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VOLUNTEERISM AT URBAN PARK AND RECREATION AGENCIES:  
EXAMINING THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS' SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC  
CHARACTERISTICS, MOTIVATIONS, ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY,  
AND SATISFACTION ON VOLUNTEER PARTICIPATION OUTCOMES

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## ABSTRACT

Public park and recreation agencies have a history of using volunteers to provide leisure services to their constituencies. These agencies are facing ever-growing budget cuts and are being forced to rely on volunteers to maintain facilities and offer programs. As park and recreation agencies are relying more on volunteers to provide services, they are attempting to reach out to socio-demographically diverse constituents. Recruiting and retaining a diverse volunteer work force may be the most realistic way for public agencies to keep up with these sociodemographic changes.

Budget reductions are influencing volunteer management and oversight in park and recreation agencies. As these agencies are losing staff, they are relying more on volunteer leaders to direct and organize on the ground efforts. Park and recreation agencies, not only need to recruit and retain a diverse volunteer labor force, but they also need to recruit and retain volunteer leaders. Park and recreation volunteer managers and researchers need to better understand their current sociodemographic diversity and leadership in order to retain and possibly recruit new volunteers and leaders.

Using the conceptual framework of the Volunteer Process Model (VPM) this study examines the sociodemographic differences that exist between park and recreation volunteers in a large urban park and recreation department. Further, it examines differences that exist between volunteer leaders and non-leaders. Finally, this study examined the combined influence of all the stages of the VPM on volunteer consequences.

To examine these differences, data was collected from Philadelphia Department of Parks and Recreation volunteer leaders and general volunteers. Using both a mail

survey and email online survey 182 volunteer leaders and 149 non-leaders completed a questionnaire. The mail survey had a response rate of 30.5%, while the online survey had a response rate of 15.3%. Demographically, respondents were female (57%), white (86%), had 4-year college degrees or more (72%), on average were 53 years old, and did not have children under the age of 18 living their homes (79%). On average, respondents had volunteered for their respective volunteer organizations for 9.9 years and spent 12.8 hours per month volunteering. Most respondents volunteered for at least one other volunteer organization (79%).

Volunteers from different sociodemographic backgrounds were motivated, experienced and had significantly different levels of involvement in their volunteer efforts. Females, people of color, people with children living in their homes and people with less than a 4-year college degree had the highest levels of volunteer involvement and were more likely to be volunteer group leaders. This is contrary to previous research, which suggests that volunteer leaders are more likely to be well-educated, white, males.

When examining the combined effect of the VPM on leaders and non-leaders, the VPM explained a significant amount of the variance for both groups. For leaders, the VPM explained less of the variance in LOI (17%), however, it did explain 20% of the variance in organizational identity (OID). For non-leaders the experiences, parental status, and gender explained 32% of the variance in LOI. Female and parents had higher levels of LOI than males and people without children when accounting for all other antecedents, experiences, and proximal consequences.

These results have both managerial and conceptual implications. For leaders and non-leaders being satisfied with participation efficacy was very important. Volunteers

with the highest level of involvement not only feel that they are needed, but they then feel satisfied that they are making a valuable contribution. Managers strive to provide situations where volunteers can make a notable difference, and in cases where this is not possible they should encourage and acknowledge the volunteer efforts. Volunteer leaders develop a strong sense of identity with the organizations that they lead. They tend to view the organizations successes and failures as their own. This can be a very positive consequence for volunteer managers. The more leaders identify with their organizations the higher their level of involvement.

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## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

Volunteering has been defined as “any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, or organization” (Wilson, 2000, p. 215). Because volunteering is a freely chosen activity, it is most often pursued during a person’s non-obligatory time, and has been considered by some scholars to be a form of leisure or recreation (Stebbins, 1996). Stebbins went so far as to call volunteering a form of serious leisure, i.e. a “systematic pursuit of an ...activity that people find to be substantial, interesting, and fulfilling” (2007, p. 5). In many cases such pursuits become second careers for the volunteers. While there are numerous forms of volunteering, Stebbins limits serious leisure volunteering to organizational, structured tasks that are completed with an attitude of altruism. Such a narrow definition eliminates less structured altruistic activities such as random acts of kindness and donations of personal goods or money, despite the fact that serious leisure does account for a significant portion of the volunteering that occurs in the United States. The Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS, 2010) tracks organizational volunteer work across the United States and reports that annually millions of Americans donate billions of hours of service to various volunteer organizations.

While volunteering is an important leisure time activity for many individuals, its benefits to society and organizations are also considerable. In 2009, approximately 62 million residents of the United States spent 8.1 billion hours volunteering. The economic value of these volunteers was estimated to be \$169 billion dollars (CNCS, 2010). As leisure organizations (e.g., public sector agencies, parks and recreation organizations) increasingly face fiscal constraints that strain paid personnel budgets, they will rely more heavily on a

volunteer labor force to provide services. Even prior to the current economic downturn, many public service agencies saw drastic budgetary reductions that affected the provision of programs and maintenance of facilities. Two examples at the national level include the National Park Service (NPS) and the USDA Forest Service (NFS), both of which had significant maintenance backlogs of \$6-9 billion and \$13 billion dollars respectively (Fretwell & Podolsky, 2003; Moynihan, 2006). At the local level, public recreation agencies have seen, and are predicted to see, continued budget reductions (NRPA: National Recreation and Park Association, 2009), which have been manifested in employee layoffs and furloughs. In such an austere climate, leisure service agencies need to seek different ways to collaborate with outside organizations, groups, and individuals to provide services.

Though not a comprehensive solution to the resource and staffing issues plaguing park and recreation agencies, effective volunteer recruitment, development, and management can help address these challenges. The number of people volunteering in America has been steadily increasing over the past three years (CNCS, 2010). This, despite the economic challenges that many American households are facing (e.g., increased unemployment, home foreclosures, etc.) can provide parks and recreation agencies additional labor to sustain their services (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010).

