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In the Moment of Giving
Essays on contemporary forms of private and corporate philanthropy

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In the Moment of Giving: Essays on contemporary forms of private and corporate philanthropy

In het moment van geven: essays over hedendaags vrijwilligerswerk en maatschappelijk betrokken ondernemen

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Figuring out how to thank those who helped me along the way turns out to be a rather difficult endeavor. To find some guidance, I took a simple glance in a dictionary. An acknowledgement (noun) is 1. the act of acknowledging or state of being acknowledged; 2. something done or given as an expression of thanks; and 3. (plural: acknowledgments) a short text at the beginning or end of a book where the writer names people or other works that have helped in writing the book. After reading the latter, I wonder how to give an expression of thanks to those who helped me during the last five years in a *short text*. Those who worked with me know that I find writing short texts quite challenging.

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One thing I learned while wandering the world is that home is not a place, but rather the people you love. Thus I would like to express my utmost gratitude to my mom and sisters. A special thank you to Pauline and Miranda for helping me transcribe some of my interviews and for joining me on a few of my conference trips. I hope you enjoyed taking a sneak peek off my life as an academic. I for sure did as it made my life a bit easier and my conferences more enjoyable. I would also like to thank the best friend I ever had: Brutus. Yet again a thank you to my mom and Pauline who took excellent care of Brutus – and now Nolan – when I moved to Rotterdam. Also a notable and honorable thank you to my late grandma. If heaven wasn't so far I would have thanked you in person.

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Rotterdam, January 2020
Stephanie Antonia Maas

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Every year, the third Tuesday in September is *Prinsjesdag* ("Prince's Day") in the Netherlands. On that day, the reigning monarch of the Netherlands delivers the so-called *Troonrede* ("Speech from the Throne") on behalf of the government. This speech sets out the most important plans of the government policy and marks the start of the parliamentary year. On 17 September 2019, in his capacity as Head of State, King Willem-Alexander delivered his Speech from the Throne. Early on in his speech he says, "But anyone who considers the world at large will appreciate how remarkable it is to live in a country where people are able to feel safe and secure. Where freedom goes hand in hand with tolerance and a sense of responsibility. And where people are still always willing to lend each other a helping hand." He continues: "The Netherlands remains a country of volunteers and of sensible compromises in broad areas of common ground. From the young to the elderly, from the work floor to the boardroom, and from Willemstad to Amsterdam, people want to get involved and contribute. That is what unites us and what, together, we must cherish." This is not the first time the King highlights the voluntary efforts of the Dutch. In 2018, in his Speech from the Throne, King Willem-Alexander said: "Building a close-knit society is a matter for everyone in our country (...) The Netherlands is a country of volunteers, churches and associations." In both speeches King Willem-Alexander highlights the charitable giving of the Dutch. Both times he signals the importance of our giving behavior and declares the Netherlands to be a country of volunteers.

Certainly, the Netherlands is a country with a long and "rich philanthropic history" and landscape (Wiepking and Bekkers, 2015, p.211). Indeed, compared to many other European countries, the Dutch have high volunteering rates (Schmeets and

Arends, 2017). These volunteer rates remained relatively stable between 1977 and 2008 as 42.0% to 45.0% of the Dutch population volunteered. Between 2012 and 2016, these rates fluctuate between 48.0% and 50.0%. Data on Dutch volunteer rates are inconclusive, as there is also data indicating volunteer rates slightly decreased in the last decade (Schmeets and Arends, 2017). Giving in the Netherlands (2017), indicates that 36.0% of the Dutch population volunteered for a nonprofit organization in 2016. Although volunteer rates seem to remain fairly constant, the average amount of hours donated by volunteers decreased. In 2016, volunteers gave on average 14.5 hours per month (Bekkers et al., 2017), whereas in 1975 and 1990 volunteers gave on average 17.6 and 20.0 hours a month (Dekker and De Hart, 2009).

When looking at financial contributions, for-profit organizations became a more important source of philanthropy and charitable giving. For-profit organizations donated 693 billion euro to nonprofit organizations (including sponsorships) in 1997, accounting for 27.0% of total charitable contributions. In 2015, however, corporate donations accounted for 35.0% of the total charitable contributions in the Netherlands, whereby for-profit organizations donated no less than 2.007 billion euro (including sponsorships) (Bekkers et al., 2017). According to the same study, the increase in charitable giving by for-profit organizations is largely due to an increase in corporate volunteering as for-profit organizations seem to increasingly contribute time and manpower to nonprofit organizations. Within the Netherlands, for-profit organizations are the second largest contributor where household giving makes up for the biggest share. In 1997, individual households donated 1.528 billion euro accounting for 59.5% of all charitable giving. In 2015, household giving consisted of 2.611 billion euro, accounting for 45.6% of total charitable contributions. This differs from US data, where households make up the lion's share of philanthropic contributions, followed by foundations and legacies, and corporate philanthropy comes only fourth (Giving USA Foundation, 2019).

Undeniably, the philanthropic landscape changed rapidly in the last few decades. Recent years witnessed a diversification of private and corporate philanthropy practices. Individuals changed their philanthropic behavior, and for-profit organizations became important philanthropic actors playing a more essential role in philanthropy by contributing more by donating money, time, and manpower. These changes are observable in many other countries besides the Netherlands. Consequently, no part of the philanthropic landscape nowadays appears to be as diverse as the ways in which individuals and for-profit organizations seek to do good. The philanthropic landscape grew increasingly more crowded as more and more organizations and

philanthropic practices came to populate the terrain. These entail various channels to practice private and corporate philanthropy, including third parties, intermediaries, foundations, and other organizational forms. These channels or practices became part of the philanthropic infrastructure and provide different pathways into private and corporate philanthropy. While philanthropy in its own is not a new phenomenon, its increasing diversity raises questions and sparks academic interest. The changing landscape calls for a better understanding of the values, consequences, and management practices of these new channels and practices. Especially since these new trends and practices of philanthropy present new challenges for nonprofit organizations. Prompted by these challenges, I wrote this dissertation.

Over time, I met with volunteers and with nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, (collective) corporate foundations, and third party intermediary organizations, and spoke with them about the ways in which they seek to do good. As both private and corporate philanthropy continue to change, the number of individuals and organizations who wrestle with the question on how to adjust to present day forms of giving or how to go about their own giving will only increase in the coming years. This dissertation is for those professionals who work in nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, third parties and alike, and for others who wish to understand contemporary private and corporate philanthropy.

In the dissertation, I aim to enhance our understanding of two substantive areas of research encompassing various contemporary channels of private and corporate philanthropy. First, I examine modern volunteering by examining National Days of Service initiated by a third party. Second, I look into modern practices of corporate philanthropy by examining various vehicles or channels that stand between a corporate donor and a nonprofit recipient. I refer to such channels, vehicles or practices as "indirect corporate philanthropy or giving". Indirect corporate philanthropy includes corporate giving channeled through (collective) corporate foundations and third party intermediary organizations. These modern vehicles place a firm's corporate philanthropy at arm's length of the for-profit organization, making the relation between donor and recipient indirect.

1.1   Themes in the Dissertation

1.1.1   The Concept of Philanthropy

The word philanthropy originates from the ancient Greek *"phillen"* meaning "love of" and *"antropos"* meaning "mankind" or "humanity", and translates into "the expression

of love to human beings" (Fernandez, 2011, p.14) or "the love of mankind" (Wiepking, 2008, p. V). As the name etymologically implies, philanthropists are "lovers of humanity". Generally speaking, philanthropy aims "to promote the welfare, happiness, and culture of mankind" (Bremner, 1988, p.3).

Stretching back to the earliest societies, philanthropy has a long history and exists in most historical periods. Philanthropy exists in all cultures and is intertwined with many of the world's religions (Fernandez, 2011; Frumkin, 2010). Although philanthropy has been around for centuries, there appears to be no universally, theoretically accepted definition. Philanthropy is a "complex", "sprawling" (Frumkin, 2008, p.11), and "essentially contested" concept (Daly, 2012, p.535) as the meaning of philanthropy changed over time and its meaning differs between contexts. Definitions of philanthropy differ depending on social contexts and the individual defining it (Fernandez, 2011).

Philanthropy is a very broad field and differs in donor, scale, purpose, and gift (Ramutsindela et al., 2013). Logically, different types and forms of philanthropy emerged over time in the academic literature. In the broadest sense, philanthropy includes all voluntary action undertaken for the public good (Payton, 1988). Philanthropy commonly refers to the giving of money, but also refers to the giving of time (volunteering) (Payton and Moody, 2008; Bussell and Forbes, 2002), giving of in-kind goods (in-kind philanthropy) (Bussell and Forbes, 2002), and giving of blood or anatomical parts (known as health-related philanthropy) (Meslin et al., 2008).

Philanthropy can also come from different philanthropic actors: individuals, foundations, and for-profit organizations (Andreoni, 2006). Based upon its donor one can distinguish between private, institutional, and corporate philanthropy. Private philanthropy refers to voluntary donations made by individuals to charitable organizations they consider worthy to support (Gewirth, 1987). Institutional philanthropy refers to organizations and foundations that fundraise and manage the allocation of funds (Sandfort, 2008).[1] Corporate philanthropy refers to the philanthropic endeavours of for-profit organizations, including voluntary financial contributions, in-kind donations and corporate volunteering to social and charitable causes (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015; Porter and Kramer, 2006).

Scholars devoted significant attention to understand why individuals, foundations, and for-profit organizations seek to do good. According to Rudich (2009), three main theories explain (private) philanthropic behaviour: altruism, social exchange theory, and identification theory. Motives for corporate philanthropy are often positioned on

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[1]Foundations refer to privately-owned, non-membership based organizations that accumulate wealth, are managed by directors and trustees, and aim to advance social causes (Anheier, 2001).

a continuum ranging from pure altruism towards pure business interests (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Moir and Taffler, 2004), confirming the application of altruism and social exchange theory within corporate philanthropy as well. Altruism refers to philanthropy motivated by the "love of mankind", without expecting any rewards in return (Bekkers, 2013; Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011; Gautier and Pache, 2015; Hemingway and Maclagan, 2004; Rudich, 2009; Sánchez, 2000). Social exchange theory focuses on the reciprocal relationships between donors and recipients. According to social exchange theory individuals or for-profit organizations will donate money, time, goods or other resources to help others, when such giving benefits both the donor and the recipient (Rudich, 2009). Identification theory explains philanthropy by creating mutually rewarding donor-recipient relationships (Rudich, 2009).

Since nonprofit organizations compete more for financial and human resources due to government cutbacks (Van Slyke and Brooks, 2005), nonprofit organizations benefit more and more from financial donations and from gifts in time. As volunteers and philanthropic donations have great value for nonprofit organizations, understanding the changes within the philanthropic landscape merits attention. New developments and trends set forth solid reasons for ongoing research in the field.

As the changes within the philanthropic landscape are voluminous, this dissertation focuses on one trend in particular: the increase in third parties or vehicles providing individuals and for-profit organizations various pathways into private and corporate philanthropy.

1.1.2   Private Philanthropy: Third Parties Re-embedding Volunteering

Traditionally, the volunteering landscape consists of three actors: the volunteers who give their time, the nonprofit organization where the volunteer performs the voluntary work, and the beneficiaries that benefit from the services provided by the nonprofit organization and its volunteers (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Recent years, however, witnessed an increase in volunteering opportunities harvested by other actors and parties. Such actors encourage individuals to volunteer and recruit volunteers to give their time to other nonprofit organizations. These actors include for instance for-profit organizations, schools, governments, and nonprofit organizations such as volunteer centers or alike. Examples of volunteer opportunities harvested by third parties include National Days of Service (Cnaan and Handy, 2005), corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012; Lee and Higgins, 2001), service-learning in education (Hurd, 2006), volunteer tourism or voluntourism (Wearing, 2001, 2003), family-volunteering (Littlepage et al.,

2003), single-volunteering, and volunteering to governments in stipend volunteer programs (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Hustinx (2010) and Hustinx and Meijs (2011) refer to these practices as a functional re-embedding strategy. This strategy refers to the recent interventions or strategies by governments, organizations, institutions or other actors to reintegrate, re-construct or restore present-day volunteering by mobilizing volunteers.

Due to this strategy and these new actors a distinction can be made between "home organizations" and "host organizations" (Salamon and Anheier, 1996). The home organization refers to the organization recruiting the volunteers. The host organization refers to the nonprofit organization where the volunteers are actually placed and carry out their voluntary work. In their volunteer stewardship framework, Brudney et al. (2019) refer to this as the unitary or shared volunteer guidance. Unitary guidance exists when the home and host organization are the same, whereas shared volunteer guidance exists when the home and host organizations differ. The same authors refer to two volunteer programs where the home and host organizations differ: secondary volunteer programs and intermediary volunteer programs (see Table 1.1).

		Access to volunteer energy	
		Private resource	**Common pool**
Guidance of volunteers	**Unitary**	Membership model (membership associations, sports associations, self-help groups)	Service model (nonprofit organizations delivering services to beneficiaries other than themselves)
	Shared	Secondary model (corporate volunteering programs, service-learning in education)	Intermediary model (National Days of Service, single- and family-volunteering, volunteer tourism)

Table 1.1: Volunteer Stewardship Framework Brudney et al. (2019, p.5))

Within secondary volunteer programs, volunteers are recruited within clearly defined home organizations (i.e., for-profit organizations, schools, and so forth). Brudney et al. (2019) refer to this access to volunteers as a "private resource". Volunteers, however, perform the actual voluntary work with other (host) nonprofit organizations and are thus guided by both organizations. The guidance of volunteers is thus shared between the home and host organizations. Examples includes the aforementioned corporate volunteering, service-learning and government stipend volunteer programs (Brudney et al., 2019). Haski-Leventhal et al. (2010) refer to this as "third party involvement". Within intermediary volunteer programs, volunteer access or volunteers are recruited among the broader population or broader community by a home (nonprofit) organization. Brudney et al. (2019) refer to this as recruitment or volunteer access in a "common pool". Volunteers are thus recruited outside the boundaries of the recruiting organization. The recruited volunteers perform the actual voluntary work with other host nonprofit organizations, and yet again the volunteer guidance is shared. Examples include nonprofit organizations or initiatives encouraging voluntourism, family- and single-volunteering, or National Days of Service. Within the dissertation, I focus specifically on National Days of Service adhering to the intermediary volunteer program.

National Days of Service as a form of temporary episodic volunteering

National Days of Service are state- or countrywide volunteering programs in which individuals and groups support nonprofit organizations by giving their service to a one-day time-limited service project. Volunteers are often recruited among a broad population or wider community by a home (nonprofit) organization, and perform the voluntary work with other host nonprofit organizations. National Days of Service or so-called "Done-in-a-Day" (DIAD) volunteering projects are prominent across the globe. These events mobilize large numbers of people to engage in one-off volunteer service and build an ethic of volunteering (Christensen et al., 2005). On Sewa Day, for example, over 75.000 volunteers participate in 250 projects in 25 countries around the world. In the Netherlands, *NLdoet* mobilizes 300.000 people to donate their time to 8.000 projects. In the U.S., on 9/11 Day alone, tens of millions of Americans spend time volunteering. Other examples include Make a Difference Day and Martin Luther King Jr. day in the U.S., Mitsvah Day International primarily in the U.K., and Mandela Day in South Africa. Others are specifically intended to promote youth

participation, for instance, Join Hands Day and Global Youth Service Day in the United States, and *Aktion 72 Stunden* in Switzerland.

National Days of Service aim not only to put the huge volume of donated volunteer labor to work toward meeting community needs but also, and perhaps more importantly, to raise the profile of volunteering, stimulate more volunteering, create an ethic of volunteering and a volunteer legacy (i.e., the carryover effect of ongoing volunteering). National Days of Service neatly fit the 21st century *zeitgeist* of volunteering characterized by episodic, short-term, and project-based volunteer commitments. These National Days of Service encourage a form of volunteering known as episodic volunteering (Macduff, 1990). Although episodic volunteering became increasingly popular and is an emerging and growing reality in volunteerism (Cnaan and Handy, 2005), no universally consistent conceptualization of episodic volunteering exists. Episodic volunteering is often described by the duration of participation (short-term), frequency of participation (one or two occasions), and nature of the volunteer task (project-based) (Hyde et al., 2014).

To better understand the different types of episodic volunteers, scholars developed more differentiated classifications. Macduff (1990, 2004) identified three types of episodic volunteers based on the time and duration of service: temporary, interim and occasional episodic volunteering. Temporary episodic volunteers give service that is short in duration (up to a few hours or a day) and do not return to or are otherwise engaged with the nonprofit organization. Interim volunteers give service on a regular basis for less than six months, and occasional episodic volunteers provide service at regular intervals for short periods of time. National Days of Service thus encourage temporary episodic volunteering.

During the last decades, the growing number of short-term volunteering opportunities and episodic volunteers turned this "new" type of volunteering into a recognized type of volunteering (Macduff, 1990, 2005; Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Beder and Fast, 2008). The amount of individuals who prefer this type of volunteering, to more traditional volunteer engagements (for example, on a weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly basis) is imprecise but undoubtedly substantial.[2] The trend is confirmed by global survey data that shows that while the total number of volunteers increased, the total number

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[2]The basic criterion used by scholars to distinguish between traditional, regular volunteers versus episodic volunteers is the regularity or frequency of volunteer involvement (Hustinx et al., 2008; Macduff, 2005). In general, most researchers agree that regular volunteers carry out activities at least once per month during a 12 month period – while the involvement of episodic volunteers is less frequent (Handy et al., 2006; Low et al., 2007). Regular volunteers are furthermore characterized by having an ongoing and high commitment to a cause or an organization (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003).

of volunteer hours decreased (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Handy et al., 2006; Macduff, 2004; McCurley and Ellis, 2003; Nunn, 2000) - thus more volunteers are contributing fewer hours.

In addition to the increasing demand for short-term and flexible volunteer assignments, nonprofit organizations seek ways to use short-term volunteers to advance their mission (Nunn, 2000). Nonprofit organizations increasingly plan, organize and stage episodic volunteer assignments (i.e., discrete task-specific projects) (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003), and events evoking episodic volunteering became more common. Episodic volunteers are of paramount importance during fundraising events (Beder and Fast, 2008), crisis and disaster relief (Greiner and Wikle, 2008), and community events, such as large and small-scale (sporting) events (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Hamm et al., 2008; Harris, 2012a; Koutrou et al., 2016; Riemer et al., 2007; Williams et al., 1995), festivals (Handy et al., 2006) and one-day special events such as National Days of Service and park or beach clean-ups.

Current state of research on temporary episodic volunteering and National Days of Service

The increasing amount of episodic volunteers and short-term volunteering opportunities, sparked an interest in episodic volunteering among scholars. While definitions on episodic volunteering continue to vary, episodic volunteering continues to be poorly understood, making it hard for research to progress in this field (Hyde et al., 2014). Most research focuses on episodic volunteers and examines their demographics (Hustinx et al., 2008; Pauline and Pauline, 2009), commitment and motivations (Allison et al., 2002; Beder and Fast, 2008; Hamm et al., 2008; Han and Nguyen, 2008; Handy et al., 2006; Hustinx et al., 2008; Pauline et al., 2008), and retention (Bryen and Madden, 2006; Hyde et al., 2016). These studies provide an understanding of how and why certain individuals choose to participate sporadically and what sustains them in this.

With the exception of Christensen et al. (2005), there is surprisingly little literature on temporary episodic volunteering or National Days of Service in particular. As National Days of Service are growing in number and importance, host nonprofit organizations must learn to adapt to the size and demands of this new type of volunteer involvement. Furthermore, the temporary episodic character of service-learning, corporate-, family-, and single-volunteering makes temporary episodic volunteering a notably emergent and pervasive alternative form of volunteering.

New practices are needed as the sporadic and short-term nature of temporary episodic volunteering makes volunteer management practices focused on regular and ongoing volunteer commitment rather unpractical and more wasteful than efficient (Brudney and Meijs, 2014). Hitherto, it remains unclear how host nonprofit organizations integrate National Days of Service and similar one-off events or how they can do so more meaningfully.

1.1.3   Corporate Philanthropy at Arm's Length

Corporate philanthropy as a contested concept

The legitimacy, appropriateness, role, and effectiveness of corporate philanthropy engendered a long debate. Friedman (1970) makes a strong case against corporate philanthropy as he argues that the only "social responsibility of business is to increase its profits." Friedman (1962) concludes that if charitable contributions should be made, they should be made by individual shareholders or individual employees and not by the firm. He perceives corporate philanthropy as spending someone else's money. He acknowledges that corporate charitable contributions can be made, but that this can only be decided by its shareholders (Friedman, 1962). According to the same author, for-profit organizations only have an economic contract. This contract indicates that for-profit organizations have the primary aim to make profits and obtain their right to exist when they benefit their shareholders. Charitable contributions would limit firm profits and shareholder values. Indeed, until 1954 U.S. law only allowed for-profit organizations to make contributions to nonprofit recipients when the firm (i.e., its shareholders) directly benefited from this activity (Burlingame and Smith, 1999; Stendardi Jr, 1992). After 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court established a "business judgement rule", allowing for-profit organizations to make contributions that would promote firm's interest according to their own judgement (Stendardi Jr, 1992).

Nowadays, it can be said that for-profit organizations have two contracts. An economic contract with the firm's investors aimed at increasing profits and shareholder values, as well as a social contract with the community to improve social welfare and the environment (Carroll, 1979; Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Donaldson, 1982; Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994). In a time facing global societal and environmental issues coinciding with stressed government support, the ability of for-profit organizations to step in and help solve global issues has never been more important. In their response to living up to their social contract, for-profit organizations take the lead in addressing social and environmental issues by engaging in business-nonprofit partnerships (Austin,

2000a,b), corporate philanthropy (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015), corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Carroll, 1979; Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Davis, 1973; Godfrey and Hatch, 2007) and corporate community involvement (CCI) (Van Der Voort et al., 2009) among others. The boundaries between these concepts, however, are rather vague.

This dissertation centers on corporate philanthropy defined as voluntary financial contributions, in-kind donations and donations of time to social and charitable causes (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015; Porter and Kramer, 2006). Corporate philanthropy is oftentimes discussed in relation to other concepts surrounding a firm's social responsibilities and social contract. As such, corporate philanthropy is mostly seen as an integrative part of CSR (Von Schnurbein et al., 2016). Carroll (1979) proposed one of the most widely used conceptualizations of CSR. In his seminal work, Carroll (1979) places corporate philanthropy on top of the pyramid above a firm's economic, legal, and ethical responsibilities. Thereby making corporate philanthropy a discretionary responsibility and viewed as peripheral CSR or as the "icing on the cake" (Carroll, 1979, p.42). Besides being conceptualized as part of CSR, corporate philanthropy is similar to CCI. Some definitions even imply the two are identical. For instance, Van Der Voort et al. (2009) and Burke et al. (1986) refer to CCI as the provision of corporate funds, goods and services, and the provision of time by a firm's employees aimed toward nonprofit and civic organizations. Other scholars differentiate between the two, arguing that corporate philanthropy falls under the umbrella term of CCI (Seitanidi and Ryan, 2007). Herein CCI also incorporates sponsorships and cause-related marketing. Corporate philanthropy is furthermore surrounded by conceptualizations of corporate social performance (CSP) and Shared Value (Liket and Simaens, 2015), and widely promoted as an important strategy to good corporate citizenship (CC) (Saiia et al., 2003).

While corporate philanthropy, seems to be traditionally conceptualized as an integrative part of broader concepts, it is nowadays viewed as an independent instrument (Brammer and Millington, 2006; Chen et al., 2008; Godfrey, 2005; Hall, 2006; Seifert et al., 2003; Wang and Qian, 2011), and researched as a concept in its own right. For extensive reviews see Gautier and Pache (2015) and Liket and Simaens (2015). Corporate philanthropy not only evolved in theory, but also in practice. This includes a paradigm shift towards mobilizing corporate resources to separate entities outside firm boundaries and the rise of third party intermediary organizations.

Corporate philanthropy at Arm's Length

Traditionally seen, the decisions concerning corporate philanthropy were often made at management's discretion (Buchholtz et al., 1999). Hereby for-profit organizations made direct contributions to nonprofit organizations. In this traditional and direct form, the responsibility for corporate philanthropy often resides within a corporate agent, such as the CEO (Gautier and Pache, 2015). In this case, the CEO can be seen as a philanthropist whereby the for-profit organization constitutes the vehicle to give.

Already in the 1980s, Morris and Biederman (1985) argue that firms should recruit a strong and independent manager to put some distance between the CEO and a firm's giving. The authors call upon For-profit organizations to structuralize and smoothen corporate philanthropy by centralizing all philanthropic endeavors within a specific department or manager. This department or manager often focuses on the corporations' interaction with society or the firm's CSR efforts (Altuntas and Turker, 2015; Husted, 2003). Within these two practices corporate philanthropy is an internal activity, taking place within firm boundaries. I refer to these two practices as "direct corporate philanthropy", whereby corporate donors practice corporate philanthropy towards nonprofit recipient groups in a direct relation.

Today, the field of philanthropy became more diverse and important parts of corporate philanthropy are channeled through separate vehicles that stand between corporate donors and nonprofit recipient groups. In these indirect channels, for-profit organizations practice corporate philanthropy through or are supported by separate entities such as a corporate or company-sponsored foundations (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994) or third party intermediaries (Lee, 2015). For-profit organizations use these vehicles to shape, formalize, and structure firms' philanthropic endeavors. In doing so, for-profit organizations place their philanthropy outside firm boundaries and at arm's length. Corporate philanthropy is then no longer at management's discretion, but is shaped and organized by the discretion of the separate entity. These vehicles can be seen as channels or practices for "indirect corporate philanthropy". Within this dissertation, I focus upon the various channels for indirect corporate philanthropy depicted in Figure 1.1. I specifically focus on (collective) corporate foundations and third party intermediary organizations.
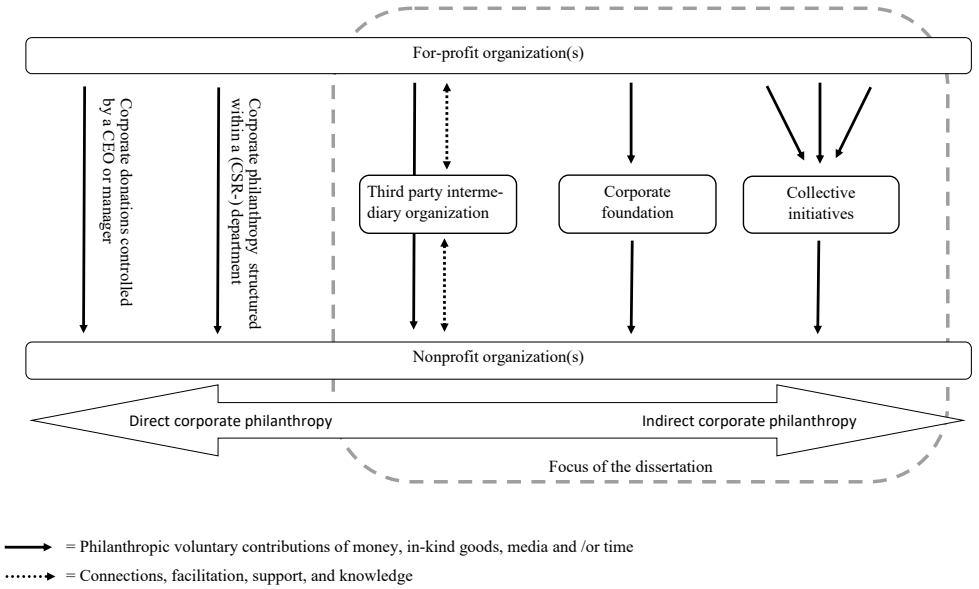
Figure 1.1: Channels to practice corporate philanthropy

Corporate Foundations

Establishing a corporate foundation is one of the options available to a corporation deciding about how to donate money, time, or in-kind goods. In recent years, the creation of corporate foundations prospers (Anheier, 2003; Herlin and Pedersen, 2013). According to Brown et al. (2006) monetary donations through corporate foundations accounted for 34 percent of total corporate giving in the United States in 2002.

Roza et al. (2019) indicate three criteria characterize a corporate foundation. Corporate foundations are (1) legal separate entities, (2) pursue public-benefit purposes, and (3) are set up, funded, and to a large extent controlled by a for-profit organization (i.e., founding firm). Furthermore, for-profit organizations establishing a separate corporate foundation tend to constantly maintain a relationship. This can either be through their name, funding, trustees, administration, and employee involvement (Westhues and Einwiller, 2006). According to Roza et al. (2019) corporate foundations are corporate philanthropy tools in the hands of managers or firm owners as the corporate foundation predominantly depends on funding derived from the (founding) for-profit organization. According to the same authors, for-profit organizations "can pursue constant influence on all areas of the corporate foundation: governance, asset

management, grant-giving, communication, who to employ and so forth" (Roza et al., 2019, p.1-13).

Ample research examines the rationale behind establishing a corporate foundation. The majority of scholars claim that mixed motivations inform the rationals behind a corporate foundation: serving both public interests as well as the interests of the founding for-profit organization (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013; Porter and Kramer, 2002; Rey-Garcia et al., 2012). One rationale relates to legitimacy (Petrovits, 2006; Westhues and Einwiller, 2006), whereby corporate foundations may signal long-term commitment to their philanthropy and charitable causes. In doing so, corporate foundations enhance the for-profit organization's reputation and image (Webb, 1994). Other scholars echo the reputation enhancement and profit maximization of corporate foundations (Pedrini and Minciullo, 2011; Petrovits, 2006; Westhues and Einwiller, 2006). Another rationale relates to the foundation's ability to structure and centralize philanthropic endeavors (Varcoe and Sloane, 2003). Due to centralized planning and staffing, corporate foundations are said to enhance the efficiency of corporate philanthropy (Webb, 1994). In addition, financial rationales include the foundations ability to maintain stable levels of giving (Kramer et al., 2004; Nelson, 1970; Petrovits, 2006), the ability to make grants out of accumulated reserves when the foundation receives less funding from the founding corporation (Nelson, 1970; Webb, 1994), and tax benefits (Park, 1996; Webb, 1994). That corporate foundations place corporate giving at arm's length from founding for-profit organizations has not gone unnoticed by scholars. Both Kramer et al. (2004) and Petrovits (2006) acknowledge that corporate foundations lead to the separation of CEOs or corporate managers from giving decisions. A corporate foundation is said to reduce a CEO's or manager's ability to use corporate philanthropy for private benefits (Brown et al., 2006). Moreover, corporate foundations would enable external stakeholders to partake as board representatives of the foundation, providing the foundation with relevant expertise, credibility and greater transparency (Kramer et al., 2004). Nevertheless, it is found that corporate foundations "are more likely to involve corporate officers in the management of their corporate giving programs" (Brown et al., 2006, p.865).

One of the downsides of a corporate foundation is therefore its inability - in some instances - to be significantly different from direct giving programs. Meanwhile, when they are different, there is a risk of alienating corporate philanthropy from the corporation's corporate strategy (Kramer et al., 2004). Hereby philanthropic endeavors may not be as strongly associated with the founding for-profit organization as the corporate executives wish (Webb, 1994). In addition, a corporate foundation

will require additional start-up costs as well as personnel and legal counsel (Webb, 1994).

Collective Charity

As the majority of scholars focuses on the practice of by individual for-profit organizations, some scholars raised interests for an alternative approach for corporate philanthropy in a collective setting (Porter and Kramer, 2002; Marquis et al., 2017). Marquis et al. (2017, p.3) state that - in China - a change is visible in the attitudes of entrepreneurs towards (corporate) philanthropy. These new attitudes oftentimes express a "collective ethos". Chinese entrepreneurs do not longer create individual philanthropic projects or foundations, but search for like-minded individuals or organizations to collaborate on joint projects. Marquis et al. (2017) refer to this trend as a shift towards "collective charity".

Also in western countries, collective giving practices gain attention. Porter and Kramer (2002) state that corporate philanthropy is amendable to and ready for collective efforts. Porter and Kramer (2002, p.16) even argue that "collective action will often be more effective than a solo effort in addressing context and enhancing the value created". For instance, the philanthropic endeavors of organizational members of an industry cluster - including competitors - could have an all-powerful effect on the competitiveness of the cluster as well as improve the performance of all for-profit organizations involved (Porter and Kramer, 2002). Moreover, collaboration would enable for-profit organizations to spread and distribute costs, and to forge business-nonprofit partnerships with (nonprofit) organizations that would be hesitant to partner up on efforts that would benefit a single for-profit organization (Porter and Kramer, 2002).

Despite the articulated benefits, collective giving practices are relatively scarce and still in its infancy. This may be due to the fact that for-profit organizations may wish to fly solo given the accrued benefits of corporate philanthropy on an individual level. For instance, corporate philanthropy can be used as a differentiation strategy, (Seifert et al., 2004), to gain a competitive advantage (Mescon and Tilson, 1987), or to enhance a firm's legitimacy and reputation (Bruch, 2005; Chen et al., 2008; Dowling and Pfeffer, 1975). Up to date, some collective giving practices came to populate the corporate philanthropic landscape. In these collective practices corporate donors pool their talent, resources and decision making. Collective initiatives serve the philanthropic interests of multiple for-profit organizations simultaneously, and often

pursue a mission greater than individual recognition. Such collective initiatives operate on the premises that for-profit organizations can act collectively and cooperate in their corporate philanthropy. These initiatives are - although not numerous - found globally. These initiatives often arise from specific industry-clusters or industry-associations and take the form of multiple-donor foundations. Understanding collective corporate philanthropy is important as it provides a new model for entrepreneurs and for-profit organizations all around the world (Marquis et al., 2017).

Third Party Intermediary Organizations

Corporate philanthropy can be perceived as a cross-sector partnership (Austin, 2000a,b) and specifically as business-nonprofit partnerships (Harris, 2012b). Business-nonprofit partnerships, however, are difficult ventures as for-profit and nonprofit organizations appear to be unnatural partners. Competing missions, logics, strategic orientations, interests, rationalities, and cultures make business-nonprofit partnerships a difficult venture (Austin, 2000b; Bryson et al., 2006; Jamali and Keshishian, 2009; Kolk et al., 2008). Mutual distrust, complex settings, and power imbalances amplify these challenges and complicate business-nonprofit partnerships (Bryson et al., 2006; Huxham and Vangen, 2005; Kolk et al., 2008).

The inherent challenges to business-nonprofit partnerships give rise and a *raison d'être* to third party intermediary organizations that facilitate, encourage, stimulate and support business-nonprofit partnerships, including corporate philanthropy (Brown and Kalegaonkar, 2002; Lee, 2015; Stadtler and Probst, 2012; Tribbia and Moser, 2008). Several scholars recognize the importance of third party intermediary organizations within cross-sector partnerships (Manning and Roessler, 2014). Scholars acknowledge third party intermediary organizations fulfill both initiating as well as supporting roles throughout the entire partnership (Bryson et al., 2006; Lee, 2015; Manning and Roessler, 2014).

A distinction exists between internal and external intermediaries. Where internal intermediaries are employed or operate from within one of the partner organizations, external intermediaries are legally independent and work on behalf of partner organizations (Manning and Roessler, 2014; Tennyson, 2005; Warner, 2003). Intermediaries may furthermore be individuals who fulfill an intermediary role, as well as organizations, and can be commercial or nonprofit oriented (Tennyson, 2005).

Current state of research on corporate philanthropy at arm's length

Corporate philanthropy received significant attention in the past decades. Hitherto, we have a decent understanding of major aspects of the phenomenon, including its essence, motivations, practices and processes, and outcomes (for a review see Gautier and Pache (2015); Liket and Simaens (2015). Our understanding of corporate giving practices includes decision-making processes (Brammer and Millington, 2006; Abzug and Webb, 1996; Brudney and Ferrell, 2002; Smith, 1994), relations between corporate donors and recipients (Husted, 2003; Tracey et al., 2005), and the position of corporate philanthropy within the for-profit organization (Carrigan, 1997). The latter, however, argues corporate philanthropy either falls within the authority of the CEO or belongs to a specific department - oftentimes as "an ad hoc activity given only part-time attention by a member of staff who has other 'more pressing' duties" (Carrigan, 1997, p.46).

Scant research focuses on the various channels (outside firm boundaries) for-profit organizations use to practice corporate philanthropy. Where contemporary collective practices are overlooked, some literature focuses on corporate foundations established by individual for-profit organizations. Scholars examine the motives to establish corporate foundations (Nelson, 1970; Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994), their role (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013; Park, 1996; Westhues and Einwiller, 2006), the influence of CEOs or founding firms on corporate foundation giving (Pedrini and Minciullo, 2011; Werbel and Carter, 2002), the knowledge transfers between a foundation and its founding firm (Minciullo and Pedrini, 2015), and governance (Mindlin, 2012; Rey-Garcia et al., 2012). Third party intermediary organizations are also underexposed in scholarly literature - with the exception of Roza (2016) and Lee (2015). The majority of scholars fail to examine cross-sector partnerships including corporate philanthropy beyond dyadic or dual interactions (Arenas et al., 2013) The same authors call to advance the knowledge on the processes and triad interactions underlying cross-sector partnerships.

Scholars, hitherto, largely ignored the paradigm shift towards indirect corporate philanthropy. Scholars are especially silent regarding the values, consequences, and management practices of the indirect vehicles or channels. The paradigm shift towards using indirect, outside vehicles sets forth solid reasons for ongoing research in the field as we need a deeper understanding of the values, consequences, and management practices of these vehicles and channels.

In the dissertation I aim to unravel some of these modern outside channels of corporate philanthropy. The dissertation zooms in on (collective) corporate foundations

and third party intermediary organizations. This is particularly relevant as these vehicles are complex phenomena involving various stakeholders. This quest is above all justified as both corporate foundations and third-party intermediary organizations grow in number, size and importance (Anheier, 2001; Herlin and Pedersen, 2013; Lee, 2015; Ostrander, 2007; Rey-Garcia et al., 2012; Rochester et al., 2010; Stadtler and Probst, 2012). In doing so, I respond to calls from Roza et al. (2019) to better understand corporate philanthropy by unravelling the various channels through which for-profit organizations practice corporate philanthropy. Likewise, I shed light on the processes and practices underlying corporate philanthropy as these processes are hitherto little understood (Gautier and Pache, 2015).

1.2   Main Contributions

This dissertation has a 'simple' goal: to address and clarify the values, consequences, and management practices associated with third party organizations and other vehicles that provide individuals or for-profit organizations pathways into private or corporate philanthropy. The aim of the dissertation is to increase scholarly understanding in two substantive areas of research.

1. The dissertation aims to contribute to the growing body of literature on temporary episodic volunteering and specifically on National Days of Service. As National Days of Service became more common around the globe and mobilize huge amount of volunteers, it is a critical and growing phenomenon within the field of volunteer research and volunteer management. The dissertation aims to make a contribution to the literature on National Days of Service by examining (1) how (host) nonprofit organizations design National Days of Service projects to yield volunteer satisfaction (Chapter 2); by examining (2) how different types of (host) nonprofit organizations practice National Days of Service (Chapter 3). In doing so, the dissertation examines how (host) nonprofit organizations integrate National Days of Service and how they can do so more meaningfully.

2. The dissertation aims to contribute to the literature on corporate philanthropy and related literature on business-nonprofit partnerships. The dissertation aims to make a contribution by examining (1) why for-profit organizations outsource corporate philanthropy to collective giving vehicles such as a collective corporate foundation, and what the consequences are of doing so (Chapter 4); by examining (2) what makes third party intermediary organizations valuable in business-

nonprofit partnerships in the context of corporate philanthropy (Chapter 5). I doing so, the dissertation aims to contribute to the aforementioned literature by enhancing our understanding of corporate philanthropy taking place at arm's length from the for-profit organization.

