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THE DARK SIDE OF MANDATORY THIRD-PARTY VOLUNTEERING

A LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES ON VOLUNTEERS AND BENEFICIARIES DUE TO MANDATED THIRD-PARTY VOLUNTEERING

Shalini Sewradj (471176)

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Coach: Prof. Dr. Lucas C.P.M. Meijs
Co-Reader: Dr. Stephanie Koolen-Maas

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Sincerely,

Shalini Sewradj, July 2021

Abstract

The emergence of mandated third-party volunteering - the third-parties corporations, educational institutes, and governments oblige its employees, students, and citizens, to participate in volunteering programs - has significantly impacted how volunteering is understood. What before was assumed entirely voluntarily now can be coerced. Although there is ample literature on the positive consequences of corporate volunteering, service learning, and workfare volunteering, both voluntarily and obliged, no comprehensive overview on the adverse effects is found. This is on account of existing literature on the multiple third-party volunteering initiatives being too scattered. Therefore, a literature review was conducted to create an overview of the negative consequences on third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. Through a keywords search in the databases Scopus and Web of Science, a dataset of 108 articles was established (both academic and grey literature). The studies were predominantly qualitative, from English journals, and Western-oriented. A little less than 50% originated from the United States. The findings led to the identification of three key consequences that apply to both volunteers and beneficiaries: (1) the strain on mental health, (2) low quality of volunteering work, and (3) diminished confidence in volunteering.

These findings have led to substantial implications for host and home organizations and volunteers that intend to mitigate the negative effects of mandatory third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. Overall, the implications do not suggest abstaining from mandatory volunteering in its entirety. Instead, the classified conditions that create said negative consequences should be taken into account and adapted. Home and host organizations should build on the practice's strengths and restrict its limitations. Thus, the final contribution made is insights for future research directions - future research should focus on regulating third-party mandatory volunteering so that its negative consequences are mitigated.

Keywords: *third-party volunteering, mandatory volunteering, normative pressures*

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1 Introduction

Volunteering in its many forms has been excessively covered in past research and literature. For the most part, it is a beneficial action that brings about a multitude of wanted consequences for its stakeholders involved (e.g., Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Wilson, 2000; Meier and Stutzer, 2007). Nowadays, volunteering is supported by many actors. For instance, governments, educational institutes, and for-profit organizations all stimulate the act of volunteering (e.g., Hustinx and Meijs, 2011; Brudney et al., 2019). This is because volunteering has become more vital in the Western world over the past years. This could partly be explained by governments stressing the importance of volunteering in society and their encouragements of participation amongst its citizens. According to Hustinx and Meijs (2011), this has significantly increased after establishing the UN's International Year of Volunteering in 2001.

Furthermore, in governments, corporations, and educational institutes, the adoption of volunteering practices and acknowledging its importance is observed (Davis Smith, 2003; Brudney and Gazley, 2006; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). To exemplify, in the corporate context, companies - driven by an increase in corporate social responsibility (CSR) - have been identified as a potential lever to expand and sustain societal impact. In this context, a growing number of companies are looking for opportunities to engage and mobilize corporate assets, including employees in corporate volunteering activities. In view of this upsurge in volunteering practices across sectors, there has been a rise in volunteering initiated by these third parties[1] (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). These new types of volunteering, such as workfare volunteering, corporate volunteering, and service learning, have then, in turn, led to the development of the term third-party volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). As a result of this emergence of interest in volunteering from multiple parties, sufficient research has been done on the topic. Due to ample literature being available on third-party volunteering, a literature review is performed.

In particular in third-party volunteering[2], governments, corporations, and educational institutes become more involved in the practice of volunteering. Therefore, the concept is defined as volunteering initiatives of governments, corporations, and educational institutes. In such cases, instead of direct partnerships between volunteers and volunteering organizations, otherwise known as membership- or service management, this 'third' middle

[1] Third parties are defined as the involvement of the third parties (governments, corporations, and educational institutes) in the encouragement of volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010).

[2] From this point onwards, the parties governments, corporations and educational institutes will be referred to as third parties.

party is introduced to link students, citizens, or employees to an organization, for which they can volunteer. (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). Primarily, it is expected that third-party volunteering, much like volunteering in its most general form, will produce positive results. To illustrate, Shantz and Dempsey-Brench (2021) highlight that participating in volunteering programs enhances workplace skills. Additionally, Lim (n.d.) argues that mandated volunteers learn an equal number of skills than those who participate voluntarily. Thus, indicating that a volunteer's initial inclination to participate is irrelevant to the learning and developmental skills they can acquire. Furthermore, soft skills are developed by volunteers, which are defined as 'Personal attributes that enable someone to interact effectively and harmoniously with people' (Lim, n.d.). All the while, the beneficiary benefits from the volunteering work.

However it should be noted that, third-party volunteering does not always create the positive impact initially wished for. These situations can occur when third parties mandate its volunteering pool to participate in the volunteering practices whether they are willing to or not. Mandatory volunteering[3] indicates that either it has been made explicitly clear to the volunteer that they are required to volunteer, or volunteers are pressured into volunteering through mandated normative pressures (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). In these cases, third-party volunteering takes away the altruistic idea of volunteering, causing negative consequences for both volunteers and beneficiaries (Cnaan et al., 1996). In this study, such contexts, where volunteers are mandated to participate in volunteering practices, are explored. An essential aspect of this research is that hypothesized negative consequences arise due to mandatory volunteering or mandated normative pressure to volunteer, which is argued to be present in at least some third-party volunteering projects. Next to explicit mandatory volunteering, this study will adopt the idea of Hustinx and Meijs (2011) regarding mandated normative pressures. The willingness of volunteers to participate is targeted by normative re-embedding strategies that aim to increase pressure to participate and, therefore, indirectly increase readiness to volunteer. This normative pressure can express itself through regular pressure and become obligatory participation. Moreover, normative pressure is usually set in a societal context where people who volunteer are perceived as 'good' and 'decent' people. Hence, those who do not volunteer can feel criticized by their direct community (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Some of these negative consequences have been briefly brushed upon by previous research.

[3] 'Mandatory' volunteering refers to the definition of both the literal meaning and the 'normative pressure' definition.

For example, Eby (1998) and Haski-Leventhal et al. (2010) emphasize the importance of volunteer qualifications. When performing sensitive tasks and aiding vulnerable beneficiaries, much can go wrong for both the volunteer and the beneficiary when the volunteer is not readily prepared.

1.1 Research objective and research question

By observing the above-mentioned academic literature, it becomes apparent that due to a rise of mandatory third-party volunteering, possible negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries can arise. Therefore, this study aims to address this issue by answering the following research question:

What are the negative consequences that arise from mandated third-party volunteering for the volunteers and beneficiaries?

Through a literature review, this study's primary objective is to explore the relationship between two stakeholders: (1) volunteers and (2) beneficiaries. As these stakeholders are expected to be directly affected by third-party volunteering.

Firstly, the volunteer will be sent to volunteer, not from an altruistic perspective, but rather on a mandated mission. As mentioned in earlier research (e.g., Yusof et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2016; Bolino and Turnley, 2005), one's mental health can be negatively influenced when forced to do something. Volunteers can, for example, be forced to participate, which will contribute to their stress levels due to extra work. Secondly, the beneficiaries are directly affected by the work of the volunteers. When volunteers are not motivated or wholly focused on their volunteering task due to the mandatory nature, the beneficiaries suffer the immediate consequences. Thus, the ramifications of third-party compulsory volunteering are felt deeply by these two stakeholder groups. However, in this context of third-party volunteering, a third stakeholder party can be identified, the home organization. The home organization is where the volunteers are sent from, thus referring to one of the third parties. However, important to note in this research, that the main focus is on the volunteers and their effect on the beneficiary. Hence, the 'middle man' is extracted from this study. Due to their power position over the other two stakeholders, the middle party is in the position to address negative consequences that may arise, directly. This is in contract to the first two stakeholders.

Therefore, this stakeholder is not considered in the actual analysis aside from mandating their volunteering pool to volunteer.

Furthermore, due to the scope of this research, only the direct stakeholders are taken into account as there are multiple indirect stakeholders who, in turn, can also be affected. Examples include paid employees in the workplace of the volunteers, as well as non-profit organizations in general.

1.2 Practical relevance

The purpose of this study is to review the existing academic literature on third-party volunteering, synthesize previous research, assess the main findings, and thereby shedding light on future research avenues. While there are multiple, in-depth literature reviews on the three parties in third-party volunteering and its positive impacts (Haski-Leventhal, 2011; Kampen et al., 2019a; Wold and Schilling, 2013; Caliguiri et al., 2013), there are no comparable reviews on the negative consequences. Moreover, present research addressing the negative side is scattered. For instance, Zhang and colleagues (2020) focus on only some parts of the negative consequences, such as the work-family conflict for employees, while Kampen (2020) and de Waele et al. (2015) focus on the multiple - sometimes conflicting - views on workfare volunteering. Aside from these findings, current academic literature lacks a comprehensive study that looks at the negative consequences for both beneficiaries and volunteers of all third-party volunteering projects in depth. Therefore an extensive literature review is conducted on the negative consequences of third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. The overview of negative consequences provided in this study is a necessary addition to the already existing third-party volunteering literature. For the reason that it offers critical practical implications, whereby those negative consequences may be remedied. This merits attention, as third-party volunteering is on the rise.

Overall, this study has two predominant aims. Firstly, this study assesses the negative sides of third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. Secondly, it aims to evaluate whether or not involuntary volunteering initiated by those third parties - potentially indicating a lack of willingness - plays a role in the development of the aforementioned negative consequences.

It should be stressed that the volunteers and beneficiaries are the most affected stakeholders in this type of volunteering. When aware of the negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries, the third parties can take the dark side into account and, in turn, adapt their practices to prevent said negative repercussions. Furthermore, the study contributes to the

understanding that when a volunteer is mandated to participate, the volunteer and beneficiary suffer.

1.3 Study structure

To address the identified gap in the literature, the subsequent structure of this study is as follows; chapter 2 further explores and elaborates on the concepts of mandatory volunteering and the role of normative pressures in third-party volunteering. In order to provide a clear overview, chapter 2 is divided into the following three topics: (1) volunteering, (2) mandatory volunteering, and (3) third-party volunteering. Third-party volunteering is then, in turn, divided into the three third-party categories, (1) corporate volunteering, (2) service learning, and (3) workfare volunteering. These subcategories are then thoroughly discussed. This chapter is then followed by chapter 3, methods development, which discusses the collection, analysis, and characteristics of the data used in this literature review. Next, chapter 4 demonstrates the findings of the analyzed data. Lastly, chapter 5 provides a conclusion and discussion on these findings and includes practical implications, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

2 'Volunteering' in a third-party volunteering context

2.1 Volunteering

Figure 1 below, developed by Cnaan et al. (1996), depicts the four dimensions and accompanying categories of the definition of a volunteer.

Dimension	Categories
Free choice	1. Free will (the ability to voluntarily choose) 2. Relatively uncoerced 3. Obligation to volunteer
Remuneration	1. None at all 2. None expected 3. Expenses reimbursed 4. Stipend/low pay
Structure	1. Formal 2. Informal
Intended beneficiaries	1. Benefit/help others/strangers 2. Benefit/help friend or relatives 3. Benefit oneself (as well)

Figure 1. The definitional dimensions of a volunteer (Cnaan et al., 1996, p.371)

The definition provided by Cnaan et al. (1996), is not simplistic as each category is assumed to be part of a continuum. When identified in the first category of each dimension, the 'pure' definition of volunteering applies. A pure definition of volunteering, as stated by Jenner (1982), is as follows; 'a person who, out of free will and without wages, works for a not-for-profit organization which is formally organized and has as its purpose service to someone or something other than its membership' (p.30). Consequently, the higher you score in each dimension, the broader the definition, the less charitable the act of volunteering. This implies that the further down the volunteering practice falls in each categorical continuum - for example, receiving remuneration for your volunteering - the less likely it is considered altruistic volunteering (Chadha, 2021).

The above-mentioned research indicates that volunteering is a complex concept, and the definition depends upon perspective. According to Kampen et al. (2019a), the meaning of volunteering is context-dependent. The Anglo-Saxon meaning of the word is that volunteering is, in fact, unpaid labor (Kampen et al., 2019a). Therefore, the willingness to participate is

disregarded, and volunteering can be obligatory. The northern European perspective, which includes the Netherlands, defines volunteering as active participation within the community (Dekker, 2002). It should be noted that this active participation does not mention the willingness of the volunteer to help. Therefore, involuntary volunteering can be assumed to be volunteering.

This shift between voluntary and involuntary volunteering has been triggered by the change in the meaning of volunteering (Cnaan et al., 1996). First, volunteering was defined by free will, but now it can be considered to be more mandatory without the factor of free will present. Current policy and practices treat corporate volunteering, service learning, and workfare volunteering as 'volunteering' (e.g., Do Paço and Cláudia Nave, 2013; Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Kampen et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2020). This paper will follow the volunteering definition of Cnaan et al. (1996) even though it partly contests, especially the free will dimension of the description, mandatory volunteering (Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

2.2 Mandatory volunteering

Mandatory volunteering entails an obligation to volunteer. Thus, when looking at the dimension "Free choice" of Cnaan et al. (1996) in Figure 1, it falls in category 3: Obligation to volunteer. In this type of volunteering, the volunteer is not given a choice but is instead obliged to participate. Regarding this study, the distinction between voluntary and involuntary volunteering is significant as the increase of normative pressures to volunteer and mandatory volunteering is a big part of third-party volunteering. According to Hao et al. (2018, p.1032), the sense of choice is significant to the intrinsic motivation of the volunteer to the task enjoyment, meeting challenges, accomplishment feeling, positive recognition, and satisfaction. When the volunteer participates from the point of interest, happiness is more likely to arise (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2016). Therefore, in similar cases, the core principle of volunteerism, free will, is removed. This implies that the extent to which volunteering can be relied upon is limited (Tonurist and Surva, 2017). However, the discussion of whether it can be considered volunteering is incited by: (1) the lack of free choice and (2) volunteering done during paid hours (Meijs and Haski, 2010). Consequently, the mandatory aspect of volunteering is hypothesized to be a significant factor in the negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries (Kampen et al., 2019a; Handy et al., 2000).

