performance.

4.6.4. Employee attitudes

Research also suggests that learning from volunteering is related to positive job attitudes, such as enhanced work engagement (Peloza & Hassay, 2006; Zappala & McLaren, 2004) and organizational commitment (Caligiuri et al., 2013; McCallum et al., 2013; Oware & Mallikarjunappa, 2020). Furthermore, volunteering can develop employees' identification with the organization's values (Tuffrey, 1997). For example, Gitsham's (2012) investigation of IBM's Corporate Service Corps showed that volunteering helped some employees understand their organization's sustainability strategy, which motivated them to push the firm's agenda.

Not all research reported a positive link between learning from volunteering and performance. For instance, Hu et al. (2016) reported that the relationship between prosocial motivation and performance was insignificant at high levels of learning from volunteering, and interestingly became negative at low levels of learning. In other words, when prosocially motivated employees fail to learn from volunteering, this study shows that their job performance suffers. Furthermore, Loosemore and Bridgeman (2017) reported evidence that employees did not believe that their experiences would translate into higher job performance. A potential reason for the conflicting findings on the relationship between learning from volunteering and job performance is the type of skills that employees use while volunteering. Caligiuri et al. (2013) showed that when employees used their specialist skills in volunteering, they were more readily able to apply new skills to the business unit, whereas the use of a broader range of skills was more beneficial to the sustainable impact and performance of the non-profit.

4.7. Non-profit outcomes of skills-based volunteering

4.7.1. Access to skills

Access to new skills is the most frequently cited benefit of skills-based volunteering from a non-profit perspective (e.g., Bartel, 2001; Camilleri, 2016; Pless et al., 2011). For example, non-profits that engaged with IBM were better equipped to solve financial management challenges, develop stronger information technology systems, and execute business plans (McCallum et al., 2013). In another study, Belizean farmers gained access to technical, marketing and HR development expertise. Through project participation, farmers developed leadership skills, while gaining in self-confidence (Gaarder & McCommon, 1990).

4.7.2. Sustainable impact

Research shows that when employees were able to use a broad range of professional skills in volunteer projects, it positively related to the sustainability of the project as judged by the non-profit (Caligiuri et al., 2013). In another example, 79% of Pfizer's Global Health Fellows believed they met all or most of the non-profit's technical assistance goals, which in turn helped to make a sustainable impact to the third sector organization, such as increasing the level and efficiency of service (McCallum et al., 2013; Vian et al., 2007). Non-profits reported that volunteers' professional skills helped to expand its networks, formulate strategies, provide training to clinical and research staff, and improve administrative systems. One volunteer tripled the volume of medical tests used to identify HIV infections in one non-profit, while increasing the quality and reliability of testing (Vian et al., 2007).

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4.7.3. Partnership development

Skills-based volunteers often opened their networks to non-profits (Muthuri et al., 2009; Steimel, 2018) and helped them develop new partnerships indirectly, by providing them with the skills and knowledge to do so. McCallum et al. (2013) found that non-profits were better able to build relationships with external stakeholders because of the skills that volunteers donated in operations, staff development, and cross-cultural expertise. Non-profits also gain experience in negotiating and implementing inter-organizational collaborative projects. For example, Gaarder and McCommon (1990) emphasized that the non-profit strengthened their negotiation and partnership skills, which were critical to sustain cocoa development in Belize, even after the project ended.

4.7.4. Future volunteerism

There is some evidence that participation in volunteering programs beget future volunteerism. Research on employee volunteering suggests that employees who volunteer as part of a corporate program are more likely to volunteer in the future (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2013; Peloza et al., 2009; Zappala & McLaren, 2004). This may be especially the case if volunteers use and develop skills while volunteering; research shows that volunteers continue to volunteer after program completion especially when they perceive that they develop skills and competencies (Booth et al., 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013).

Finally, there is some evidence that employee volunteering might not always benefit non-profits. Baillie Smith and Laurie (2011) noted that employees' professional development often takes precedence over the needs of non-profits. Cook and Burchell (2018) added that volunteering partnerships are resource intensive; they require staff to engage, supervise and train volunteers, and they entail health and safety and risk assessments. This can lead to mission-drift, as non-profit resources are diverted away from core tasks. Especially for smaller non-profits, partnerships can be costly, as firms are often reluctant to pay for volunteering opportunities since they believe they already offer "free resources". While skills-based volunteering has the potential to be advantageous to non-profits, Cook and Burchell warned that capacity and infrastructure gaps may frustrate the effectiveness of these programs, particularly from a non-profit perspective.