Utilizing volunteers to provide services is not new to most park and recreation agencies, which have a history of relying heavily on volunteers to sustain their services due to limited budgets (Strigas, 2006). Park and recreation agencies use volunteers as administrative workers, advisory board committee members (or other leadership roles), fund raisers, group instructors, coaches, park maintenance workers, and environmental interpreters or stewards, just to mention a few (Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Ryan, Kaplan & Grese, 2001;

Strigas, 2006; Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). Park and recreation administrators have reported that in recent years, they have become increasingly reliant on citizen involvement at all levels of their organizations, from planning capital projects to implementing programs. One of the five key NRPA recommendations for dealing with financial hardships was to find new ways to further engage citizens in the process of managing parks and recreation facilities (National Recreation and Park Association, 2009). This can be done, in part, through volunteer work. According to Backman, Wicks, and Silverberg (1997, p. 58), “active volunteer programs have become synonymous with efficiency and good management practices.”

## **Conceptual Framework for Understanding Volunteerism**

### **Introduction**

There is a volunteer labor force that is available and ready to work for park and recreation agencies, but park agency administrators need to better understand volunteering and the volunteer labor force in order to take advantage of this growing opportunity. Volunteer managers should understand what motivates their volunteers to give of their time and energies, how satisfied their volunteers are with their experiences as volunteers and what are the outcomes of those experiences. Omoto and Snyder (2002) provide a framework that conceptualizes the process of volunteering called the Volunteer Process Model or VPM. The central tenet of this model is that volunteerism is a process that develops at multiple levels over time. They suggest that volunteerism can be analyzed and understood at three levels: the societal level, the agency level, and the individual volunteer level. At each of these levels there are factors that contribute to a variety of possible experiences, ultimately leading to favorable consequences for society, the organization, and the volunteer.

At each of these levels there are three stages of the VPM. Antecedents are the first stage of the VPM, and relate to what personality traits, circumstantial characteristics, and motivational forces influence people to volunteer. The second stage of the VPM is the volunteer experience itself. Volunteers' experiences often determine whether a volunteer will continue to volunteer or terminate their service. The final stage of the VPM is consequences to volunteering, such as, changes in attitude and intentions to return or continue volunteering. The Volunteer Process Model across these levels and stages is illustrated in Figure 1.

Most volunteer research, especially research using the VPM, has been done at the individual level of analysis. Even when Omoto and Snyder examined the societal and agency levels of analysis they focused on individual volunteers rather than examining the society or agency level indicators. To provide the reader with a better understanding of possible antecedents, experiences and consequences at each level (e.g., society, organization, individual), examples are provided below.

Examples of antecedents at the societal level include social climate and community resources. Omoto and Snyder (2002) measured social climate by the individual volunteers' perceptions of others' attitudes towards their work. Experiences at the social systems level include volunteers' social networks and recipients' social networks. Both volunteers and recipients of volunteer service evaluated their social networks by reporting how many people belong to their individual networks. Public education could be a consequence of volunteering at the social systems level of analysis. Public education was not measured as the knowledge of the general public, but rather as the knowledge gained by the volunteers and recipients of volunteer services.

At the agency or organizational level of analysis, an example of an antecedent would be identification of volunteers and the recruitment of volunteers. Omoto and Snyder suggest that an experience would be the delivery of services or the actual completion of a task. In a park setting the completion of a task might be a park clean up day or special event. Consequences at this level would be the retention of volunteers and ultimately the fulfillment of the agency's mission. Similar to the three stages of the VPM at the societal level of analysis, Omoto and Snyder focused their research to support the agency level of analysis with data collected from individual volunteers rather than from volunteer agencies.

Though Omoto and Snyder discuss three levels of analysis in their VPM, a vast majority of their research (and other volunteering research) has focused been confined to the individual volunteer level. This focus on the individual is probably a result of their discipline of study, psychology and the ease of accessing a volunteer study population. They claim that, at the individual level of analysis, the most important antecedent contributing to experiences and outcomes is a person's motivation(s) to volunteer (Clary & Snyder, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Silverberg, 2004). Furthermore, volunteer satisfaction during and after a volunteer-oriented event would be examples of the volunteering experience at the individual volunteer level. Consequences at this level include a volunteer's commitment to return and level of participation in volunteer activities. Research on the individual level of analysis has shown that individuals volunteered longer if they reported stronger, self-focused motivations for volunteering and were more satisfied with their overall volunteer experience (Omoto & Snyder, 2002).



<b>Level of Analysis</b>	<b>Antecedents</b>	<b>Experiences</b>	<b>Consequences</b>
Social Systems	Social Climate	Volunteers' Social Network	Public education
Agency	Recruit Volunteers	Delivery of Services	Retention and Reenlistment
Individual Volunteer	Motivations	Satisfaction	Commitment to Return

Figure 1. The Volunteer Process Model

Adapted from Omoto, A.M., & Snyder, M. 2002. Considerations of community: The context and process of volunteerism. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 45(5), 849.

Though a significant amount of attention has been paid to the individual volunteer level of the VPM, gaps still exist in the research for this level of analysis. Omoto and Snyder suggest that the VPM was designed to be applicable to most forms of volunteering; however, they only studied and tested it on volunteers and volunteer programs that dealt with the HIV and the AIDS epidemic. These type of volunteers may be motivated to volunteer and experience the volunteer process very differently than park and recreation volunteers due to a difference in stigmatization. Volunteers working with HIV/AIDS programs are highly stigmatized, especially compared to park and recreation volunteers who are recognized for their effort to improve the community. Further, it is not clear how this model might function between park and recreation volunteers of diverse backgrounds and with diverse organizational roles (i.e., volunteer leaders or non-leaders). Volunteers in Omoto and Snyder's studies tended to be wealthy, white, females who are motivated less by altruistic reasons and more by personal benefit reasons. In other words, relatively little is known about the motivations and volunteer experience of park and recreation volunteers from diverse demographic backgrounds. Not all volunteers contribute to their volunteer organizations at the same level or in the same roles. Occasional or infrequent volunteers and volunteer leaders experience volunteer antecedents, experiences, and consequences differently.

Volunteer leaders and non-leaders of many volunteer organizations differ in their level of institutional knowledge and their commitment to their volunteer organizations (Cha,

Cichy, & Kim, 2011). Park and recreation agencies often have hundreds of volunteer groups that assist in maintaining their parks and recreation facilities. It is not plausible for agency administrators or employees to organize each individual volunteer group. As a result, individual volunteers take on leadership roles that require them to understand the park agency as well as their own volunteer group and facility. Volunteer leaders may be required to recruit new members, organize events and communicate with the park and recreation agency regularly. This requires a much higher level of commitment and dedication than simply being a volunteer who shows up for park clean up days. Despite the significant differences that exist between volunteer leaders and non-leaders little research exists comparing and understanding the two groups.