2.2.1 Normative pressures

Next to explicit mandatory volunteering, this study adopts the idea of Hustinx and Meijs (2011) about mandated normative pressures. The willingness of volunteers to participate is

targeted by normative re-embedding strategies that aim to increase pressure to participate and, accordingly, indirectly increase readiness. This normative pressure can express itself through merely pressure but can also become obligatory participation. Normative pressure is defined as pressures arising from expectations, values and norms, and standards within the immediate environment. Additionally, corresponding pressures compel individuals to conform to group pressure out of a need for approval and acceptance (Abdulaziz, 2017; Mcleod, 2008).

Normative pressure in the volunteering environment is usually set in a societal context where people who volunteer are perceived as 'good' and 'decent' people. Thus, those who do not volunteer can feel criticized by their direct community who do volunteer (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Furthermore, Tonurist and Surva (2017) argue that volunteers face pressures to volunteer when not or rarely participating will affect their position in the corporation or educational institution. Additionally, volunteers can be pressured to volunteer through 'inclusive substitution,' which illustrates that 'people can be coerced to volunteer because it gives them access to other services or desired outcomes' (Tonurist and Surva, 2017, p.231). For instance, regarding workfare volunteering, citizens who do not volunteer run the risk of losing their welfare benefits.

To exemplify, when considering corporations, employees are not obliged to volunteer, normative pressures of supervisors and coworkers can make employees feel frowned upon if they do not participate (Clary et al., 1998). Additionally, they might feel their superiors will negatively perceive them if they do not participate or experience fear of exclusion and not being part of the group (Booth et al., 2009). In service learning, even if not explicitly mentioned, many programs and courses expect the students to volunteer (Grönlund, 2011). Furthermore, students who volunteer are usually beneficially looked upon by universities, so pressure arises on the student to volunteer for their own sake (Handy et al., 2009). Finally, in the case of workfare volunteering, when volunteering is not obliged by the government, the citizen is expected to volunteer to contribute to society and give back their welfare benefits 'for free' (Kampen and Tonkens, 2018). Next, it will be established for each third party what is assumed to be normative pressures experienced by the volunteer.

Corporate Volunteering

Normative pressures are experienced by employees in the following situations. First of all, even though participating is not obligatory, they are frowned upon by their coworkers if they do not join who do spend their time on it. Second of all, employees feel left out of the

group dynamics when they are one of the few not to participate while everyone else does. This could be, for example, in the case of team-building exercises (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Last of all, employees can feel criticized and negatively perceived by their superiors if they do not volunteer (Clary et al., 1998).

Service Learning

Mandated normative pressure to volunteer is present for students in the following ways: first of all, high school students feel pressure to volunteer as they believe it will enlarge their opportunities to be admitted to prestigious universities (Holdsworth, 2010). Similarly, university students think it will be expected of them to have volunteered by future employers (Handy et al., 2009). Second of all, students can feel pressure from their peers who volunteer and, comparable to employee volunteering, fear the feeling of being left out (Hustinx and Meijs, 2011). Finally, students' mandated normative force can be experienced when they take part in an elective that does not explicitly state in its course description the necessity to participate in service learning. However, it is expected of the student anyway to be able to participate in the course entirely.

Workfare Volunteering

Workfare volunteering, in the case of no obligation, is seen as mandated normative pressure. The citizens are expected to give back to the community that provides them with their benefits (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

2.3 Third-party volunteering

2.3.1 Definition

This study follows the concept of third-party volunteering as defined by Haski-Leventhal, Meijs, and Hustinx (2010). Their definition refers to the involvement of the identified third parties (e.g., governments, corporations, and educational institutes) in the encouragement of volunteering. Third-party volunteering emerged from the idea that volunteering is an action to be promoted, as discussed in the introduction of this study. The idea that only non-governmental and volunteer organizations carry this responsibility has faded away. Instead, these third parties facilitate the increase of volunteering through mandatory volunteering or mandated normative pressures. In doing so, these parties are also able to use these volunteering initiatives such as corporate volunteering, workfare volunteering, and service learning to their advantage (Gautier and Pache, 2015; Kampen et al., 2019a; Samuel et al., 2013; Vogelgesang and Astin, 2000).

In third-party volunteering, the home-host organization concept is critical to understand as the third parties function as the home organization. This study utilizes Salamon and Anheier's (1996) definition of this phenomenon. The home organization is the place from which the volunteers are recruited. In contrast to the host organization, which implies where these volunteers are positioned to participate in the volunteer work (Brudney et al., 2019). By way of illustration, in the case of corporate volunteering, for example, the home organization is the corporation.

Additionally, educational institutes function as the home organization of students who volunteer at the host organization, which is usually a community-based project. Finally, in the case of workfare volunteering, governments act as the home organization of the citizens receiving welfare benefits. They are then sent to volunteer at various host organizations. As defined above, in third-party volunteering, the volunteer programs are organized by home organizations significantly different from the host organization. Therefore, the guidance and responsibility of the volunteers are shared, rather than unitary, between the home and host organization.

Specifically, Brudney et al. (2019) further explain two models within shared volunteer guidance, intermediary and secondary. For third-party volunteering, the secondary model is used. In the case of such a secondary model, volunteers are recruited from one specific home organization, indicating private access to this pool of volunteers and participate outside of their organization. This host organization then supervises their work, demonstrating shared guidance.

Moreover, research shows that volunteering, initiated by governments, corporations, and educational institutes, produces positive outcomes for volunteers of third-party volunteering programs. For instance, corporations that use their resources to create and stimulate volunteering programs for their employees report significant increases in the general well-being, retention rate, and employees' satisfaction (Plewa et al., 2015). While at the same time, the corporation improves its reputation with its customers. Even recently, in 2021, Shantz and Dempsey-Branch argue that volunteerism enhances workplace skills. When employees can apply their competencies in their volunteer work, the event is experienced as more valuable. Additionally, employees can acquire new skills to help them succeed in their job (Shantz and Dempsey-Brench, 2021).

Similarily, educational institutes that provide their students with the opportunity to participate in service learning show a positive relationship between volunteering and the development of practical and interpersonal skills, citizenship, and student's personal

responsibility (Toncar et al., 2006). Furthermore, students receive practical experience and the opportunity to boost their CVs (Vogelgesang and Astin, 2000; Sherraden et al., 2008). A recent study done by Lim (n.d.) argues that service learning, mandatory or voluntary, teaches the students an equal amount of soft skills and hard skills that are a valuable contribution to the students. Such skills are defined as skills obtained through training or education that are required to complete a job (Lim, n.d.). All the while, communities are receiving the help they need. Governments that oblige the citizens that receive welfare benefits to participate in workfare volunteering provide them with many opportunities. These include, but are not limited to, being active in the community, preparing for work-life, feeling they are helpfully spending their time, and giving these citizens the satisfaction of giving back (Kampen et al., 2019a). Meanwhile, these citizens serve the broader community.

Finally, third-party volunteering programs are often episodic. Episodic volunteering indicates that the volunteers 'engage in one-time or short-term volunteer opportunities' (Cnaan et al., 2021).

2.3.2 Mandatory third-party volunteering

However, as already mentioned, when there is a mandatory aspect present, third-party volunteering takes away the altruistic idea of volunteering and, in some cases, can cause negative consequences for both the volunteer and beneficiaries (Cnaan et al., 1996).

For instance, in the case of corporations, employees may be obliged to participate in volunteering initiatives (Zhang et al., 2020; Caligiuri et al., 2013; Stukas et al., 1999). Organizations can then use these initiatives to improve their reputation, taking away the altruistic idea of volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Caliguiri et al., 2013; Kampen et al., 2019a). Another example is the Dutch government, which obliges its citizens who use welfare benefits to volunteer. In this case, the volunteer's willingness needs to be considered (Kampen et al., 2019a. Waele and Hustinx, 2018; Stukas et al., 1999). A distinction can be made between voluntary volunteering versus involuntary volunteering. In service learning, educational institutes often send their students on volunteer projects with different motives, usually directed at improving the students rather than the beneficiaries (Eby, 1998). Consequently, negative consequences can arise for both students and beneficiaries. Within service learning, many students are sent to work in at-risk communities without the proper skills and training and risk bringing more harm to those they are supposed to help (Eby, 1998; Gomez and Fernandez, 2017). Additionally, such initiatives may increase the social gap between

the more fortunate and the beneficiaries (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010; Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

Lastly, Meijs and Haski (2010) state that with mandatory third-party volunteering, the following criticism may arise; can it really be considered volunteering when governments oblige their citizens to volunteer, essentially ignoring the free will element of volunteering (Cnaan et al., 1996; Handy et al., 2000).

To summarize, volunteering has four dimensions with multiple categories. These categories define the extent to which a volunteering practice is assumed to be actual volunteering (Cnaan et al., 1996). Mandatory volunteering falls into the third category, 'obligation to volunteer,' of the dimension 'free choice,' indicating the absence of a charitable aspect of volunteering. In the cases of third-party volunteering, where a mandatory element is present, either explicitly or through normative pressures, negative consequences may arise as such type of volunteering might not even be considered volunteering.

3 Methods

Due to the nature of the proposed research question, '*What are the negative consequences that arise from mandated third-party volunteering for the volunteers and beneficiaries?',* the research strategy of a literature review was adopted. This was the most appropriate method as it 'identifies, selects, and critically appraises research in order to answer the clearly formulated question' (Dewey and Drahota, 2016). The multiple steps of the review are highlighted in this chapter to present the extensive search of academic and grey literature throughout various databases. In doing so, consistency was established as researchers will be able to replicate and reproduce this research. The selection of articles is included in this chapter, as well as data collection and analysis.

3.1 Data collection

To define the boundaries of this research, the search for data was bound to the identified third parties, governments, corporations, and educational institutes. In doing so, the study was limited to literature on management, public policy, and education. However, due to the limited academic research done on this topic, grey literature was also included. Thus, next to academic publications such as peer-reviewed journals and scholarly books, the literature review also included, amongst others, research reports, government documents, preprint articles, practitioner-oriented or general publications.

To gather the literature, articles were searched in the Scopus and Web of Science databases, as they are most often used in literature reviews (UOW Library, n.d.). Considering that both databases are multi-disciplinary, they provided ample peer-reviewed literature with recent research as the databases are updated regularly. A short description of both databases is presented in Table 1.

Database	Description
Scopus	**Scopus** is the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature: scientific journals, books and conference proceedings. Delivering a comprehensive overview of the world's research output in the fields of science, technology, medicine, social sciences, and arts and humanities, Scopus features smart tools to track, analyze and visualize research. Over 21.500 peer-reviewed journals are covered, but also book series and conference proceedings.
Web of Science	**Web of Science** is a research platform that gives access to content and tools to search, track, measure and collaborate in the sciences, social sciences, arts, and humanities. WoS offers bibliographical access to scholarly literature in the sciences, social sciences, arts, and humanities. Over 10.000 journals are covered.

Table 1: Database descriptions (Erasmus University Library, n.d.)

The result of this search were papers written or otherwise translated into English. This is because the mentioned databases are owned by North American and Western European academic publishers. Thus, selection bias is present to some degree. However, the selection bias is outweighed by the fact that these databases 'publish the most read and respected academic outlets worldwide' (Gautier and Pache, 2015).

3.1.1 Search keywords

The search keywords, as seen in the Tables 2 to 5 below, are divided into four categories. Third-party volunteering in general and keywords for all three third parties separately.

	Database	Search Terms	Results
20/3/2021	Scopus	'Third-party volunteering'	14
		'Involuntary volunteering'	4
			18
	Web of Science	'Third-party volunteering'	106
		'Involuntary volunteering'	1
			107
Total after selection	Scopus and Web of Science		**8**

Table 2: Findings for search keywords third-party volunteering

	Database	Search Terms	Results
20/3/2021	Scopus	'Mandated corporate volunteering'	190
		'Pressured employee volunteering'	277
		'Corporate community involvement'	572
			1039
	Web of Science	'Mandated corporate volunteering'	366
		'Pressured employee volunteering'	54
		'Corporate community involvement'	450
			870
Total after selection	Scopus and Web of Science		**29**

Table 3: Findings for search keywords corporate volunteering

	Database	Search Terms	Results
20/3/2021	Scopus	'Mandatory service learning'	29
		'Mandatory student volunteering'	11
		'Student community service'	127
			167
	Web of Science	'Mandatory service learning'	16
		'Mandatory student volunteering'	32
		'Student community service'	17
			65
Total after selection	Scopus and Web of Science		**29**

Table 4: Findings for search keywords service learning

	Database	Search Terms	Results
20/3/2021	Scopus	'Workfare volunteering'	7
		'Welfare benefit volunteering'	56
			63
	Web of Science	'Workfare volunteering'	12
		'Welfare benefit volunteering'	11
			23
Total after selection	Scopus and Web of Science		**13**

Table 5: Findings for search keywords workfare volunteering

If abovementioned keywords were mentioned in the title, keywords or abstract of the article, it was considered for the review.

After the articles were collected, they went through a selection process:

1. Duplicate papers were removed from the sample.
2. The abstract and findings were thoroughly read to decide which papers were appropriate for this research and which were not.
3. The papers were then assessed based on multiple inclusion and exclusion criteria depending upon the principles of the review.

3.1.2 Assessment

Firstly, the literature was assessed on whether they covered third-party volunteering as a whole or one of its specific forms. Second, whether the abstract mentioned any negative sides of this type of volunteering to the beneficiary, volunteer, or both. Third, papers were evaluated on the following;

Corporate Volunteering

Regarding the literature on corporate volunteering, all literature on mandatory employee volunteering in corporations was included. Such articles were selected based on whether an employee volunteering program was implemented and if, in that case, all employees were obliged to participate in that program. Additionally, when volunteering happened in one of the mandated normative pressure environments, as mentioned in section 2.1, it was included. Immediately excluded from the sample were all voluntary, optional volunteering projects for employees. Additionally, when there are no negative consequences for the volunteer or beneficiary due to the normative pressure to participate, the literature was omitted.

Service Learning

For service learning, literature on mandatory student volunteering, community service learning, and community-based projects was included. Additionally, when volunteering happened in one of the mandated normative pressure environments mentioned in Chapter 2, it was included. Immediately excluded from the sample was literature that covered service learning in which the student has been made explicitly clear there was volunteering involved. Therefore, a clear choice was present for the student to participate in the course, excluding mandated normative pressure.