5. Discussion

The purpose of this review was to take stock of research at the intersection of skills and employee volunteering. In doing so, this paper makes two contributions to the literature. First, we provided an operational definition of skills-based volunteering. While skills-based volunteering is one of the fastest growing ways in which organizations carry out their CSR strategy (CECP, 2020), there has been little attempt in the scholarly discourse to define and unpack it. Definitions are important, especially at nascent stages of research, so that future research can coherently build and extend knowledge (Podsakoff et al., 2016). Since only 36% of the papers that we reviewed studied programs that met our definition of skills-based volunteering, we need to know much more about this workplace practice, and how it differs from other forms of volunteering. Although Fig. 1 goes some way to meet that end, there are likely other factors that differentiate skills-based volunteering from other forms of volunteering, and we welcome the field to continue to refine the definition that we offered in this paper.

Second, we developed a model that explains the key features of skills-based volunteering programs, the factors that influence them, and firm and non-profit outcomes. However, not all parts of the model have received equal or sufficient attention (see Table 1). The most studied aspects included the types of skills that were donated and developed, and the picture is quite clear: employees tend to donate technical skills and gain interpersonal ones. Another relatively clear finding is that employees report positive attitudes about their volunteering experience and organization, especially when they report that they learned from their experience. The least studied parts of the model relate to how non-profits facilitate volunteering, and the outcomes that they derive. We echo Cook and Burchell's remarks that non-profit voices need to be amplified in research on employee volunteering. A final observation that is particularly worthwhile to note is that although there is a mix of methods used across studies, the vast majority rely on single-source and cross-sectional data. We can only truly answer important research questions through robust empirical research design carefully before tack-ling research questions.

Although there are myriad directions for future research, we chose to focus here on those that we believe are most promising for theory development and practice. Our suggestions for future research are organized into three categories: (1) tensions between employee motives and skills-based volunteering; (2) the role of HR in skills-based volunteering; and (3) firm and non-profit outcomes. We believe that further examination of these issues using qualitative and quantitative methods will broaden our understanding of skills-based volunteering and provide critical information to HR professionals who are eager to contribute to their firm's CSR strategy by adopting, supporting and/or managing these programs.

5.1. Tensions between employee motives and skills-based volunteering

Table 1 revealed that a little over one-third of the papers in this review examined volunteers' motivations. The quantitative papers help the field to recognize the strength of different motives among the sample, and their implications for employee attitudes (e.g., Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017; Nave & do Paço, 2013; Peloza et al., 2009). Yet qualitative studies have identified tensions between volunteer motivations and skills-based volunteering. For instance, skills-based volunteering implies that the employee and/or the firm seek to gain from volunteering through the development of employee skills. This may sit at odds with peoples' primary motivation to volunteer – to give, not to gain. Our review found that employee volunteers' primary motivation is altruism (e.g., Breitsohl & Ehrig, 2017; Nave & do Paço, 2013; Zappala & McLaren, 2004), and so although donating skills may resonate with these employees,

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developing skills to benefit themselves or their firm, may not (Cook & Burchell, 2018). Research has shown that some employees become defensive or morally outraged by the notion that volunteering can help their job, career, or employer (Shantz & Dempsey-Brench, 2021), suggesting that skills-based volunteering is a terrain that firms need to traverse with care. Research has also revealed tensions between skills-based volunteering and the desire to use existing skills while volunteering. Some employees are motivated to donate non-work-related skills (Cook & Burchell, 2018) and others are fearful that donating job-specific skills may cheapen their skills (Steimel, 2018).

We see at least four fruitful ways forward to further our understanding of these tensions. First, future research needs to disentangle giving from gaining skills. Our definition of skills-based volunteering provides a platform from which scholars can carefully design a set of measures that reflects its facets (Hinkin, 1998). Although our definition suggests that skills-based volunteering is a multidimensional construct, future research should create distinct measures that capture its elements. This is because information specific to the dimensions may be relevant (Edwards, 2001), such as the distinction between giving and gaining skills, which we would expect to have different outcomes, depending on the motivation profile of volunteers.