Still, more research gaps exist at the individual level of the VPM. At this stage, most research has focused on the length of service and level of involvement (in the form of hours participated per a certain time period), yet Omoto and Snyder suggest that there are other types of non-behavioral consequences that may be relevant to volunteer researchers and managers that have not been examined. One such consequence is organizational identity, which is the bond between the volunteer and the organization, where the failures and successes of that specific organization become failures and successes of the volunteers (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Having volunteers identify with one specific organization is becoming increasingly important as park and recreation organizations compete with other organizations for volunteers' time and involvement. This could be particularly true for the retention of and development of volunteer leaders that dedicate more time and energy to the organizations they lead. Level of involvement has been examined in the volunteer literature; however, it is most commonly measured simply by the number of hours that a person spends volunteering

with an organization and does not capture other contributions of the volunteer (i.e., donations, use of personal equipment, specific skills, or leadership). There is a need to incorporate an attitudinal measure of level of involvement in testing this model.

### Study Purpose

The bivariate relationships between volunteers' motivations and their participation have been studied extensively (Backman et al., 1997; Clary et al., 1996; Silverberg et al., 2004), as have the relationships between satisfaction and participation (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Backman et al., 2001). Clary et al. (1998) studied the link between volunteer motivations (VFI) and volunteer satisfaction, and found further significant relationships between several motivations and volunteer satisfaction. Further, OID has been linked with participation outcomes in alumni and entrepreneurial literature, but has not been studied as closely in the volunteer literature, despite the close relationship that exists between the volunteer and paid work forces. There is an opportunity to elevate OID as an important concept to be understood in fostering committed volunteers. The purpose of this study is to further examine the relationship between volunteer leadership, diversity, motivations, satisfaction, organizational diversity, and volunteer participation.

Park and recreation organizations are going to continue to rely on a volunteer labor force in order to maintain their facilities and programs. Moreover, in light of recent budget shortfalls, some organizations will be forced to rely on volunteer leadership to organize and offer programs. Further, park and recreation organizations are going to need to recruit new volunteer and volunteer leaders from their increasingly diversifying constituencies. If park and recreation organizations wish to retain their current volunteers and recruit new volunteers and volunteer leaders they need to better understand the predictors of volunteer participation

and engagement based on current conceptual models. Specifically, it is important that volunteer managers understand how antecedents, such as demographic characteristics and motivations, influence the volunteer experience and how both the antecedents and experiences influence volunteer consequences. Two consequences that warrant a more rigorous examination are organizational identity and level of involvement. OI has not been tested as a consequence of volunteer antecedents and experiences and LOI has only been measured as the number of hours of volunteering per a specific time period, neglecting other possible contributions that may be equally important.

To better understand how volunteer group leaders and volunteers from diverse backgrounds experience volunteerism in a park and recreation setting, this study builds upon the conceptual framework provided by Omoto and Snyder (1990, 1995, 2002), focusing on the individual volunteer as the level of analysis. This study also, seeks to better understand the differences that exist between park and recreation volunteer leaders and non-leaders. This study will provide a better understanding of which volunteer antecedents lead to favorable experiences, and would ultimately result in more favorable volunteer outcomes or consequences at a behavioral and attitudinal level. For the present study, a cross sectional design was used to evaluate attitudes and behaviors of Philadelphia Department of Park and Recreation current volunteers and volunteer leaders.

Many urban leisure service agencies have made efforts to improve, but Philadelphia is a city that is reaching out and engaging its citizenry in order to maintain high quality services. The Philadelphia Department of Parks and Recreation (PDPR), in particular, reported receiving more than 200,000 hours of volunteer labor in 2009, which had it been paid, had an estimated value of \$3.6 million. This volunteer labor included the formal work

provided by park friends groups, advisory councils, and corporate sponsors. Not included were the countless youth sport volunteers responsible for coaching and managing sport leagues throughout the city (Trautvein & Mowen, 2010). Even though they are already receiving a significant amount of support from their volunteer labor force, recent budget reductions have required PDPR to rely more heavily on volunteers to maintain its parks and programs. With this increased reliance on a volunteer labor force, recruitment, retention, and involvement of the PDPR's volunteer work force has become increasingly important. The VPM provides a framework for volunteer researchers and for organizations like PDPR to understand and address the needs of their volunteer labor force through identifying and organizing practical and conceptual issues related to volunteer experiences (Omoto & Snyder, 2002). The following section will introduce the three stages of the VPM (e.g., antecedents, experiences, and consequences) and discuss what is known about the constructs that have been used to represent each of those stages.

### **Stages of the Volunteer Process Model**

The VPM provides the basic conceptual framework for this study. Volunteer antecedents, experiences, and consequences are now discussed.

#### **Antecedents**

Antecedents are the first stage of the volunteer process model. As the name implies, these are characteristics and beliefs that individuals have prior to volunteering that influence their experience as volunteers, as well as the consequences of their volunteer experience. Demographic background and motivations are two of the VPM antecedents and they are described below.

### *Demographics*

As a relatively young country, America has long been a diverse nation of different nationalities, races, ethnicities, abilities, and circumstances. Despite this tradition, America is experiencing unprecedented changes among certain demographics, such as race/ethnicity, age and social class. The Census Bureau projects that in less than 40 years the percentage of Americans reporting being Latino/Hispanic will increase from 16 % to over 30 % of the population, while the percent of those reporting being white (not Hispanic) will decrease from 64 % to less than 45 % (2010). In addition, as a result of the large Baby-Boom generation getting older, we see an aging of the country (US Census, 2010).

These and other changes in demographics will have a direct impact on volunteer recruitment and retention in the future. As the reliance on a volunteer work force grows, volunteer managers are going to need to recruit from these growing populations. The growing population of Latinos/Hispanics, in particular, will be an extremely important group for volunteer managers to understand and recruit as volunteers. The aging population is also a concern to volunteer managers, not because of low participation rates, but because as volunteers age their abilities and interests tend to change as well. For these reasons the demographic background of volunteers is an important antecedent to volunteering at the individual level of analysis. Volunteer motivations, satisfaction, and participation may all be influenced by volunteer demographic characteristics (i.e., age, gender, race/ethnicity, parental status, and education) (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Musick, Wilson, & Bynum, 2000; Silverberg, Backman & Backman, 2000).