1.3   Outline of the Dissertation

The dissertation comprises six chapters including four essays covering various aspects of contemporary forms of private and corporate philanthropy, an introduction and a conclusion. The four essays consist of two empirical studies in the context of modern volunteering - specifically on National Days of Service (Chapters 2 and 3), and two empirical studies on indirect corporate philanthropy whereby each study examines a vehicle of indirect corporate philanthropy (a collective corporate foundation and third party intermediary organizations) (Chapter 4 and 5).

All four studies are developed as independent contributions and can be read as individual essays. The four studies are aligned in the phenomenon under study as they are guided by the objective to increase our understanding of contemporary forms of private and corporate philanthropy. Table 1.2 provides an overview of the studies and summarizes the phenomenon under study, research questions, and methodologies of all four studies. In the following, I present a brief abstract of each study in the dissertation.

Abstract Chapter 2. Although temporary episodic volunteering events such as National Days of Service have grown increasingly popular over the past decades, surprisingly little systematic research focuses on the design of National Day of Service projects to yield satisfying volunteer experiences. By examining in-depth a National Days of Service in the Netherlands, this article seeks to provide guidance on this design issue. The data emanate from interviews with host nonprofit organizations and volunteer centers, enriched by trained participant observers, as well as focus groups with Day of Service volunteers. Based on work design theory, the findings suggest ways for host nonprofit organizations to promote volunteer satisfaction in National Days of Service by designing Day of Service projects to incorporate task significance, direct beneficiary contact and social support, feedback from others, job-based feedback, task identity, and limited autonomy. Furthermore, findings reveal adequate planning and preparation, and an appropriate workload also yield volunteer satisfaction.

	Chapter 2	Chapter 3	Chapter 4	Chapter 5
Phenomenon under study	Private philanthropy; National Days of Service	Private philanthropy; National Days of Service	Corporate philanthropy; Collective corporate foundation	Corporate philanthropy; Third party intermediary organizations
Research question(s)	How to design National Days of Service to yield satisfying volunteer experiences?	How do sports associations practice National Days of Service compared to service delivery organizations?	What are the rationales and consequences of outsourcing corporate philanthropy to a collective corporate foundation?	What makes third party intermediary organizations within business-nonprofit partnerships valuable?
Study design	Empirical	Empirical	Empirical	Empirical
Data sources	Interviews, participant observations, focus groups	Survey data	Interviews, company documents	Focus groups, interviews
Analysis	Directed qualitative content analysis	Quantitative analysis	Inductive thematic analysis	Inductive thematic analysis

Table 1.2: Overview of the four studies

Abstract Chapter 3. This study focuses on the tension between temporary episodic volunteering events such as National Days of Service, and the membership nature of sports associations. National Days of Service evoke volunteering among a broader population. Mutual support organizations such as sports associations are membership-based, so that National Days of Service contradict the membership-nature of these sports associations. The study examines whether sports associations adapt themselves in order to access a broader volunteer population (non-members) in National Days of Service; or if their inherent nature leads to a different use of National Days of Service. The study compares their use of National Days of Service with that of service delivery organizations, as the latter are more aligned with the volunteers evoked in National Days of Service. Based on empirical analysis of a sample of 1,030 sports associations and 4,293 service delivery organizations offering volunteering activities in an annual National Day of Service in the Netherlands, for the period 2012-2015, findings indicate that sports associations and service delivery organizations differ in the types of volunteers attracted, the recruitment methods used, and the results attained.

Abstract Chapter 4. The study distinguishes between in-house (direct) corporate giving and outsourced (indirect) corporate giving, bringing corporate philanthropy back to a make-or-buy decision. In addition, corporate donors can go down a collaborative path and participate in collective initiatives, such as a collective corporate foundation. This entails a corporate foundation serving the interests of multiple corporate donors simultaneously. The study examines the rationales and consequences of outsourcing one's corporate philanthropy by means of a collective corporate foundation. The study entails a single case study in Rotterdam, the Netherlands. Primary data stems from interviews with various stakeholders, including (former- and non-) donor-organizations. The study finds two rationales guiding corporate decision makers facing the make-or-buy decision of corporate philanthropy: (1) available resources; (2) need for efficiency. Second, the study finds three consequences of using a collective corporate foundation to shape corporate philanthropy: (1) loss of control, (2) loss of involvement, and (3) fewer individual organizational benefits. Third, the study identifies a trade-off between the identified rationales and consequences. The chapter concludes by relating the rationales back to a strategic management and an economic view on outsourcing, and by discussing the limitations and implications of the study findings.

Abstract Chapter 5. Business-nonprofit partnerships are in general a difficult venture, and numerous challenges jeopardize business-nonprofit partnerships. These challenges give rise to third party intermediary organizations specialized in facilitating business-nonprofit partnerships. As third party intermediary organizations grow in number and importance, the study explores what makes these intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships. A case study of third party intermediary organizations facilitating corporate community involvement in the Netherlands provides the research context. Data stem from focus groups and in-depth interviews with representatives of third party intermediary organizations, nonprofit and for-profit organizations, and local government. Case findings show third party intermediary organizations provide for-profit and nonprofit organizations with the required organizational social capital and human capital, and lower transaction costs. By overcoming three barriers (inadequate networks, insufficient resources, being unconscious or unknowledgeable), third party intermediary organizations provide a pathway into, and an infrastructure for, business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. Our research also reveal that third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinct ways. The results of this study inform for-profit and nonprofit organizations, enabling them to assess whether to involve third party intermediary organizations; and inform intermediary organizations on how to obtain legitimate and credible business-nonprofit partnerships.

Chapter 6 concludes the dissertation. In this final chapter, I state the main findings and contributions of each chapter. I furthermore discuss the practical implications of each chapter and provide avenues for future research.

1.4   Declaration of Contribution

In the subsequent section, I declare my contribution to the different chapters of this dissertation and acknowledge the contribution of others where relevant.

Chapter 1. The author of this dissertation independently did the majority of work in this chapter. I sent a draft of the chapter to my supervisor and second supervisor for comments. Thereafter, I incorporated their feedback into the final version.

Chapter 2. This chapter is co-authored by Prof. Dr. Lucas C.P.M. Meijs and Prof. Dr. Jeff L. Brudney. The author of this dissertation is the lead author of this

chapter and independently did the majority of work. Specifically, the author of this dissertation undertook the initial conceptualization, development of the research question, literature review, collection and analysis of empirical data, and the majority of writing. At several points during the process, the co-authors improved parts of this chapter by providing detailed feedback on conceptual or methodological issues and related literature, and by reviewing the chapter. This chapter appeared at (peer-reviewed) management and nonprofit sector conferences, and is currently under peer review in the 4th round at a top journal for nonprofit sector research.

Chapter 3. This chapter is co-authored by Prof. Dr. Lucas C.P.M. Meijs, Prof. Dr. Jeff L. Brudney, and Dr. Jan-Willem van der Roest. The author of this dissertation is the lead author of this chapter and independently did the majority of work. Specifically, the author of this dissertation undertook the initial conceptualization, development of the research question, literature review, preparation and analysis of empirical data, and the majority of writing. At several points during the process, the co-authors improved parts of this chapter by providing detailed feedback on conceptual or methodological issues and related literature, and by reviewing the chapter. This chapter appeared at (peer-reviewed) management and nonprofit sector conferences, and is currently under peer review in the 1st round at a journal for nonprofit sector research.

Chapter 4. The author of this dissertation independently did the majority of work in this chapter. Feedback from my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Georg von Schnurbein, Dr. Steffen Bethmann and Dr. Lonneke Roza are implemented. This chapter appeared at nonprofit sector conferences and is published as a book chapter. Full reference: Maas, S.A. (2019). Outsourcing of corporate giving: What corporations can('t) gain when using a collective corporate foundation to shape corporate philanthropy. In L. Roza, G. Von Schnurbein, L.C.P.M. Meijs & S. Bethmann (Eds.) *Corporate Foundations: Corporate and Civil Society Perspectives.* Nonprofit and Civil Society Studies (An International Multidisciplinary Series) (pp. 193-214). Cham, Switserland: Springer.

Chapter 5. This chapter is co-authored by Prof. Dr. Lucas C.P.M. Meijs. The author of this dissertation is the lead author of this chapter and independently did the majority of work. The author formulated the research question, performed the literature review, collected and analyzed the data, interpreted the findings, and wrote the manuscript. At several points during the process, the co-author improved parts

of this chapter by providing detailed feedback and by reviewing the chapter. This chapter appeared at (peer-reviewed) management and nonprofit sector conferences and is currently under peer review in the 1st round at a management journal.

Chapter 6. The author of this dissertation independently did the majority of work in this chapter. I sent a draft of the chapter to my supervisor and second supervisor for comments. Thereafter, I incorporated their feedback into the final version.

Chapter 2

Designing National Days of Service Projects to Yield Volunteer Satisfaction [1]

2.1   Introduction

The involvement of volunteers by nonprofit organizations has expanded beyond traditional, ongoing, regular volunteering to include more sporadic, short-term, and temporary engagements - generally known as episodic volunteering (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Handy et al., 2006; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003; Macduff, 2004; Styers, 2004). A decline in the median hours donated by volunteers and an increase in the demand for short-term and flexible volunteer engagements demonstrate the upswing in episodic volunteering around the world (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003; Styers, 2004). Volunteer co-ordinators are "increasingly faced with people who wish to help only for shorter and well-defined tasks" (Handy et al., 2006, p.31). Indeed,

nonprofit organizations seem to increasingly plan, organize, and stage short-term volunteering opportunities to advance their mission (Nunn, 2000).

Episodic volunteering entails participation in one-time or short-term volunteering opportunities - providing a few hours a day, a week(end), or some limited time to a nonprofit organization (Macduff, 2004). Episodic volunteering can take three forms: interim volunteering, occasional episodic volunteering, and temporary episodic volunteering (Macduff, 2005). Interim volunteering involves volunteering at regular intervals for short periods of time for a maximum of six months; occasional episodic volunteering involves volunteering for one activity, event, or project at recurring intervals; and temporary episodic volunteering involves volunteer service for a short period, for instance, a day or a few hours, with volunteers typically not otherwise engaged with the nonprofit organization.

Nowadays, especially temporary episodic volunteering has become a prevailing form of volunteering. Nonprofit organizations increasingly capitalize on National Days of Service (Cnaan and Handy, 2005), corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012), family-volunteering (Littlepage et al., 2003), and singles-volunteering (Hustinx et al., 2010) - all performed in a temporary episodic volunteering format (i.e., one-off and one-day). This study focuses on National Days of Service defined as state- or country-wide volunteering events in which individuals and groups support nonprofit organizations by giving their time to one-day service projects.

National Days of Service have become more common around the globe and mobilize large numbers of people to engage in one-off volunteer service. On Sewa Day, for example, over 75.000 volunteers participate in 250 projects in 25 countries around the world. In the Netherlands, *NLdoet* (In English: "The Netherlands Does") mobilizes 300.000 people to donate their time to 8.000 projects. In the United States, on 9/11 Day alone, tens of millions of Americans spend time volunteering. Other examples include Make a Difference Day and Martin Luther King Jr. day in the U.S., Mitsvah Day International primarily in the U.K., and Mandela Day in South Africa.

National Days of Service aim not only to put the huge volume of donated volunteer labor to work toward meeting community needs but also, and perhaps more importantly, to raise the profile of volunteering, stimulate more volunteering, create an ethic of volunteering and a volunteer legacy (i.e., the carryover effect of ongoing volunteering). Indeed, nonprofit organizations increasingly plan, organize and stage National Days of Service to generate participant satisfaction and recurrence of volunteering (Cnaan and Handy, 2005).

Wicker (2017) argues that volunteer management undoubtedly shapes volunteer experiences, and that the attainment of a volunteer legacy depends on the quality of volunteer experiences. Volunteer satisfaction is indeed a critical outcome predicting retention-related outcomes (e.g., turnover, length of service, retention) (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2002; Omoto and Snyder, 1995). Since National Days of Service constitute short, time-delimited events, they afford little opportunity to apply general volunteer management practices based on long-term volunteer interactions and literature. Instead, National Days of Service are planned and organized well in advance, so that the nonprofit organizations involved have the opportunity to structure volunteer projects to enhance participant satisfaction. Hence, we use work design theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980), adapted from general management literature, to analyse the design of National Day of Service projects to yield volunteer satisfaction.

Given the interest and growth in National Days of Service, we were surprised to find very little literature on these events (Christensen et al., 2005; Costa et al., 2006). More academic attention is paid to episodic volunteering more broadly, centering on demographics (Hustinx et al., 2008; Pauline and Pauline, 2009), commitment and motivations (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014), effects on volunteers (Christensen et al., 2005), and retention (Bryen and Madden, 2006; Hyde et al., 2016; Koutrou et al., 2016). Moreover, empirical investigations of episodic volunteering are scarce (Handy et al., 2006; Hyde et al., 2014; Wilson, 2012). Although substantial literature concentrates on volunteer management and satisfaction in traditional volunteering (Alfes et al., 2015; Millette and Gagné, 2008), the scant research on these aspects within episodic volunteering is largely descriptive and limited to short-term sports events (i.e., interim volunteering) (Doherty, 2009; Farrell et al., 1998; Hyde et al., 2016; Pauline, 2011).

Accordingly, our goal is to provide an empirically-grounded analysis of the design of National Days of Service projects to yield satisfying volunteer experiences. Doing so, we respond to a call from Hyde et al. (2016), who call for studies to understand the determinants of volunteer satisfaction in episodic, short-term, and one-off volunteer engagements. Second, we examine organizational factors that influence volunteer behavior and attitudes, as recommended by Studer and Von Schnurbein (2013) and Wilson (2012). We contribute to the literature on National Days of Service by examining the impact of overlooked organizational and management factors, i.e., job design, on the critical outcome of volunteer satisfaction.

Our study addresses the question of how to design National Days of Service projects to yield satisfying experiences for Day of Service volunteers. To answer this question,

we adopt a qualitative research approach with multiple sources. The study context is NLdoet, an annual, large-scale National Day of Service in the Netherlands. The data are emanating from interviews with representatives of nonprofit organizations that have hosted Day of Service projects, interviews with volunteer centers representatives that have advised host nonprofits organizations on organizing Day of Service projects, reports provided by trained participant observers, and focus groups with participating volunteers. The results can assist practitioners in designing more fulfilling National Days of Service projects for Day of Service volunteers.

2.2   Literature Review

Literature on volunteering often distinguishes short-term episodic volunteering from long-term traditional or regular volunteering based on the regularity, rate, or frequency of volunteering (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Hustinx et al., 2008). Hustinx et al. (2008) describe regular volunteers as individuals engaged in volunteering at least once a month in a twelve-month period. By contrast, episodic volunteers are involved less frequently and contribute their time in intervals "ranging from activities every couple of months to one-time events" (p.52). Weber (2002) distinguishes episodic volunteering (i.e., those who contribute their time sporadically, only during special times of the year, or consider volunteering as a one-off event) from periodic volunteering, which is characterized by giving time at recurring intervals.

A rise in episodic and short-term volunteering seems evident as more volunteers contribute fewer hours. Surveys in the U.S. indicate that volunteer rates have increased, while the average number of hours donated per week decreased (Cnaan and Handy, 2005). Hyde et al. (2016) report similar data in the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia. Kitchen et al. (2005) report that more individuals in the United Kingdom. volunteer but do so in shorter intervals compared to previous years. Other studies confirm that the average hours volunteered has fallen globally (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Handy et al., 2006; Macduff, 2004; Nunn, 2000). In the U.S. episodic volunteers account for as much as half of all volunteering (Kirsch et al., 2000).

Although some scholars see a shift from traditional to episodic volunteering (Hustinx, 2010; Handy et al., 2006), Paine et al. (2007) maintain that an increase in episodic volunteering does not necessarily indicate a decline in long-term commitments. Instead, the researchers view the upswing in episodic volunteering as an expansion of the active volunteer workforce. The upswing may result from societal shifts such as trends in modernization and changes in gender roles, family life, marriage patterns, and

work-life balance (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003; Styers, 2004). Moreover, social transformations (e.g., individualization and secularization) may have restructured the motivational bases and patterns of volunteering (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003), so that individuals may seek out and engage in short-term experiences to fulfill their immediate needs, and later consider other, more sustained volunteer experiences over the life cycle (Edwards, 2007; Handy et al., 2006).

Evidence of a recent upswing in episodic or short-term volunteering is not robust. Scholars and practitioners may perceive episodic volunteering to have become more common, but episodic volunteering has a long history (Bryen and Madden, 2006). For instance, though not typically labelled as episodic volunteering, fundraising is one of the most common episodic volunteering activities (Hyde et al., 2014). In his seminal research on volunteers for the "March of Dimes," Sills (1957) documented substantial volunteer involvement in fundraising activities such as door-to-door marches. Depending on the length and recurrence of episodic volunteers' service, fundraising can span interim, occasional, or temporary episodic volunteering. The Corporation for National and Community Service (2006) reports that more Americans were episodic volunteers in 1974 than in 2005. The contemporary decline in volunteer hours and the apparent upswing in episodic volunteering may thus reflect normal fluctuations in volunteer commitments rather than substantial changes. Irrespective of any shift in the way people volunteer, Paine et al. (2007) argue that nonprofit organizations have changed their volunteer involvement patterns and volunteering opportunities toward increased short-term activities and one-time events. The authors raise the question of whether the apparent increase in episodic volunteering is a response to changing volunteer demands, or rather a response to changes made by nonprofit organizations.

Mounting evidence attests that different styles of volunteering require different management strategies (Brudney et al., 2019; Brudney and Meijs, 2014; Studer and Von Schnurbein, 2013). Based on a comprehensive review of the volunteer management literature, Studer and Von Schnurbein (2013) argue that successful volunteer management demands that organizational settings should be aligned with the needs of volunteers, and research shows that nonprofits apply different management practices and techniques depending on the type of volunteering they host (Hager and Brudney, 2004). As the motivations of interim and temporary episodic volunteers differ from those of long-term volunteers (Handy et al., 2006; Hustinx et al., 2008), host nonprofit organizations in National Days of Service must seek appropriate models.

Only a few scholars have attempted to develop and propose management practices for short-term volunteering (Brudney and Meijs, 2014; Cnaan and Handy, 2005). Analyzing the London Olympic Games, Harris (2012a), documents the poor preparation of interim volunteers for the London Olympic Games. Although adhering to most of the accepted principles of good practice in volunteer management (i.e., appropriate training, buddies, focus on fun, on-site management, small incentives), volunteer management failed in situations where volunteers worked alongside paid staff, lacked immediate public recognition, or were managed by other volunteers. To remedy such shortcomings, scholars recommend that nonprofit organizations provide quick and honest recognition to episodic volunteers tailored to activity demands (Hager and Brudney, 2004; Rehnborg et al., 2009). Interim volunteers should not be accorded undue reward to avoid feelings of guilt or disingenuousness, yet failing to recognize interim episodic volunteers' work leaves a negative impression (Harris, 2012a). Rehnborg et al. (2009) suggests episodic volunteering events to be well-organized with materials and instructions immediately available. Hager and Brudney (2004, p.8) find that nonprofit organizations that rely on more episodic volunteers "tend to apply more recognition activities, collect more information on volunteer numbers and hours, and measure volunteer impacts more frequently." Although her recommendations are based on practice rather than research, Macduff (1991, 2004) advises that training for the event should be task-specific and limited to essential knowledge; ongoing support; and prompt, direct and courteous feedback should be provided; and episodic volunteers should have a work partner and participate in team-building activities. Although these suggestions for designing National Day of Service projects may be helpful, their connection to the satisfaction of volunteers has not been holistically examined.

Our focus is on designing National Days of Service projects to achieve volunteer satisfaction. Satisfaction has been researched in both the paid workplace (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2002) and the voluntary context (Farrell et al., 1998; Millette and Gagné, 2008; Pearce, 1993; Penner and Finkelstein, 1998; Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Wilson, 2012). Volunteer satisfaction among regular volunteers is related to important outcomes, such as time spent volunteering, volunteer role identity, longevity of service, and retention (Penner and Finkelstein, 1998; Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Van Ingen and Wilson, 2017). With respect to episodic volunteering, positive experiences increase support for other episodic volunteering events, enhance satisfaction toward volunteering in general, raise volunteer involvement, raise the intention to continue volunteering, and influence subsequent volunteering behavior (Doherty, 2009;

Koutrou et al., 2016). Koutrou et al. (2016) highlight the potential that positive interim volunteer experiences may transfer to other volunteer activities. Because Koutrou et al. (2016) used a convenience sample, the study may have been more likely to enlist respondents interested in starting and continuing volunteering - since they would be easier to find and interview after the event. Consequently, although the potential for transferring interim episodic volunteer efforts across activities after an initial experience is evident in Koutrou et al. (2016), it may be over-stated. Nevertheless, based on research on interim volunteers, Farrell et al. (1998, p.289) find that "volunteer satisfaction is integral to the success of the initial event and to the success of future events in a community." Volunteer satisfaction may thus be key to maintaining a healthy volunteer base for special events and other activities of nonprofit organizations enlisting volunteers.

Scholars indicate that volunteer satisfaction derives in part from organizational attributes and management practices (Farrell et al., 1998; Penner, 2002). Since National Days of Service constitute short, time-limited events, they afford little to no opportunity to apply general volunteer management practices based on long-term volunteer interactions and literature (e.g., selection, interviewing, matching, and evaluation). Instead, National Days of Service provide nonprofit organizations the flexibility and incentive to plan far in advance how to design one-day service activities to satisfy volunteers. Job design theory presents a suitable approach for developing fulfilling volunteer experiences in the time-limited context of National Days of Service.

Work design theory posits that certain job characteristics dictate the quality of the job, to the benefit of employees (volunteers) and employers (nonprofit organizations) alike (Van den Broeck and Parker, 2017). The set of opportunities and constraints structured into tasks and responsibilities affects how individuals accomplish and experience work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) and a range of important outcomes, including well-being, commitment, productivity, absenteeism, and satisfaction (see Van den Broeck and Parker (2017). Job design, i.e., "the content and organization of one's work tasks, activities, relationships, and responsibilities" (Parker, 2014, p.662), thus offers a framework to relate organizational factors to job satisfaction.

Several researchers have developed job design models (Van den Broeck and Parker, 2017).[2] The Job Demand-Control Model and the Job Demands-Resources Model assume that job characteristics affect the individual performing the job and are related to the dominant motivational approach to job design research (Parker et al., 2001): the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The Job Characteristics Model posits that each of five characteristics (task variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job-based feedback) contribute to three psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, responsibility, knowledge of results) and influence work outcomes (motivation, satisfaction, turnover, and performance) (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

Scholars have elaborated the Job Characteristics Model (Van den Broeck and Parker, 2017); Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) distinguished 21 job characteristics organized into four categories: task, knowledge, social, and contextual characteristics. We rely on the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham (1975), extended with elaborations by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) and Humphrey et al. (2007). Table 2.1 presents the framework used in our research.

Although volunteer work differs from paid work (i.e., voluntary, unpaid, and collectively oriented) (Hustinx et al., 2010), and volunteers and paid staff differ in motivations and job attitudes (Pearce, 1993), several studies confirm the validity and applicability of the Job Characteristics Model for regular volunteering. Research substantiates that both task and social characteristics in the volunteering activity impact volunteer perceptions and volunteer motivation, satisfaction, time spent volunteering, and turnover intentions (Alfes et al., 2015; Dailey, 1986; Grant, 2007; Pajo and Lee, 2011; Millette and Gagné, 2008).

Research on corporate volunteering - performed in a temporary episodic (short-term) manner - also validates the applicability of work design theory "to consider how corporate-sponsored volunteering programs can be enriched so that employees have satisfying experiences" (Pajo and Lee, 2011, p.467). Task significance, meaningfulness, and relational elements (i.e., interaction with beneficiaries and others) seem to play a

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[2]We do not aim to review the extensive job design literature. For incisive reviews please see Van den Broeck and Parker (2017) and Parker et al. (2001). Major models include the Two-Factor Theory of Herzberg (1968), where hygiene factors (e.g., status, security, decent salary, fringe benefits) cause dissatisfaction, and motivators (e.g., growth, recognitions, responsibility, meaningfulness) cause satisfaction; the Demand-Control Model of Karasek (1979), whereby psychological strains result from both job demands (e.g., workload and role stressors) and job control (e.g., autonomy and skill variety); the Vitamin Model including various broad environment aspects (e.g., decent salary, environmental clarity, social relationships at work); Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001) providing an integrative view of job characteristics either categorized as job demands and job resources.

Task Characteristics	
Autonomy	"the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161).
Task identity	"the degree to which a job requires the completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161).
Task significance	"the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161).
Task variety	"the degree to which a job requires employees to perform a wide range of tasks on the job"(Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161)
Job-based feedback	"the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.161)
Social Characteristics	
Social support	the degree to which the individual receives assistance from and/or has communication with supervisors and other participants/co-workers (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006).
Interaction outside the organization / Direct beneficiary contact	the degree to which the individual has communication with those external to the organization's boundaries such as clients or beneficiaries (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006)

Feedback from others	"the degree to which others in the organization provide information about performance" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1324).

Knowledge Characteristics

Job complexity	"the extent to which the tasks on a job are complex and difficult to perform"" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1323). The opposite would be task simplicity.
Task variety	the extent to which a job requires an individual to use a variety of different skills to complete the work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).
Specialization	the degree to which a certain job requires the performance of specialized tasks or processing specialized knowledge and skills (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006).
Information processing	"the degree to which a job requires attending to and processing data or other information" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1323).
Problem solving	"the degree to which a job requires unique ideas or solutions and reflects the more active cognitive processing requirements of a job" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1324).

Contextual or Physical Characteristics

Physical demands	"reflect the level of physical activity or effort required in the job" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1325).
Work conditions	"reflect the environment in which the job is performed" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1325).
Equipment and tools	"the variety and complexity of the technology and equipment used in the job" (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006, p.1325)

Adapted from Grant et al. (2011, p.427)

Table 2.1: Work Design Characteristics

critical role. Grant (2007, 2012) likewise argues that opportunities to interact and communicate with beneficiaries affect corporate volunteer attitudes and behaviors. Wood (2007) interviewed 32 corporate volunteers and found that autonomy and task significance influenced the volunteering experience. Previous research thus establishes the applicability of job design in the context of regular (long-term) and corporate volunteering. This study examines the applicability of job design to yield volunteer satisfaction in National Days of Service.

2.3   Data and Methodology

Our data emanated from an annual large-scale National Day of Service in the Netherlands: NLdoet. NLdoet is an intensive, time delimited event lasting one day. The event takes place annually on a Friday and Saturday in March, and boasts over 8.000 projects and 300.000 volunteers (NLdoet, 2006). Volunteers self-select a volunteer project on the NLdoet website and register as individuals or as a group consisting of family, friends, or colleagues. The sponsor, the *Oranje Fonds*, works to generate event awareness and participation, and host nonprofit organizations recruit volunteers for their Day of Service project via the NLdoet website and their own communication channels.

We used a qualitative research approach with multiple sources to yield the desired breadth and depth of data for our study. Data sources included open-ended, semi-structured interviews with representatives of host nonprofit organizations and volunteer centers, enriched by participant observations during NLdoet.[3] We supplemented these data with focus groups with NLdoet volunteers.

2.3.1   Data Collection

We conducted 17 semi-structured interviews (35-90 minutes) with 19 respondents at 11 nonprofit organizations and six volunteer centers (two interviews were with pairs of respondents). We used an open-ended interview strategy (Patton, 1990), including the key questions: What results in a positive (negative) volunteer experience during the National Day of Service?; What are important aspects when organizing National Days of Service projects?

We selected interviewees working in nonprofit organizations and volunteer centers who had substantial experience in NLdoet. Interviewees from nonprofit organizations

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[3]Volunteer centers are volunteering infrastructure organizations providing training, technical assistance and volunteers to nonprofit organizations (Brudney and Woodworth, 2014).

were responsible for organizing and managing NLdoet projects and had participated
in NLdoet between five and 13 times; half of these nonprofit organizations had also
organized their own one-day volunteering events (e.g., corporate volunteering or other
(National) Days of Service). Nonprofit respondents held paid positions as activity or
volunteer coordinator, and two served as chairperson. Most respondents worked for
nonprofit organizations in the healthcare sector. All volunteer center respondents held
paid positions (e.g., advisors, project leaders, volunteer and/or activity coordinators)
and had offered host nonprofit organizations support in organizing and implementing
volunteer projects in NLdoet between six and 13 years. Hence, our interview data
emanated from highly experienced and knowledgeable individuals concerning NLdoet.

   We also obtained data from participant observations conducted at NLdoet by seven
trained student-observers who participated as Day of Service volunteers. All observers
were graduate students in a course on nonprofit management. Just like other NLdoet
volunteers, student-observers self-selected the Day of Service projects that interested
them, which included interacting with beneficiaries (e.g., playing games with elderly
migrants) and various hands-on activities (e.g., refurbishing a community playground).
Five observers participated in two projects at NLdoet; two observers participated in
one project - resulting in a total of 12 observations. We provided a training so that
observers reported a chronological account of each NLdoet project, information on
group composition, and a description of how the design and/or organization of the
Day of Service project influenced their own behavior and attitudes, as well as those
of the other participating volunteers. Two observation reports were written in Dutch
and 10 were written in English.

   To enrich the volunteer perspective in our study, we conducted two focus groups
with 10 NLdoet volunteers. Volunteers were invited to participate by an open invitation
distributed online by a volunteer center. About half of the participants were female,
and they had participated in NLdoet on average 1,9 times. Focus groups lasted 60
and 75 minutes and focused on (un)fulfilling volunteer experiences in NLdoet and
the possible effects of job characteristics. The interviews and the focus groups were
conducted in person and in Dutch.

2.3.2   Data Analysis

The 17 semi-structured interviews and the two focus groups were digitally recorded
and transcribed. This information plus the 12 observation reports yielded 506 pages
of raw data for analysis. These data were subjected to a "directed" qualitative content
analysis, i.e., constructs from existing theory and research were applied as an initial

pre-coding system (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). We coded the data into categories reflecting common themes articulated by theory (i.e., job design characteristics, see Table 2.1) and added new codes as necessary to extend the theoretical framework. Sample saturation was determined when the analysis generated no new codes. Using our research question as a lens and following the "constant comparison" methodology (Corbin and Strauss, 2008), the coding and analysis moved iteratively between theory and data, and considered relationships among the categories to develop a conceptual understanding.

As the study explored the experiences of participants, we adopted a realist/essentialist paradigm to report the experiences, meanings and the reality of the interviewees (Braun and Clarke, 2006). We used a semantic approach so that "the themes are identified within the explicit or surface meaning of the data and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.13). We use quotations from representatives of the nonprofit organizations and volunteer centers, participant observers, and NLdoet volunteers to substantiate our findings. In the analysis below, initials indicate respondent type and are provided to add richness to their voices (e.g., **no**n**p**rofit **o**rganization, **v**olunteer **c**enter, participant **ob**servation; **vol**unteer). Quotes were first translated from Dutch to English by the first author and consequently translated back to Dutch by an independent scholar to enhance data validity. Differences in translation were resolved by consensus.

2.4   Results

This study addresses the question of how to design National Days of Service projects to promote volunteer satisfaction. Our data show that certain job characteristics yield positive volunteer experiences, including task characteristics (i.e., task significance, job-based feedback, task identity), social characteristics (i.e., direct beneficiary contact, social support, feedback from others) (see Table 2.1), as does having a well-prepared National Days of Service project. By contrast, high levels of autonomy yielded negative volunteer experiences.

Data show that the characteristic most important to fulfilling NLdoet projects is **task significance**. Our data suggest that high levels of task significance makes Day of Service volunteers strongly feel that their work affects others (i.e., beneficiaries), thus, leading to greater experienced meaningfulness in their volunteering. Respondents indicate that when they feel their work is meaningful, they are likely to have a positive experience, especially because doing something meaningful is a primary reason for

participating in NLdoet (NPO2; VOL2). A volunteer explains: "When you give your time knowing that you help someone else (...) that provides satisfaction" (VOL2). According to our data, task significance elicits emotions that often result in high levels of volunteer involvement and commitment, as volunteers experience first-hand the causes they support.

Beneficiary contact strengthens task significance. Respondents noted that Day of Service volunteers can become overwhelmed with emotion when coming into contact with beneficiaries (NPO5; NPO7; VOL6). "It was a very, very special day," an observer stated who felt the connection of Day of Service volunteers with the beneficiaries (OB4.2). Furthermore, we find that beneficiary contact strengthens **feedback from others**, as beneficiaries show Day of Service volunteers their appreciation through verbal or non-verbal communication (e.g., a smile, thank-you) (VC6; VOL1; VOL5; VOL10), thus, yielding satisfying experiences for the volunteers involved.

Since many beneficiaries are vulnerable (e.g., elderly, people with disabilities), respondents advise that Day of Service volunteers must receive sufficient **social support** in the form of guidance and supervision from the host nonprofit organization (NPO3; NPO6; NPO8). Day of Service volunteers are typically not engaged with the nonprofit organization and un-informed about the organization, its beneficiaries, and activities. A nonprofit respondent attests: "It is a precondition that a supervisor is present who knows our clients (...) Thus it is very important that there is always supervision and control" (NPO1). To safeguard beneficiaries, respondents recommend that Day of Service volunteers should receive limited responsibility and autonomy with respect to nonprofit clients. A nonprofit interviewee working in a healthcare organization serving elderly with dementia stated: "You go out with vulnerable people, you have to take care of them (...) You cannot give the responsibility to the volunteer who volunteers just for one day" (NPO7).

As mentioned, respondents noted that **social support** enables Day of Service volunteers to interact with beneficiaries in order to promote experienced meaningfulness through task significance. Our data suggests that social support also influences volunteer satisfaction directly. Providing social support and informing Day of Service volunteers about the organization, beneficiaries and the activity spark their interest, resulting in volunteer commitment. One observer reported that as he learned about the organization and the activity throughout NLdoet, he developed a sincere interest in the project and the people involved (OB1.1).

Respondents indicate that providing social support begins prior to NLdoet, continues throughout the day and follows the National Day of Service. Informing Day

of Service volunteers beforehand enables volunteers to create expectations that can be met during the National Day of Service. When expectations go unmet (due to miscommunication or non-communication), our data indicate that Day of Service volunteers can have negative experiences (VC5). For example, an observer registered herself for a NLdoet project listed as "Cuddling with rabbits." Instead, she was asked to clean the petting zoo-shop. She reports: "Just like me, [another volunteer] was a bit disappointed to be cleaning inside instead of working in the zoo with and around the animals" (OB3.1). Furthermore, our data suggest that communication prior to NLdoet reassures Day of Service volunteers as it shows them that the host nonprofit organization relies on them, that they will be taken care of, and that the volunteer activity will take place (NPO5; VOL10). An observer who had early communication reports: "This actually gave me a good feeling, knowing that we would really be taken care of" (OB3.2).

According to various respondents, sufficient social support offered during the National Days of Service project in the form of supervision, an introductory meeting, coffee breaks, or a lunch makes Day of Service volunteers feel welcome (NPO1; VOL6; VOL10), safe (NPO8; VOL10) and at ease (NPO1). "People want to feel welcome. Especially when they go to a place they have not been before, they want someone to take their hand and lead them the way" (VC5). A volunteer attests: "As soon as you enter [the nonprofit organization] and volunteers feel welcome, you have actually already won the biggest part" (VOL6).

Data illustrate that Day of Service volunteers can feel insecure since they are unfamiliar with the organization, clients, and the Day of Service project (NPO6). We find that social support provided by regular volunteers or paid staff reduces social anxiety and insecurity of Day of Service volunteers. National Day of Service projects that require volunteers working alone or lack support yield frustrating and frightening experiences (VC4; VOL6; VOL10). A nonprofit respondent elaborates: "Volunteers should never be left alone during NLdoet; it gives them a sense of safety. I think that is the best description. It is important to make volunteers feel welcome, to be hospitable and to make them feel safe" (NPO8). A volunteer center respondent stated Day of Service volunteers can feel lost when they are left alone (VC4). Respondents indicate a supervisor can take care of volunteers seemingly lost during the project and/or address any questions (NPO5). A volunteer explains: "When you have no one to go to with your questions or you are sent from one to the other, that is annoying" (VOL10).

Findings furthermore indicate that communication with Day of Service volunteers after completion of the project results in a satisfying experience. Follow-up demonstrates appreciation to Day of Service volunteers (NPO2); conversely, lack of follow-up may lead to feelings of exploitation, resulting in negative attitudes (VC2). Several nonprofit organizations indicated they afterwards sent photos to Day of Service volunteers to show their gratitude (NPO10), which volunteers appreciated (VOL1).

Respondents also emphasized the importance of **feedback from others** to promote volunteer satisfaction in NLdoet. Recognizing volunteers' efforts and appreciating their work and commitment positively impact volunteer satisfaction (NPO11); correspondingly, the absence of feedback is found to decrease satisfaction. An observer who did not receive feedback stated: "It was a little dissatisfying not to get any enthusiasm on what we had been doing" (OB3.1). Our data indicate that a lack of feedback suggests to Day of Service volunteers that their work is unappreciated or unimportant. Respondents suggest that Day of Service volunteers appreciate immediate and relevant feedback from supervisors or others directly involved in the project; compliments produce a "really positive ambiance" (OB5.1). Day of Service volunteers especially appreciate feedback from beneficiaries (VC3; VOL6; VOL10). When clients are incapable of providing verbal feedback, respondents argue that the presence of regular volunteers or paid staff on-site can translate beneficiaries' (non-verbal) appreciation to Day of Service volunteers (NPO1; NPO4).

According to our data, another aspect of providing feedback is to thank participants at the end of the activity. Day of Service volunteers seem to appreciate a small recognition, indicating their work and commitment are valued (OB5.1; VOL1; VOL10). Lack of a thank-you is said to engender mixed feelings: "I didn't mind helping, but thanking someone or holding the door open when I enter would have been nice and would have given me a better feeling afterwards" (OB4.1). A thank-you can include a small token (VC6; VOL10).

Respondents find that **job-based feedback**, such as information about effectiveness of performance or achievement of results, is also important. As one respondent mentioned, "A good visible result. That is something that volunteers find important!" (NPO3). A nonprofit respondent notes: "Days of Service should include work that is visible, that makes a difference (...) that is what makes it succesfull" (NPO10). Conversely, the absence of visible results yields a lack of fulfillment: "It should not be the case that you have been working there all day and that you still can't see what you have done. Then you will have the feeling that you haven't done anything" (VC5). Respondents indicate that when National Days of Service projects produce

tangible results, volunteers can see what they have accomplished, leading to feelings of satisfaction (VOL1; VOL2) and togetherness (NPO6).

Our respondents also emphasized **task identity**, i.e. the sense of having completed a project. They affirmed the importance of organizing an NLdoet project from beginning to end with a visible outcome (VOL1). An unfinished project at the end of the day yields unsatisfied feelings for all parties; a respondent notes it is "not fulfilling, not for the volunteer, not for the organization nor for the beneficiaries" (NPO6). A volunteer attests that unfinished activities result in an "unsatisfied feeling" (VOL10). An observer similarly reports that an unfinished project negatively affects the NLdoet experience: "Leaving the site, particularly unfinished, would cause certain feelings of incompleteness" (OB1.1). Respondents therefore highlight the importance of organizing Day of Service projects with a clear beginning and end that can be completed during the event.