Second, research should examine interactions among volunteer motives. Although altruism tends to be the strongest motive to volunteer, the understanding motive (i.e., motivation to learn) is a close second. None of the studies that we reviewed examined interactions among motives, which is surprising given that people are often motivated to volunteer for multiple reasons (Clary et al., 1998). Therefore, future research should look to examine overlapping or synergistic motives on employees' responses to skills-based volunteering.

Third, research should consider the conditions under which employees are motivated to give and gain skills. Bingham et al. (2013) suggested that the degree to which the environment contains elements that exert normative pressure on employees to participate in prosocial activities might strengthen motives to volunteer. We identified three contextual factors (managers, co-workers, and non-profit support), but there are likely to be more. Future research could extend our knowledge of how other work-related factors, such as job design and organizational climate, moderate relationships (Hou et al., 2020; Rodell et al., 2016; Rodell et al., 2017).

A notable contextual feature that future research should examine is national culture. For instance, research shows that members of higher power distance countries (the extent to which inequality is expected and accepted; Hofstede, 2001) report weaker perceptions of responsibility to aid others, decreasing charitable behavior (Winterich & Zhang, 2014). Power distance may be especially germane in the context of employer-sponsored volunteering because it may be perceived as a job requirement or expectation, rather than an act of voluntary citizenship. There may be a backlash if employees feel that they are required to perform job duties that are outside of their job description. A second potentially important cultural difference is uncertainty avoidance (the degree to which a society is comfortable with uncertainty; Hofstede, 2001). Research shows that members of countries with low levels of uncertainty avoidance are less likely to help strangers, donate money to charity, and volunteer (Smith, 2015). Uncertainty avoidance may be particularly important to consider in the context of skills-based volunteering because those who are uncomfortable in new situations may react negatively when asked to stretch their skills in a new environment. Future research should take care to examine more than one cultural dimension because interactions among them may reveal important nuances. For instance, Luria et al. (2015) found that individualism was positively related to prosocial behavior, but only at low levels of uncertainty avoidance or power distance. Future research should therefore consider volunteering, and other ways that HR can contribute to sustainability goals, in different national contexts (e.g., Xiao et al., 2020).

Finally, research can build from the burgeoning interest in attribution theory in management (e.g., Martinko & Mackey, 2019), and HR in particular (Hewett et al., 2018; Hewett et al., 2019) to further investigate these tensions. Attributions are common-sense explanations that people make about why they believe an event occurred or why an entity exists in the first place (e.g., Heider, 1958), which in turn, affect an individual's expectations, feelings and future behavior. For instance, Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015) found that when employees attributed their employer's volunteering program to public-serving motivations, it undermined the positive effects of employee volunteering programs. Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2021) found that employees' responses to learning from skills-based volunteering depended on how they interpreted their employers' motives. They discovered that employees who were morally outraged at the thought of gaining from volunteering were, in the main, suspicious of their employer's motivations. Future research should therefore examine attributions of skills-based volunteering programs, in tandem with employee motivations, to further our understanding of the abovementioned tensions.

5.2. The role of HR in skills-based volunteering

Although the largest proportion of articles in our review were published in HR or organizational behavior journals (33%), skillsbased volunteering has largely been overlooked as a way for HR to contribute to a firm's CSR efforts. This is surprising because in the past five years, there have been ten papers published in this journal alone that discuss the CSR/HR interface (e.g., Hewett & Shantz, 2021; Ren & Jackson, 2020; Stahl et al., 2020). Each has called out for research on practices just like this. For instance, Voegtlin and Greenwood (2016) suggested that activities under the 'social integrative' approach, where CSR and HR are mutually reinforcing, offer the richest way forward for future research. Although volunteering was used by several scholars as an example of how HR can be involved in the community (De Stefano et al.), 'do good' and 'avoid harm' (Stahl et al., 2020), and become an 'institutional entrepreneur' to achieve triple bottom line outcomes (Ren & Jackson, 2020), the connection between volunteering and skills was barely mentioned, even though there is clearly the potential for synergies between business and societal needs. In general, our review surfaced very little discussion of HR's role in designing and managing volunteering programs, and we echo repeated lamentations of HR scholars in this journal and others that while HR has the professional competencies to enrich a firm's CSR strategy, its role so far has

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been marginal. We believe that a starting point for showcasing how HR can contribute to CSR is via skills-based volunteering, which invites research in several key areas.