Workfare Volunteering

Literature that explicitly mentions countries that oblige its citizens that receive welfare benefits to participate in volunteering activities was included. Such countries include, but are not limited to Australia, Germany, the United States, and the Netherlands. Additionally, literature on workfare volunteering that the government does not oblige but heavily expects of those who receive their benefits were added to the dataset. Immediately excluded is optional or voluntary volunteering.

3.1.3 Resulting literature

To illustrate the process, Figure 2. *Prisma flow diagram of selected articles* is used. The keywords as mentioned above in Tables 2-5 resulted in a literature sample of 2357 articles, including duplicates, and is shown in the results column. After the extensive selection process described above, a number of 79 remained. Thus, the selection procedure excluded over 95% of all the found literature, causing less than 5% to prevail. This is due to the clear and absolute selection criteria. This study aims to research the context of mandatory volunteering specifically. Consequently, only articles that are without a doubt about this environment are included. Many of the initial articles were about optional volunteering programs as well as the positive consequences of volunteering. Thus, many papers were omitted immediately. In addition, when mandatory volunteering was mentioned, however, no negative consequences were mentioned at face value, the papers were dropped as well. In this dataset, only papers were included that unquestionably covered a form of the identified third-party mandatory volunteering *and* provided negative consequences for that form of volunteering. Furthermore, articles written from the home and/or host organization perspectives were also excluded as the focus lies solemnly on the volunteers and beneficiaries. By reading through the found literature, more new literature was discovered through references which were then also assessed the same way. If appropriate to this literature review, the papers were then added to the literature sample. By including all the relevant referenced literature, data saturation was reached. This process led to the addition of 29 papers illustrated in the extra literature dataset. This brings the total papers to 108 in the final dataset column.

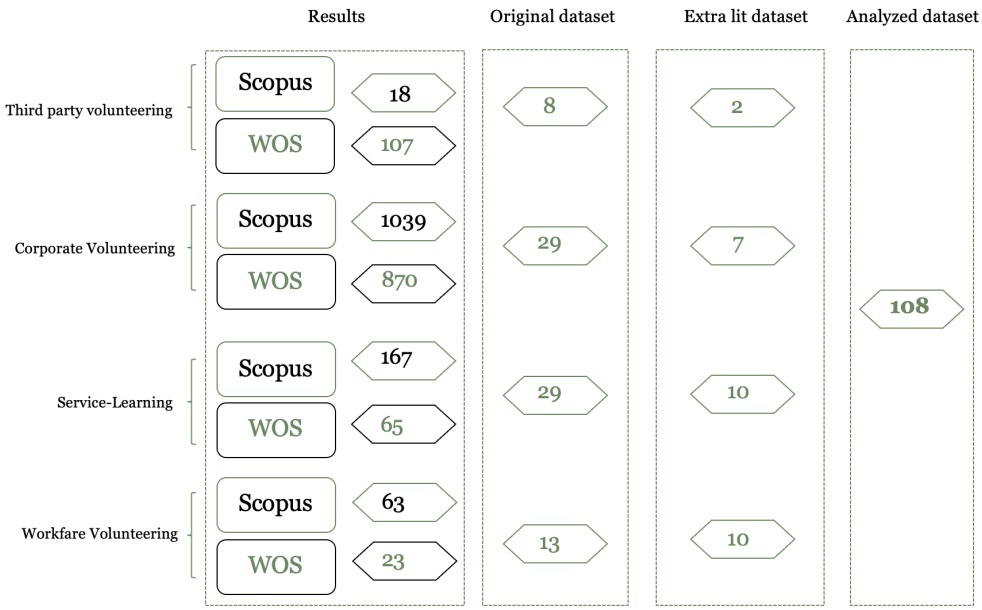

Figure 2. Prisma flow diagram of selected literature.

The following information was detected in the dataset. By far, most information was found on service learning and corporate volunteering. This is on account of the scattered data on these topics across many years. Contrasting this is literature on workfare and third-party volunteering, which was observed to be more recent. Thus, less research is done so far at this moment. Especially workfare volunteering amongst the three third-party volunteering initiatives seems to be lacking in academic literature. It is assumed to be due to the relatively new nature of workfare volunteering, as a mandatory installment by governments. Consequently, most research on this topic originates only from this last decade (Van der Veen et al., 2012).

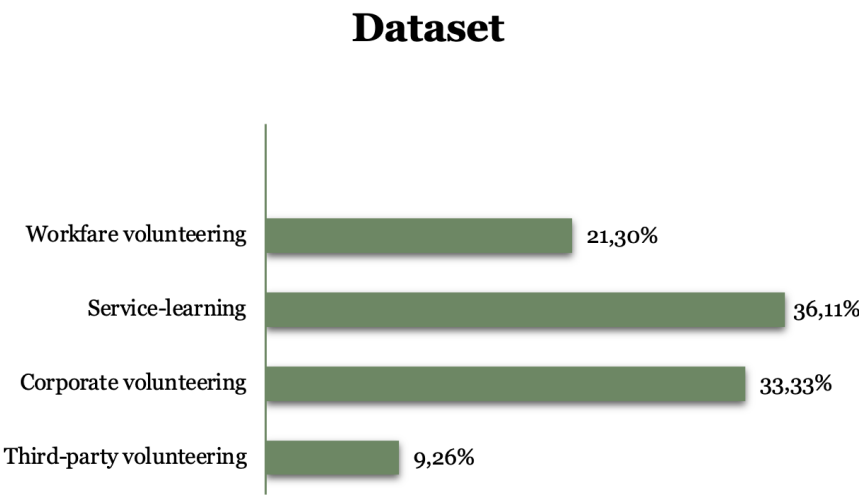

Figure 3. The proportion of literature found.

3.2 Data analysis

3.2.1 Quantitative coding

The articles in the dataset were coded into a predefined coding scheme;

- **Journal**

  To gain insight on which journals covered the topic of mandatory and third-party volunteering and, in turn, provided the most relevant information to this study.

- **Field**

  To gain insight on which field the study applies to and which areas are interested in this topic.

- **Research Country/Continent**

  To gain insight on which different countries or parts of the world the focus of this study is related to.

- **Country of Affiliation author**

  To gain insight into where the topic has been a focus and interest of research and specifically interested in the study.

- **Publication Year**

  To gain insight into the history and trend of the research related to third-party volunteering.

- **Research Method**

  To gain insight on the research methods used for the topic of third-party volunteering.

Through the use of quantitative coding, a brief presentation is formed of the dataset, which is analyzed next.

The first observation during the coding process was that the journals with the most entries are western originated, English journals. Thus, an overwhelming amount of articles were acquired through those. As aforementioned, this is due to the selection of databases.

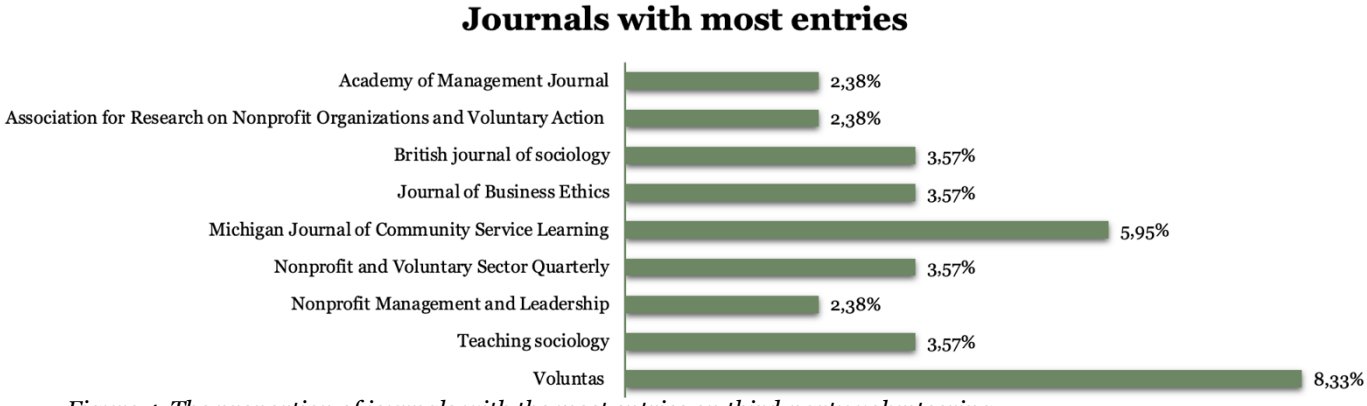

Figure 4. The proportion of journals with the most entries on third-party volunteering

Second, the topic of volunteering is primarily studied in the field of social science. However, it can be observed that most of the workfare volunteering literature originates from the field of public policy. This can be accounted by that research on this topic from a public policy perspective is relatively new simultaneous to the emergence of workfare volunteering. Furthermore, the literature on corporate volunteering is mainly studied in Business,

Management, and Accounting. In view of the increased public scrutiny and conformations that companies have to adapt to, research on this topic is of much interest.

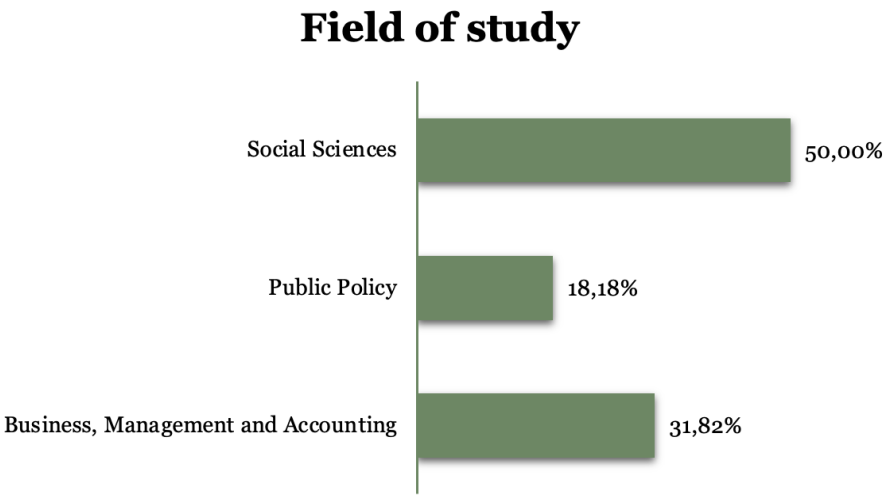

Figure 5. The proportion of the field of study in which the literature is researched.

The research country or area and country of affiliation are overwhelmingly American. Over 45% of the literature is researched (partly) by an American researcher and is written based upon studies in the United States. Furthermore, a large part of the sample originates from Europe, especially the Netherlands. Although a large part of the literature also comes from North and East Asia sources, and a rather international sample is collected, there is still opportunity in exploring the other parts of the world not represented such as Africa and South-America, where the field of the study still has room to develop and expand.

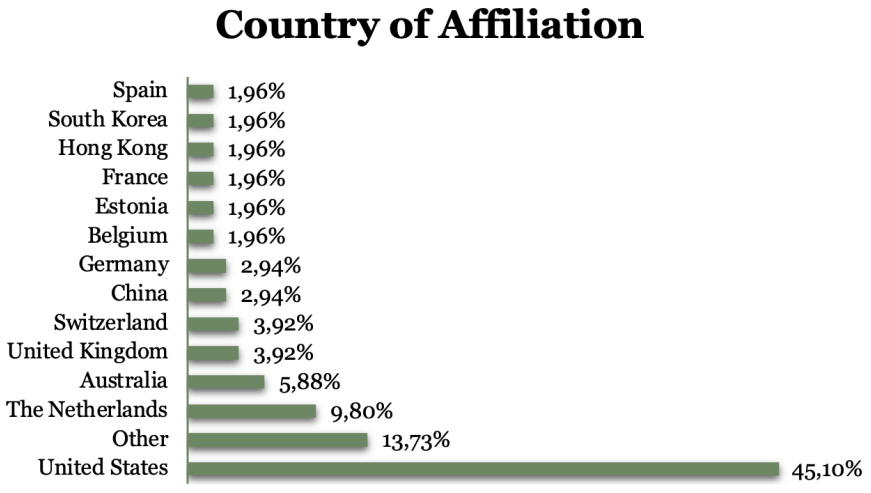

Figure 6. The proportion of the country of affiliation of the researchers of each study.

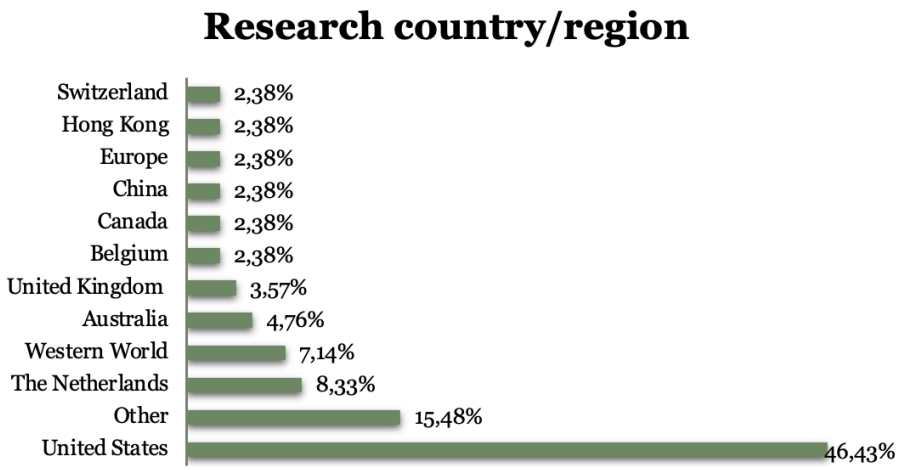

Figure 7. The proportion of the research country and regions of the data sample.

Looking at the publication dates, this goes hand in hand with the percentage of literature found on each third party. Third-party volunteering is relatively new, so is workfare volunteering. Therefore, most literature on those topics originates from after the year 2010. The majority of the literature found was on service learning, and accordingly, literature on this subject goes years back from the late 1990s. With most literature originating from 2005 and upwards, corporate volunteering is still a very recent subject, with the most recent literature published in 2021.

Finally, when examining the research method of the found literature, the majority is of qualitative origin. Hence, it can be assumed that this literature review fits the majority of literature on the topic.