Some respondents observed that Day of Service volunteers may refuse to leave the project site until the project is done (NPO3; VOL6). This is, however, not always the case. As a precaution for unfinished projects, respondents recommend that nonprofit organizations organize the project so that it is possible to down-size (e.g., rehabbing a single room rather than an entire facility), should obstacles arise to completing it (NPO2; VOL10).

We extend the Job Characteristics Model to the **planning and preparation** of the National Day of Service project. One nonprofit respondent said: "I prefer to do some thorough pre-work. I think that is very important" (NPO3). Our data suggest that if the host nonprofit organization is not prepared for the event, dissatisfaction can occur (NPO7). For example, respondents indicate that Day of Service volunteers have negative experiences when no one knows about the project on site, the organizer is late, or the project is cancelled (VC3; VC6; NPO7; OB2.2; VOL10). These lapses suggest that the National Day of Service project is unimportant (OB4.1), which lowers perceived task significance (c.q. experiences meaningfulness) to the volunteers.

The planning of the National Days of Service project relates to contextual characteristics, such as **equipment and tools**. Respondents note that these resources should be available in working order prior to the activity and throughout (VC4; VC5; NPO4; VOL10). Our data indicate that their availability is especially important because equipment problems impede Day of Service volunteers in completing the project (task identity), which promotes volunteer satisfaction. An observer states: "Then there were the missing tools, due to which we couldn't complete the job (...) This was a bit unsatisfying because we should have easily been able to finish the

entire job in a day" (OB7.1). When equipment is absent or inoperative Day of Service volunteers are unable to be as productive as they would like, a particular problem in National Day of Service as time is severely limited (NPO5; NPO11).

Physical demand (e.g., workload) relates to the the planning of a National Days of Service project as well. To yield satisfying volunteer experiences, our data suggest, Day of Service volunteers seek a productive day's effort and the resulting physical (and psychological) feeling of making a contribution. Respondents indicate volunteers often say that fatigue is part of the job (NPO2) and feel satisfied when they grow tired (NPO5). A volunteer explains: "For me it matters when I come home, and I am tired and exhausted. That satisfies me" (VOL6). To achieve the appropriate workload, respondents recommend that host nonprofit organizations accurately estimate the number of volunteers needed to complete the project (VC4; VOL10). When nonprofit organizations overstate the number of volunteers, we find that Day of Service volunteers jostle each other (VOL8) or have (too) little work, resulting in feelings of boredom, uselessness, and redundancy (NPO3) - all diminishing their perceived task significance. A volunteer center respondent noted that because Day of Service volunteers participate with the mindset to be productive (VC4), such an experience is particularly frustrating. As a precaution, respondents highlight the need to plan and prepare additional tasks that Day of Service volunteers can perform if necessary (VOL10).

Lastly, a well-prepared National Day of Service project should consider volunteers' level of **autonomy** during the project. Respondents advise nonprofit organizations to limit the amount of autonomy of Day of Service volunteers. While traditional (ongoing) volunteers are typically familiar with the nonprofit organization and its beneficiaries and may, thus, welcome job autonomy, Day of Service volunteers are usually new to the nonprofit organization and its clients. Thus, a volunteer center respondent reported in regard to Day of Service volunteers: "People find it actually very pleasant when you clearly tell them what is expected from them (...) Tell them exactly what they should do, that is often the mindset" (VC1). Our data indicate that because Day of Service volunteers are not regularly engaged with the nonprofit organization, they appreciate when the organization fully organizes the project. Substantial autonomy negatively affects Day of Service volunteers by hampering work productivity. An observer noted: "Many aspects weren't well thought through, so [another volunteer] and I had quite some chances to come up with strategies and plans. The indecisiveness of [the organizer] was sometimes frustrating to both of us" (OB7.1). The same observer also reported: "I expected the organization to have a plan, but it wasn't

really structured, which was confusing. I was asked to decide all sorts of things at once" (OB7.1). To make Day of Service volunteers feel at ease, they should not be bothered with making too many decisions.

2.5   Discussion

At a time when short-term and episodic volunteering is perceived to be more common, nonprofit organizations capitalize more on National Days of Service and similar one-off events. Our findings have important implications for designing and organizing satisfying National Days of Service volunteer experiences to nourish a healthy volunteer base for special one-off events. We find that volunteers have satisfying experiences in National Days of Service projects when volunteer projects incorporate task significance, interaction outside the organization (beneficiary contact), social support, feedback from others, job-based feedback, task identity, and limited autonomy. By contrast to the literature on long-term volunteering, too much autonomy can be dissatisfying for Day of Service volunteers, and even threatening to participants.

Our findings also confirm previous literature. Task significance and social support are important design characteristics for fulfilling National Days of Service projects. Dunn et al. (2016) likewise observe that helping others and socialization are common motivations of episodic volunteers. Our finding regarding the importance of early communication prior to the National Day of Service reaffirms the study of Hyde et al. (2016), which showed that having sufficient information about episodic volunteering roles and event characteristics improves episodic volunteer satisfaction. Similarly, Koutrou et al. (2016) demonstrate that when sport-event volunteers have too little to do at the event, they report negative experiences; Rehnborg et al. (2009) acknowledges that temporary episodic volunteering events should be well-organized; Macduff (1991) recommends ongoing support and feedback from others for episodic volunteers. The present study goes beyond these studies by providing a holistic framework for understanding how to design National Days of Service projects to yield volunteer satisfaction.

The study makes theoretical and practical contributions to the literature on National days of Service; situated within the broader concept of temporary episodic volunteering. First, we show how organizational and management factors (i.e., job design) - all within the control of the organization - can generate volunteer job satisfaction. Second, our findings reinforce the salience of both social characteristics and task characteristics in yielding volunteer satisfaction. Our analysis suggests that

work design theory provides a useful framework to examine the design of National Days of Service projects. Although work design theory often conceptualizes job design characteristics as acting independently (Grant et al., 2011), our analysis reveals that several job design characteristics interrelate dynamically to strengthen one other. For instance, beneficiary contact strengthens task significance to yield volunteer satisfaction.

This study carries practical implications for nonprofit managers, especially those engaged in National Days of Service who wish to create fulfilling volunteer experiences. Based on our findings, we advise host nonprofit organizations to design National Days of Service projects that visibly impact beneficiaries and provide volunteers with a sense of urgency. To strengthen task significance, we advise nonprofit organizations to design National Days of Service projects in direct relation with the nonprofit's beneficiaries whenever possible. In some projects, Day of Service volunteers can readily visualize their impacts, however, in other contexts National Days of Service are less well-positioned to do so (e.g., where beneficiaries are distant from the volunteer project, or clients are not people but animals). In this case, we recommend host nonprofit organizations to explain carefully how the National Days of Service project benefits others or society at large. We furthermore advise nonprofit managers to invest in preparation and organization of Days of Service projects and provide sufficient social support at the event (e.g., a supervisor who can often direction feedback and recognition, and who can translate beneficiaries' appreciation to volunteers). Lastly, the findings inform nonprofit organizations to organize National Days of Service projects with visible results that can be completed within the (limited) duration of the program, keeping in mind the amount of volunteers and physical effort needed.

We are, however, necessarily cautious in our claims about the generalizability of our findings. First, we acknowledge that, as with all research, our findings have limitations. For instance, findings emanate from a relatively small sample consisting of 19 interview respondents, 12 observation reports and focus groups with 10 NLdoet volunteers. As countries vary in their cultures of volunteering and cross-cultural differences in volunteering exist (Meijs et al., 2003), we are cautious if our findings have applicability beyond NLdoet or the Netherlands. In addition, our study may entail a small sample bias as most nonprofit respondents worked in the healthcare sub-sector. Because this sub-sector typically has clearly-identifiable clients or beneficiaries, it is possible that our findings attached greater importance to beneficiary contact - although studies of volunteering near uniformly find that factor motivating to volunteers. Besides, we talked mostly to those who design or advice host nonprofit organizations on organizing

National Days of Service projects. Nonetheless, we triangulate our findings by including volunteer perspectives based on participant observations and focus groups with Day of Service volunteers. Despite our relatively small sample, our raw data encompassed 506 pages of interview transcripts and observation reports. We obtained data saturation and triangulated among different perspectives. Our qualitative research approach with multiple sources aimed at developing in-depth insights stemming from a National Day of Service in the Netherlands.

Future studies might explore the extent to which findings apply to a broader cultural context and to what extent the acquired knowledge can be extended beyond National Days of Service. One could investigate if our findings might inform other time-limited volunteer projects performed in a temporary episodic manner (i.e., one-off and up to a day). Examples include corporate, family-, and singles-volunteering. Other volunteer-contexts in which the results should be verified include interim and occasional episodic volunteering, other short-term volunteering events, and non-event based temporary episodic volunteering. Future research might also examine the extent to which the findings apply to temporary episodic volunteering programs pursuing different goals. For instance, corporate volunteering programs performed in a temporary episodic format aimed at participant development might call for a different set of job characteristics to attain that goal.

Another limitation of our study is that it relies on only a portion of work design theory (i.e., the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham (1975) and recent elaborations by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006)). Some researchers note that the context of work may have changed since the introduction of this approach (Humphrey et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2001), including the increase in temporary work arrangements.

We note that job characteristics do also include knowledge characteristics, which reflect the kinds of knowledge, skills, and ability demands placed on an individual as a function of the job (i.e., skill variety, information processing, job complexity, specialization, and problem solving) (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006). Due to the self-selection of Day of Service projects by participants in advance of NLdoet, and the predominance of hands-on, practical volunteer projects offered, NLdoet volunteers decide for themselves the degree of the various knowledge characteristics they desire in NLdoet (VC3). Our analysis thus suggests that knowledge characteristics within the context of NLdoet do not play a large role in volunteer satisfaction.

Moreover, the qualitative nature of our study limits our ability to assess the strength of proposed relationships between job characteristics and volunteer satisfaction. Future

research should endeavor to collect quantitative data. Future studies might also account for the possible effects of previous volunteer experiences, motivations, and other factors that may influence volunteer satisfaction (Cnaan and Handy, 2005; Pauline, 2011).

According to Studer and Von Schnurbein (2013), research on volunteer management is at an early stage. A healthy volunteer workforce is vital for any organization relying on volunteer labour. The growing reliance on volunteers heightens the need to nourish a healthy volunteer base for special events and nonprofit pursuits involving volunteers. Given the positive outcomes of volunteer satisfaction on sustained volunteering, understanding what promotes volunteer satisfaction, in a variety of volunteer jobs, should be a critical goal for future research. We hope our findings help start an ongoing dialogue that ultimately helps nonprofit organizations to create volunteer jobs - including and beyond National Days of Service - that create positive volunteer experiences.

Chapter 3

Members Only, it's a Private Party: National Days of Service within Sports Associations [1]

3.1 Introduction

Episodic volunteers are of paramount importance for planning, organizing, and staging large-scale sporting events (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Koutrou et al., 2016), small-scale local sporting events (Cuskelly et al., 2006), festivals (Handy et al., 2006), one-day special events such as National Days of Service, park clean-ups and fundraising events (Cnaan and Handy, 2005), and disaster relief (Greiner and Wikle, 2008). This study focuses on National Days of Service. National National Days of Service are country-wide volunteering events in which individuals and groups have the opportunity to support nonprofit organizations by volunteering in a one-day, time-limited service project. National Days of Service occur globally and mobilize thousands of one-off and short-term volunteers for nonprofit organizations (Christensen et al., 2005; Hustinx and Meijs, 2011).

Although episodic volunteering is an accepted and growing part of volunteerism (Cnaan and Handy, 2005), the literature lacks a universally consistent conceptualiza-

tion (Brudney, 1994). Episodic volunteering is commonly described by its episodic nature: one-off instances and short-term volunteering engagements in which people give their time in a quick, uncommitted manner toward specific tasks or projects (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Hyde et al., 2014).

Although the majority of scholars define episodic volunteering as short-term volunteering, Danson (2003) distinguishes between episodic and short-term based on the volunteer's dedication. He argues that short-term volunteers have more interest in the organization, whereas episodic volunteers are those volunteers who "go from organization to organization getting involved in one-off events, then move to other events at other organizations" (Danson, 2003, p.37). Macduff (2004) identifies three types of episodic volunteers based on the time and duration of service: temporary, interim and occasional episodic volunteering. Temporary episodic volunteers give service that is short in duration (up to a few hours or a day) and do not return to or are not otherwise engaged with the nonprofit organization. Interim volunteers give service on a regular basis for less than six months; occasional episodic volunteers provide service at regular intervals for short periods of time for the same nonprofit organization. Temporary episodic volunteering is consistent with the definition of episodic volunteering by Danson (2003), whereas occasional episodic volunteering is more compatible with his definition of short-term volunteering. National Days of Service constitute temporary episodic volunteering (Macduff, 2004).

In addition to the project-based work they generate, National Days of Service build an ethic of volunteering (Christensen et al., 2005) and provide entry into long-term volunteering (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003). Following the functional re-embedding strategy[2] (Hustinx, 2010; Hustinx and Meijs, 2011), National Days of Service offer a means to mobilize volunteers and create a sustainable volunteer culture to evoke volunteerism among a broad population. In this way, "anyone" can be invited and drawn to service for host nonprofit organizations (i.e., those nonprofit organizations in which the short-term volunteer work is actually performed).

Volunteer participation in National Days of Service can occur in different nonprofit settings. The literature distinguishes three types of nonprofit organizations (Handy, 1988; Meijs, 1997): mutual support organizations, service delivery organizations, and campaigning organizations. Mutual support organizations strive to serve and benefit their own members; service delivery organizations produce benefits for their (external) constituencies or clients; and campaigning organizations aim to persuade or convince

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[2]This strategy includes the recent organization and institutional interventions or strategies by governments, organizations, or institutions to reintegrate, re-construct or restore present-day volunteering by mobilizing volunteers (Hustinx, 2010; Hustinx and Meijs, 2011).

society of the guiding belief or mission espoused by the organization (Mook et al., 2007). These nonprofit organizations differ with respect to volunteer recruitment (Meijs et al., 2004). Mutual support organizations (i.e., associations, unions and clubs) rely on a membership approach, where members constitute the (actual and potential) volunteers, and where previous acquaintance and belonging with the organization underlie volunteer recruitment. In service delivery organizations volunteer selection is based on needed or stated competencies. Finally, in campaigning organizations anyone supporting the cause or mission can become a volunteer (Meijs et al., 2004).

National Days of Service present a challenge for mutual support organizations, as the open volunteer recruitment contradicts the nature, purpose, and membership approach of these nonprofit organizations. This issue is especially relevant in European contexts as a membership tradition underlies the European third-sector (Meijs et al., 2004) and motivations for volunteering (Dekker, 2019) - leading to a strong association culture (Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018). National Days of Service, on the other hand, originate from the U.S., where a service delivery tradition underlies the third sector (Meijs et al., 2004). Despite the prevalence of National Days of Service and similar one-off events, we lack research examining how different nonprofit organizations participate in and use these events. This problematic lacuna is understandable given the unequal scholarly attention given to (large) service delivery organizations versus local grassroots (membership) associations (Smith, 1997). Besides, there is low geographic and cultural diversity in nonprofit research whereby literature produced by Anglosphere countries - with a common language, heritage, and a robust and independent civil society - prevails (Ma and Konrath, 2018).

Accordingly, this study examines the use of National Days of Service by a prominent group of mutual support organizations in the Netherlands: sports associations. Sports associations are formally established nonprofit membership organizations that aim to provide members the opportunity to participate in organized sports or physical activities at the grassroots level (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Van der Roest et al., 2016). In many European countries sports associations make up a large proportion of the voluntary sector and contribute significantly to public welfare (Breuer et al., 2017; Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Meijs, 1997). For instance, sports associations form the largest group of organizations in the third sector in the Netherlands numbering over 28.000. More than 560.000 individuals actively volunteer for their sports association. This is one in five members; together they contribute 2,2 million hours per year (Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018). In Switzerland almost half of all members serve as volunteers in their sports association (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018). Sports volunteers

undeniably represent the largest proportion of volunteers in many European countries (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018). Sports associations provide ample volunteering opportunities and are the key type of membership organization in terms of mobilizing volunteers (Byers, 2009; Hallmann and Fairley, 2018).

In this research, we investigate how sports associations practice National Days of Service as compared to service delivery organizations. The study examines whether sports associations either adapt themselves to utilize National Days of Service, or if their inherent nature as membership-driven and -based leads to a different practice of National Days of Service. While the inherent nature of service delivery organizations in terms of volunteer recruitment matches the broad volunteering energy evoked in National Days of Service, the membership basis of sports associations is quite different. The study first examines the types of volunteers attracted by sports associations and service delivery organizations - differentiating between internal "own" volunteers (i.e. volunteers who are already members of or are known to the nonprofit organization), and external "new" volunteers (i.e. volunteers who are as yet unfamiliar and unknown to the nonprofit organization). Second, we compare the methods used by both groups of nonprofit organizations to recruit volunteers for the National Day of Service. Third, we examine the results attained from the Day of Service event for sports associations and service delivery organizations.

We empirically address our research questions based on a study of a National Day of Service in the Netherlands: *NLdoet* (In English: "The Netherlands Does"). This event boasts more than 8.000 volunteer projects and engages more than 300.000 volunteers. Our analysis draws on the unique survey responses of sports associations (n = 1,030) and service delivery organizations (n = 4,293) that participated as host nonprofit organizations in NLdoet between 2012 and 2015.

3.2 Literature Review

Large-scale sporting events rely heavily on (interim) episodic volunteers (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Koutrou et al., 2016). These events can mobilize thousands of episodic volunteers, based on their scope and the limited economic resources usually available to stage them (Pauline et al., 2008). In addition to sport8ng events, summer festivals (Handy et al., 2006), and many other one-day special events require large numbers of episodic volunteers, including National Days of Service, clean-up campaigns, and fundraising events (Christensen et al., 2005; Cnaan and Handy, 2005). National Days of Service or so-called "Done-in-a-Day" (DIAD) volunteering are prominent across the

globe: Make a Difference Day, Martin Luther King Jr. Day, and Join Hands Day in the U.S.; NLdoet in the Netherlands; Mandela Day in South Africa. National Days of Service can be organized annually (e.g., Mandela Day) or monthly (e.g., *Umuganda* in Rwanda (Hagey et al., 2014)).

Mutual support, service delivery, and campaigning organizations all participate within National Days of Service. These nonprofit organizations, however, differ according to their volunteer pool and management. Service delivery organizations provide quality services to external clients or customers and produce benefits directed toward this constituency. Hospitals, museums, food pantries, and schools provide examples. In these nonprofit organizations volunteer recruitment begins by identifying and seeking competencies and qualifications to perform needed tasks and jobs (Meijs et al., 2004). Service delivery organizations recruit volunteers among individuals whom they do not yet formally know, as they are neither organizational members nor clients (Meijs et al., 2004). They select volunteers based on competencies and required qualifications and tasks, although competencies can sometimes be minimal (Meijs et al., 2004).

At the other end of the organizational spectrum with respect to volunteer recruitment lie mutual support organizations (Brudney et al., 2019). Mutual support organizations come into existence when particular groups of individuals unite to promote shared interests (i.e., sports, hobby, profession) (Meijs et al., 2004). These nonprofit organizations are geared to produce member benefits, i.e., club goods (Buchanan, 1965). Mutual support organizations "set out to encourage mutual support and assistance among their members, or to gain mutual advantage for them" (Meijs et al., 2004, p.188). Examples include sports associations and clubs, labor unions, and recreational clubs (Mook et al., 2007). The donors or volunteers are identical to the clients, and a culture of belonging, solidarity, and camaraderie dominates (Meijs et al., 2004). Mutual support organizations typically use a membership-approach (Meijs and Hoogstad, 2001) or association-logic (Ibsen and Seippel, 2010) and "often do not call out to new volunteers, but wait for the latter to approach them and volunteer for them" (Koutrou et al., 2016, p.3).

Given that the bonds of membership and belonging underlie mutual support organizations, these organizations typically recruit volunteers among their own members and constituency, restricting volunteering to members and other adherents (Breuer et al., 2017; Hoogendam and Meijs, 1998; Lam and Kuperus, 2007; Meijs, 1997). As Lam and Kuperus (2007, p.34) note, "associations fish in their own pond" for volunteers. Indeed, in the Netherlands 72% of sports associations recruit mainly through the networks of current volunteers and members (Elmose-Østerlund et al., 2017).

Active membership is at the core of volunteering in mutual support organizations and refers to "doing something extra in and for an association or movement to which one belongs" (Dekker and De Hart, 2009, p.74).

Volunteering in sports associations has both a continuous and a sporadic/episodic character (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Wicker and Breuer, 2011). Sports associations are familiar with occasional episodic volunteering as they often organize activities for the membership, such as cleaning the facility or helping stage tournaments. In these instances, occasional episodic volunteering relies on the volunteer participation of the sports associations' own members or constituencies. This type of volunteering, however, differs from National Days of Service, which aim to evoke or raise Day of Service volunteers among the broader community and from outside the boundaries of the nonprofit organization.

The different volunteer approaches are portrayed in the Volunteer Stewardship Framework, developed by Brudney et al. (2019). Based upon how volunteers are recruited (accessed) and where they perform their voluntary work (guidance), the authors develop two key dimensions: organizational access to volunteer energy (private resource versus common pool) and guidance of volunteers (unitary versus shared guidance). A distinction is thus made depending upon whether volunteers are recruited among a broader population (common pool), or if the home (sending/recruiting) organization and the host (receiving) nonprofit organization are the same (private resource). Whereas sports associations fall within the "membership" approach, and service delivery organizations within the "service" approach, National Days of Service such as NLdoet adhere to the "intermediary" model in which recruitment mobilizes volunteers from across the Netherlands (common pool) and deploys them in thousands of nonprofit organizations that host volunteer participation (Brudney et al., 2019). Based on the Volunteer Stewardship Framework shown in Figure 3.1, the service approach within service delivery organizations more closely resembles the intermediary model than does the membership approach within sports associations. The membership and intermediary models are opposite of each other with respect to both access and guidance of volunteers.

This study focuses on the tension between National Days of Service and the membership approach of sports associations. Tension exists as in National Days of Service literally "anyone" (member or non-member) can volunteer for the membership association. According to Lam and Kuperus (2007), mutual support organizations have reservations and seem hesitant toward non-member volunteering. Furthermore, because volunteering in mutual support organizations is embedded in emotional

		Access to volunteer energy	
		Private resource	**Common pool**
Guidance of volunteers	**Unitary**	Membership model (membership associations, sports associations, self-help groups)	Service model (nonprofit organizations delivering services to beneficiaries other than themselves)
	Shared	Secondary model (corporate volunteering programs, service-learning in education)	Intermediary model (National Days of Service, single- and family-volunteering, volunteer tourism)

Figure 3.1: Volunteer Stewardship Model

commitment and obligations of solidarity (Schlesinger et al., 2013), these nonprofit organizations will likely find it challenging to recruit non-members to give their time when no prior connection, or norms for their participation, exist.

This differs from service delivery organizations. Given their external focus and reliance on non-members and non-clients to assist in service delivery, we would expect service delivery organizations to practice National Days of Service differently than sports associations. Below we present hypotheses regarding the differences anticipated between service delivery organizations and sports associations with respect to the types of volunteers attracted, recruitment methods used, and the results attained in National Days of Service.

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis concerns whether sports associations cleave to their membership approach, or if they adapt and invite non-member external volunteers in National Days of Service. We assume that compared to service delivery organizations, sports associations enlist more internal and fewer external volunteers. We propose the fol-

lowing two hypotheses:

> **Hypothesis 1a.** Sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the amount of internal (own) volunteers enlisted in National Days of Service.

> **Hypothesis 1b.** Sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the amount of external (new) volunteers enlisted in National Days of Service.

Furthermore, we assume that sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the volunteer recruitment methods incorporated in the National Day of Service. We expect sports associations to use more recruitment methods oriented toward internal members, whereas service delivery organizations will use more external, community-oriented recruitment methods to attract a larger, more general population. Therefore, we state the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 2.** Sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in recruitment methods to attract volunteers in National Days of Service.

Finally, we expect that the amount of internal or external volunteers and the recruitment methods used will carry over into the benefits achieved from the National Day of Service. When nonprofit organizations recruit volunteers for National Days of Service using internally-oriented recruitment methods directed toward members and, thereby, recruit volunteers within their organizational boundaries whom are already known, familiar and engaged in the work of the nonprofit organization, the nonprofit organization will obtain internally-oriented results with a relatively narrow reach or scope. By contrast, when nonprofit organizations recruit volunteers for National Days of Service using externally-oriented recruitment methods directed toward the entire community and, thereby, recruiting volunteers outside the organization's boundaries who are unknown, unfamiliar, and unengaged to the nonprofit organization, the nonprofit organization will obtain externally-oriented results with a broader or wider scope. We therefore state the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 3.** Sports associations achieve different results than service delivery organizations when participating in National Days of Service.

3.3   Data and Methodology

To test these hypotheses, we collected data through a survey administered to a sample of over 15,700 nonprofit organizations that participated in NLdoet between 2012 and 2015. Participating nonprofit organizations post one-day volunteering projects on the NLdoet website. Prospective volunteers self-enroll to the Day of Service volunteering projects that most appeal to them.

3.3.1   Sample

The study draws on survey responses from nonprofit organizations that participated in NLdoet at least once during 2012 – 2015. The respondent is the contact person of the nonprofit organization listed for the Day of Service project(s) on the NLdoet website. In all probability the respondent is the volunteer administrator, volunteer coordinator, or other official in the nonprofit organization with responsibilities for registering, organizing, and managing the National Day of Service. Therefore, the data derive from knowledgeable individuals insofar as NLdoet is concerned.

One month after NLdoet an electronic survey was administered to the contact person of every nonprofit organization that had listed a volunteering project. A reminder followed one week later. As shown in Table 3.1 the estimated response rates for the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015 surveys are 57.9%, 56.7%, 49.4%, and 65.8%, respectively. The sample consists of 15,756 responses from nonprofit organizations that participated in NLdoet in any of those years. As several respondents completed the survey in multiple years, and independence of responses is a critical assumption in statistical analyses, we used the respondent's last response only in the case of multiple responses (based on the email address).[3] This procedure resulted in 10,715 unique survey respondents. The sample comprised a wide variety of nonprofit organizations: healthcare institutions, welfare organizations, community centers, sports associations, scouting associations, petting zoos and playgrounds, elementary schools, cultural organizations, nature conservation organizations, playgroups and daycares, and museums (see Table 3.1).

This study focuses on two organizational settings which hosted National Days of Service, service delivery organizations and sports associations, as the primary independent variable. Healthcare institutions, museums, petting zoos and playgrounds,

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[3]To assure findings were robust, we carried out the statistical analyses with other possible samples. This included analyzing a sample using the respondent's first response only, as well as analyzing the data for every year separately. Findings across these analyses remained robust and congruent.

	2012		2013		2014		2015		Total	
Distributed surveys	5,921		6,790		8,688		6,6361		27,760	
Completed surveys (Response rates in %)	3,431	(57.9%)	3,853	(56.7%)	4,289	(49.4%)	4,183	(65.8%)	15,756	(56.6%)
Unique respondents	1,934		2,121		2,620		4,040		10,715	
Elementary school	0	(0.0%)	158	(7.4%)	139	(5.3%)	244	(6.0%)	541	(5.0%)
Welfare organization	147	(7.6%)	152	(7.2%)	132	(5.0%)	181	(4.5%)	612	(5.7%)
Cultural organization	110	(5.7%)	97	(4.6%)	122	(4.7%)	181	(4.5%)	510	(4.8%)
Community center	166	(8.6%)	259	(12.2%)	340	(13.0%)	558	(13.8%)	1,323	(12.3%)
Petting zoo or playground	116	(6.0%)	28	(2.7%)	83	(3.2%)	170	(4.2%)	427	(4.0%)
Museum	26	(1.3%)	25	(1.2%)	43	(1.6%)	55	(1.4%)	149	(1.4%)
Nature conservation organization	60	(3.1%)	59	(2.8%)	103	(3.9%)	172	(4.3%)	394	(3.7%)
Playgroup or daycare	121	(6.3%)	57	(2.7%)	84	(3.2%)	69	(1.7%)	331	(3.1%)
Scouting association	106	(5.5%)	103	(4.9%)	124	(4.7%)	273	(6.8%)	606	(5.7%)
Sports association	178	(9.2%)	193	(9.1%)	224	(8.5%)	435	(10.8%)	1,030	(9.6%)
Healthcare institution	393	(20.3%)	526	(24.8%)	675	(25.8%)	970	(24.0%)	2,564	(23.9%)
Other	511	(26.4%)	434	(20.5%)	551	(21.0%)	732	(18.1%)	2,228	(20.8%)
Total	3,382	(100.0%)	2,715	(100.0%)	2,450	(100.0%)	2,163	(100.0%)	10,715	(100.0%)

Table 3.1: (Unique) Sample respondents 2012 − 2015

welfare organizations, and elementary schools were classified as service delivery organizations. In the Dutch context. these nonprofit organizations have well-defined groups of clients or "customers" to whom they supply a service. In other nonprofit organizations in our sample, including playgroups, nature conservation organizations, cultural organizations, community centers, and neighborhood associations, clients can also be and often are volunteers. Because the boundaries between volunteers and clients are blurred in these aforementioned nonprofit organizations, we excluded them from the empirical analysis. Table 3.2 presents the resulting final sample size of the two groups of nonprofit organizations in our study: sports associations (n = 1,030) and service delivery organizations (n = 4,293).

3.3.2   Variables and Measurement

With regard to the dependent variables, the survey asked the respondents about the number of internal volunteers with the question, "How many of your own volunteers participated in the National Day of Service?" The answers were: "None," "1-5," "6-10," "11-25," "26-50," and "more than 50." Analogously, the survey measured the number of external volunteers, "How many new volunteers participated in the National Day of Service?" (same response categories). We used the phrasings "own" and "new" to refer to volunteers who are already known to and familiar with the organization (for example, members), and new and unfamiliar volunteers (for example, non-members), respectively, as these phrases are compatible with the wording in the Dutch nonprofit sector, and with the Dutch-English translation of the survey.

To assess the recruitment methods used, the survey asked, "In what ways did the organization recruit volunteers for NLdoet? (Multiple responses possible)." The ten response categories comprised: "The organization sent out a mailing itself," "We contacted businesses and schools ourselves," "A local volunteer center recruited volunteers," "We approached our own contacts," "We approached the local media," "We hung banners," "We contacted local VIPs," "We used social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and so forth)," "We did not take any action," and "Other." Because the wording of this question and responses changed over time, we analyzed the data from the 2014 and 2015 surveys only.

Finally, the survey queried the benefits nonprofit organizations achieved with the National Day of Service: "In what way was participation in NLdoet beneficial for your organization? (Multiple answers possible)." In 2013 and 2014 the eight response categories (plus "Other") were: "New volunteers/members," "Publicity / notoriety," "Received visits from the local mayor, alderman or other VIPs," "New

	2012		2013		2014		2015		Total	
Sports associations	178	(20.7%)	193	(17.4%)	224	(17.3%)	435	(21.2%)	1,030	(19.3%)
Service delivery organizations	682	(79.3%)	919	(82.6%)	1,071	(82.7%)	1,620	(78.8%)	4,293	(80.7%)
Total	860	(100.0%)	1,112	(100.0%)	1,296	(100.0%)	2,055	(100.0%)	5,323	(100.0%)

Table 3.2: Number of respondents of sports associations versus service delivery organizations by year (proportion in %)

network or better contacts," "An improved location or environment," "A sociable and nice day," "Sponsorships by local businesses," and "Nothing." In 2015, the category "Sponsorships by local companies" was renamed to "Received goods or material from local companies." For purposes of analysis, we recoded this response into the original category ("Sponsorships by local companies"). Data on this question were available and analyzed for the 2013 – 2015 surveys.

3.3.3   Statistical Analysis

To investigate the hypothesized differences between sports associations and service delivery organizations in the amount of internal (H1a) and external (H1b) volunteers recruited, we used between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA). For this procedure, we assigned the scores 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 , respectively, to the response categories of "own" and "new" volunteers enlisted in the National Day of Service ("None", "1-5", "6-10", "11-25", "26-50" and "More than 50"). To validate this analysis, we also performed a chi-square test of statistical independence (McDonald, 2014, p.59-67) with the original response categories. Doing so, we compare the sports associations versus the service delivery organizations with respect to the number of internal and external volunteers attracted to NLdoet. Because hypotheses 2 and 3 likewise called for comparisons between sports associations and service delivery organizations with respect to the types of recruitment methods used and benefits achieved, we first recoded each of the answer categories into binary variables (yes/no) as multiple responses were possible, and we again performed the chi-square test (McDonald, 2014, p.59-67). When chi-square results indicated significant differences, we investigated further with pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction (MacDonald and Gardner, 2000). Moreover, as the chi-square test indicates only if significant differences occur, we use Cramér's V as a measure of the strength of the association. The level of statistical significance for all analyses is p< .05.

3.4   Results

The sports associations and the service delivery organizations in the sample have different histories with respect to participation in NLdoet. Almost half of the sports associations had participated in NLdoet just once (42.4%), with about a one-fourth twice (25.4%), 15.4% three times, and 17.1% more than three times. By contrast, one-third (33.3%) of the service delivery organizations had participated only once, while about one-fourth had participated twice (23.2%), 16.4% three times, and 27.1% more

than three times. When asked about their participation in other Days of Services, sports associations also appeared to be less involved and less proficient. Nearly 70.0% of the sports associations lacked any experience with other Days of Service (69.1%), compared to 47.2% of the service delivery organizations. Only 3.4% of the sports associations participated in other National Days of Service in the Netherlands compared to 20.3% of the service delivery organizations. Moreover, just 2.5% of the sports associations were increasingly requested by other parties to offer Done-in-a-Day volunteering opportunities, compared to 17.6% of the service delivery organizations. Based on these findings, the service delivery organizations in our sample had a more enriched participation profile than the sports associations with respect to NLdoet and other Days of Service. This may suggest support for our characterization that the membership approach inherent to the latter, may not be conducive to the common pool, mass recruitment emphasis of National Days of Service.

We hypothesized that sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the amount of internal ("own") volunteers (H1a) and external ("new") volunteers (H1b) in National Days of Service. To test these hypotheses we conducted a one-way ANOVA. Table 3.3 and Figure 3.2 present the results. On average, the sports associations enlist a higher level of internal volunteers in NLdoet (M = 2.08, SD = 0.88) than service delivery organizations (M = 1.42, SD = 0.97); the ANOVA indicates that these differences are statistically significant (F $(1,5250)$ = 359.877, p<.001). The chi-square test ($\chi 2$=466.288, 5 d.f., p<.001) likewise confirms a relationship between type of nonprofit organization and the amount of internal volunteers. Cramér's V shows the strength of the association is substantial (.298). Table 3.3 and Figure 3.2 show that sports associations enlist significantly more internal volunteers than service delivery organizations do in the higher ranges of 6 to 10 volunteers (39.0% versus 21.1%) and 11 to 25 volunteers (30.1% compared to 13.0%). Conversely, service delivery organizations enlist predominantly fewer internal volunteers than do sports associations in the lower ranges of 1 to 5 volunteers (50.6% compared to 26.1%) and no internal volunteers (12.9% versus 1.5%). We therefore reject the null hypothesis and accept (the alternative) hypothesis 1a in regard to internal volunteers.

Regarding hypothesis 1b, sports associations display a lower average score for external volunteers enlisted in NLdoet (M = 1.02, SD = 0.84) than service delivery organizations (M = 1.72, SD = 1.11). ANOVA results indicate that these differences are also statistically significant (F $(1,5250)$ = 356.092, p<.001). The chi-square test ($\chi 2$=364.368, 5 d.f., p<.001) reaffirms that sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the amount of external ("new") volunteers in NLdoet. Cramér's

	Sports associations (n = 1,026)		Service delivery organizations (n = 4,123)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Internal volunteers	2.08*	0.88	1.42*	0.97
External volunteers	1.02*	0.83	1.72*	1.11

∗ The difference between the mean values of sports associations and service delivery organizations for each of the variables is significant at the p<.05 level (ANOVA).

	Sports associations (%)	Service delivery organizations (%)
Own/internal volunteers		
None	1.5	12.9*
1-5	26.1	50.6*
6-10	39.0*	21.1
11-25	30.1*	13.0
26-50	2.8	2.0
More than 50	0.5	0.5
New/external volunteers		
None	25.4*	12.4
1-5	53.4*	35.0
6-10	15.8	27.0*
11-25	4.5	20.7*
26-50	0.6	3.8*
More than 50	0.3	1.1*

*The difference in percentages is statistically significant at p<.05 or less ($\chi 2$ test).

Results are based on two-sided tests with significance level .05. For each significant pair, the key of the category with the smaller column proportion appears under the category with the larger proportion.

a. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost sub-table using the Bonferroni correction.

Table 3.3: Comparison of internal and external volunteers participating in the National Day of Service.
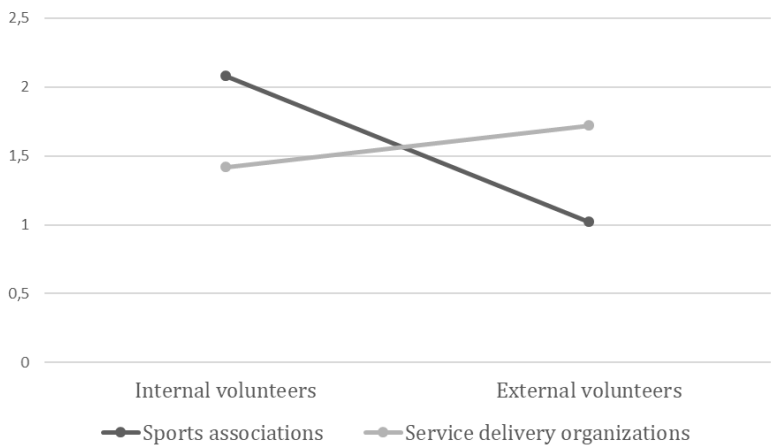
Figure 3.2: Comparison of internal and external volunteer means by type of nonprofit organization

V indicates that the strength of the association is substantial (.263). Compared to service delivery organizations, sports associations were significantly more likely to enlist external volunteers in the lower ranges of 1 to 5 new volunteers (53.4% versus 35.0%) or no new volunteers (25.4% compared to 12.4%). Correspondingly, service delivery organizations were significantly more likely than sports associations to enlist external volunteers in the higher ranges of 6 to 10 volunteers (27.0% versus 15.8%), 11 to 25 volunteers (20.7% compared to 4.5%), 26 to 50 volunteers (3.8% versus 0.6%), and more than 50 (1.1% compared to 0.3%). As supported by the data in Table 3.3 and Figure 3.2, we again reject the null hypothesis and accept (the alternative) hypothesis 1b with respect to external volunteers.

To test hypothesis 2 we conducted various chi-square tests for statistical independence to assess whether a relationship exists between the type of nonprofit organization and the recruitment method used to recruit volunteers for NLdoet. The results for 2014 and 2015, for which we have consistent data, appear in Table 3.4 and Figure 3.3.