The influence of volunteer demographics on the various stages of the VPM have varied from one study to another, based on the study context. For example, Clary et al.

(1996) found from a national survey of volunteers that white respondents were more likely than black respondents to report being motivated to volunteer for career related reasons. Yet, in another study of park and recreation volunteers, Silverberg et al. (2000) found that blacks and Latinos were more likely than whites to be motivated by career related reasons.

Silverberg et al. (2000) published one of the only studies that examined the influence of park and recreation volunteer demographics on volunteer experiences (as measured by satisfaction), one of the stages of the VPM. As such, there is a need to better understand how the three VPM stages differ based on key demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, parental status, and education, as well as controlling for such variables when testing the overall model.

### *Motivations*

Motivations for volunteering, more than any other construct, have been used to understand the reasons that people volunteer. This emphasis may be a result of the inherently altruistic nature of the volunteer experience. Volunteers are people who, in the face of numerous obstacles, dedicate their free time and make a considerable effort to seek out and participate in work (often manual labor) without financial remuneration. There are clearly internal, psychological influences that compel people to give up their free time to serve others (Clary et al., 1996). It is important for leisure scholars and park and recreation organizations to understand the varying motives of their volunteer workforce in order to optimize the volunteer experience and consequences by volunteer segment.

Motivations to volunteer are most frequently examined from a functional theory approach (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996). Functional theory suggests that individuals are motivated to participate in activities as a result of personal or social goals that are not being

met in their lives (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956). Original functional theorists believe that there are several basic psychological functions that pervade all human activity. The knowledge function is the first of these, where the goal being sought is an understanding of how the world works. Second, the value function allows individuals to express values that are important to them. Third, the ego defensive function protects the ego from threatening aspects of the self (Katz, 1960). This function suggests that people volunteer for reasons that will make them feel better about themselves or subdue negative feelings they have towards themselves. Smith et al. (1956) suggested that there is another function that assists individuals in fitting in with others; it is called the social adjustive function. People who volunteer for this reason would be very concerned about the social rewards and punishments of volunteering.

In an effort to better understand the motivations of volunteers, Clary et al. (1996) applied functional theory to volunteerism. They posited that people engage in volunteer work to satisfy important personal, psychological, and social goals. Though two people may participate in the same volunteer experience, it is likely that they have unique, individualized functions (goals) that they are seeking to accomplish. Clary et al. (1996) used the basic psychological functions explained by Katz (1960) and Smith et al. (1956) as foundations to understanding volunteer motivations.

Researchers have sought to understand the motivations of leisure in a manner similar to functional theory. Driver and Tocher (1970), for example, suggested that recreation activities are behavioral activities that are instrumental to attaining psychological and physical goals. If there is a goal that has not been achieved, the individual will pursue an activity to solve what Driver and Tocher call a “problem state.” To measure recreational



motivations, Driver and Tocher developed the Recreation Experience Preference (REP) scale. The psychological and physical goals measured by the REP closely resemble the psychological functions or motivations of functional theory. While the REP sought to understand why people engage in leisure behavior, Clary et al. (1996) used a functional theory of beliefs and behaviors to understand why people volunteer.

The functional theory of beliefs and behaviors suggests that there are psychological and social needs/goals that people must satisfy through their beliefs and behaviors. According to this view, people will seek out volunteer experiences when one of those psychological or social needs is not being filled in order to satisfy that need or goal. Different individuals seek to satisfy different motivations through their volunteer activity (Clary et al., 1996). To specifically measure the psychological functions of volunteers, Clary et al. developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI).

Six core psychological functions were included in the final version of the VFI (Clary et al., 1996). These functions included values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. Values, the first of the functions, allow the individual to express altruistic feelings towards others. This represents the traditional idea that people volunteer simply to help others. Understanding is the second of the functions and it refers to the opportunities volunteers have to develop and exercise skills, knowledge and abilities that would otherwise go unused. The third VFI function is social interactions; that is, interacting and socializing with others. The career function refers to career, related benefits that may be obtained from participation in volunteer work. Fifth, the protective function refers to the protection of the ego. It is used to cope with internal anxieties like feelings of inadequacy, or reducing guilt for being more fortunate than others. The final function of the VFI is enhancement, which

also deals with the ego. However, unlike the protective function, enhancement allows the volunteer to enhance his or her self-esteem through helping others. Though Clary et al. only used six motivational functions in the VFI, there other functions may be relevant for public services, including parks and recreation. One function that may be particularly relevant to volunteerism for community services (such as parks and recreation) is coproduction.

Many park and recreation agencies rely heavily on a volunteer work force to provide recreation programs and maintain park spaces. In some instances services have been contingent on communities providing volunteer efforts that match departmental efforts (Backman, Wicks, & Silverberg, 1997). As a result, many volunteers have been motivated to volunteer, not for one of the traditional functions, but for a more self-serving function, known as coproduction. Individuals may not only perceive that they will receive direct benefits from their service as a volunteer, they may perceive that there are secondary or indirect benefits to their volunteer efforts. A perceived direct benefit may be the provision of a recreation space for the volunteer (e.g., a community garden or a walking track). Indirectly, volunteers may be motivated to volunteer to provide a safe place for their children, improve the aesthetics of the community, or even reduce crime in the neighborhood (Backman et al., 1997).

### **Experience**

#### *Satisfaction*

Understanding the demographics and motivations of volunteers represents the first stage in understanding the volunteer process model at the individual level. Administrators and volunteer researchers also need to understand the importance of the volunteer experience as it relates to their agency and how antecedent characteristics relate to these experiences.

Past research suggests that the most direct and simple method to understanding the volunteer experience is through assessments of volunteer satisfaction. Due to its strong relationship with volunteer retention outcomes, volunteer satisfaction has received increasing amounts of attention in the past two decades (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). And, because of the limited resources available to recruit and train new volunteers, it is becoming increasingly important to satisfy and retain the existing volunteer work force.

