

STRATEGIC MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS TO INCREASE VOLUNTEER
RETENTION WITHIN NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

by

SHENIQUA KAY LITTLE

(Under the Direction of Rajiv Grover)

ABSTRACT

This research examined whether customized communications could influence volunteer satisfaction and volunteer retention. This customization approach was based on a functionalist perspective that human behavior is motivated by the need to achieve or fulfill specific goals. When a need or goal is met, then behavior continues in order to maintain fulfillment of the goal or need. Therefore, in this research, if nonprofits could change perceptions of motive fulfillment through communication, then volunteers would be more likely to continue in the volunteer behavior. This study customized communication by matching thank-you letters with volunteer primary motives, based on the Volunteer Functions Inventory. This study tested whether volunteers could experience satisfaction through matched communication, even if their actual volunteer assignment did not address their volunteer motive.

Regression analysis was used to model self-reported intention and satisfaction from six dependent variables: intent to remain in organization, intent to remain in assignment, satisfaction in organization, satisfaction in assignment, level of activity in organization, and level of activity in assignment. Matched thank-you letters did not have the impact originally expected, although the effect may be diluted because the volunteers were exposed to the letter only once. However, one actionable finding for nonprofit organizations emerged. When nonprofits identify

volunteers' primary motive and fulfill that motive better than they fulfill all other motives, volunteers stay longer in the nonprofit organization. Additionally, this study's results suggest that when volunteers have high motivation, there is a direct correlation to greater satisfaction and higher participation in volunteer activities.

INDEX WORDS: Volunteerism, Volunteer retention, Job satisfaction, Marketing communications, Customized communications, Functionalism, Voluntary participation, Nonprofit marketing, Nonprofit management

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B. S., Florida Agricultural & Mechanical University, 1995

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2004

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Almighty God. It was only the power of Jesus Christ that allowed this research to be completed. When I didn't have help, You were there to support me. When I didn't know what steps to take or where to turn, You were there to guide me. When no one would work with me, You sent kind, supportive committee members. When I was ready to give up, You were there to carry me to a place of strength.

I will extol thee, my God, O king; and I will bless thy name for ever and ever.

Every day will I bless thee; and I will praise thy name for ever and ever.

Great is the Lord, and greatly to be praised; and his greatness is unsearchable.

One generation shall praise thy works to another, and shall declare thy mighty acts.

I will speak of the glorious honour of thy majesty, and of thy wondrous works.

(Psalm 145: 1-5)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Gaylord and Verne Kanoyton – it is a blessing to have praying parents. Also, thank you for being a research assistant and setting up my home office during data collection.

Graten Little, Sr. – thank you for your support and connecting me with the volunteers at the DIA.

Dr. Rajiv Grover – you have been a supportive and challenging advisor. Thank you for agreeing to work with me. I always learn a lot from you. You find a way to get the best work out of me.

My Committee – Dr. Jeff Brudney, Dr. Ann Buchholtz, Dr. Warren French, and Dr. Srinivas Reddy; thank you for your dedication and your feedback. Every comment and challenge raised the quality of the research.

Dr. Gary Sands – thank you for the use of your office and computer when I needed a place to work.

The Detroit Institute of Arts in Detroit, MI – Gloria Parker, Manager of Volunteer Services, Deborah Haddrill, Volunteer Coordinator, and Joanne Viviano, master recruiter for volunteer participation. My data collection experience was wonderful. I cannot express how grateful I am that you allowed me to survey your volunteers. And, I am grateful for the support you gave me—the separate room for the survey, computer and office space, copy services, personally encouraging each volunteer to participate, everything.

Robert Mlodzik at the North Carolina Museum of Art, Debra Nichols at the North Carolina Museum of History, Kimberly Riley at Urban Ministries, Rachel Crosby at the North

Carolina Foodbank, and Linda Riggins at Building Together Ministries for allowing me to survey your volunteers.

Dr. Srinivas Reddy and the Coca-Cola Center for Market Research for funding my data collection expenses.

Cici Hinton at the University of Georgia Museum of Art for allowing me to talk with a few of your volunteers.

Mr. Roosevelt Henderson, President of the Detroit, MI chapter of the Lions Club International for allowing your members to participate in my pre-test.

Mr. Willie Williams, owner and manager of The Williams Inn. Thank you the wonderful accommodations and for such affordable rates.

Dr. Derrick Alridge – thank you for the counsel, support, and friendship.

Ms. Connie Autry – thank you for everything. Words cannot express what your help and support has meant to me, from forwarding my mail to helping me set up for my defenses, to keeping up to speed with the changes on campus. Thank you.

Pastor and Mrs. Dumas Harshaw, Jr. of First Baptist Church in Raleigh, NC. Thank you for a safe refuge during my time of transition. Thank you for welcoming me and allowing me to have an active role in the ministry.

Dea. Samuel and Rev. Iantha Greene and Revs. Emmanuel and Esther Ehizelen – thank you for being supportive, praying friends. Please know that your prayers sustained me through very difficult times.

The Associate Ministers at First Baptist Church in Raleigh, NC. Thank you for filling in for me during Bible study classes and worship services that I would have facilitated.

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CHAPTER 1

NONPROFIT MARKETING TO A VOLUNTEER WORKFORCE

Nonprofit organizations provide economic and social benefits to local communities. These organizations engage in an array of activities, from protecting the world's whales to promoting the fine arts to providing the basic needs of human survival. Most neighborhoods have a visible nonprofit presence—churches, private schools, little league baseball teams, Boy Scout and Girl Scout troops, and Goodwill or Salvation Army stores. And, if some neighborhoods cannot *see* the presence of nonprofit organizations in their community, it is impossible to find a neighborhood that has not benefited from the efforts of nonprofit organizations regarding child labor laws, civil rights, public television and radio, cleaner air and water, and so on. The nonprofit sector has a meaningful presence in American life (O'Neill, 2002).

The nonprofit sector is heterogeneous and growing. There are as many variations of nonprofit organizations as there are of governmental and for-profit organizations (Weisbrod, 1988). There are three general categories of nonprofits—private or proprietary nonprofits, public trust nonprofits, and public collective nonprofits. Proprietary nonprofits have members for which the organization optimizes monetary funds in order to accomplish the goals and objectives of its members (Weisbrod, 1988). Examples of proprietary nonprofits are country clubs, chambers of commerce, garden clubs, and trade associations. Public trust and public collective nonprofit organizations promote the health, education, welfare, and cultural vitality of communities (Weisbrod, 1988). Examples of public nonprofits are blood banks, environmental protection advocacy agencies, medical research institutions, museums, nursing homes, and religious

institutions. Because of their service to the community, these organizations receive special income-tax treatment to encourage enough organizations to provide the necessary services to the public (Weisbrod, 1988). There is a spectrum of sizes and structures among nonprofit organizations. Some nonprofits function with a large workforce of paid employees and a budget of millions of dollars. Other nonprofits only have a paid executive director with a completely volunteer staff, with annual grant money and donations determining their budget (Weisbrod, 1988). And, of course, many nonprofits function somewhere along this continuum. The focus of this dissertation was on volunteers within nonprofit organizations, with the goal that the findings might benefit any nonprofit organization that relies heavily on volunteers.

In 2001, the estimated dollar value of volunteer time and services given to nonprofit organizations was \$225 billion (Pekala, 2002). Additionally, when individuals volunteer, they build the value of their human skills and capabilities. The human capital of the entire labor force increases because of volunteer opportunities. Therefore, the economic value of volunteering is even greater than the reported \$225 billion. Among the organizations that heavily use volunteers are hospitals, political parties, trade associations, arts organizations, charitable institutions, and churches (Kotler & Andreasen, 1995). Hospital emergency rooms use volunteers to assist and comfort families while they wait to hear about the status of their loved ones. When running for political office, politicians often use volunteers to stretch their campaign funds. Charitable organizations use volunteers to help individuals secure stable, affordable housing, food, clothing, and school supplies for children. Museums and artistic groups use volunteers to give tours and provide art classes for youth and disabled patrons (Archambeault, 2001; Pekala, 2002; Schram & Dunsing, 1981). City and state governments also secure the help of volunteers in libraries, parks and recreation departments, and fire departments to bridge the gap between fiscal budgets and

community needs (Brudney, 1990). Because volunteer work touches so many surfaces of most communities, finding meaningful ways for nonprofit organizations to function effectively will benefit the nonprofit organizations that rely heavily on volunteers and the communities in which they operate. Therefore, community leaders, as well as scholars, need to investigate every aspect of promoting and maintaining nonprofit organizations so that communities continue to flourish from their presence.

Many facets of nonprofit organizations could be studied; however, retaining volunteers was the area of interest for this study. Recruiting volunteers and retaining volunteers are distinctly different processes (Brudney, 1990). The aspects of a volunteer opportunity that attract a person to volunteer their time with a particular organization are different from what the volunteer needs once he or she is already working with an organization. For a person to decide whether or not to volunteer with an organization, he or she may consider if he or she knows anything about the cause or the organization. The person has to decide that he or she values the activity and contribution of volunteering. The person has to overcome any anxiety from participating in something unfamiliar. Once a person has already engaged in volunteering, deciding whether to continue shifts the volunteer's focus to evaluating his or her specific volunteer experience (Penner, 2002). For example, the volunteer begins to consider the nonprofit organization's management, his or her social interaction with other volunteers, the impact of the organization's work throughout the community, whether he or she has had fulfillment from the assignment, and whether recognition of his or her work occurs within the organization (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Therefore, this research did not address aspects of volunteer recruitment, but rather it focused on volunteer retention. Many nonprofits that rely heavily on volunteers are faced with limited resources. As a result, I studied areas of nonprofit

organizations that could be changed by maximizing the volunteer resources they already had. Given the volunteers that an organization already had, what could it do to minimize turnover in order to operate more efficiently and continue to benefit its neighborhoods and communities?

The phrase *minimize turnover* acknowledges that volunteer turnover will not be completely eliminated. Some turnover is inherent to people joining organizations. This study was not interested in persuading all volunteers that no one should leave a particular organization if the assignment did not work out. The purpose was to identify tools and approaches nonprofit organizations could use to communicate the value of a volunteer's contribution to that organization, thereby enabling that volunteer to feel more fulfilled in the volunteer assignment.

Several volunteers may leave a volunteer assignment or a volunteer organization because they do not believe their time is well used or that their work makes a difference. Yet, there may be some volunteers who perceive their contribution as meaningless because they do not understand their role in the broader context of the organization. The weekly or monthly tasks of the volunteer assignment may not appear to accomplish what the volunteer intended to contribute in the volunteer experience. Yet, the indirect contribution of that volunteer assignment may very well enable the organization to perform in a meaningful way for the volunteer. In this study, the researcher was interested in testing whether more volunteers could be retained, thereby reducing turnover among volunteers, through effectively communicating to them what their contribution meant in the context of the nonprofit organization and to the community. If nonprofit organizations can communicate in terms relevant to their volunteers, then more volunteers can experience fulfillment in their volunteer assignments. Volunteers can view their work in a light that is meaningful to them and volunteer turnover is reduced.

Retaining Volunteers Within Nonprofit Organizations

Volunteers play a vital role in the life of many nonprofit organizations. As a result, nonprofit organizations should be strategic in managing and retaining their volunteer workforce. Just as for-profit companies should have a marketing strategy for their customers, nonprofit organizations should have a marketing strategy for their volunteers. Customer dollars enable the for-profit company to function effectively, likewise donated volunteer services enable many nonprofit companies to function effectively. Marketing strategies of for-profit companies should not only attract new customers but also incorporate a plan to maintain existing customers (Kotler & Andreasen, 1995). Successful products experience profitable growth because they have a consistent number of new buyers each month and a consistent number of repeat buyers. Likewise, volunteer marketing strategies of nonprofit companies should not only attract new volunteers but also incorporate approaches for maintaining existing volunteers in order to experience growth and effectiveness in its volunteer workforce. Consequently, nonprofits must pay particular attention to retaining current volunteers (Kotler & Andreasen, 1995; Snyder, 1993).

Retaining volunteers is a marketing issue for nonprofits from a communication and promotion standpoint. Volunteers have many demands on their time. They choose from myriad options for their volunteer service work and have to balance their leisure time with family and other recreation. The circumstances of people's lives change; they are continuously re-evaluating their priorities. As single people get married, or married people become divorced, they re-assess what is important to them and where they can afford to spend their free time. Some women become new mothers, while others have their young children entering the school system. Men and women get promotions, they buy new houses, or they change neighborhoods. There is also a

growing trend of people who want to volunteer but who do not want to commit to a specific schedule of activities or a length of time to serve (Blackman, 1999). Lifestyle changes continuously occur within the lives of a volunteer workforce. As a result, nonprofit organizations are continuously faced with the possibility of losing volunteers. Therefore, nonprofit organizations should develop approaches that ensure that the value of serving the community through their respective organization stays in the forefront of their volunteers' minds and employ approaches that consistently communicate that value to their volunteers.

In light of the volunteer retention problem, this study investigated ways that nonprofit organizations can effectively communicate with their volunteer force throughout the volunteer assignment. Therefore, when these continuous evaluations of time and priorities arise for the volunteers, the volunteer work for a particular nonprofit organization remains a priority and a commitment for the volunteers. The nonprofit organization must actively communicate the benefits of both remaining a volunteer with its particular organization over volunteering with a different organization and of not volunteering at all (Kotler & Andreasen, 1995; Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996).

This study is important because minimizing volunteer turnover provides two benefits to nonprofit organizations: cost-effectiveness and future word-of-mouth recruitment from a volunteer to his or her friends, family, and co-workers. Meeting volunteer expectations leads to satisfied volunteers, which leads to reduced volunteer turnover. Reduced volunteer turnover is cost effective for two reasons. First, when nonprofit organizations maintain their existing volunteer workforce, their limited resources are not diverted from the activities that achieve the organizational mission to find new volunteers to fill the vacated volunteer assignments. Second, when nonprofit organizations maintain their existing volunteer workforce, they maintain the

organizational knowledge that exists among current volunteers. When new volunteers are brought into the organization, they always have to overcome a learning curve before they are effective and productive. During this learning curve period, all the organizational processes that involve this new volunteer are less efficient and less effective. Therefore retaining existing volunteers enables a nonprofit to function more efficiently on several levels and, therefore, is cost effective.

Reducing volunteer turnover also has the potential to generate word-of-mouth volunteer recruitment for the nonprofit organization. Satisfied and fulfilled volunteers not only continue in their volunteer assignments, they are also likely to express enthusiasm for and satisfaction with their volunteer assignments with friends, family members, and co-workers. The unsolicited, positive comments about the volunteer organization and the volunteer assignment could spark interest among others to volunteer. Word-of-mouth has been identified as a successful recruitment tool among older volunteers, for small business firms, and among college graduates entering the workforce for the first time (Blackman, 1999; Carroll, Marchington, Earnshaw, & Taylor, 1999; Collins & Stevens, 2002; Davidhizar & Bowen, 1995). Therefore, reducing volunteer turnover by meeting expectations and fulfilling volunteer needs may foster word-of-mouth recruitment for additional volunteers and retain the existing volunteer workforce of the nonprofit organization.

Structure of this Research

Nonprofit marketing is an important segment of marketing research. Developing sound theoretical approaches to understand volunteer behavior is a central concern for academics and community leaders who rely on nonprofit research (Wymer, Riecken, & Yavas, 1996). The focus of this study was volunteer retention through effective communication approaches within the

nonprofit organizations. This study employed a functionalist approach for identifying a volunteer's internal motivations for volunteering, then matched the recognition that volunteer received to the respective motive the volunteer had. The functionalism theory asserts that people engage in behavior in order to meet a goal. The behavior serves a function; it is not haphazard. As a result, people only continue in behavior that meets the goal or desired outcome. This study tested whether people would continue in a behavior (volunteering) when they perceived that their need was met. Thank-you letters and newsletters were the two communication vehicles used in this study to influence perceptions.

In Study 1, a 4x3 factorial design was used to test communication. Factor 1 was the type of thank-you letters (matched, unmatched, generic, and control). Factor 2 was motive fulfillment in assignment (met, unmet, unaware of fulfillment). Thank-you letters were used to influence volunteer perceptions, thereby influencing their intentions to remain and their levels of satisfaction. Current volunteers already had a reason or motive for volunteering. Their current assignment either fulfilled that motive or did not. An ideal situation for most nonprofits would be that every nonprofit had one or two volunteer assignments within their organization that met each of the six identified volunteer motives in Clary et al. (1998): protective, values, career, social, understanding, and enhancement. Yet that reality seldom exists. If volunteers were in an assignment that did not currently fulfill his or her motive, the findings from this dissertation would be helpful. This study tested whether people in unfulfilled assignments could experience increased satisfaction when the communication from the nonprofit to the volunteer was matched to the volunteer motive.

Study 1 used the matched volunteer motives as a basis for predicting volunteer commitment instead of using demographic variables. Demographic variables are more likely to

indicate who will become a volunteer, instead of indicating a person's commitment level while volunteering (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999). Previous research indicates that appropriately matched volunteer motives and volunteer assignments yield greater satisfaction and likely yield greater commitment over time (Clary et al., 1998). Study 1 investigated whether communicating the volunteer worker's contribution in thank-you letters, using the terms of his or her relevant motive, would also yield greater satisfaction and service commitment, even when the volunteer did not have a motive-matched assignment.

In Study 2, the objective was to test whether creating a sense of organizational prestige through communication could positively influence volunteer service with that organization. Previous research suggests that volunteers have higher satisfaction in their volunteer assignments when they are part of an organization that has visible accomplishments or prestige within the community (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Therefore, in Study 2, newsletters informed volunteers about some of the organization's accomplishments in order to identify whether this information could foster greater satisfaction among volunteers, thereby retaining more volunteers than if they were not informed. Study 2 had a 2x2 factorial design. Factor 1 was exposure to internal communication (yes, no). Factor 2 was exposure to external communication (yes, no). This design allowed the researcher to test the effect of exposure to organizational information and whether internal communication from the nonprofit or external communication from a community news source was more influential among the volunteers.