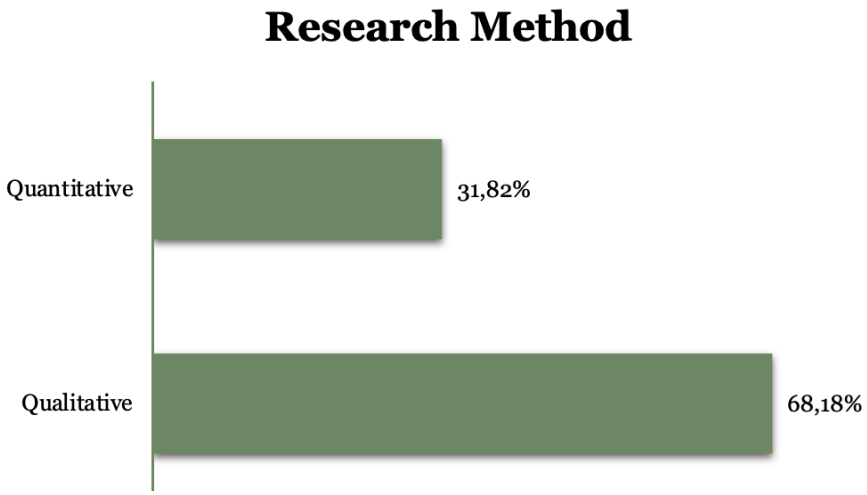

Figure 8. The proportion of the research methods on third-party volunteering literature

3.2.2 Qualitative coding

After quantitative coding, the literature was qualitatively coded. This qualitative coding was based on the key relevant themes under which the content of the papers could be categorized. The qualitative coding process went as followed;

For all found literature, the paper was reviewed based on all the mentioned negative consequences for volunteers and/or beneficiaries, which were then coded.

Therefore, the findings are categorized by an impact on (1) volunteers and (2) beneficiaries. This categorization is applied to separate the effect of mandated third-party volunteering on both stakeholders. Consequently, the negative consequences of mandated third-party volunteering for each party are highlighted through the use of themes and subthemes. This process, for each article in the dataset, can be found in Appendix A.

Looking at the coding process of the volunteers, in Figure 9, many first order codes found in the articles were classified into themes as can be seen in the first part of the coding tree. Then, these themes were applied to third-party volunteering in general or to a specific volunteering context. As different consequences arise for each third-party, the coding tree shows the distinct volunteering environments in the second part of the coding tree. Finally, three key themes were identified as negative consequences for volunteers of mandated third-party volunteering. Considering the coding process of the beneficiaries, as seen in Figure 10, a similar process was followed. A distinct difference was however, that there are no sub themes found related to a specific third-party context. Rather the negative consequences for a mandated third-party volunteering environment were identified. Thus, the second part of the coding tree shows the sub themes for the overall key theme identified that is shown in the third part of the coding tree.

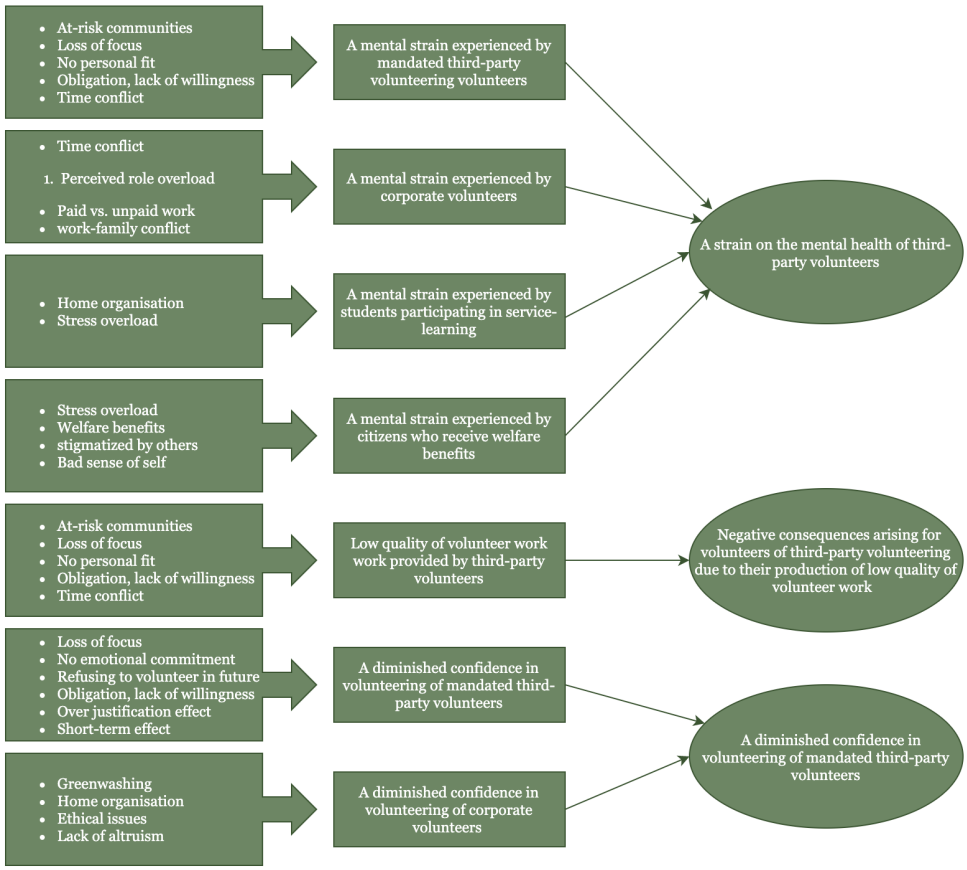

Figure 9: Coding tree for the negative consequences experienced by a mandated third-party volunteer

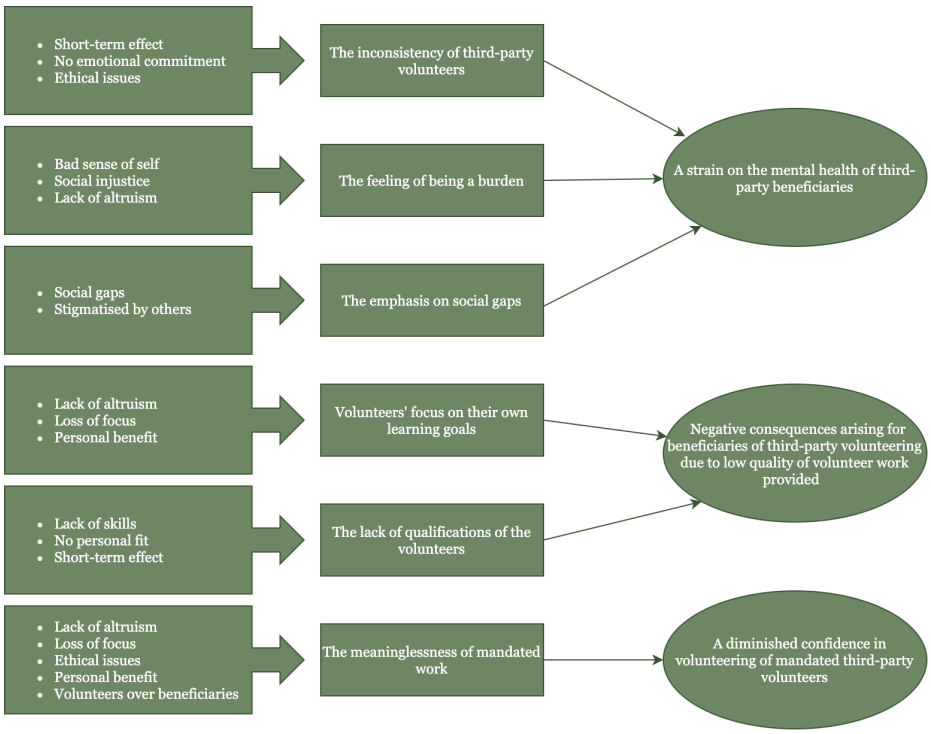

Figure 10: Coding tree for the negative consequences experienced by a beneficiary of mandated third-party volunteering

The above coding trees have led to the development of the following themes;

- The strain on mental health
- Low quality of volunteering work
- Diminished confidence in volunteering

An overview of these key themes can be found in Table 6 in the next chapter. Afterwards, a comprehensive overview of the findings is discussed relating to the negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries, brought about by mandated third-party volunteering.

4 Findings

In the research, three key themes are identified that have created negative consequences for volunteers or beneficiaries due to mandatory volunteering. Multiple sections make up the themes that refer to one or more of the third-party volunteering initiatives and show how these stakeholders are negatively impacted. Due to the lack of willingness, the beneficiary can suffer from the work by the volunteer. Still, the volunteers themselves also have to deal with the repercussions of volunteering when they feel pressured to participate. In the following sections, each key theme is discussed in-depth, including leading causes for each context. First, the general reasons are provided, which apply to all three third-party volunteering contexts. Then, a deeper understanding of each third party is provided, if applicable. Finally, this is followed by the negative consequences for beneficiaries. Table 6 below shows the findings per theme for the volunteer and beneficiary.

	The strain on mental health	*Low quality of volunteering*	*Diminished confidence in volunteering*
Negative consequences for volunteer	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Mental strain due to the upsetting volunteering environments - Mental strain due to repetitious and dull tasks. - Mental strain due to pressure of being a 'good' citizen *Negative consequence of corporate Volunteering* - Mental strain due to perceived job overload *Negative consequence of service learning* - Mental strain due to high expectations of environment *Negative consequence of workfare volunteering* - Mental strain due to the threat of losing the welfare benefits - Mental strain due to feeling of inferiority	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Low quality of work due to mandated short-term programs - Low quality of work due to lack of resources - Low quality of work due to lack of time - Low quality of work due to poor fit partnerships	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Diminished confidence in volunteering due to inadequate effectiveness of the volunteering for the beneficiaries - Due to the diminished confidence in volunteering volunteers and beneficiaries are less likely to volunteer in future - Due to the obligation factor, volunteers experience a diminished confidence in volunteering *Negative consequence of corporate volunteering* - Lack of faith in the motives of the home organization triggers skepticism for volunteering
Negative consequences for beneficiary	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Mental strain due to the inconsistency of volunteers - Mental strain due to the feeling of being a burden - Mental strain due to the emphasis on social gaps	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Low quality of work due to the volunteers' focus on their own learning goals - Low quality of work due to the lack of qualifications	*Negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering* - Diminished confidence in volunteering due to the meaninglessness of mandated work

Table 6: The negative consequences and its causes for volunteers and beneficiaries of mandated third-party volunteering.

Volunteers

The findings chapter is structured as follows; first, the negative consequences for the volunteers are explained through the use of the themes and subthemes. Then, after discussing the impacts of mandated/pressured third-party volunteering on volunteers, the chapter will elaborate on said consequences for beneficiaries.

4.1 The strain on mental health

The first identified key theme is the strain on mental health. This mental strain on volunteers is due to three identified causes; (1) upsetting volunteering environments, (2) repetitious and dull tasks, and (3) the pressure of being a 'good' citizen. Additionally, in the context of corporate volunteering, this mental strain for volunteers results from perceived job overload. In service learning it is specifically caused by high expectations of the environment. Finally, in the workfare volunteering environment, volunteers experience a mental strain due to the threat of losing the welfare benefits and feeling of inferiority.

4.1.1 Mental strain due to upsetting volunteering environments

There are situations in which volunteers, regardless of it being corporate volunteering, workfare volunteering, or service learning, may experience a strain on their mental health. This mental strain can be due to the volunteer environments they are placed in (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Tyron et al., 2008). Many volunteer environments are in at-risk communities and sensitive climates with 'issues related to poverty, race, mental health, substance abuse or homelessness' (Blouin and Perry, 2009, p.127; Edwards et al., 2001; Roschelle et al., 2000). Being confronted with aforesaid situations can be very confrontational and can cause emotional distress (Tyron et al., 2008). Furthermore, the volunteer can experience feelings of guilt and shame for leading the life they have. This can be amplified in the service learning context, especially as adolescents are more sensitive to such situations. Working in such environments and dealing with heavy topics can harm the students' mental health (Eby, 1998). Similar situations may arise for welfare benefit citizens who often are a vulnerable target group themselves (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

Moreover, many students do not have much experience with people from different social classes and community problems. Often they are not made aware of these cross-cultural differences beforehand, and thus, confrontations with such social gaps might be experienced as shocking (Eby, 1998; Meijs and Haski, 2010; Wilson, 2000).

4.1.2 The peril of repetitious and dull tasks

Furthermore, volunteers may experience a strain on their mental health due to the often repetitious and dull nature of the volunteering tasks (Caligiuri et al., 2013). Such situations can make the volunteers feel useless as the duties lack the opportunity for the volunteer to develop. Furthermore, being stuck doing monotonous tasks can make the volunteer feel extremely unhappy and dispirited, contributing to mental health issues (Häusser et al., 2014; Caligiuri et al., 2013).

4.1.3 The pressure to be a 'good' citizen

The expectation to actively participate in the volunteering activities often puts a mental strain on the volunteer. They do not always have the time and capacity to fulfill the expectation (Ze Zhang et al., 2020; Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Sundeen et al., 2007). If the volunteer is not able to participate – for example, due to the lack of time, resources, other obligations – one can feel pressured to volunteer anyway as they feel labeled as a 'bad' citizen if they do not. Again, this can result from the normative pressures from their environment, indicating both the home organization and their colleagues, students, or citizens (Tonurist and Silva, 2017; Brudney et al., 2019).

4.1.4 Perceived role overload – Corporate volunteering

Bolino and Turnley (2005, p.741) define perceived role overload as 'situations in which the individuals feel that there are too many responsibilities or activities expected of them in light of the time available, abilities, and other constraints.' In corporate volunteering, many employees feel they have to adopt an extra task in their job description and thus, experience an overload in their job. Employees who are required to fulfill their civic-member role next to their organizational-member role, for example, experience their job as significantly more stressful (Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Glavas, 2016). The corporate volunteering climate puts pressure on the employees to spend their time and energy, often scarce resources, not only in their primary tasks but also in extra tasks, in the form of volunteering. This, in turn, causes perceived job overload for the employees (Ze Zhang et al., 2020). This finding is supported by Hu et al. (2016). They claim that citizenship behavior is not always beneficial for job performance as it can affect the mental state of volunteers in the form of less attention and energy.

