Running Head: EMPLOYEE VOLUNTEERIN & WELLBEING DIFFERENCES

Employee Volunteering: Does Giving Your Time Give You Better Wellbeing

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Abstract

Employee volunteering is a prosocial act associated with positive outcomes for the beneficiaries, the company and the individual volunteer. Research repeatedly demonstrates a positive relationship with wellbeing amongst volunteers, whether it be in one's own time or through work. The main aim of this research was to investigate if employee volunteers have higher levels of subjective wellbeing than their non-volunteering colleagues. It was predicted that employee volunteers would have higher levels of wellbeing than non-volunteers. The research also predicted that satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness, would mediate the relationship between employee volunteering and subjective wellbeing. Participants were recruited from a large telecommunications company and online through social media, using a convenience, snowball sampling technique. A Mann-Whitney U test was completed between the employee volunteer condition (N=43) and the employee non-volunteer condition (N=43) to examine the differences in subjective wellbeing (SWB) using the Satisfaction with Life Scale and the Scale of Negative and Positive Experience (SPANE). No significant difference was found in SWB between the two conditions. A hierarchical regression analysis was completed to investigate the predictive nature of the three basic psychological needs, controlling for age, gender, education and job level. Only needs satisfaction of competence was a unique significant predictor of SWB amongst employee volunteers. This finding suggests that employees were able to apply and learn new skills through volunteering, resulting in a feeling of competence. Ways to enhance employee volunteering initiatives so they might lead to greater needs satisfaction and wellbeing are discussed.

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Introduction

Volunteering is a prosocial behaviour that involves an individual freely giving their time to help others. Volunteering acts include a range of helping behaviours, such as providing companionship to the elderly, caring for the sick, mentoring young people, or building homes for disadvantaged communities (Clary & Snyder, 1999). According to Rodell (2013), the three main components that constitute volunteering are the giving of time or skills freely, as opposed to donating funds; that it is a proactively planned activity; and that it benefits a charitable or community organisation. Beneficiaries of volunteering are numerous and include charitable and community organisations, sports clubs and youth groups, religious organisations and social enterprises, to name but a few. Volunteering greatly contributes to the success of non-profit organisations, providing them with extra skills and man power to better support their service users and communities (Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang, 2013). A form of volunteering that has grown in popularity over the last decade is volunteering through work, commonly referred to as corporate or employee volunteering. Employee volunteering programmes usually incorporate policies and practices that enable companies to provide opportunities and supports for employees to donate their time and skills to charities and community groups (Grant, 2012).

Organisations world-wide now have Corporate Social Responsibility programmes that incorporate structured employee volunteering initiatives. The Points of Light Institute (2016) reports that 90% of Fortune 500 companies provide employee volunteer programmes. Research of 250 multinational businesses conducted by the Chief Executives for Corporate Purpose (CECP) found the amount of companies providing volunteer programmes nearly doubled between 2010 and 2017, rising from 34% to 61%. Reports estimate that on average the employee volunteering participation rate is 30% within a given organisation, although this varies across geographic regions, countries and organisations (CECP). There are multiple benefits associated with participating in volunteering for the individual volunteer. Evidence demonstrates positive relationships between volunteering and positive mental health outcomes (Choi & Kim, 2010; Musick & Wilson, 2003), physical health and happiness (Borgonovi, 2008), increased life satisfaction (Meier & Stutzer, 2004) and wellbeing (Piliavin & Siegal, 2007; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001)

Research on volunteering and wellbeing demonstrates a positive relationship between the two in adult populations. Musick and Wilson (2003) found that volunteers 65 years of age and older experienced less depression and anxiety, a relationship that was partially explained by social integration fostered by volunteering. When volunteering was sustained over a longer period of time, younger adults also experienced fewer depressive symptoms. Volunteering can also buffer against the effect of stress in older people when they have positive views of others (Poulin, 2014).

Meier and Stutzer (2004) found evidence that people who volunteer were more satisfied with their lives, than people who didn't volunteer. Results demonstrated that people who volunteered reported a higher level of life satisfaction on average than people who had never volunteered. Further more, people who volunteered more frequently, either weekly or monthly, reported higher life satisfaction than those who volunteered less frequently or never.

Positive outcomes from volunteering can spill over to the work environment. Mojza and Sonnentag (2010) found evidence that volunteering during leisure time can help protect against work stressors. Results from a one-week diary study found that volunteering in the evening moderated the relationship between situational constraints and positive affect the next day, where by the absence of volunteering resulted in a decrease in positive affect the next day. Rodell (2013) found that when people volunteer in their own personal time it can improve job performance, through a positive association with job absorption.

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Longitudinal research on the relationship between volunteering and wellbeing addresses the question of causality. Thoits and Hewitt (2001) conducted a longitudinal study on the relationship between wellbeing and volunteering and found that a reciprocal relationship existed in that wellbeing predicted volunteering and vice versa. People with greater wellbeing tended to contribute more volunteer hours and they concluded that participation in volunteering is as a result of personal wellbeing.

Longitudinal research by Piliavin and Siegal (2007) supported a causal relationship between volunteering and psychological wellbeing. Using four waves of data from the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study, findings demonstrate that volunteering was positively associated with psychological wellbeing and self reported health. Results also indicated a small positive impact of self-oriented organisational participation (e.g. membership of sports clubs or fraternities) on wellbeing, after controlling for volunteering. However, the reverse was not true, concluding that wellbeing benefits were mainly due to prosocial behaviour.

Contrary to the research that shows a positive relationship between volunteering and wellbeing, research by Wray-lake, DeHann, Schubert and Ryan (2017) found volunteering was not significantly related to wellbeing. They proposed that this lack of association between volunteering and wellbeing could be due to differences in motivations for volunteering. Research shows that some people volunteer to help others, and to build relationships (Gage & Thapa, 2012), which are considered intrinsic motivations and are related to higher needs satisfaction and wellbeing (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Others volunteer for extrinsic reasons, such as recognition, status, or external pressures (Stukas, Hoye, Nicholson, Brown & Aisbett, 2016), also referred to as controlled motivation, which is related to lower levels of needs satisfaction and subjective wellbeing (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010)

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Employee Volunteering

Similar to volunteering in one's own personal time, there are positive benefits associated with employee volunteering that apply to the company, the individual volunteer and the charity or community organisation. In relation to benefits for the company, research findings provide evidence that employee volunteering improves employee retention rates as it improves the employee's perception of the company (Bode, Singh, & Rogan, 2015). Participation in employee volunteering increases employee's commitment to the organization (Brockner, Senior, & Welch, 2014; de Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005). Individual job performance is enhanced when employees gain positive learning experiences from the volunteering activity (Hu, Jiang, Mo, Chen, & Shi, 2016). The same research found that employee volunteering can detract from job performance when employees feel they didn't learn much from taking part.