In this dissertation, the researcher first briefly presents important aspects of the marketing communications literature: public relations, advertising, and customized communications. Next, relevant literature of volunteerism is summarized from an economic perspective and from a social psychological perspective, highlighting the functionalist

perspective. The researcher also summarizes the empirical research of long-term volunteerism within the social psychological literature. The theoretical underpinnings of the research are explained and the hypotheses that were tested are set forth. The methodology for testing the hypotheses is explained, with the results reported and discussed. Finally, the theoretical and practical implications are discussed with suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

STIMULATING VOLUNTEER INVOLVEMENT THROUGH COMMUNICATION

Just as for-profit companies have marketing strategies so should nonprofit organizations that rely heavily on volunteers. To demonstrate the importance of nonprofit organizations communicating with their volunteers, the researcher has drawn from the marketing communications literature. Much of the marketing communications research centered on for-profit organizations, but one can draw applicable parallels to nonprofit organizations because volunteers serve a role similar to that of consumers, in that volunteers and consumers are both stakeholders of their respective organizations. In this section, the researcher discusses marketing communications in general and then discusses two marketing communication tools, public relations and advertising, in particular. The researcher concludes this chapter by highlighting the role of customized communications in retaining volunteers.

Role of Marketing Communications

Communication is the imparting, conveying, or exchanging of ideas through speech, writing or signs and symbols; it is a constant activity (Harrison, 1995; Smith, Berry, & Pulford, 1997). Everything a company does and does not do sends a message (Schultz, Tannenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1993). Therefore, every facet of how nonprofit organizations interact with their volunteers sends a message to their volunteers. The condition of the volunteers' offices or workspace sends a message. The amount and quality of contact that organizational management has with the volunteers communicate a message. Recognition and appreciation, flexibility with work schedules, prestige of the organization, and recruitment and training processes all send messages from nonprofit organizations to their volunteers.

Because nonprofit organizations want the value of serving with their organization to stay in the forefront of their volunteers' minds, nonprofit organizations should be purposeful in communicating this particular message to their volunteers. Because communication is continuous, some communicated messages are intentional and others are not (Harrison, 1995; Smith, Berry, & Pulford, 1997). Developing a marketing communications strategy for volunteers within nonprofit organizations will *increase* the number of intentional messages sent to the volunteers and thereby *decrease* the percentage of unintentional messages. As a result, volunteers are more likely to receive the intended messages from the nonprofit organization.

The concept of marketing communications is derived from the promotion concept of the marketing mix (i.e., product, price, place, promotion). Yet, promotion is broader than price incentives and advertising to consumers (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Kitchen, 1999). By replacing *promotions* with the term *marketing communications*, marketers and scholars recognize the spectrum of activities that influence various stakeholder perceptions when promotion occurs. Marketing communications is the process of targeting customers or organizational stakeholders in an integrated fashion to inform, persuade, and remind these stakeholders of the organization and how its product or services (or volunteer assignments) are differentiated to appeal to and satisfy the needs of the stakeholders (Kitchen, 1999).

Marketing communications include the following activities (Borden, 1964; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Kitchen, 1999; Lane & Russell, 2001; Smith, Berry, & Pulford, 1997):

1. Advertising
2. Direct (database) marketing
3. Internet and other new media
4. Personal selling

5. Point-of-sale merchandising
6. Public relations
7. Sales promotion
8. Sponsorship
9. Word of mouth

Marketing communications is often the approach that marketing managers use to sell products and establish customer loyalty (Kitchen, 1999). Because volunteers have similar value to many nonprofits as customers do to for-profit companies, one can reasonably re-apply marketing communications approaches within nonprofit organizations to foster organizational loyalty and minimize volunteer turnover.

Public Relations

One marketing communications tool that is suitable for re-application within nonprofit organizations is public relations. Public relations is the deliberate, artful management of communication within an organization that helps the company establish and maintain lines of communication and cooperation between an organization and its various groups of stakeholders (Awad, 1985; Harrison, 1995).

The public relations function first gained popularity in corporate America. Today, most business corporations of any size employ either public relations staff or outside counsel (Awad 1985), and many use both. In the last 10 to 20 years, there has been a dramatic upsurge in the use of public relations professionals by other types of organizations and institutions: governments, trade associations, professional associations, philanthropic organizations, educational institutions, hospitals, political parties, and so forth (Awad, 1985). The scope and complexity of the public relations function in virtually all organizations have increased substantially in the last

two decades as American society has become even more pluralistic and is characterized by accelerating change (Awad, 1985). A whole spectrum of specialties has emerged within the public relations field, such as investor relations, international affairs, governmental relations, employee communications, corporate advertising, and many more (Awad, 1985). Similarly, nonprofit organizations can benefit from employing public relations approaches in their interaction with their volunteers.

The purpose of nonprofits employing public relations is to generate publicity among their volunteers. Publicity is the result of information being made known to a group of stakeholders (Harrison, 1995). However, publicity is different from public relations (Harrison, 1995). Publicity is the outcome of information to the public (positive or negative), such as when investors are informed of a product launch or when volunteers are informed of an award received. Public relations is the process or set of systems managing communication to a single or multiple sets of publics (Harrison, 1995). Public relations is the set of activities for getting the information of the organization's product launch or award recognition to the intended group.

Public relations is also distinct from advertising because its aim is not to persuade but to inform. By informing the public, individuals are able to conclude for themselves the best choice for them based on the information presented (Harrison, 1995). Because most people understand that advertising is usually paid for by the makers or owners of the product, service, or idea, public relations messages tend to be more influential than are advertising messages (Harrison, 1995; Lane & Russell, 2001).

Advertising

Advertising is another marketing communications tool that can be reapplied in nonprofit organizations. Advertising presents the most persuasive message to a targeted audience with the

aim of shaping their behavior, most typically to purchase a product or service (Harrison, 1995; Lane & Russell, 2001). Advertising should be addressed and considered within the overall marketing communications strategy, not simply as an independent activity (Lane & Russell, 2001).

The advertising campaign is produced to achieve a purpose, and it does not yield success when working toward abstract outcomes (Farbey, 2002). Advertising must set out to meet a concrete need with a specific response. The nonprofit would need to establish a specific goal, such as making all first-year volunteers aware of the recognition dinner at the end of the year. Each advertisement should accomplish a specific purpose. An advertisement is typically a paid message with an identified sponsor, where that message is delivered through some vehicle of mass communication (Lane & Russell, 2001). Advertising can accomplish the following results:

1. create awareness of products, organizational image, or company mission;
2. develop or persuade attitudes;
3. develop brand identity;
4. position a product within its competitive market;
5. foster goodwill and build relationships; or
6. offset competition.

Because nonprofit organizations want to retain as many volunteers as possible, they should consider employing advertising to achieve one or more of the above results. They could use advertising to create an awareness of the total range of their services, their corporate mission, or their attitude toward volunteers. Nonprofits could target their volunteers with advertising to develop a specific attitude toward the organization or foster goodwill, thereby offsetting any perceptions volunteers have of alternative organizations with which they could volunteer.

A significant role that advertising plays for a company is that of creating brand preference (Lane & Russell, 2001). When a person is ready to buy a product or service, advertising paves the way to brand awareness and brand preference for one company over its competitors. Without branding, there would be little or no advertising (Lane & Russell, 2001). Because brands enable unique and specific identification, advertising could only promote general product categories without brands. Again, the role of advertising to volunteers would be to make the respective nonprofit organization the preferred place to volunteer in the minds of its volunteers.

A key to successful advertising is highlighting product or service differentiations that are meaningful to consumers or to the targeted stakeholder of interest (Lane & Russell, 2001). The basic strategy of differentiation is to separate a brand from similar products or services and to provide the stakeholder with a meaningful reason to choose your brand. In the context of this research, the nonprofit organization should provide the volunteer with a reason to choose volunteering with this particular organization over all the other volunteer options every time he or she considers the role volunteering plays in his or her life.

Advertising does not guarantee sales (or volunteer retention); rather, it works in concert with a matrix of communication tools to deliver a particular perspective and message to a targeted consumer or stakeholder. Companies that are committed to advertising its brand, its company, or both tend to be more successful than companies competing in the same product category that are not consistently advertising (Lane & Russell, 2001). As a result, I would expect that nonprofit organizations consistently advertising to and communicating with its volunteers would remain more successful in retaining their volunteers than would nonprofit organizations

not advertising and communicating to its volunteers. As volunteers face changing lifestyles and alternative volunteer options, nonprofits want to give volunteers a meaningful reason to stay.

Advertising and public relations will not replace responsibly managed volunteer programs and meaningful volunteer assignments within a nonprofit. These communication tools are intended to inform what volunteers may not already know, and that strategic information may make the difference in how volunteers perceive their assignments and their role within the organization. Nonprofit organizations can use communication tools to remind volunteers what the organization accomplishes, what its value system is, and what its mission is so that these messages stay in the forefront of the volunteer's mind. This way when the volunteer reevaluates his or her alternatives, the evaluation occurs with complete information about the nonprofit organization.

Customized Communications

An emerging trend in marketing communications is customized communications (Ansari & Mela, 2003). Customization can occur with many of the marketing communications approaches discussed earlier: advertising, direct marketing, personal selling, public relations, and sales promotion. Advances in information technologies and the internet allow many firms to identify individual consumers with greater accuracy and cost-effectiveness. This accuracy allows those firms to tailor their promotional prices, promotional incentives, and other marketing communications to consumers (Feinberg, Krishna, & Zhang, 2002; Shaffer & Zhang 2002). Customized products and communications often attract customer attention and foster customer loyalty (Ansari & Mela, 2003).

Examples of customized communications are when companies offer incentive gifts (e.g., t-shirts, watches, coffee mugs, tote bags) to new customers and not to existing customers. Or

companies may send promotional catalogues, coupons, or rebates only to highly loyal customers and not to other customers (Feinberg, Krishna, & Zhang, 2002). Both instances reflect varying treatment of different groups within the consumer market. E-commerce sites, such as Amazon.com and Dell, customize advertising and promotional content to their customers in an attempt to increase repeat purchases. Customization can also occur by including customers' names in the communication, or by recognizing the customer as one who spends over a specific amount with the company. Customized and individually targeted communications aid customer decisions because highly relevant products are likely to better satisfy customers, thereby fostering customer retention (Ansari & Mela, 2003).

In the health education literature, tailored and non-tailored print communications were used to influence behavioral change among overweight people for healthy weight loss (Kreuter, Oswald, Bull, & Clark, 2000). Health education materials that were well matched to the respondents' psychological and lifestyle needs were more influential in effectuating positive behavioral changes than were poorly matched health education materials. Kreuter et al. (2000) demonstrated that customization of materials is important for effective behavioral change. As a result, this dissertation applied customized communications to volunteers, expecting that volunteer loyalty would be fostered and volunteers would intend to work at the organization long term.

The growing need to retain consumers and manage consumer relationships has brought forth a variety of customized marketing approaches in companies: database marketing, target marketing, micromarketing, and one-to-one marketing (Shaffer & Zhang, 2002). Marketing managers and academicians sometimes use these terms interchangeably. Database marketing refers to any marketing activity that is aided by a consumer database. Target marketing refers to

the process by which a firm offers promotional incentives (and presumably other marketing communications) tailored to individual consumers or to small groups of consumers (Shaffer & Zhang, 2002). Micromarketing goes one step further in that a firm also customizes its services, products, or product assortments to satisfy the needs of targeted consumers. One-to-one marketing, a term coined by Peppers and Rogers (1993), focuses on establishing long-term relationships with individual consumers through customized production, individually addressable media, and personalized marketing (Shaffer & Zhang 2002).

Target marketing was the most suitable customized communication approach for this dissertation because targeting incorporated the needs of small groups. The thank-you letters in Study 1 were tailored for sub-groups within an organization's volunteer workforce. Once customizing for small groups of volunteers proved successful, nonprofits could assess whether individualization was necessary and/or appropriate for their organizational communication. Nonprofit organizations could develop approaches to find the specific preferences or differences among their volunteers to form customized communication. In this dissertation, the researcher customized communication according to volunteer motive. The researcher theorized that the nonprofit would experience more robust results because of strategic, customized communication than merely communicating the same message to every volunteer. As a result, this study took the broad concepts of public relations and advertising and tailored them to internal organizational communications, specifically communication to the volunteer within a nonprofit organization.

CHAPTER 3

THE VARIED PERSPECTIVES OF SUSTAINED VOLUNTEERISM

The interest of this research was volunteer retention through continued volunteer behavior, or sustained volunteerism, and so this review focuses on studies of volunteerism over time. The research of volunteerism over time can be divided into two major areas: (a) studies with a largely economic foundation for their assumptions and propositions and (b) studies with a largely social psychological foundation. The distinction between the areas of research is how they analyze volunteer behavior—what reward or payment the person gets from performing the volunteer act (economic), or what internal processes motivate the person to volunteer (psychological). As a result, the review of sustained volunteerism occurs according to these two categories. In this chapter, the researcher discusses the economic perspective before focusing on the development of sustained volunteerism in the social psychological literature. Additionally, the researcher summarizes the empirical studies within the social psychological literature for sustained volunteerism. This summary establishes a background for what has already been proven regarding volunteer behavior over time, as opposed to the various theoretical models of sustained volunteerism.

Economic Perspective

Economics is a social science that studies individuals and organizations engaged in the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services (Salvatore & Diulio, 2003). On a macro level, the goal of economics is to predict economic occurrences and to develop policies that might prevent or correct problems, such as unemployment, inflation, or waste in the economy. On a micro level, to economize is to choose (Silk, 1986). Each individual must choose

the best approach for satisfying his or her wants by allocating his or her limited time and energy to different uses and by distributing his or her income among the goods or services desired. Whether the problem of choice confronts the individual, a business organization, or a nation, solving the problem will involve some cost—some use of a resource (Silk 1986). Therefore, the sustained volunteerism literature within the economics perspective tends to approach volunteerism from the perspective that the person employs a conscious, rational choice to optimize resources, typically time.

The nonprofit organization using volunteers can be viewed as a special type of firm (Mueller, 1975). This special firm combines labor services and capital services, for which it pays either nothing or well below the market rate, to produce an output that it makes available for free or at prices well below market prices. The output of a volunteer organization (firm) often consists of a good or service that has the characteristic of a public good; that is, the good is consumed or experienced by a group of people, without regulation or restriction. For example, better schools is the output of a Parent–Teacher Association (PTA), clean water is the output of a conservation or environmental association, and safer traffic is the output of Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD) (Mueller, 1975).

Ultimately, the nonprofit volunteer organization uses volunteer labor to produce its output because the capital it uses is normally obtained through monetary donations or fundraising efforts. These volunteer laborers are paid or rewarded for their work with one or more of several non-monetary rewards. First, someone in the volunteer's household consumes the output of the volunteer organization (i.e., child attends school that benefits from PTA). Second, the volunteer obtains skills that increase his or her paid employment value. Third, volunteers receive noncollective output of the organization, such as prestige and social

recognition or free access to expensive events when ushering or providing tours. Finally, volunteers can be rewarded when their altruistic desires are met, such as feeling good because one improved another's circumstance (Mueller, 1975).

Altruism can be described as the purchase of moral satisfaction (Kahneman & Kruttsch, 1992). Or altruism can be described as self-sacrifice with no apparent personal reward (Bar-Tal, 1976). From the perspective of buying moral satisfaction, volunteers motivated by altruism can be viewed as *paying for* the satisfaction they receive through donating cash, time, blood, or some other sacrifice of their own resources or welfare (Strahilevitz & Zinkhan, 1998). In this case, altruism is an end-state satisfaction experienced because of the good deed. However, researchers who describe altruism as self-sacrifice for the benefit of others would say that if anything is gained from the deed, such as an improved community in which to live or good feelings from performing the deed, then the activity is not altruistic at all (Mueller, 1975; Unger, 1991).

There is great debate about whether volunteering is truly altruistic and how altruism should be defined. How should researchers account for the positive feelings people experience from giving (Unger, 1991)? Is emotional satisfaction truly payment, or is it merely a by-product because the primary motivation was the well-being of another person? The objective of this research was to understand how to encourage current volunteers to continue volunteering. Whether their behavior was altruistic or self-serving was not of interest. If the volunteers were fulfilled and the nonprofit's organizational mission benefited from the work, then the researcher was interested in the volunteer work continuing. For the purposes of this research, the debate of whether altruism is self-serving or selfless is moot; the result of volunteer behavior is a positive social effect (Unger, 1991).

Regardless of the perceived payment or reward, volunteerism can be viewed as an economic act because it involves an exchange of some sort. Volunteers exchange time, market-valued skills, and often money (e.g., transportation expenses or childcare) in order to gain benefits from volunteer activities (Paulhus, Schaffer, & Downing, 1977; Strober & Weinberg, 1980; Tomeh, 1981; Unger, 1991). The opportunity cost of this volunteer exchange is the time given up that could have been allocated to alternative uses, yielding an alternative return (Schram & Dunsing, 1981).

Traditional economic models assume that volunteers are well-informed, rational individuals who seek to maximize satisfying their desires with resources that are subject to constraints (Menchik & Weisbrod, 1987). Many volunteers face common constraints: the total number of hours available away from work, the wage rates the volunteers earn on their paid jobs, and the volunteers' nonwage income—vacation time, health insurance, and other benefits (Menchik & Weisbrod, 1987). From this perspective, volunteers decide to volunteer only after considering how much free time they have, how much income they forfeit by volunteering and not working, and if any of their nonwage income is forfeited by not working more hours. Menchik and Weisbrod (1987) found that women had negative wage elasticity; if their real wage income continued to increase, then their volunteer labor supply would decrease. That finding implies that nonprofit organizations would be very limited in their influence to retain volunteers over time. Nonprofit organizations cannot influence local wage rates, nor does this researcher think they would want to.