Furthermore, the expectation of being a 'good' citizen can create an environment of pressure and demands, increasing the job overload perceived by the employees, which, in turn, is not

beneficial for their overall well-being (Derecskei and Nagy, 2020; Rodell, 2013; Ze Zhang et al., 2020). However, according to Wilson and Musick (1999), the effect on the volunteer's mental health is non-linear. This indicates that the volunteer will not experience mental health issues immediately. Instead, after a certain number of hours of volunteering each year, it is experienced as too much. As a result, the volunteer becomes overburdened, experiences a role strain, and reduced subjective well-being.

Moreover, such a strain on the workload of employees triggers another conflict that will affect the general well-being of the employees. Due to the perceived job overload, employees are subject to experience the 'work-family conflict.' This conflict is an additional form of inter-role conflict whereby the employees feel pressure from both the work and the home environment to perform their role. As a result, participation in one position makes it challenging to participate in the other (Cowlishaw et al., 2010; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Ze Zhang et al., 2020)

4.1.5 High expectations - Service learning

In the particular context of service learning, the strain on mental health for volunteers is usually triggered by the high expectation that students are subject to from their educational institutes. Thus, many students in service learning who are mandated to participate or feel pressured either by their fellow students or their educational institutes can experience emotional outbursts due to high expectations of intense cognitive and physical volunteering practices (Yusof et al., 2020). Furthermore, considering the many resources invested in service learning, the volunteer feels pressure to do well regardless of the heavy workload added to the already existing obligations of students (Chan et al., 2020).

4.1.6 The threat of losing the welfare benefits - Workfare volunteering

In the context of workfare volunteering, the mental strain on the volunteers comes from the stress of mandatory participation. In many countries, where workfare volunteering is indeed compulsory, such citizens are confronted with the choice of either participating in volunteering practices or having their welfare benefits taken away from them (Kampen et al., 2019a). Furthermore, being obliged to participate in volunteering programs, which often can add up to 20 hours each week, can become a barrier to finding employment and escaping welfare benefits (Kampen et al., 2019a). This situation in which citizens have to participate for their livelihood not to be denied is usually accompanied by feelings of anxiety and can negatively affect mental well-being (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018). Additionally, many citizens

perceive the mandatory volunteering programs as free labor designed to help others rather than themselves. While being receivers of welfare benefits, they too need help. Consequently, such citizens feel exploited and overlooked and often vulnerable as, instead of receiving support, they are coerced to help others (Warburton and Smith, 2003).

4.1.7 Feelings of inferiority - Workfare volunteering

Additionally, relevant to the context of workfare volunteering, volunteers might experience a mental strain from the perception of being inadequate. Kampen et al. (2019a) studied citizens' experience with workfare volunteering. Many volunteers described the process as humiliating as it labeled them as inferior and stigmatized them as 'undeserving poor.' Furthermore, workfare volunteers often face criticism for being dependent on the state (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019). As citizens are obliged to work for their welfare benefits, they often experience it as humiliating and harassing. They feel it labels them as inferior, which often rubs off on the volunteers (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019; Rodell and Lynch, 2016). Facing such stigmatization triggers bad feelings about oneself and, in turn, affects the mental health of the volunteers.

Moreover, some citizens choose not to work as they, for instance, want to stay home and take care of their children. When the government obliges them to volunteer, they perceive it as a distraction away from their family and feel bad about themselves (Kampen et al., 2019a; Cowlishaw et al., 2010).

In addition, workfare volunteering is often criticized for ignoring the structural causes of inequality it causes (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018). This is interpreted as how citizens who are obliged to volunteer can experience feelings of inferiority as they perceive the workfare volunteering as a tool for them to earn their 'citizenship'. Therefore, they feel they have to work to be worthy of receiving the welfare benefits (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

4.2 Low quality of volunteering work

A second negative consequence of mandatory third-party volunteering is the low quality of the voluntary work done. Four sub-themes related to this negative consequence for volunteers are identified: (1) low quality of work due to mandated short-term programs, (2) the lack of resources, (3) the poor fit of partnerships, and (4) the lack of time.

4.2.1 Mandatory short-term volunteering

When the volunteers are required to volunteer, in some cases, they are not supportive of this obligation for multiple reasons. In that case, the work done can be negatively affected as it is

neglected or overlooked (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Harrington, 2012; Yusof et al., 2020). In the event of mandatory third-party volunteering, the commitment is usually for short-term, episodic projects. In such cases, as is with most short-term projects, the quality of work is not optimal. Rather than staying to volunteer and finish the job, most volunteers fulfill their time requirements and leave. Due to this lack of a prospect, many tasks are dull or lack impact and provide no possibilities for personal development, demotivating volunteers (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Harrington, 2012; Lee, 2010; Rodell et al., 2016; Tonurist and Surva, 2017). For many volunteers, volunteering should be an enjoyable task where one can connect with the beneficiaries and assert his or her's values. So, when the jobs are not attractive to the volunteer, they will not be inclined to successfully fulfill these tasks (Lorenz et al., 2011; Tyron et al., 2008). Furthermore, such jobs do not satisfy the functional demands of the volunteer - for example, personal development or the acquiring of new skills - thus amplifying the discouragement of active participation (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Hu et al., 2016). Consequently, volunteers might experience such volunteering programs as a waste of their time.

4.2.2 Lack of resources

When one is mandated to volunteer, one is not always in the position to participate. They lack the resources, such as time, energy, transportation, or health, to actively volunteer (Sundeen et al., 2007).

Especially in workfare volunteering, many citizens cannot volunteer for the same reasons that prevent them from doing paid work. For example, they lack time to work as they have to take care of children or cannot work due to health issues. These reasons will provide the same problems with volunteering (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019a, b). When these volunteers cannot give their total one hundred percent commitment to their tasks, the quality suffers and directly conflicts with the volunteer's inability to participate or successfully fulfill their tasks. This will be a negative implication for the volunteer, as in the case when the volunteer does not learn from their tasks, their overall job performance suffers (Shantz and Dempsey-Brench, 2021; Hu et al., 2016).

4.2.3 Poor fit partnerships

The volunteer might not get assigned to volunteer work suitable to their level of knowledge, which can be experienced as demotivating and result in a lack of quality (Sundeen et al., 2007; Warburton and Smith, 2003; Wallace, 2000). In such cases, the volunteers suffer as they cannot develop themselves, learn from the experience or acquire new skills. This lack of fit

between knowledge and practice is often frustrating to volunteers (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Sundeen et al., 2007; Wallace, 2000). If one is mandated to volunteer, they expect their skills to be congruent with the volunteering tasks (Sundeen et al., 2007). If this is not the case, rarely mutually beneficial outcomes are produced. Service learners, for instance, often approach organizations wanting to work on specific projects. However, not in all cases, these objectives coincide with the needs of the volunteering projects. In such situations, the volunteer tends to focus on their personal goals rather than what the beneficiaries require (Blouin and Perry, 2009). Another similar case is when students seek to employ their learning objectives in the volunteering environment. They focus on applying their theoretical knowledge in practice and, in doing so, lose focus on the actual beneficiaries they are supposed to help with their work.

Consequently, the service learners are not aware of the people in front of them and what they need (Harrington, 2012; Wallace, 2000;). The service learners will help - to some extent - but might not provide what is wanted and needed. In workfare volunteering, many volunteers might be temporary at home and did have an education and job beforehand. When they are then tasked with jobs not coinciding with their knowledge, this leads to low performance (Kampen et al., 2019a, b). Thus, in some volunteering projects, volunteers are not provided with the opportunity to use their skills and knowledge. The volunteering work does not conform to their motivation, and consequently, much of the work produced is not sufficient (Warburton and Smith, 2003). When insufficient work is provided, the volunteer can, in turn, feel bad about oneself, and trigger key theme 1, a mental health strain.

4.2.4 Lack of time

When volunteers are mandated to volunteer, they are often put in a difficult situation. This is due to the lack of time required for volunteering. The students may be overwhelmed by their school work, the employees with their job tasks, and the citizens searching for paid jobs. Combine that with each individual's situation, and there is no way of knowing one has the appropriate amount of time to participate sufficiently. Accordingly, when being obliged to participate, volunteers run the risk of doing too much work. Consequently, when being too busy with too many tasks, focus on each task gradually decreases. Hence, not being able to perform well in either situation (Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Yusof et al., 2020).

Additionally, in the case of service learning, volunteering projects are too short-term to satisfy both the educational objectives of the students and the needs of the beneficiaries (Tyron et al., 2008; Yusof et al., 2020). Furthermore, these students are stuck to the time restraint of a semester. Thus, the volunteers cannot be appropriately trained for their task, which due to

their young age and lack of experience, they do need (Meijs and Haski, 2010). Consequently, not much is learned from the volunteering work.

4.3 Diminished confidence in volunteering

This third key theme addressed the diminished confidence of volunteers in volunteering due to mandatory third-party volunteering. This theme is divided into three sub-themes: a diminished confidence in volunteering due to (1) inadequate effectiveness of the volunteering for the beneficiaries, volunteers and beneficiaries are (2) less likely to volunteer in the future, and (3) the obligation factor. There is also one sub-theme relating to corporate volunteering; the lack of faith in the motives of the home organization, which can trigger skepticism for volunteering.

4.3.1 Inadequate effectiveness for beneficiaries of third-party mandated volunteering

From the volunteer's point of view, much of the projects are too short-term to make a difference and thus lack effectiveness (Cnaan et al., 2021; Macduff, 2005; Caligiuri et al., 2013). The availability of resources of the host organization, for example, directly influences psychological engagement (Caligiuri, 2013). When the volunteers believe the host organization cannot sustain the project they are working on after leaving, they are less likely to engage fully than if they were convinced their work had a long-term impact. Furthermore, these episodic volunteering projects are not always impactful due to their short-term. The third-party volunteers are given small, relatively unimportant tasks while the long-term continuous volunteers and paid workers are provided with the 'real work' (Macduff, 2005). Consequently, when not provided with essential tasks, the volunteers feel redundant. Furthermore, Cnaan et al. (2021) state that such initiatives are valuable on a temporary level (i.e., in raising funds). However, it misses the sustainability to make long-term impactful changes.

Additionally, Tyron et al. (2008) claim that it is unrealistic to prepare volunteers and have them successfully carry out their projects in such a short time frame, especially in service learning where students are stuck to one semester. Moreover, Pacesila (2017) argues that the volunteering programs have little impact on the community and can sometimes even negatively impact cases. Thus, it is usually not worth spending all those resources with this risk in mind, from both the volunteer and the beneficiary perspective.

Moreover, if volunteers lack the appropriate training, they often seek constant guidance from their home organization or long-term volunteers. In such cases, the effectiveness is lacking as the volunteer cannot independently make decisions, learn from the experience and efficiently perform their tasks (Yusof et al., 2020). Finally, many volunteering positions are filled by both

volunteers and paid workers. Hence, for volunteers, working tasks that are paid tasks, they feel their work is redundant as it would have been done anyway by paid workers. Moreover, by volunteering in such a position, they are replacing additional paid workers, thus indirectly competing with them (Kampen et al., 2019a).

Consequently, in many cases, due to this perspective of ineffectiveness, the volunteers often feel rebellious against the volunteering programs as they believe the resources could be better spent (Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). This will, in turn, negatively affect their motivation to participate and, thus, their overall confidence in the volunteering programs.

4.3.2 Withdrawing from future volunteer work

Much research has addressed the fact that when being obliged to do something, it can generate negative future attitudes towards the task at hand (Chan et al., 2019; Kampen et al., 2019a; Kim and Morgul, 2017; Sobus, 1995; Tonurist and Surva, 2017). Being forced to participate lacks an altruistic individual motivation to volunteer and, in turn, can decrease the chance of volunteers volunteering in the future (Chan et al., 2019; Kim and Morgul, 2017; Tonurist and Surva, 2017; Sobus, 1995). For mandatory volunteering, this is no different. Kim and Morgul (2017) observed that having to participate in compulsory programs had the tendency to trigger feelings of frustration. Furthermore, the obligation is seen to diminish willingness to participate in voluntary future volunteering (Chan et al.,2019). Due to the obligatory nature of the volunteering projects, such volunteers produce unsatisfactory work that harms their experience and those of their fellow volunteers, which in turn can affect their view on volunteering and willingness to take part in the future (Chan et al., 2019).

Furthermore, Tonurist and Surva (2017) argue that compulsory volunteer programs tend to reduce future participation as volunteers customarily pursue a sense of free will (Stukas et al., 1999; Warburton and Smith, 2003). In support of these arguments, Sobus (1995) reports that being required to volunteer will hinder students from internalizing values of citizenship, which will not guide them to future volunteer programs. As researched in previous studies, volunteering is good for the well-being of an individual (Musick and Wilson, 2003; 2000; Holmes, 2009). By being inclined not to participate in the future, the volunteer robs itself of the accompanying benefits they could gain. Additionally, volunteering, mandated or not, can provide volunteers with soft and hard skills that are valuable to use in daily life. Moreover, volunteers will become accustomed to interacting with people from all social classes, helping them develop a better perspective (Lim, n.d.).

4.3.3 Obligation as a tool to disempower volunteers

'Voluntary dedication is an important factor in motivating people to participate in public life, and when you make something mandatory, you lose or undermine the feeling.' With this quote, Sobus (1995, p.153) argues that obliging the volunteers to participate will only work demotivate them to participate. Being forced to volunteer - indicating a lack of willingness of the volunteer - can affect the faith in volunteering projects and, in many cases, work counterproductive to the intrinsic motivation to volunteer (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019b; Sobus, 1995; Tonurist and Surva, 2017). This is supported by Kampen et al. (2019a), who similarly state that obligation is ineffective as forcing someone to do something against their will, triggers feelings of unhappiness. Furthermore, mandatory programs that take away the volunteers' sense of free will make them feel controlled and dependent, decreasing intrinsic motivation to volunteer (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019b; Tonurist and Surva, 2017; Tschirhart, 2005). Feelings of compulsion can then also instigate negative feelings towards the beneficiaries the volunteers are supposed to help (Kampen and tonkens, 2019b).

Furthermore, in their experimental study, Stukas et al. (1999) established that those who were less inclined to volunteer by their own initiative were negatively affected by being obliged to participate. As a result, their intrinsic motivation to volunteer lessened even more (Kim and Morgul, 2017). Warburton and Smith (2003) provide the analogy of having homework. When you are interested in the topic, it can be appealing to do. However, when it's not, then it becomes a burden. Stukas et al. (1999) and Gomez and Fernandez (2017) add to this by arguing that forcing volunteering programs works counterproductive and will decrease willingness to participate.