Benefits for the individual employee volunteer include the development and enhancement of professional skills (Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang, 2013; Jones, 2016; Peterson, 2004), positive recognition from colleagues and managers (Rodell & Lynch, 2016), improved working relationships (Grant, 2012) and greater job satisfaction (Haski-Leventhal, Kach, & Pournader, 2019). Evidence also shows that prosocial acts such as helping others is related to higher subjective wellbeing levels for the helper and the recipient, through needs satisfaction, but only when the decision to help is autonomous (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). There can be downsides to participation in employee volunteering. Research by Rodell and Lynch (2016) found that if colleagues perceived a volunteer's motives for volunteering as extrinsic, for example for impression management reasons, they were likely to stigmatise them. On the other hand, when an individual was perceived as volunteering for intrinsic reasons (enjoying the act of volunteering itself) colleagues gave them credit and were more helpful towards them.

Self-Determination Theory

In relation to the benefits of employee volunteering for the individual much of the research focuses on Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which proposes that for psychological growth and wellbeing there are three basic psychological needs that need to be satisfied: the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness. According to Deci and Ryan (2000) when these three needs are satisfied, it results in enhanced mental wellbeing and self motivation. A lack of needs satisfaction, or thwarting of these basic needs, leads to diminished wellbeing and motivation. They propose that autonomy, competence and relatedness are innate needs necessary for effective functioning and thriving in life, and psychological growth. Autonomy refers to an individual having a sense of ownership and choice in relation to making decisions about their actions. Competence refers to having a sense of mastery over skills and abilities, and being able to accomplish tasks and learn new skills. Satisfaction of the need for relatedness entails feeling connected to others and having meaningful relationships. In support of Self-determination Theory, results from a metaanalysis of 99 studies and 119 distinct samples demonstrated that each of the three basic psychological needs incrementally predicted psychological growth and wellbeing. Results also showed that intrinsic motivation, as opposed to extrinsic motivation, and wellbeing in particular were predicted by satisfaction of each of the needs (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016).

It would seem that employee volunteering offers the perfect opportunity to satisfy the basic needs and thus increase wellbeing levels in employee volunteers. Most often employees have the autonomy to choose whether or not they take part in employee volunteering, and sometimes they can choose the cause or charity they volunteer for. The CECP reports that in 2017, 65% of companies offered a paid-release time offer which gives employees choice over when, how and who they volunteer for. It offers employees the opportunity to apply current

and learn new skills which can help increase competencies (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Jones, 2016; Peterson, 2004). Lastly, it provides a means to meet new people and to build relationships helping to satisfy the need of relatedness (Grant, 2012). There is, however, little research available on the relationship between employee volunteering, needs satisfaction and subjective wellbeing.

There is evidence for satisfaction of the basic psychological needs mediating the relationship between employee volunteering and higher levels of job satisfaction, and affective commitment, providing evidence that employee volunteering can help employees feel competent in work and build meaningful relationships with colleagues, which ultimately leads to positive work outcomes (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). Olafsen, Niemiec, Halvari, Deci and Williams (2017) found that when there is a lack of needs satisfaction, there is a positive relationship between frustration of the basic psychological needs and higher levels of work stress, as well as somatic symptom burden associated with higher levels of absenteeism, turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion.

Rationale and Hypotheses

With increased pressures and job demands on employees in the workplace and added pressures from a societal perspective, employee wellbeing is more and more at risk (Guest, 2017). According to a 2018 report by the Economic and Research Institute (ERSI), the number of people in Ireland reporting stress in the workplace more than doubled over five years, from 8% in 2010 to 17% in 2015. Understanding more about the conditions through which stress is reduced and wellbeing is enhanced in the workplace, and how this occurs, is important to be able to create work environments that foster and promote employee wellbeing.

It appears that most employee volunteering research is conducted with volunteer samples only, and consequently the positive outcomes identified are likely to be biased

(Rodell, Brietsohl, Schroder, & Keating, 2016). The current study builds on the existing research by including a control group of employees who haven't volunteered to compare levels of wellbeing. Similar between groups research on employee volunteer wellbeing does not appear to exist based on an extensive search of peer reviewed, published and unpublished research as part of the current study. The main aim of this research therefore is to investigate if a difference in subjective wellbeing levels exists between employee volunteers and non-volunteers. It will also examine if satisfaction of the basis needs predicts SWB for employee volunteers.

Hypothesis 1

There will be a significant positive association between employee volunteering intensity, as measured by the 5-item volunteering scale, and levels of subjective wellbeing.

Hypothesis 2

Employee volunteers will have higher levels of subjective wellbeing, compared to employee non-volunteers.

Hypothesis 3

Satisfaction of each of the three basic needs, autonomy, competence and relatedness, will predict higher levels of subjective wellbeing in the employee volunteering group, after controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, education and job level).

Methods

Participants

A convenience, snowballing sampling technique was used to recruit participants from a large Irish based telecommunications company that runs an employee volunteering programme, which the researcher is an employee of, and online through Facebook and LinkedIn. All participants were required to be in full or part-time employment and over 18 years of age. Approval was received from the telecommunication company's HR department to recruit participants through the organization (Appendix I).

104 responses to the research questionnaire were received. 19 incomplete responses were removed leaving a final sample of 85 participants. 50.6% (n = 43) of participants were employee volunteers and 49.4% (n = 42) were employee non-volunteers. Of the 43 employee volunteers, 67.4% (29) were female and the most frequent age bracket was between 35-44 years (51.2%), followed by 45-44 years (27.9%). The majority (76.2%) completed between 2 to 10 hours volunteering and participate in volunteering during paid work hours (79.1%). Most had volunteered in either the last 3 months (32.6%), or more than one year ago (37.2%). Of the 42 non-volunteers 61.9% were female and the most frequent age bracket was 25-36 years (35.7%), closely followed by 35-44 years (33.3%).

Educational attainment ranged from leaving certificate to masters. The majority held a degree or Masters qualification (67%). Job level ranged from graduate to owner/exec/C-Level. Most participants were either a non-manager individual contributor, or in middle management.

Design

A quantitative, cross sectional, between groups, quasi-experimental design was used to conduct the current research. The dependent variable was subjective wellbeing and the independent variable was employee volunteering (or non-volunteering).

The three basic psychological of needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness according to SDT, were predictor variables to investigate if they predicted levels of subjective wellbeing in the employee volunteer condition.