Some researchers classify volunteer work as a non-market activity because it does not directly yield monetary income (Schram & Dunsing, 1981). However, volunteerism can influence future consumption. Volunteer work is a type of human capital because it influences

future monetary income and future quality of life by increasing volunteers' individual skill sets and resources (Becker 1964; Schram & Dunsing, 1981). A person who volunteers today may obtain a paid position doing the same work in the future. A volunteer tutor could become a freelance tutor in the future. Or a family's quality of life could increase when a wife uses her typing skills gained while volunteering to type her husband's graduate term papers. The use of her skill supports her husband's pursuit of an advanced degree, and the family income increases when he obtains his goal. The mother who volunteers at the children's museum to teach kids various arts and crafts can save money and enrich her own children's lives by teaching them those same activities. Therefore, volunteer work is not completely a non-market activity. In these contexts, it could be considered an indirect market activity or a delayed market activity.

Some volunteers use their volunteer work to supplement their total work experience (Jenner, 1981). Therefore, these people seek to fulfill the unfilled aspects of their paid work through their volunteer assignment. A person who supervises a lot of people on her job may look forward to a volunteer assignment where she is responsible solely for her work and not the performance of others. Or if a person's paid job is routine and repetitious, he may embrace a volunteer assignment that has a breadth of responsibilities or one that calls for creativity.

The above studies are categorized as having an economic perspective because they focus on the anticipation of an outward payment the volunteer receives for performing the volunteer tasks. Even the altruism debate of self-serving versus selfless behavior is anchored in the assumption that the individual has calculated and assessed the reward, or absence of reward, before performing the first volunteer deed. Yet, Kekes (1988) argued that this traditional economic concept of perfect, pre-mediated rationality is incomplete because this concept interprets rationality in terms of trying to perform efficient action. Traditional economic

rationality does not recognize that rationality also involves trying to hold true to beliefs and to pursue beneficial goals. No account of efficient action can be complete without recognizing the crucial relevance of balancing the pursuit of values and beliefs with the pursuit of goals and objectives (Knox, 1999). The maximization of efficient action occurs when people find the actions that get them most of their values *and* most of their objectives.

Additionally, life is not quite so pre-meditated. While people pursue satisfaction and outcomes, this researcher does not think the paths to achieving satisfaction are as prescribed and pre-meditated as traditional economics would purport. As a result, this research turned to the social psychological perspective of volunteerism that allows for motivation from inward values as well as pursuit of outward results. This researcher acknowledges that as continual developments in economics begin to consider the intangibles of human behavior, the distinction between economics and other social sciences becomes more blurred. However, to facilitate the organization of this dissertation, the literature remains separated on the basis of rationalized, anticipated outcomes versus a less articulated internal drive to end up in a particular emotional or cognitive state.

Social Psychological Perspective

Social psychology is the study of relationships between individuals and social structures (Rogers, Stenner, Gleeson, & Rogers, 1995). Individuals are both influenced by and influential upon the social structures around them. For example, volunteers are influenced by the nonprofit organization. Yet, volunteers can also exert some level of influence upon the nonprofit organization. The interaction volunteers have with the social structures (features) of the nonprofit organization is social psychological in nature. Behavior within the volunteer is not triggered simply by observing the features of the nonprofit organization, but rather the

interaction of these features with the volunteer's motives and preferences triggers the volunteer behavior (Gollwitzer, 1996).

Research focused on social psychological processes begins with a basic assumption: that people have desired states toward which they continue striving until the person sufficiently experiences that state (Gollwitzer, 1996). Attaining this desired state provides a sense of logical and affective consistency for individuals as it allows them to experience the world in a manner that conforms to their beliefs, wishes, desires, values, and needs. Failure to attain the desired state propels the individual to strive toward that state again. From the social psychological perspective, scholars investigate how volunteer activities correspond to the beliefs, desires, or needs of the individual engaged in performing those volunteer activities.

Striving toward a desired state is what differentiates social psychological theory from economic theory. With social psychological research, the person does not have a conscious rationalization to pursue a goal or an end result. The person has iterative interactions with his or her surroundings that yield a feeling that is either comfortable or uncomfortable, based on how well the current state represents his or her beliefs, desires, values, and needs. If the person's state does not reflect where he or she wants to be, then another cycle of pursuit begins. The person's final choice may not be an optimal use of resources nor the most efficient approach in achieving the goal, but it feels right for the person.

A major assumption common to numerous investigations of human motivation (e.g., Higgins, 1987; Miller, Gallanter, & Pribram, 1960) is that various psychological motivations are often induced by perceived discrepancies between existing and desired states. A person's perceived discrepancy may prompt him or her to engage in an activity designed to eliminate the discrepancy (Kruglanski, 1996). And the more a person desires the end state, the greater the

tension that surfaces when a discrepancy from that goal is perceived (Festinger, 1957). The degree of tension may determine the intensity, extent, or pace of pursuit that occurs in order to obtain the goal or desired state (Kruglanski, 1996). In the social psychological context, the function of volunteerism for the individual is to provide him or her with some form of affective or cognitive satisfaction (Tomeh, 1981). The opportunity to volunteer allows individuals to bridge a gap in their immediate state of dissatisfaction (however mild or intense) and encounter new environments through the volunteer assignments to pursue affectual satisfaction, the desired end state (Tomeh, 1981).

Although volunteer behavior can occur outside of formal organizational settings, the focus of this research was sustained volunteerism within a nonprofit organization. Therefore, for the purpose of this dissertation, volunteerism was defined as long-term, planned, prosocial behaviors that benefit others and that occur within an organizational setting (Penner, 2002). Within the social psychology literature, there is a broad area of study called prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior, a group of activities performed by one person that benefits another person, are positive forms of social behavior, and thus the name prosocial. These behaviors are the antithesis of aggression and other negative social behaviors (Bar-Tal, 1976; Bar-Tal & Raviv, 1982). Prosocial behavior consists of a variety of acts, such as helping, sharing, cooperating, sympathizing, and donating money or time (Bar-Tal, 1976; Wispe' 1972). Adaptive, mature relationships within society depend on the ability of individuals to recognize the needs of others, to feel concern for their fellow humans, and to behave in ways that are congruent with this concerned understanding. The very process of civilization is intricately linked with the ability of societies to perform prosocial behaviors. Individuals tend to the needs of others in order to

nurture and protect their children, their families, and their communities (Zahn-Waxler & Radke-Yarrow, 1982). Therefore, general prosocial behavior is a natural part of society.

Functionalist Perspective of Behavior

The functionalist perspective is a theoretical foundation within social psychology that builds on the social psychological assumption that much of human behavior is motivated by achieving specific goals or addressing specific needs. This functionalist view is concerned with the reasons and purposes, as well as the plans and motives, that underlie and generate psychological phenomena, and it is concerned with the psychological functions being served by people's beliefs and actions (Snyder, 1992). Thus, if one wants to understand why a person has engaged in some behavior, one needs to identify the purpose or need served by that behavior (Penner, 2002). Therefore, in order to understand why volunteers continue to volunteer, scholars must identify and understand which needs are being met for individuals through their volunteer activities.

Additionally, the functionalist perspective asserts that different people may hold the same attitudes for different motivational reasons and to serve different psychological functions (Snyder, 1993). In the case of volunteering, different people can donate their time and abilities to the same organization or to the same task, although different needs are being met or different desires are being fulfilled (Penner, 2002). Likewise, volunteers who wish to fulfill the same need may choose different venues to accomplish their purpose. For example, two Girl Scout troop leaders may have volunteered for different reasons. One woman may wish to do something to make a little girl's life better. The other woman may wish to develop her patience and communication skills with children before she has her own children so she can be a better parent. Both people volunteered for the same assignment, yet they had two very different motives.

Likewise, two volunteers may have a desire to be part of something larger and more profound than themselves. One person may work directly with individuals through tutoring, believing that he or she can change the world one life at a time. The other person may volunteer with a large, multifaceted organization like the American Cancer Society, believing that efforts of a large organization with greater resources can yield a bigger impact in the world.

Volunteer Functions Inventory

In psychology, functionalist themes emphasize the adaptive and purposeful striving of individuals toward personal and social goals (Cantor, 1994; Snyder, 1993). People continue to adapt their activities and pursuits of fulfillment until their goals or desires are met. Smith, Bruner, and White's (1956) and Katz's (1960) studies are considered classics in investigating functionalist theory in personality and social psychology. The researchers in these two studies identified a variety of personal goals that people try to meet through their behavioral choices.

Clary et al. (1998) suggested that the variety of functionalist themes in Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) and Katz (1960) provide a context for understanding different dimensions of attitudes, persuasion, social cognition, social relationships, and personality. These functionalist themes guide the investigation of the complex motivations of volunteer activity (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Snyder & Omoto, 1992). Clary et al. (1998) built from classic research to propose the six motivational functions (end-state desires) that are fulfilled by volunteer behavior: values motive, understanding motive, social motive, career motive, protective motive, and enhancement motive. These six motives capture the goals individuals address through volunteering. While the social psychology literature calls these drives functions because of their functionalist derivation, this researcher calls these drives motives. The term *motives* is intuitively more straightforward.

The values motive allows volunteers to express their personal values related to altruism and humanitarian concern for others. The volunteers feel compelled to make life better for other people. The understanding motive exposes volunteers to new learning experiences and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills, and abilities that might otherwise go unpracticed. The social motive offers volunteers the opportunity to be with their friends or to engage in activities viewed favorably by their social circle. The career motive allows volunteers to obtain career-related benefits and experience from their volunteer work. The protective motive is met through volunteer work by reducing the guilt some volunteers feel from being more fortunate than others. This motive also allows volunteers to escape the worry of their own problems during the time they are performing volunteer work. Finally, the enhancement motive meets the volunteer's need to develop healthy and positive self-esteem. Volunteers feel better about themselves because they are doing good deeds.

Using these six motives, Clary et al. (1998) developed an inventory with a set of questions to measure each function. These six sub-scales comprised the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). This inventory facilitated data collection for a large part of Study 1 in this dissertation (see Appendix 4 for VFI scale items). Clary et al. (1998) tested their inventory with factor analysis, resulting in an almost perfectly clean structure. The theoretically derived motivations were distinct from each other and were evident in the responses of actual volunteers.

Volunteerism: A Functionalist Application

The functionalist perspective asserts that continued participation depends on the appropriate person–situation fit (Clary et al., 1998). Aspects of an individual's wishes, beliefs, desires, or needs have to be fulfilled within an environment for the person to continue in that role or environment. With respect to volunteers, functionalism asserts that continued volunteerism

requires an appropriate fit between not only the individual volunteer's wishes, beliefs, desires, or needs and the nonprofit organization but also the individual volunteer's wishes, beliefs, desires, or needs and the volunteer assignment within that organization.

By applying a functionalist perspective to research, Clary et al. (1998) developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory, described above. The researchers used the VFI to demonstrate that people can be recruited as volunteers by appealing to the individual's respective psychological motive. Recruited volunteers will become satisfied to the extent that they engage in volunteer work that serves their own psychological motives. Clary et al. (1998) also suggested that volunteers continue to serve as volunteers to the extent that their psychological functions are being served by their volunteer assignment. Their findings support the notion that coordinators of volunteer service organizations should maximize the extent to which they place volunteers in service opportunities that match their volunteer motivations and, in so doing, the organizations may reduce the turnover rate in their volunteer labor force.

For nonprofits, appreciating the different motivations among volunteers is tremendously important from a practical perspective. If volunteering serves different functions for different people, then it follows that volunteer organizations should tailor their recruitment efforts (and likely the actual volunteer experiences) to the particular motivations of specific types of volunteers (Snyder & Omoto, 1992). For volunteers, having situations compatible with their motivations may be one source of stability and continuity for those motivations over time.

Clary et al. (1998) experimented with varying recruitment advertising content for volunteers with the respective motivations for volunteering. One motivation was used in each advertising appeal. Participants completed a functions inventory and then rated which ads were most persuasive. Messages engaging volunteer-relevant motives (based on the functions

inventory) were rated as more appealing than were ads that did not employ the motive most important to the participant. Students who watched a message containing their own personal motive perceived that message as realistic, attention-getting, and effective, and they reported having an increased motivation to volunteer. Therefore, applying a functionalist approach to volunteer recruitment appears promising. As a result, the researcher believes it is reasonable to extend the functionalist application to volunteer retention practices.

When applying and testing the functional perspective, research moves beyond the theoretical notions of a person-centered approach, which addresses internal needs or motives, to a practical approach that has to account for internal needs and motives intersecting with *external circumstances*. The functionalist perspective cannot be practically tested without asking why people become involved (motives) *and* how people become involved (external opportunities employed). One must consider the experience's structural features that compel people to engage in ongoing behavior: types of activities, length of time, types of people with whom they interact, and values promoted by an organization (Stukas & Dunlap, 2002). Applying the functionalist theory actually yields an interactionist condition, which asserts that important consequences follow from matching individuals' motivations to the opportunities afforded by their environments. People come to an organization with expectations and motives for volunteering. Particular volunteer service tasks either do or do not fulfill these respective expectations and motives. Together, the volunteers' preferences and the features of the nonprofit organizations and volunteer assignments are integrated in the processes that individuals construct to achieve their goals. If the intersection is positive, sustained volunteerism results (Clary et al., 1998).

Most volunteer activities performed within nonprofit organizations are through formal assignments for the volunteer. Because of this organizational context, exploring the influences of

the volunteer organization on the individual volunteer's personal motivations is worthwhile. Organizational commitment is positively correlated with length of service. People are willing to work on behalf of organizations to which they feel committed (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Additionally, volunteers receiving organizational training and education, volunteers having the ability to tailor the volunteer assignment to their personal interests, and volunteers having a sense of cohesion within the nonprofit organization experience increased volunteer commitment to serve long term (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Researchers have also indicated that volunteer perceptions of organizational prestige influence the volunteer's service to the organization over time (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Individuals should feel better about volunteering for organizations they perceive as prestigious than for organizations they perceive as less prestigious. Even graduates have stronger alumni identification with institutions that have more attractive identities among their networks (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Therefore, volunteers' perceptions of their volunteer organization are likely to impact how they feel about continuing with that organization. The more prestigious or respected volunteers perceive their organization to be, the greater their intent to remain with the organization should be.

Tested Areas of Sustained Volunteerism

Researchers have investigated and empirically tested an array of volunteer behaviors in studies of sustained volunteerism within the social sciences discipline (see Table 3.1). These constructs of volunteer behavior can be grouped into four broad areas: predictors of behavior (intentions to volunteer and actual service), predictors of volunteer activity (amount of time spent per month), individuals' motives to volunteer, and mediating variables to sustained volunteerism.

Table 3.1. *Empirical Studies of Sustained Volunteerism*

Study ^a	Volunteer Behavior					Comments
	Intentions to Volunteer	Actual long-term volunteerism	Level of activity	Individual volunteer motivations	Mediating constructs for volunteerism	
Kiviniemi, Snyder, & Omoto (2002)				Volunteers with multiple motives were less satisfied than those with single motives		
Grube & Piliavin (2000)			Donor role identity was strongest predictor of amount of time given and intent to leave organization		Perceived expectations of others was strongest predictor of donor role identity. Specific role identity correlated with personal importance, prestige of organization, use of funds, # of volunteer friends, and loss of friends if left organization.	

(table continues)

Study ^a	Volunteer Behavior					Comments
	Intentions to Volunteer	Actual long-term volunteerism	Level of activity	Individual volunteer motivations	Mediating constructs for volunteerism	
Cnaan & Cascio (1999)		Several variables correlated with actual service: married, Judeo-Christian faith, received previous help, work with other agencies, involved in administrative work and policy, and received symbolic award	No demographic variables were correlated. Receiving symbolic awards were correlated.	Motivation to volunteer personality trait correlated with volunteer satisfaction and level of activity		Socioeconomic profiles and demographics were relevant for identifying likely volunteers, not increasing existing volunteers' commitment
Lee et al. (1999)	Past behavior and donor role identity were predictors of intentions to give				Past behavior and perceived expectations of others determined donor role identity	

(table continues)

Study ^a	Volunteer Behavior					Comments
	Intentions to Volunteer	Actual long-term volunteerism	Level of activity	Individual volunteer motivations	Mediating constructs for volunteerism	
Clary et al. (1998)	Volunteers whose service opportunities matched their motives intended to serve at a higher rate than those not matched with their motives			Developed and tested Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI): values, understanding, social, career, protective, enhancement	Satisfaction might have mediated relationship between matched fit and length of service. Volunteers were more satisfied with volunteer experience when important motives were fulfilled.	Scale developed and satisfaction tested with true volunteers; intent to volunteer tested with students in mandatory volunteer service course
Fisher & Ackerman (1998)	When perceived need of organization is high, promised recognition increased volunteer hours committed and expectations of social approval				Expectation of social approval appeared to mediate relationship between recognition and number of hours committed	

(table continues)

Study ^a	Volunteer Behavior					Comments
	Intentions to Volunteer	Actual long-term volunteerism	Level of activity	Individual volunteer motivations	Mediating constructs for volunteerism	
Penner & Finkelstein (1998)		Length of service correlated with organization satisfaction, helpfulness, and other-oriented traits, and values (altruism) motive	Amount of time spent correlated with organization satisfaction and positive feelings for volunteering. Attending organizational activities and organizational acceptance correlated with volunteer time.		Volunteer role identity appeared to mediate relationship between initial volunteerism and sustained volunteerism	Volunteer role identity was an obscure measure; measured as level of activity in Wave 2 of 3 waves of surveys
Omoto & Snyder (1995)		Only understanding and personal development motives predicted length of service		Developed inventory for motivations of AIDS volunteers: values, understanding, personal development, community concern, esteem enhancement		Demographics did not predict volunteer behavior. Helping disposition did not influence length of service or perceived attitude toward volunteering

(table continues)

Study ^a	Volunteer Behavior					Comments
	Intentions to Volunteer	Actual long-term volunteerism	Level of activity	Individual volunteer motivations	Mediating constructs for volunteerism	
Jenner (1981)				Primary volunteers satisfied self-actualizing motives. Supplemental volunteers satisfied need for association. Career-builders satisfied personal growth motive.		Volunteering filled 1 of 3 employment roles for women: primary work, supplemental work, career-enhancing

^a Studies are presented in reverse chronological order.