Until recently there was little consistency in how volunteer satisfaction was measured. Most satisfaction measures were adapted from the literature on paid work satisfaction without the intention of being used more broadly (Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) developed a reliable measure of volunteer satisfaction by identifying aspects of satisfaction and adopting items from 16 different measures of volunteer satisfaction that had been culled from employee satisfaction measures. The outcome was the Volunteer Job Satisfaction Index (VSI).

Due to the dynamic nature of volunteer satisfaction, the VSI measures four dimensions of satisfaction (organizational support, participation efficacy, sense of empowerment, and group integration). Organizational support measures satisfaction with the emotional and educational resources the agency provides volunteers to perform their assignments (Cyr & Dowrick, 1991). The second dimension of satisfaction, participation efficacy, measures the extent to which volunteers are able to accomplish the tasks given them and the impact those tasks have on the population or agency being served. Participation efficacy is often cited as the key reason that people terminate their volunteer service (Marrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). Participation efficacy is also the strongest predictor of volunteer intent to return (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). While it is important that

volunteers receive adequate supervision and feel comfortable with their duties, it is also important that they be afforded the opportunity to take ownership of their efforts and develop a sense of empowerment, the third dimension of satisfaction. Group integration is the social component of the VSI. It focuses on the relationship that volunteers develop with the staff and each other. Cyr and Dowrick (1991) found that poor volunteer group relationships were the leading cause of burnout for volunteers. Having direct contact with staff and other volunteers typically influences higher levels of overall satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Collectively, these volunteer antecedents and experiences can influence volunteer outcomes, including volunteer participation rates across a wide spectrum of organizations. Indeed, park and recreation agencies are not the only organizations that rely heavily on volunteers to provide their programs and services. There are countless non-profit, and even for profit, organizations that are recruiting and sharing park and recreation volunteers. While the number of people volunteering in the United States has steadily increased over the past three years, the number of hours that people have volunteered has remained relatively unaffected. Thus, it is important that park and recreation administrators learn to enhance volunteer outcomes or consequences by satisfying volunteers through strong bonds between their agencies and their fellow volunteers.

### **Consequences**

Though volunteers do not typically receive a paycheck for their services, their labor is not free of expenses to the volunteer organization. A significant amount of time and money spent training and managing an effective volunteer labor force (Tedrick & Henderson, 1989).

As a result, continuing volunteer participation and retention are at the forefront of managers' concerns.

The first two stages of the volunteer process model lead to volunteer consequences (i.e., continued participation, retention, etc.). Consequences that are most widely studied include amount of time spent volunteering for an organization (participation) and retention. Because most studies are cross sectional in nature, retention is usually measured in two ways, the number of years spent as a volunteer and the volunteer's intention to return the following year. However, the extent that a volunteer identifies with his/her organization and its causes/mission could be another consequence that corresponds with other behavioral consequences.

#### *Organizational Identity*

At the individual level, a consequence (outcome) of motivated and satisfied workers is a strong cognitive bond held toward their organization (Scott & Lane, 2000). This bond, also referred to as organizational identity (OID), has been defined by some as a set of beliefs shared between managers/administrators and all stakeholders of an organization (Albert & Whetten, 1985; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). However, Mael and Ashforth (1992) would argue that shared beliefs are not the same as true OID, which they define as "a oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own" (p. 103). Traditionally, organizational identity has been studied most in the corporate sector. However, as park and recreation agencies follow a management model that is increasingly entrepreneurial, there is a need to incorporate an affective measure of volunteer consequences such as organizational identity.

Stakeholders that develop a positive OID are likely to have significantly more continued interactions with the organization, and provide more helpful and supportive behaviors than those that do not develop a strong OID (Dutton et al., 1994; Scott & Lane, 2000). As individuals identify more with an organization, the amount of time they spend working for the organization also increases (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

Omoto and Snyder (2002) have purported organizational identity as one of the consequences in their VPM. Mael and Ashforth (1992) found that organizational satisfaction was a significant predictor of OID. The more satisfied people are with their organizations, the more they are able to identify with that organization. Also, examining identity as an outcome variable, Finkelstein, Penner, Brannick, and Michael (2005) found a significant relationship between motivations and organizational identity. Though there is evidence to support using OID as a consequence in the volunteer process model, it is probable that more distal outcomes (i.e., participation, willingness to return) are related to organizational identity. Following Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1985), which suggests that attitudes lead to behaviors, OID, an attitude of emotional attachment to an organization is treated as a proximal outcome of volunteer behaviors such as LOI.

#### *Level of Involvement*

The number of hours volunteered over a specific period of time (i.e., week, month, year) has frequently been used to measure the level of involvement (LOI) of volunteers (Chacon, Vecina & Davila, 2007; Finkelstein, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Though time is one of the most important components of involvement, there are other ways in which volunteers contribute and are involved in their volunteer efforts. Involvement can

include other factors, such as leadership or organizational skills, and donating money (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Scott & Lane, 2000) and/or other resources, such as use of personal equipment (i.e., vehicles, tools, etc.) (Gage, 2009). A new measure of involvement that captures the combined effect of all contributions made to an organization may be warranted. One such method to more accurately measure of involvement would be to provide a list of common contributions made by volunteers and ask them to rate the extent to which they contributed these items. Gage (2010), asked college student volunteers to indicate whether they made certain contributions to their volunteer organizations. However, the extent that they made these contributions was not measured. A more comprehensive assessment of level of involvement is warranted for park and recreation volunteers.

Park and recreation professionals and researchers would benefit from a better understanding of volunteer consequences and the relationship between antecedents, experiences and those consequences. This information can assist volunteer managers in evaluating their volunteer programs by providing a more comprehensive overview of volunteer contributions.

LOI is the most distal consequence of the volunteer process, and is predicted by OID, which is a proximal attitudinal consequence of the VPM. Satisfaction, motivations and sociodemographic characteristics were also predictors of LOI. The proposed conceptual model is presented in Figure 2.