The overjustification effect also plays a significant part in the disempowering of volunteers (Sobus, 1995). According to this effect, when a volunteer is already a willing and active participant, mandating him will decrease intrinsic motivation to participate.

Consequently, volunteers who participate from free will and their own altruistic point of view are more committed and effective than those who are obliged to (Haski-Leventhal et al.,2008). Those who are, do not see the point of volunteering and lose confidence in the action.

4.3.4 Lack of faith in the motives of the home organization - Corporate volunteering

In some situations, volunteers are opposed to mandatory volunteering as they are mandated to volunteer for what they believe are wrong reasons. They do not see the value of volunteering. Gatignon-Turnau (2015) suggests that employees experience feelings of deception for the company they work for when the implemented volunteering programs are a marketing tool to

improve its reputation. If employees assume that is the case, their perception of the company and its social responsibility initiatives are negatively affected, and skepticism can arise (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017). Additionally, when meaning and significance are missing from the volunteering programs, and the company rather neglects the programs by lack of proper management, volunteers form a negative opinion on the company and in turn, the volunteering programs themselves (Hao et al., 2018; Sheel and Vohra, 2015) Many companies may also choose to implement such volunteering strategies due to outside pressures (Hao et al., 2018; Eby, 1998). In such cases, employees will have to take on a different role to their task-list. In such cases, these volunteering programs can be perceived as dishonest and discourage employees from participating (Glavas, 2016).

Furthermore, many employees feel volunteering is a private matter that should match each individual's values. In such cases, the employees often oppose volunteering programs and fail to see possible beneficial sides and productivity to their position in the company (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). Moreover, they believe resources spent on such volunteering programs could be better spent on the companies and their employees (de Gilder et al., 2005). Finally, Glavas (2016) adds to this discussion by arguing that the higher the authenticity of the volunteering programs, the higher the engagement of the volunteer. Thus, when such volunteering programs do not feel authentic to the employees, and employees lack a personal connection to the program and its beneficiaries, they will be less likely to engage (Glavas, 2016; Peloza et al., 2009). Alternatively, Pacesila (2017) argues that mandatory volunteering activities for employees cannot count as volunteering. Instead, it should be categorized as team building or recreation activities.

Such situations may also arise in educational institutes that use service learning to improve their reputations, raise funds and recruit students. Additionally, it may be a way to hide any of their negative impacts. Similar to employees, students can respond negatively to the lack of altruistic reasoning behind the volunteering programs (Eby, 1998).

Beneficiaries

4.1 The strain on mental health

For this first identified key theme, three causes are established: (1) the inconsistency of volunteers, (2) the beneficiaries' feeling of being a burden, and (3) the emphasis on the social gap between volunteer and beneficiary.

4.1.8 Inconsistency of volunteers

The lack of consistency of volunteers firstly causes a mental strain on beneficiaries of third-party volunteering. Beneficiaries are often a vulnerable group that requires continuity and reliability in the volunteers. When the volunteer is not committed to the volunteering practices, they tend to not follow through with their tasks or not show up to perform them (Blouin and Perry, 2009). This can be very damaging to beneficiaries as their trust in relationships is negatively affected, potentially harming their overall well-being (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Roschelle et al., 2000). Additionally, given the episodic nature of third-party volunteering, the periods in which the volunteers are required to volunteer are often too short for the beneficiaries. For especially children and young adults, this can be experienced as very traumatic, who built a significant relationship with the volunteer only for the volunteer to finish their projects and never show up again (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2013; Cnaan et al., 2021; Eby, 1998; Wallace, 2000). Such sensitive beneficiaries are negatively affected by the inconsistency of volunteers, which often translates into the belief that there are no trustworthy adults for them to go to (Roschelle et al., 2000). Furthermore, having to constantly build new relationships and put faith in a new person can be highly exhausting to beneficiaries and, in turn, cause a strain on mental health (Harrington, 2012).

Beneficiaries can experience abandonment issues and feelings of inferiority due to such volunteering practices (Eby. 1998; Roschelle et al., 2000; Samuel et al., 2016). This can then translate into an overall poor sense of self, which affects the overall well-being of the beneficiary.

4.1.9 The feeling of being a burden

In addition, a mental strain is caused due to the perception of being a burden. When volunteers are mandated to volunteer, they often fail to participate for the entire period of the volunteer program (Blouin and Perry, 2009). When they are not committed to the cause, beneficiaries can feel misunderstood and inferior to the volunteer group. Also, beneficiaries think the volunteers are there because they have to be, making them feel like a hindrance, often leading to bad feelings about themselves (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Samuel et al., 2016). This feeling can, in turn, be amplified when the volunteer finishes its required hours and fails to show up again (Samuel et al., 2016).

4.1.10 The emphasis on social gaps

The beneficiaries of mandatory third-party volunteering can be mentally affected by the lack of awareness of the volunteers regarding the social gap between beneficiary and volunteer may

enforce their ethnocentrism and racism in their work which can be very harmful to the beneficiaries (Eby, 1998). This can be due to the volunteer pool being overwhelmingly homogeneous regarding their social class. Even though there is an effort to include socially excluded populations and people with disabilities in the volunteer pool by host organizations, this is often not the case, leading to an even more significant gap between the volunteers and beneficiaries (Meijs and Haski, 2010). Thus, in most volunteer programs, the negative social image is emphasized that the volunteers, the people with the higher income and education, come to help those in need (Derecskei and Nagy, 2020). de Waele and Hustinx (2018) argue that this is the leading social critique of volunteering as volunteering enforces the social gap and preserves this power balance between people of high income over those with lower income.

Moreover, beneficiaries can be negatively affected by volunteer programs. It can trigger neglect from governments and social institutions tasked to address the social issues of the at-risk communities. Such institutions accept volunteerism as a substitution for their actions and policies; however, volunteering is not enough to address deeply rooted social problems (Eby, 1998).

4.2 Low quality of volunteering work

Two causes are identified for this second key theme. These are (1) the focus of volunteers on their own learning goals and (2) the volunteers' lack of qualifications.

4.2.5 Focus on own learning goals

As discussed in section 4.2.3, many volunteers focus on applying their knowledge in practice and give no attention to the needs and wants of the beneficiaries they are intended to help. In such cases, the beneficiary especially suffers. When they are neglected, the work provided by the volunteers does little to provide real help (Harrington, 2012; Wallace, 2000). Furthermore, Eby (1998) argues that beneficiaries run the risk of being used to fulfill the learning objectives of the volunteers. In such cases, the volunteer's needs are prioritized while the beneficiaries' needs are ignored. Consequently, the volunteer work provided is of low quality to the beneficiary.

In some cases, students might even use service learning as a means to improve their resumes or their sense of self (Eby, 1998; Vogelgesang and Astin, 2000). Helms (2013) adds that when students are focused on their own specific goals, such as resume building, it will reduce the intensity of their involvement in the volunteering activities (Cnaan et al., 2021; Handy et al., 2010). Additionally, students can use service learning to replace specific projects or

assignments (Eby, 1998). However, due to this lack of intrinsic motivation, the quality of volunteer work suffers (Kim and Morgül, 2017; Sobus, 1995).

4.2.6 Lack of qualifications

Being obliged to volunteer does not necessarily mean the volunteer is qualified to do the assigned work, producing a low-quality result (Rodell et al., 2016; Samuel et al., 2016;). In many third-party volunteering instances, the volunteers are allocated to tasks for which they are unqualified (Samuel et al., 2016; Sundeen et al., 2007). For example, when an accountant is given the task to build a house, he will do a bad job due to the lack of skills (Gomez and Fernandez, 2017; Rodell et al., 2016). Conversely, when a volunteer is excellent in one task, he is not necessarily qualified for all jobs. When this assumption is made, the beneficiaries will directly suffer from this as they will experience a delay or are tasked to do it themselves (Rodell et al., 2016; Samuel et al., 2016).

When volunteers do not have the qualifications and are unprepared, unwilling, and uncooperative to learn, beneficiaries will suffer as the volunteers will not help their situation. In some cases, the condition can even be made worse (Eby, 1998; Karasik, 2005).

According to Eby (1998), volunteers without proper training and preparations will not only provide ineffective and harmful work. Instead, 'such service trivializes service and demeans service professions'. Thus, indicating that if volunteer work cannot be done correctly, it should not be done at all as it will discourage any trust of the beneficiaries in volunteers.

4.3 Diminished confidence in volunteering

The final key theme - a diminished confidence in volunteering of the beneficiaries - has one specific cause: (1) the meaninglessness of volunteering.

4.3.5 The meaninglessness of volunteering

In some third-party volunteering situations, too much of the host organization's resources are put in the volunteers. Eby (1998) reported that resources that could be well spent on the beneficiaries cater to the needs of the volunteers (Pacesila, 2017). Projects need to be specifically designed to meet the skills of untrained volunteers. According to Harrington (2012), beneficiaries were facing the possibility to suffer financially due to having to provide volunteering opportunities to such volunteers. A lot of their money was spent building relationships with the volunteers and their home organizations. Such resources, however, could be much better spent on community problems and the beneficiaries' needs to create

long-term impacts (Eby, 1998). As Eby (1998) additionally described, the projects tailored for short-term volunteers are designed to put band-aids on deeply rooted problems and give volunteers an inadequate understanding of volunteering.

Furthermore, as mentioned in section 4.1.8, most volunteers finish their volunteering obligations and never return. However, Caligiuri et al. (2013) reported that the value of such volunteering initiatives is continued volunteerism after having completed the responsibility. As this is most of the time not the case, the effectiveness lacks.

5 Conclusion and Discussion

This study aimed to use existing literature to provide an overview of the negative consequences of mandated third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. This chapter discusses, reflects, and summarizes those main findings as identified in this study. Using said findings, the discussion answers the study's research question. Additionally, an elaboration is provided on the scholarly and practical contributions and implications of this research. Finally, the study's limitations and recommendations for future research are presented.

5.1 Conclusion

5.1.1 Qualitative analysis

This study set out to answer the research question of '*what are the negative consequences that arise from mandated third-party volunteering for the volunteers and beneficiaries?'*. To do so, a literature review was conducted on mandatory third-party volunteering.

This has led to the identification of three main themes that suggest a negative consequence for volunteer and beneficiary. The first theme is *the strain on mental health due to (mandatory) pressure to volunteer*. This is a negative consequence for volunteers of all third parties. Employees, students, and citizens all run the risk of having their mental health be adversely affected due to being forced to volunteer. This is by reason of being pressured into doing something, which often can lead to unhappiness. Generally, volunteers of mandated third-party volunteers experience a mental strain due to the upsetting volunteering environments, the repetitive and dull tasks, and the pressure of being a 'good' citizen. In the specific case of a corporate volunteering context, the volunteers can experience a mental strain due to the perceived job overload. In the case of service learning, students can develop a mental strain as a result of high expectations of their environment. Finally, volunteers of workfare volunteering often cultivate a mental strain due to the threat of losing the welfare benefits and the feeling of inferiority. In turn, beneficiaries can also run into this negative consequence due to the inconsistency of volunteers, having the feeling of being a burden, and the emphasis on social gaps.

The second theme classified is *the low quality of volunteering work*. Volunteers are negatively overwhelmed by this theme as providing unsatisfied work results in the individual feeling bad about oneself. Thus, in contrast, when the volunteer does provide good quality of work, they will feel satisfaction and a good sense of self (Wilson and Musick, 2000; 2003; Holmes, 2009).

Reasons for this negative consequence for volunteers are mandated short-term programs, the lack of resources and time, and finally, poor fit partnerships between volunteer and host organizations. Beneficiaries are consequently also affected by this low quality of work provided by the volunteers. These consequences are triggered by the volunteers' focus on their own learning goals and their lack of qualifications.

The final theme is that of *diminished confidence in volunteering*. This is a harmful consequence for the volunteer as research has shown that philanthropy is an efficient tool for providing meaning to one's existence and getting satisfaction in your work (Rodell, 2013). By being mandated to participate, the volunteer will miss out on that experience. This decrease in confidence in the volunteering programs for volunteers results from the inadequate effectiveness of the volunteering for the beneficiaries due to the short-term, episodic nature of the programs. Additionally, by being coerced into participating, volunteers are less likely to volunteer in the future. In the case of corporate volunteering, the lack of faith in the motives of the home organization triggers skepticism for volunteering and diminished overall confidence in the practice.

Moreover, beneficiaries experience diminished confidence in volunteering due to the meaninglessness of mandated work. In the case of third-party volunteering, the programs are usually too short-term to make a meaningful impact. They are instead focused on accommodating the volunteer. Consequently, beneficiaries are apprehensive and reluctant to accept help in the future.

5.1.2 Quantitative analysis

To conclude on the quantitative analysis in section 3.3.1, current knowledge about mandated third-party volunteering, especially that of the negative consequences, has taken rise in the past ten years. The majority of the literature is on the subject of service learning. The observation made for service learning is a rising trend in the research on the topic from 1990 onwards. Closely after service learning, the literature on corporate volunteering follows. Most research on this third-party volunteering type is found from 2005 forwards. Relatively new is the literature on workfare volunteering and third-party volunteering in general, as most literature on these topics originate from 2010 or later.

Furthermore, the majority of the dataset collected translated into qualitative data deriving from the western world and Asia. The literature on the subject is primarily written and researched from an Anglo-Saxon perspective. Thus, a bias can be attached to the literature as

it provides a western angle on mandated third-party volunteering as the journals and the databases are western orientated also.

5.2 Contributions

This research maps the negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries in the context of mandatory third-party volunteering. In writing this literature review, an in-depth analysis is provided of all the three parties and their volunteers and beneficiaries. While there are multiple literature reviews on the three parties in third-party volunteering and its positive impacts on numerous stakeholders involved (Caliguiri et al., 2013; Haski-Leventhal, 2011; Kampen et al., 2019a; Wold and Schilling, 2013), there are no comparable reviews on the negative consequences. Moreover, present research addressing the negative side is scattered. Thus, the contribution of this research to the existing literature is an overview of the known dark sides of mandatory third-party volunteering for volunteers and beneficiaries. No study discusses all three third-party volunteer contexts and their negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries specifically. Hence, the overview of this provided in the study is an addition to the literature. Furthermore, since the overwhelming amount of literature is focused on the positive side of volunteering, this literature shows that in many cases, this is not always true. Thus, all stakeholders - home and host organization, volunteer, and beneficiary - need to consider this.