Predictors of Behavior

A few researchers have proposed approaches for predicting volunteer behavior. Intention to volunteer, actual length of volunteer service, and level of activity have been used as dependent variables to measure sustained volunteer behavior. Regarding intention to volunteer, past behavior (a previous history of giving), and donor role identity (perceiving self as a giver) were predictors of a volunteer's intention to continue volunteering (Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999). If a person had previously volunteered and perceived himself or herself as a person who gives, then that volunteer was more likely to donate his or her time again within the next year.

Clary et al. (1998) found that volunteer opportunities matched with the volunteer's motives for volunteering increase the volunteer's intent to continue volunteering over the next 1 to 5 years. When volunteers had assignments that were matched with the reasons that had initially motivated them to volunteer, those volunteers indicated they would continue volunteering after completing the term of the current assignment. This finding is noteworthy because student volunteers in Clary et al.'s study were involved in mandatory service for school credit. Their willingness to continue serving after their obligation had been fulfilled indicates their motivation for serving came from something other than fulfilling an obligation.

Fisher and Ackerman (1998) discovered that perceived need of the organization for the volunteer's service and the promised recognition to the volunteer from the organization increases the volunteer's intent to volunteer more hours with that particular organization. More research of the intentions to volunteer variable would be helpful in gaining a deeper understanding of volunteers. The field needs systematic research for predicting intentions to volunteer and for analyzing other facets of the variable. The value of using a behavioral intention measure to study volunteer commitment is discussed further in the Dependent Variable section of this chapter.

Another dimension of volunteer behavior is actual volunteer service performed. Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found that length of service was positively correlated with four variables: organizational satisfaction, the helpfulness personality trait, the other-oriented personality trait, and the values (altruism) motive. Similarly, the higher AIDS volunteers scored on the understanding motive and the higher AIDS volunteers scored on the personal development motive, the longer the volunteers served with volunteer organizations (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Cnaan and Cascio (1999) analyzed length of service in the context of personality variables. They found five traits that correlated with a greater number of months given to a service organization: intrinsic religious motivation, involvement in administration, involvement in policy, locus of control, and life satisfaction. This finding suggests that volunteer organizations can create work environments or volunteer assignments that can leverage existing intrinsic preferences within the volunteer.

Predictors of Volunteer Activity

The level of volunteer activity is another aspect of volunteer behavior that has been empirically tested. Instead of measuring total length of time served, this construct focuses on the intensity of volunteer work while serving (e.g., number of hours worked per month or number of organizational activities attended). This construct was examined in three studies. Grube and Piliavin (2000) found that donor role identity was the strongest predictor of the amount of time given to an organization, from among the variables they tested. The more the volunteer perceives himself or herself as a giver to a particular organization, the more committed he or she is to giving more of his or her time. Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found a positive correlation with amount of time spent and several variables: (a) organizational satisfaction, (b) positive feelings for volunteering, (c) attendance of organizational activities, and (d) levels of organizational

acceptance. Similar to the positive feelings for volunteering variable, Cnaan and Cascio (1999) identified motivation to volunteer as a variable significantly correlated to number of hours given per month. Amount of time spent is an important construct for nonprofits to understand that have year-round volunteer needs, demanding tasks and events, or both.

Individuals' Motives to Volunteer

Another aspect of sustained volunteer behavior that has been empirically tested is volunteer motives. Kiviniemi et al. (2002) tested the level of satisfaction in the context of the number of motives a volunteer has for volunteering: single versus multiple motives. Volunteers with multiple motives for volunteering were less satisfied with their volunteer experience than were volunteers with a single motive (Kiviniemi et al., 2002). Other researchers offered a functionalist perspective of volunteerism, arguing that the same activity (volunteering) could serve different motives for different people (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). These researchers developed an inventory of motives to represent the spectrum of functions served by the volunteering activity. Although they developed similar constructs or functions, the labels are slightly different. Table 3.2 presents a comparison of the motive labels.

Clary et al. (1998) developed a general volunteerism inventory, whereas Omoto and Snyder's (1995) inventory was specific to AIDS volunteerism. The values motive was defined as a person's altruistic perspective that makes volunteering important, and the understanding motive was defined as a person's zeal to learn new skills and understand new environments. These motives were the same for both inventories. The social motive dealt with volunteers meeting new friends and receiving positive feedback from existing friends. The career motive enabled volunteers to enhance their employment skills. Both motives in the Clary et al. (1998) research were captured in the personal development motive from the Omoto and Snyder (1995)

inventory. The protective motive dealt with escaping feelings of guilt from the volunteer's own success or escaping feelings of anxiety about one's own life, whereas the enhancement motive allowed the volunteer to build his or her self-esteem and self-image. Both motives were captured in the esteem motive from Omoto and Snyder (1995). The only motive that did not overlap between the two inventories was the community concern function in Omoto and Snyder (1995). This motive focused on concerns for and a sense of obligation to the gay community who was dramatically affected by AIDS and who was the focus of the volunteer work in Omoto and Snyder's research.

Table 3.2. *Parallels of Inventory Functions*

General volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998)	AIDS volunteerism (Omoto & Snyder, 1995)
Values	Values
Understanding	Understanding
Social	Personal development
Career	
Protective	Esteem enhancement
Enhancement	
--	Community concern

Finally, Jenner (1981) viewed volunteer work from a career perspective. She segmented volunteer work into three groups: volunteer work as the primary work, volunteer work as a supplement to a paid job, and volunteer work as a career-building opportunity for those wishing

to enhance skills for better paid work opportunities. Jenner found that volunteers whose primary work is their volunteer role seek to fulfill their self-actualization motives with this work. Volunteers whose volunteer work is supplemental to a paid job often fulfill their need for association through their volunteer work. Volunteers who donate their time to improve their own skills seek to fulfill their personal growth motive through their volunteer work.

The volunteer inventories from Clary et al. (1998) and Omoto and Snyder (1995) have significantly helped professionals in the social science disciplines understand how volunteers use their service to fulfill personal motives. Because the inventories are very similar, they provide a solid foundation on which to build when studying why people volunteer.

Mediating Variables of Volunteerism

In several empirical studies of volunteer behavior, the models have mediating variables that lead to sustained volunteerism. Role identity is identified as a mediating construct in a few studies. Volunteer role identity appears to mediate the relationship between initial volunteerism and sustained volunteerism (Penner & Finkelstein 1998). Donor role identity appears to mediate the relationship between perceived expectations of others and amount of time spent as well as between perceived expectations of others and intentions to give (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee et al., 1999). Specific role identity with a particular organization is positively correlated with personal importance, prestige of the organization, how well the volunteer perceives the organization uses funds, and the number of friends the volunteer would lose if he or she stopped volunteering (Grube & Piliavin, 2000).

Two additional variables appear to mediate relationships with volunteerism. Satisfaction with the volunteer experience may be a mediating factor between matched volunteer motives and sustained volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998). Expectation of social approval appears to mediate

the relationship between recognition for volunteer work and number of hours committed to volunteer. More research is required to draw deeper conclusions about these constructs.

In summary, more empirical studies testing the same dependent variables would deepen knowledge of these aspects of volunteer behavior. Several existing studies are correlational and do not establish causal relationships. While these findings are important in building knowledge about volunteer behavior over time, experiments to establish causal relationships among variables would anchor the knowledge base concerning volunteer behavior to a solid foundation. Furthermore, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) used an obscure measure for volunteer role identity, and more work to test this mediating variable between initial volunteerism and sustained volunteerism would anchor the extant knowledge concerning this variable. Researchers need to know whether to include or exclude volunteer role identity as a mediating variable in future models that test any aspect of volunteerism. The knowledge gained from research on sustained volunteerism should begin to shape policy and decision-making in the nonprofit sector.

Further research of sustained volunteerism is important because of the economic impact volunteerism has on communities (Schram & Dunsing, 1981; Unger, 1985). Additionally, understanding volunteer satisfaction by the degree to which volunteers' needs are met is important for improving volunteer programs (Henderson, 1981). When charitable organizations understand the motivators for volunteer participation, they can design volunteer opportunities to address the respective motivators that people want satisfied in their volunteer work.

CHAPTER 4

FOSTERING SUSTAINED VOLUNTEERISM THROUGH COMMUNICATIONS

In this study, the researcher examined whether customized communication could influence volunteer satisfaction and volunteer intentions over time. Customized communication is tailored and/or personalized communication to a target group (Feinberg et al., 2002). In the marketing literature, customized communications often attract customer attention and foster customer loyalty (Ansari & Mela, 2003). Dell Corporation and Amazon.com attribute a large portion of their repeat purchases and cross-selling to their ability to customize the Web content their customers view (Ansari & Mela, 2003).

In the health education literature, tailored and non-tailored print communications were used to influence behavioral change among overweight people for healthy weight loss (Kreuter et al., 2000). Health education materials that were well matched to the respondents' psychological and lifestyle needs were more influential in effectuating positive behavioral changes than were poorly matched health education materials. Kreuter et al. (2000) demonstrated that customization of materials is important for effective behavioral change. As a result, in this dissertation, the researcher applied customized communications to volunteers, expecting that volunteer loyalty would be fostered and volunteers would intend to work in the organization long term.

The customization in this research was based on the functionalist perspective that human behavior is motivated by the need to achieve or fulfill specific goals. When a need or goal is met, behavior will continue in order to maintain fulfillment of the goal or need. Each person volunteers to fulfill a need or goal. If the volunteer activity meets the need or fulfills the goal,

then the person continues volunteering. Customization occurred by addressing a volunteer need in the communications from the nonprofit organization to the volunteer.

The communication within a nonprofit organization was selected because it is a relatively inexpensive method for increasing volunteer satisfaction and service over time as compared to other organizational levers. Often, nonprofit organizations relying on volunteers have limited budgets and need inexpensive solutions. Investigating the influence of communication on volunteer satisfaction is important because research suggests that greater volunteer satisfaction leads to greater volunteer retention (Clary et al., 1998; Tsai, 2000). If nonprofit organizations can find ways to retain their volunteers, the nonprofits can devote more of their resources toward accomplishing their organizational mission instead of having to bolster their volunteer workforce.

Research Design and Hypotheses

Study 1

Study 1 customized communication with volunteers by using thank-you letters that corresponded to the wording of their primary VFI motive, developed by Clary et al. (1998). These motives were protective, values, career, social, understanding, or enhancement. By matching the words of gratitude and recognition in the thank-you letters to components of their primary motive for volunteering, each volunteer had a customized thank-you letter (see Appendix 1 for each thank-you letter). Prior research has demonstrated that volunteers who have assignments that fulfill their primary motive increase their satisfaction and their intent to volunteer long term. Study 1 tested whether communicating to volunteers with words that matched their motives could achieve similar results to having actual assignments that fulfilled

volunteer motives, even when actual assignments were not matched. Table 4.1 illustrates the study design.

Table 4.1. *Study 1: 4x3 Factorial Design*

Thank-you letters	Motive fulfillment		
	Met	Unmet	Unaware
Matched			
Unmatched			
Generic			
Control			

Note. Thank-you letters matched or did not match volunteers' primary motive. Motive fulfillment was classified as whether the volunteer assignment fulfilled volunteers' primary motive. Unaware volunteers did not articulate varying levels of fulfillment. The assignment equally fulfilled all or none of the VFI areas.

Clary et al. (1998) demonstrated that when volunteers are placed in volunteer assignments that fulfill their motives for volunteering, volunteers are more satisfied and have higher intent to remain in the assignment than do volunteers who are not placed in assignments that fulfill their volunteer motives. In Study 1, the researcher tested whether matched communication could compensate for unmatched volunteer assignments. Two factors were assessed: type of thank-you letters and motive fulfillment in volunteer job assignment. In the first factor, type of thank-you letters, there were four levels: matched, unmatched, generic, and control. The matched and unmatched levels allowed the researcher to observe the effects of volunteers having the thank-you letter appropriately matched to their motive and of having a

mismatched or unmatched thank-you letter versus their motive. The generic and control levels allowed the researcher to observe the effect of volunteers merely being thanked and of having no letter at all. In the second factor, motive fulfillment in volunteer job assignment, there were three levels: met, unmet, and unaware. The met level allowed the researcher to observe the effects of the letters when volunteers were placed in assignments that met their primary motives for volunteering. The unmet level allowed the researcher to observe the effects of the letters when volunteers were not placed in assignments that met their primary motives for volunteering. The unaware level allowed for the possibility of volunteers not being in touch with their fulfillment levels. The comparison of the met and unmet levels enabled the researcher to determine whether matched communication could compensate for the placement of volunteers in assignments that did not fulfill their primary motives for volunteering. Figure 4.1 illustrates the research hypotheses for this research design (see Figure 4.1).

Six dependent variables were measured in this study: intent to remain in organization, intent to remain in assignment, satisfaction in organization, satisfaction in assignment, level of activity in organization, and level of activity in assignment. The results for these variables are referred to as the dependent variables or as DV scores throughout the remainder of this dissertation.

H₁ tested whether customized communications to volunteers were more persuasive than communications that were not customized and than customization communications that were wrongly matched. If H₁ was supported, it would demonstrate that the functionalist theory could be successfully extended to communication. Communications that addressed a volunteer's need could foster continued behavior. If H₂ was supported, it would demonstrate that indirect fulfillment could occur through communication in producing similar results as an actual matched

assignment. As long as a sense of fulfillment occurred, communicated or actual, behavior would continue. H_3 accounted for the volunteers who might not have been in touch with their motives. It would verify whether customized communications based on volunteer motives had any influence, even when volunteers were unable to articulate their motives.

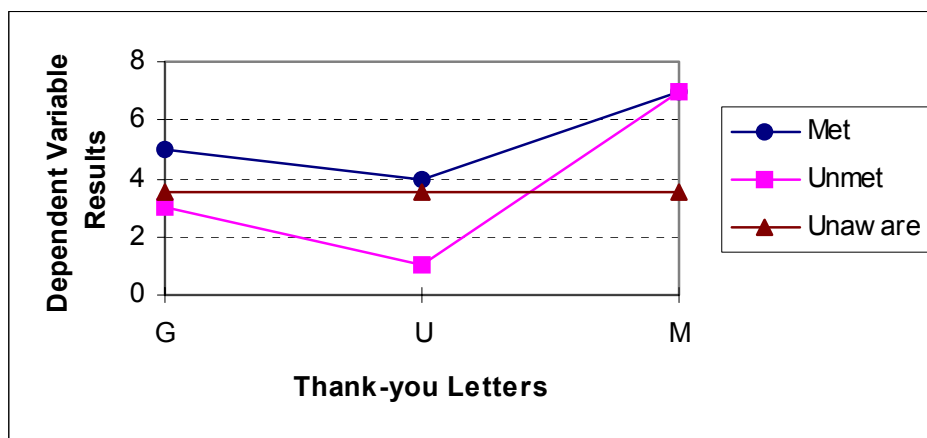


Figure 4.1. Study 1 hypotheses. G = generic letters, U = unmatched letters, M = matched letters.

H_1 : Volunteers with matched thank-you letters will have higher dependent variable (DV) scores than will volunteers with unmatched thank-you letters and generic thank-you letters. H_2 : Volunteers with matched thank-you letters, in unmet assignments, will have similar DV scores as will volunteers with matched thank-you letters in met assignments. H_3 : Volunteers who are unaware of their assignment fulfillment respond the same to all thank-you letters.

Alternative Study 1 hypothesis. Two of the motives tested in Study 1 could yield results different from what were predicted above. The protective and career motives could potentially elicit different responses because those two motives had solely self-fulfilling objectives. People might not want to admit that those motives were their primary drivers for volunteering. As a

result, cognitive dissonance could occur. If a person holds two conflicting beliefs, tension arises; that person subsequently changes one of the beliefs in order to have congruence among his or beliefs and to relieve that tension (Ajzen, 1988; Festinger, 1957).

Prior to completing the questionnaire, the volunteer might believe that he or she volunteered solely to serve others. This volunteer also believed he or she was satisfied with his or her volunteer assignment. Reading the thank-you letter now made the volunteer aware of why he or she was satisfied—the protective or career motive. Now the volunteer saw that their volunteering had not been altruistic in nature. The volunteer had a choice to make in order to relieve his or her dissonance; either he or she rejected that volunteerism was solely altruistic, or he or she rejected that they were satisfied with the volunteer assignment (see Figure 4.2).

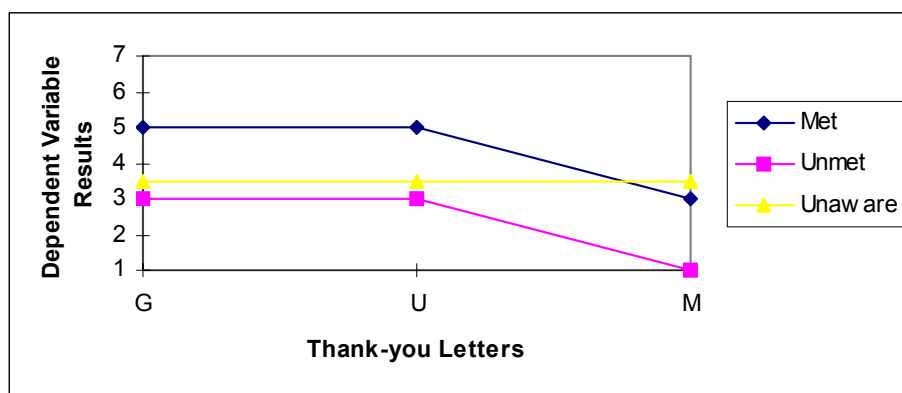


Figure 4.2. Alternative Study 1 hypothesis. G = generic letters, U = unmatched letters, M = matched letters. H_4 : For the protective and career motives, matched letters will have lower DV results as compared to generic and unmatched letters.