Measures

1. Demographic Variables of gender, age, education level and job level were included as control variables (Appendix C). Research shows that in general, women are more likely to volunteer than men (Lee & Brundy, 2012; Marshall & Taniguchi, 2012). Employee volunteering studies find that volunteering participation increases with age (Choi & Kim, 2011; Peterson, 2004; Rodell, 2013). There is an association between age and wellbeing, with research demonstrating a U-shape relationship where by higher levels of wellbeing are evident in younger and older adults in English speaking high income countries, with the lowest levels of wellbeing found in the age group from 45-54 years (Steptoe, Deaton, & Stone, 2015). Higher levels of education are associated with increased volunteering time and a higher likelihood to volunteer (Marshall & Taniguchi, 2012; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). Webb and Abzug (2008) found a relationship between the levels of volunteer participation and job role, with higher levels of volunteering amongst managers and professionals than those working in non-managerial and non-professional roles.

2. Employee Volunteer Data: Volunteers were directed to a further set of questions about their employee volunteering behavior (Appendix D), requesting when they volunteered through work (during paid work hours, during unpaid work hours, or outside of work hours), and when they last took part in an employee volunteering activity (in the last three months; 4-6 months ago; 7-12 months ago; more than one year ago).

Employee volunteers also completed a five-item volunteering measure developed by Rodell (2013), which requests participants to indicate on a 5 point scale how often they engage in the following volunteering behaviours where 1 = Very rarely to 5 = Very often; "give my time help a volunteer group"; "I apply my skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group"; I devote my energy toward a volunteer group"; I engage in activities to support a volunteer group"; I employ my talent to aid a volunteer group". Scores range from 1 to 5, with the average score of the five items indicating the intensity of volunteering. The items have good construct validity and strong positive correlations with measures for volunteering frequency and number of volunteering hours (Rodell, 2013). In the current study the five items had a strong positive correlation with the number of volunteering hours employees reported, ranging from r = .725 to .905, however this was not at a significant level. Frequency of volunteering was not measured in the current research.

Using the 5 item volunteering scale has advantages over using a one item measure, for example the number of hours volunteered, as it is possible to assess internal reliability of the scale. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was α = .97, which demonstrates good internal reliability. Also, the time invested in volunteering does not always equate with the intensity and effort given to the volunteering activity (Rodell, 2013)

3. Satisfaction of the 3 Basic Psychological Needs was assessed using the Needs Satisfaction at Work Scale (Van den Broeck et al., 2010), which measures satisfaction of autonomy, competence and relatedness specifically in relation to the workplace (Appendix E). This scale was used instead of a general needs satisfaction measure, as employee volunteering usually takes place during work hours and is associated with the work environment. Each subscale contains 6 items. Examples of Need for Autonomy items are "I

feel like I can be myself at my job" and "The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do". Examples of Need for Competence items are "I don't really feel competent in my job" (reversed item) and "I am good at the things I do in my job". Examples of Need for Relatedness items are "At work I feel part of a group" and "I don't really mix with other people at my job" (reversed item). All items are rated on a 5-point rating scale where 1 = Totally disagree and 5 = Totally agree. 8 of the 18 items are reversed score items. Scores range from 5 to 30 for each scale. Higher scores indicate greater needs satisfaction. Cronbach's alpha for each score indicates good internal reliability; Need for Autonomy α = .84, Need for Competence α = .88, Need for Relatedness α = .83

Often the three separate measures correlate strongly, and some studies average the scores from the three needs together to form one combined overall needs satisfaction score. However, this assumes that the needs are interchangeable and that low satisfaction in one need can be balanced with high satisfaction in another. For the current research the three basic needs were measured and assessed as separate constructs, as recommended by Van den Broeck et al. (2016).

4. Subjective Wellbeing: The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS: Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) was used to assess the cognitive component of SWB (Appendix F). Participants rated five statements related to life satisfaction on a 7-point scale, where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly agree. Examples of the statements include "In most ways my life is close to ideal", "I am satisfied with my life" and "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing". Scores can range from 5 to 35. A score between 5 - 9 is considered extremely dissatisfied, a score of 20 is neutral and a score from 31 - 35 is considered extremely satisfied. The scale has good internal reliability and good construct validity (Pavot & Diener, 2003). Internal reliability for the scale was high, $\alpha = .89$.

5. Subjective Wellbeing: The Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE:

Diener et al., 2010) was used to assess the affective component of SWB (Appendix G). Respondents were asked to think about what they had been doing in the last four weeks and report how much they experienced a range of six positive and six negative feelings on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 = Very Rarely and 5 = Very Often. Positive feelings rated include pleasant, happy, contented and joyful. Negative feelings rated include sad, afraid, angry and bad. Scores for both Positive Affect and Negative Affect measures range from 6 to 30. An overall Affect Balance score was derived by subtracting the negative feelings score from the positive feelings score. Scores for Affect Balance range from -24 (unhappiest possible) to 24 (highest affect balance achievable). A respondent with a score of -24 reports that they very rarely experience any of the positive feelings and very often experience all of the negative feelings. A respondent that scores 24 reports that they very often experience all the positive feeling and very rarely experience any of the negative feelings. Internal reliability for the scale was high: positive affect, $\alpha = .92$; negative affect $\alpha = .86$.

Procedure

Data was collected through an online Survey Monkey questionnaire. Participants were asked about their employee volunteering behaviour, needs satisfaction at work, and subjective wellbeing. The questionnaire was made available online on LinkedIn and Facebook, and employees in the telecommunications company were informed about the survey through the internal newsletter. The survey was open for one month from the 1st to 30th June 2019.

To distinguish employee volunteers from non-volunteers, participants were asked the question "Have you ever taken part in employee volunteering activity?", according to the definition provided "time or skills given voluntarily by an employee to benefit a non-profit organisation, charity, school or community group, organised through their employer either during or outside of work hours". If a respondent answered Yes for employee volunteering,

they were presented with a specific set of questions relating to their volunteering behavior (Appendix D). If a respondent chose No for employee volunteering, they were not presented with the volunteering specific questions.

A research information page detailing the participant's rights, benefits and risks was provided (Appendix B). Respondents were informed that the questionnaire was voluntary to complete and that there were no personal or work benefits from taking part in the study. Respondents were informed that the survey was anonymous and confidential, and that only data at a collated would be analysed and reported for the purposes of the research. Respondents could opt out of the research up to the point of submitting their response. Due to the anonymous nature of the questionnaire, it was not possible to identify and remove a response once it was submitted. Before continuing to complete the questionnaire respondents were requested to give informed consent for taking part in the research (Appendix B).