As we had hypothesized, the findings show that sports associations differed significantly from service delivery organizations in their volunteer recruitment methods for NLdoet. Sports associations more frequently sent out a mailing to recruit volunteers for NLdoet ($\chi2$=74.661, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.118). About one-third (32.2%) of the sports associations recruited volunteers by sending out a mailing; nearly 10% fewer of the service delivery organizations did so (19.8%). Sports associations were significantly more likely than the service delivery organizations to approach their

	Sports associations (%) (n = 1,030)	Service delivery organizations (%) (n = 4,293)
Recruitment methods used		
Sent out a mailing	32.3***	19.8
Contacted businesses and schools	16.0	15.4
Approached own contacts	39.1***	32.5
Via Social Media	27.1***	20.1
Hung banners	23.6***	17.1
Approached local media	9.1	10.8
A local volunteer center recruited volunteers	3.6	6.8***
Approached local VIPs	0.7	2.3***
Other	5.7	14.0***
Did not take any action	4.0	7.4***

* p<.05 **p<.01 *** p<.001

a. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost sub-table using the Bonferroni correction.

Because multiple responses were possible, and responses are recoded in binary variables (yes/no) with a separate chi-square for each method, the percentages shown in the table do not sum to 100.0%.

Table 3.4: Comparison of the methods to recruit volunteers in National Days of Service

own contacts (χ2=16.451, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.056), 39.1% compared to 32.5%. Sports associations and service delivery organizations also significantly differed in the use of social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and so forth) to recruit volunteers for NLdoet (χ2=24.404, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.068); 27.1% of sports associations, versus 20.1% of service delivery organizations. Moreover, sports associations were significantly more likely than service delivery organizations to hang banners (χ2=10.362, 1 d.f., p=.001; Cramér's V =.045); 14.9% versus 11.3% of service delivery organizations.

By contrast, service delivery organizations more frequently reported recruiting volunteers by approaching a local volunteer center (χ2=14.757, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.053). 6.8% of the service delivery organizations approached local volunteer centers, compared to 3.6% of the sports associations. Service delivery organizations used local VIPs to recruit volunteers for NLdoet more frequently (χ2=11.478, 1 d.f., p<.001;
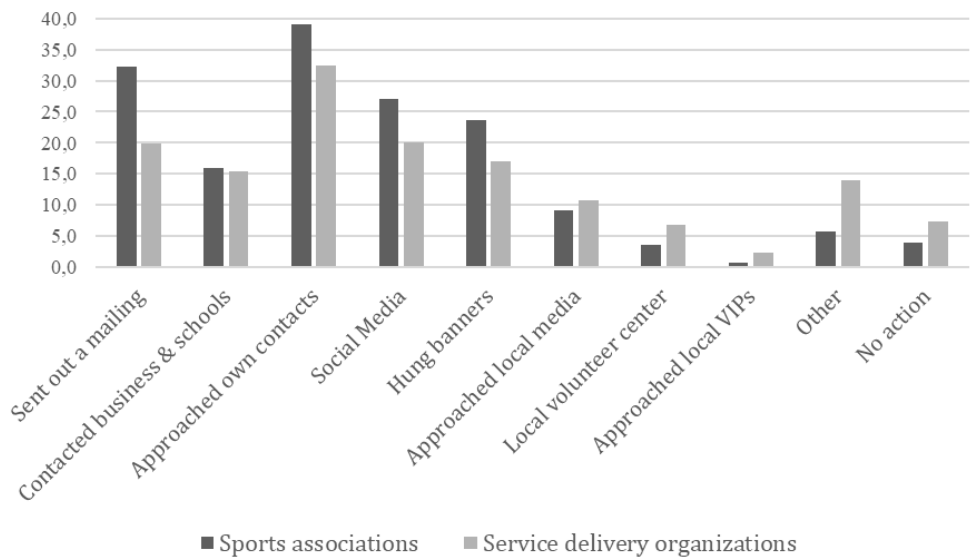
Figure 3.3: Recruitment methods for National Days of Service by type of nonprofit organization (%)

Cramér's V =.046); 2.3% of service delivery organizations versus 0.7% of sports associations.

Furthermore, service delivery organizations were significantly more likely to use other recruitment methods ($\chi 2$=52.551, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.099); 14.0% of service delivery organizations compared to 5.7% of sports associations. Service delivery organizations differed in "not taking any action," i.e., not recruiting except for registering the National Day of Service project on the NLdoet website ($\chi 2$=15.510, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.054); 7.4% of service delivery organizations compared to 4.0% of sports associations. There were no significant differences between sports associations and service delivery organizations in approaching businesses and schools or in approaching the local media.

These findings suggest that sports associations have a membership list consisting of members whom they can readily invite to a National Days of Service; have contacts to invite; have a location where members can see their banners; and have members following their social media posts. By contrast, service delivery organizations may have no specific idea regarding who to invite and rely more on volunteer centers and local VIPs. Furthermore, service delivery organizations are more likely not to take any further action to recruit Day of Service volunteers other than registering the Day of Service project on the NLdoet website. Nevertheless, we acknowledge

that the strength of the associations between the type of nonprofit organization and recruitment methods used are relatively small (Cramér's V ranging between .007 and .118), with the strongest association between type of nonprofit organization and sending out recruitment materials through a mailing list.

We conclude that sports associations use different recruitment methods than service delivery organizations that are in line with their membership nature, and, therefore, we accept hypothesis 2. To a large extent the recruitment methods used by sports associations in NLdoet are more internally-oriented, as their primary methods for recruiting Day of Service volunteers encompass sending out a mailing, approaching their own contacts, hanging banners at their own venues, and social media. These all reach primarily their own members and constituency. By contrast, service delivery organizations use more externally-oriented recruitment methods, for example, approaching local VIPs and working with a local volunteer center.

To test hypothesis 3 that sports associations and service delivery organizations obtain different benefits or results from National Days of Service, we again performed a chi-square test for each result. Table 3.5 and Figure 3.4 present the findings.

	Sports associations (%) (n = 1,030)	Service delivery organizations (%) (n = 4,293)
Obtained results or benefits		
Improved location or environment	68.3***	51.9
Sociable and nice day	66.2	76.8***
Publicity and notoriety	30.2	43.5***
New network or better contacts	9.5	22.7***
New volunteers/members	30.1	30.5
Sponsorships from local businesses	7.3	9.4*
Received visits from local mayor, alderman or other VIPs	6.9	11.0***
Other	5.3	5.8
Nothing	4.6	3.9

* p<.05 **p<.01 *** p<.001

a. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost sub-table using the Bonferroni correction.

Because multiple responses were possible, and responses are recoded in binary variables (yes/no) with a separate chi-square for each method, the percentages shown in the table do not sum to 100.0%.

Table 3.5: Comparison of the achieved results or benefits in National Days of Service
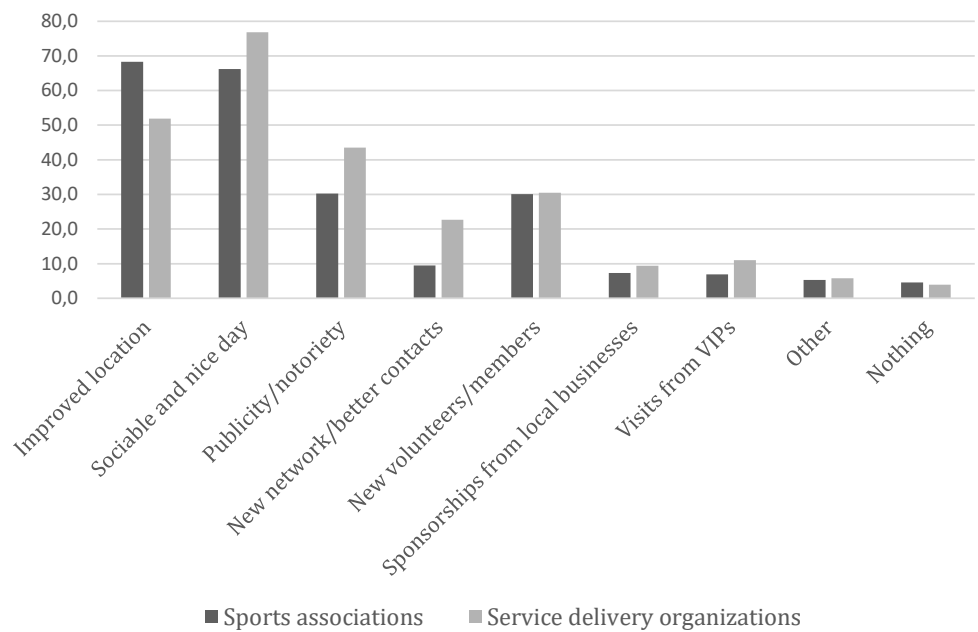
Figure 3.4: Results achieved within National Day of Service by type of nonprofit organization (%)

The findings show that sports associations achieved significantly different benefits from NLdoet than the service delivery organizations. Sports associations were more likely than service delivery organizations to report that they obtained an improved location or environment ($\chi2$=89.541, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.130); 68.3% of sports associations versus 51.9% of service delivery organizations. By contrast, service delivery organizations more frequently indicated that they achieved a sociable day ($\chi2$=48.762, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.096), a new network or better contacts ($\chi2$=90.144, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.130), and publicity or notoriety ($\chi2$=60.943, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.107). About three-fourths (76.8%) of the service delivery organizations versus 66.2% of the sports associations reported achieving a sociable and nice day; 22.7% of service delivery organizations obtained a new network or better contacts compared to only 9.5% of sports associations; 43.5% of service delivery organizations received publicity or notoriety, compared to 30.2% of the sports associations. Moreover, service delivery organizations more frequently indicated receiving visits from VIPs ($\chi2$=15.106, 1 d.f., p<.001; Cramér's V =.053); 11.0% of service delivery organizations versus 6.9% of sports associations. Service delivery organizations were also more likely to receive sponsorships from local businesses ($\chi2$=4.619, 1 d.f.,

p=.030; Cramér's V =.030), 9.4% of service delivery organizations versus 7.3% of sports associations. No significant differences were found between sports associations and service delivery organizations in obtaining new volunteers, "other" results or benefits, or "nothing".

These findings support hypothesis 3 that sports associations achieved different results or benefits compared to service delivery organizations in National Days of Service. Nevertheless, Cramér's V indicates that the associations are relatively weak (Cramér's V ranging from .012 to .135), with the strongest relationships between type of nonprofit organization and improved location and a new network. Service delivery organizations were, however, more likely to achieve benefits with a wider and broader reach, i.e., more publicity and notoriety, new network or better contacts, visits by VIPs, and sponsorships from local companies. By contrast, sports associations achieved benefits with a more narrow reach, such as an improved location or environment.

3.5   Discussion

This study aims to fill a notable research gap on National Days of Service (Christensen et al., 2005). Research on episodic volunteering more broadly, predominantly focuses on the volunteers themselves, especially their demographics (Hustinx et al., 2008; Pauline and Pauline, 2009), commitment and motivations (Dunn et al., 2016), retention (Bryen and Madden, 2006; Hyde et al., 2014), and effects on Day of Service volunteers (Christensen et al., 2005). Less-well researched is the organizational side of National Days of Service, which we explore here.

Despite the prevalence of associations (Smith, 1997; Tschirhart and Gazley, 2014), scant literature addresses volunteering in membership organizations (Gazley, 2013; Mook et al., 2007). Sports associations constitute a growing field of research with emphasis on organizational characteristics, resources, functioning (including change, control, strategy, decision-making, leadership) (Byers, 2009), and membership (Ibsen et al., 2019; Weimar et al., 2015). Our study sheds lights on the functioning of National Days of Service in sports associations, justified by the growing global popularity of these and similar one-off events (Christensen et al., 2005; Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). As National Days of Service adhere to a service delivery approach in terms of volunteer recruitment, we examine the tensions between National Days of Service and the membership traditions underlying (European) sports associations.

Our study provides evidence that sports associations, as membership and mutual support organizations, conform to their inherent nature in National Days of Service.

Findings indicate that sports associations enlisted more internal and fewer external volunteers compared to service delivery organizations; used more internally-oriented recruitment methods; and achieved different results in NLdoet. An explanation of the differences in types of Day of Service volunteers and their recruitment methods can be found in sports associations' membership-base and -purpose. Correspondingly, through using more internally-oriented recruitment methods, more internal volunteers and fewer external volunteers, the benefits achieved by the sports associations with NLdoet evinced a more narrow reach or internal scope. By contrast, as service delivery organizations use more externally-oriented recruitment methods and recruit more external volunteers and fewer internal volunteers, the benefits they achieved with NLdoet had a broader, outside reach.

Our results provide new context for understanding short-term or temporary episodic volunteering, and in particular for National Days of Service. Classically, short-term or temporary episodic volunteers do not return to and are not otherwise engaged by the same organization (Danson, 2003; Macduff, 2004). Yet, we show that this description does not hold in all situations, as sports associations enlist their own volunteers (and members) as volunteers in National Days of Service. Their Day of Service volunteers assisted their organization before NLdoet and will likely continue afterward. Thus, a distinction needs to be made between "short-term or temporary episodic volunteers" and "short-term or temporary episodic volunteering". One can engage in temporary episodic volunteering (e.g., a National Day of Service) yet not qualify as a temporary episodic volunteer.

The study adds to the scant research on National Days of Service from an organizational perspective. Sports associations and service delivery organizations practice National Days of Service differently in terms of volunteer recruitment methods, Day of Service volunteers recruited, and results achieved. As a product of their inherent nature, these nonprofit organizations give their own twist on National Days of Service. As sports associations use significantly more of their "own" volunteers, National Days of Service seem to be more of an add-on service project from the perspective of the sports associations and their members.

Practical implications of our research suggest that sports associations do not routinely mimic National Days of Service examples from service delivery organizations. Nevertheless, if sports associations aim to attain results with a broader reach beyond the association's boundaries, they might incorporate the more externally-oriented recruitment methods used by the service delivery organizations, such as working with a volunteer center and local VIPs. Otherwise, their communication channels (e.g.,

social media, contacts, and mailing list) will likely reach only their own (pre-existing) volunteers, members, and constituencies. As National Days of Service provide an entry into continuous volunteering (see for example Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003)), sports associations might take advantage of National Days of Service to attract non-member volunteers. Because recent research indicates that recruitment and retention of volunteers for (large) sports associations has become problematic, and financial challenges have increased (Wicker and Breuer, 2013; Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018), this suggestion merits attention. Sports associations may need to consider searching beyond their associational boundaries to recruit non-members (Wicker et al., 2018; Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018).

Our study has several limitations. First, although significant differences are found between the type of nonprofit organization and recruitment methods (hypothesis 2) and the results obtained (hypothesis 3), the associations in our statistical analysis are relatively weak. Besides, our analysis does not include control variables that might influence the results (i.e., if nonprofit organizations have paid employees or rely solely on volunteers; number of times participated in National Days of Service events; type of activity offered in the National Day of Service). Second, findings might be particular to the Dutch context. The structure and role of sports associations in the Netherlands is similar to that in other northern European countries and Australia but differs from the U.K. and the U.S. (Deckers and Gratton, 1995; Hallmann and Fairley, 2018). Furthermore, what is perceived as volunteering can differ between contexts (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Meijs et al., 2003). For instance, in the U.S. and the U.K. individuals are more likely to perceive volunteering as unpaid labor, whereas individuals in the Netherlands more often view volunteering as active membership (Dekker, 2019). Second, we analyze survey results from nonprofit organizations that formally participated in NLdoet by registering their National Day of Service project on the NLdoet website. One might expect sports associations that only wish to attract (own) volunteers among their own membership to abstain from placing their National Day of Service project on the NLdoet website altogether. Thus, the results might be even stronger than demonstrated herein because NLdoet might well have captured the most outwardly-facing sports associations.

Although our findings suggest that sports associations seem to cleave to their membership-approach in National Days of Service, we cannot determine from our data whether their performance emanates from their unwillingness to adapt as a conscious choice - perhaps because they are hesitant to include non-members (Lam and Kuperus, 2007) - or if they are unable to adapt because they do not know

how. Sports associations may lack knowledge regarding how to recruit volunteers beyond their association boundaries; only a very small percentage employ volunteer administrators (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018). Thus, the question may be not whether sports associations (do) adapt, but rather can they adapt to practice National Days of Service in a different manner? We require qualitative research to examine whether sports associations (or other mutual support organizations) consciously make this decision, or whether their knowledge basis limits their ability to adapt.

Future research might also focus on National Days of Service within mutual support organizations more broadly, as our data emanate from sports associations as a foremost example of mutual support organizations. Given the extensive diversity of size, structure, and purpose of associations (Byers, 2009), we suggest that variations in the integration and utilization of National Days of Service across the sector are possible. Following Ibsen et al. (2019), however, we believe that although the study is limited to sports associations, the analysis is relevant to other mutual support or voluntary associations in general. Sports associations constitute a significant portion of the voluntary sector (Hallmann and Fairley, 2018) and have many characteristics common to other mutual support organizations and associations (see Ibsen et al. (2019)).

Another fruitful avenue for research is to examine National Days of Service in campaigning and other types of nonprofit organizations. We would expect to find a high level of (occasional) episodic volunteering in campaigning organizations because much of their activity is episodic in nature (for example, protests or demonstrations). Yet, campaigning organizations seem to have rather limited participation in National Days of Service. Perhaps these organizations, too, like the sports associations and service delivery organizations examined in this study, have a particular origin or legacy that affects their involvement in National Days of Service. The present inquiry provides a foundation for further research and understanding of this phenomenon from an organizational perspective.

Chapter 4

What For-profit Organizations Can('t) Gain with a Collective Corporate Foundation[1]

4.1 Introduction

Recent years witnessed a diversification of the "how" of corporate philanthropy. Over time, the landscape of corporate philanthropy grew increasingly more crowded, as more and more organizational forms and philanthropic practices came to populate the terrain and became part of the giving repertoire. Traditionally, for-profit organizations make direct grants to nonprofit recipients. The responsibility for corporate giving then resides with a company agent such as the CEO or a member of top management (Gautier and Pache, 2015), or philanthropic endeavors are carried out by a particular department that structures, unifies, and smoothens corporate giving (CSR-, public affairs-, or corporate communications department) (Altuntas and Turker, 2015; Husted, 2003). Nowadays, more and more for-profit organizations make voluntary donations through separate (outside) vehicles or entities. A frequently used entity are corporate foundations, also called company-sponsored or company foundations (Gautier and

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Pache, 2015; Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994). The corporation then indirectly gives to nonprofit organizations and uses a corporate foundation as an intermediary entity that grants final donations to nonprofit recipients.

The diversification of the how of corporate philanthropy enables us to make a distinction between in-house (direct) corporate giving and external or outsourced (indirect) corporate giving. In-house (direct) corporate giving entails organizing and managing corporate philanthropy by particular individuals or departments within the corporation. External, outsourced (indirect) corporate giving entails organizing and managing corporate philanthropy by legal separate entities such as corporate foundations (Rey-Garcia et al., 2012) or third-party providers such as intermediary organizations (Lee, 2015). In these instances, for-profit organizations organize and manage their corporate giving externally - outside firm boundaries at arm's lenght from the for-profit organization.

The distinction brings corporate giving back to a make-or-buy decision, as out-source decisions have their origin in the existence of make-or-buy alternatives. According to Greer et al. (1999), outsourcing refers to the performance of tasks - that otherwise would be performed in-house - by outside parties on a recurring basis. Following the definition on outsourcing by Turnbull (2002), I define outsourcing in the context of corporate philanthropy as placing responsibility for various elements of corporate philanthropy with legal separate entities and/or third party providers. Outsourcing is comparable to governmental contracting out, where governments can decide to delegate the delivery of services to private organizations, instead of delivering the services themselves (Ferris and Graddy, 1986).

Besides shaping, organizing, and managing corporate giving individually, for-profit organizations can go down a collaborative path with like-minded organizations and combine their corporate philanthropy. One could expect for-profit organizations to even have a more fundamental impact on societal issues when opting collective giving strategies, as one can argue collective business efforts have comparative advantages over individual efforts in various areas (i.e., pooling resources, ruling out any suspicion on individual gains, reaching scale and critical mass, demonstrating common commitment) (e.g., Fourie and Eloff (2005)). Porter and Kramer (2002, p.11) state that "corporate philanthropy is ripe for collective activity," as "collective action will often be more effective than a solo effort in addressing context and enhancing the value created" (Porter and Kramer, 2002, p.16). Marquis et al. (2017, p.3) state that, in China, a change is visible in the attitudes of entrepreneurs towards (corporate) philanthropy. These new attitudes oftentimes express a "collective ethos". Chinese entrepreneurs

no longer create individual philanthropic projects or foundations, but search for like-minded individuals or organizations to collaborate on joint projects. Marquis et al. (2017) refer to this trend as a shift towards "collective charity". Table 4.1 depicts the various channels available to for-profit organizations to practice corporate philanthropy. We can make a distinction between direct and indirect channels, as well as individual (involving a single for-profit organization) and collective (involving multiple for-profit organizations) giving.

	Individual giving	**Collective giving**
Direct (internal, within firm boundaries)	CEO / department	(-)
Indirect (external, outside firm boundaries)	Corporate foundation	Collective charity, including multiple donor foundations

Table 4.1: Available options for for-profit organizations to practice corporate philanthropy

Corporate foundations and other corporate philanthropic entities are increasingly promoting and adapting collective giving strategies. For instance, corporate foundations serving the interests of multiple corporate donors simultaneously, came to populate the corporate philanthropic landscape. Within the study, I focus on these corporate foundations serving multiple corporate donors and label them as "collective corporate foundations". Collective corporate foundations are thereby an example of an outsourced (external) collective corporate giving channel.

4.1.1 Study Purpose and Case Context

The research question in the study is: What are the rationales and consequences of outsourcing corporate philanthropy to a collective corporate foundation? Hereby, I dive into the rationales that guide corporate decision makers in the make-or-buy decision of corporate giving, as well as the decision between individual or collective giving strategies. Furthermore, I wonder what the implications are of a for-profit

organization's choice when deciding to indirectly donate to nonprofit organizations through a collective separate entity.[2]

The study finds two rationales guiding corporate decision makers facing the make-or-buy decision of corporate philanthropy and opting for external collective giving practices: (1) the amount of available resources and (2) the need for efficiency. These rationales relate to a strategic management and an economic view on outsourcing. The strategic management view follows a resource-based view on the firm and the resource dependency theory. The economic view on outsourcing entails transaction cost economics and agency theory (Lee et al., 2000). Second, the study identifies three main consequences of outsourcing corporate philanthropy to a collective corporate foundation: (1) a loss of control, (2) a loss of involvement, and (3) fewer individual organizational benefits.

I find these rationales and consequences by means of a single instrumental case study (Stake, 1995), concerning a collective corporate foundation located in the port of Rotterdam, the Netherlands. Established by an industry association, the DeltaPORT Donation Foundation (in Dutch: *DeltaPORT Donatiefonds*) finds its origin in 1974.[3] The foundation embodies a corporate foundation for the port's industry and has the goal to give something back to the local community and to compensate for the industry's hindrance. The foundation provides small monetary donations to nonprofit organizations located in 17 municipalities surrounding the port active in sports, culture, and well-being. The foundation constitutes a entity for for-profit organizations to engage in and shape (collective) corporate giving. Currently 82 for-profit organizations contribute to the foundation (i.e., donor organizations). Donations constitute a fixed amount based on the number of employees ($13 per employee) or an amount agreed upon with the founding industry association. The foundation's operating budget ($400.000) comes from two main sources: (1) donor organizations (55%), and (2) the foundations official partner (45%) (DeltaPORT Donatiefonds, 2016).[4] Some representatives of donor organizations also serve as board members of the foundation as representatives of the industry. Where a corporate foundation generally has a single corporate donor, this foundation has multiple. Thereby the foundation serves multiple corporate donor interests simultaneously.

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[2]Within this study, "for-profit organizations" are personified as the term is used as if for-profit organizations undertake actions themselves. Nevertheless, I acknowledge that for-profit organizations operate through people.

[3]Deltalinqs is the port's industry association and commits itself to represent the joint interests of industrial for-profit organizations in the port of Rotterdam.

[4]In 2007, Deltalinqs approached the Port of Rotterdam Authority to become a partner of the foundation. The Port of Rotterdam Authority is a publicly owned but corporatized port-development company.

Given its structure, functioning, and multiple served donor interests, the foundation provides a collective voice and vehicle for corporate philanthropy.

4.1.2 Collective Corporate Foundations

The boundary of what is considered a corporate foundation is blurry and can be disputed. Within the limited literature on corporate foundations there is no single accepted definition (Rey-Garcia et al., 2012). There are a few characteristics differentiating corporate foundations from other types of foundations. First, corporate foundations are separate legal entities and are often founded by a for-profit organization whose name is frequently part of the foundation's name. Second, a corporate foundation obtains the majority of its operating income and other resources from a (founding) for-profit organization's generosity. Third, the foundation's board often includes owners, directors, or top managers from the founding for-profit organization (Rey-Garcia et al., 2012; Roza et al., 2019). Following a more subjective definition, the foundation should self-identify as a corporate foundation (see also the characteristic of a family foundation from Moody et al. (2011)). Although not founded by a for-profit corporation, DeltaPORT Donation Foundation fulfils most of the differentiating characteristics (i.e., operating income, board composition). In this case, self-identification is an important aspect with respect to the DeltaPORT Donation Foundation, as the foundation is depicted as a corporate foundation for the port's industry. The foundation differs from a community foundation, as the foundation is not accessible to every (corporate) donor. Only for-profit organizations located in the port area, and member of the founding industry association, can make donations.

Collective corporate foundations are a relatively emerging phenomenon. Similar initiatives are foundations established or supported by the collective efforts of multiple for-profit organizations, serving multiple donor interests simultaneously. Although still in its infancy, existing examples are found globally and arise from specific industry clusters or industry associations. The Toy Industry Foundation, for instance, constitutes the focal point for the philanthropic efforts of the North American toy industry, where for-profit organizations can accomplish philanthropic goals by donating funds (Toy Association, nd; Toy Industry Foundation, nd). Another example of a collective corporate foundation is the Industrial Fabrics Foundation in the U.S., as this foundation constitutes "the philanthropic voice of the specialty fabrics industry for nearly 20 years" (Industry Fabrics Foundation, nd). Another example is the SBF Foundation established by the Singapore Business Federation. "The SBF Foundation is a collective foundation of the business community, serving the needs of the local community" in

Singapore (SBF Foundation, 2015, p.1). Marquis et al. (2017) furthermore indicate that there are many examples of collective philanthropy in China.

The potential to collectively fund or found a separate collective (corporate) foundation is tremendous. For instance, both small or large for-profit organizations and industry clusters could go down a collaborative path in their corporate philanthropy.[5] Business clusters such as Silicon Valley or small-scale clusters could give a collective voice to their corporate giving. For instance, small-scale retailer associations could engage in collective giving by setting up a collective corporate foundation for retailers in a specific region.

4.1.3   Contributions

The bulk of current corporate philanthropy literature deals with various facets of direct corporate giving for individual corporations (e.g., motivations, determinants, processes, outcomes) (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015). Moreover, scant research examines the rationales behind establishing a corporate foundation (Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994). Academics, hitherto, ignore when and why for-profit organizations engage in indirect, collective giving strategies and use collective initiatives as a vehicle to practice corporate giving. In doing so, academics insufficiently articulated what differs indirect giving from direct giving, as well as individual versus collective corporate giving strategies. Hereby, scholars also ignore the consequences of the various corporate giving channels resulting from these practices. The inductive study intends to overcome this lacuna by providing exploratory insights on the above topics. The novelty of the study lies in the effort to conceptualize corporate giving as a make-or-buy decision and as an individual or collective corporate giving decision. As such, the chapter aspires to make a contribution to the corporate philanthropy literature by examining the rationales and consequences related to the make-or-buy decision as well the individual or collective decision of corporate giving. Understanding collective corporate philanthropy is important as it provides a new model for entrepreneurs and for-profit organizations all around the world, according to Marquis et al. (2017). Moreover, an enhanced understanding helps corporate decision makers to identify where they should focus their philanthropic endeavors and guides them in the decision between in-house or outsourced giving channels as well as individual versus collective giving strategies. Meanwhile, findings assist collective corporate foundations to enhance the quality of its operations. This in return helps

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[5]A business or industry cluster is a geographic concentration of interconnected businesses, suppliers, or institutions in a particular region or field (Porter, 2000).

these foundations to attract more funding from for-profit organizations outsourcing corporate philanthropy to collective entities. Likewise, the findings apply to other multiple donor foundations (e.g., community foundations) or collective initiatives (e.g., giving circles), as the rationales and consequences for (corporate) donors might be comparable.

4.2   Data and Methodology

4.2.1   Data Collection

As I focus on a case to illustrate the topic of interest, the study entails a single instrumental case study (Stake, 1995). I build an in-depth, contextual understanding of the case relaying on multiple data sources (Yin, 2003). Primary data were gathered from a sample of (former) donor organizations, the founding industry association and partner organization, and (former) board members of the corporate collective foundation. Furthermore, for-profit organizations able to donate to the foundation, but who rather keep their corporate giving in-house or individually were also selected (non-donor organizations). The CEO of Deltalinqs formally consented with the research. The researcher in cooperation with the CEO purposefully selected the final sample. The sample included individuals available and willing to participate and experienced with the phenomenon of interest (Creswell and Clark, 2011). Six telephone interviews and 13 face-to-face interviews at the interviewee's place of work gathered the primary data. All 19 interviews were semi-structured, meaning that a list of high-level themes and key questions as a checklist was composed beforehand. Key themes included the rationales or motivations for various channels for corporate giving, differences between various channels, as well as advantages and disadvantages in respect to one another. The intent was to come to a real conversation with the interviewee, allow deviations, and explore issues that were not thought about prior to the interview. Questions were continuously adapted in accordance with the role of the interviewee. Nineteen respondents were formally interviewed for the current study, including three current and two former board members, three and two representatives of the founding industry association and the partner organization, and four, three, and one corporate decision-maker(s) within donor organizations, former donor organizations, and non-donor organizations. All corporate decision-makers were responsible for corporate philanthropy within their organization. All corporate interviewees held positions as CEO, middle manager (i.e., corporate communication, external affairs, or public affairs manager), or management assistant. Three board members of DeltaPORT Donation

Foundation served as community representatives and held positions as mayor or public relations expert. I include several stakeholders to capture a holistic view with regard to the subject of analysis, whereas the triangulated use of multiple interviews ensured greater trustworthiness of the data. Interviews took place in April and May 2017 and ranged in length between 30 and 70 minutes. Interviews amounted to a total of over 14 hours. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim, which formed the input for the data analysis. Interview transcripts amounted to 369 pages of raw data.

Additionally, I gathered publicly available information via websites and CSR reports from donor organizations. Documentary evidence was used to understand the context of the case study, permitting more perceptive exchanges with interviewees, and support findings from primary data.

4.2.2   Data Analysis

Data analysis followed a strategy of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis offers an accessible and theoretically flexible approach for analyzing qualitative data that searches for themes and patterns (Braun and Clarke, 2006). As this study explores rationales, a realist/essentialist paradigm was taken, in order to enable the researcher to report experiences, meanings, and the reality of the interviewees (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Using an inductive approach, the themes identified are data-driven and are strongly linked to the data itself. Furthermore, the researcher used semantic themes. With a semantic approach, "the themes are identified within the explicit or surface meaning of the data and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.13). The analysis included reading transcripts completely through to get a sense of the entire data set. This was followed by re-reading and coding segments, re-coding, and grouping codes into broad clusters of similar topics or nodes, primarily around the research question.

4.3   Results

We seek to explore the rationales and consequences of a for-profit organization's choice to practice corporate philanthropy through a collective corporate foundation. Table 4.2 presents a description of the five primary themes with illustrative quotes. Each interviewee has a unique label referring to the type or organizational position of the interviewee and an alphabetic letter assigned to the interviewee within each group.

Theme	Description	Exemplary Quotes
Amount of available resources (Rationale)	The amount of available corporate resources to practice corporate philanthropy is limited as corporate giving often constitutes a peripheral activity. A collective corporate foundation enables for-profit organizations, both SMEs as well as MNEs, to practice corporate giving in a low-threshold manner.	"Imagine [for-profit organization X] is setting up their own foundation, then [for-profit organization Y] will set one up too, and [for-profit organization Z] will do the same (...) Nonetheless, there are only a few large for-profit organizations who can actually make that happen. A few who have the manpower, the knowledge, and the capital to do so" (Partner organization, representative B).
Efficiency (Rationale)	The collective corporate foundation enables for-profit organizations to receive a high social return for philanthropic endeavours by making a relative small investment of resources	"You can do things that for-profit organizations cannot do on an individual basis. Both financially, as organizationally" (CEO donor organization B).
Loss of control (Consequence)	When donating to a collective corporate foundation, a for-profit organization is giving the foundation control over its philanthropic endeavours and activities, unless one takes an active (board)role within the foundation.	"So yes, in the end you do not exactly know where you donate to, but you assume that that happens in good faith by [the foundation]" (CEO donor organization D).

Loss of involvement (Consequence)	Indirect corporate philanthropy places corporate giving at arm's length from the for-profit organization compared to direct corporate philanthropy. When for-profit organizations do not take an active role within the collective corporate foundation, the for-profit organization is uninvolved in policy or decision making, and seems to a lesser extent engaged and committed towards the philanthropic endeavours.	"Certainly in times when things are rough for-profit organizations often say: 'Well, not right now' when approached by the collective initiative. The decision to stop is easily and perhaps more likely made, when corporate giving takes places on a distance, compared to when you are participating in it, and when you are very actively involved" (Partner organization, representative C).
Fewer individual organizational benefits (Consequence)	With a collective corporate foundation serving multiple corporate donors simultaneously, individual for-profit organizations are unlikely to receive individual organizational benefits from the philanthropic endeavours, unless the partnership with the foundation is properly communicated.	"In the moment you are giving directly, it is much clearer. Then the funds are directly from us [for-profit organization B] to the nonprofit initiative" (CEO donor organization B). "The direct visibility, however, is less, because those nonprofit organizations who make a request to the foundation might not make a direct association with [for-profit organization B]" (CEO donor organization B)

Table 4.2: Illustrative comments supporting case findings

Amount of available resources. An important consideration for outsourcing corporate philanthropy via a collective corporate foundation is the amount of corporate resources for-profit organizations have available for corporate giving. For-profit organizations receive many requests for donations on a weekly or even daily basis. Small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) often lack the capacity in terms of

personnel, time, and money to handle those requests. An interviewee attests:

> "There are many small for-profit organizations in the port that are not
> small in the amount of work or transshipment they do, but organizationally
> small (...) These for-profit organizations do not have the ability to engage
> in extensive interaction with the local environment or whatever. For those
> for-profit organizations [this foundation] poses a solution" (Board member
> B).

The same rationale applies to subsidiaries or local branches of multinational
enterprises (MNEs). Subsidiaries located in the port are operational subsidiaries with
limited budgets and resources to engage in peripheral activities such as corporate
giving (Founding industry association, representative C). The headquarters of MNEs
often take on the peripheral activities, and subsidiaries in host countries are more
focused on performing only the core activities. The collective corporate foundation
then becomes a vehicle enabling subsidiaries to shape and engage in local corporate
philanthropy in a low-threshold manner.

> "Local management is limited in terms of policy development, commu-
> nication, and stakeholder management. These for-profit organizations are
> focused on their core activities. So they do the operations, a bit of risk
> management and safety management. But they do not possess the CSR
> managers" (Partner organization, representative B).

In this way, outsourcing philanthropic endeavors to an outside entity enables
SMEs and local subsidiaries of MNEs to give. When outsourcing corporate giving
to the foundation, donor organizations can refer incoming donor requests to the
foundation. The foundation thereby presents a vehicle to channel donation requests
(Board member C). It goes, however, beyond the sole matter of handling requests:

> "If you organize it individually, you have to spend a lot more time on
> it. You have to account for [corporate giving], you have to set up your own
> policy: When do you grant a request and when do you reject one? You take
> care of the entire implementation that, in the end, also has to be controlled"
> (Board member E).

For-profit organizations oftentimes unaware of community needs and issues, are said to be unable to make adequate decisions regarding donation requests (Partner organization, representative A). When a for-profit organizations decides to organize corporate philanthropy internally, there is a need to open up continuous dialogues with the local community in order to make well-informed decisions (CEO former donor organization C). If for-profit organizations shun this dialogue, the for-profit organization may end up supporting pet causes of a company agent (Founding industry association, representative B). Engaging in such a dialogue, however, is a time-consuming activity with high participation or opportunity costs of organizational time. The collective corporate foundation has the capacity to adequately take care of donor requests, due to its board composition. With its community representatives, the foundation has all associated knowledge to make well-informed and adequate decisions (CEO donor organization A). As there is a need for specialized expertise, there sometimes seems to be a need for outsourcing. In this way it is rational to outsource corporate giving, given that someone else can perform the activity better.

Interviewees moreover explain that especially subsidiaries of MNEs need to invest significant resources to establish relationships with the local community to become knowledgeable about community needs. This is due to their international workforce and their distance to the local community. Local community relationships, however, require an investment of resources that subsidiaries often lack for peripheral activities (Partner organization, representative B). Outsourcing corporate philanthropy by means of a collective corporate foundation allows the subsidiary to buy itself into the local community.

> "The port also has large international for-profit organizations, whereby their headquarters are located in the United States. These for-profit organizations don't know the local community that well. Also the personnel is becoming more and more international within these for-profit organizations. So by becoming part of [the foundation], I think it enables for-profit organizations to maintain that local feeling" (Partner organization, representative C).

It is unrealistic to assume that every for-profit organizations has the resources and capacity to organize philanthropy in-house or through an individual corporate foundation (Partner organization, representative B). Economic pressures force many for-profit organizations to consider outsourcing to external entities as an alternative for corporate giving. A collective corporate foundation enables for-profit organizations to

concentrate resources on core business activities where the organization has expertise and is likely to do best. The collective corporate foundation brings, above all, new funds to the philanthropic table and enables SMEs and subsidiaries of MNEs to give locally, when they are individually unable to organize corporate giving themselves due to their limited resources.

Efficiency. Efficiency is another critical construct for understanding the consideration to practice corporate giving internally or externally, and individually or collectively. External collective giving practices are a relatively small investment providing for-profit organizations with a high (social) return. The consideration for efficiency is found in at least three different ways.

First, shaping corporate giving by means of a collective corporate foundation enables donor organizations to redirect donation requests to the foundation. A collective corporate foundation then provides an efficient way for for-profit organizations to channel incoming requests. Two interviewees explain:

> "We often see that for-profit organizations say to individual nonprofit requests, 'Sorry, we organize our corporate giving in the context of [the foundation], so please go there to get your share', so it saves you a lot of small donation requests and work" (Board member A).

> "It entails also some efficiency for for-profit organizations, because these for-profit organizations do not have to take care of many donation requests. As a for-profit organization you receive many requests, and if you want to handle them neatly, you have to give them at least an answer (...) Thus, either way, someone in your organization is spending time on it" (Funding industry association, representative C).

Second, I find that by means of a collective corporate foundation, the donations of donor organizations result in a high (social) return for for-profit organizations from a philanthropic perspective. The collective corporate foundation pulls together a collection of philanthropic endeavors, meaning the total operating budget is accumulated. This enables the collective to meet nonprofit organizations requesting high monetary donations. These requests would be infeasible to meet with the funds individual corporations have available. An interviewee attests:

> "Social initiatives can also easier be supported and on a bigger scale being [the foundation]. Especially compared to what you are individually capable of as a for-profit organization. I mean, you sometimes see initiatives of which you say, 'I would like to contribute to that initiative', but as a small for-profit organization you cannot participate infinitely" (CEO donor organization B).