If H_4 was supported, the generic and unmatched letters would not challenge the volunteers' view of what volunteerism was about. The unmatched letters for these motives were values, understanding, social, or enhancement. Therefore, unmatched and generic letters would produce similar results. The matched letters would challenge the volunteers' beliefs and create dissonance, resulting in the volunteers choosing to be less satisfied with their volunteer assignments instead of choosing to change their view about volunteerism.

Study 2

Study 2 customized communication by using a newsletter article about the volunteer organization, highlighting several accomplishments of that organization. The volunteer's exposure to the newsletter was intended to foster a greater perception of prestige about the organization. As the volunteer perceived the organization as more prestigious, the volunteer's long-term service to the organization would increase (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Customization occurred by appealing to volunteers' need or preference for association with a prestigious organization. The newsletter informed the volunteers and the community of the nonprofit's accomplishments, which heightened the volunteer's sense of prestige about the organization. Lane and Russell (2001) asserted that publicity is more persuasive than advertising. Study 2 tested whether the matched newsletter communication could compensate for volunteers not being exposed to persuasive information regarding the organization's prestige. In this study, I tested whether communication with volunteers could influence perceptions of prestige in order to achieve increased intentions to serve over time. Table 4.2 depicts the study's design.

Table 4.2. *Study 2: 2x2 Factorial Design*

Internal newsletter	External newsletter	
	Yes	No
Yes		
No		

Note. Newsletters are in Appendix 1.

The functionalist theory asserts that people continue behavior when their goals, needs, or motives for the behavior are met. Grube and Piliavin (2000) suggested that the more prestigious volunteers perceive the organization for which they work to be, the more satisfied the volunteers are likely to be with their volunteer assignments. Therefore, in Study 2, the researcher assessed two factors: external newsletter and internal newsletter. Each factor had two levels, yes or no, regarding the volunteer's exposure to the organization's accomplishments. The researcher expected that the more accomplishments the volunteer knew about the organization, the more prestigious he or she would perceive the volunteer organization to be. Figure 4.3 illustrates the research hypotheses for the Study 2 design (see Figure 4.3).

These hypotheses allowed the researcher to verify whether matching communication to volunteers based on their need for affiliation with a prestigious organization could positively influence their satisfaction and commitment to their volunteer assignments. If H_2 was supported, it would verify whether publicity remained more influential than advertising, even for a nonprofit organization's communication with its volunteers.

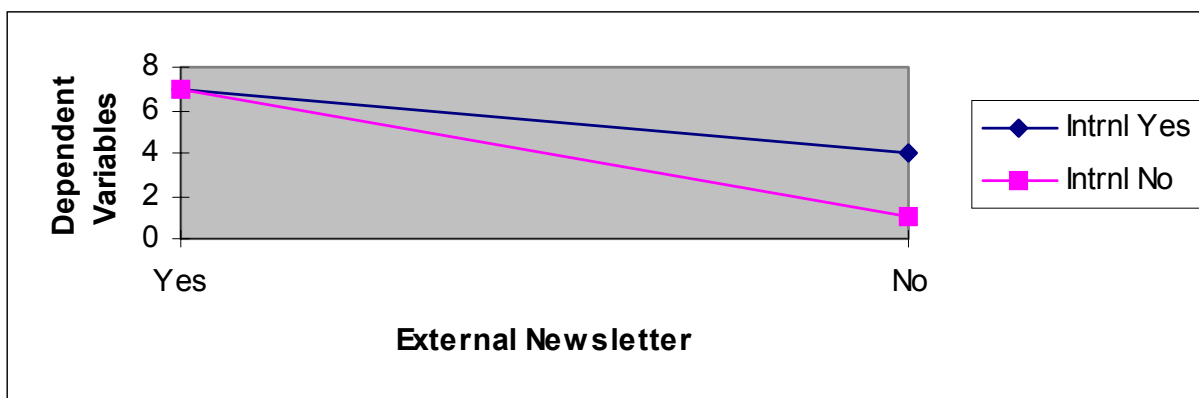


Figure 4.3. Study 2 hypotheses. H_1 : Volunteers exposed to the nonprofit organization's accomplishments will have higher dependent variable (DV) scores than volunteers who are not exposed to that information. H_2 : Volunteers exposed to external newsletter information about the nonprofit organization's accomplishments have higher DV scores than volunteers who are exposed to the internal newsletter information.

Alternative Study 2 hypothesis. Study 2 could potentially yield results different from what were predicted above. The hypotheses presumed that every volunteer wanted to be associated with prestigious organizations. Some volunteers might believe that recognition and association with prestigious organizations were opposite to what volunteering was supposed to represent. As a result, cognitive dissonance could occur within them. As described earlier, if a person holds two conflicting beliefs, tension arises; that person then changes one of the beliefs to achieve congruence among his or beliefs and to relieve that tension (Ajzen 1988; Festinger 1957).

Prior to reading the article, the volunteer might believe that he or she volunteered solely to serve others. This volunteer also believed he or she was satisfied with his or her volunteer assignment. Reading the article about organizational accomplishments now made the volunteer aware that he or she was part of a prestigious organization. Now the volunteer saw that his or her

volunteering might be part of something that was not completely altruistic in nature. The volunteer had a choice to make to relieve his or her dissonance; either he or she had to reject that volunteerism was solely altruistic, or he or she had to reject that he or she was satisfied with the volunteer assignment (see Figure 4.4).

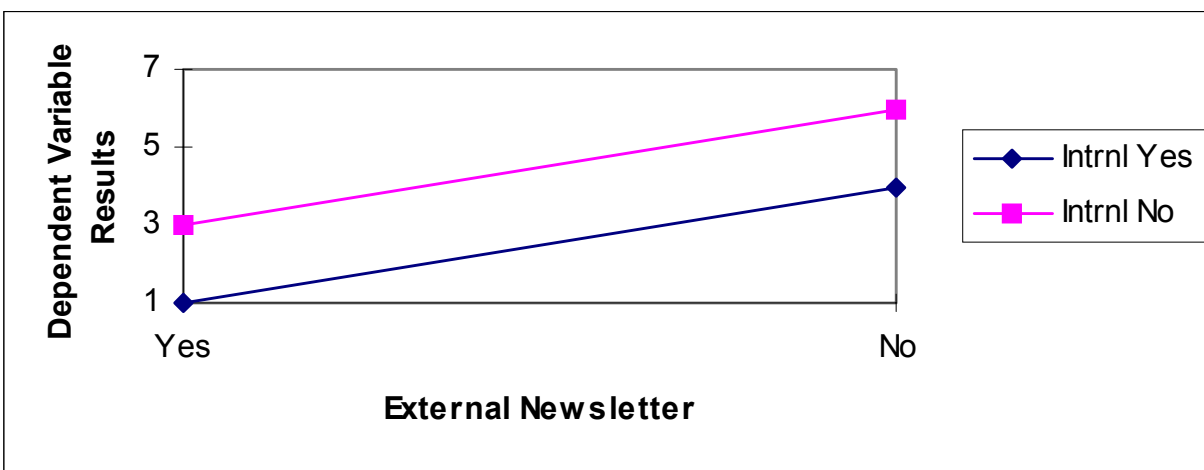


Figure 4.4. Alternative Study 2 hypothesis. H_3 : For volunteers who do not wish to be associated with prestigious organizations, exposure to the organization's accomplishments reduces their dependent variable results. External information produces lower results than does internal information because more people are made aware of the organizational prestige.

Measurement

The measures used in this research were either validated in other studies or modified from other scales and tested for internal consistency. The VFI and Assignment's Ability to Fulfill Motives (AAFMM) inventories were validated in Clary et al. (1998). The Intent to Remain scale was validated by Bozeman and Perrewé (2001). For this dissertation, the researcher created the Satisfaction with Organization/Assignment scale by taking several items from scales by Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) and Clary et al. (1998). Therefore, the researcher conducted a

pre-test with Lions Club International volunteers to verify that this new single scale truly measured one construct. The scale's Cronbach alpha was 0.84. The Level of Activity in Organization/Assignment scale was modified from Penner and Finkelstein (1998) to use wording that reflected intentions instead of actual behavior because the dependent variables in this dissertation measured behavioral intentions. This scale's Cronbach alpha was 0.74. One item was deleted to obtain an alpha above 0.70. The study questionnaires presented the research measures to the volunteer participants in the following order:

1. Questionnaire 1A Inventory Measures (Thank-you Study only—Study 1)
 - a. Volunteer Functions Inventory (to measure motives—see Appendix 4)
 - b. Assignment's Ability to Fulfill Motives (to determine met/unmet assignment—see Appendix 5)
2. Questionnaire 1B Dependent Variables (both Thank-you and Newsletter a. Studies—Studies 1 and 2)
 - b. Test Material (Thank-you letters—see Appendix 1, or Newsletter—see Appendix 2)
 - c. Intent to Remain in Organization scale (see Appendix 6 for all dependent variables)
 - d. Intent to Remain in Assignment scale
 - e. Satisfaction in Organization scale
 - f. Satisfaction in Assignment scale
 - g. Level of Activity in Organization scale
 - h. Level of Activity in Assignment scale

Inventory Measures

The VFI measured volunteer motives. In this research, the reasons identified for volunteering were labeled *motives*. The same identified reasons were labeled *functions* in the social psychology literature (Clary et al., 1998; Penner, 2002). Six sub-scales comprised the inventory: protective, values, career, social, understanding, and enhancement (Clary et al., 1998). Cronbach alphas for the sub-scales ranged between .80 and .89. The items were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all important*) to 7 (*extremely important*). The highest average score of the sub-scales was the primary volunteer motive. An example of a protective sub-scale item was “No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.” An example of an understanding sub-scale item was “Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience.” Each item for the VFI is listed in Appendix 4.

If a volunteer participant tied between two or more motives, the researcher assigned one of those motives as primary motive for that volunteer. Based on the questionnaires that had been completed until that point, the researcher assigned a volunteer with tied motives, the motive with the smallest sample size. The researcher kept a tally of how many volunteers fell into each primary motive group and how many volunteer participants received matched, unmatched, generic, or control letters. In the sample VFI results presented in Table 4.3, the social motive was the primary motive for the ideal results. For the tied motive results, the values motive, or the enhancement motive, would be assigned as the primary motive, depending on which motive had the fewest participants from the sample.

Table 4.3. *Comparison of Primary Motive versus Tied Motive Results*

Ideal	Results	Tied	Results
Protective	3.8	Protective	4.6
Values	5.8	Values	6.0
Career	2.2	Career	2.8
Social	6.8	Social	2.4
Understanding	5.4	Understanding	4.6
Enhancement	4.8	Enhancement	5.8

Note. Ties occurred when secondary motive was ≤ 0.3 points from primary motive. Scale = 1 (*does not describe at all*) to 7 (*completely describes*).

The AAFM measure corresponded to the VFI functions (Clary et al., 1998). This measure allowed volunteers to report which aspects of the six VFI sub-scales were fulfilled in their current volunteer assignment. Cronbach alphas for sub-scales ranged between .75 and .89 (see Appendix 5 for each of the AAFM scale items). Items were scored on a 7 point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*does not describe at all*) to 7 (*completely describes*). If the sub-scale average for the primary volunteer motive was 5 or higher, then the assignment was classified as met. This hurdle was created in case the volunteer's highest VFI motive fulfilled had a low score. A volunteer might respond that his or her assignment did not fulfill any of the motives well. The researcher did not consider a motive fulfilled or met that had a score of 3, even if that was the highest score of all the VFI motives. Sample results for the AAFM inventory are listed in Appendix 5. Using the sample data in Appendix 5, a volunteer's assignment would be considered met if his or her primary motive was protective, values, or enhancement. These

motive areas scored 5 or above. For people with tied primary motives, the assignment was considered met if either primary motive was fulfilled.

Dependent Measures for Both Studies

Each dependent variable was measured for the specific volunteer assignment and for the overall volunteer organization, yielding six separate dependent variables (see Appendix 6 for each dependent variable scale). Capturing both facets of the volunteer's commitment allowed the researcher to assess whether the communication increased organizational commitment, assignment commitment, or both. Several nonprofit organizations would likely to want to keep the volunteer within the organization, even if he or she changed assignments. Other organizations might need the volunteers to stay in the jobs for which they had been assigned or trained. This analysis allowed the researcher to capture any data that provided insight into how to foster assignment commitment versus organizational commitment. The actual questionnaire arranged questions randomly so respondents would not get confused by some questions that had similar wording.

The Intent to Remain in the Organization and the Intent to Remain in This Assignment scales were scored on a 7-point Likert-type, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). An example of an Intent to Remain in the Organization scale item is "I would accept almost any type of volunteer assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization." An item from the Intent to Remain in this Assignment scale is "For me, this is the best of all possible volunteer assignments at this organization." Both scales measured intent to remain, yet each scale focused on a different facet of volunteer commitment. The first scale examined commitment to the organization, whereas the second scale examined commitment to the assignment. Another dependent variable measured was satisfaction. Both satisfaction scales were

scored on a 7-point Likert-type, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). An item from the Satisfaction in Volunteer Organization scale is “This organization accomplishes its objectives well.” The Satisfaction in Volunteer Assignment scale differs from the organization scale by focusing on the specific assignment within the volunteer organization. For example, the corresponding scale item is “I am capable of performing my volunteer tasks well.” Both level of activity scales were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 7 (*completely agree*). (See Appendix 6 for each of the dependent variable scale items.).

Data Collection Procedures

Study 1: Thank-you Letter Study

The researcher obtained IRB approval on September 15, 2003, to conduct the study. Subsequently, a notification letter was mailed to all 800 active volunteers from the museum manager of volunteer services to encourage volunteers to participate in the study. When the volunteers arrived to participate in the study, the researcher was in the Volunteer Office with questionnaire materials.

As each volunteer entered the office, each volunteer printed his or name on a sign-in sheet next to a respondent number. The volunteer read the consent form and signed it (see Appendix 3 for a sample form). The volunteer kept one copy of the consent form and left a signed copy with the research assistant. If several volunteers arrived at one time, the researcher or the assistant asked the volunteers to form a line so that each volunteer received instructions one at a time.

Each volunteer received Questionnaire 1A (VFI and AAFM inventories). Each volunteer was instructed not to talk to anyone while completing the questionnaire. The volunteer was seated while completing Questionnaire 1A.

After the volunteer turned in completed Questionnaire 1A, he or she was given a sheet of paper with his or her respondent number so that the appropriate Questionnaire 1B was given to him or her upon return from the volunteer assignment. Or, if the volunteer could not come back later, the volunteer waited for Questionnaire 1B to be prepared. The volunteers were instructed not to discuss the types of questions or content of this study with any volunteers or museum employees while working in their assignments.

While the volunteers were performing their volunteer assignments, the researcher scored VFI and AAFM responses. The researcher kept a tally of volunteer motive and assignment fulfillment of each volunteer by respondent number. Volunteers were assigned matched, unmatched, generic, or control (no letter) letters in a rotating fashion once they were determined Motive 1 met or unmet, Motive 2 met or unmet, etc.

The researcher determined the appropriate thank-you letter to give to the volunteer. The appropriate thank-you letter and corresponding respondent number were attached to Questionnaire 1B (dependent variable scales).

For a tally sheet, the researcher entered a respondent number in an appropriate cell for each participant. For participants with tied primary motives, the researcher marked a *T* next to the respondent number, so that volunteers with multiple primary motives could later be compared to volunteers with single primary motives.

If VFI primary motive was tied, the researcher assigned a matched letter based on the motive that was likely to have had a smaller sample size. If both tied motives had similar sample sizes, the absolute highest score was coded as the primary motive. (The researcher monitored the tally sheet to estimate which motives had smaller sample sizes.). For assigning the unmatched letter, the researcher assigned the lowest-scored motive for that volunteer.

For determining AAFM, the volunteer assignment was coded as met if the primary motive area had an average score of 5 or higher. If primary motive area had an average score of less than 5, then the assignment was coded as unmet. If the volunteer had a tie for his or her primary motive, then the assignment was coded met if either of the tied motive areas was fulfilled by receiving an average score of 5 or higher. For the volunteer whose average scores in all motive areas were similar (all fulfilled, or none fulfilled), he or she was coded as unaware.

Once the appropriate thank-you letter was determined and attached, the respondent number was assigned to Questionnaire 1B (dependent variable scales). Questionnaire 1B was placed in an organizing rack in ascending numerical order for ease of locating the packet when the volunteer returned. Or Questionnaire 1B was given directly to the volunteer if he or she waited to complete both parts. When the volunteer returned, he or she handed in his or her respondent number and received the corresponding Questionnaire 1B packet.

Volunteers were instructed not to talk to anyone while completing the survey. Volunteers went into the Volunteer Lounge across the hallway to read the thank-you letter and to answer Questionnaire 1B. Volunteers returned to the Volunteer Office to turn in the completed Questionnaire 1B. Each volunteer received the debriefing letter, read it, and signed it, leaving a signed copy with the research assistant.

Volunteers were instructed not to discuss the questions or content of this study with any volunteers or museum employees until after a 2-week period when the study was finished.

During down time, the research assistant e-mailed volunteers to ask them to come into the museum to participate in the study. The assistant used a sign-in sheet and compared the names on the sheet to names on the museum volunteer roster to determine who had not yet participated. Volunteers who had not yet participated in the study and who provided an e-mail

address on the roster received an e-mail reminding them of the study and asking them to participate.

Study 2: Newsletter Study

The researcher compared the names on the sign-in sheets from Study 1, the thank-you letter study, to names on the museum volunteer roster of 800 volunteers to determine who had not participated in Study 1. The researcher randomly chose 245 volunteers who had not participated in Study 1 and mailed them the Newsletter Questionnaire. As the questionnaires were mailed, the researcher randomly assigned the volunteer name and address labels to the four treatment groups (internal newsletter only, external newsletter only, internal and external newsletters, control—no newsletter).