As there were some questions included in the questionnaire that hadn't been used before in other employee volunteer studies, a pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted with six people in person (Appendix H), who were informed they could not take part in the actual research study. Based on feedback from the pilot study respondents some changes were made to develop the final version. Respondents who chose NO for employee volunteering were not presented with the volunteering specific questions. The definition for employee volunteering was included on each page containing employee volunteering questions as pilot subjects felt this would help people answer the questions better. The question to capture the number of hours was rephrased to make it clearer. Other than these changes the 6 pilot subjects agreed the questions were clear and understandable.

The current research was approved by the National College of Ireland Ethics committee and adheres to the principles of The Code of Professional Ethics of the PSI (Psychological Society of Ireland) and the NCIRL Ethical Guidelines and Procedures for 19

Research involving Human Participants. Given that the student researcher is an employee of the telecommunications company where potential survey respondents work, a number of measures were put in place to protect against coercion of participation. The questionnaire was anonymous and confidential, with minimal demographic information requested which was required to complete the study. For example, the name of the company that the respondent worked in was not requested to protect individual anonymity. The research questionnaire was communicated to employees of the telecommunications company via the company internal news letter and the researcher did not approach employees directly to take part in the research. The questionnaire was also open to employees from other companies to complete online through LinkedIn and Facebook.

Results

Frequencies for demographic variables are presented in Table 1 for the employee volunteering and non-volunteering groups. 50.6% of participants are employee volunteers. Both groups have a similar age, gender and education profiles. The majority of participants are between 25 and 44 years of age (69.8% of volunteers; 69% of non-volunteers), are female (67.4% of volunteers; 61.9% of non-volunteers), and have degree or masters qualifications (69.7% of volunteers; 64.2% of non-volunteers). Employee volunteers have higher rates of middle and senior management roles (51.2% of volunteers; 31% of non-volunteers) and non-volunteers have a slightly higher rate of non-manager roles (41.9% of volunteers; 54.8% of non-volunteers). The majority of volunteers took part in an employee volunteering activity either in the last three months (32.6%) or over one year ago (37.2%), and 79% participated in the activity during paid work hours.

Table 1.

Frequencies for the current sample of employee volunteers and non-volunteers on each demographic variable (N = 85)

Variable		Frequency	Valid Percentage
Employee Volunteering	g		
Employee volunteer		43	50.6
Non-volunteer		42	49.4
Gender			
Employee Volunteer	Female	29	67.4
	Male	14	32.6
Non-volunteer	Female	26	61.9
	Male	16	38.1

Age			
Employee Volunteer	18-24	0	0
	25-34	8	18.6
	35-44	22	51.2
	45-54	12	27.9
	55-64	1	2.3
Non-volunteer	18-24	1	2.4
	25-34	15	35.7
	35-44	14	33.3
	45-54	9	21.4
	55-64	3	7.1
Education			
Employee Volunteer	Leaving Cert	1	2.3
	Certificate	3	7.0
	Diploma	9	20.9
	Degree	17	39.5
	Masters	13	30.2
Non-Volunteer	Leaving Cert	9	21.4
	Certificate	2	4.8
	Diploma	4	9.5
	Degree	19	45.2
	Masters	8	19.0
Job Level			
Employee Volunteer	Graduate	1	2.3
	Trainee	0	0

	Non-manager	18	41.9
	Middle Manager	14	32.6
	Senior Manager	8	18.6
	Owner/Exec/C-Level	2	4.7
Non-volunteer	Graduate	2	4.8
	Trainee	1	2.4
	Non-manager	23	54.8
	Middle Manager	11	26.2
	Senior Manager	2	4.8
	Owner/Exec/C-Level	3	7.1
Volunteering Timeframe			
In last 3 months		14	32.6
4-6 months ago		4	9.3
7-12 months ago		9	20.9
More than 1 year ago		16	37.2
Timing of Volunteering			
During paid work hours		34	18.6
During unpaid work hours		1	79.1
Outside of work hours		8	2.3

Descriptive statistics for continuous variables are presented in two separate tables for employee volunteers (Table 2) and non-volunteers (Table 3).

Overall, means for the needs satisfaction and wellbeing variables are higher for the volunteer group, with the exception of SWLS, but only to a small degree. The highest scoring needs satisfaction variable for both groups is competence (volunteers: M = 24.77, SD = 3.72;

non-volunteers: M = 23.43, SD = 3.81). The SWLS scores for both groups are similar (volunteers: M = 23.12, SD = 5.96; non-volunteers: M = 23.17, SD = 7.51), and are in the slightly satisfied to satisfied range of 21-25. The SWLS means scores for this group are in line with mean scores for SWLS normative data available for diverse populations (Pavot & Diener, 2009). The SPANE scores on average are higher for volunteers (M = 8.74, SD =7.92) compared to non-volunteers (M = 7.92, SD = 8.26). These mean SPANE scores indicate that on average participants in both groups experienced positive emotions more than negative emotions.

The combined mean for the 5-item volunteering scale is 2.8, indicating that most of the volunteer group performed the five volunteering behaviours sometimes. Scores for the five items had a strong positive correlation with the number of volunteering hours reported, ranging from r = .725 to .905, however this was not at a significant level. The average number of hours spent volunteering was 9.7 hours ranging from one to sixty hours per person. The majority of volunteers, 32 (76.2%) completed between 2 – 10 hours volunteering.

Analysis of the data found that the Competence and Relatedness needs satisfaction data was non-normally distributed for both groups, and Autonomy needs satisfaction for the volunteer group, with Kolmogorov-Smirnov Sig. values of less than .05. Examination of the box plots revealed one outlier in the SPANE data for non-volunteer, plus a number of outliers for Competence needs satisfaction; two for the volunteer group and three for the nonvolunteer group. The outliers were double checked and found to be valid scores with in the range for Competence need satisfaction scores, as well as there being minimal differences between the mean and trimmed mean values, and were retained in the data for analysis. Data for SWLS and SPANE scores in the non-volunteer group were non-normally distributed indicated by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Sig. values of less than .05, as are all five volunteering items. Skewness and kurtosis were within the acceptable bounds of -2 and 2 for all continuous variables, with the exception of Competence needs satisfaction in both conditions. Table 2.