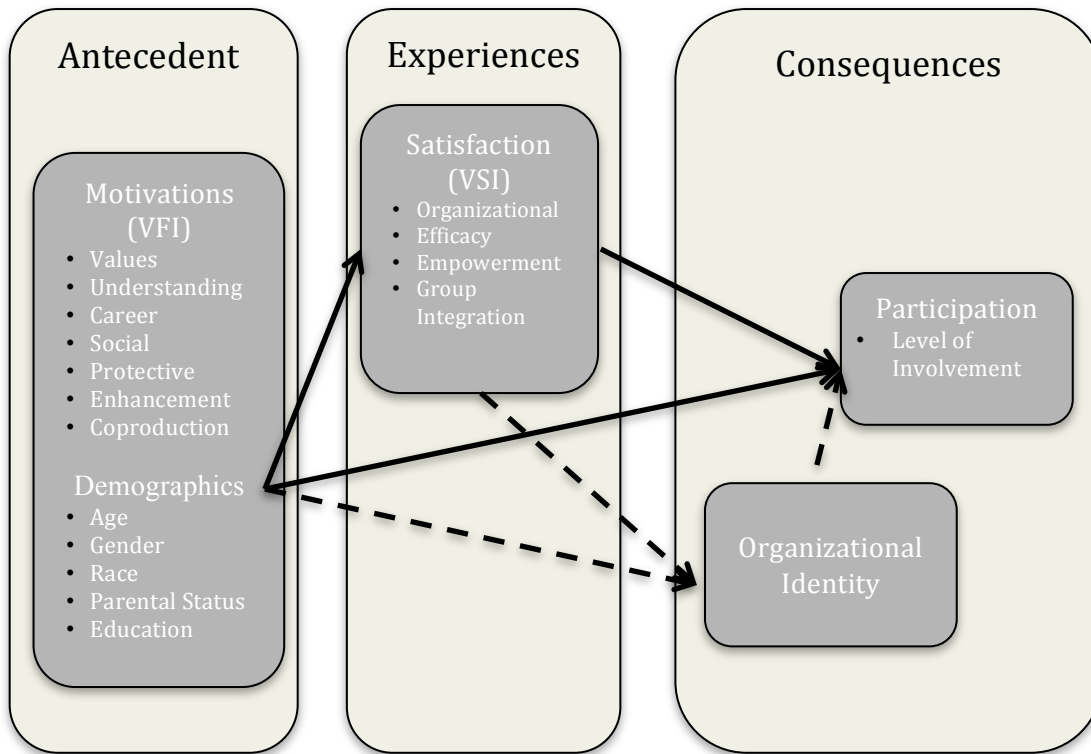


Figure 2. Proposed Volunteer Process Model with Organizational Identity and Level of Involvement as new Consequences.

### Research Questions

R1) Are there differences in how people with different sociodemographic characteristics (age, gender, race, parental status, education) experience volunteerism in park and recreation settings?

- 1a) Do volunteer antecedents, experiences and consequences differ based on age (Line these up)
- 1b) Do volunteer antecedents, experiences and consequences differ based on gender?
- 1c) Do volunteer antecedents, experiences and consequences differ based on race?
- 1d) Do volunteer antecedents, experiences and consequences differ based on parental status?
- 1e) Do volunteer antecedents, experiences and consequences differ based on education?



R2) Do volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differ significantly between park and recreation volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

2a) Do volunteers' demographic characteristics (age, gender, race/ethnicity, parental status, education) differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

2b) Do volunteer motivations differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

2c) Does volunteer satisfaction differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

2d) Does volunteer organizational identity differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

2e) Does volunteer level of involvement (including duration of service, and hours per month of service) differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

R3) Do antecedents, and experiences contribute to volunteering outcomes of park and recreation volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

### **Delimitations**

The mail survey was delimited to volunteer group leaders that were registered with the PDPR. Further, this study was delimited to volunteer leaders that were 18 years of age and older. The online-email survey was delimited to volunteers (non-leader volunteers) of 15 park friend groups that were selected by the PDPR. Still another delimitation of the online survey was that park friend groups only distributed the survey to members of their group that had volunteered at least once in the past year (active volunteers).

### **Limitations**

1. The study design for this research was cross-sectional. Although the VPM suggests causal linkages, the current study design provided no definitive proof of causal

- effects. Conclusions were based on one-time reports and there was no control group or setting.
2. This study used only self-report measures to assess the various constructs of the VPM. Recollection and social desirability of the topics (i.e., amount of time spent volunteering and the motivations for volunteering) are limitations of this study.

## Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Introduction**

The role of volunteerism in community parks and recreation has been growing since the 1970s and 1980s, when resident dissatisfaction with government services was highlighted by taxpayer revolts. There was a nationwide shift to downsize public services including parks and recreation (Levine, 1984). As public service budgets decreased, a move to privatization and entrepreneurial management strategies increased (Silverstein, 1996). Park and recreation managers have sought out new and creative ways to provide services while conserving tax dollars (Silverberg et al., 2000). A growing reliance on local residents has been one “essential element” in providing safe, aesthetically pleasing parks and recreation areas (Backman et al., 1997, p. 58). In many instances, park and recreation services have been withheld from communities until the community guarantees a match of volunteer efforts to government investment.

With this ever-growing reliance on volunteers, park and recreation agencies are focusing more attention on management issues related to this “free” labor force. While volunteers may work without expectation of remuneration (Clary et al., 1998), their service is not entirely free. Much like employees, a significant amount of resources are spent recruiting, training, and retaining volunteers. As a result, managers should understand key components to the volunteer process. First, why would people volunteer for their agency; second, how satisfied are volunteers with their experience with the agency; third, how does the volunteer identify with the agency; and fourth, is the volunteer committed to return and volunteer for the agency again?

In order to conceptualize and better understand the overall volunteer experience, I will first discuss a conceptual model developed by Omoto and Snyder (1995), that provides a framework for understanding the process of volunteerism. The Volunteer Process Model (VPM) will provide the structure for this literature review.

### **Volunteer Process Model**

In an effort to understand and organize all the volunteer phenomena that surround volunteers that work with people who have the AIDS virus, Omoto and Snyder developed a conceptual framework that identifies stages of the volunteer process (1990). The central tenet of this model is that volunteerism is a process that develops at multiple levels over time. Volunteerism (i.e., the act of volunteering) can be analyzed at three levels: the agency level, the individual volunteer level, and the societal level. At each of these levels there are antecedents, experiences and consequences to volunteering. An example of an antecedent at the agency level of analysis would be recruitment of volunteers. At this level, an experience would be the delivery of services (completion of a task), and a consequence would be the retention of volunteers.

This research will focus on the individual level of analysis. The most important antecedent would be person's motivations to volunteer (Clary & Snyder, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Silverberg, 2004). Volunteer satisfaction during and after a volunteer event would be an example of the experience at the individual volunteer level. At this level, volunteers' commitment to return would be an example of a consequence.