The volunteer received the Newsletter Questionnaire 2 packet (cover letter from museum, consent form, newsletter article, dependent variable scales, and a stamped, addressed envelope). The volunteers returned the completed Questionnaire 2 to the researcher in the stamped envelope provided.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In Chapter 1, this dissertation established that volunteers are continually faced with the choice of whether they should remain volunteers. Because of this choice, nonprofit organizations are continually challenged to communicate effectively with volunteers regarding the benefits of remaining with their particular organization.

In Chapter 3, this dissertation presented the functionalist perspective, which asserts that every action is an attempt to fulfill an affective need. If a person continues to perform a behavior, the functionalist perspective asserts that the behavior meets a need or serves a function in that person's life. In particular, if a person is going to continue volunteering, he or she will do so because the volunteer assignment fulfills a need. If motives for volunteering are met in a volunteer assignment, volunteers intend to stay longer in that assignment (Clary et al., 1998).

This study expanded on the Clary et al. (1998) research by applying motive fulfillment to communication. Marketers often need to persuade or influence through communication. Because nonprofits are challenged to keep their current volunteers, they need to find ways to persuade or influence their volunteers. This dissertation investigated whether that influence could occur through communication, that is whether customized communication could influence volunteer satisfaction and volunteer intentions. The premise of this dissertation was that matched thank-you letters would increase dependent variable scores overall, and, specifically, matched letters would increase the scores of unmet volunteers, those volunteers in assignments that did not meet their motive for volunteering. The unmet volunteers were of interest because past research suggests they are the volunteers most vulnerable to leaving the organization.

The thank-you letters were customized according to the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI is a framework for understanding the complex motivations of volunteer activity. Clary et al. (1998) built an inventory from classic research and validated it. The validated inventory determined that six motivational functions (end-state desires) are fulfilled by volunteer behavior: values motive, understanding motive, social motive, career motive, protective motive, and enhancement motive. Each motive has five scale items that measure the respective motive. All 30 scale items constitute the VFI (see Appendix 4 for each of the VFI scale items). The motive with the highest average score of its five scale items became the volunteer's primary motive.

Volunteers also completed the Assignment's Ability to Fulfill Motives (AAFM) inventory to determine whether their primary motive was fulfilled. This inventory corresponds to the six motive areas in the VFI. In the AAFM, three scale items measured fulfillment for each motive. Volunteers were asked how well the statements described their current volunteer assignment. An example of an AAFM scale item for the Enhancement motive is "I felt important." Items were scored on a 7- point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*does not describe at all*) to 7 (*completely describes*). If the sub-scale average for the primary motive was 5 or higher, then the motive fulfillment was classified as met and the volunteer would be considered a met volunteer. The AAFM allowed the volunteers to report the extent to which their current volunteer assignment fulfilled each of the motive areas.

The following is a review of the data collection timeline. (Please see the Data Collection Procedures section of Chapter 4 for the complete details of this process.) A notification letter was mailed to the 800 active museum volunteers from the museum manager of volunteer services. The questionnaires were administered to the volunteers over a 2-week period.

Volunteers were instructed not to discuss the study with one another until the study was completed.

Volunteers arrived at the museum for their volunteer assignment. They signed in for the study, were assigned a respondent number, and read and signed the consent form. Each volunteer completed Questionnaire 1A (VFI and AAFM inventories). After completing Questionnaire 1A, volunteers performed the duties of their assignments. While volunteers fulfilled their volunteer responsibilities, the researcher scored the VFI and AAFM inventories to determine the volunteers' respective primary motives and motive fulfillment.

Once the volunteers' primary motive and motive fulfillment was determined, they were assigned the appropriate thank-you letter. The letter was either matched with their primary motive making it a matched letter or the thank-you letter was different from their primary motive making it an unmatched letter, or the letter was a generic thank-you letter that did not emphasize any motives. The thank-you letter and Questionnaire 1B (dependent variable scales) were assigned the corresponding respondent number from the volunteer's Questionnaire 1A. Volunteers returned from performing their volunteer duties, turned in the sheet of paper with their respondent number, and were given the proper thank-you letter to read and Questionnaire 1B to complete.

Because too few volunteers participated from the group of museum volunteers to perform the statistical analyses, the researcher recruited other organizations to supplement this sample. The same procedures were followed for the additional five organizations: two museums, a free health clinic, a thrift store, and a foodbank. Additionally, because of the low volunteer turnout from the first sample, Study 2, the newsletter study, could not be administered on-site as planned. Study 2 questionnaires were mailed to volunteers who did not participate in Study 1.

However, too few volunteers responded to analyze the results. Therefore, this chapter reports the results from Study 1 only, the thank-you letter study.

Proposed Design

In Chapter 4, a 4x3 factorial design was presented to analyze the research questions (see Table 4.1). Factor 1, Thank-you Letters, had four levels. Matched letters emphasized the volunteer's primary motive. Unmatched letters emphasized a VFI motive different from the volunteer's primary motive. Generic letters did not emphasize any particular motive, and the control group did not receive a thank-you letter (see Appendix 1 for each version of the thank-you letters).

Factor 2, Motive Fulfillment, had three levels. Met meant the volunteers' current volunteer assignment fulfilled their primary motive. Unmet meant the current volunteer assignment did not fulfill the volunteer's primary motive. Unaware meant the volunteer could not distinguish fulfillment among the motive areas. Unaware volunteers scored all motives with the same score (e.g., all 2s, all 5s, or all 7s).

Primary motives were determined by the VFI. The highest average score for each motive determined a volunteer's primary motive(s). Motive fulfillment was determined by volunteer responses to the AAFM. If the AAFM scale had an average score of 5 or higher, then the motive was considered fulfilled and the volunteer was classified as a volunteer. An unmet volunteer was a volunteer whose AAFM scale inventory was less than 5.

The following is a list of the six dependent variables in this study and an example item from the each dependent variable scale. Please see Appendix 6 for each scale item of the dependent variable scales.

1. Intent to remain in organization: “There is not much gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely” (reverse code)
2. Intent to remain in assignment: “There is not much gained by sticking with this volunteer assignment indefinitely” (reverse code)
3. Satisfaction in organization: “This organization’s work is making a difference”
4. Satisfaction in assignment: “My volunteer work is making a difference”
5. Level of activity in organization: “I plan to attend all of the volunteer meetings held for this organization”
6. Level of activity in assignment: “I plan to attend all of the volunteer meetings held for my volunteer assignment”

Two circumstances required modification of this 4x3 design. First, finding current volunteers whose assignment did not fulfill their primary motive was a difficult task because most unfulfilled volunteers had left their assignment. The difficulty in finding unmet volunteers supports the functionalist perspective that people do not continue in behaviors that do not serve a function. However, this difficulty hindered data collection. As a result, the few unmet volunteers surveyed were assigned only to the matched and unmatched thank-you letter groups in order to test the most important points of the hypotheses. Second, only three people were categorized in the unaware level of the Motive Fulfillment factor. Therefore, the unaware level was dropped from the design, and those three volunteers were excluded from the study.

Modified Design

The resulting modified design was a 2x2 factorial. Matched and unmatched were the two levels of the Thank-you Letter factor, and met and unmet were the two levels of the Motive Fulfillment factor (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. *Modified Study Design*

Thank-you letters	Motive fulfillment	
	Met	Unmet
Matched		
Unmatched		

Note. Primary motives were determined by the highest average score among the VFI sub-scales. Motive fulfillment was determined by volunteer responses to the AAFM. If the primary motive scale for the AAFM had an average score of 5 or higher, then the motive was considered fulfilled and the volunteer was classified as a volunteer.

The study hypotheses were also modified to reflect the design changes in design. Initially, matched thank-you letters were compared to unmatched letters and to generic letters. The modified hypotheses compared matched letters to unmatched letters only. Also, as the unaware level was dropped from the design, H_3 was modified. Instead of predicting the responses of unaware volunteers, H_3 predicted the responses of unmet volunteers who received unmatched thank-you letters. See Figures 5.1 and 5.2.

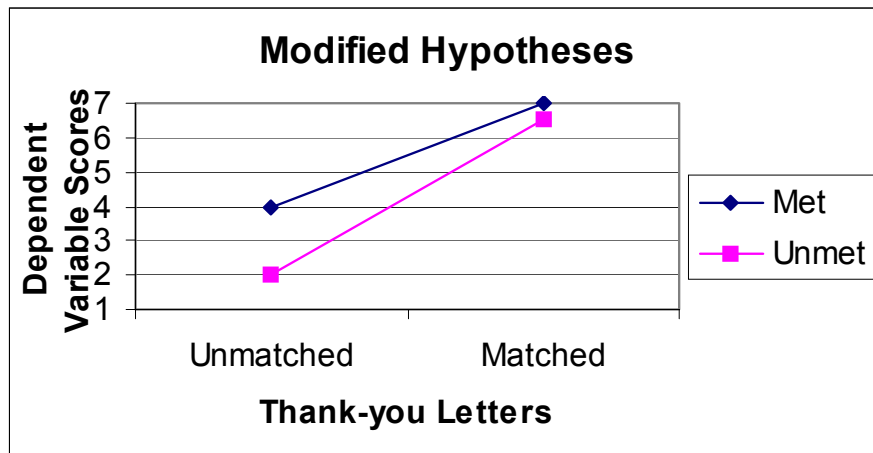


Figure 5.1. Modified hypotheses. H_1 : Volunteers with matched thank-you letters have higher dependent variable (DV) scores than will volunteers with unmatched letters for both the met and unmet groups of motive fulfillment. H_2 : Volunteers with matched thank-you letters, in unmet assignments, will have similar DV scores as volunteers with matched thank-you letters in met assignments. H_3 : Volunteers with unmatched thank-you letters, in unmet assignments, will have lower DV scores than will volunteers with unmatched thank-you letters in met assignments.

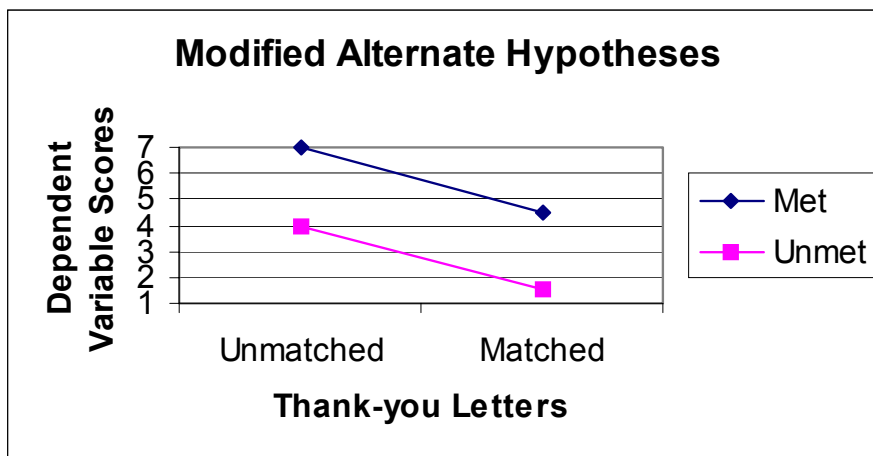


Figure 5.2. Modified alternate hypotheses. H_4 : Alternative Hypothesis—Volunteers with matched thank-you letters will have lower DV scores than will volunteers with unmatched letters for both met and unmet groups of motive fulfillment.

Sample

A total of 304 volunteers completed the study questionnaires. Three volunteers were in the unaware level of motive fulfillment, which was dropped, leaving 301 volunteers in this dissertation analysis. Within this sample, 23% were male and 77% were female. One half of the volunteers were married, and 95% were college graduates. Most notable about this sample was the skew in ages. One half of the sample was age 65 or older, and an additional one third was between the ages of 45 to 64. Therefore, over 80% of the sample was over the age 45. Consequently, the results of this study may be most relevant to nonprofit organizations with a volunteer population primarily over age 45. If nonprofit organizations have a younger volunteer

population, or a broad range of ages among their volunteers, they may consider consulting studies that include a larger group of younger volunteers.

Analysis

The original plan of analysis was univariate ANOVA for each of the six dependent variables. Main effect results would test H_1 and H_4 to determine whether the overall effect of matched letters increased or decreased dependent variable scores. Complementing the ANOVA results were t tests, comparing met and unmet means among the matched letters only and among the unmatched letters only. The t tests tested H_2 and H_3 , determining whether matched letters increased scores of unmet volunteers.

Table 5.2 lists the mean statistics for the dependent variables in this study. Only the statistics for volunteers with a primary motive of values or understanding are presented. The other four motives did not have enough respondents to analyze separately. Additionally, the motives had to be analyzed separately because the two motives behave very differently. When the sample was aggregated, very few results were significant. However, when values and understanding were analyzed separately, a greater number of significant results emerged.

However, this analysis was not as fruitful as the researcher desired. Of the 12 ANOVAs on H_1 and H_4 for both values and understanding motives, only two were significant. Of the 12 t tests on H_2 and H_3 for both values and understanding motives, only four were significant. Therefore, more analysis was performed. In the study, volunteers reported their AAFM scores on a continuous scale. However, the researcher dichotomized the variable to categorize volunteers as met or unmet. Because the ANOVAs did not yield significant results, regression analysis was used to study the variables in their continuous state. The regression analysis was expected to remove any problems that dichotomizing the variable may have caused.

Table 5.2. *Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Values ^a		
Intent to remain in organization	5.51	0.898
Intent to remain in assignment	5.06	0.724
Satisfaction in organization	6.03	0.770
Satisfaction in assignment	6.06	0.806
Level of activity in organization	4.53	1.510
Level of activity in assignment	4.81	1.320
Understanding ^b		
Intent to remain in organization	5.54	0.807
Intent to remain in assignment	5.03	0.794
Satisfaction in organization	6.15	0.671
Satisfaction in assignment	6.17	0.677
Level of activity in organization	4.74	1.360
Level of activity in assignment	4.95	1.200

^a *n* = 132. ^b *n* = 97.

Three Regression Models

Three regression models were tested to predict dependent variable behavior: baseline model, single motive direct effects model, and all motives direct effects model. The baseline model represented the study's hypotheses. First, the baseline tested whether fulfilling the primary motive and giving a matched thank-you letter increased the dependent variable score.

Second, the interaction variable in this model allowed the researcher to test whether dependent variable scores increased when unmet volunteers were given matched letters. The baseline model included the primary fulfillment score (AAFM), a dummy variable for matched letters, and an interaction variable of the two mentioned variables. The baseline model was conducted for the values motive sample and for the understanding motive sample. Results for both primary motives are reported in the following pages.

$$Y_{\text{dependent variable}} = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2D_1 + b_3X_1D_1$$

where

b_0 = intercept

X_1 = AAFM score (values or understanding)

D_1 = matched letters ($D = 1$ when matched)

X_1D_1 = interaction effect of matched letter and AAFM score (values or understanding)

The betas were expected to have the following results for both the values and understanding models:

b_1 = positive (+)

b_2 = positive (+)

b_3 = negative (–)

To illustrate why the interaction variable was expected to have a negative beta coefficient, the hypotheses chart was inverted, with the continuous AAFM on the X-axis. A matched letter paired with an unmet volunteer was expected to raise the dependent variable scores. An inverse

relationship between the dependent variable and the low AAFM score was expected (see Figure 5.3). The regression results for the baseline model are summarized in Table 5.3.

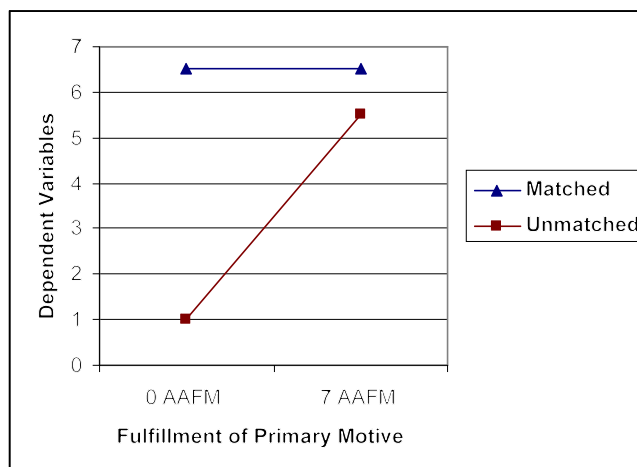


Figure 5.3. Inverted hypotheses.

Table 5.3. *Baseline Model Results*

Dependent	Significant	Hypothesized			Adj.	
variable	variable	β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Values						
Intent to remain in organization	- values AAFM	+	+	.00	.09	.07
Intent to remain in assignment	- none				.00	-.02
Satisfaction in organization	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.00	.18	.16
	- dummy \times values AAFM	-	+	.02		
Satisfaction in assignment	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.00	.22	.20
	- dummy \times values AAFM	-	+	.00		
Level of activity in organization	- none				.13	.11
Level of activity in assignment	- values AAFM	+	+	.02	.13	.11

(table continues)

Dependent	Significant	Hypothesized				Adj.
variable	variable	β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Understanding						
Intent to remain in organization	- none				.02	-.02
Intent to remain in assignment	- none				.02	-.02
Satisfaction in organization	- none				.02	-.01
Satisfaction in assignment	- understanding AAFM	+	+	.00	.17	.14
Level of activity in organization	- understanding AAFM	+	+	.00	.11	.09
	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	+	.03		
	- dummy \times understanding AAFM	-	-	.04		
Level of activity in assignment	- understanding AAFM	+	+	.02	.08	.05

Note. Independent variables: values or understanding AAFM score, dummy (matched = 1), dummy \times values or understanding AAFM score.

Results for the baseline regression models were poor. For the understanding motive, the models explained less than 10% variance for most of the dependent variables. Additionally, the study hypotheses were not supported as strongly as expected. Among the values volunteers, H_1 through H_3 were not supported. Matched letters lowered two dependent variables, supporting H_4 for those variables. Among understanding volunteers, only level of activity in organization supported H_1 and H_2 . Matched letters increased level of activity in organization, and the interaction of matched letters and understanding AAFM increased the dependent variable score. H_3 was not specifically tested by this regression model. The samples were not divided into matched and unmatched groups when the regression models were performed. Therefore, a second regression model was tested to explain more variance across all of the dependent variables.