	Mean (95%	Std. Error	Median	SD	Range
	Confidence Intervals)	Mean			
I give my time	2.84 (2.48-3.19)	.17	3.0	1.15	1-5
I apply my skills	2.95 (2.59-3.31)	.18	3.0	1.17	1-5
I devote my energy	2.86 (2.47-3.26)	.19	3.0	1.28	1-5
I engage in activities	3.02 (2.66-3.39)	.18	3.0	1.18	1-5
I employee my talent	2.72 (2.35-3.09)	.18	3.0	1.20	1-5
Volunteering Intensity	2.9()				
Volunteer Hours	9.74 (6.42-13.07)	1.65	8.0	10.81	1-60
Autonomy	20.67(19.19-22.16)	.74	21.0	4.82	11-30
Competence	24.77(23.62-25.91)	.57	25.0	3.72	12-30
Relatedness	23.56(22.38-24.77)	.58	24.0	3.82	12-30
SWLS Total	23.12(21.28-24.95)	.91	24.0	5.96	6-35
SPANE Total	8.74(6.44-11.05)	1.14	9.0	7.48	-6-24

Descriptive statistics of all continuous variables for employee volunteer condition (N = 43)

Table 3.

Descriptive statistics of all continuous variables for non-volunteer condition (N = 42)

	Mean (95% Confidence	Std. Error	Median	SD	Range
	Intervals)	Mean			
Autonomy	19.36 (17.97-20.75)	.69	20.0	4.45	11-27

Competence	23.43(22.24-24.62)	.59	24.0	3.81	12-29
Relatedness	21.81(20.43-23.18)	.68	23.0	4.42	11-30
SWLS	23.17 (20.82-25.51)	1.16	24.5	7.51	5-35
SPANE Total	7.92(5.35-10.51)	1.27	9.0	8.27	-21-24

Hypothesis 1

To test the first hypothesis, the relationship between volunteering intensity and SWB was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient. Preliminary analysis of the data indicated that the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedacity were not violated. There was no significant correlation between volunteering intensity and SWLS (r = .05, n = 43, p = .757) or SPANE (r = .24, n = 43, p = .116). Results indicate that the level of volunteering intensity was not associated with subjective wellbeing.

Hypothesis 2

To test the second hypothesis that employee volunteers would have higher levels of subjective wellbeing, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to allow for the non-normal distribution of the data outlined. Using G-Power, the recommended sample size per group was 42 participants for adequate power in the analysis, to detect type 1 or type 2 errors. A Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference in SWLS scores between employee volunteers (Md = 24, n = 43) and non-volunteers (Md = 24.5, n = 42), U = 855.50, z = -.418, p = .676, r = .05; and no significant difference in SPANE scores between employee volunteers (Md = 9, n = 43) and non-volunteers (Md = 9, n = 42), U = 876.50, z = -.233, p = .815, r = .03. Analysis of subjective wellbeing levels indicated no significant difference between employee volunteers and non-volunteers.

A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in levels of SWLS and SPANE scores based on the timing of the volunteering. Data for the SWLS and SPANE were normally distributed for the volunteering condition. Participants were divided into four groups according to when they volunteered last (in the last 3 months, 4-6 months ago, 7-12 months ago, more than 1 year ago). There was no statistically significant difference in levels of SWLS between the four volunteering timing groups F(3, 39) = 1.85, p = .15. The effect size (eta squared = .12). There was no statistically significant difference in levels of SPANE scores between the four volunteering timing groups F(3, 39) = 2.07, p = .12. The effect size (eta squared = .14).

Hypothesis 3

Hierarchical multiple regression was performed to investigate the ability of the three basic psychological needs to predict levels of subjective wellbeing as measured by the SWLS and SPANE in the volunteer condition. A sample of 106 participants was required to have adequate powered in the Hierarchical Multiple Regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007)

SWLS hierarchical multiple regression analysis

After controlling for the demographic variables of age, gender, education, and job level. Preliminary analysis was conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedacity. A review of the histogram and p-plots indicated that the data was non-normally distributed. Analysis of the scatterplot highlighted the presence of one outlying SWLS score, indicated by a standardised residual of less than -3.3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Examination of this score indicated that it was a valid response and within the possible score range, and was included as part of the analysis.

The correlations between the predictor variables and the criterion variable included in the study were examined, presented in Table 5. Three of the seven predictor variables were significantly correlated with the criterion variable, and these significant effects ranged from r = .41 (autonomy) to r = .57 (competence). The correlations amongst the predictor variables

were also examined with r values ranging from .003 to .620, indicating there was no violation of the assumption of multicollinearity and that the data was suitable for examination through hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the first step of the hierarchical multiple regression, four predictors were entered: age, gender, education and job level. This model was not statistically significant F (4, 38) = .246, p = .911, and only explained 2% of variance in SWLS (see Table 4 for full details). After the entry of Step 2 and the three predictor variables of autonomy, competence and relatedness, the total variance explained by the model was 40% F (7, 35) = 3.38, p = .007). The introduction of the 3 basic psychological needs explained an additional 38% variance after controlling for age, gender, education and job level; a change that was statistically significant (R^2 change = .38; F (3, 35) = 7.40, p = .001). In the final model, only Competence uniquely predicted SWLS to a statistically significant degree making it a positive predictor of SWLS (β = .42, p = .021).

Table 4.

Multiple regression model predicting SWLS scores

	R	R^2	R^2	В	SE	β
			Change			
Step 1	.16	.02				
Age				45	1.30	06
Gender				1.50	2.01	.12
Education				.49	.96	.08
Job Level				.08	1.04	.01
Step 2	.64	.40*	.38*			
Age				.64	1.11	.08

Gender	1.65	1.70	.13
Education	.13	.80	.02
Job Level	89	.88	14
Autonomy	.08	.23	.06
Competence	.68	.28	.42*
Relatedness	.40	.29	.25

Note. $R^2 = R$ -squared; B = unstandardized beta value; SE = Standard errors of B; $\beta =$ standardized beta value; N = 43; Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 5.

Correlations between all predictor variables and criterion variable and inter-correlations for predictor variables (N = 43)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. SWLS	1							
2. Age	06	1						
3. Gender	.12	.003	1					
4. Education	.09	04	.03	1				
5. Job Level	.02	.11	02	.15	1			
6. Autonomy	.41**	11	16	.21	.22	1		
7. Competence	.57***	11	.04	.15	.23	.58***	1	
8. Relatedness	.49***	27*	10	.06	.14	.62***	.58***	1

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

SPANE hierarchical multiple regression analysis

After controlling for the demographic variables of age, gender, education, and job level. Preliminary analysis were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedacity. A review of the histogram and p-plots indicated that the data was non-normally distributed. Examination of the scatterplot indicated there were no outliers. The correlations between the predictor variables and the criterion variable included in the study were examined, presented in Table 7. Three of the seven predictor variables were significantly correlated with the criterion variable, and these significant effects ranged from r = .55 (relatedness) to r = .58 (autonomy and competence). The correlations amongst the predictor variables were also examined with r values ranging from .003 to .620, indicating there was no violation of the assumption of multicollinearity and that the data was suitable for examination through hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

In the first step of the hierarchical multiple regression, four predictors were entered: age, gender, education and job level. This model was not statistically significant F(4, 38) =.89, p = .48, and only explained 9% of variance in SPANE (see Table 6 for full details). After the entry of Step 2 and the three predictor variables of autonomy, competence and relatedness, the total variance explained by the model was 49% F(7, 35) = 4.75, p = .001). The introduction of the 3 basic psychological needs explained an additional 40% variance after controlling for age, gender, education and job level; a change that was statistically significant (R^2 change = .40; F(3, 35) = 9.15, p = .000). In the final model, none of the needs satisfaction predictor variables were unique significant predictors.