Additionally, an essential contribution to the existing literature on mandatory third-party volunteering is the three identified key themes. The information provided by the dataset of already existing literature enabled the formation of said three key themes and their subthemes. Therefore, the overview of these themes and subthemes is an entirely new addition to the literature.

Moreover, a contribution of this literature review is that insights are provided into future research directions on this topic. The literature review highlights what we do know about the issue and what is lagging from the literature. Therefore, specific recommendations are provided for further research. These will be discussed in section 5.5.

Finally, this literature review provides the conditions in which negative consequences for volunteers and beneficiaries may arise. This contributes to the existing research as being aware of the conditions that create said consequences, all parties involved - the home and host organization, and volunteers - can take those conditions into account and mitigate its effects by adopting the practical implications suggested in section 5.5.

5.3 Limitations of the study

Naturally, the research of this study contains certain limitations that are worth mentioning.

Firstly, this study is a literature review, which in itself can be a limitation of a study. This is because of the complete reliance on past research and the availability of that research. According to Kitchenham (2004) and Booth et al. (2012), the bias of the author of the literature review is a significant limitation. As the author of this study was solely involved in the selection process, the dataset might be sensitive to the author's criteria. Furthermore, the literature analysis can be subjective to the author's interpretation to a certain extent. Additionally, Flick (2014) suggests adding a step to the coding strategy. Implementing a trial coding and assessment by an external researcher before the main analysis increases the study's validity. Since this is not done, it poses a limitation to the study.

Secondly, due to the distinct selection criteria and scope of this research, specific keywords were used to search for articles to ensure all aspects - a mandated aspect by an identified third-party and a negative consequence as a result - were present in the literature. Consequently, multiple keywords that were less specific but most likely promising to reveal relevant articles, were omitted in this research (i.e. employee volunteering, corporate volunteering, service learning, student volunteering, government volunteering). Additionally, only the abstract, title and keywords were considered in the selection process, and thus, many papers which might have been valuable were left out.

Thirdly, a limitation present in this study is that it only includes papers written or translated into English. By not including papers in other languages, the chance exists that much relevant literature is missed that this study could have benefited from.

Fourthly, the limitation of time also played a role in this study. Due to the relatively short time span for this study, only two databases were considered in the collection of papers.

Finally, most papers were on service learning, followed by corporate volunteering, followed by finally, workfare volunteering. As the latter is a relatively new topic, not nearly as many papers are written on workfare volunteering. Consequently, there is no equal information known on all three third-party volunteering initiatives. Thus, conclusions in this study are drawn on somewhat unbalanced findings.

5.4 Directions for future research

To overcome the aforementioned limitations in future research, the specified additional keywords should be included as well as literature in languages other than English to ensure all

relevant literature is analyzed. Further, multiple databases can be consulted to look for literature. All in all, more literature should be included in the dataset and analyzed to evaluate whether a difference in findings is established. Furthermore, as observed in the quantitative coding of the dataset, remarkably little research is done by African and South-American researchers and on accompanying areas. Thus, new insights could be gained by researching said environments. As Zhe Zhang et al. (2020, p.15) argue, 'individuals from different cultures may respond to volunteering climates differently, because they hold different values.' Hence, future research can focus on evaluating the role of cultural values on the volunteer pool's impressions of volunteering and use said data to expand the generalizability of this study's findings.

Moreover, looking at the key themes and the accompanying subthemes, the observation is made that there are negative implications for both the volunteer and beneficiary for each theme. One can thus assume that the negative consequences in a mandatory third-party volunteering context are interrelated for the volunteer and beneficiary. However, more research will need to be made to make definite conclusions about to what extent each negative consequence causes another.

Additionally, this study has researched the context of third-party volunteering from the perspective of the volunteer and beneficiary. Further research can thus explore this context from the perspective of the home organization (third-party) and host organization (i.e. non-governmental organizations) and the implications of forcing volunteers to participate. What will this mean for, for example, their volunteering pool in the future and the effectiveness of work they provide for the volunteers. Furthermore, in the context of corporate volunteering and service learning, the home organization can do research on the relation between mandatory volunteering and work satisfaction and productivity of the volunteer. This especially merits attention, as third-party volunteering is on the rise.

On a more general level, as mentioned before, research on workfare volunteering is not nearly where service learning and corporate volunteering are, and therefore, more research should be done on that topic.

Finally, the remaining question that arises from this study is whether we should abstain from mandatory volunteering in its entirety. In 2021, the practice of mandatory volunteering is very much a hot topic as much literature can be found on the subject and its positive consequences (Lim, n.d.; Shantz and Dempsey-Bench, 2021). Thus, the recent research on the negative consequences does not overshadow the positive ones.

Research on the mandatory aspect of volunteering is somewhat contradicting. According to Lim (n.d) and Chan et al. (2020), even when volunteers are not motivated to participate, they will learn the same amount as someone more inclined to volunteer, provided that the experience was a positive one (Chan et al. 2020; Lim, n.d.; Kampen et al., 2019). In the case of a free choice, many in the volunteer pool would choose not to participate, consequently missing an opportunity to acquire many valuable skills (Chan et al., 2020). In contrast, Warburton and Smith (2003), Kim and Morgul (2017), Tonurist and Surva (2017), and Sobus (1995) argue that obligation leads to a diminished willingness to volunteer in the future. Therefore, the paradox that is evident in this research is to either stimulate or abstain from mandatory volunteering. Is it promotional for the volunteer to participate, or does it destruct the communal spirit surrounding volunteerism? Therefore, future research is required to evaluate under which conditions this mandatory aspect is helpful to the volunteer rather than harmful.

5.5 Practical implications

Finally, the practical implications that originated from this study are presented. In order to address the negative consequences that arise from mandatory third-party volunteering for volunteers, the first section will cover the practical implications directed at: (1) the home organization - the third parties: corporations, educational institutes, and government - and (2) the host organization - the volunteer-involving NPOs -. The second half of the section will provide practical implications that will cover the negative consequences for the beneficiaries. These will be addressed to (1) the volunteers and (2) host organizations. The findings of this literature review also answer the question under which conditions these negative consequences arise. Such conditions and their practical implications, provided for each key theme, will help mitigate the negative effect of mandatory volunteering programs.

Volunteers

5.4.1 The mental strain

For the first key theme, volunteers of mandatory third-party volunteering are more inclined to experience a strain on their mental health under the following conditions; when volunteers are assigned to projects in upsetting volunteering environments, when they are forced to perform repetitious and dull tasks, and when they feel pressure to be a ‘good’ citizen.

Home organization

The home organization can reduce the risk of a mental strain caused by an upsetting volunteer environment by avoiding such environments for volunteers who are not qualified or willing to

be exposed to such situations. Therefore, the home organization could, for example, provide volunteers with multiple choices of volunteering environments from which the volunteers could choose. In this case, the volunteers know the level of sensitivity of the environments they step into (Tyron et al., 2018).

In a corporate volunteering context, to mitigate the strain of its employees, corporations should enforce programs to monitor the perceived role overload of employees. Said programs could include training on stress management in the forms of 'psychological assistance and mindfulness meditation practices' as suggested by Zhe Zhang et al. (2020). Additionally, corporations can reduce the family-work conflict by implementing flexible work hours, family-friendly schedules, or providing the opportunity to work remotely (Major and Cleveland, 2007; Zhe Zhang et al., 2020).

Within the context of educational institutes, in many cases, service learning is just another obstacle between the student and its graduation. Therefore, educational institutes should consider dedicating the entire volunteering period to service learning rather than expecting the students to participate while having to do other schoolwork (Yusof et al. 2020). Additionally, educational institutes, similarly to corporations, could implement stress management training or time planning workshops to make sure students are better equipped to deal with the pressure of participating (McCue and Sachs, 1991).

In the environment of workfare volunteering, the mental strain can be diminished by doing the following; decrease the feeling of inferiority and provide the volunteer with the opportunity to choose an activity matching their experience and intellectual level (Kampen et al., 2019; Kampen and Tonkens, 2019a). Additionally, governments should spend more time researching why this person requires the welfare benefits, as in many cases, this is the same reason they cannot volunteer (de Waele and Hustinx, 2018).

Host organization

The host organization can also mitigate the risk of a mental health strain for their volunteers. They can remedy the mental strain caused by dull and repetitive tasks. When volunteers are able to acquire skills and knowledge, they are more likely to have a positive experience (Bussel and Forbes, 2001). Thus, the host organization should provide employees options of tasks to choose from to feel to some extent they have a say in their experience. A more 'radical' decision that host organizations could make is not to allow third-party volunteers in sensitive environments. The risk being, however, that their volunteer pool decreases significantly.

5.4.2 The low quality of work

The second theme, the low quality of work provided by the volunteers, is caused by mandated short-term programs, the lack of resources and time, and a poor fit of partnerships.

Home organization

First of all, to tackle the issue of time, third parties should consider providing different time slots in a period so the volunteer can choose when it is most appropriate. By doing this, third parties may address the short-term nature of the programs by facilitating the transfer between different time slots of other groups of volunteers, so work does not go unfinished (Bolino and Turnley, 2005). Second, the lack of resources should not be an issue for the volunteer. When they are mandated to volunteer, the third party should facilitate the volunteer resources (i.e., transport) (Kampen and Tonkens, 2019a). In doing so, the volunteer is fully equipped to

participate successfully. Finally, to combat the low quality of work produced due to a poor fit, engagement should be facilitated. This is because, according to Shantz et al. (2014, p.691), 'volunteers who are emotionally, cognitively, and physically connected to their work are more likely to dedicate more time to their volunteer cause.' Thus, through tailor-made interventions, home organizations could increase resources such as feedback and coaching while decreasing demands, such as pressure (Bakker, 2009; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).

Host organization

To minimize the risks for beneficiaries, every volunteer, when needed, should follow a training beforehand, go through a screening to make sure they can perform their task appropriately, or provide tasks in which self-development is an option. In such cases, the volunteer will be able to provide satisfactory work (Eby, 1998; Gomez and Fernandez, 2017). Furthermore, the host organization should provide the volunteers with the opportunity to choose from different tasks or environments to volunteer. In corresponding situations, the lack of fit between volunteer and home organization is avoided. Consequently, the volunteers are more inclined to feel useful, listened to, and taken seriously. It provides the volunteers with a sense of freedom in their mandated work where their preferences are taken into account, providing sufficient work (Kampen et al., 2019; Zhe Zhang et al., 2020).

5.4.3 The diminished confidence in volunteering

The negative consequence of diminished confidence in volunteering is likely to occur under the following conditions; inadequate effectiveness of the volunteering for the beneficiaries, decreased likelihood to volunteer in the future, and the presence of the obligatory factor. Both

the home and host organization should consider the perception of meaninglessness of third-party volunteering programs and how to combat this.

Home organization

Often due to the short-term nature of these volunteering programs, volunteers are tasked with small jobs. Thus, by possibly extending or becoming more aware of this situation and searching for short-term meaningful tasks, the third parties can address this consequence. Therefore, to combat this, home organizations should highlight the value of the volunteer work done and its effectiveness. They can do this by communicating with the volunteers how their efforts have made significant changes for the beneficiaries. A way to facilitate this is by providing the volunteers with the opportunity to connect with the beneficiaries (Zhe Zhang et al., 2020). In this way, both the effectiveness and meaning of volunteering are depicted. As Shantz et al. (2014) proposed, volunteers who have a personal connection to the beneficiaries are more committed to helping them. Consequently, they will be more engaged and put more energy into their role.

Moreover, to reduce this consequence, the motivation of the volunteers needs to be increased. If achieved, the volunteers will be more effective in their work and, in turn, will have more confidence in the volunteering programs. A few ways to do this are through open communication between home and host organization about the volunteering activities, appreciation events for volunteers, building long-term relationships between home and host organization and volunteers and beneficiaries, and implementing recognition and rewards for volunteers. With motivated volunteers, the goals of the host organizations are more easily achieved in which positive social change is enabled (Williams, 2017).

Furthermore, third parties should be more aware of each individual's situation and understand that volunteers who feel forced might not want to volunteer in the future. Therefore, the tasks must be relevant to the volunteer doing the service as they will notice it is helpful to them. Host organizations will have to highlight the acquiring of both hard and soft skills during the volunteer period. Additionally, the volunteers need to be made aware that those who participated voluntarily and those who didn't have reaped the same benefits from the experience. This is because unmotivated and motivated volunteers learn equally from their volunteering activities (Lim, n.d.; Smith et al., 2007).

Moreover, to tackle skepticism regarding the volunteering program, the corporation - or other third party - should try not to window-dress their volunteering activities. In doing so, the home

organization shows that its motive to implement such programs is not solely based on marketing strategies.

Host organization

A way for the host organization to highlight meaningfulness is by linking each volunteer with a beneficiary to portray how their work directly affects their lives (Zhe Zhang et al., 2020). Furthermore, host organizations should, despite forced volunteering often leading to the unreadiness of volunteering in the future, foster intent for future volunteering by ensuring that the experience is meaningful and engaging. When the volunteer is passionate about the activity, they will be more likely to volunteer in the future regardless of being obliged to (Diaz et al., 2017; Lim, n.d.). Thus, the host organization should facilitate that each volunteer is provided with a task that is relevant to them.

Beneficiaries

5.4.4 The mental health strain

The mental strain on beneficiaries results from the following conditions; an inconsistency of volunteers, the feeling of being a burden, and the emphasis on social gaps.

Volunteers

In order to minimize the role volunteers play in the mental strain of beneficiaries, they should, at all times, remain sympathetic towards the beneficiaries. A way volunteers tend to cultivate sympathy successfully and, in turn, commitment, is by framing the beneficiaries as deserving of their help (Froyum, 2018). Volunteers should see beneficiaries independent of their willingness to participate. By honoring their commitment to helping, volunteers have to look at the beneficiaries as real people rather than a momentary inconvenience. Furthermore, volunteers should never express their unhappiness towards the beneficiaries. Instead, they should discuss this with either home or host organization. In doing so, they avoid making the beneficiaries feel like a burden.