The single motive direct effects model takes into account the effect of the VFI score of the primary motive in addition to the AAFM score of that same motive for each volunteer. This model investigated whether merely having a high primary motive score could influence dependent variable scores. Did the VFI score directly effect the dependent variables regardless of motive fulfillment? Did the combination of the motive score and the motive fulfillment explain the dependent variables more accurately?

The single motive direct effects model included the primary motive score (VFI), the primary motive fulfillment score (AAFM), a dummy variable for matched letters, and two interaction variables: $\text{dummy} \times \text{vfi}$ and $\text{dummy} \times \text{aafm}$. The primary motive variable was included in this model because the educational literature has found that motivation is a predictor for academic performance (Tavani & Losh, 2003). Greater desire and higher energy levels targeted at accomplishing a goal result in higher performance toward that goal (House, 1997). This model tested whether the motivation–performance relationship also existed among volunteers. In this study, the goal was to have a fulfilling volunteer experience. The single motive direct effects regression models were as follows:

$$Y_{\text{dependent variable}} = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3D_1 + b_4X_1D_1 + b_5X_2D_1$$

where

b_0 = intercept

X_1 = VFI score (values or understanding)

X_2 = AAFM score (values or understanding)

D_1 = matched letters ($D = 1$ when matched)

X_1D_1 = interaction effect of matched letters and VFI score (values or understanding)

X_2D_1 = interaction effect of matched letter and AAFM score (values or understanding)

The beta coefficient for the interaction variable (b_5) was expected to be negative for the same reason given in the baseline regression model. A low AAFM score paired with a matched letter was expected to raise dependent variable scores. The regression results for the single motive direct effects model are summarized in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4. *Single Motive Direct Effects Model Results*

Dependent	Significant	Hypothesized			Adj.	
variable	variable	β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Values						
Intent to remain in organization	- values AAFM	+	+	.00	.11	.07
	- dummy \times values AAFM	-	-	.02		
Intent to remain in assignment	- none				.03	-.01
Satisfaction in organization	- none				.23	.20
Satisfaction in assignment	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.04	.30	.28
Level of activity in organization	- none				.18	.14
Level of activity in assignment	- none				.15	.12
Understanding						
Intent to remain in organization	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.02	.13	.09
	- dummy \times understanding VFI score	+	+	.00		
	- dummy \times understanding AAFM	-	-	.00		
Intent to remain in assignment	- none				.04	-.01
Satisfaction in organization	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.00	.24	.19
	- dummy \times understanding VFI score	+	+	.00		
	- dummy \times understanding AAFM	-	-	.03		

(table continues)

Dependent variable	Significant variable	Hypothesized			Adj.	
		β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Satisfaction in assignment	- understanding VFI score	+	+	.00	.41	.38
	- dummy \times understanding VFI score	+	+	.04		
	- dummy \times understanding AAFM	-	-	.01		
Level of activity in organization	- understanding VFI score	+	+	.00	.29	.25
	- dummy \times understanding AAFM	-	-	.05		
Level of activity in assignment	- understanding VFI score	+	+	.00	.27	.23

Note. Independent variables: values or understanding VFI score, values or understanding AAFM score, dummy \times values or understanding VFI score, dummy \times values or understanding AAFM score.

Additionally, this model provided mixed support for the study hypotheses. H_1 was not supported by either values volunteers or understanding volunteers, as matched thank-you letters did not increase DV scores. However, the interaction of matched letters and AAFM behaved as predicted for 5 of the 12 dependent variables across the values and understanding motives. One values dependent variable and four understanding dependent variables supported H_2 .

The single motive direct effects model improved the explained variance for the satisfaction and the level of activity dependent variables. However, the intent to remain dependent variables were the variables of interest for directly addressing volunteer retention. Therefore, a third regression model was tested to attempt to improve the results for the intent to remain in organization and intent to remain in assignment dependent variables.

Several volunteers had multiple motives, and this result was not accounted for in the previous models. Therefore, the researcher developed the all motives direct effects regression model to incorporate the volunteers who had multiple motives. Each volunteer's average VFI score was also incorporated into this model, in case a volunteer's total motive profile was

necessary for accurately predicting the dependent variables. The all motives direct effects model included six continuous variables, a dummy variable for matched letters, and two interaction variables. The variables for the all motives direct effects regression model are defined in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5. *List of Variables in All Motives Direct Effects Regression Model*

Independent variable	Definitions
# primary motives	Motive with highest score. If next highest motive was within 0.3 points of the highest motive, then the two motives were considered tied as primary motive.
# primary motives fulfilled	# of primary motives that had 5+ on AAFM scale
% primary motives fulfilled	# primary motives fulfilled / # primary motives
VFI AVG	Average of all six motive scores
AAFM AVG	Average of all six fulfillment scores
$\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	Summation of the product of each VFI score with its mean-corrected fulfillment score. Values $VFI \times (values\ AAFM - AAFMAVG) + \dots + enhancement\ VFI \times (enhancement\ AAFM - AAFMAVG)$
Dummy (matched = 1)	Matched letter = 1, Unmatched letter = 0
Dummy \times AAFMAVG	Interaction of matched letters and AAFMAVG
Dummy \times $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	Interaction of matched letters and $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$

The all motives direct effects regression models were as follows:

$$Y_{\text{dependent variables}} = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + b_7D_1 + b_8X_5D_1 + b_9X_6D_1$$

where

b_0 = intercept

X_1 = # primary motives

X_2 = # primary motives fulfilled

X_3 = % primary motives fulfilled

X_4 = VFIAVG

X_5 = AAFMAVG

X_6 = $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$

D_1 = matched letters ($D = 1$ when matched)

X_5D_1 = interaction effect of matched letter and AAFMAVG

X_6D_1 = interaction effect of matched letter and $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$

Each beta coefficient was expected to be positive except for two. The positive betas were hypothesized because this study was anchored on the premise that giving letters and fulfilling motives would increase dependent variable scores. The single motive direct effects regression model also introduced the concept that dependent variable scores would increase as the volunteer's motivation increased. This model was built on that concept as well.

However, two beta coefficients were expected to be negative: b_1 and b_8 . Kiviniemi et al. (2002) found that volunteers with multiple motives are less satisfied in their volunteer assignment than are volunteers with a single motive. Typical volunteer assignments are designed for volunteers to perform a narrow scope of tasks. Consequently, only one motive is likely to be fulfilled, leaving multiple-motive volunteers less satisfied. As a result, the researcher expected a negative beta coefficient for b_1 . The beta coefficient of the dummy \times AAFMAVG interaction variable (b_8) was expected to be negative for the same reason given for the previous models. A

matched letter paired with a low AAFMAVG was expected to raise dependent variable scores. An inverse relationship was predicted. The regression results for the all motives direct effects regression model are summarized in Table 5.6. This regression model was more successful than were the previous two models, as it produced double-digit variance explained for all dependent variables, including intent to remain in assignment.

Table 5.6. *All Motives Direct Effects Regression Model Results*

Dependent	Significant	Hypothesized			Adj.	
variable	variable	β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Values						
Intent to remain in organization	- # primary motives	-	+	.00	.28	.22
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.00		
	- # primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.00		
	- % primary motives fulfilled	+	+	.00		
	- $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	+	+	.02		
	- dummy \times AAFMAVG	-	+	.04		
	- dummy \times vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)	+	-	.01		
Intent to remain in assignment	- # primary motives	-	-	.00	.14	.07
	- % primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.00		
Satisfaction in organization	-VFIAVG	+	+	.00	.32	.26
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.04		
	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.00		
	- dummy \times AAFMAVG	-	+	.00		
Satisfaction in assignment	-VFIAVG	+	+	.00	.35	.30
	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	-	.00		
	- dummy \times AAFMAVG	-	+	.00		
	- dummy \times $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	+	+	.01		

(table continues)

Dependent variable	Significant variable	Hypothesized			Adj.	
		β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Level of activity in organization	- # primary motives	-	+	.01	.28	.23
	- VFIAVG	+	+	.00		
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.03		
	- # primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.02		
	- % primary motives fulfilled	+	+	.00		
Level of activity in assignment	- # primary motives	-	+	.00	.25	.20
	- VFIAVG	+	+	.00		
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.01		
	- # primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.01		
	- % primary motives fulfilled	+	+	.00		
Understanding						
Intent to remain in organization	- # primary motives	-	+	.02	.13	.04
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.04		
	- # primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.03		
	- $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	+	+	.05		
Intent to remain in assignment	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.05	.15	.07
Satisfaction in organization	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.00	.34	.28
	- # primary motives fulfilled	+	-	.03		
	- $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	+	+	.00		
Satisfaction in assignment	- VFIAVG	+	+	.05	.43	.37
	- AAFMAVG	+	-	.00		
	- $\Sigma vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$	+	+	.00		
	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	+	.06		
Level of activity in organization	- VFIAVG	+	+	.00	.26	.19
	- dummy (matched = 1)	+	+	.04		
	- dummy \times AAFMAVG	-	-	.05		

(table continues)

Dependent variable	Significant variable	Hypothesized			Adj.	
		β	β	p	R^2	R^2
Level of activity in assignment	- VFIAVG	+	+	.00	.26	.19

Note. Independent variables: # primary motives, VFIAVG, AAFMAVG, # primary motives fulfilled, % primary motives fulfilled, $\sum vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$, dummy (matched = 1), dummy \times AAFMAVG, dummy $\times \sum vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$.

Two interesting results surfaced among values volunteers. Beta coefficients for two independent variables (AAFMAVG and dummy \times AAFMAVG) were opposite from what was hypothesized for three dependent variables. High AAFMAVG scores appeared to result in lower intent to remain in organization and lower satisfaction in organization and in assignment. Yet, the interaction of high AAFMAVG scores and matched letters increased three dependent variables. Correlations among the independent variables were analyzed to ensure that multicollinearity was not skewing the results. The correlations were low to moderate among the independent variables. Multicollinearity was very unlikely. Important to note is that approximately 70% of the volunteers had one primary motive. Consequently, many volunteers may have had only one motive fulfilled. This phenomenon could have skewed the results. It may not have been that low AAFMAVG scores *caused* higher dependent variable scores, but rather that the majority of the volunteers with high dependent variable scores happened to have low AAFMAVG scores because their sole primary motive was fulfilled. Regarding the positive beta coefficient for the dummy \times AAFMAVG variable, the letter may have affirmed what the volunteer had experienced, thereby enhancing their experience and the dependent variable scores.

Finally, # primary motives appeared to increase the values of three dependent variables: intent to remain in organization, level of activity in organization, and level of activity in assignment. Volunteers with multiple primary motives appeared to have greater intentions to remain in the organization and to participate at higher levels.

While the matched thank-you letters increased two dependent variables for understanding volunteers, they lowered two dependent variables for values volunteers. H_1 was supported by understanding volunteers for two dependent variables, and H_4 was supported by values volunteers for two dependent variables. The interaction term used to test H_2 was significant for one dependent variable among the understanding volunteers. H_2 was not supported as consistently as expected.

The all motives direct effects model was the best predictor of understanding volunteer behavior for the dependent variables. The intent to remain in organization and in assignment dependent variables had double-digit variance explained, while the remaining dependent variables had relatively large amounts of variance explained.

VFI_{AVG} and $\sum vfi \times (aafm - aafm_{avg})$ were strong predictors for several dependent variables. Merely having high motivation appeared to cause volunteers to experience greater satisfaction in the assignment and greater intent to participate at higher levels. Also, if nonprofit organizations fulfilled the volunteers' primary motive better than it fulfilled the volunteers' other motive areas, then the volunteers intended to remain in the organization longer and became more satisfied in their organization and their assignment.

Finally, $AAFMAVG$ consistently had negative beta coefficients for several dependent variables, which was opposite of what was hypothesized. This result suggests that volunteers did not want every motive area to be fulfilled, just their primary motive. If a volunteer had only one

primary motive, and that motive was the only motive to score 5 or more on the AAFM inventory, then the AAFMAVG would be low even though the motive had been met. More research is needed to understand if this suggestion plays out in reality. The researcher recommends using the all motive direct effects model to analyze and predict the dependent variables in this study (see Table 5.7 for the regression model summary for both motive groups).

Summary of Results

The matched thank-you letters did not have the impact originally expected. Therefore, volunteers may have needed several exposures to the thank-you letters for the letters to influence their intentions toward the volunteer assignment, or the primary motive scores and motive fulfillment scores may have been stronger drivers of the six dependent variables in this study.

More research is needed to understand why AAFMAVG had a negative relationship with the dependent variables. One would not expect low fulfillment scores to yield higher dependent variable scores. Again, this result may reflect that the volunteers needed only their primary motive fulfilled. Additionally, more research is needed to understand the influence of VFIAVG for both motive groups. Generally, motivated people appear to participate more and have greater satisfaction from their assignment.

Intent to remain in organization had two significant predictors across both motive groups: # primary motives and $\sum vfi \times (aafm - aafmavg)$. However, only the summation variable falls under the control of the nonprofit organization. If the nonprofit identifies the primary motive of a volunteer and fulfills that motive better than it fulfills all the other motives, values volunteers and understanding volunteers will stay longer in the nonprofit organization. This finding is an actionable one that nonprofits can incorporate into their operations, especially if the majority of their volunteers have the values or understanding primary motive.

Table 5.7. *Summary of All Motives Direct Effects Regression Model Results*

	#	Average	Average	# Primary	% Primary				
	Primary	motive	AAFM	motive	motive	$\sum vfi \times$		dummy \times Avg.	Dummy $\times \sum vfi \times$
Variable	motives	score	score	fulfilled	fulfilled	(aafm - aafmavg)	dummy	AAFM score	(aafm - aafmavg)
Intent to remain in organization									
Values	+		-	-	+	+		+	-
Understanding	+		-	-		+			
Intent to remain in assignment									
Values	-				-				
Understanding			-			+			
Satisfaction in organization									
Values		+	-				-	+	
Understanding			-	-		+			
Satisfaction in assignment									
Values		+	-				-	+	
Understanding		+	-			+	+		
Level of activity in organization									
Values	+	+	-	-	+				
Understanding		+					+	-	
Level of activity in assignment									
Values	+	+	-	-	+				
Understanding		+							

Note. * = statistically significant. + = positive beta coefficient. - = negative beta coefficient.

Finally, these results demonstrate the need to test each primary motive separately. In a few cases, the results were similar for both the values and understanding volunteer. However, the dependent variables behaved differently for the two motive groups across several independent variables.

Values Volunteers Versus Understanding Volunteers

Several explanations may account for why the matched letters appeared more effective for the understanding volunteers. First, understanding volunteers may absorb details better, resulting in greater comprehension of the thank-you letter. Understanding volunteers want to learn and grow through volunteering, so they may have higher or faster cognitive processes. If this is the case, understanding volunteers may have received the letter's full impact, whereas values volunteers only skimmed the letter or comprehended less, even if they read the entire letter.

Second, if values volunteers do not enjoy reading as much as their understanding counterparts, then a letter may have turned them off. Values volunteers may have been detached from the process of reading, resulting in the contents of the letter having no effect. Other forms of gratitude may be more effective for values volunteers, such as a thank-you party, brief thank-you cards, or donations to a specific project made in honor of them.

Third, values volunteers may want to think of their actions as solely altruistic. Presenting a list of benefits to the volunteers may offend them because it pollutes or diminishes their notion of altruism. However, the understanding volunteers may not be offended by seeing a list of benefits for them because their motivation had more of an inward, self-focus from the beginning.

One final suggestion is made for why the matched letters may have affected the two groups differently. Because a strong predictor for values volunteers is # primary motives,

emphasizing only one motive in a letter may have negatively influenced values volunteers who have multiple motives. Several motives may need to be emphasized in the thank-you letter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This dissertation investigated whether customized communication could increase volunteer satisfaction and retention in the context of a functionalist perspective. Understanding this relationship within the nonprofit organization is useful because nonprofits can control customized communications to their volunteers, and they can modify and design assignment tasks to specifically fulfill certain motive areas at relatively low costs. Nonprofits can also leverage the existing motivation of volunteers once they identify the primary motives and understand the typical outcomes of those motives.

The results of the all motives direct effects regression model showed that identifying primary motives, identifying motive fulfillment, giving matched letters, and assessing the intensity of all motive areas is needed to best predict the dependent variables. For understanding volunteers, if nonprofits fulfill the understanding motive better than they fulfill all the other motive areas, then both satisfaction in organization and satisfaction in assignment increase. Nonprofits can achieve this outcome by first identifying which volunteers have understanding as their primary motive. Then, nonprofits can assign the understanding volunteers to assignments that allow them to learn more about the cause for which they are working, explore their personal strengths and skill sets, learn how to deal with a variety of people, and obtain hands-on experience. For values volunteers, nonprofits can assign them to projects that allow them to act on their concern for the well-being of others, especially if the nonprofit organization serves those who are less fortunate than the volunteers.

The study's results reinforce the importance of nonprofit organizations having a tool like the VFI inventory and applying it to their volunteer management policies. Knowing a volunteer's primary motive and meeting it well results in greater intent to remain in organization and higher satisfaction in organization and in assignment. This dissertation's results suggest that customized communication can cause short-term changes in a few dependent variable scores for understanding volunteers. More research is needed to determine if matched communication can yield enduring changes. However, until future communications research is completed, redesigning volunteer assignments to specifically fulfill motives will definitely increase satisfaction and intent to remain in organization.

Also, these results revealed that simply having a high values motive score positively influences the satisfaction and level of activity scores. Therefore, because volunteers with high values VFI scores tended to have higher satisfaction and level of activity scores, nonprofit organizations may consider placing these volunteers in assignments that typically have higher turnover, or in assignments that require greater attendance to activities and meetings. These results suggest that the disposition for greater satisfaction and level of activity may counterbalance the assignment features that cause volunteers to leave it. Of course, once volunteers are placed in these demanding assignments, nonprofit organizations should still work to ensure the volunteers feel valued. A disposition for greater satisfaction and participation in a role does not guarantee zero turnover.