First, research is needed on *how* HR can collaborate with multiple stakeholders to create value (Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016). To do so, future research could leverage a recent addition to HR scholarship: the theory of HR co-creation (Hewett & Shantz, 2021). This theory suggests that HR acts within a network of internal and external stakeholders and seeks to meet multiple needs simultaneously to optimize value. Skills-based volunteering may meet senior managers' needs to develop a talent pipeline; employees' needs to find purpose in their work; and community needs via improved non-profit management processes. This theory could also be used to further our understanding of the role of brokers who provide infrastructural support to firms and non-profits to facilitate matching of skills (Cook & Burchell, 2018). Research remains limited on how the firm and its HR representatives can work together with brokers to bridge the gap between mutual learning needs. HR co-creation theory provides a needed theoretical backdrop to understand how these needs are identified, addressed, and satiated.

Second, HR scholarship can advance our knowledge of what and how employees learn from skills-based volunteering. Our review showed that employees were more likely to *give* technical skills and *gain* interpersonal ones. This is important, because interpersonal skills such as leadership, teamwork, and empathy are much harder to engender in a traditional training program (Ashford and DeRue, 2012), and are significantly harder to transfer into practice (Laker & Powell, 2011). This begs the question of whether and how the interpersonal skills that are gained from skills-based volunteering are transferred to the work setting. A long and rich body of knowledge on transfer of training can be adapted to explore this important theoretical and practical question (e.g., Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010; Cascio, 2019). For instance, research could examine the relative efficacy of coaching, reflection, and 360-degree feedback, which has so far received scant attention. Alternatively, research could draw from the sensemaking literature (Weick et al., 2005), which has also been overlooked. This is surprising, as sensemaking has been noted as a critical process for learning, with those who do not intentionally process their experiences, are less likely to learn from them (Haas, 2006).

Research may also connect recent theorizing on proactive employee development with skills-based volunteering. Dachner et al. (2021) defined proactive employee development as the ways in which employees independently alter or expand their job boundaries and tasks in unique ways. Although they briefly mentioned volunteering as a form of proactive employee development, skills-based volunteering could be the centerpiece of empirical work that brings these notions together. For instance, a US-based brokerage company, Revere (www.getrevere.com), works with non-profits and firms to connect employees to activities that will help them develop new skills. Employees enter professional competencies that they would like to develop, and they are matched with non-profit organizations that can offer work that meets their needs. Research on why and how employees proactively develop their skills via these e-platforms would be welcomed.

A third direction for future research is how other HR practices, aside from learning and development, are used to support skillsbased volunteering. For instance, firms tie volunteering to performance management (Shantz & Dempsey-Brench, 2021), yet we know little about how this practice, or others (e.g., selection, rewards and recognition) facilitate skills-based volunteering. Furthermore, research could examine how the strength of the HR system (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004) influences employees' desire to continue to develop via volunteering. Bednall and Sanders (2017) found that employees who take part in formal training programs also participate in short and long-term informal learning activities, especially when the HR system is strong. Future research may therefore examine the extent to which skills-based volunteering plays a role in developing a culture of continuous improvement.

5.3. Firm and non-profit outcomes

Although it is common parlance that firms and non-profits gain from employee participation in skills-based volunteering (Bussell & Forbes, 2008; Geroy et al., 2000), we found limited evidence to support this conjecture. Only 6% of the papers we reviewed focused on firm-level outcomes, and less than half examined outcomes from the non-profit perspective, most of which were "access to business skills", which says little about the impact of leveraging those skills to benefit the non-profit or its clients. Skills-based volunteering comes with a monetary cost, both for the firm and the non-profit. To persuade key decision makers that skills-based volunteering is a worthwhile endeavor, it behooves researchers to understand whether and how it can facilitate firm and non-profit benefits, and how to mitigate potential downsides. This practical need opens up several avenues for future research.

First, research may seek to establish whether skills-based volunteering leads to greater firm-level benefits, such as increased company performance, reputational rankings, and employee attraction. Future research should look to understand the implications of designing and implementing strategically aligned volunteer programs and identify the benefits and costs associated with its enactment.

A second avenue of inquiry is to examine the processes by which individual learning from volunteering culminates into organizational learning. One possibility is that learning moves from the individual to firm level via the discussions that employees have with one another (e.g., Bart et al., 2009; Bartsch, 2011). Social networks play an important role in employees' development (e.g., Seibert et al., 2001) and further research could use social network analysis to explore and compare the network structures of skills-based employee volunteers and non-volunteers. This would allow us to not only understand whether skills-based volunteering programs develop employees through social and learning network connections, but also if they facilitate organizational learning.