This literature review will summarize literature from each of the stages of the VPM; antecedents, experiences, and consequences. First, antecedents will be discussed, specifically motivations and socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers. Second,

volunteer experiences will be discussed. Third, volunteer consequences will be reviewed. Including organizational commitment, identity and level of involvement. Finally, volunteer leadership will be discussed.

### **Volunteer Antecedents**

#### *Motivations*

Functional theory is the most frequently utilized model for conceptualizing volunteer motivations (Clary, et al., 1996). Functional theory suggests that all human activity is undertaken as a result of personal or social goals that are not being met (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956).

Clary et al. (1996) were the first to utilize functional theory to understand volunteer actions. They posited that people might engage in volunteer work to satisfy one or more personal psychological and/or social goals (functions). These functions included values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. To test their idea they created the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), which is a battery of statements that volunteers are asked to read and respond to using an importance score between (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important. The values function is really a measure of altruistic motives and is includes items such as “I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself” and “I feel it is important to help others.” The understanding function suggests that people volunteer to develop new skills or knowledge. It is measured with items like “I can learn more about the cause for which I am working” and “volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.” Interacting with other people is important to many volunteers and is measured as the social interactions function with items like “my friends volunteer” and “people close to me volunteer.” Career functions are related to benefits volunteers obtain from participation that

will help them in their careers. This is measured with such items as “volunteering allows me to explore different career options” and “volunteering experience will look good on my resume.” The protection function refers to protection of the ego. It is used to cope with internal anxieties like feeling inadequate, or reducing guilt for being more fortunate than others. Items that are used to measure this include “volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles” and “volunteering helps me through my own personal problems.” The sixth volunteer function measured by the VFI is the enhancement function, which allows volunteers to enhance their self-esteem through helping others. This is different from the protective function, in that it actually builds up the ego rather than simply protecting it. Items used to measure this function include “volunteering makes me feel important” and “volunteering makes me feel needed.”

The volunteer functions inventory (VFI) is a valid, reliable, temporally stable measure of motivations to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998). It is highly correlated of satisfaction and commitment to volunteering. Through the mid to late 1990s Clary et al. established the reliability of VFI. The VFI functions and items were developed from previous volunteer research and preliminary qualitative studies. After a list of 30 items (5 items per each function) was developed, it was tested for reliability. Using a principal-axis factor analysis with oblique rotation to the preselected 6-factor solution, items from each of the functions loaded on the intended factors.

In a second study intended to verify the cross validity of the VFI, Clary et al. (1996) assessed college students who were not actively participating as volunteers. This sample represented a younger age group of respondents that, for the most part, were not established

volunteers. Factor analysis again revealed a 6-factor solution that matched the predicted volunteer functions.

In another study, Clary et al. (1998) tested the ability of the VFI to “predict” volunteer satisfaction. Results showed that the volunteer functions that were most important (values and enhancement) to the respondents were significantly related to volunteer satisfaction. Finally, Clary et al. (1998) conducted a study to examine the ability of the VFI to “predict” volunteer commitment (operationalized as intentions to continue volunteering). Results suggested that volunteers who received benefits that matched their desired functions were more likely to continue volunteering for that organization.

### *Coproduction*

The VFI has been used to examine the motivations and outcomes of community recreation volunteers (Backman et al., 1997; Silverberg, 2004; Silverberg et al., 2000). Researchers have found that when studying park and recreation volunteers there may be other functions at play besides the six factors suggested by Clary et al. (1996; 1998). Many community recreation agencies rely heavily on volunteers in order to provide recreation and park services. They also suggest that if individuals do not volunteer, recreation and park services may cease to be available to those citizens. Hence, many volunteers may be motivated to participate as community recreation volunteers in an effort to continue receiving services provided by those agencies. This type of motivation is referred to as “coproduction”.

Backman et al. (1997) used data collected as part of a 1992 national study on “Giving and Volunteering in the United States” to examine the utility of the VFI and the coproduction function of park and recreation volunteers. A subsample of recreation volunteers was

selected from the larger study. Unlike Clary et al. (1998), the results of the volunteer functions only factored into three domains. These factors were labeled as internally motivating, altruistic or empathetic, and coproduction. Backman et al. found that the coproduction variable was highest for adults under the age of 34 and respondents reporting their marital status as separated. The authors suggested that people who are highly motivated by the coproduction function are prime targets for park and recreation volunteer recruitment. They recommended that recreation and park administrators seek out people motivated by this function.

In another study Silverberg (2004) sought to replicate the findings of Clary et al. (1996), and suggested that volunteer satisfaction could be predicted by the VFI. Like Backman et al. (1997) he included coproduction as a volunteer function. In his study of park and recreation volunteers in the Phoenix, Arizona area, he found that two of the volunteer functions were related to participation, enhancement, and coproduction. The only volunteer function that was significantly related to volunteer satisfaction was coproduction. The more volunteers were motivated to volunteer by coproduction, the more satisfied they were with their volunteer experience.

In many municipalities, park and recreation is viewed as a discretionary or non-essential service when compared with other public services like emergency services and police (Crompton, 1999). Because parks and recreation agencies often lack political clout, when budgets are cut, they are the first to see funding reductions. Crompton suggests that most taxpayers are not frequent users of park and recreation services, making them disconnected from the agencies and less willing to support such services. Currently municipal budget cuts are the norm and not the exception. Many municipalities are facing



such strong budgetary woes that essential and non-essential services are all receiving significant budget reductions. In the City of Philadelphia where the current mayor and city council are avid supporters of park and recreation services, the Philadelphia Department of Parks and Recreation (PDPR) had a budget reduction of \$1.4 million dollars last year and this year will lose 75% of their summer seasonal staff to budget cuts (E. Fagan, personal communication, March 11, 2011).

To cope with the loss of such a substantial work force, PDPR will rely more heavily on volunteers to maintain their facilities and run their programs. As volunteers and community members witness the effects of these budget cuts, their motivations to volunteer may shift more to a coproduction attitude. If volunteers' facilities and programs are threatened they may be more likely to increase their level of involvement.