In both hierarchical multiple regression analyses, the basic psychological needs account for a significant additional variance in both subjective wellbeing measures, although only competence is a unique significant predictor for SWLS. Table 6.

	R	R^2	R^2	В	SE	β
			Change			
Step 1	.29	.09				
Age				.23	1.57	.02
Gender				99	2.45	06
Education				1.06	1.17	.14
Job Level				1.79	1.27	.22
Step 2	.70	.49***	.40***			
Age				1.69	1.29	.17
Gender				-2.01	1.97	01
Education				.49	.94	.07
Job Level				.52	1.02	.06
Autonomy				.38	.27	.24
Competence				.55	.33	.27
Relatedness				.54	.37	.27

Hierarchical multiple regression model predicting SPANE scores

Note. $R^2 = R$ -squared; B = unstandardized beta value; SE = Standard errors of B; $\beta =$ standardized beta value; N = 42; Statistical significance: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001 Table 7.

Correlations between all predictor variables and criterion variable and inter-correlations for predictor variables (N = 43)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. SPANE	1							
2. Age	.04	1						

3. Gender	06	.003	1					
4. Education	.17	04	.03	1				
5. Job Level	.25	.11	02	.15	1			
6. Autonomy	.58***	11	16	.21	.22	1		
7. Competence	.58***	11	.04	.15	.23	.58***	1	
8. Relatedness	.55***	27*	10	.06	.14	.62***	.58***	1

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

Discussion

Research shows that individuals who volunteer through work and in their own time benefit from positive outcomes, including wellbeing and needs satisfaction. The main aim of the current research was to investigate if employees who volunteer through work have higher levels of subjective wellbeing than their non-volunteering counterparts, and whether needs satisfaction predicts wellbeing for volunteers. Hypotheses 1 predicted that there would be a significant positive relationship between employee volunteering intensity and subjective wellbeing. No significant correlation was found between them and the null hypothesis was accepted. Hypothesis 2 predicted that employee volunteer would have higher levels of SWB than employee non-volunteers. No significant difference existed between SWB in the two groups, and the null hypothesis was accepted. Results showed that both groups had, on average, very similar levels of both SWLS and SPANE scores. Hypothesis 3 predicted that satisfaction of each of the three basic psychological needs would predict SWB levels in the employee volunteer group. For both measures, needs satisfaction explained an additional 38% variance in SWLS and 40% variance in SPANE after controlling for demographic variables, demonstrating that as a model, satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs predicted SWB. Only satisfaction of competence uniquely predicted SWLS scores, and there was no unique effect found for the SPANE scores. As only one of the three basic needs was a significant predictor for one of the SWB measures, the null hypothesis was only partially rejected.

The finding that there was no significant association between employee volunteering and wellbeing in the current study is unexpected. Most research examining the relationship between volunteering and wellbeing, finds that they are positively and significantly associated with each other (Meier & Stutzer, 2004; Piliavin & Siegal, 2007, Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). A possible explanation for this is the methodology of the other studies, which are longitudinal and therefore able to detect changes in wellbeing outcomes over time, and have much larger sample sizes to be able to detect significant effects. However, in support of the current findings, research by Wray-lake et al. (2017) found that both volunteering and charitable giving were not significantly related to wellbeing. A possible explanation put forward for the findings was the volunteer's motivation and whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic, as intrinsic motivation is associated with positive wellbeing outcomes. Motivations for volunteering were not investigated in this research but assessing them in future between groups volunteering research could shed more light on wellbeing differences.

The finding that SWB levels for employee volunteers were not higher than nonvolunteers is at odds with other between groups research available, which found that people who volunteered reported higher levels of life satisfaction than people who never volunteered (Mieir & Stutzer, 2004), and that employee volunteers experience greater needs satisfaction, a wellbeing indicator, than non-volunteers (Haski-Levanthal at al., 2019). One explanation for the contradictory findings could be related to the amount and frequency of volunteering. In the Mieir and Stutzer (2004) research, results also showed that people who volunteered more frequently, at least weekly or monthly, had higher life satisfaction ratings than individuals who volunteered less frequently. Frequency of volunteering was not examined in this study, but the number of hours volunteered by most of the participants was between 2 and 10 hours, compared to a mean of 26.30 hours in the Haski-Levanthal et al. (2019) study, which suggests that the volunteering frequency was low in the current sample. The average volunteering intensity score for the group was 2.8 which indicates they engaged in the five volunteering behaviours only sometimes, again suggesting a low volunteering frequency. Another possibility to consider in relation to the null finding is that, as suggested by Rodell et al. (2016), the relationship found between volunteering and wellbeing is biased, due to a concentration of studies on volunteer samples only.

As mentioned previously, competence needs satisfaction involves the application of skills and acquiring new skills, and having a sense of mastery over abilities. The finding that competence is a unique predictor of wellbeing in the volunteer group is in accordance with research demonstrating that employee volunteering provides opportunities to apply and learn new skills (Brockner et al., 2014; Grant, 2012; Peterson, 2004).

Practical Implications

Although results from this research did not support the relationship usually found between personal and employee volunteering, or that employee volunteers experience higher SWB levels than non volunteers, there is ample evidence that demonstrates a significant positive association between volunteering and wellbeing.

Needs satisfaction is something that can be built on to enhance employee volunteering experience. Evidence demonstrates that autonomous motivation for prosocial acts, rather then external motivation, results in greater benefits for all parties involved (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Companies should ensure that policies and supports are in place to make volunteering opportunities attractive and meaningful to employees, so that they are choosing to participate out of their own interests and choice. For example, they could involve employees in the process of choosing a cause or charity, facilitating a sense of ownership and involvement with the employee volunteering programme. Finding meaning in employee volunteering is also related to greater skills development (Caliguiri et al., 2013)

Needs satisfaction of competence, which is related to using current skills and learning new skills, was a significant predictor of wellbeing in this study. In their development of employee volunteering programmes, organisations should ensure that employee's current skills can be utilised, and that there are opportunities to develop new skills. Caliguiri et al. (2013) found that employees with specialist skills, as opposed to generalists, showed greater increases in their skill development through employee volunteering, and that when volunteers experience greater skills development, they are more likely to participate in future volunteering activities.