Host organization

In the case of long-term projects that require close, personal contact with beneficiaries, host organizations can mitigate the effect of a mental strain by the inconsistency of volunteering through deciding only long-term volunteers are allocated such tasks. Furthermore, to reduce the beneficiaries' feeling of being a burden, the host organization should facilitate interactions between volunteers and beneficiaries. This will increase the commitment of volunteers towards the beneficiaries and simultaneously grow motivation and willingness to help (Shantz

et al., 2014). Consequently, this will make the volunteers see the beneficiaries as less of a burden and more of a person they want to help. Finally, in an attempt to reduce hurtful behavior caused by the social gaps, the host organization should, prior to the start of the programs, provide information. This information should include details about the organization and the social issues it addresses, and the demographics of the beneficiaries to familiarize the volunteers with the environment they are about to enter (Blouin and Perry, 2009).

5.4.5 The low quality of work

The second key theme as experienced by the beneficiaries is caused by the succeeding conditions; low quality of work due to the volunteers' focus on their own learning goals and the lack of qualifications.

Volunteers

To weaken this consequence, volunteers should be aware of their competencies and skills and their expectations and goals for the volunteering program. These then need to be clarified to the host organization so that the volunteer and beneficiary can get the most out of the experience. In turn, the volunteer can produce satisfactory work for the beneficiary (Blouin and Perry, 2009; Eby, 1998).

Host organization

The host organization should use above mentioned expectation clarifications from the volunteers to assess the competencies of the volunteers. According to that, the host organization can assign tasks appropriate for the volunteer to be most effective and generate high-quality work for the beneficiary (Brudney et al., 2019).

5.4.6 The diminished confidence in volunteering

The final key theme is caused by the meaninglessness of mandated work from the perspective of the beneficiaries.

Volunteers

A way for volunteers to diminish this effect is to remain in contact with the beneficiaries after their volunteering program has ended or occasionally check-in. In this way, beneficiaries feel valued rather than a temporary project and, in turn, will find meaning in the volunteering program (Caligiuri et al., 2013).

Host organization

To increase the meaning of volunteering in the eyes of the beneficiaries, the host organization should implement selection criteria for tasks that require specific skills. In that case, only volunteers who have actual skills are allocated to said particular tasks. In turn, no resources are spent on training and can instead be used for the beneficiaries (Pacesila, 2017). Finally, the host organization should consider involving the beneficiaries in the development of the volunteering programs. In that case, the beneficiaries know what type of help they can expect and can tailor the program to their needs. Furthermore, the beneficiaries can set up feasible goals that can be met in the often short-term nature of the programs (Samuel et al., 2016). When provided with substantial help, the beneficiary will regain trust in the volunteering system.

Overall, the implications do not suggest home and host organizations should not abandon mandatory volunteering in its entirety. Instead, they should be aware of the potential negative consequences that can derive from it and adapt the practice to build on its strengths and restrict its limitations through the use of the suggested practical implications. If done successfully, positive results can derive from this type of volunteering, as past research has shown.

6 Appendix

Appendix A Coding scheme of the literature dataset

AUTHOR	VOLUNTEERING TYPE	SECOND ORDER CODE	AGGREGATE DIMENSION	NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCE
ALSOP (2007)	Service learning	Obligation	Poor-fit partnership	Low quality of work
ASTIN AND SAX (1998)	Service learning	Stress overload	High expectations	Mental health strain
BLOUIN AND PERRY (2009)	Service learning	Lack of resources, obligation	Short-term programs	Low quality of work
BODE (2017)	Service learning	Home organization	High expectations	Mental health strain
BOLINO AND TURNLEY (2005)	Workfare volunteering	Lack of time, resources	Role overload	Mental health strain
BOOTH ET AL. (2009_	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, lack of willingness	Poor-fit partnership	Low quality of work
BRABANT AND BRAID (2009)	Service learning	Lack of altruism	Obligation	Diminished confidence
BRADY (2011)	Workfare volunteering	Inability to volunteer	Lack of time	Low quality of work
BROWN AND ASHCRAFT (2002)	Corporate volunteering	Home organization, work-family	Role overload	Mental health strain
BRUDNEY ET AL. (2019)	Third-party volunteering	No emotional commitment	Obligation	Diminished confidence
BUCHEN AND VERTMAN (1994)	Service learning	Lack of efficiency	Ineffectiveness	Diminished confidence
CALIGIURI ET AL. (2013)	Corporate volunteering	Short-term, loss of focus	Lack of time	Low quality of work
CHAN ET AL. (2019)	Service learning	Obligation, no commitment	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
CHAN ET AL. (2020)	Service learning	Obligation, no commitment	Less likely to volunteer in the future, ineffectiveness	Low quality of work/diminished confidence
CHAPIN (1998)	Service learning	Inability to volunteer	Lack of time	Low quality of work
CNAAN ET AL. (2021)	Third-party volunteering	No emotional commitment, lack of skills	Ineffectiveness	Diminished confidence
COSTELLO ET AL. (2020)	Third-party volunteering	Short-term	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
COWLISHAW ET AL. (2010)	Third-party volunteering	Work-family conflict	Lack of time	Mental health strain
CRUZ AND GILES (2000)	Service learning	No emotional commitment, lack of skills, short-term	Ineffectiveness	Diminished confidence
CUBAN AND ANDERSON (2007)	Service learning	No emotional commitment, lack of skills, short-term	Meaninglessness	Diminished confidence
DE GILDER ET AL. (2005)	Corporate volunteering	Time conflict	Lack of time, resources	Low quality of work
DE WAELE AND HUSTINX (2018)	Workfare volunteering	Obligation, bad sense of self, inability	Feeling of inferiority	Mental health strain
DERECSKEI AND NAGY (2020)	Corporate volunteering	Greenwashing	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
DIENHART ET AL. (2016)	Service learning	Obligation, no emotional commitment	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
DRISCOLL ET AL. (1996)	Service learning	Personal benefit, lack of altruism	Focus on own goals	Low quality of work
DUNN ET AL. (2016)	Third-party volunteering	Short-term	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
EBY (1998)	Service learning	Personal benefit, at-risk communities, short-term	Inconsistency, social gaps	Mental health strain
EDWARDS ET AL. (2001)	Service learning	At-risk communities, short-term	Inconsistency of volunteers	Mental health strain
GATIGNON-TURNAU AND MIGNONAC (2015)	Corporate volunteering	Lack of altruism, home organization	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
GLAVAS (2016)	Corporate volunteering	Time conflict, work-family	Role overload	Mental health strain
GOMEZ AND FERNANDEZ (2017)	Corporate volunteering	Greenwashing, home organization, lack of skills	Skepticism, ineffectiveness	Low quality of work/Diminished confidence

HANDY ET AL. (2016)	Third-party volunteering	Short-term, time conflict,	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
HAO ET AL. (2019)	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, greenwashing	Skepticism, meaninglessness	Diminished confidence
HARRINGTON (2017)	Service learning	Short-term, personal benefit	Ineffectiveness, focus on own learning goals	Low quality of work
HAß AND SERRANO-VELARDE (2015)	Workfare volunteering	Obligation, inability to volunteer	Lack of time and resources	Low quality of work
HASKI-LEVENTHAL ET AL. (2016)	Corporate volunteering	No emotional commitment	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
HASKI-LEVENTHAL (2008)	Service learning	Obligation, lack of altruism	Mandatory	Diminished confidence
HELMS (2013)	Service learning	Obligation, lack of free-will/altruism, personal benefit	Mandatory, focus on own goals	Low quality of work/Diminished confidence
HONDAGNEU-SOTELO AND RASKOFF (1994)	Service learning	At-risk communities, bad sense of self	Upsetting environments	Mental health strain
HU ET AL. (2016)	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, loss of focus, no commitment	Poor-fit, lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
HUSTINX ET AL. (2016)	Service learning	Time conflict, obligation	Lack of time, high expectations	Low quality of work/Mental health strain
ILLICH (1990)	Service learning	Lack of altruism, bad sense of self	Meaninglessness	Diminished confidence
IM AND CHUNG (2018)	Corporate volunteering	Lack of altruism, bad sense of self	Meaninglessness	Diminished confidence
IVONCHYK (2019)	Workfare volunteering	Paid vs unpaid work	Lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
JENKINS ET AL. (2008)	Service learning	Lack of altruism, obligation	Mandatory	Diminished confidence
JONES (2010)	Corporate volunteering	Loss of focus	Poor-fit, ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
KAMPEN AND TONKENS (2019A)	Workfare volunteering	Time conflict, inability to volunteer.	Lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
KAMPEN AND TONKENS (2019B)	Workfare volunteering	Bad sense of self, stigmatization	Inferiority	Mental health strain
KAMPEN ET AL. (2013)	Workfare volunteering	Bad sense of self, stigmatization	Inferiority	Mental health strain
KAMPEN ET AL. (2019)	Workfare volunteering	Unpaid vs. paid work, bad sense of self, stress	Inferiority, threat of losing welfare benefit	Mental health strain/Low quality of work
KARASIK (2005)	Service learning	Time conflict, inability to volunteer, lack of skills	Lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
KIM AND MORGÜL (2017)	Service learning	Obligation, lack of willingness	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
LEE (2010)	Corporate volunteering	no emotional commitment, lack of altruism	Poor-fit	Low quality of work
LEWIN (2020)	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, loss of focus, no commitment	Poor-fit, lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
LIM (2021)	Service learning	Mandatory, lack of willingness	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
MACDUFF (2005)	Third-party volunteering	Lack of skills, short-term	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work/Diminished confidence
HASKI-LEVENTHAL ET AL. (2010)	Third-party volunteering	Obligation, social gaps, short-term, at-risk communities	Ineffectiveness, upsetting environments, poor-fit	Mental health strain/ Low quality of work/Diminished confidence
MOORE AND ALLEN (1996)	Service learning	Social gaps, bad sense of self, at-risk communities	Upsetting volunteering environments	Mental health strain
PACESILA (2017)	Corporate volunteering	Ethical issues, lack of altruism, short-term, mandatory	Skepticism, ineffectiveness, meaninglessness	Low quality of work/Diminished confidence
PACO AND NAVE (2013)	Corporate volunteering	Loss of focus, greenwashing	Lack of time/resources, skepticism	Low quality of work/Diminished confidence
PARKER-GWIN (1996)	Service learning	Obligation, lack of willingness	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
PECK AND THEODORE (2000)	Workfare volunteering	Time conflict, inability to volunteer, paid vs unpaid work	Lack of time/resources	Low quality of work
PELOZA ET AL. (2008)	Corporate volunteering	No emotional commitment, greenwashing, lack of altruism	Skepticism, ineffectiveness	Diminished confidence

PICK ET AL. (2010)	Workfare volunteering	Inability to volunteer, stigmatized, bad sense of self	Inferiority	Mental health strain
REED ET AL. (2005)	Service learning	Short-term, lack of skills	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
RODELL AND LYNCH (2016)	Corporate volunteering	Bad sense of self, stigmatized, lack of altruism	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
RODELL ET AL. (2015)	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, lack of willingness	Less likely to volunteer in the future	Diminished confidence
RODRIGO AND ARENAS (2008)	Corporate volunteering	Ethical issues, lack of altruism	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
ROSCHELLE ET AL. (2000)	Service learning	Short-term, lack of skills, at-risk communities	Ineffectiveness, sensitive environments	Low quality of work/mental health strain
ROULIN AND BANGERTER (2013)	Service learning	Lack of altruism, personal benefit	Focus on own goals, ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
SAMUEL ET AL. (2016)	Corporate volunteering	Lack of qualifications, short-term	Ineffectiveness	Low quality of work
SAMUEL ET AL. (2013)	Corporate volunteering	Home organization, short-term	Ineffectiveness, less likely to volunteer in future	Diminished confidence
SHANTZ AND DEMPSEY-BRENCH (2021)	Corporate volunteering	No personal fit, lack of qualifications	No fit	Low quality of work
SHEEL AND VOHRA (2015)	Corporate volunteering	Obligation, lack of commitment and altruism	Lack of time/resources	Mental health strain/low quality of work
SHUCK ET AL. (2017)	Corporate volunteering	Ethical issues, greenwashing	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
SLOOTJES AND KAMPEN (2017)	Workfare volunteering	Paid vs. unpaid work, inability to volunteer	Lack of qualifications, time, resources	Diminished confidence
SMITH (2007)	Workfare volunteering	Home organization, ethical issues	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
SOBUS (1995)	Workfare volunteering	Lack of willingness, overjustification effect, no altruism	Skepticism, less likely to volunteer in future	Diminished confidence
STUDER AND SCHNURBEIN (2013)	Corporate volunteering	Home organization, lack of altruism	Skepticism	Diminished confidence
STUKAS ET AL. (1999)	Third-party volunteering	Obligatory, refusing to volunteer afterwards	Less likely to volunteer in future	Diminished confidence
SUNDEEN ET AL. (2017)	Corporate volunteering	Lack of time, resources, no choice	Work-family conflict, no fit	Low quality of work/mental health strain
TONURIST AND SURVA (2017)	Third-party volunteering	Obligation, welfare benefits	Stress overload, less likely to volunteer in future	Mental health strain/Diminished confidence
TRAGER (2020)	Service learning	Home organization, personal benefit	Focus on own goals	Low quality of work
TSCHIRHART (2005)	Corporate volunteering	Lack of altruism,	No fit, lack of qualifications, time, resources	Low quality of work
TYRON ET AL. (2008)	Service learning	Short-term, personal benefit	Lack of time, focus on own goals	Low quality of work
VAN OORSCHOT (2002)	Workfare volunteering	Obligation, welfare benefits	Lack of time, resources, stress overload	Mental health strain
WALLACE (2000)	Service learning	Short-term, personal benefit	Ineffectiveness	Mental health strain/Low quality of work
WARBURTON AND SMITH (2003)	Workfare volunteering	Lack of altruism, obligatory	Less likely to volunteer in future, skepticism	Diminished confidence
WILSON AND MUSICK (1999)	Third-party volunteering	At-risk communities, personal benefit	Sensitive environments, focus on own goals	Mental health strain/Low quality of work
YUSOF ET AL. (2020)	Service learning	No commitment, loss of focus, at-risk communities	No fit, ineffectiveness, stress overload	Mental health strain/low quality of work/Diminished confidence
ZHE ZHANG ET AL. (2020)	Corporate volunteering	Work-family conflict, lack of choice, time, resources	Perceived job overload, lack of resources	Mental health strain

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