Additionally, given that the total operating budget is larger of collective corporate foundation, more donation requests are honoured and thereby more nonprofit organizations are (indirectly) reached by one for-profit organization. For instance, an individual for-profit organization via a collective corporate foundation can support the local football association, the local tennis club, the rotary club, the ice skating range, the card association, the local petting zoo, and so forth (CEO donor organization B; Founding industry association, representative B). The philanthropic endeavours of the collective corporate foundation result in more visibility for one's corporate philanthropy in the local community. The power of a for-profit organization's philanthropic endeavours is thus magnified; for-profit organizations gain a broader range of supported nonprofit organizations. Likewise, the foundation enables for-profit organizations to make donations year-round (Founding industry association, representative B), whereas individual for-profit organizations with limited budgets may run dry quickly.

Third, using a separate, external foundation to organize and shape corporate philanthropy allows for-profit organizations to mitigate risk and liabilities. External and indirect giving creates opportunities for for-profit organizations to shift the risk and uncertainty associated with corporate giving to a third-party. In this case, this entails the collective corporate foundation for instance. First, when a donation request is declined, it is never the for-profit organization rejecting the request. The foundation is the rejecting party, indicating that critique about the rejection is directed towards the collective corporate foundation in lieu of donor organizations (Founding industry association, representative C). Second, when a wrong decision is made the collective corporate foundation is held accountable.

Loss of control. For-profit organizations giving indirectly via a collective corporate foundation experience a loss of control, as they indicate they have less control over their philanthropic endeavours. Separate external entities create a principle-agent problem as donor organizations (principles) formally delegate the authority

of corporate philanthropy to the foundation or other entity (agent). For-profit orga-
nizations support the collective corporate foundation in good faith. They trust the
foundation's board to make decisions in line with the philanthropic interests of donor
organizations (CEO donor organization D). Additional agency costs may occur to
monitor and control the external entity. The loss of control creates the possibility
that donor organizations indirectly support nonprofit organizations that insufficiently
comply with the norms and values of the donor organizations. If insufficiently in line
with donor interests, for-profit organizations may decide to reorganize philanthropy
internally (Management assistant former donor organization B). Keeping one's corpo-
rate philanthropy internal enables for-profit organizations to keep full control over
their philanthropic endeavors and to shape and adjust corporate giving to the needs
and wants of the individual for-profit organization (CEO former donor organization C).

> "With [the foundation] you relinquish the choice of where you donate to
> towards the board. So thereby you make it indirect. By a direct choice you
> are the one making the decisions" (Founding industry association, represen-
> tative C).

A collective entity, however, does not always immediately indicates for-profit
organizations loose control over their corporate giving. For-profit organizations can
retain their control by taking an active role within the external entity. For instance,
by becoming a board member or an advisor. Nevertheless, it depends on the structure
and magnitude of the collective entity if donor organizations could obtain such an
active role. Furthermore, taking an active role will also require a larger investment of
organizational time or other resources.

Loss of involvement. Indirect collective corporate giving practices place cor-
porate giving at a distance or at arm's length of the for-profit organization. Hereby
for-profit organizations might seem to a lesser extent committed to the philanthropic ac-
tivities; especially compared with internal, individual corporate philanthropy practices.
When for-profit organizations need to cut costs external philanthropic endeavours are
one of the first things for-profit organizations will cease doing (Partner organization,
representative C).

Second, in this particular case study, for-profit organizations engage in a rather
passive way of corporate giving. Participation is often limited to the activity of simply
writing a check book - with the exception of some for-profit organizations acting as

industry representatives within the foundation's board. The lion's share of donor organizations thus practice their corporate giving by a rather passive activity instead of making their own policy and decisions. Using the collective corporate foundation may then be seen as an easy way of practicing corporate giving and as an easy way to deal with donation requests (Middle manager non-donor organization A). As donor organisations are to a lesser extent involved with the foundation and its activities, it limits the firm's feelings of ownership towards the foundation and its operations (Partner organization, representative C). Yet again, taking a more proactive role in a collective giving initiative can raise involvement and commitment levels among for-profit organizations, but also requires the devotion of more organizational resources.

Fewer individual organizational benefits. Using the collective corporate foundation to practice corporate giving places one's corporate philanthropy on a distance from the for-profit organization. An interviewee states:

> "When you organize corporate philanthropy via [the foundation] the link with our own for-profit organization is missing, compared with when you directly organize things yourself with the local community. That is the difference" (CEO donor organization B).

This indirectness affects the benefits derived from corporate giving by donor organizations. For-profit organizations receive more individual, organizational benefits from direct individual corporate giving programs compared with external and collective giving. Honoured donation requests made through a collective corporate foundation are made under the foundation's umbrella-name. Hereby, it is unlikely for donor organizations to receive individual benefits from their philanthropic endeavours as for-profit organizations are not individually mentioned by name. For-profit organizations then lack potential benefits such as differentiation from competitors, brand awareness or brand recognition. Due to nonprofit recipients and the community at large being largely unaware of the donor organizations supporting the foundation. Two interviewees clarify:

> "If something would be donated with a sign indicating: 'This piece of art is donated by [the foundation], I do not think a lot of people will visit Google on their computer and see what [the foundation] entails and which organizations support it, and think by themselves 'I am thankful to [for-

profit organization X] and I am thankful to [for-profit organization Y] for providing this to us" (Board member C).

"In the moment you give directly, it is much clearer. Then [corporate philanthropy] is directly from [for-profit organization] to the initiative" (CEO donor organization B).

From the case study, it seems that indirect collective giving endeavours are more invisible or hidden, compared with direct individual corporate giving. Collective corporate giving might be inappropriate if for-profit organizations desire to use corporate philanthropy to serve marketing-related purposes or as a means for differentiation. A direct and individual corporate giving program is far more beneficial in that perspective. On the other hand, when donor organizations are unable to receive individual benefits for their philanthropic endeavours, giving is perceived as more neutral and legitimate as a collective entity rules out the suspicion of individual gains. As indirect collective corporate giving is more hidden and invisible, for-profit organizations are not able to showcase corporate philanthropy to serve hidden agendas (Middle manager donor organization C).

Nevertheless, this consequence might be restricted to the particular case study, as donor organizations take a rather passive stance in communicating their donations to the collective corporate foundation towards external stakeholders. Documentary evidence shows that only three out of 82 donor organizations (3.6%) mention the collective corporate foundation on corporate websites or within CSR reports solely. Four donor organizations (4.9%) mention the foundation in conjunction with internal, individual giving programs. Twenty-two donor organizations (25.6%) only mention their own direct giving programs, whereas 54 donor organizations (65.9%) suppress their giving at all in their external communication (i.e., on websites and in CSR reports). One can argue that when donor organizations are much more communicative about their contribution to the collective corporate foundation, and actively communicate about the philanthropic endeavors of the collective, one could obtain publicity and differentiation. At least, the latter can be only obtained when competitors do not contribute to the same collective initiative.
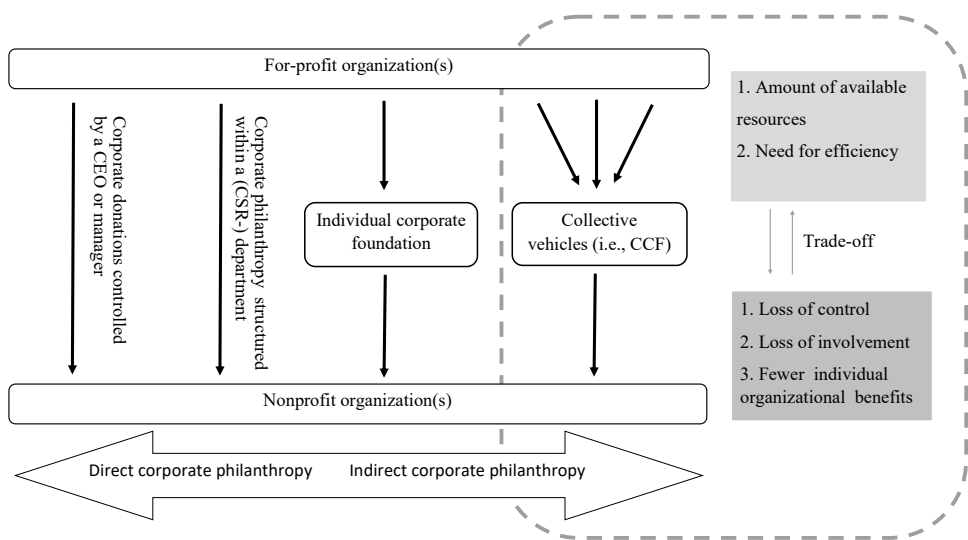
Figure 4.1: The various channels of corporate philanthropy

4.4   Discussion

A central theme within the study is to understand the factors that guide corporate decision makers in the make-or-buy (internal versus external) and individual or collective corporate giving decisions; to understand the underlying rationales and consequences of these decisions. Figure 4.1 vertically shows various channels of corporate philanthropy on a horizontal continuum, ranging from pure direct or in-house giving (within firm boundaries) to corporate giving via external channels outside firm boundaries. Figure 4.1 also illustrates the rationales (depicted in light grey) and consequences (depicted in dark grey) of indirect and collective corporate giving.

Based upon two rationales, corporate decision makers consider indirect collective giving such as a collective corporate foundation. First, it allows for-profit organizations to concentrate resources on core business activities. Second, it allows for-profit organizations to organize corporate giving as efficient as possible. For-profit organizations refer donation requests almost effortlessly to a knowledgeable third party that can perform the activity better; for-profit organizations collectively honour more and higher donations and do this year-round; it allows for-profit organizations to mitigate risks and liabilities to a third party. This is all based on the belief that a collective giving entity is an efficient way to engage in corporate giving. Especially for those for-profit organizations who cannot do so individually or internally due to the required

resources. With limited resources they can now gain exposure to a broad range of nonprofit organizations. The collective corporate foundation thus provides an effective service desired by corporate donors. In doing so, a collective corporate foundation for corporate giving is comparable to federations as vehicles for private giving (i.e., secular federations such as United Way or religiously grounded federations). Frumkin (2010, p.147) indicates that at the core of the federation giving model is "the argument that funds pooled together can have a greater impact and that the expert selection of recipient organizations can lead to greater community benefits." Using a collective corporate foundation to shape corporate giving is thus not a fad and provides certain corporate and community benefits. For instance, it enables the pooling of resources, rules out any suspicion on individual gains, reaches scale and critical mass, and demonstrates common commitment (Fourie and Eloff, 2005).

Case findings also provide insight into the consequences of a for-profit organization's decision to outsource corporate giving to a collective entity. First, corporate donors loose a certain amount of control regarding their philanthropic endeavours. Especially when they do not have an active role in the decision-making within that collective entity, and the collective entity will make its own decisions. Second, corporate donors are to a lesser extent involved with the collective corporate foundation and its activities. Third, a collective initiative serving multiple corporate donors is disadvantageous when for-profit organizations wish to use philanthropy to serve marketing-related purposes (i.e., to gain publicity) or as a means for differentiation. These are often elements that are normally seen as important factors to develop an individual corporate foundation or organize corporate giving within firm boundaries.

A trade-off, however, exists between the aforementioned rationales and boundaries. To overcome the first two consequences, and to become more involved and to retain more control, a larger investment of corporate resources is required - such as time or personnel - by taking a rather active role within the collective entity. Neverthe-less, the magnitude and structure of the collective initiative will influence to what extent donor organizations can take proactive roles. Lastly, the third consequence is surmountable by devoting sufficient resources to marketing, PR, or communications efforts to proactively communicate a donor's involvement within a collective initiative.

Theoretical Explanations

Outsourcing literature uses three major theoretical perspectives to explain the make-or-buy decision: a strategic management view, an economic view, and a social view

(Lee et al., 2000). The strategic management view adapts resource-based theories; the economic view focuses on the transaction cost approach; the social view focuses on the relationship between clients and service providers, and adapts power-political theories and social exchange theory.

The two rationales (i.e., the amount of available resources and efficiency) relate to the strategic management view and the economic view. Both views made valuable contributions to and influenced the study of outsourcing (McIvor, 2009; Ndubisi, 2011). First, the economic view entails transaction cost economics and agency theory. Transaction cost economics focus on why firms exist (Williamson, 1975). Transaction cost economics specify the conditions under which for-profit organizations should manage a function internally (i.e., within firm boundaries), and specify the conditions that suit external exchanges (i.e., outside firm boundaries). The outsource decision is brought back to the central question whether a transaction can be more efficiently performed internally or externally by a third party (Geyskens et al., 2006). Transaction costs relate to the level of uncertainty, the frequency of activities, and specificity (Williamson, 1981). If these increase, the transaction costs for outsourcing will also increase (e.g., operational costs and contracting costs). Based on transaction cost economics, for-profit organizations engage in make-or-buy decisions to minimize costs, and outsource an activity when external transaction costs are lower than the internal transaction costs (Ndubisi, 2011, p.110). External transaction costs include arranging costs, actual outsourcing cost, and monitoring and control costs (Shook et al., 2009).

Consider now the transaction costs associated with the various channels of corporate giving. External corporate giving (outside firms boundaries) via a collective corporate foundation entails relatively low external transaction costs (e.g., simply writing a check book, referring donation request, as well as minimal monitoring and control costs). The external transaction costs are significantly higher for an individual corporate foundation (e.g., setting up an entire foundation, own policies and strategies, decision-making, monitoring, building and managing community relationships, and so forth). Likewise, the internal transaction costs that exist when organizing corporate giving within firm boundaries are also higher (e.g., need for own policy making, decision-making, building and maintaining community relationships, implementation, and accountability). Outsourcing to a collective entity thus helps for-profit organizations to avoid high costs related to internal corporate giving programs or individual endeavours, and helps them to gain access to specialized expertise.

Agency theory (Jensen and Meckling, 1976) complements the economic view on outsourcing. Agency theory posits that when the principle delegates responsibility to

the agent, the principle should monitor the agent. A for-profit organization should outsource an activity when the agent is deemed more efficient and is trusted by the principle (see for a review Ndubisi (2011)). The collective corporate foundation is indeed found to perform corporate giving more efficient and is trusted by corporate donors to act on their (philanthropic) behalf.

A complementary view to understand the case findings, is a strategic management perspective. This perspective consists of resource-dependency theory and a resource-based view of the firm. From a resource-dependency perspective (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1981), for-profit organizations seek to acquire and maintain resources and control. In doing so, for-profit organizations seek to minimize dependency on others, while at the same time increase the dependency of others on the for-profit organization. In terms of outsourcing, for-profit organizations that lack the resources to perform an activity should seek relationships with other parties to obtain those resources (Ndubisi, 2011, p.110). The case study shows that for-profit organizations oftentimes opt for a collective giving entity when they lack the resources to organize corporate giving in-house or on an individual basis.

As transaction cost economics focus on why for-profit organizations exist, the resource-based view of the firm focuses on why for-profit organizations differ in performance. From the resource-based view, a for-profit organization is viewed as a collection of resources that can create competitive advantages (Peteraf, 1993); leading to the distinction between core and peripheral activities. From a resource-based view, findings inform for-profit organizations "not to outsource capabilities, functions or activities that create competitive advantage," (Ndubisi, 2011, p.110) - known as the core activities. A resource-based view argues that for-profit organizations should concentrate on their core business activities and exploit competencies based on their knowledge and expertise, rather than channel resources to peripheral activities, as this is more efficient (see for a review Carey et al. (2006)). Case findings show that SMEs as well as local subsidiaries of MNEs focus on their core activities. Corporate philanthropy is often seen as a peripheral activity, indicating that limited resources are channelled to corporate giving. Based on the case findings, the following propositions are offered :

> **P1.** Adhering to the logic of transaction cost economics, when external transaction costs are lower than the costs associated to perform corporate giving internally within firm boundaries or individually outside firm boundaries, the greater the likelihood corporate giving will be outsourced to a

collective separate entity outside firm boundaries.

P2. Adhering to the logic of agency theory, when another party is deemed more efficient and is deemed trustworthy, the greater the likelihood corporate giving will be outsourced to a collective separate entity outside firm boundaries.

P3. Adhering to the logic of a resource-based view, when corporate philanthropy is more seen as a peripheral activity, the greater the likelihood corporate giving will be outsourced to a collective separate entity outside firm boundaries.

P4. Adhering to the logic of resource-dependency theory, when for-profit organizations have limited resources available to organize corporate giving, the greater the likelihood corporate giving will be outsourced to a collective separate entity outside firm boundaries.

P5. Outsourcing corporate giving to a collective entity outside firm boundaries will lessen the for-profit organization's control over its corporate giving, unless an active role within the entity is taken.

P6. Outsourcing corporate giving to a collective entity outside firm boundaries will lessen a for-profit organization's involvement with its corporate giving, unless an active role within the entity is taken.

P7. Outsourcing corporate giving to a collective entity will result in fewer individual organizational benefits (e.g., strategic and marketing related benefits), unless the connection between the two entities is well communicated to (external) stakeholders.

Practical Implications

"The essence of strategic giving" (Frumkin, 2010) describes two key dimensions influencing an individual's giving style. First, the level of one's engagement or involvement, and secondly one's desired public profile. Case findings indicate that these key dimensions also apply to the context of corporate giving, but should be supplemented

with two other key dimensions. I argue that four key dimensions influence corporate decision making to decide on the channel to practice corporate philanthropy: (1) corporate philanthropy being a core or peripheral activity; (2) the amount of resources available or the need for efficiency; (3) the level of desired control and involvement; (4) the desired public profile in using corporate giving as a marketing or differentiation devise. Corporate decision makers should thus consider to what extent corporate giving is a peripheral or core activity; how much resources they can and want to devote; how much control and engagement they want in their giving; what kind of public profile and how much public exposure and visibility they desire with their philanthropic behavior. In accordance with Frumkin (2010), I argue these choices are often shaped by the motives that underlie corporate giving.

First, I recommend corporate decision makers to consider the role of corporate philanthropy within their organization. Does corporate giving constitutes a core or peripheral activity? With corporate giving as a core activity, a for-profit organization wants to excel in its giving, and take a competitive advantage with its philanthropic endeavours. Being a core activity, corporate philanthropy should be kept within firms boundaries or entail individual (internal or external) practices. Enough resources should be made available to organize corporate giving adequately. With corporate giving as a peripheral activity, corporate giving is neither critical nor something the for-profit organization wants to take a competitive advantage of, indicating that corporate philanthropy can be outsourced to external (collective) entities. Second, I recommend corporate decision makers with limited resources for corporate giving and those who wish to organize corporate giving efficiently to consider to outsource its giving to a collective entity. Outsourcing refers to placing responsibility for various elements of corporate philanthropy with legal separate entities and/or third party providers. Third, I recommend corporate decision makers to ponder to what extent they want to control and be involved or engaged with their philanthropic endeavors. Those who do not want to relinquish control and be more involved should keep corporate giving within firms boundaries. Fourth, I recommend for-profit organizations to organize giving in-house and individually that wish to use corporate giving as a marketing or differentiation device. I do note, however, that a trade-off exists between these considerations. A for-profit organization could potentially obtain more control, more involvement, and more individual organizational benefits in exchange for larger investments, as more resources are required to obtain these. Subsequently, this affects the amount of resources needed for corporate giving.

This enhanced understanding helps corporate decision makers identify where they should focus their philanthropic endeavours. Moreover, it guides them in the make-or-buy decision of corporate philanthropy and in deciding between individual versus collective giving channels. Likewise, findings can encourage collective giving practices, and stimulate for-profit organizations to establish a collective giving initiative (such as a collective corporate foundation) together when for-profit organizations lack the resources to organize corporate philanthropy in-house and on an individual basis. Furthermore, providing empirical evidence on the key dimensions influencing the make-or-buy decision of corporate giving assists external entities to enhance the quality of its operations. Operations can be improved as findings inform the foundation of the key factors that count heavily for corporate decision makers. This in return might help foundations or other (collective) initiatives to attract funding from corporate donors.

Limitations

As every research, the study entails its own limitations. First, my research entails a case study with inherent limitations. The corporate collective foundation within this case study is a grant-making foundation, rather than an operating foundation (i.e., a foundation operating its own programs) or a mixed foundation (Anheier, 2001). As grant-making foundations are only part of the philanthropic landscape, case findings might remain narrow due to the passive involvement and dynamics inherent to the narrow operations of the foundation. The transferability of the results to other settings can be questioned. Future research can examine to which extent the findings are applicable to other multiple-donor foundations (e.g., community foundations and federations) or collective giving initiatives (e.g., giving circles).[6] Findings might also be limited to the potential peculiarities of the Dutch system and influenced by national circumstances. That is to say, findings might be influenced the Dutch nonprofit or civil society regimes (Salamon and Anheier, 1998), philanthropic history, and philanthropic landscape.

Second, the study entails limitations regarding data collection and analysis. As qualitative data collection and analysis are a useful starting point for exploratory research, these methods have their own limitations (e.g., interview and intervie-

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[6]Where a collective corporate foundation connects for-profit organizations, giving circles connect individuals to pool resources whom collectively decide which nonprofit initiatives will receive their donations (Eikenberry, 2007); are a relatively easy way to participate in giving (Eikenberry, 2007, p.872); provide an opportunity for more effective giving and better decision-making (Eikenberry and Breeze, 2015).

wee biases, risk of excess information, bounded to the interviewees' memory and knowledge). Moreover, as the question why for-profit organizations use a collective corporate foundation as an external entity to practice corporate philanthropy has a lot in common with the question of why for-profit organizations engage in corporate giving, interviewees might have a good idea of the desirable answers (social desirability bias). This could potentially be overcome by taking an ethnographic or holistic approach in future research. Nevertheless, the assurance of anonymity was used to encourage respondents to speak candidly. Furthermore, to get more insights into the philanthropic endeavours of donor organizations, I gathered information from publicly accessible documents from donor organizations. It is possible that only part of their efforts are obtained as it is imaginable that for-profit organizations donate without publicly communicating about it to external stakeholders. Moreover, while the research sample covers a wide range of stakeholders, the size of the sample warrants mention: 19 interviewees. Despite achieving saturation in the data collection and providing robust findings and stable patterns, it would be interesting to conduct a study with a larger sample. Additionally, the purposive selection of respondents also limits the generalizability of the study's findings. Lastly, within the thematic analysis the researcher had an active role in identifying themes and patterns in the data set, and selected those that were of interest (Taylor and Ussher, 2001).

Recommendations for Future Research

First of all, I encourage future research to provide insights into other rationales that might impact the make-or-buy decision as well as the decision for individual or collective giving practices. Another or multiple rationales might be based in a social view (Lee et al., 2000). For instance, it might be that when prominent for-profit organizations in a certain area or industry support a particular collective corporate giving entity, isomorphic pressures are at play. Giving to the collective initiative can then become the norm and (friendly) competition between for-profit organizations can stimulate non-donor organizations to give. As this research focuses more on the strategic management and economic view related to outsourcing, future research might take a more social view to explore the rationales for external collective giving practices (Lee et al., 2000).

Likewise, some key findings raise questions for future research. First, future research can examine the contribution of a separate collective corporate giving entity to organizational performance in terms of corporate philanthropy. It is plausible

that some for-profit organizations outsource routine philanthropic activities (i.e., handling donation requests) to give in-house corporate giving a more strategic role (i.e., strategic giving and employee-volunteering). This indicates, that it is not always a matter of a make "or" buy decision.

Second, collective giving entities such as a collective corporate foundation, might entail implications for nonprofit organizations. One questions to address is to what extent collective giving entities change the transaction costs for nonprofit recipients. For instance, when for-profit organizations organize corporate philanthropy individually (and in-house) for-profit organizations can be addressed on an individual basis. When multiple for-profit organizations channel corporate philanthropy by means of a collective corporate foundation, I wonder if this has implications for nonprofit professionals. Will these professionals only address the collective or also the individual for-profit organizations supporting the collective corporate foundation? Moreover, does this differs if the request directed at the collective initiative is honored or rejected? Third, as I conclude that both outsourcing and collective giving add value to corporate giving processes and outcomes (i.e., better decision making), I wonder if it adds value to nonprofit organizations. Are decisions indeed better made in a collective corporate foundation compared to in-house or individual corporate giving?

Fourth, acknowledging that various types of corporate foundations and intermediary vehicles exists, it is promising to obtain an overview of the various available channels for corporate giving (individual or collective). Efforts might expand and deepen Figure 4.1. The continuum might contain more entities, channels, or corporate philanthropic practices that nowadays populate the corporate giving landscape. This can be part of wider efforts to understand the corporate giving infrastructure, landscape, and the corporate giving repertoire.

Chapter 5

Easing into Business-Nonprofit Partnerships: Third Party Intermediary Organizations as Catalysts for Corporate Community Involvement[1]

5.1 Introduction

Business-nonprofit partnerships are widely promoted as important strategies to corporate citizenship. Given the wide notion of corporate social responsibility (CSR), corporate philanthropy, and corporate community involvement (CCI), for-profit organizations increasingly turn to nonprofit organizations as partners (Jamali and Keshishian, 2009; Seitanidi and Crane, 2009). Likewise, nonprofit organizations face growing competition for resources and seek more collaboration with for-profit organiza-

tions (Austin, 2000b; Basil et al., 2009). The growing rapprochements between the two
sectors result in a variety of business-nonprofit partnerships: corporate philanthropy,
corporate foundations, corporate community involvement, licensing agreements, spon-
sorships, transaction based or joint issue promotions, and joint ventures (Austin,
2000a,b; Austin and Seitanidi, 2012; Wymer Jr and Samu, 2003). A partnership is
the transfer of in cash or in-kind resources to address a social issue collaboratively
(Seitanidi and Ryan, 2007). Partnerships can differ in geographical dimension, dura-
tion, and intensity. Austin (2000b) distinguishes between philanthropic, transactional,
and integrative relationships - progressing from lower to higher levels of engagement
and from minor to major strategic value.

Business-nonprofit partnerships provide mutual benefits and enable partners to
share resources and leverage distinctive competencies (Ashman, 2001). Realizing these
mutual benefits, however, is a difficult and complicated task. For-profit and nonprofit
organizations have diverse and even competing goals, characteristics, values, motives,
clients, strategic orientations, and cultures (e.g., Jamali and Keshishian (2009);
Seitanidi et al. (2010)). Power imbalances, mutual distrust, lack of partner awareness
of social issues, and complex settings amplify these challenges (Babiak and Thibault,
2009; Bryson et al., 2006; Manning and Roessler, 2014; Rondinelli and London,
2003; Huxham and Vangen, 2005). In addition, the project-based nature of business-
nonprofit partnerships (non-routine, time-limited) further limits partners' ability to
become familiar and develop collaborative capabilities (Manning and Roessler, 2014,
p.530). Unsurprisingly, many business-nonprofit partnerships fail. Failure can often
"be traced to the partner selection and planning stages" (Jamali and Keshishian, 2009,
p.279).

The challenges give rise and a *raison d'être* to third party intermediary orga-
nizations.[2] Third party intermediary organizations engage in boundary spanning
work and facilitate, encourage, stimulate, and support business-nonprofit partnerships
(Brown and Kalegaonkar, 2002; Connor et al., 1999; Lee, 2015; Stadtler and Probst,
2012; Tribbia and Moser, 2008). We define third party intermediary organizations as
independent external organizations acting as agents or brokers to facilitate any aspect
of a partnership between two or more parties (based upon Howells (2006, p.720)).

The study addresses the research question: What makes third party intermediary
organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate com-

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[2]Third party intermediary organizations or intermediaries are also labelled as third parties,
brokers, bridges, boundary spanners, support organizations, bridging agents or bridging organizations,
facilitators, mediators (Arenas et al., 2013; Brown, 1991; Brown and Kalegaonkar, 2002; Lee, 2015;
Long et al., 2013; Manning and Roessler, 2014).

munity involvement? To answer this question, we rely on a qualitative case study of third party intermediary organizations facilitating corporate community in the Netherlands. We refer to corporate community involvement as the provision of corporate funds, goods and services, and employees' time toward nonprofit organizations (Burke et al., 1986; Van Der Voort et al., 2009).[3] Data emanate from four focus groups with 28 unique respondents, enriched with 13 interviews with 14 respondents. Focus group and interviewees include representatives of third party intermediary organizations, for-profit and nonprofit organizations, and local governments.

Findings inform for-profit and nonprofit organizations to assess when to involve third party intermediary organizations. Besides, findings inform third party intermediary organizations on their legitimacy. Their legitimacy merits attention because boundary-spanning organizations - such as third party intermediary organizations - require legitimate status among multiple audiences to establish continuous inter-organizational commitment in each partner (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013).

Despite their upsurge and their growth in number and importance (Lee, 2015; Rochester et al., 2010; Stadtler and Probst, 2012), third party intermediary organizations have received limited scholarly attention (Lee, 2015; Manning and Roessler, 2014). By answering the research question posed above, our contribution to the existing literature on business-nonprofit relationships is threefold. This is valuable as business-nonprofit partnerships have not been given the academic attention they deserve (Harris, 2012b). First, current research ranges from examining accrued benefits or values, characteristics, types, stages or processes, the difficulties, and barriers of business-nonprofit partnerships (Arenas et al., 2013). We respond to scholarly calls to examine the influence and impact of third party intermediary organizations - as boundary spanning organizations - on business-nonprofit partnerships (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013; Lee, 2015). Second, although scholars called to examine business-nonprofit partnerships beyond dyadic interactions, there is only limited attention paid to the role of third parties (Arenas et al., 2013). Thus, where scholars hitherto have focused on dual or dyadic relationships (see for instance Seitanidi et al. (2010)), we look at the triad and tri-party relationship between for-profit organizations, nonprofit organizations, and third party intermediary organizations. Doing so, we respond to the call from Arenas et al. (2013) to advance knowledge on the processes and triad interactions underlying business-nonprofit partnerships. Third, according to

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[3]We thus define corporate community involvement similar to corporate philanthropy (Gautier and Pache, 2015). Nevertheless, some scholars argue corporate community involvement is a broader umbrella term including corporate philanthropy, but also sponsorships and cause-related marketing (Seitanidi and Ryan, 2007).

Harris (2012b), there is a need to examine business-nonprofit partnerships on an international, national and local level. Acknowledging this need, our case study centers on business-nonprofit partnerships with a local geographic dimension. We specifically examine how local business-nonprofit partnerships unfold with the assistance of third party intermediary organizations.

As we conduct an exploratory case study of third party intermediary organizations facilitating local corporate community involvement (conceptualized similar to corporate philanthropy), we contribute to corporate community involvement or corporate philanthropy literature more specifically. We examine how corporate philanthropy manifests in practice through the support of third party intermediary organizations. This merits attention as the collaborative processes or conditions underpinning corporate philanthropy are little understood (Gautier and Pache, 2015),

5.2   Literature Review

Literature on intermediaries often distinguishes between internal and external intermediary actors. Where internal intermediary actors operate from within one of the partner organizations, external intermediary actors are legally independent and work on behalf of both partner organizations (Manning and Roessler, 2014; Tennyson, 2005; Warner, 2003). External intermediaries are thus third parties. Intermediary actors may furthermore be individuals who fulfill an intermediary role (intermediaries), as well as organizations (intermediary organizations), and can be commercial or nonprofit oriented (Tennyson, 2005).

Prior research indicates intermediary actors fulfill various roles within business-nonprofit partnerships. Manning and Roessler (2014) find that internal intermediaries and external intermediary organizations engage in initiating and supporting roles. Several authors reaffirm the importance of intermediary actors in initiating roles (Bryson et al., 2006; Gray and Wood, 1991; Lee, 2015). Intermediary actors in initiating roles communicate ideas and lead the partnership formation - including the first interactions between the two partner organizations. External intermediary organizations are then often viewed as 'matchmakers' at the entry stage of the partnership. Scholars suggest the roles of intermediary actors exceed beyond partnership formation. These scholars highlight the roles intermediary actors play throughout the partnership life cycle (Lee, 2015; Stadtler and Probst, 2012). When the partnership progresses, for-profit and nonprofit organizations require third party intermediary organizations to perform supporting roles - including negotiating of partnership terms and formulat-

ing partnership proposals. Brown and Kalegaonkar (2002, p.240) identify five broad support roles: "(a) strengthening human and organization capacities, (b) mobilizing material resources, (c) providing information and intellectual resources, (d) building alliances for mutual support, and (e) bridging to other sectors". These roles confirm the findings of Ashman (2001), where external intermediary actors help partners to develop shared goals and mutual understanding. We argue that external intermediary actors engage in boundary spanning work, as the roles and activities between the two overlap significantly. See for instance Tribbia and Moser (2008) for the roles and activities of boundary spanning organizations.

Scholars acknowledge for-profit and nonprofit organizations can benefit from utilizing external third party intermediary organizations within business-nonprofit partnerships (Arenas et al., 2013; Lee, 2015; Manning and Roessler, 2014; Roza, 2016; Stadtler and Probst, 2012). Stadtler and Probst (2012, p.42) argue that for-profit and nonprfit organizations benefit from third party intermediary organizations "when they have never worked together before, lack mutual understanding and trust, and moreover have only limited experience of and expertise in designing, implementing, and reviewing," business-nonprofit partnerships. The same authors (p.42) state that third party intermediary organizations offer "advantages in situations where partners lack a brokering position in cross-sectoral networks, the capacity to leverage bridging ties, the legitimacy to convene diverse stakeholders." Roza (2016) echoes the former. Roza (2016, p.267) argues third party intermediary organizations are "convenient for nonprofit organizations that lack networks of companies and experience." Manning and Roessler (2014, p.528) conclude that third party intermediary organizations "have ambivalent effects," easing the creation of project opportunities across sectors and stimulating longer-term action. Likewise, Lee (2015) - examining the contribution of third party intermediary organizations facilitating corporate volunteering efforts - indicates third party intermediary organizations trigger value in business-nonprofit partnerships. Above all, they "help stimulate manifestations of associational value, transferred resource value, interaction value and synergistic value" (p.217). Lee (2015)

thereby refers to the collaborative values of Austin and Seitanidi (2012).[4] Similarly, Arenas et al. (2013, p.736), conclude that third party intermediary organizations "in their different roles may be a valuable resource for moving conflictive business-nonprofit relationships toward more collaborative interactions". The same authors refer to the three collaboration stages of Austin (2000b): philanthropic, transactional, and integrative. Although third party intermediary organizations involvement is beneficial, Roza (2016) argues relations with third party intermediary organizations are short-lived, as nonprofit organizations prefer to use the funds that third party intermediary organizations charge for their own mission. Besides, Roza (2016) mentions that working through third party intermediary organizations is time-consuming given the indirect communication between partners. Moreover, Manning and Roessler (2014) conclude that projects initiated by external intermediaries tend to be repetitive and narrow in scope.

To understand the value of third party intermediary organizations, we draw on literature on intermediary organizations from other contexts (i.e., innovation, patents, R&D). Both social and economic theories explain the role of intermediary actors (see for instance Benassi and Di Minin (2009)). Transaction cost economics is one economic theory explaining the value of intermediary actors. Transaction cost economics specify the conditions under which organizations should manage a function within or outside organizational boundaries (Williamson, 1975). This relates to the central question of whether an exchange or transaction can be performed more efficiently internally or externally by a different party (Geyskens et al., 2006). According to transaction cost economics, intermediary actors exist as a solution to markets and exchanges characterized by imperfections. Intermediary actors match supply and demand and reduce the costs of searching, reduce operating costs, and act as agents of trust. Transaction cost economics indicate intermediary actors connect individuals or organizations who want to engage (in transactions) but cannot do so on their own (Benassi and Di Minin, 2009).

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[4]Associational values derive from simply having a collaborative relationship with the other organization: enhancement of corporate image, increased visibility and credibility for nonprofit organizations, and strengthened community relationships. Transferred resource values derive from receiving resources from the other organization: increased financial means, materials or manpower for nonprofit organizations, business skills and knowledge for nonprofit organizations, and greater employee engagement for for-profit organizations. Interaction values are intangibles derived from the process of organizations working together: reputation, trust, learning, knowledge, joint problem solving, communication, coordination, accountability, and conflict resolution. Synergetic values derive from combining resources in such ways that partners achieve more together than they could have done separately (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012, pp.712-713).

An alternative view on the value of intermediary actors stems from socio-economic theories - specifically from a network perspective. This perspective oftentimes refers to the concept of social capital defined as "the connections among individuals; social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" (Putnam et al., 2000, p.19). In other words, social capital derives from social relations and is the value arising from the way an individual or organization is connected to others. An underlying assumption of social capital is that individuals or organizations that are better connected to others perform better. Thus, social networks are assets producing win-win relationships (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Schneider, 2009). Key elements of social capital are trust, norms, and networks to foster collaboration (Schneider, 2009). One can distinguish between individual and organizational social capital. Individual social capital can enhance an organization's social capital, but organizational social capital can also exist "independently of the people involved and based on an organization's history and reputation" (Schneider, 2009, p.644). Organizational social capital refers to established and trust based networks among organizations or communities supporting a particular organization, whereby the organization can use these networks to further its goals (Schneider, 2009, p.644).

Opportunities for social capital include two main arguments: closure (Coleman, 1988) and structural holes (Burt, 2009). Networks with closure are high density networks in which everyone is connected (Burt, 2000; Coleman, 1988). Closure increases the sharing of information and resources as trust is high in a network of highly connected individuals or organizations. Burt (2009) argues a sparse network provides greater opportunities for social capital. A sparse network includes many structural holes. Structural holes are gaps in a network between disconnected individuals or organizations (Burt, 2009). The existence of structural holes provides the opportunity to mediate the flow of information and the opportunity to control projects that bring together disconnected actors (Burt, 2000).

The network theory *tertius iungens* orientation ("those who unite") is in line with the idea that structural holes and closure are intertwined (Obstfeld, 2005). Intermediary actors as *tertius iungens* search for brokering roles and connect individuals or organizations in their social network. They do so by introducing disconnected individuals or organizations, or by facilitating new coordination between (dis)connected actors. Intermediary actors bridge structural holes, close networks by bonding, and provide actors access to new information, knowledge, contacts, and resources (Burt, 2009).

The social and economic theories explaining the value of intermediary actors derive from literature originating from other contexts (i.e., innovation, patents, R&D). In these contexts, intermediary actors facilitate partnerships where an economic transaction is at stake. Furthermore, these examinations often examine intermediary actors facilitating partnerships between for-profit organizations. These partnerships all underlie economic motivations, costs, and benefits. We wonder if the value of intermediary actors is different when voluntary transactions with unclear costs and benefits underlie a cross-sector partnership.

5.3   Data and Methodology

Given the nature of our research we use an exploratory qualitative case study methodology (Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2003). This is particularly useful for explanatory, descriptive, and exploratory research as it explores phenomena in their natural and real-life context (Blumberg et al., 2011). We purposively selected the case assuming it is data-rich and representative of the phenomenon of interest - allowing a strong conceptual analysis (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

The case study includes a national nonprofit organization consisting of local third party intermediary organizations in the Netherlands using the same business model. The first intermediary organization began in 1999. Due to funding from a Dutch endowed foundation in the area of social welfare (*Oranje Fonds*) between 2012 and 2015, the national organization grew to include 67 local intermediary organizations in 2018. Their aim is to mobilize corporate community involvement and to bring the private and third sector closer together for the common good (Nederlandse Uitdaging, nd). These third party intermediary organizations facilitate local corporate community involvement between for-profit and nonprofit organizations when it involves in-kind goods, information, opportunities, knowledge, corporate volunteer labor, or other material resources. They mostly facilitate business-nonprofit partnerships between small- and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) or local branches of (multi-)national enterprises and local nonprofit organizations. These intermediary organizations require no fee from for-profit or nonprofit organizations. They do receive government funding and corporate donations.