Finally, there is a need to address the non-profit perspective, which has been overlooked in most research. This is a critical gap because volunteering programs rely heavily on non-profit support and cooperation (e.g., Liston-Heyes & Liu, 2010), and our review shows that non-profits can shape employees' volunteer experience in different ways. Research on non-profit outcomes is mixed, with some research showing positive outcomes (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2013), and others indicating downsides, such as increased costs and mission-drift (Cook & Burchell, 2018). The field needs far more research on the up and downsides of skills-based volunteering on the part of the non-profit so that skills-based volunteering is welcomed by the third sector.

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6. Limitations

We limited our review to peer-reviewed journals because these articles underwent a rigorous review process. It was beyond the scope of this review to incorporate grey-literature, non-peer reviewed articles, books and book chapters, which may have provided more insights into the topic under examination. Second, due to the diversity of research design and methods across our data set, we were unable to conduct a quantitative analysis of extant literature. We hope that this review spurs on future research that produces sufficient evidence for a meta-analytic review. A third limitation may involve the coverage of databases, appropriate keywords, and exclusion criteria. Although we sought to limit this by using multiple databases and reference searches, we may have missed some relevant studies due to the exclusion of key search terms in titles and/or abstracts. Despite these limitations, we believe that the review conducted brings to light important results that will help to drive forward our understanding of skills-based volunteering, and we hope that our efforts will motivate others to develop this research frontier.

7. Practical implications

The most significant practical implication of this review is providing a framework for HR managers to consider how to implement and monitor skills-based volunteering. We concur with De Stefano et al. (2018: 560) that HR managers should "claim a more active role in those areas of sustainability in which competencies and skills between HRM and CSR overlap and in which synergies and spillovers between the two are possible". Skills-based volunteering is a clear example of a practical way to do so. HR managers can work together with CSR specialists (Gond et al., 2011) to design volunteering programs that optimize employee skill use and gain, while ensuring that the non-profit partners advance their cause. Recently, Hewett and Shantz (2021) called for HR to co-create solutions to meet multiple internal and external stakeholder needs, and skills-based volunteering appears to be a credible way to do so.

This review should not be interpreted as a 'check-list', but instead, can motivate important conversations among HR specialists, CSR personnel, and non-profit organizations. For instance, to what extent is the skills-based program strategic? Does it align with the firm's mission or CSR strategy? Should volunteering be integrated into leadership development or talent management programs? What are the best ways to ensure that the learning that is gained from volunteering is transferred to the workplace? Is the firm paying sufficient attention to context, such as line manager buy-in, co-worker support, and non-profit involvement? These are just some of the conversation-starter questions that may prompt the development of innovate programs that meet multiple stakeholder needs.

However, cautious steps need to be taken during planning and implementation of any skills-based volunteering program. Some of the evidence that we reviewed shows that employees do not want to donate their job-specific skills, or they feel uncomfortable with the notion of gaining skills to benefit themselves or the company. The messaging of skills-based volunteering therefore needs to be crafted with care so that employees understand that multiple gains, from the perspective of various stakeholders, can be met through their volunteering efforts.

We would be remiss if we did not discuss the importance of HR supporting skills-based volunteering in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. Financial resilience has long been a major concern among non-profit organizations globally, and with the onset of the 2020 pandemic, the demand for many services has increased (Johnson et al., 2021). Now, more than ever, effective volunteering programs that deploy the right skills to non-profits are desperately needed. Yet with ongoing lockdowns, and insecurities regarding health and safety, traditional face-to-face volunteering may not always be possible. One growing way in which organizations are continuing to connect employees to non-profits is through virtual volunteering (Grensing-Pophal, 2020; Humbad, 2021). As more employees work remotely, the opportunity to volunteer virtually may be one way in which HR can boost employee engagement and learning, while also supporting non-profits in the aftermath of this crisis (Humbad, 2021), and perhaps prepare it for the next one.

8. Conclusion

As businesses are actively and publicly expanding their role in society, the time is right to shine a light on skills-based volunteering. It may come as no surprise that these programs are increasing in number since they promise to deliver gains to multiple stakeholders simultaneously. The purpose of this review was to take stock of existing knowledge of the intersection of employee skills and volunteering. In doing so, we offer a definition of skills-based volunteering, and a model that maps the terrain of existing research. This review provides a needed platform for future HR research on this important practice.

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