While autonomy and relatedness needs satisfaction were not significant predictors in this research, there is evidence that satisfaction of all three basic needs predicts wellbeing and other benefits through employee volunteering. Ways to enhance autonomy and relatedness should be considered by organisations. For example, brining employee volunteers together regularly outside of volunteering activities, to discuss and share their volunteering experiences could help build more meaningful relationships and a sense of group belonging, thus improving relatedness needs satisfaction.

Limitations & Recommendations

There are a few limitations with the current study that must be noted and considered. Firstly, the design of this research is cross-sectional and therefor no causal inferences can be made about the relationship between employee volunteering, satisfaction of the basic needs and subjective wellbeing. Most research in this area involves cross-sectional research with volunteering samples. Further longitudinal research is recommended to understand if participation in employee volunteering over time influences wellbeing, and whether a causal relationship exits. Between groups researched with a matched employee sample could also prove useful in investigating if differences in well being exist between employees who volunteer and those who don't volunteer.

All measures in the study were self-report measures, which are subject to social desirability bias. Although, in this case the volunteer has the best knowledge about their own volunteering behaviour. Future research could incorporate objective wellbeing measures to strengthen the validity of research findings.

The sample size of the employee volunteer group was smaller than desired, and ideally a larger sample of size was necessary to conduct the hierarchical multiple regression

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analysis with adequate power. The sample sizes for the two conditions were adequate to complete the between groups analysis, and the demographic profile for both groups was similar, which is a strength in relation to the between groups analysis. However, there was considerable variance in when employees volunteered. Most participants volunteered either in the last 3 months or more than one year ago. While Satisfaction with Life is relatively stable of over the life span (Pavot & Diener, 1993), positive and negative affect was assessed for a four-week period prior to the completing the questionnaire and is more sensitive as a measure to temporal fluctuations. It is unlikely that wellbeing effects from taking part in volunteering over a year ago, such as positive affect, would be detected using this measure. This is reflected in the SPANE scores which show that participants who volunteered more than a year ago was half that of volunteers who volunteered in the last three months. Future research into the differences in SWB levels should incorporate larger samples of volunteers who have recently volunteered with in a specific timeframe to ensure the effects of volunteering can be assessed adequately.

Age, gender, education and job level were controlled for in this study. There are other variables associated with volunteering behaviour and wellbeing outcomes that were not included as control variables. For example, marital status is a predictor of wellbeing (Chapman & Guven, 2016), and income is also positively associated with volunteering (Thoits & Hewitt, 2011). Therefore, it is possible that there are confounding variables that influenced the results, which were not controlled for in the current research.

Volunteering motivations have also been demonstrated to impact needs satisfaction and wellbeing outcomes. Understanding volunteer's motivations to participate could have help explain the non-significant results between volunteering and wellbeing. Volunteering motivations where not investigate in this study, but appear important so could strengthen future between groups research to understand intrinsic or extrinsic motivations. Understanding why employees chose not to volunteer would also strengthen future studies that include a non-volunteer control group.

It is important to highlight that good quality academic research available specifically on employee volunteering is limited and more academic research utilising the scientific method is required (Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2015). However, employee volunteering research is continuously progressing with more literature becoming grounded in testing theories, and being published in high impact academic journals (Dreesbach-Bundy & Scheck, 2017). This is a positive direction for employee volunteering research and will hopefully provide further evidence based insights into the motivations and consequences of employee volunteering that can be practically applied, to enhance the employee volunteering experience.

Conclusion

Employee volunteering is a form of prosocial behaviour that has numerous benefits for the individual volunteer, non-profit organisation and the facilitating company. One of the main benefits for the employee is the positive relationship with wellbeing, through satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence and relatedness. The benefits of employee volunteering should be actively promoted in businesses to encourage more employees to take part in volunteering activities, which could help with skills development, improve productivity, build meaningful relationships and ultimately enhance their wellbeing.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Participant Research information

Research Information and Consent

YOUR RIGHTS

All data provided is completely confidential and anonymous. The data is analysed and reported at a collated level only.

You can withdraw from the study at any time, up to the point of submitting your data. Due to the anonymous nature of the data provided, once you have submitted your responses to the questionnaire it will not be possible to identify individual responses to remove them.

You have the right to have your questions about the research procedures and questionnaire answered. If you have any questions before completing this questionnaire you can email the researcher at fiona.meehan1@student.ncirl.ie, or the research supervisor at micheal.cleary-gaffney@ncirl.ie.

BENEFITS AND RISKS

There are no known benefits or risks associated with taking part in this research. However, if completing the questionnaire brings up any thoughts or feelings that you would like to discuss in confidence, contact details for the Samaritans helpline are provided at the end of the questionnaire.

COST, REIMBURSEMENT AND COMPENSATION

Your participation in this research is voluntary. No reimbursement or compensation is provided to any participant taking part.

CONFIDENTIALITY/ANONYMITY

The data collected does not contain any personal information about you except some demographic variables. All information provided by you is anonymous. Personal name and contact details, or company name and contact details, are not requested or required.

The data submitted by you will be analysed by the researcher and reported at a collated level only, for the purpose of a Final Year Project as part of a BA Hons in Psychology. The research findings will be submitted and presented to NCIRL for assessment and grading.

Appendix B

Participant Consent Form & Debrief

PARTICIPANT CONSENT INFORMATION

In agreeing to participate in this research I understand the following:

This research is being conducted by Fiona Meehan, an undergraduate psychology student at the School of Business, National College of Ireland (NCIRL).

The method proposed for this research project has been approved by the NCIRL Departmental Ethics Committee, which means that the committee does not have concerns about the procedure itself as detailed by the student. It is, however, the above-named student's responsibility to adhere to ethical guidelines in their dealings with participants and the collection and handling of data.

If I have any concerns about taking part I understand that I may refuse to participate or withdraw at any stage. I understand that due to the anonymous nature of the data provided, that once I have completed and submitted the online questionnaire, it will not be possible to identify and remove a participant's response.

I have been informed as to the general nature of the study and agree voluntarily to participate.

There are no known expected discomforts or risks associated with participation.

All data from the study will be treated confidentially. The data from all participants will be compiled, analysed, and submitted in a report to the Psychology Department in the School of Business. No individual participant's data will be identified at any stage of the data analysis or in the final report.

At the conclusion of my participation, any questions or concerns I have will be fully addressed.

I may withdraw from this study at any time up to the point that I have submitted my responses through the anonymous and confidential online questionnaire.