Their business model includes a local entrepreneurial network overseen by a manager. The entrepreneurial network consists of established entrepreneurs and young professionals. The network meets approximately five times a year to discuss (online) requests from for-profit and nonprofit organizations. The established entrepreneurs

appeal to their network to see which for-profit or nonprofit organizations could collaborate with the requesting organization. In doing so, they engage in partnership selection. Young professionals manage the partnership formation and execution. Next to online requests, these third party intermediary organizations arrange workshops and events (In Dutch: *Beursvloer*). During these events, for-profit and nonprofit organizations physically meet and engage in open dialogues. These events are also introduced in Germany as the *Marktplatz-Methode* (Gute Geschaefte, nd).

5.3.1 Data Collection

We used a qualitative research approach with multiple sources to yield the desired breadth and depth: focus groups and in-depth interviews. Focus groups provide rich amounts of data as they include opportunities to observe group interaction such as consensus and diversity, and investigate a range of respondents' views, ideas, or experiences (Morgan et al., 1993). We enriched focus groups with semi-structured interviews to provide a more in-depth and interpretive understanding of respondents' experiences, perspectives, and histories (Maruster, 2013). This is highly appropriate as we wanted to dive into the perspectives and views of various stakeholders groups, and to develop critical, analytical and in-depth insights (Ragin, 1991; Saldaña, 2009).

We used a purposive sampling strategy to selected respondents to assure that data emanated from highly experienced and knowledgeable individuals. We selected respondents in collaboration with the director of the national organization. Our data collection spans six local intermediary organizations. These third party intermediary organizations were active in either urban or rural areas and varied in age between two and almost 20 years. We conducted four focus groups with 28 unique respondents and 13 interviews with 14 respondents. By collecting data with various stakeholders we explored multiple perspectives. Respondents included (advisory) board members, ambassadors, and the director of the national organization; managers of local intermediary organizations; representatives of for-profit and nonprofit organizations, and local governments. Respondents had varying levels of experience with the third party intermediary organizations and/or corporate community involvement (see our full data inventory in Appendix A).

We collected the data between April 2016 and October 2017. Focus groups lasted on average 93 minutes; interviews had an average length of 40 minutes. Both began with a brief description of the study and an explanation of respondents' confidentiality. We followed a semi-structured topic list and asked questions about the reasons to involve third party intermediary organizations, their benefits, impact, and activities.

We adjusted questions for every focus group or interview and altered questions or topics as the research progressed and our understanding of the phenomenon increased. We stopped data collection when we reached saturation (Eisenhardt, 1989). We conducted focus groups and interviews in person and in the native language of the respondents: Dutch. We recorded all focus groups and 10 interviews with the consent of the respondent. Three interviews were not recorded and the first author took extensive notes during and immediately after these interviews.

5.3.2   Data Analysis

We transcribed all recordings and field notes, yielding 297 pages of raw data for analysis. The first author analyzed the data following the procedures commonly used in qualitative data analysis (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). The author used a systematic inductive approach (Gioia et al., 2013). Through a thematic analysis, the first author was able to develop new concepts in an inductive manner while still meeting the standards for academic rigor. The first author read and reread the data closely, and ran through multiple open coding cycles conducted manually in Microsoft Word.[5] Sample saturation was determined when the analysis of the data generated no new codes - known as theoretical saturation. Second, the first author gradually funneled codes with similar attributes, repetitive patterns, and consistencies into broader, provisional second order themes (i.e., axial coding). Using the research question as a lens, the first author conducted a series of iterative steps from the coding and theoretical analysis back to the data - known as constant comparison (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Furthermore, we considered relationships among the categories to develop a conceptual understanding. The third coding step involved narrowing down the second order themes into aggregate dimensions moving towards a thematic conceptual and theoretical data structure (Saldaña, 2009). A final coding step was one of inductive theorizing, where we tested our categories against relevant theories iteratively. Appendix B provides an overview of the first order codes, second order themes, and aggregate dimensions.

In the next section, we use quotations from our primary data to substantiate the findings. The abbreviations IO, BUS, NPO, and GOV stand for **i**ntermediary **o**rganization, **bus**iness/for-profit organizations, **n**on**p**rofit **o**rganization, and **gov**ernment respectively, and refer to the respondent making the comment (See Appendix A). The

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[5]Microsoft Word provides a great deal of the functionality needed to conduct data analysis, and "can be used to greatly enhance analytic capacity and, most important, the rigor of data analysis" (Ruona, 2005, p.234).

citations in our results were translated from Dutch to English. The first author first translated quotes from Dutch to English and consequently an independent scholar translated these back to Dutch to enhance data validity. We discussed differences in translations and discussions lasted until we reached consensus.

5.4   Results

The study examines what makes third party intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships. Our data show third party intermediary organizations overcome organizational and individual barriers related to business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. First, third party intermediary organizations provide organizational social capital when for-profit and nonprofit organizations have inadequate networks. Second, third party intermediary organizations lower transaction costs for business-nonprofit partnerships when actors experience limited resources. Third, intermediary organizations provide for-profit and nonprofit organizations with human capital when actors are unaware or unconscious of the potential of partnerships across sectoral boundaries, or unknowledgeable on how to form or engage in business-nonprofit partnerships. Furthermore, findings indicate third party intermediary organizations add value to business-nonprofit partnerships in distinct ways by being 'matchmakers'.

Overcoming Organizational Barriers

We find that third party intermediary organizations are valuable in the formation and implementation of business-nonprofit partnerships as they overcome organizational and individual barriers: having inadequate networks, limited resources, or being unaware or unknowledgeable. Data show that third party intermediary organizations encourage actors to engage in business-nonprofit partnerships and ease the partnership formation by overcoming these barriers. A respondent attests that third party intermediary organizations make business-nonprofit partnerships "far more accessible, eliminating any thresholds" (BUS9). A respondent argues that third party intermediary organizations embody an "infrastructure" (IO4) for business-nonprofit partnerships.

Providing organizational social capital. The data indicates that third party intermediary organizations make a variety of business-nonprofit partnerships possible

by brokering structural holes within cross-sector networks. Doing so, they offer network closure across sectors. A respondent states: "The parties that are now brought together would have never ever met" (IO11). Third party intermediary organizations add value in situations where actors have inadequate networks and lack a brokering position themselves. Intermediary organizations leverage their own network to provide actors access to potential partners across sectoral boundaries.

Data indicate that for-profit and nonprofit organizations are often willing to engage in business-nonprofit collaborations, but indicate they are incapable as their networks are inadequate. A respondent argues: "People just don't have the connections" (IO3). A for-profit respondent confirms this by arguing they often do not possess a varied network of nonprofit organization (BUS8). Another respondent indicates that when the for-profit organization does find partners in the third-sector, they accidentally stumble upon them (BUS5). Another respondent notes: "We have connections with nonprofit organizations (...) But to adhere to the needs of our business and also the variety and diversity in activities, it is good when there is an [intermediary organization] you can appeal to" (BUS2). The same also applies to nonprofit organizations. A nonprofit respondent attests they are always "fishing in the same pond" of for-profit partners (NPO1; NPO4).

A for-profit respondent highlights that the third party intermediary organization often connects them to nonprofit organizations outside their own network (BUS6). Another for-profit organization acknowledges that third party intermediary organizations expose them to such a broad, deep, and varied network that no matter how many resources the for-profit organization would commit to expanding and maintaining their network, they could not achieve or maintain such a cross-sectoral network on their own (BUS2). Third party intermediary organizations thereby provide a "convenient entrance" (IO2) by opening up a rich network across sectors. They connect disconnected for-profit and nonprofit organizations in prosperous ways. Respondents indicate that third party intermediary organizations possess a far more varied network to apply to (NPO1). For instance, intermediary organizations expose nonprofit organizations to a legion of for-profit organizations operating in various industries, with valuable resources residing in each of them. This indicates third party intermediary organizations leverage their social capital to for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Another respondent affirms: "The [intermediary organization] has the access and entrance to all sorts of businesses and the business community. And they are the entrance to various contacts at board and management level" (GOV3).

Respondents indicate that inadequate networks stem from the fact that for-profit and nonprofit organizations do not naturally come across one another (BUS1). We find these inadequate networks are also associated with a lack of trust; with uncertainty about the skills, reliability, and complementarity of potential partners. Respondents recognize intermediary organizations as third parties with a trustworthy image (GOV3; BUS10). This trustworthiness provides an entrance to cross-sectoral partners that would be out of reach when approached directly (BUS10). A nonprofit respondent indicates: "If we had to do this ourselves we probably would not get in [to the for-profit organization] because it would be so much of a hassle; it would just be too inaccessible" (NPO7).

Lowering transaction costs. Business-nonprofit partnerships entail transaction costs related to the partner selection and partnership formation. Data indicates that third party intermediary organizations lower these transaction costs and accelerate partner selection and partnership formation.

Respondents indicate for-profit organizations are often "bombarded" (IO10) and "overwhelmed" (IO6) with unsolicited requests from nonprofit organizations for corporate community support. These include requests for donations, sponsorships, and so forth. Respondents acknowledge that for-profit organizations often lack the capacity to handle these requests, as it is a time-consuming activity (IO6). A respondent attests: "[Corporate community involvement] always takes time, but when it takes too much time for-profit organizations will cease doing it" (BUS10). As corporate community involvement is usually a secondary activity and not core to the for-profit organization, for-profit organizations often devote limited means to the practice of corporate community involvement. Third party intermediary organizations can then provide for-profit organizations with a way to deal with the seemingly infinite flow of unsolicited requests. Respondents indicate rejecting requests always reflects negatively on the for-profit organization (IO6). When for-profit organizations involve an intermediary organization, unsolicited requests can be "forwarded in a positive way" (BUS5). Respondents argue forwarding requests to the intermediary organization is better for the nonprofit organization. This as the request can end up by the same for-profit organization or perhaps another that is deemed more appropriate (BUS5).

Meanwhile, nonprofit organizations indicate that approaching for-profit organizations is a time-consuming venture. Finding partners can be an "endless search" (NPO9), whereby "getting the needed material and the knowledge costs you either money or effort" (NPO6). Data show third party intermediary organizations connect

nonprofit organizations to for-profit organizations that can and are likely to support them (NPO4). This ends the endless search and accelerates both the partnership selection and formation, and saves nonprofit organizations time and effort. Nonprofit organizations indicate they can focus on their core business instead (NPO7; NPO10).

Second, respondents note that third party intermediary organizations function as "pre-cooking stations" (BUS10). Intermediary organizations funnel and filter requests and aggregate information. In doing so, intermediary organizations are "one desk" (BUS6), where they "bundle everything together" and have a coordinating function (GOV1). A respondent expresses: "When it goes through only one party, it is much more engaging compared to when you receive twenty phone calls a day" (BUS13).

Third, respondents express third party intermediary organizations "unburden" for-profit organizations (BUS2; BUS5), whereby for-profit organizations "have more time left for other things at work" (BUS13). A respondent indicates: "You do not have to worry about it yourself (...) it is a very efficient implementation of [corporate community involvement]" (BUS13). Other respondents note third party intermediary organizations make requests "easy to adopt" and "manageable" (BUS10). The following quotes illustrates this:

> "A lot of energy is wasted when there is no intermediary organization, so someone needs to be in between. The [intermediary organization] as a coordinator, takes care of a number of things, so it seems very manageable for our for-profit organization and we can quickly make the request feasible and do not have to worry about the little things" (BUS10).

Furthermore, findings show that third party intermediary organizations accelerate partner selection. First, data indicate that third party intermediary organizations function as a filter, and only present for-profit and nonprofit organizations with possible partners that have real potential. For instance, intermediary organizations only approach for-profit organizations with requests from nonprofit organizations when those requests are feasible and relevant for that for-profit organization. For instance, the request fit their philanthropic view, aim, or corporate community involvement-strategy (BUS6). Similarly, third party intermediary organizations are said to present nonprofit organization with "like-minded" for-profit organizations (NPO7) - indicating shared understandings and values are present that ease the interaction between the two partners.

Third party intermediary organizations also accelerate partnership formation. For-profit and nonprofit organizations experience partnership formations without the support of intermediary organizations as time-consuming and slow. In contrast, they experience partnership formations supported by intermediary organizations as rather swift and seamless. Nonprofit respondents indicate that when they directly approach for-profit organizations, they often "get the runaround or are rejected" (NPO6). Besides, as nonprofit organizations rarely start with the right business contacts (NPO7), they usually need multiple contact moments to end up with the right individuals. Nonprofit respondents refer to this as a "time-consuming consultation culture," (NPO6), sometimes "taking weeks or months" (NPO8). Third party intermediary organizations provide nonprofit organizations with the right contacts from the start (NPO8), accelerating the partnership selection and formation.

We even find that third party intermediary organizations bring along more efficiency gains in the partnership formation and selection process. They do so by securing levels of trust. Respondents argue that when a trustworthy intermediary organization is absent, potential partners "want to check things more thoroughly, resulting in more red tape, and adding to the overall costs" (BUS9). Thus by providing trust, respondents indicate that third party intermediary organizations save actors valuable resources, as partnerships would require more effort and time to establish trust.

Overcoming Individual Barriers

Providing Human Capital. Data indicate third party intermediary organizations entail an informal learning function. Intermediary organizations provide for-profit and nonprofit organizations with the required knowledge, skills and experiences regarding business-nonprofit partnerships. We refer to the knowledge, skills, and experiences that third party intermediaries bring to actors as human capital. This transfer of knowledge, skills, and experiences reduces the inability of for-profit and nonprofit organizations to recognize opportunities of business-nonprofit partnerships.

First of all, some for-profit and nonprofit organizations simply do not know how to engage in partnerships across sectoral boundaries (IO4; BUS1). A manager of the intermediary organization attests:"The [intermediary organization] helps for-profit organizations to shape their policy regarding corporate community involvement (...) they indeed want to engage, but they don't know how they do so" (IO3). A respondent affirms this is particularly true for SMEs. The respondent indicates that SMEs often

do not know how to make business-nonprofit partnerships practical (BUS1). Third party intermediary organizations are a solution, as they provide SMEs with the required knowledge to help shape their civic engagement.

Second, our results show there are also for-profit and nonprofit organizations unaware or unconscious of the potential of business-nonprofit partnerships. We refer to for-profit organizations failing to see how they can contribute as "latent donors". Likewise, we refer to nonprofit organizations unaware of the potential of collaborating with for-profit organizations as "latent recipients". Where latent donors are unaware of the needs or social issues residing in their community, latent recipients are unaware of the goodwill residing in the private sector. According to a respondent, this stems from actors "living in separate worlds" disconnected from each other (IO4). As third party intermediary organizations actively approach and make latent donors and recipients aware on the potential of business-nonprofit partnerships, they introduce new actors to the collaborative field.

To awaken latent donors, for-profit organizations state intermediary organizations make them aware of community needs. A respondent refers to this awakening as being "enchanted" (BUS10): "Awareness yes! I was not aware that in my community, if I'm allowed to say so, there is such a big need for help, provisions, and you name it!" (BUS10). Another respondent expresses: "The [intermediary organization] opened my eyes," and indicates he "felt so ignorant for not knowing" (BUS7) what was needed in his local community. We argue that third party intermediary organizations provide for-profit organizations with human capital (e.g., knowledge and experiences). This human capital enables these actors to see and grasp the potential of business-nonprofit relationships such as corporate community involvement.

Third party intermediary organizations also awaken latent recipients. They show nonprofit organizations the extent to which for-profit organizations are willing to help: "The [intermediary organization] shows how for-profit organizations are will-ing to make a contribution in various ways" (NPO10). The same respondent continues:

> "To me, a whole new world opened. And I have also seen, and that really surprised me, that there are so many for-profit organizations and individuals who are doing good things. I was completely unaware" (NPO10).

Moreover, respondents indicate that intermediary organizations encourage them to think beyond established boundaries. That is to say, actors learn to approach each other in distinctive and surprising ways. Third party intermediary organizations

thereby stimulate business-nonprofit partnerships that do not seem straightforward. For instance, a partnership in which a bank provides corporate volunteering labor instead of financial support. A respondent explains:

> "It is about broad thinking, thinking in possibilities. I noticed we stimulate a shift in both the business community as well as civil society towards thinking in terms of possibilities (...) For-profit and nonprofit organizations need to look at each other more broadly" (IO4).

Beyond matching supply and demand

Findings furthermore indicate that third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinct ways. in doing so, they move beyond acting as 'matchmakers' between supply and demand. Data show intermediary organizations: (1) move business-nonprofit partnerships forward on the collaboration continuum of Austin (2000b) by enhancing the value and longevity of the partnership; (2) stimulate collective action; (3) de-emotionalize partner selection and in doing so ensure an equal distribution of corporate capital and business-nonprofit partnerships in the community. Doing so, we argue that third party intermediary organizations stimulate for-profit and nonprofit organizations to generate their own organizational social capital by encouraging them to engage in long-term, bilateral, and intense partnerships.

Partnership value enhancement. Data show requests brought to third party intermediary organizations are oftentimes rather simplistic business-nonprofit partnerships. The interactions and resource exchanges are short-term, incidental, and uncritical. For instance, a for-profit organization refurbishing its office ends up with the old office supplies. The for-profit organization then asks the intermediary organization to help them find nonprofit organizations that can use these old office supplies. This, however, results in relative low values for both partners. We could classify these partnerships as philanthropic or arm's length relationships - referring to the classifications of Austin (2000b) and Rondinelli and London (2003). Our data, however, indicate third party intermediary organizations move business-nonprofit partnerships forwards on Austin's (2000a) collaboration continuum. They move business-nonprofit partnerships from philanthropic or arm's length towards more transactional, integrative or more intensive relationships. They do so by stimulating more long-term, bilateral, and reciprocal partnerships that transfer resources and knowledge that

are more critical to the survival of the nonprofit organization. Doing so, third party intermediary organizations often increase the engagement and value of the partnership. This generates organizational social capital as for-profit and nonprofit organizations obtain trust, shared values, and long-term relations, as well as reciprocity.

First, findings show third party intermediary organizations examine incoming requests. They wonder if requests from nonprofit organizations are truly beneficial for the nonprofit organization or if there is an underlying need. When there is an underlying need, third party intermediary organizations facilitate a business-nonprofit partnership tackling this need instead. Oftentimes this results in more long-term benefits (IO14). For instance, the nonprofit organization requesting office supplies appears to have an issue with their bookkeeping. By facilitating a business-nonprofit partnership in which the nonprofit organization receives quarterly financial advice, there are suddenly resources for office supplies in the short-term, but also for other needs in the long-term.

Second, where business-nonprofit partnerships including corporate community involvement are typically project based (non-routine or limited in time), we find that third party intermediary organizations encourage and facilitate partnerships beyond single projects. Usually single projects progress into more long-term and interactive partnerships (BUS; IO3). Respondents indicate partners become engaged in similar projects or in distinct projects. For instance, the latter includes a relationship wherein a for-profit organization initially delivered kitchenware and after this initial project agrees to provide corporate volunteers on a weekly basis to support kitchen operations within the same nonprofit organization.

Third, data show third party intermediary organizations stimulate bilateral relationships with reciprocal resource exchanges as opposed to unilateral transactions. Third party intermediary organizations encourage a two-way flow of both tangible and intangible resources; transform passive donor-beneficiary relations into active mutual exchanges. Thereby, intermediary organizations enable actors to go beyond their conventional roles of donor and beneficiary. According to a respondent, third party intermediary organizations stimulate nonprofit organizations to offer a reciprocal service in a business-nonprofit partnership (NPO9). Intermediary organizations stimulate this as they believe reciprocal relationships are necessary for obtaining equivalency in the partnership (IO4).

Encourage collective action. Data show that third party intermediary organizations also stimulate more complex business-nonprofit partnerships. These involve

many-to-one, one-to-many, or many-to-many collaborations. For instance, a third party intermediary organization brought together a mixed team of for-profit organizations who supported a team of nonprofit organizations to innovate, organize, and professionalize a joint initiative to produce Christmas hampers with their beneficiaries (IO4). Another respondent gave the example of various for-profit organizations relocating a nonprofit organization to a new location. Each for-profit organization contributed only a small part (IO14). We argue that third party intermediary organizations encourage collective action and stimulate more complex partnerships involving multiple partners. without the involvement of a third party intermediary organization, for-profit and nonprofit organizations often engage in one-to-one partnerships, characterized by one for-profit and one nonprofit organization that collaborate on a specific project.

De-emotionalization of partner selection. Respondents indicate that third party intermediary organizations 'de-emotionalize' partner selection. Business-nonprofit partnerships with SMEs, local nonprofit organizations, or directed at a local level, are often shaped by personal relations (BUS9). For-profit organizations then oftentimes support pet causes. For instance, a for-profit organization supports a local art museum because one of its management's relatives serves as a museum board member. In these instances, CEOs become 'philanthropists' with the for-profit organization being the vehicle to give. This, however, also oftentimes applies to nonprofit organizations. For instance, a nonprofit organization approaches the local carpenter for a donation, as the carpenter is a relative of a volunteer. Third party intermediary organizations actively link prospective partners that would not have approached each other. A respondent attests: "The parties that are now brought together would have never ever met" (IO11). Third party intermediary organizations stimulate partnerships between actors located outside the family- or relational spheres. Doing so, intermediary organizations de-emotionalize partner selection.

Thereby, respondents argue that third party intermediary organizations ensure an equal distribution of corporate capital, civic engagement, and partnerships in the local community. Respondents indicate partnerships are "divided more equally" among the private and third-sector (BUS9). A manager of a third party intermediary organization highlights that for-profit organizations always seek to collaborate with nonprofit organizations supporting (sick) children or diseases (IO3). The network of third party intermediary organizations, however, also include nonprofit organizations serving other causes. The private sector would not give these causes the attention without the involvement of the intermediary organization (IO3). A respondent explains,

"Everything gets really well divided along the network, because the [intermediary organization] makes the decisions instead of the businesses" (BUS9). This quote indicates third party intermediary organizations act as decision makers. They indeed do so as they decide which partnership requests are distributed along their network. Once accepted, third party intermediary organizations present the request to only those prospective partners the intermediary organization seems fit. In this way, third party intermediary organizations are gatekeepers influencing who is in- or excluded from business-nonprofit partnerships in a local community.

5.5   Discussion

The study examines what makes third party intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. We empirically show third party intermediary organizations act as catalysts and accelerators for business-nonprofit partnerships. They do so by encouraging, supporting, and facilitating partner selection and partnership formation. Third party intermediary organizations do so by overcoming three important barriers. First, intermediary organizations provide the required organizational social capital when actors lack adequate networks. Second, intermediary organizations lower transaction costs related to business-nonprofit partnership selection, formation, and execution. Third, intermediary organizations provide human capital (i.e., knowledge and experiences) so actors can grasp the potential of business-nonprofit partnerships. By helping to overcome these three barriers, third party intermediary organizations act as catalysts for business-nonprofit partnerships; they provide a pathway into business-nonprofit partnerships and embody an 'infrastructure' for business-nonprofit partnerships.

Second, the study reveals third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinctive ways. First, intermediary organizations stimulate more long-term and reciprocal partnerships and thereby move business-nonprofit partnerships forwards on the collaboration continuum of (Austin, 2000b). Second, intermediary organizations stimulate collective action. Third, they de-emotionalize partner selection and ensure an equal distribution of business-nonprofit partnerships among a local community.

Our study contributes to the literature on business-nonprofit partnership more broadly and corporate community involvement in particular. We provide empirical evidence of the value of third party intermediary organizations within local business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. This is

valuable as local business-nonprofit partnerships lack the academic attention they deserve (Harris, 2012b). Third party intermediary organizations accelerate and change business-nonprofit partnerships. Above all, they overcome three barriers (inadequate networks, insufficient resources, unconscious or unknowledgeable actors) preventing actors to engage in business-nonprofit partnerships. We also show intermediary organizations stimulate more interactive, long-term, and reciprocal business-nonprofit partnerships. Additionally, intermediary organizations encourage collective action and de-emotionalize partner selection. These are all elements previously overlooked in the literature. Doing so, we explore the influence and impact of third party intermediary organizations on business-nonprofit partnerships, called upon by Herlin and Pedersen (2013) and Lee (2015). Furthermore, we shed light on the relevance of intermediary organizations within business-nonprofit partnerships, and examine the tri-party relationship between for-profit, nonprofit, and intermediary organizations. Doing so, we go beyond dual/dyadic relationships as called upon by Arenas et al. (2013). As we show third party intermediary organizations act as catalysts and accelerators for local business-nonprofit partnerships, we shed light on how business-nonprofit partnerships manifest on a local level. This is relevant as research on business-nonprofit partnerships usually overlooks local business-nonprofit relationships according to Harris (2012b).

We contribute more specifically to the literature on corporate community involvement (or corporate philanthropy), as we provide insight on how corporate community involvement manifests in practice with the support of third parties. This is relevant as the collaborative processes or conditions underpinning corporate philanthropy are little understood (Gautier and Pache 2015). Additionally, we find that especially SMEs and local branches of MNEs rely on third party intermediary organizations when engaging in corporate community involvement. This is not surprising as these organizations often lack the means toe establish formal corporate community involvement policies or an internal unit dedicated to CSR or corporate community involvement (Madden et al., 2006). Acknowledging that third party intermediaries especially support SMEs is a relevant finding as little is understood about how SMEs engage in corporate community involvement or corporate philanthropy (Madden et al., 2006; Amaeshi et al., 2016). Moreover, the conditions enabling SMEs to engage in such activities lacked scholarly research (Lepoutre and Heene, 2006).

Lastly, we make a small contribution to the existing literature on intermediary organizations. First, we show that literature from other fields can be adapted to third party intermediary organizations facilitating business-nonprofit relationships lacking economic motivations. We confirm the importance of two theoretical explanations of

the value of intermediary organizations (transaction cost economics and social capital). We echo transaction cost economics as third party intermediary organizations match supply and demand, reduce transaction costs (searching and operating costs), and act as agents of trust between for-profit and nonprofit organizations. The formation and development of business-nonprofit partnerships is a slow, lengthy, costly, and difficult venture when third party intermediary organizations are absent. Business-nonprofit partnerships can be formed and developed in a manner that is rather swift, efficient, and seamless when intermediary organizations are involved. We also reaffirm a social capital perspective as third party intermediary organizations span structural holes between disconnected partners and provide network closure. Additionally, we indicate third party intermediary organizations provide value from a human capital perspective. They provide for-profit and nonprofit organizations with the required knowledge and experiences. Previous literature on intermediary organizations, had not previously introduced a human capital perspective. Human capital is "generally understood to consist of the individual's capabilities, knowledge, skills and experience (...) relevant to the task at hand, as well as the capacity to add to this reservoir of knowledge, skills, and experience through individual learning" (Dess and Picken, 1999, p.8). Second, we advance our understanding of the value of intermediary organizations, and answer the question of Warner (2003): "To broker or not to broker?" Hereby, we enhance our knowledge on the relevance and legitimacy of third party intermediary organizations. Furthermore, we reaffirm the finding of Howells (2006) that brokering is more than information gathering, exchange and linking, and that intermediary organizations provide a much wider, more varied, and holistic role than is generally acknowledged.

Our study also reaffirms previous literature. For instance, we reaffirm the finding of Roza (2016) that third party intermediary organizations provide actors with new contacts and networks for collaboration. We confirm the role of intermediary organizations as matchmakers at the entry stage of the partnership (Bryson et al., 2006; Gray and Wood, 1991; Lee, 2015). This is a valuable role as failure is often traced "to the partner selection and planning stages" (Jamali and Keshishian, 2009, p.279). We also reaffirm that third party intermediary organizations engage in initiating and supporting roles (e.g., Manning and Roessler (2014)). We also bring in more nuance regarding the value of intermediary organizations. Where Roza (2016) concludes intermediary organizations increase transaction costs due to the time-consuming indirect communication, we find they actually lower transaction costs. Besides, where Manning and Roessler (2014) conclude that projects initiated by external intermediaries tend to be repetitive and narrow in scope, we show that third party intermediary organizations

move business-nonprofit partnerships forward to more intense relationships involving more (strategic) value.

Our findings entail practical implications for for-profit, nonprofit, and intermediary organizations. First, knowing the value of third party intermediary organizations informs for-profit and nonprofit organizations when assessing to use the services of intermediary organizations. Second, our findings might help third party intermediary organizations to market their services. Third, although our findings paint a relatively rose-colored picture of third party intermediary organizations, our data also sheds light on some of the challenges of these intermediary actors. Subsequently, this provides advice to intermediary organizations to enhance or sustain their legitimacy and credibility. First, we advise third party intermediary organizations to find the right balance between "unburdening" organizations (BUS2; BUS5) and making business-nonprofit partnerships "too effortless" (BUS9). In the latter, actors could easily rely on third party intermediary organizations and easily "tick the box" (IO3) for good corporate citizenship. This reduces actors' creativity to form, develop, and manage business-nonprofit partnerships themselves (GOV1). A perception of being an effortless way to engage in business-nonprofit partnership might subsequently influence the legitimacy of intermediary organisations. Second, there is a danger in 'de-personalizing' business-nonprofit partnerships. Intermediary organizations acting as middlemen and taking care of all aspects of the business-nonprofit partnerships - including all interaction between the partners - might kill the actors' involvement and engagement before it is even born. In order for for-profit and nonprofit organizations to become personally involved, committed, and 'enchanted', these actors should experience everything first hand (BUS10). Roza (2016) also echoes the importance of direct involvement within business-nonprofit partnerships.

As all research, our study has limitations. These limitations are related to our research context and methodology. First, findings remain somewhat narrow as we focus on a single case study, being nonprofit-oriented external intermediary organizations facilitating local corporate community in the Netherlands. We are cautious in generalizing our findings. Findings might differ from other types of intermediary actors (i.e., individual intermediaries or for-profit- oriented intermediary organizations), or findings differ from intermediary organizations facilitating other types of business-nonprofit partnerships or at other levels (national, international). Second, the generalizability of our study is limited as the case is situated in the Netherlands. Especially since the Netherlands is a country with a long and "rich philanthropic history" and landscape (Wiepking and Bekkers, 2015, p.211). Third, within the two

focus groups with various stakeholders participated a representative of an intermediary organization. Thus other respondents could have felt they were unable to speak freely and instead provided us with socially desirable answers (Grimm, 2010). The same applies to the focus groups with constituencies of the national organization as the director of the national organization participated in those focus groups. Nonetheless, our robust findings indicate stable patterns across our focus group an interview data.

In spite of our limitations, the study represents one of the first empirical contributions discussing what makes third party intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. We hope to pave the way forward to more accurate examinations and other intriguing research avenues uncovered in the present study. First, it remains unclear how third party intermediary organizations successfully bridge cross-sectoral gaps and how specific characteristics might influence intermediary capacity. Future research could shed light on what makes third party intermediary organizations successful. For instance, future research could clarify which mechanisms, procedures, or characteristics intermediary organizations should use or possess to achieve satisfactory results. Second, as we indicate intermediary organizations also function as gatekeepers influencing who is in- or excluded from partnerships, future research could explore this function. Third, our data indicate some third party intermediary organizations go beyond matching supply and demand and play a more active role. These intermediary organizations identify unaddressed needs and unfurl particular nonprofit initiatives. In doing so, they become an umbrella for multiple social initiatives (NPO10). These intermediary organizations go beyond matchmaking and engage in social innovation - defined as "novel solutions to a social problem that are more effective, efficient, sustainable, or just than existing solutions and for which the value created accrues primarily to society as a whole rather than private individuals" (Phills et al., 2008, p.36). Where third party intermediary organizations usually have a rather reactive stance while matchmaking, these intermediary organizations take a rather proactive role as social innovators, detect market failures, and become (private) actors for the public good. A respondent mentioned that the intermediary organization slowly evolved into this new role (IO3). Further research could explore the social innovation by third party intermediary organizations' social innovation more closely as it opens up various research opportunities. For instance, one could examine how intermediary organizations mature and what learning-curve they go through. This subsequently informs how to support or accelerate this process. Before supporting this process, however, future research might examine what third party intermediary organizations

actually do as social innovators and how they influence the third sector. Future research could examine how they support, inform, or repress civil society development. Moreover, as intermediary organizations as social innovators seem to become actors for the public good, one might explore if they remain in an equidistant position between for-profit and nonprofit organizations, and how this might influence their credibility and trustworthiness. Lastly, as we acknowledge that our findings provide a relatively rose-colored picture of third party intermediary organizations, we also highlight the more gloomy side of these organizations. Future research could examine this gloomy side further. For instance, interesting questions include: Can intermediary organizations inhibit or harm business-nonprofit partnerships? What do for-profit or nonprofit organizations lose from involving an intermediary organization? These and other future reflections are fundamental for developing and improving the triad relationships within business-nonprofit partnerships.

Appendix

A   Empirical Data Collection

Data	Respondent reference	Background respondent	Experience with intermediary organization (or business-nonprofit partnerships)
Focus group	IO1	Manager intermediary organization; part-time employed in the healthcare sector	Since 2014
	IO2	Manager intermediary organization; self-employed as organizational coach and advisor	Since 2015
	IO3	Manager intermediary organization; part-time employed in youth services	Since 2014
	IO4	Manager intermediary organization; experience in education and the finance & banking industry	Since 2014
	IO5	Board member intermediary organization; self-employed as organizational advisor	Since 2014
	IO6	Board member intermediary organization; self-employed as communications and marketing advisor	Since 2015
	IO7	Manager intermediary organization; self-employed as organizational coach and advisor	Since 2014
Focus group	IO8	Chairman advisory board national organization; self-employed as consultant cultural and arts sector	(-)
	IO3	See IO3	(-)

Data	Respondent reference	Background respondent	Experience with intermediary organization (or business-nonprofit partnerships)
(Cont.)	IO9	Board member national organization; Professor of Business Economics	Since 2013
	IO10	Ambassador national organization; director in the banking industry	Since 2011
	IO11	Director national organization; founder first IO (1999)	Since 1999
Focus group	BUS1	CEO banking industry (local branch)	Recently engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization; also engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships without intermediary organization
	GOV1	Municipal account holder; responsible for social development	Responsible for communication between local municipality and intermediary organization
	GOV2	Municipal advisor; responsible for work and income	Works with intermediary organization on projects surrounding refugees
	BUS2	Head corporate communications large insurance company; responsible for communications, events, and the corporate foundation	Engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with and without intermediary organization. Organization has own corporate foundation
	NPO1	Project coordinator local volunteer center	Since several years involved with intermediary organization on projects surrounding corporate volunteer labor
	IO3	See IO3	
Focus group	BUS3	Owner IT company	Since 2013 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS4	Owner car dealership	Since 2007 engaged in

Data	Respondent reference	Background respondent	Experience with intermediary organization (and business-nonprofit partnerships)
(Cont.)			business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO2	Innovation manager at a non-profit organization educating and coaching people with a distance to the labor market	Engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS5	CEO in the coffee industry and chairman of the firm's corporate foundation	Since several years engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with and without intermediary organization. Organization has own corporate foundation
	IO12	Chairman board national organization; social entrepreneur and experience in consultancy and education	Since 2013
	IO11	See IO11	
	NPO3	Nonprofit organization supporting children of financial distressed families	Since 2015 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO4	Founder of various nonprofit organizations (e.g., supporting parents of disabled children; supporting the elderly)	Since several years engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS6	Self-employed as HR advisor	Since several years engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	IO13	Manager intermediary organization; experience as organizational advisor	Since 2011
	BUS7	Self-employed as tax advisor	Since several years engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO5	Volunteer center	Working with intermediary organization since 2007

Data	Respondent reference	Background respondent	Experience with intermediary organization (or business-nonprofit partnerships)
Interview	BUS8	Communications advisor oil and energy company	Engaged in three or four business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO6	Nonprofit sharing platform aimed to enhance social cohesion within communities	Engaged in two business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	IO14	Board member intermediary organization; self-employed as marketing and communication advisor	Since 2014
	NPO7; NPO8	Founders nonprofit organization supporting individuals with psychological difficulties	No experience with business-nonprofit partnerships with or without intermediary organization
	BUS9	Notary	Since 2009 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO9	Founder social eatery for families in financial distress or the lonely	Since 2013 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS10	Owner marketing, communications & PR office	Since 2009 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	NPO10	Founder nonprofit organization providing buddy-support to refugees	Since 2014 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	GOV3	Municipal district coordinator	Collaborates with intermediary organization regarding social initiatives
	NPO11	Founder nonprofit housing initiative for families with children with non-congenital brain injury	No experience with business-nonprofit partnerships with or without intermediary organization

Data	Respondent reference	Background respondent	Experience with intermediary organization (or business-nonprofit partnerships)
(Cont.)	BUS11	Notary	Since 2015 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS12	CEO banking industry (local branch)	Since 2015 engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization
	BUS13	Director corporate communications for a food & beverage company	Engaged in business-nonprofit partnerships with intermediary organization

Inspired by Gioia et al. (2010).

B   Overview of Codes, Themes, and Aggregate Dimensions

1st Order codes	2nd Order codes	Aggregate dimensions
Separation private- and third-sector Actors lack connections Actors incapable of achieving a network on their own Intermediary organizations provide a network Intermediary organizations provide an entrance into private- or third-sector	Providing organizational social capital	Overcoming organizational barriers
Business-nonprofit partnerships are a time-consuming activity Intermediary organizations reformulate and filter requests Intermediary organizations provide one desk Intermediary organizations unburden actors Intermediary organizations accelerate partnership formation Efficiency gains due to trustworthy image of intermediary organization	Lowering transaction costs	
Individuals unknowledgeable on how to engage in business-nonprofit partnerships Latent donors Latent recipients Intermediary organization awakens actors	Providing human capital	Overcoming individual barriers

1st Order codes	2nd Order codes	Aggregate dimensions
Intermediary organizations stimulate long-term partnerships Intermediary organizations encourage bilateral exchanges	Enhance partnership value	Beyond matchmaking
Partnerships with multiple actors	Stimulate collective action	
Without intermediary organization partnerships within small personal network	De-emotionalize partner selection	
Intermediary organizations approach unusual suspects Intermediary organizations think beyond boundaries Intermediary organizations are gatekeepers	Equal distribution of partnerships among community	

Chapter 6

Conclusion

6.1 Summary of Findings

Due to their diversity, the four studies that make up this dissertation provide a broad overview on the various contemporary channels of both private and corporate philanthropy. The studies vary in their phenomenon under study: National Days of Service (Chapter 2 and 3), a collective corporate foundation (Chapter 4), and third party intermediary organizations facilitating corporate philanthropy (Chapter 5). Moreover, the studies include qualitative empirical studies (Chapter 2, 4 and 5) and a quantitative empirical study (Chapter 3). The four studies together contribute to different, but related, aspects of present-day philanthropy. More specifically, the dissertation zooms in on the phenomenon of temporary episodic volunteering within National Days of Service initiated by a third party (Chapter 2 and 3); two modern practices for indirect corporate giving, being collective corporate foundations (Chapter 4) and third party intermediary organizations (Chapter 5). Although each study is a distinct essay, the dissertation as a whole encompasses two overall themes: National Days of Service and corporate philanthropy at arm's length. As a totality, the dissertation enhances our understanding of these two substantive areas of research. I mainly use these two themes to structure the main contributions, as well as the practical implications, and future research.

In Chapter 2, I examine how nonprofit organizations can design National Days of Service projects to yield satisfying volunteer experiences. I apply a directed qualitative content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005) on data deriving from in-depth interviews with host nonprofit organizations and volunteer centers, participant observation

reports, and focus groups with Day of Service volunteers. Based on work design theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980), these data provide insights on how host nonprofit organization can enhance volunteer (job) satisfaction in National Days of Service and similar one-off events. The results reveal that especially task significance, direct beneficiary contact and social support, job-based feedback and feedback from others, task identity and limited autonomy promote satisfying volunteer experiences. Furthermore, findings indicate that adequate planning and preparation, and an appropriate workload also promote volunteer satisfaction.