Future Research

The findings of this study direct the researcher's attention to several areas of future research that are important to understanding volunteer behavior, primary motives, and motive fulfillment:

1. Test all six primary motives to compare and contrast their behavior.
2. Compare and contrast behavior of volunteers with multiple motives versus a single motive.
3. Can matched letters consistently affect specific motives in the same manner? Also conduct a longitudinal study to determine if matched letters create an enduring change in dependent variables.
4. Study the negative relationship of AAFMAVG with the dependent variables.
5. How would multiple exposures to the thank-you letters affect volunteer responses?
How does one letter with all six motives affect dependent variables?
6. Why does intent to remain in assignment behave so differently from the other dependent variables? Which independent variables are more appropriate predictors of intent to remain in assignment?
7. Study various forms of communication. Do different primary motive groups prefer different communication forms?
8. Study the relationship between satisfaction, intent to remain, and level of activity. Is satisfaction a mediating variable for intent to remain, or are the two variables truly as unrelated as these study results suggest?
9. What information would more advanced statistics yield? When all six equations are estimated simultaneously, are results stronger?

This dissertation highlighted that two different primary motives behave very differently.

Therefore, future research should test all six motive areas to understand how each motive group behaves both regarding the dependent variables and in contrast with each other.

More research would be helpful for understanding the differences among the dependent variables of this study. Intent to remain in assignment consistently had the least variance explained, even when intent to remain in organization had double-digit variance explained. Because volunteers remaining in their assignment is the outcome most desired by nonprofits, scholars need to have a deeper understanding of what drives this variable.

Also, the relationship of satisfaction with level of activity and with intent to remain is unexpected and requires more investigation. One would expect satisfaction and intent to remain to behave more similarly than they have in this study. Many people assume that if a volunteer is satisfied, he or she will stay longer. This relationship between satisfaction and intention to remain is implied in the Clary et al. (1998) work. The researcher would like to know if this relationship exists. Is satisfaction a mediating variable leading to intent to remain, or are the two variables truly as unrelated as they appear to be in this study?

More research is needed to understand matched thank-you letters. What would cause thank-you letters to be consistent in increasing dependent variable values for understanding volunteers? If matched letters are lowering values volunteer scores and creating cognitive dissonance, what effect do unmatched letters have on values volunteers? It seems as though matched communication, specifically thank-you letters, has some positive outcome. The marketing field just needs to understand which conditions yield the desired outcomes.

Additionally, more research is needed on various forms of communication to customize. Do other communication forms exist that would yield stronger results? Do different primary motive groups prefer different communication forms? Perhaps, educational literature could offer some insight. Educational research has proven that different learning styles exist. If a person's learning style is identified, then specific presentation styles, exercise formats, and testing

methods should be used to maximize learning for that person. Likewise, specific communication and reward methods should be employed, depending on the volunteer's motive group.

With this view, it would also be interesting to investigate which types of volunteer activities and tasks better fulfill certain motives versus others. And do certain charitable and volunteer causes attract or fulfill specific motives better than do others? For example, museums may naturally have responsibilities that meet understanding motive and enhancement motives but that do not fulfill values motives as well. The American Cancer Society may fulfill the values and social motives well but not meet the career motive at all. Nonprofit organizations need to know whether they can redesign volunteer assignments so that volunteers have at least one motive met in at least one volunteer assignment, or if their particular cause is not suited to certain motive areas at all.

Research Limitations

While this dissertation has been insightful, there are a few things the researcher would have done differently. First, a paper version of the questionnaire and an internet version of the questionnaire would have been administered. Data collection would have occurred faster with an internet survey because more organizations would have allowed their volunteers to participate if the volunteers did not have to use their volunteer assignment time to complete the questionnaire (e.g., Habitat for Humanity and Make-A-Wish Foundation).

Second, the researcher would have pre-screened people and recruited volunteers to make sure that certain categories were balanced. For example, there were insufficient numbers of volunteers from each primary motive group to test each motive separately. Also, this sample was primarily over age 45, with half over age 65. Pre-screening and recruiting volunteers could have balanced both of these categories.

The researcher would have planned for more time to pass between the volunteers completing the VFI inventory and the AAFM inventory. More time passing may have reduced the correlation level between the two inventories. A few more people may have emerged as unmet. Also, the volunteers only had one exposure to the thank-you letter. One exposure does not reflect the experience typical consumers have regarding marketing messages.

In summary, this dissertation has clarified a few facets of volunteer behavior and primary motives. First, what it takes to increase satisfaction may be different from what it takes to increase intent to remain. All three models predicted satisfaction reasonably well, whereas intent to remain was not predicted well until the all motives direct effects model was tested. Second, volunteers are interested in having their primary motives met very well by the nonprofit organization. They are less concerned about having all motive areas met. Third, matched thank-you letters are more effective for understanding volunteers than for values volunteers, especially understanding volunteers with unmet motives. Yet, more research is needed to have a comprehensive view of volunteerism and primary motives.

It is noteworthy to emphasize how different the recommended regression model is from the baseline model, which represented the study hypotheses. This dissertation found that the original model was not sufficient and probed deeper to find a model that better explained the dependent variables.

While study results did not unfold in the way hypothesized, several important findings surfaced. This dissertation has provided a foundation and direction for future research that will expand knowledge in the field concerning the behavior of specific primary motives and the ability to influence motive fulfillment.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

THANK-YOU LETTERS

1. Protective Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers.

Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly.

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their volunteer assignments have allowed them to brighten other people's lives, as well as lift them out of their occasional blue moods. Other volunteers have expressed how their assignments allow them to focus on others and forget about their own worries.

A few volunteers have shared how they had previously felt a little guilty of having so much when they realized that others have so little. These volunteers said that their assignment allowed them to share with others and feel less guilty about their good fortune. If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

2. Values Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers.

Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly.

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their volunteer assignments have been an avenue to show compassion toward people in need and concern for those less fortunate than themselves. Other volunteers have expressed how their work at the museum allows them to do work for a cause that is important to them. If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

3. Career Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers.

Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly.

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their volunteer experience has helped them to explore career options and identify the type of work they enjoy. Other volunteers have expressed how working with fellow volunteers allowed them to develop new business contacts. One person met a key contact for the place where she wanted to work. If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

4. Social Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers.

Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly.

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their volunteer experience has allowed them to work with some of their friends, as well as make new friends here at the museum. Other volunteers have invited their friends and family members to the museum to personally give them tours or to serve them in the gift shop. There has been a lot of enthusiasm and support from the volunteers' friends and family when they see what the volunteers contribute at the museum, especially from those who value community service.

If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

5. Understanding Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers. Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their assignment has provided hands-on experience for learning about art history, art education, and art preservation. They have expressed how much their volunteer work at the museum has broadened their perspective about cultures, civilizations, and people, in addition to art.

Other volunteers expressed how they explored their own strengths and abilities when working with a variety of departments and people. From the extroverted people in gallery information to the creative people in the photography department to the analytical people in the research library, the volunteers have learned how to communicate on different levels. Additionally, they have truly learned more about museum and its causes. If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

6. Enhancement Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers.

Thank you for being our volunteer. We truly appreciate the many hours you have dedicated to this museum. We are also grateful for your diligence in learning the responsibilities and tasks of your volunteer assignment. Your time and dedication enable our museum to run smoothly.

We encourage you to take every advantage afforded by your volunteer assignment. We want this to be an experience where both you and the museum are better because you decided to volunteer with us. Several volunteers have shared with us how their volunteer assignments have made them feel needed and important. Other volunteers have expressed how their self-esteem has increased because of the difference they make at the museum. If your experience as our volunteer can offer any of these benefits to you or other benefits, we encourage you to tap into those aspects of your assignment. Again, thank you for volunteering with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

7. Generic Letter

Dear (Name of Organization) Volunteer:

Thank you so very much for committing your time and skills to the museum. This museum has depended upon the help of volunteers for over 40 years to serve the (name of local community) area. We are able to provide front line customer service, maintain our gift shop, provide museum tours, and provide so many other activities because of the service of our volunteers. Thank you for being our volunteer.

Your time as a volunteer is greatly appreciated. Your service at the museum benefits everyone who visits. Your volunteer service has helped the Museum of Art continue a great legacy. Patrons learn about the intricate details of rare artifacts, and patrons experience a pleasant visit at the museum because of your assistance. Volunteering at the (Name of Organization) is a wonderful opportunity for you to share your time, knowledge, and wealth of experiences with others in their community.

We encourage you to tap into every aspect that your volunteer assignment affords. Our volunteers are tremendous assets to the museum. We want this to be an experience where both the museum and you are better because you decided to volunteer with the (Name of Organization).

Sincerely,

_____, Coordinator
Volunteer & Visitor Services

APPENDIX 2

NEWSLETTER CONTENT

The Detroit Institute of Arts (DIA) impacts the Detroit community in several ways. Last year, the DIA Arts to the Schools Docents traveled to 87 public and private schools, reaching 4700 students with art education and art history. Students have a richer educational experience because of the DIA. The DIA Speakers Bureau traveled to 10 counties and Windsor, Ontario to deliver 200 talks on various art topics. Community associations experience the museum by the speakers bringing art to the community.

Becoming a member of the museum also has great cultural benefits. Auxiliaries teach museum members how to collect and appreciate art. Special auxiliaries exist for American paintings, Ancient artifacts, African Art, Asian and Modern Art. There are also auxiliaries for Graphic Arts, Cinematic Art, and Floral Art. The museum also organizes tours for each of the auxiliaries to view renowned collections throughout the U.S. and abroad.

The DIA is a special jewel within the Detroit community. It provides an avenue to learn about cultures and civilizations through the paintings and artifacts. Children, community organizations, tourists and residents are enlightened and enriched because the DIA maintains its special programs and collections.

Visit the DIA. Each Friday evening, music and entertainment are provided for adults and children from 6-9pm.

APPENDIX 3

CONSENT FORM

I, _____ agree to complete questionnaires for dissertation research entitled “Volunteers within Nonprofit Organizations” about volunteer participation, conducted by **Sheniqua Little (The University of Georgia Marketing Department 706-542-2123)**, working under the direction of **Dr. Rajiv Grover (The University of Georgia Marketing Department, 706-542-3776)**. I understand that this participation is entirely voluntary. I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of my participation returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The following points have been explained to me:

1. The purpose of this research is to examine volunteer attitudes and behavior within nonprofit organizations.
2. My participation in this study will allow me to better understand my own volunteer behavior, as well as expose me to research tools used to track and analyze volunteer behavior.
3. Participants will be asked to answer several questions with 7-point scales, read some information, and answer a few questions about demographics. The entire questionnaire is expected to last 10-20 minutes.
4. No psychological or physical discomforts or stresses are foreseen.
5. No social or legal risks are foreseen.
6. In order to make this study a valid one, some information about my participation may be withheld until after the study.
7. Any information the researcher obtains about me as a participant in this study, including my identity, will be held confidential. After data collection is completed, my identity will be coded and all personal identifying information will be destroyed. My identity will not be revealed in any publication of the results of this research.
8. The researcher will answer any further questions about the study, now or during the course of the project. You can reach Sheniqua Little at 706-542-2123.
9. I am not to discuss any information about this study with other volunteers while this study is being conducted.

Signature of Researcher Date
706-542-2123

Signature of Participant Dat

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, GA 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199.

APPENDIX 4

VOLUNTEER FUNCTIONS INVENTORY

Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) Items and Sample Results

“Please indicate how important or accurate each of the below 30 possible reasons for volunteering are for you in doing your volunteer work. This is a 7-point scale, 1 = not at all important to 7 = extremely important.”

Protective **Avg. 4.6**

1. No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it. (5)
2. By volunteering, I feel less lonely. (5)
3. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others. (7)
4. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems. (3)
5. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles. (3)

Values **Avg. 6.0**

1. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself. (6)
2. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving. (7)
3. I feel compassion toward people in need. (5)
4. I feel it is important to help others. (7)
5. I can do something for a cause that is important to me. (5)

Career **Avg. 2.8**

1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work. (2)
2. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career. (5)
3. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options. (1)
4. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession. (3)
5. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume. (3)

Social **Avg. 2.4**

1. My friends volunteer. (2)
2. People I’m close to want me to volunteer. (1)
3. People I know share an interest in community service. (4)
4. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service. (3)
5. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best. (2)

Understanding**Avg. 4.6**

1. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working. (6)
2. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things. (4)
3. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people. (4)
4. I can explore my own strengths. (5)
5. Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience. (4)

Enhancement**Avg. 5.8**

1. Volunteering makes me feel important. (6)
2. Volunteering increases my self-esteem. (7)
3. Volunteering makes me feel needed. (7)
4. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself. (5)
5. Volunteering is a way to make new friends. (4)

APPENDIX 5

ASSIGNMENT'S ABILITY TO FULFILL MOTIVES

AAFM Items and Sample Results

“Please indicate how accurately the below statements describe your experience in your current volunteer assignment. 1 = does not describe at all to 7 = completely describes.”

Sample AAFM Results

Protective	Avg. 5.0
1. I was able to escape some of my troubles. (6)	
2. I was able to work through some of my own personal problems. (5)	
3. I felt less lonely. (4)	
Values	Avg. 6.3
1. I am genuinely concerned about the people who were helped. (6)	
2. I did something for a cause I believe in. (6)	
3. I performed a service for an important group. (7)	
Career	Avg. 4.3
1. I made new contacts that might help my business or career. (4)	
2. I was able to explore possible career options. (5)	
3. I was able to add important experience to my resume. (4)	
Social	Avg. 2.6
1. People close to me learned that I did volunteer work. (3)	
2. People that I know best saw that I volunteered. (3)	
3. My friends found out that I did volunteer work. (2)	
Understanding	Avg. 4.0
1. I learned more about the cause for which I worked. (4)	
2. I learned how to deal with a greater variety of people. (4)	
3. I was able to explore my own personal strengths. (4)	
Enhancement	Avg. 5.3
1. My self-esteem was enhanced. (5)	
2. I felt important. (5)	
3. I felt better about myself. (6)	

APPENDIX 6

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Intent to Remain in this Organization Scale Items

“Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your volunteer organization. 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.”

1. I would accept almost any type of volunteer assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization.
2. I could be just as well volunteering for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)
3. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)
4. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)
5. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to volunteer.
6. Deciding to volunteer for this organization was definite mistake on my part. (R)

(R) = Reverse coded

Intent to Remain in this Assignment Scale Items

“Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning your volunteer assignment. 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.”

1. (Question #1 from above organizational scale would be reverse coded for this scale.)
2. (Question #2 from above organizational scale would not be reverse coded for this scale.)
3. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to change assignments within this organization. (R)
4. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this volunteer assignment indefinitely. (R)
5. For me, this is the best of all possible volunteer assignments at this organization.
6. Deciding to fill this volunteer role at this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)

(R) = Reverse coded

Satisfaction in Volunteer Organization Scale Items

“Please indicate how well the following statements describe your experience in your current volunteer organization. 1 = does not describe at all to 7 = describes completely.”

1. This organization’s work is making a difference.
2. This organization accomplishes its objectives well.
3. This organization’s contribution to the community is worthwhile.

4. This organization is adequately equipped to perform its duties.
5. I enjoy my volunteer experience with this organization.
6. Working with this organization is personally fulfilling.
7. I accomplished my goals for volunteering through this volunteer organization.

Satisfaction in Volunteer Assignment Scale Items

“Please indicate how well the following statements describe your experience in your current volunteer assignment. 1 = does not describe at all to 7 = describes completely.”

1. My volunteer work is making a difference.
2. I am capable of performing my volunteer tasks well.
3. My contribution is worthwhile to the volunteer organization.
4. My volunteer work fits my skill sets.
5. I enjoy my volunteer experience in this assignment.
6. My volunteer assignment is personally fulfilling.
7. I accomplished my goals for volunteering through this particular assignment.

Level of Activity in Organization Scale Items

“Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about your level of future involvement with this nonprofit organization. 1 = do not agree at all to 7 = completely agree.”

1. I plan to attend all of the volunteer meetings held for this organization.
2. I am willing to fill additional volunteer assignments in this organization.
3. I want to increase the amount of time I spend working with this organization.

Level of Activity in Volunteer Assignment Scale Items

“Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about your level of future involvement in this volunteer assignment. 1 = do not agree at all to 7 = completely agree.”

1. I plan to attend all of the volunteer meetings held for my volunteer assignment.
2. I am willing to take on more responsibility within my volunteer assignment.
3. I want to increase the amount of time I spend working in my volunteer assignment.

APPENDIX 7

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Covariate and Demographic Questions

“The following questions will provide insight into the lifestyle of today’s volunteer. Please answer each question you feel comfortable completing. Your information will be confidential.”

1. Have you had any previous volunteer experience prior to this assignment?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, for how long? _____

2. Have you had any previous volunteer experience with this museum prior to this assignment?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, for how long? _____

3. Marital Status

Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed
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4. Age Range

under 25	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
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5. Income Range (in thousands)

under \$20	\$20-\$35	\$36-\$50	\$51-\$75	\$76-\$99	\$100+
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6. Are you a practicing member of a religion?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, which one? _____

7. Gender

Male	Female
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8. For which department in the DIA do you volunteer?

9. Do you currently volunteer with other organizations?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, how many organizations (not including the museum)? _____

10. How many days per month do you volunteer with the museum?

11. Each day that you volunteer, approximately how many hours of your time do you give?

12. For how many months have you volunteered with the DIA (including all assignments)? (for example, two years is 24 months) _____
13. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
14. What major area of study did you pursue in college or through vocational training?

15. What is your employment status?

(Additional items asked in Newsletter Study)

16. Before reading this article, were you aware of the museum activities and accomplishments reported in the article(s)?
17. Does your volunteer assignment allow you to use your areas of expertise or strong skill set areas?
18. Do you feel underutilized in your volunteer assignment?
19. Do you feel challenged in your volunteer assignment?