I am over 18 years of age and I am currently in full or part-time employment.

* INFORMED CONSENT

By continuing to complete the questionnaire, you agree that you have read and understood the Research Information and the Participant Consent Information provided and are happy to take part in this research.

Yes

No
 No

Participant Debrief Information

Thank you for taking part in this research and for completing the online questionnaire.

TO SUBMIT YOUR RESPONSES, PLEASE HIT THE DONE BUTTON AT THE BOTTOM OF THIS PAGE.

The anonymous data submitted by you will be analysed and reported at a collated level only, for the purpose of a Final Year Project as part of a BA Hons in Psychology. The research findings will be submitted and presented to NCIRL for assessment and grading.

If you have any questions about the study, or would like to find out about the final results of the study which will be available in August, please email the researcher at fiona.meehan1@student.ncirl.ie .

If you would like to talk in confidence about any thoughts or feelings that arose from taking part in the research and completing the online questionnaire, you can contact the free confidential help-line number below:

Samaritans Call Freephone: 116 123 Text: 087 2 60 90 90 (standard text rates apply) Email: jo@samaritans.ie

Appendix C

Demographic Questions

Se	ction 1: Demographic Information	
* Wh	nat is your age?	
0	18-24	45-54
0	25-34	55-64
0	35-44	65+
* Wh	nat is your gender?	
0	Female	
0	Male	
0	Gender fluid	
0	Binary	
0	Other (please specify)	
* Wh	hat is the highest level of education you have completed	?
	\$	
Oth	er (please specify)	
* Wh	nich of the following best describes your current job leve	əl?
0	Owner/Executive/C-Level	
0	Senior Management	
0	Middle Management	
0	Individual contributor (non-management)	
0	Graduate	
0	Trainee	
Oth	er (please specify)	

Appendix D

Employee Volunteer Questions

Section 2: Employee Volunteering

Employee volunteering definition: Time or skills given voluntarily by an employee to benefit a non-profit organisation, charity, school or community group, organised through their employer either during or outside of work hours.

* Have you ever taken part in an employee volunteering activity arranged or facilitated by your employer?

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O No

Section 2: Employee Volunteering

Employee volunteering definition: Time or skills given voluntarily by an employee to benefit a non-profit organisation, charity, school or community group through their employer, either during or outside of work hours.

* In relation to employee volunteering, how frequently do you engage in the following behaviours?

	Very rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
I give my time to help a volunteer group	\bigcirc	0	0	0	0
I apply my skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group	0	0	0	0	0
I devote my energy toward a volunteer group	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0
I engage in activities to support a volunteer group	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	\circ
I employ my talent to aid a volunteer group	\bigcirc	0	0	0	0

* When did you most recently take part in an employee volunteering activity?

- In the last 3 months
- 4-6 months ago
- 7-12 months ago
- More than 1 year ago

* How many employee volunteering hours did you complete during the timeframe chosen for the previous question?

* When did the employee volunteering take place?

During paid work hours

- During unpaid work hours
- Outside of work hours

Appendix E

Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work Scale

Section 3: Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work

The following questions relate to the three components of basic needs satisfaction at work according to Self-determination theory: autonomy, competence and relatedness.

* Please rate the following statements in relation to your day to day experience at work

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
l feel like I can be myself at my job	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0
At work, I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
If I could choose, I would do things differently at work	0	0	0	0	0
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do	0	\circ	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done	0	0	0	0	0
In my job, I feel forced to do things that I do not want to do	0	0	0	0	0

Section 3: Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work

The following questions relate to the three components of basic needs satisfaction at work according to Self-determination theory: autonomy, competence and relatedness.

* Please rate the following statements in relation to your day to day experience at work

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
l don't really feel competent in my job	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
l really master my tasks at my job	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
I feel competent at my job	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
I doubt whether I am able to execute my job properly	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
I am good at the things I do in my job	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0
I have the feeling that I can even accomplish the most difficult tasks at work	0	\circ	0	0	\bigcirc

Appendix E

Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work Scale

Section 3: Basic Needs Satisfaction at Work

The following questions relate to the three components of basic needs satisfaction at work according to Self-determination theory: autonomy, competence and relatedness.

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
I don't really feel connected with other people at my job	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
At work, I feel part of a group	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
I don't really mix with other people at my job	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0
At work, I can talk with people about things that really matter to me	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\circ	0	\bigcirc
I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0
Some people I work with are close friends of mine	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

Appendix F

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Section 4: Subjective Wellbeing

* Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the scale below, indicate your agreement with each statement. Please be open and honest in your responding.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
In most ways my life is close to ideal	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
The conditions of my life are excellent	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
I am satisfied with my life	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0
So far I have gotten the important things I want in life	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\circ	0	\bigcirc	0
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0	0	0

Appendix G

Scale of Positive and Negative Affect (SPANE)

Section 4: Subjective Wellbeing

* Please think about what you have been doing and experiencing during the past four weeks. Then report how much you experienced each of the following feelings, using the scale below.

	Very rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Positive	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Negative	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Good	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Bad	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Pleasant	0	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Unpleasant	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Нарру	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Sad	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Afraid	0	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Joyful	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Angry	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Contented	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

Appendix H

Pilot Questions

Section 1. Employee Volunteering

Employee volunteering definition: Time or skills given voluntarily by an employee to benefit a non-profit organisation, charity or community group, through their employer, either during or outside of work hours

Q1 Have you ever taken part in employee volunteering arranged or facilitated by your

employee?

Yes/ No

If you answered No, please go to Section 3

If you answered Yes, please answer the following questions

Q2. When did you last volunteer?In the last 3 months4-6 months ago7-12 months agoMore than 1 year ago

Q3. How many employee volunteer hour in total did you complete during the timeframe chosen?

Q4. When did the employee volunteering take place?

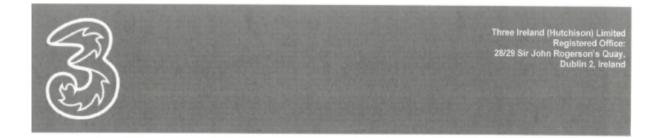
During paid work hours

During unpaid work hours

Outside of work hours

Appendix I

Three Ireland Approval Letter



Ethics Filter Committee, National College of Ireland IFSC Dublin 1.

08 November 2018

To whom it concerns,

Three Ireland are happy to grant permission to employee Fiona Meehan (Employee Engagement Specialist) to recruit participants for her final year project through the company.

We are aware that the research study is investigating levels of wellbeing amongst employee volunteers and non volunteers, and that the timeframe of the research spans the months of November 2018 to April 2019.

With regards,

edmind Mark Redmond,

People & Property Director