In Chapter 3, I continue to enhance the understanding of National Days of Service from on organizational perspective. I examine how different types of host nonprofit organizations participate in and practice National Days of Service. I focus specifically on sports associations as a prime example of mutual support or membership organizations. These organizations are membership-based and their inherent nature seems to contradicts with the volunteer energy evoked within National Days of Service - being community-wide (Brudney et al., 2019). Where National Days of Service might present a challenge for sport organizations, the approach to volunteer recruitment within these events seems to reconcile with service delivery organizations. Service delivery organizations produce benefits for external clients and recruit volunteers community-wide. I statistically analyse a sample of 1,030 sports associations and 4,293 service delivery organizations participating as hosts in an annual National Day of Service in the Netherlands between 2012 and 2015. I find that sports associations conform to their inherent nature in National Days of Service. Sports associations differ from service delivery organizations in the types of volunteers attracted, the recruitment methods used, and the results attained by their participation in the National Day of Service. More specifically, findings suggest that sports associations enlist more internal and fewer external volunteers compared to service delivery organizations; use more internally-oriented recruitment methods; achieve results with a more internal scope or narrow reach.

In Chapter 4, I differentiate between direct and indirect corporate philanthropy as well as individual and collective giving practices. Based on a case study of a collective corporate foundation, I investigate the rationales and consequences associated with a for-profit organization's decision to practice corporate philanthropy through such an external collective entity. An inductive thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) of in-depth interviews with various stakeholders and documentary evidence, provides insights into the organizational rationales and consequences underlying this corporate decision. The chapter finds two rationales informing corporate decision makers to

practice corporate philanthropy through a collective corporate foundation. First, it allows for-profit organizations to concentrate resources on core business activities. Second, it allows for-profit organizations to organize corporate giving as efficient as possible. Results also reveal three organizational consequences of using a collective corporate foundation to practice corporate philanthropy: (1) Corporate donors experience a loss of control; (2) corporate donors are to a lesser extent involved with the philanthropic activities; (3) a collective corporate foundation serving multiple corporate donors results in fewer individual organizational benefits. These consequences indicate that collective indirect channels are inappropriate when corporate donors wish to use corporate philanthropy to serve marketing-related purposes or as a means for differentiation. Moreover, I propose that a trade-off exists between these rationales and consequences. From these results, I identify four key dimensions that influence a for-profit organization's decision for direct/indirect and individual/collective giving practices: (1) corporate philanthropy being a core or peripheral activity; (2) the amount of corporate resources available; (3) firm's level of desired control and involvement; (4) firm's desired public profile.

In Chapter 5, I address the question: What makes third party intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement? In the study, I conceptualize corporate community involvement similar to corporate philanthropy referring to a for-profit organization's provision of financial contributions, in-kind donations, and corporate volunteering (Van Der Voort et al., 2009). The study focuses on an exploratory case study of third party intermediary organizations facilitating local corporate community involvement in the Netherlands. I perform a systematic inductive approach (Gioia et al., 2013) on focus group and interview data gathered in an 18-month period. I find that third party intermediary organizations overcome three barriers that prevent nonprofit and for-profit organizations to engage in corporate community involvement. First, third party intermediary organizations provide for-profit and nonprofit organizations with the required organizational social capital when actors lack adequate networks. Second, third party intermediary organizations lower transaction costs involved in business-nonprofit partnership selection and formation. Third, third party intermediary organizations provide human capital (i.e., knowledge and experiences) so actors can grasp the potential of business-nonprofit partnerships. Findings furthermore suggest that third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinctive ways. First, third party intermediary organizations stimulate more long-term and reciprocal partnerships and thereby move business-nonprofit partnerships forwards on the collab-

oration continuum of Austin (2000b). Second, third party intermediary organizations stimulate collective action. Third, intermediary organizations de-emotionalize partner selection and ensure an equal distribution of business-nonprofit partnerships among the local community.

Table 6.1 summarizes the findings and key contributions of the four studies in the dissertation.

	Main findings	**Contributions**
Chapter 2 (National Days of Service)	Findings provide a holistic framework for understanding how to design National Days of Service projects to yield volunteer job satisfaction. National Day of Service volunteers are most likely to have fulfilling experiences when their National Day of Service project incorporates task significance, interaction outside the organization (beneficiary contact), social support, feedback from others, job-based feedback, task identity, limited autonomy, and are well planned and prepared with an appropriate workload.	The chapter contributes to the literature on National Days of Service by examining the impact of overlooked organizational and management factors, i.e., job design, on the critical outcome of volunteer satisfaction. Moreover, by grounding the study in work design theory it extends temporary episodic volunteer management by adapting research derived from paid employment. The chapter reveals that organizational and management factors can generate volunteer job satisfaction in National Days of Service. The findings affirm the importance of social characteristics and underscore the salience of task characteristics such as task identity and job-based feedback.
Chapter 3 (National Days of Service)	Results demonstrate that sports associations and service delivery organizations differ in volunteer recruitment methods, volunteers	The chapter contributes to the literature on National Days of Service by examining how different nonprofit organizations

	Main findings	**Contributions**
(Chapter 3 continued)	recruited, and results achieved in National Days of Service. Sports associations enlist more internal and fewer external volunteers; use more internally-oriented recruitment methods; achieved internal and narrow results compared to service delivery organizations	practice these events. Results inform our understanding of the functioning of National Days of Service in sport organizations and membership organizations alike, and add to the scant literature addressing volunteering within membership organizations
	Findings provide evidence that sports associations conform to their inherent nature (membership-base and -purpose) in National Days of Service.	
Chapter 4 (Corporate Philanthropy)	Findings reveal two rationales guiding corporate decision makers facing the decision between direct/indirect and individual/collective giving practices: (1) the amount of available resources and (2) the need for efficiency. Findings also highlight three consequences for for-profit organizations when using an indirect and collective giving practice: (1) loss of control, (2) loss of involvement, and (3) fewer individual organizational benefits.	The chapter makes a contribution to the corporate philanthropy literature as previous literature centers on direct and individual corporate philanthropy. Furthermore, the chapter identifies four key dimensions within corporate giving decision making overlooked in previous literature.
	Based upon the findings, the study identifies four key	The chapter's novelty lies in bringing corporate philanthropy back to a make-or-buy decision, and relating the rationales back to a strategic management and an economic view on outsourcing.

	Main findings	Contributions
(Chapter 4 continued)	dimensions that influence a firm's decision between corporate giving channels: (1) corporate philanthropy being a core or peripheral activity, (2) the amount of resources, (3) level of desired control and involvement, and (4) the desired public profile.	
Chapter 5 (Corporate Philanthropy)	Third party intermediary organizations provide an infrastructure for business-nonprofit partnerships by providing social and human capital, and by lowering transaction costs. They overcome three barriers: inadequate networks, limited resources, and being unconscious or unknowledgeable.	First, the chapter adds to the literature on business-nonprofit partnerships more broadly. The study goes beyond dyadic relationships, examines the influence of third party intermediary organizations on business-nonprofit partnerships, and examines how business-nonprofit partnership manifest on a local level.
	Third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinct ways. They (1) move business-nonprofit partnerships forward on the collaboration value continuum (Austin, 2000b); (2) stimulate collective action; (3) de-emotionalize partner selection and ensure an equal distribution of partnerships.	The chapter contributes to the literature on corporate community involvement more specifically, by informing how SMEs engage in corporate community involvement.

Table 6.1: Summary of the main findings and contributions of studies in the dissertation

6.2   Contributions of the Dissertation

This dissertation contributes mostly to the literature on temporary episodic volunteering and National Days of Service in particular (Chapter 2 and 3), and corporate philanthropy and business-nonprofit partnerships (Chapter 4 and 5). In the following section I expand on the contributions to these two areas of research.

6.2.1   Contributions to National Day of Service Literature

At a time when temporary episodic volunteering including National Days of Service and similar one-off events are perceived to be more common, and nonprofit organizations rely on and organize more short-term volunteer opportunities, increasing our understanding of National Days of Service is more important than ever. Despite the interest and growth in National Days of Service, there is surprisingly little literature on these one-off events (Christensen et al., 2005). Most of the scholarly research focuses on episodic volunteering more broadly and centers on the volunteers. Hitherto, we have a solid understanding on their demographics (Hustinx, 2010; Pauline et al., 2008), commitment and motivations (Dunn et al., 2016), and retention(Bryson et al., 2006; Hyde et al., 2016; Koutrou et al., 2016). Nevertheless, research on episodic volunteering is largely descriptive and empirical investigations are rare (Handy et al., 2006; Hyde et al., 2014, 2016; Wilson, 2012).

In their accounts of episodic volunteering, scholars largely ignored how nonprofit organizations practice National Days of Service, and how nonprofit organizations participate and use these and similar one-off events. Thus in contrast to previous literature, the dissertation empirically examines National Days of Service from an organizational perspective. I show how nonprofit organizations integrate National Days of Service and how they can do so more meaningfully.

Chapter 2 contributes to the literature on National Days of Service, by examining how nonprofit organizations can design National Days of Service projects to yield satisfying volunteer experiences. In doing so, the chapter investigates the impact of overlooked organizational and management factors (i.e., job design) on the critical outcome of volunteer satisfaction. By grounding the study in work design theory and by evaluating how this framework can be adapted to National Days of Service, the chapter contributes to the National Day of Service literature by adhering to calls from Cnaan and Cascio (1998) and Studer and Von Schnurbein (2013) to extend volunteer management by adapting research derived from paid employment. Moreover, the chapter identifies nine work design aspects of the volunteering environment that affect

Day of Service volunteer satisfaction. In doing so, findings reaffirms the importance of social characteristics for Day of Service volunteer satisfaction and underscores the salience of task characteristics such as task identity and job-based feedback. Furthermore, the nine work design aspects affecting volunteer satisfaction are all within the control of the organization. Thus the chapter reveals the organization and management factors (i.e., job design) generating temporary episodic volunteering job satisfaction.

Chapter 3 sheds light on the functioning of National Days of Service in sport organizations and membership organizations alike. The growing popularity of these events (Christensen et al., 2005), and the large proportion of membership organizations in the voluntary sector(Breuer et al., 2017; Hallmann and Fairley, 2018; Handy, 1988; Meijs, 1997), justifies the research. As there is no previous research on how different nonprofit organizations participate and practice National Days of Service, the chapter fills a notably gap. In doing so, the study also adds to the scant literature addressing volunteering in membership organizations (Gazley, 2013; Mook et al., 2007).

6.2.2 Contributions to Corporate Philanthropy Literature

Various vehicles or channels exist for for-profit organizations to organize, shape, and manage its corporate philanthropy. This includes providing the CEO or a manager with the responsibility for a firm's corporate philanthropy (Gautier and Pache, 2015), or structure and centralize a firm's corporate philanthropy in a specific department (Altuntas and Turker, 2015; Husted, 2003). For-profit organizations can also practice their corporate philanthropy outside firm boundaries. These practices for indirect corporate giving include for example third-party intermediary organizations (Lee, 2015) or corporate foundations (Rey-Garcia et al., 2012; Petrovits, 2006). Besides shaping, organizing, and managing corporate giving individually, for-profit organizations can also go down a collaborative path with like-minded for-profit organizations and combine their corporate philanthropy. When practicing corporate philanthropy outside firm boundaries a for-profit organization places its corporate giving at arm's length. The dissertation focuses on two outside vehicles and associated values and consequences.

Corporate philanthropy literature centers on various facets of direct and individual corporate giving. Thus, we have a decent understanding of major aspects of the phenomenon including its essence, motivations, practices and processes, and outcomes (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Liket and Simaens, 2015). In their accounts of corporate philanthropy, scholars largely ignore the various channels available to for-profit orga-

nizations to engage in corporate giving, especially those practices including indirect corporate giving. Chapter 4 and 5 aim to fill this gap.

Chapter 4 examines a collective corporate giving practice. Collective (corporate) philanthropy provides a new model for entrepreneurs and for-profit organizations all around the world (Marquis et al., 2017). In contrast to previous literature, Chapter 4 focuses on an indirect and collective corporate giving practice: a collective corporate foundation. Chapter 4 contributes to the corporate philanthropy literature by examining when and why for-profit organizations engage in indirect, collective giving strategies and use a collective corporate foundation as a vehicle to engage in corporate philanthropy. Findings enhance the understanding of the rationales and consequences related to a for-profit organization's choice between indirect and direct corporate philanthropy, as well as individual and collective giving strategies. In doing so, the chapter brings back corporate philanthropy to a make-or-buy decision, and articulates what differs direct and individual corporate philanthropy from indirect and collective corporate philanthropy. The rationales found in the chapter are furthermore related to a strategic management and an economic view on outsourcing.

Based on exploratory research, Chapter 5 contributes to the business-nonprofit partnership literature more broadly and corporate community involvement literature in particular. First, the study advances the understanding of the value of third party intermediary organizations in business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. This is valuable as business-nonprofit partnerships lack the academic attention they deserve (Harris, 2012b). Chapter 5 advances our knowledge on the role of third party intermediary organizations in manifesting business-nonprofit partnerships on a local level. The study suggest that third party intermediary organizations provide an infrastructure for business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement. These organizations overcome three barriers experienced by nonprofit and for-profit organizations preventing them to engage in business-nonprofit partnerships. These include having inadequate networks, having insufficient resources, and being unknowledgeable or inexperienced. Thus, Chapter 5 sheds light on the conditions underlying business-nonprofit partnerships. Moreover, I find that third party intermediary organizations de-emotionalize partnership selections and ensure a more equal distribution of business-nonprofit partnerships among a local community. These are all elements overlooked in previous literature. Despite their upsurge, their growth in number, and their importance (Lee, 2015; Rochester et al., 2010; Stadtler and Probst, 2012) these contemporary organizations received hitherto limited scholarly attention (Lee, 2015; Manning and Roessler, 2014). The chapter responds to calls

from Lee (2015) and Herlin and Pedersen (2013) to examine the influence of third party intermediary organizations on business-nonprofit partnerships. I show third party intermediary organizations accelerate and change business-nonprofit partnerships. Likewise, the chapter responds to a recent call from Arenas et al. (2013), to examine cross-sectoral partnerships beyond dyadic interactions and to investigate the processes and triad interactions underlying cross-sector partnerships. In contrast to tacking a dual/dyadic perspective in previous literature (see for instance Seitanidi et al. (2010)), the chapter closely looks at the triad/tri-part relationship between for-profit, nonprofit, and third party intermediary organizations. Lastly, according to Harris (2012b), scholars need to focus on examining business-nonprofit partnerships on the international, national and local level.

The chapter makes a second contribution to the literature on corporate community involvement in particular. As collaborative processes or conditions underlying corporate community involvement are little understood (Gautier and Pache, 2015), the study shows how corporate community involvement manifests in practice through the support of third party intermediary organizations. Chapter 5 also highlights how or when small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) engage in corporate community involvement. Research on corporate community involvement normally overlooks SMEs. Therefore, little is understood about how SMEs engage in corporate community involvement (Amaeshi et al., 2016; Madden et al., 2006) or the underlying conditions of doing so (Lepoutre and Heene, 2006). By overcoming the three barriers (inadequate networks, limited resources, and being unconscious or unknowledgeable), third party intermediaries enable especially SMEs to engage in corporate community involvement.

6.3   Implications for Practice

6.3.1   National Days of Service and Similar Events

As Chapter 2 and 3 examine National Days of Service from an organizational perspective, the chapters have practical implications for volunteer centers and nonprofit organizations.

Chapter 2 highlights that host nonprofit organizations can design National Days of Service projects to yield volunteer satisfaction. The study provides nonprofit organizations a pathway to organize fulfilling National Days of Service projects for volunteers. Findings suggests that nonprofit organization may achieve this by designing National Days of Service projects that incorporate task significance, direct beneficiary contact and social support, job-based feedback and feedback from others, task identity

and limited autonomy. As the chapter identifies certain work design factors to elicit Day of Service volunteer job satisfaction, findings inform volunteer managers on how to design National Days of Service projects. Second, volunteer managers can determine whether their current projects and practices are suitable for National Days of Service. Although the findings emanate from National Days of Service, I believe practical implications may go beyond these events. As corporate volunteering (Grant, 2012), family-volunteering (Littlepage et al., 2003), and single-volunteering (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011) are often performed in a a similar one-off and one-day manner, the findings might inform volunteer centers, nonprofit and for-profit practitioners on how to design these time-delimited events.

Chapter 3 demonstrates that sports associations do not routinely mimic National Days of Service examples from service delivery organizations. I do recommend sports associations that wish to attain results with a broader reach beyond the association's boundaries to incorporate more externally-oriented recruitment methods and to recruit more non-member volunteers. They could do so by using the local media or a (local) volunteer center to recruitment volunteers for National Days of Service. This might be especially relevant as recent research indicates that recruitment and retention of volunteers for (large) sports associations has become problematic in the last years (Wicker and Breuer, 2013; Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018). National Days of Service can provide an entry into sustained volunteering (for example Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003)). As sports associations may need to search beyond the association's boundaries to recruit non-members (Wicker et al., 2018; Lucassen and Reitsma, 2018) National Days of Service might provide a way to do so. Although the chapter is limited to sports associations, I believe the analysis is relevant to other mutual support or membership associations as sports associations have many characteristics in common to other mutual support and membership associations (see Ibsen et al. (2019)).

6.3.2   Corporate Philanthropy at Arm's Length

Chapter 4 helps corporate decision makers to identify where they should focus their philanthropic endeavors and guides them in the decision between various corporate giving practices (direct/indirect and individual/collective). Based on the results, the chapter identifies four key dimensions that influence a for-profit organization's giving style: (1) corporate philanthropy being a core or peripheral activity, (2) the amount of corporate resources available, (3) a firm's level of desired control and involvement, and (4) a firm's desired public profile including the desire to use corporate giving as a marketing or differentiation devise. Based upon these four dimensions, for-profit

organizations can decide on an appropriate giving practice (i.e., direct versus indirect, individual versus collective). First, for-profit organizations need to consider the role of corporate philanthropy within their for-profit organization: core/peripheral activity. Second, for-profit organizations should decide on the amount of resources that can be directed towards organizing corporate philanthropy. Third, I recommend corporate decision makers to ponder to what extent they want to control and be engaged with its corporate giving. Fourth, corporate decision makers need to consider if they want to use their philanthropic endeavors as a marketing or differentiation device, or if they wish to pursue a mission greater than individual recognition. When corporate philanthropy entails a peripheral activity, receives limited corporate resources, low levels of control or involvement are sufficient, and individual recognition is not desired – indirect and/or collective giving practices are suitable. Direct and/or individual practices are recommended when corporate philanthropy entails a more core activity, sufficient corporate can be made available, control and commitment is desirable, and/or individual recognition is appreciated.

Second, findings can assist collective corporate foundations to enhance the quality of their operations. Operations can be improved as findings inform collective corporate foundations of the factors that count heavily for corporate decision makers. For instance, collective corporate foundations might attract funding from more corporate donors when they focus on the benefits they provide (i.e., the rationales identified in the study). Moreover, findings inform other collective initiatives or multiple-donor foundations as the rationales and consequences might be comparable. Third, findings can stimulate the practice of collective giving strategies and stimulate for-profit organizations to establish a collective initiative together when these organizations lack the resources to organize corporate philanthropy individually and internally.

The findings of Chapter 5 inform both for-profit and nonprofit organizations, and third party intermediary organizations. First, knowing what makes third party intermediary organizations so valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships such as corporate community involvement, informs nonprofit and for-profit organizations to assess whether to involve third party intermediary organizations. Nonprofit and for-profit organizations who feel they do not possess an adequate network, do not possess the required resources, or who either feel unknowledgeable or inexperienced could decide to work with third party intermediary organizations. This understanding is also valuable for third party intermediary organizations themselves, as they might exploit their added values in their business model. In addition, the chapter indicates third party intermediary organizations have a noble role as they awaken nonprofit and for-profit

organizations who are unconscious or unaware of the potential of business-nonprofit collaboration. Third, the chapter also provides some advice to third party intermediary organizations on how to sustain their legitimacy and credibility. This merits careful attention as intermediary organizations require legitimate statuses among multiple audiences to establish continuous commitment in each partner (Herlin and Pedersen, 2013). I recommend third party intermediary organizations to find the right balance between unburdening nonprofit or for-profit organizations and facilitating too much on behalf of partnership partners. When third party intermediary organizations take up too much in the partnership, they reduce partner's creativity to form, develop, and manage the partnership themselves and kill partners' involvement. Moreover, when third party intermediary organizations take upon too much work, the partnerships they facilitate can be seen as effortless ways of corporate community involvement - influencing the legitimacy of their activities.

6.4   Future Research

The dissertation offers directions for future work in the respective two substantive areas of research: National Days of Service and corporate philanthropy at arm's length.

6.4.1   National Days of Service

First, future work could extend the qualitative study in Chapter 2 with a quantitative study. A quantitative study could provide in-depth information on the exact relations between the nine identified work design characteristics and volunteer job satisfaction of Day of Service volunteers. Furthermore, future (quantitative) work might explore to what extent the findings apply to a broader range of (temporary) episodic volunteer contexts.

In Chapter 3, there was broad agreement that sports associations seem to stick to their membership-approach in National Days of Service. Nevertheless, it remains unclear whether their performance emanates from their unwillingness to adapt as a conscious choice - perhaps because they are hesitant to include non-members (Lam and Kuperus, 2007) - or if they are unable to adapt because they do not know how. Thus, the question may be not whether sports associations (do) adapt, but rather if they can adapt to National Days of Service? Future qualitative research could examine whether sports associations (or other membership organizations) consciously make this decision or whether their knowledge basis limits their ability to adapt. Second, future

work could also focus on National Days of Service within membership organizations more broadly. Given the extensive diversity of size, structure and purpose of sports associations (Byers, 2009), I suggest that variations in the integration and use of National Days of Service across the sector are possible.

Although Chapter 2 and 3 represent two of the first empirical studies on National Days of Service from on organizational perspective, I hope these chapters pave the way forward to more accurate and expanded examinations.

6.4.2   Corporate Philanthropy at Arm's Length

Chapter 4, based upon a case study of a collective corporate foundation, opens up various interesting avenues to explore in future research. As the chapter brings corporate philanthropy back to a make-or-buy decision, future work might investigate if corporate philanthropy is indeed a make "or" buy decision. Some for-profit organizations might outsource routine philanthropic activities (i.e., handling donation requests) to give their direct corporate giving a more strategic role (i.e., focus on strategic giving and employee engagement). Second, there might be much room to advance our understanding of the rationales with a more social view. I encourage future research to provide insights into social rationales that might impact the make-or-buy decision as well as the decision for individual for collective giving strategies. For instance, isomorphic pressures may be at play. Third, as the chapter takes on a for-profit perspective, the nonprofit perspective remains under-examined. Therefore, future work could examine the implications of indirect/collective corporate giving practices (such as a collective corporate foundations) on nonprofit organizations.

Although Chapter 5 represents one of the first empirical studies examining third party intermediary organizations facilitating corporate community involvement, I hope the chapter paves the way forward to more accurate examinations and other intriguing avenues uncovered in the study. First, it remains unclear how third party intermediary organizations successfully bridge cross-sectoral gaps and how specific characteristics might influence intermediary capacity. Future research could shed light on what makes third party intermediary organizations successful. That is to say, future research could clarify which mechanisms, procedures, or characteristics third party intermediary organizations should use or possess to achieve satisfactory results. Second, the data indicate some third party intermediary organizations go beyond matching supply and demand and play a more active role as "market-makers". Future research could investigate this proactive role of third party intermediary organizations more in-depth from various perspectives - including nonprofit organizations or the third sector more

broadly. Additionally, as I acknowledge the study findings provide a relatively rose-colored picture of third party intermediary organizations, the study also highlighted the more gloomy side of these intermediary actors. Future research could examine this gloomy side further. For instance, interesting questions include: Can third party intermediary organizations inhibit or harm business-nonprofit partnerships?; What do for-profit or nonprofit organizations lose from involving a third party intermediary organization? These and other future reflections are fundamental for developing and improving the triad relationships within business-nonprofit partnerships.

Lastly, this dissertation acknowledges that various channels for and practices of corporate philanthropy exist. Mapping the corporate philanthropic landscape in detail, including all the organizational forms, vehicles, channels, and practices that populate the terrain mertis attention. Efforts might expand Figure 1.1, found in the introduction of this dissertation, as the continuum might contain many more organizations, channels, vehicles, and philanthropic practices that populate the corporate philanthropic repertoire nowadays. I hope this dissertation inspires future scholarly work.

6.4.3   Ownership within Corporate Philanthropy at Arm's Length

The paradigm of mobilizing corporate resources through separate entities places corporate philanthropy outside firm boundaries and at arm's length from the for-profit organization. As this dissertation acknowledges this paradigm and advances our understanding on the values and consequences of two indirect corporate giving practices, the dissertation raises other important questions. Most importantly, the studies collectively raise questions about "ownership" of these outside channels and their philanthropic endeavors.

For instance, Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 both highlight a for-profit organization's loss of involvement and control when corporate philanthropy is channeled through a collective corporate foundation. These findings would indicate a certain loss of ownership. On the other hand, some for-profit organizations tend to constantly maintain a relationship with and influence operations of the external vehicle. This is illustrated by various corporate foundations that are closely linked to a for-profit organization in terms of their name, funding, trustees, administration, and employee involvement (Westhues and Einwiller, 2006). According to Roza et al. (2019), corporate foundations can even been seen as corporate philanthropy tools in the hands of managers or firm owners. Thus although placed outside firm boundaries in a legal separate entity, a for-profit organization can still claim and maintain ownership of

its philanthropic activities. It seems that corporate foundations have ambiguous and latent ownership statuses. The question arises what happens with (organizational) ownership when a for-profit organization places the responsibility or daily operations of corporate philanthropy outside firm boundaries?

It seems that actual formal or legal-economic ownership is not a prerequisite or neither a necessary or sufficient condition to obtain ownership statuses. It seems to be possible to claim (organizational) ownership while having no legal-economic ownership. We therefore require a better understanding of how organizational ownership unfolds in alternative organizational contexts.

Hitherto, there is no theory that explains the existing ownership statuses and ownership relations between a for-profit organization and its philanthropic endeavors outside firm boundaries. As current theories of organizational ownership insufficiently reflect the scope of real phenomena, it is well justified or even necessary to search for additional elements which would form a more realistic theory. Organizational ownership is not often studied as a concept in its own right, but solely as a static variable influencing other organizational outcomes (e.g., corporate performance, investments, innovation) (Demsetz and Villalonga, 2001; Cho, 1998; Baysinger et al., 1991). Organizational ownership merits scholarly attention as organizational ownership underpins our understanding or organizations of all kinds (Bencherki and Bourgoin, 2019). Moreover, organizational ownership influences organizational behavior, perceptions, emotions, and motivations (Björnberg and Nicholson, 2012; Pierce et al., 2001; Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004). The few studies that deal with property and related notions are said to be limited in scope and depth, whereby the studies generally adopt a legal-economic view (Bencherki and Bourgoin, 2019).

Economic theories indeed function as a field-defining theoretical framework of ownership and claim-making in economic, management and organization studies. The prevalent legal-economic on claim-making resonates from theories of the firm. In theories of the firm, organizations are seen as a nexus of contracts (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). Theories informing organizational ownership include transaction cost economics, agency theory, and classical and modern property or contract theory (Coase, 1937; Fama and Jensen, 1983a; Grossman and Hart, 1986).

Economic theory fragments ownership into three formal rights: (1) the right to retain residual earnings; (2) the right to formally control the organization and use its assets; (3) the right to sell, alienate or transfer the previous two rights to a new owner (Alchian and Demsetz, 1972; Ben-Ner and Jones, 1995; Ben-Ner and Van Hoomissen, 1994; Hansmann, 1980, 1996). The characteristics of these rights are important in

distinguishing organizational forms from one another (Fama and Jensen, 1983a). Organizations have a variety of ownership structures, including a surprisingly large variety of organizations in which ownership is disclaimed by those who supply capital (e.g., consumers, workers, or other suppliers) - often called alternative ownership structures (Hansmann, 1996). Nonprofit organizations are portrayed as organizations without residual claimants and are thereby seen as organizations without owners or whom are self-owned (Brody, 1995; Fama and Jensen, 1983a,b; Hansmann, 1996). Organizational economics rest their inception of organizational ownership within the nonprofit sector on a by-law imposed rule that precludes a nonprofit organization to distribute profits to owners. This rule is known as the non-distribution constraint (Hansmann, 1980).

This legal-economic view on organizational ownership is clearly useful to account for the structural, legal, and financial side of ownership in conventional contexts (e.g., large investor-owned for-profit organizations) (Fama and Jensen, 1983a,b). This view insufficiently accounts for organizational ownership in particular settings, leaving organizational ownership contested. For instance, these include nonprofit organizations such as corporate foundations.

The legal-economic view on organizational ownership seems to results in a rather static, reductionist, and representational concept of organizational ownership. The legal-economic account on organizational ownership is incomplete and exhibits short-comings – due to over-generalizations necessary in any theory. First, the traditional view limits how organizational ownership is obtained. Ownership is set *ex ante*, speci-fied in contracts, legally given, dichotomous, and results in representations formally defined categories of ownership (Bencherki and Bourgoin, 2019). Second, the tradi-tional view limits what is owned, as ownership only constitutes assets, property rights, and economic values. Hereby neglecting other values such as social values.

Research questions to address could include: Is it possible to re-conceptualize organizational ownership and go beyond the narrow economic definition? How are claims of organizational ownership made and accepted in organizational contexts lacking legal-economic ownership? I echo Bencherki and Bourgoin (2019) and encourage future research to dive into the concept of organizational ownership and to open up and unravel its black box. One can do so by offering a critique on existing legal-economic literature and by extending the legal-economic account of organizational ownership. A variety of perspectives – political, psychological, or sociological – can extend the traditional view of organizational ownership. Fruitful avenues could include research examining how organizational ownership unfolds as a social process within

social interactions and negotiations, or could utilize language-centered perspectives on the phenomena. The latter will embed organizational ownership in the larger communicational ontology of organizations, and will enrich ownership literature with interpretation, texts, and communicative acts. This would fit a research stream that unfurls organizational phenomena from static concepts with a representational stance towards a performative one.

An enhanced understanding will contribute to ownership literature and will most likely entail implications for governance and stakeholder literature. For instance, an extended view on organizational ownership provides a new way to identify owners in organizational contexts lacking legal-economic owners. Hereby one can provide an answer to the question: Whom should be held accountable? This subsequently could evolve governance mechanisms to hold these owners accountable. Furthermore, an extended approach on organizational ownership would inform stakeholder identification and salience, and can help us understand various stakeholder dynamics and their relation with an organization in alternative organizational settings. Theoretical and practical implications will not be limited to corporate foundations, but can be extended to other alternative forms of organizing (e.g., nonprofit organizations, cooperatives, social enterprises).

6.4.4   Broader Research Agenda

As a final thought, this dissertation enriches our understanding on two substantive areas of research modestly. Although this dissertation answers a few research questions, there still remain many untrodden research avenues. I am eager to delve further into private and corporate philanthropy and map their respective practices and landscapes.

Areas of research include the themes addressed in this dissertation, but also go beyond. I urge researchers to delve into contemporary volunteer management. Especially volunteer management involving the secondary and intermediary volunteer models, as "the shared volunteer models have not received serious treatment" (Brudney et al., 2019, p.75). These models also touch upon contemporary forms of volunteering, including episodic volunteering more broadly (Macduff, 2004; Weber, 2002), corporate or employee volunteering (Grant, 2012; Lee and Higgins, 2001), service-learning (Astin and Sax, 1998), family volunteering (Littlepage et al., 2003), single volunteering (Hustinx et al., 2010), and volunteer tourism or voluntourism (Wearing, 2001) among others. Next to volunteer management, other forms or private philanthropy deserve more academic attention. These include contemporary forms of monetary donations (i.e., charitable crowdfunding, giving circles (Eikenberry and Breeze, 2015)), but also

gift or in-kind donations (Bussell and Forbes, 2002), as well as the giving of bodily products or parts (labeled as health-related philanthropy) (Meslin et al., 2008).

Besides these forms of private philanthropy, I solicit researchers to examine corporate philanthropy and business-nonprofit relationships more broadly, as both deserve more attention (Harris, 2012b). First, although the dissertation explores several vehicles for corporate philanthropy, there might be various other organizational forms, vehicles, channels, or practices populating the corporate giving terrain that are hitherto unexplored. Moreover, it still remains unclear what the organizational or individual antecedents are that influence the choice for a particular vehicle for corporate philanthropy. Second, a practice gaining attention among for-profit organizations entails involving their customer base within their business-nonprofit partnerships and corporate philanthropy Rodell et al. (2019). We can label this for instance as customer engagement or customer involvement. For example, for-profit organizations call upon or appeal to their customers to volunteer or to make financial or in-kind donations throughout the for-profit organization to benefit specific nonprofit organizations. For-profit organizations then go beyond their conventional roles of donor and become a vehicle to give for others. These practices seem to blur the boundaries between private and corporate philanthropy. Furthermore, it would be intriguing to examine if there are differences in the practices and processes of corporate philanthropy between for-profit organizations in serving business-to-business or business-to-consumer environments. Furthermore, as corporate foundations remain under-explored (Roza et al., 2019), I urge researchers to advance our understanding of this phenomenon. For example, future research could examine how a socioemotional wealth perspective (Berrone et al., 2012) informs the relationship between a founding for-profit organization and the corporate foundation. Moreover, it would be interesting to examine in what way managers make sense or deal with potential role or identity conflicts when employed by both the for-profit organization and the corporate foundation – wearing two different hats. Fourth, I echo Harris (2012b), that the nonprofit perspective in business-nonprofit relationships merits attention. For instance, there is a need to develop a theory on the relationship and activities between the two. This includes an advanced understanding on the expectations of benefits held by nonprofit organizations and the extent to which those benefits are achieved in practice. Intriguing questions include: What do nonprofit organizations gain or lose from business-nonprofit partnerships?; Are nonprofit organizations willing or reluctant partners?; How do benefits differ across activities or partnerships?; To what extent do business-nonprofit relationships serve the public benefit goals of nonprofit organizations? (Harris, 2012b)).

These, and many others, are just a few examples of the untrodded research paths within contemporary private and corporate philanthropy.

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Summary

No part of the philanthropic landscape appears to be as diverse as the ways in which individuals and for-profit organizations seek to do good. While philanthropy in its own is not a new phenomenon, its diversity and the emergence of (third party) organizations and new channels call for a better or renewed understanding. In this dissertation, I address the various organizations and channels available nowadays to individual and corporate philanthropists. In particular, I aim to clarify their values, consequences, and associated management practices. The four studies in this dissertation answer four research questions, all aimed at studying different facets of private and corporate philanthropy.

The goal of this dissertation is to increase scholarly understanding in two substantive areas of research. First, I examine temporary episodic volunteering by examining National Days of Service initiated by a third party. National Days of Service are state- or countrywide volunteering programs in which individuals and groups support nonprofit organizations by giving their time to a one-day, time-limited volunteer project. Second, I examine a collective corporate foundation and third party intermediary organizations. These two vehicles channel important parts of corporate philanthropy and stand between corporate donors and nonprofit recipients. These vehicles place corporate philanthropy outside firm boundaries and at arm's length.

In the first study, I explore how nonprofit organizations can design National Days of Service projects to yield volunteer satisfaction. The study combines interview data, participant observations, and focus groups. By adopting work design theory, the study suggests ways for nonprofit organizations to promote volunteer satisfaction. The study finds that task significance, direct beneficiary contact and social support, feedback from others, job-based feedback, task identity, and limited autonomy yield volunteer satisfaction in National Days of Service projects. Furthermore, findings reveal adequate planning and preparation, and an appropriate workload also elicit volunteer satisfaction.

In the second study, I examine how different nonprofit organizations practice National Days of Service. I distinguish between two types of nonprofit organizations: mutual support and service delivery organizations. Mutual support organizations strive to serve and benefit their own members (i.e., sports associations); service delivery organizations produce benefits for (external) constituencies or clients. National Days of Service evoke volunteering among the broad population outside and beyond the nonprofit organization's boundaries. This reconciles with the volunteer recruitment of service delivery organizations, but contradicts the membership-nature of mutual support organizations such as sports associations. I hypothesize that sports associations, as mutual support organizations, compared to service-delivery attract different volunteers, use different volunteer recruitment methods, and attain different results with their participation in National Days of Service. Our data emanate from survey responses of 1,030 sports associations and 4,293 service delivery organizations that participated as host nonprofit organizations in an annual National Day of Service in the Netherlands. Findings reveal that sports associations enlist more internal and fewer external volunteers; use more internally-oriented recruitment methods; and achieve results with a more internal scope.

In the third study, I differentiate between direct and indirect corporate philanthropy as well as individual and collective corporate giving practices. I explore the rationales and consequences associated with a firm's decision to practice corporate philanthropy through a corporate foundation serving the interests of multiple corporate donors simultaneously: a collective corporate foundation. A thematic analysis of interview data reveals two rationales (limited corporate resources available; desire for efficiency), and three consequences (loss of control; loss of involvement; fewer individual organizational benefits). From these results, I identify four key dimensions that influence a firm's decision between direct or indirect, and individual or collective giving practices. First, for-profit organizations should ponder whether corporate giving is a core or peripheral activity. Second, the amount of corporate resources a firm has available to practice corporate philanthropy. Third, the firm's level of desired control and involvement. Fourth, the firm's desired public profile with corporate giving.

In the fourth study, I explore what makes third party intermediary organizations valuable within business-nonprofit partnerships in the context of corporate community involvement. A single case study provided the research context. Data emanate from focus groups and interviews. The results show that third party intermediary organizations overcome various barriers that prevent nonprofit and for-profit organizations to engage in corporate community involvement. First, third party intermediary organiza-

tions provide the required organizational social capital when for-profit or nonprofit organizations lack adequate cross-sectoral networks. Second, third party intermediary organizations lower transaction costs involved in partnership selection and formation. Third, third party intermediary organizations provide knowledge and experiences (known as human capital) enabling for-profit and nonprofit organization to grasp the potential of corporate community involvement. The results furthermore illustrate that third party intermediary organizations change business-nonprofit partnerships in distinctive ways. They enhance the value of the partnership, stimulate collective action, de-emotionalize partnership selection and ensure an equal distribution of corporate community involvement in the local community.

Altogether, the studies in this dissertation represent a more in-depth exploration of contemporary private and corporate philanthropy. The four studies advance scholarship in two areas. With the first two studies, I contribute to the literature on and practice of temporary episodic volunteering and National Days of Service. I show how nonprofit organizations integrate National Days of Service and how they can do so more meaningfully. With the last two studies, I contribute to the literature on and practice of corporate philanthropy specifically and business-nonprofit partnerships more broadly. I demonstrate how two channels of corporate philanthropy add value and what the consequences are for the donor and recipient.

The four studies pave the way forward to more expanded examinations of various facets of contemporary private and corporate giving. After all, there remain many untrodden research paths within private and corporate philanthropy.

Samenvatting
(Summary in Dutch)

De manieren waarop individuen en bedrijven goed kunnen doen is een van de meest diverse onderdelen van het filantropisch landschap. Hoewel filantropie geen nieuw fenomeen is, roept deze diversiteit alsook de opkomst van derde partijen en nieuwe kanalen vragen op voor een beter of hernieuwd begrip. In dit proefschrift adresseer ik de verschillende organisaties en kanalen die vandaag de dag toegankelijk zijn voor individuen en bedrijven om te geven. Specifiek wil ik de waarden, gevolgen en bijbehorende managementpraktijken van deze nieuwe organisaties en kanalen verduidelijken. De vier studies in dit proefschrift geven aldus antwoord op vier onderzoeksvragen gericht op verschillende facetten van filantropie door individuen en bedrijven. Dit laatste noemt men ook wel maatschappelijk betrokken ondernemen (MBO).

Het doel van dit proefschrift is het vergroten van wetenschappelijke kennis op twee specifieke onderwerpen. Ten eerste bestudeer ik tijdelijk kortstondig vrijwilligerswerk in nationale eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen geïnitieerd door een derde partij. Tijdens deze vrijwilligersevenementen ondersteunen individuen en groepen non-profitorganisaties als vrijwilliger voor één dag. Ten tweede bestudeer ik een collectieve *corporate foundation* en maatschappelijke bemiddelaars. Deze laatste noemen we ook wel derde partijen of intermediairs. Deze opkomende organisaties kanaliseren belangrijke elementen van MBO en staan tussen het bedrijf (de donor) en de ontvanger (de non-profitorganisatie).

In de eerste studie onderzoek ik welke factoren vrijwilligers tevredenstellen gedurende nationale eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen. Het onderzoek maakt gebruik van *work design* theorie en combineert interviews, observaties en discussiegroepen. De resultaten suggereren meerdere manieren waarop non-profitorganisaties de tevre-

denheid van eendaagse vrijwilligers kunnen bewerkstelligen. Dit kan onder andere door de betekenis van de vrijwilligerstaak te benadrukken, de vrijwilligers in direct contact te brengen met de begunstigden en te zorgen voor goede ondersteuning. Daarnaast leveren feedback van anderen, zichtbaar resultaat van het werk, en de taak een duidelijk begin en einde geven ook tevredenheid onder eendaagse vrijwilligers op. Ook zijn vrijwilligers tevreden wanneer zij beperkte autonomie hebben tijdens het eendaagse vrijwilligersevenement. Als laatste leiden een adequate planning, voldoende voorbereiding en een passende werklast ook tot de tevredenheid van vrijwilligers.

In de tweede studie onderzoek ik hoe verschillende non-profitorganisaties (o.a. (sport)verenigingen en dienstverlenende non-profitorganisaties) gebruik maken van landelijke eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen. Verenigingen dienen hun eigen leden en lidmaatschap. Dienstverlenende organisaties leveren goederen of diensten aan externe cliënten. Nationale eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen roepen op tot eendaags vrijwilligerswerk onder de brede bevolking en stimuleren individuen buiten de grenzen van de eigen non-profitorganisatie tot deelname. Dit komt overeen met hoe dienstverlenende non-profitorganisaties normaliter hun vrijwilligers werven, maar is tegenstrijdig met hoe (sport)verenigingen hun vrijwilligers werven (namelijk vanuit de eigen lidmaatschap). Ik veronderstel dat (sport)verenigingen in vergelijking met dienstverlenende non-profitorganisaties andere vrijwilligers aantrekken, verschillende wervingsmethodes voor vrijwilligers gebruiken en verschillende resultaten behalen met hun deelname aan nationale eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen. De analyse is gebaseerd op unieke enquête data bestaande uit 1,030 (sport)verenigingen en 4,293 dienstverlenende non-profit organisaties. Uit de bevindingen blijkt dat (sport)verenigingen meer eigen en minder vrijwilligers van buitenaf aantrekken, meer intern-georiënteerde wervingsmethodes gebruiken, en meer resultaten bereiken met een intern bereik.

In de derde studie maak ik onderscheid tussen direct en indirect MBO en tussen individuele en collectieve vormen van MBO. Ik onderzoek de beweegredenen en gevolgen van de keuze van een bedrijf om MBO onder te brengen in een corporate foundation die de belangen van meerdere bedrijven tegelijk dient: een collectieve corporate foundation. Een thematische analyse van interview data suggereert twee beweegredenen (beperkte beschikbare middelen en de behoefte of wens voor efficiëntie), en drie gevolgen (verlies van controle, verlies van betrokkenheid en minder individuele organisatie voordelen). Op basis van deze resultaten identificeer ik vier belangrijke dimensies die een rol spelen in de besluitvorming om MBO op directe of indirecte en individuele of collectieve wijze vorm te geven. Ten eerste zal een bedrijf moeten overwegen of MBO tot haar kern- of nevenactiviteiten behoort. Ten tweede is de

beslissing afhankelijk van de hoeveelheid middelen die beschikbaar zijn voor MBO. Ten derde speelt het gewenste niveau van controle en betrokkenheid een rol. Ten vierde is het gewenste publieke MBO-profiel van het bedrijf van belang.

In de vierde studie onderzoek ik wat de waarde is van maatschappelijke bemiddelaars binnen partnerschappen tussen bedrijven en non-profitorganisaties in de context van MBO. Het onderzoek combineert discussiegroepen en interviews. De onderzoeksresultaten laten zien dat maatschappelijke bemiddelaars een aantal barrières overkomen die non-profit organisaties of bedrijven ervan weerhouden zich te verwikkelen in MBO-partnerschappen. In de eerste plaats zorgen maatschappelijke bemiddelaars voor het benodigde sociaal kapitaal van zowel non-profit organisaties als bedrijven wanneer het hen ontbreekt aan de juiste netwerken. Ten tweede verlagen maatschappelijke bemiddelaars de transactiekosten voor de selectie en vorming van partnerschappen. Ten derde verstrekken maatschappelijke bemiddelaars de kennis en ervaring (menselijk kapitaal) zodat bedrijven en non-profitorganisaties het potentieel van MBO-partnerschappen kunnen begrijpen en benutten. Daarnaast illustreren de bevindingen dat maatschappelijke bemiddelaars partnerschappen tussen bedrijven en non-profitorganisaties op verschillende manieren veranderen. Maatschappelijke bemiddelaars zorgen voor een waardeverhoging in het partnerschap, bevorderen collectieve of gezamenlijk actie, stimuleren partnerschap selectie waarbij emotie een mindere rol speelt en zorgen voor een gelijke verdeling van MBO-partnerschappen onder bedrijven en non-profit organisaties in een lokale gemeenschap.

Al met al leiden de studies in dit proefschrift tot een diepgaande verkenning van hedendaagse vormen van geven, zowel door individuen als bedrijven. De vier studies bevorderen de wetenschap in twee onderzoeksgebieden. Met de eerste twee studies lever ik een bijdrage aan de literatuur omtrent tijdelijk kortstondig vrijwilligerswerk en nationale eendaagse vrijwilligersevenementen. Ik laat zien hoe non-profitorganisaties tijdelijke kortstondige vrijwilligersprogramma's integreren en hoe ze dit zinvoller kunnen doen. Met de laatste twee studies lever ik een bijdrage aan de literatuur omtrent partnerschappen tussen bedrijven en non-profit organisaties in het algemeen en MBO in het bijzonder. Ik laat zien hoe twee kanalen van MBO (collectieve corporate foundations en maatschappelijke bemiddelaars) waarde toevoegen en wat de consequenties zijn voor zowel de donor als de ontvanger.

De vier studies maken de weg vrij voor uitgebreidere onderzoeken naar verschillende facetten van filantropie door individuen en bedrijven. Binnen individuele filantropie en MBO resteren immers nog veel onbewandelde onderzoekspaden.

Zusammenfassung (Summary in German)

Die Landschaft der Wohltätigkeit ist besonders vielfältig bezüglich der Art und Weise wie Einzelpersonen und gemeinnützige Organisationen Gutes tun wollen. Obwohl Wohltätigkeit (Philanthropie) kein neues Phänomen ist, wirft die Diversifizierung der Praktiken und das Entstehen von (Dritt-)Organisationen und neuen Kanälen Fragen auf und erfordern ein besseres oder tiefer gehendes Verständnis. In dieser Dissertation behandele ich verschiedene Organisationen und Kanäle, die heutzutage Individuen und Unternehmen zur Verfügung stehen. Insbesondere möchte ich deren Werte, Konsequenzen und Managementpraktiken klären. Die vier Studien in dieser Dissertation beantworten vier Forschungsfragen, die alle darauf abzielen, verschiedene Facetten der individuellen und unternehmerischen Wohltätigkeit zu untersuchen.

Ziel dieser Dissertation ist es das wissenschaftliche Verständnis in zwei wesentlichen Forschungsgebieten zu bereichern. Zunächst untersuche ich die temporäre episodische Freiwilligenarbeit, indem ich Nationale Days of Service (Tage des Dienstes für die Allgemeinheit) untersuche, die von einer dritten Partei initiiert wurden. Nationale Days of Service sind bundes- oder landesweite Freiwilligenprogramme, in denen Einzelpersonen und Gruppen gemeinnützige Organisationen unterstützen, indem sie ihre Zeit für ein eintägiges, zeitlich begrenztes Freiwilligenprojekt stiften. Zweitens untersuche ich eine kollektive Unternehmensstiftung und Drittanbieterorganisationen. Diese beiden Organisationsformen steuern wichtige Teile der Wohltätigkeitsaktivitäten der Unternehmen und bilden die Brücke zwischen den spendenden Unternehmen und den empfangenden, gemeinnützigen Organisationen. Dadurch wird die unternehmerische Wohltätigkeit außerhalb des Unternehmens selbst positioniert und steht so in einer gewissen Distanz zum spendenden Unternehmen.

In der ersten Studie untersuche ich, wie gemeinnützige Organisationen die Freiwilligenprogramme der Nationalen Days of Service gestalten können, um die Zufriedenheit der Freiwilligen zu befördern. Die Studie kombiniert Interviewdaten, Teilnehmerbeobachtungen und Fokusgruppen. Durch Anwendung der Work Design Theorie schlägt die Studie gemeinnützigen Organisationen verschiedene Wege vor, um die Zufriedenheit von Freiwilligen in zu erhöhen. Die Studie stellt fest, dass die Bedeutung der Aufgabe, der direkte Empfängerkontakt und die soziale Unterstützung, Feedback von anderen, arbeitsbezogenes Feedback, Aufgabenidentität, als auch begrenzte Autonomie die Zufriedenheit bei Freiwilligen auslösen. Darüber hinaus zeigen die Ergebnisse, dass eine angemessene Planung, Vorbereitung, und Arbeitsbelastung zur Zufriedenheit bei Freiwilligen führt.

In der zweiten Studie untersuche ich, wie verschiedene gemeinnützige Organisationen (Mutual Support und Service Delivery Organisationen) das Nationale Days of Service Freiwilligenprogramme nutzen. Nationale Days of Service rufen die breite Bevölkerung zur Freiwilligenarbeit auf und zwar außerhalb der Grenzen gemeinnütziger Organisationen. Dies entspricht zwar der Rekrutierung Freiwilliger von Dienstleistungsorganisationen, widerspricht aber der Natur von Mitgliedschaft bei Organisationen zur gegenseitigen Unterstützung, wie beispielsweise Sportvereinen. Ich gehe von der Hypothese aus, dass Sportorganisationen im Vergleich zu Organisation die Service bereitstellen, unterschiedliche Freiwillige anziehen, unterschiedliche Methoden der Freiwilligenrekrutierung anwenden und mit ihrer Teilnahme an Nationalen Days of Service unterschiedliche Ergebnisse erzielen. Die Analyse basiert auf Umfragedaten von 1,030 Sportvereinen und 4,293 Organisation die Service bereitstellen. Tatsächlich zeigen die Ergebnisse, dass Sportverbände mehr interne und weniger externe Freiwillige engagieren, mehr intern orientierte Rekrutierungsmethoden anwenden und Ergebnisse mit einem größeren internen Umfang erzielen.

In der dritten Studie differenziere ich zwischen direkter und indirekter Unternehmensphilanthropie sowie individueller und kollektiver Spendenpraxis. Ich untersuche die Gründe und Konsequenzen welche mit der Entscheidung einer Firma verbunden sind, Corporate Philanthropie durch eine kollektive Unternehmensstiftung zu betreiben, die den Interessen mehrerer Unternehmensspender gleichzeitig dient. Eine thematische Analyse von Fokusgruppen- und Interviewdaten zeigt zwei Gründe auf: begrenzte Ressourcen und Wunsch nach Effizienz; als auch drei Konsequenzen: Kontrollverlust, Verlust der Beteiligung und geringerer individueller organisatorischer Nutzen. Aus diesen Ergebnissen identifiziere ich vier Schlüsseldimensionen, die die Entscheidung eines Unternehmens zwischen direkten oder indirekten, und individu-

ellen oder kollektiven Spendenpraktiken beeinflussen. Erstens sollten gewinnorientierte Organisationen abwägen, ob das Spenden eine Kern- oder eher Peripher-Aktivität des Unternehmens ist. Zweitens hängt die Entscheidung ob Corporate Philanthropie praktiziert werden sollte von der Höhe der verfügbaren Ressourcen ab. Drittens ist der Grad der gewünschten Kontrolle und Beteiligung des Unternehmens von Bedeutung. Viertens beeinflusst auch das gewünschte öffentliche Profil der Firma die Entscheidung bezüglich ihres unternehmerischen Engagements.

In der vierten Studie untersuche ich was Drittanbieterorganisationen im Rahmen von Business-Non-Profit Partnerschaften, bei gesellschaftlichen Engagements von Unternehmen wertvoll macht. Anhand einer Fallstudie mit Fokusgruppen und Interviewdaten , dass Drittanbieterorganisationen Hindernisse überwinden, die verhindern, dass gemeinnützige und nicht gemeinnützige Organisationen sich an der Einbindung von Unternehmen in die Gesellschaft beteiligen. Erstens stellen Drittanbieter das erforderliche organisatorische Sozialkapital zur Verfügung wenn es den gewinnorientierten oder gemeinnützigen Organisationen an angemessen Netzwerken mangelt. Zweitens senken Drittanbieter die Transaktionskosten für die Auswahl und Formierung von Partnerschaften. Drittanbieter stellen Wissen und Erfahrung (bekannt als Humankaptial) zur Verfügung, die es gewinnorientierten und gemeinnützigen Unternehmen ermöglichen, das Potenzial des gesellschaftlichen Engagements von Unternehmen zu nutzen. Die Studie verdeutlicht außerdem, dass zwischengeschaltete Drittunternehmen die Partnerschaften zwischen Unternehmen und gemeinnützigen Organisationen auf unterschiedliche Weise verändern. Sie erreichen eine partnerschaftliche Wertsteigerung, stimulieren kollektives Handeln, reduzieren die Emotionalisierung in der Auswahl der Partnerschaften und sorgen für eine gleichmäßige Verteilung des gesellschaftlichen Engagements der Unternehmen.

Insgesamt stellen die Studien dieser Dissertation eine vertiefte Auseinandersetzung mit zeitgenössischen Formen der privaten und unternehmerischen Philanthropie dar. Die vier Studien zielen darauf ab, unser Verständnis in zwei Bereichen zu verbessern. Mit den ersten beiden Studien trage ich zur Literatur über temporäre episodische Freiwilligenarbeit und Nationale Days of Service bei. Ich zeige wie gemeinnützige Organisationen temporäre episodische Freiwilligenprogramme integrieren und wie sie dies sinnvoller gestalten können. Mit den letzten beiden Studien trage ich im speziellen zur Literatur über Unternehmensphilanthropie bei und im weiteren Sinne zu Business-Non-Profit Partnerschaften. Ich zeige, wie zwei Kanäle der Corporate Philanthropie einen Mehrwert schaffen und was die Folgen für den körperschaftlichen Spender und den gemeinnützigen Empfänger sind.

Die vier Studien bereichern unser Verständnis für zwei wesentliche Forschungsgebiete und ich hoffe, dass sie den Weg für weitergehende Untersuchungen ebnen. Schließlich gibt es noch viele unerschlossene Forschungspfade zur privaten und unternehmerischen Philanthropie.

Sommario
(Summary in Italian)

Nessuna parte del panorama filantropico sembra essere così diversa quanto le modalità con cui gli individui e le organizzazioni a scopo di lucro cercano di fare del bene. Mentre la filantropia non è di per sé un fenomeno nuovo, la diversificazione delle sue pratiche e l'emergere di organizzazioni (terze) e di nuovi canali sollevano interrogativi e invocano una migliore o rinnovata comprensione. In questa tesi, mi occupo delle varie organizzazioni e dei canali oggi disponibili per i filantropi individuali e aziendali. In particolare, intendo chiarire i loro valori, le conseguenze e le connesse pratiche di gestione. I quattro studi di questa tesi rispondono a quattro domande di ricerca, tutte volte a studiare i diversi aspetti della filantropia individuale e aziendale.

L'obiettivo di questa tesi è quello di aumentare la comprensione accademica in due aree sostanziali di ricerca. In primo luogo, esamino il "volontariato episodico temporaneo" esaminando le giornate nazionali di servizio iniziate da parti terze. Le giornate nazionali di servizio sono iniziative di volontariato a livello statale o nazionale in cui individui e gruppi sostengono organizzazioni senza scopo di lucro dedicando il loro tempo ad un progetto di volontariato di una giornata o di durata limitata nel tempo. In secondo luogo, esamino fondazioni collettive d'impresa e organizzazioni intermediarie terze. Questi due veicoli indirizzano parti importanti della filantropia aziendale e si interpongono tra i donatori aziendali e i destinatari senza scopo di lucro. Questi veicoli collocano la filantropia aziendale al di fuori dei confini aziendali.

Nel primo studio, esploro come le organizzazioni senza scopo di lucro possono progettare giornate nazionali di volontariato per massimizzare la soddisfazione dei volontari. Lo studio combina dati raccolti tramite interviste, osservazione partecipante e focus groups. Adottando la teoria del work design, lo studio suggerisce modi con cui le organizzazioni senza scopo di lucro possono migliorare la soddisfazione dei volontari.

Lo studio rileva che rilevanza della task, contatto diretto con i beneficiari e il supporto sociale, ricevere feedback da altri e feedback relativo al lavoro, task identity e limitata autonomia portano ad una maggiore soddisfazione dei volontari con incarichi di lavoro temporanei (di un giorno). Inoltre, i risultati rivelano che un'adeguata pianificazione e preparazione ed un adeguato carico di lavoro generano soddisfazione tra i volontari.

Nel secondo studio, esamino il modo in cui diverse organizzazioni non-profit (organizzazioni di mutuo sostegno e di erogazione di servizi) utilizzano le giornate nazionali di servizio. Le giornate nazionali di servizio invitano il volontariato tra la popolazione generale e quindi al di fuori dei confini dell'organizzazione non-profit. Questo ben si concilia con il reclutamento volontario tipico delle organizzazioni di erogazione di servizi, ma è in contrasto con la natura associativa delle organizzazioni di mutuo sostegno come le associazioni sportive. Ipotizzo che le organizzazioni sportive, rispetto alle organizzazioni di erogazione di servizi, attraggono volontari diversi, utilizzano diversi metodi di reclutamento e ottengono risultati differenti con la loro partecipazione alle giornate nazionali di servizio. I dati provengono dai rispondenti al sondaggio di 1,030 associazioni sportive e 4,293 organizzazioni di erogazione di serviz. Infatti, i risultati rivelano che le associazioni sportive arruolano più volontari interni e meno volontari esterni; usano metodi di reclutamento più orientati verso persone interne all'organizzazione; e ottengono risultati con una portata più interna.

Nel terzo studio, distinguo tra la filantropia aziendale diretta e indiretta e le pratiche di donazione individuale e collettiva. Esploro le ragioni e le conseguenze associate alla decisione di un'azienda di praticare la filantropia aziendale attraverso una fondazione aziendale che serve gli interessi di più donatori aziendali contemporaneamente: una fondazione aziendale collettiva. Un'analisi tematica di intervista rivela due ragioni (risorse disponibili limitate; desiderio di efficienza) e tre conseguenze (perdita di controllo; perdita di coinvolgimento; minori benefici organizzativi individuali). Da questi risultati, identifico quattro dimensioni chiave che influenzano la scelta di un'azienda fra pratiche di donazione diretta o indiretta, individuale o collettiva. In primo luogo, le organizzazioni a scopo di lucro dovrebbero riflettere se le attività filantropiche sono un'attività centrale o periferica. In secondo luogo, la decisione dipende dalla quantità di risorse disponibili per lo svolgimento di attività di filantropia aziendale. In terzo luogo, il livello di controllo e coinvolgimento desiderato dell'azienda è di particolare importanza. In quarto luogo, la scelta e' influenzata anche dal profilo pubblico che l'azienda desidera ottenere con le attività filantropiche aziendali.

Nel quarto studio, esploro le organizzazioni intermediarie terze e cosa le rende utili nelle partnership business-non-profit nel contesto del coinvolgimento aziendale con la comunità. Basandomi su focus group e interviste, mostro che le organizzazioni intermediarie terze superano le barriere che impediscono alle organizzazioni non-profit e for-profit di impegnarsi nel coinvolgimento comunitario. In primo luogo, le organizzazioni intermediarie terze forniscono il capitale sociale organizzativo necessario quando le organizzazioni a scopo di lucro o non-profit non dispongono di reti sociali adeguate. In secondo luogo, le organizzazioni intermediarie terze riducono i costi di transazione legati alla selezione e alla costituzione delle partnership. In terzo luogo, le organizzazioni intermediarie terze forniscono conoscenze ed esperienze (note come capitale umano) che consentono alle organizzazioni a scopo di lucro e non-profit di cogliere il potenziale dal coinvolgimento aziendale con la comunità. Lo studio illustra inoltre che le organizzazioni intermediarie terze cambiano le partnership tra imprese e organizzazioni senza scopo di lucro in modi diversi. Raggiungono la valorizzazione delle partnership, stimolano l'azione collettiva, de-emozionalizzano la selezione delle partnership e garantiscono un'equa distribuzione del coinvolgimento aziendale con la comunità.

Nel complesso, gli studi di questa tesi rappresentano un'esplorazione più approfondita delle forme contemporanee di filantropia privata e aziendale. I quattro studi mirano a far progredire la nostra comprensione in due aree. Con i primi due studi, contribuisco alla letteratura sul volontariato episodico temporaneo e sulle giornate nazionali di servizio. Mostro come le organizzazioni non-profit integrano i programmi di volontariato episodico temporaneo e come possono farlo in modo più significativo. Con gli ultimi due studi, contribuisco in modo specifico alla letteratura sulla filantropia aziendale e, più in generale, alle partnership tra imprese e organizzazioni non-profit. Dimostro come due canali di filantropia aziendale portano valore aggiunto e quali sono le conseguenze per il donatore aziendale e il destinatario senza scopo di lucro.

I quattro studi arricchiscano la nostra comprensione su due aree di ricerca sostanziali, spero che aprano la strada ad indagini più approfonditi. Dopo tutto, rimangono ancora molti percorsi di ricerca non battuti nell'ambito della filantropia privata e aziendale.

Sumario
(Summary in Spanish)

Ninguna parte del campo de la filantropía parece ser tan diverso como las formas de hacer el bien en ese sentido de las personas y de las organizaciones con ánimo de lucro. Aunque la filantropía no es un nuevo fenómeno en sí mismo, la diversificación de sus prácticas y el surgimiento de organizaciones (de terceros) y nuevos canales, plantean preguntas y demandan una mejor y renovada comprensión del mismo. En esta disertación, abordo varias organizaciones y canales disponibles hoy en día para filántropos individuales y corporativos. En particular, trato de aclarar sus valores, consecuencias y prácticas de gestión asociadas. Los cuatro estudios de la disertación responden a cuatro preguntas de investigación, todas destinadas al estudio de diferentes aspectos de la filantropía tanto individual como corporativa.

El objetivo de esta disertación es aumentar el grado de comprensión académica en dos áreas sustanciales de investigación. Primero, analizo el "voluntariado episódico temporal", examinando National Days of Service iniciados por un tercero. National Days of Service son programas de voluntariado estatales o nacionales en los que personas y grupos apoyan a organizaciones sin fines de lucro, dedicando su tiempo a un proyecto de voluntariado por un tiempo limitado de un día. Segundo, examino una fundación corporativa colectiva y organizaciones intermediarias de terceros. Estos dos vehículos canalizan partes importantes de la filantropía corporativa y se posicionan entre donantes corporativos y destinatarios sin fines de lucro.

En el primer estudio, exploro cómo las organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro pueden diseñar programas de voluntariado de National Days of Service ceder la satisfacción del voluntariado. El estudio combina datos de entrevistas, observaciones de participante, y grupos focales. Adoptando la teoría del work design, el estudio propone distintas formas para que las organizaciones sin fines de lucro mejoren la satisfacción de los

voluntarios. En el estudio se detecta que la importancia de la tarea, el contacto directo con los beneficiarios y el apoyo social, el feedback de otros, el feedback basado en el trabajo, la identidad de la tarea y la autonomía limitada, logran la satisfacción del voluntario en tareas temporales (de un día). Además, estos hallazgos revelan una planificación y preparación adecuadas, y una carga de trabajo apropiada ceder la satisfacción del voluntario.

En el segundo estudio, examino cómo las diferentes organizaciones sin fines de lucro (organizaciones de apoyo mutuo y prestación de servicios) utilizan los programas de voluntariado de National Days of Service. Estos programas promueven el voluntariado entre la extensa población fuera de los límites de las organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro. Esto comulga con el reclutamiento de voluntarios de organizaciones de prestación de servicios, pero contradice la naturaleza de pertenencia de las organizaciones de apoyo mutuo, como las asociaciones deportivas. Hago la hipótesis de que las organizaciones deportivas en comparación con las de prestación de servicios atraen a voluntarios distintos, utilizan métodos de reclutamiento diferentes y logran también resultados distintos con su participación en los National Days of Service. El análisis se basa en datos de encuestas de 1,030 asociaciones deportivas y 4,293 organizaciones de prestación de servicios. De hecho, los resultados revelan que las asociaciones deportivas reclutan más voluntarios internos y menos voluntarios externos; utilizan más métodos de reclutamiento internamente orientados; y logran resultados con un mayor alcance interno. Sugiero así que las asociaciones deportivas se adhieran a su naturaleza de pertenencia y no imiten de manera mecánica los programas de National Days of Service.

En el tercer estudio, distingo entre la filantropía corporativa directa e indirecta, así como entre las prácticas de donación individuales y colectivas. Exploro los fundamentos y las consecuencias asociadas con la decisión de una compañía de practicar la filantropía corporativa, a través de una fundación corporativa que sirve simultáneamente a los intereses de múltiples donantes corporativos: una fundación corporativa colectiva. Un análisis temático de entrevistas revela dos fundamentos (recursos limitados disponibles; deseo de eficiencia) y tres consecuencias (pérdida de control; pérdida de implicación; menos beneficios organizacionales individuales). A partir de estos resultados, identifico cuatro dimensiones clave que influyen en las decisiones que toma una empresa entre prácticas de donaciones directas o indirectas, y prácticas individuales o colectivas. Primero, las organizaciones con fines de lucro deberían considerar si las donaciones corporativas son una actividad central o periférica. En segundo lugar, la decisión depende de la cantidad de recursos disponibles para practicar la filantropía corporativa.

Tercero, se debe tener en cuenta el nivel deseado de control e implicación de la empresa. Cuarto, el perfil público deseado de la empresa con donaciones corporativas también influye en la decisión.

En el cuarto estudio, exploro lo que hace que las organizaciones intermediarias tengan valor dentro de las asociaciones empresariales sin ánimo de lucro en el contexto de la comunidad corporativa involucrada. Basándome en un caso de estudio con datos de entrevistas y grupos focales , demuestro que las organizaciones intermediarias de terceros superan las barreras que evitan que las organizaciones con y sin fines de lucro, participen en esta involucración de la comunidad corporativa. Primero, las organizaciones intermediarias de terceros proporcionan el capital social organizacional requerido cuando las organizaciones con o sin fines de lucro carecen de redes adecuadas. En segundo lugar, las organizaciones intermediarias de terceros reducen los costes de transacción implicados en la selección y formación de compañías asociadas. En tercer lugar, las organizaciones intermediarias de terceros proporcionan conocimientos y experiencia (conocidas como capital humano), permitiendo a las organizaciones con fines de lucro y sin fines de lucro aprovechar el potencial de la participación de la comunidad corporativa. Además, el estudio muestra que las organizaciones intermediarias de terceros cambian las asociaciones empresariales sin fines de lucro de una manera distintiva. Logran una mejora en el valor de la asociación, estimulan la acción colectiva, hacen reducir la parte emocional en la selección de la asociación y aseguran una distribución equitativa en la participación de la comunidad corporativa.

En conjunto, los estudios de esta disertación representan una exploración más profunda de las formas contemporáneas de filantropía, tanto privada como corporativa. Los cuatro estudios tienen como objetivo avanzar nuestra en comprensión sobre dos áreas. Con los dos primeros estudios, contribuyo a la literatura sobre voluntariado episódico temporal y National Days of Service. Muestro cómo las organizaciones sin fines de lucro integran programas temporales de voluntariado episódico y cómo pueden hacerlo de manera más significativa. Con los dos últimos estudios, contribuyo a la literatura sobre filantropía corporativa en concreto, y asociaciones empresariales sin fines de lucro en general. Demuestro cómo dos canales de filantropía corporativa añaden valor, y cuáles son las consecuencias para el donante corporativo y el beneficiario sin fines de lucro.

Los cuatro estudios enriquecen espero que allanen el camino hacia análisis más amplios. Después de todo, quedan muchos caminos de investigación sin explorar dentro de la filantropía privada y corporativa.

摘要 (Summary in Chinese)

在有关公益慈善的实践中，似乎个人和营利性组织总是可以提出更加新颖和多彩的行善方式。尽管公益慈善早已不是新的社会现象，但近些年公益慈善实践的愈发多样化，（第三方）组织和新型慈善工具及渠道的大量涌现，我们有必要对于公益慈善的发展现状进行梳理，从而更全面和深刻的理解这一社会现象。本文将介绍当下个人和企业慈善家使用的渠道和组织方式，分析它们的社会价值和影响，并总结与其相关的管理实践经验。本论文的四项研究回应了与个人和企业慈善事业领域中的四个主要问题，以期提升这两个研究领域的学术认识。

首先，本文以第三方发起的"国家服务日（National Days of Service）"为例来分析"短期阵发性志愿服务（temporary episodic volunteering）"这一现象。国家服务日是州或国家/地区范围内的志愿服务计划，其中，个人和团体通过参与为期一天的志愿者项目来支持非营利组织。在第一项研究中，本文聚焦于分析非营利组织如何通过全国服务日志愿者计划设计，以最大程度地提升志愿者满意度。结合工作设计理论，该研究为非营利组织提高志愿者满意度的方法提供了一些建议。在第二项研究中，本文比较了不同类型的非营利组织在践行"国家服务日志愿者计划"上的异同。调查结果表明，体育协会更多地侧重面向内部的招聘方法，招募更多的内部志愿者，更关注于在内部范围取得成果。

其次，本文研究了集体企业基金会（collective corporate foundation）和第三方中介组织。这两种工具是企业慈善的重要组成部分，位于企业捐赠者和接受资助的非营利组织之间。在第三项研究中，本文区分了直接和间接的企业慈善以及个人和集体的捐赠实践。该项研究还探究了企业通过同时服务多个企业捐赠人利益的企业基金会来实践企业慈善事业的缘由和后果：集体公司基金会。根据调查结果，本文发现了四个关键维度会对企业的直接或间接、个人或集体捐赠决策产生影响。在第四项研究中，本文探讨了在企业社区参与的背景下，第三方中介组织在商业与非营利合作伙伴关系中的价值所在。研究表明，第三方中介组织克服了阻碍非营利和营利性组织在融入企业社区参与过程的困难，并进一步发现，第三方中介组织以其独特的方式改变了商业与非营利组织的伙伴关系。

综上所述，本论文的四项研究对当代个人和企业的慈善形式进行了深入的探索，提升了我们在两个大方面的认识。一方面，前两项研究通过探究非营利组织如何整合短期阵发志愿服务计划，对"短期阵发性志愿服务"和"全国服务日"的文献和实践做出了贡献。另一方面，后两项研究通过探析企业慈善的渠道、价值提升方式，以及对捐赠和受赠者的影响，为企业慈善事业和商业与非营利伙伴关系的文献和实践做出了贡献。

About the Author

Stephanie Antonia Maas was born in 1991 in Haarlem, the Netherlands. She obtained her BSc. Business Administration from Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam. She continued her studies at Rotterdam School of Management (RSM), Erasmus University and obtained her MSc. Global Business and Stakeholder Management. Stephanie thereafter started her PhD at the Business-Society Management Department at RSM, and worked as an academic researcher and project lead for RSM's Community Service Programme alongside her PhD.

In her PhD, Stephanie's research centers on contemporary forms of giving, including both private and corporate philanthropy. She focuses on topics such as trends in volunteerism and modern channels for corporate giving. The latter often takes place at arm's length from the for-profit organization. Broader research interests include (peripheral) CSR, business-nonprofit relationships, and nonprofit management.

As an academic researcher, Stephanie taught several courses on both BSc. and MSc. level, including courses on nonprofit management, social entrepreneurship, consultancy, and academic research in both national and international contexts (Shanghai; Cape Town). She also served as an advisor for the Erasmus Consultancy Project (Colombia, 2017) and guided numerous BSc. and MSc. theses, and BSc. internships on private and corporate philanthropy as well as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and beyond. She also worked on various research projects centering on corporate foundations, (corporate) volunteering, impact measurement, and a European funded research project on service-learning.

During the final year of her PhD, Stephanie joint RSM's Positive Change Initiative and became project manager of RSM's Community Service Program. As project manager she set up an employee engagement program to centralize and enhance RSM's community involvement. Doing so, she organized, facilitated and coordinated volunteering activities for RSM employees. Central to this was forging and managing collaborations with internal stakeholders as well as nonprofit organizations.

Author's Portfolio

Publications

Book Chapters

Maas, S.A. (2019). Outsourcing of corporate giving: What corporations can('t) gain when using a collective corporate foundation to shape corporate philanthropy. In L. Roza, S. Bethmann, L.C.P.M. Meijs and G. Von Schnurbein (Eds.) *Handbook on Corporate Foundations: Corporate and Civil Society Perspectives* (pp. 193-214). Cham, Switserland: Springer.

Meijs, L.C.P.M., Maas, S.A. and Aramburuzabala, P. (2019). Institutonalisation of service learning in European higher education. In P. Aramburuzabala , L. McIlrath and H. Opazo (Eds.) *Embedding Service Learning in European Higher Education: Developing a Culture of Civic Engagement* (pp. 213-230). Abington, UK: Routledge.

Meijs, L.C.P,M., Van Overbeeke, P.S.M., Nonet, G., Roza, L. and Maas, S.A. (Forthcoming). The role of civic engagement in 'talking and walking' the SDGs. In P. Aeamburuzabala (Ed.). *The Role of Service-learning in the Construction of a Global Citizenship.* Madrid, Spain: UNED.

Maas, S.A. (Forthcoming). Who owns your nonprofit? Towards a re-conceptualization of nonprofit ownership. In G. Donnelly-Cox, M. Meyer and F. Wijkström (Eds.). *A Research Handbook on Nonprofit & Civil Society Governance.* Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Under Review

Maas, S.A., Meijs, L.C.P.M., and Brudney, J.L., Designing National Days of Service Projects to Yield Volunteer Job Satisfaction. *Under review, 4th round at a journal for nonprofit sector research.*

Maas, S.A., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Brudney, J.L. and Van der Roest, JW., Members Only, it's a Private Party: National Days of Service within Sports Associations. *Under review, 1st round at a journal for nonprofit sector.*

Maas, S.A. and Meijs, L.C.P.M., Easing into Business-Nonprofit Partnerships: Third Parties as Catalysts for Corporate Community Involvement. *Under review, 1st round at a management journal.*

Brudney, J.L., Meijs, L.C.P.M., Maas, S.A., and Van Overbeeke, P.S.M., I Get By Without the Help of my Friends: Volunteer Exclusion as a Failed Matching Process. *Under review, 1st round at a journal for nonprofit sector research.*

Working Papers

Maas, S. A. (2019). Organizational ownership as a performative.

Conferences

2019	Academy of Management (AOM) (Boston, USA); Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) (San Diego, USA); European Research Network on Philanthropy (ERNOP) (Basel, Switzerland).
2018	Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) (Austin, USA); European Group for Organization Studies (EGOS) (Tallinn, Estonia); International Society for Third Sector Research (ISTR) (Amsterdam, the Netherlands).
2017	Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) (Grand Rapids, USA).

2016	Academy of Management (AOM) (Anaheim, USA); Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) (Washington D.C., USA); International Society for Third Sector Research (ISTR) (Stockholm, Sweden).
2015	Academy of Management (AOM) (Vancouver, Canada); Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) (Chicago, USA); Voluntary Sector and Volunteering Research (VSVR) (Leeds, UK).

Invited Conference Paper Presentations

2018	Symposium for Commerce & Philanthropy (SCP) (Beijing, China).

Doctoral Consortia

2019	Pre-conference PhD Workshop, 9th *Conference of European Research Network on Philanthropy (ERNOP)*. Basel, Switzerland (3 July 2019).
	Pre-colloquium PhD Workshop, 35th *Colloquium of European Group for Organization Studies (EGOS)*. Edinburgh, UK (1 - 2 July 2019).
2016	PhD Fellows Program, 45th *Annual Meeting of Association of Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Research (ARNOVA)*. Washington D.C., USA (16 November 2016).
	Doctoral Seminar in Social Entrepreneurship and Philanthropy (SEPHI). Liége, Belgium (22 - 23 February 2016).

Ad-hoc Reviewer

Journals   Nonprofit Voluntary and Sector Quarterly (NVSQ);
                         Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit
                         Organizations

Conferences   Academy of Management (AOM) Annual Meeting;
                         European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference

Honors and Awards

Top Reviewer Award for the Public & Nonprofit Division (PNP) of the Academy of
Management Annual Meeting (AOM) (2019). *79th Annual Meeting.*

Shortlisted for KPMG's Sustainability Thesis Awards (2013-2014)
MSc. Thesis: Do-in-a-day episodic volunteering as a gateway to long-term volunteering.

Teaching and Supervising Activities

2015 - 2020   Managing Nonprofit Organizations,
                        MSc. Global Business and Sustainability (Elective),
                        Co-instructor.

2019 - 2020   International Research Course: Cape Town, South Africa,
                        MSc. Business Administration Part-time (Core course),
                        Lecturer and instructor.

2017 - 2020   Master Thesis, MSc. Global Business & Sustainability;
                        Master Thesis, MSc. Business Administration Part-time;
                        Master Thesis, MSc. Master in Management;
                        Master Thesis, MSc. International Management/CEMS,
                        Thesis coach and co-reader.

2016 - 2018   International Research Course: Shanghai, China,
                        MSc. Business Administration Part-time (Core course),
                        Lecturer and instructor.

2016 - 2017	Erasmus Consultancy Project: Colombia, BSc. Business Administration and MSc. Research advisor.
2015 - 2018	Applied research course to benefit social entrepreneurs and nonprofit organizations, MSc. Business Administration Part-time (Core course), Instructor.
2015 - 2018	Bachelor Internships, BSc. Business Administration, Research advisor.
2015 - 2018	Bachelor Thesis, BSc. Business Administration, Thesis coach.
2014 - 2018	Experiential Learning: Consultancy to Social Entrepreneurs, BSc. Business Administration (Minor), Co-instructor.

RSM Ph.D. Series

Duijm, P. *On the Cyclical Nature of Finance: The role and impact of financial institutions*, Promotor(s): Prof. D. Schoenmaker & Prof. W.B. Wagner, 1, https://repub.eur.nl/pub/120767