#### *Volunteer Diversity*

The sociodemographic characteristics of volunteers are important antecedents to volunteering at the individual level of analysis. Volunteer motivations, satisfaction, and participation are all influenced by volunteer demographic characteristics (i.e., age, gender, race/ethnicity, parental status and education) (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Musick, Wilson, & Bynum, 2000; Silverberg et al., 2000).

There is a significant amount of variation between studies that have examined the influence of volunteer demographics on the stages of the VPM. For example, Clary et al. (1996) found that from a national survey of volunteers, white respondents were more likely than black respondents to report being motivated to volunteer for career, related reasons. Yet in a study of park and recreation volunteers, Silverberg et al. (2000) found that black and Latinos were more likely than whites to be motivated by career, related reasons.

## **Volunteer Experiences**

The second stage of the volunteer process model is the volunteer experience. Omoto and Snyder (2002) proposed that the best way of capturing the volunteer experience was to assess volunteer satisfaction. The following section will review the volunteer satisfaction literature.

### *Satisfaction*

Understanding what motivates volunteers to dedicate their efforts to an agency or cause only begins to explain why volunteers return year after year to work for their respective organizations. One of the most frequently cited factors for maintaining volunteers has been volunteer satisfaction. Volunteer satisfaction has been found to be positively associated with time spent volunteering, years of service, and intentions to continue as a volunteer (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Finkelstein, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Wong, Chui, & Kwok, 2010). A sense of satisfaction gained from a previous volunteer experience can serve as a motivational force for future voluntary activity (Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Millette & Gagne, 2008). I will now discuss literature linking satisfaction to volunteer outcomes and motivations to satisfaction.

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer participation (e.g., hours spent volunteering, duration) and future intentions to remain a volunteer (Chacon, et al., 2007; Farrell et al., 1998; Finkstein, 2007; Omoto and Snyder 1995). Chacon et al. (2007) examined role that volunteer satisfaction, role identity and organizational commitment had on short, medium, and long-term retention of volunteers. Unlike most volunteer studies that are cross sectional in nature, the authors collected data at three points in time (the initial contact, six months out, and 12 months out) to assess the

influence of satisfaction, organizational commitment and role identity on actual volunteer participation (hours spent volunteering).

Findings from this study revealed that actual time spent volunteering was not directly influenced by satisfaction: rather satisfaction influenced volunteer short term intention to return (six months), which had the strongest relationship with the amount time spent volunteering at six months. The more satisfied volunteers were with their experiences the stronger their intention to return in the short term. Satisfaction explained 22 % of the variance in short-term intention to return. Time spent volunteering at 12 months was then entered in the same model as above. Results showed that medium term intention to return explained most of the variance in actual time spent volunteering at 12 months. Satisfaction still explained a significant amount of variance in short-term intention to volunteer; however, the influence of short-term intentions was diminished in the 12-month model.

These results suggest that the most important time for volunteer managers to be concerned with volunteer satisfaction is near the beginning of their volunteers' tenure. This does not diminish the importance of providing satisfying experiences to more tenured volunteers; rather, it stressed the importance of the volunteer orientation period. Medium and long-term intentions to volunteer were not directly related to satisfaction; instead they were related to organizational commitment and role identity. These relationships will be discussed later in this literature review.

Finkelstein (2007), in a study of hospice workers, found that satisfaction predicted time spent volunteering. In this study, less satisfied volunteers donated fewer hours than more satisfied volunteers but still remained volunteers in the long-term. To better understand volunteer satisfaction, the author used functional motivation approach in this study. A

functional approach to volunteering (Clary et al., 1998) holds that there are varying reasons/functions (e.g., values, understanding, social, career, protective, enhancement) why people volunteer and continue to volunteer. The author evaluated how volunteer functions and function fulfillment influenced volunteer satisfaction and participation.

While she used the traditional VFI questions to assess motivations (30 items, 5 for each domain), fulfillment of those items was measured using 12 items (2 for each domain). To measure volunteer participation, length of service (tenure), and current activity level (time) were used. A correlation analysis was run with satisfaction, the six functions, and the six function fulfillment domains. Results showed that the same functions and function fulfillment domains were related to volunteer satisfaction (e.g., values, understanding, social, enhancement). With the exception of values, the function fulfillment items were more correlated with satisfaction. Volunteer satisfaction is not only influenced by the initial motivations of the volunteers, but the continued fulfillment of those motivations.

Finkelstein (2007) suggested that the best way to ensure active, satisfied volunteers is to determine early on in a volunteer's tenure what motivates them, then seek to fulfill those expectations. Though a theoretically sound concept, it is extremely difficult for overburdened volunteer managers to actualize.

Beyond functional motivations to volunteer and fulfillment of those motivations, another way of understanding volunteer satisfaction is to examine the subdomains of satisfaction that may exist for volunteers. Farrell et al. (1998) examined these relationships at a large Canadian sporting event. The authors assessed the influence of seven subdomains of satisfaction (e.g., recognition, support, information received, organization at the event, communication with other volunteers) on a single item to measure overall satisfaction (e.g.,

How satisfied are you with your volunteering experience in general?). After performing a backward regression analysis on overall satisfaction, two of the subdomains (recognition and communication with other volunteers) significantly explained forty-four percent of the variance. Measuring satisfaction with multiple subdomains provides information for managers that are typically more interpretable and implementable than the functional approach of assessing motivations or motivation fulfillment.

#### *Volunteer Satisfaction Index*

As a result of the effectiveness of volunteer subdomain scales, there have been many variations implemented with varying degrees of success. Until recently there was little consistency in how volunteer satisfaction was measured. Most satisfaction measures were adapted from literature on paid work satisfaction for individual studies without the intention of being used more broadly (Silverberg, Marshall & Ellis, 2001). For example, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) developed a reliable measure of volunteer satisfaction by identifying aspects and adopting items from 16 different measures of volunteer satisfaction that had been adapted from employee satisfaction measures. The outcome was the Volunteer Job Satisfaction Index (VSI).

The VSI was initially conceptualized as a five-dimensional construct (e.g., group integration, communication quality, support, work assignment, and participation efficacy). The authors tested these dimensions on a sample of 327 Girl Scout volunteers in California. To test these dimensions, a factor analysis was conducted, using Varimax rotation with no specific factor solution specified. Four useable factors emerged from this analysis: organizational support, participation efficacy, sense of empowerment, and group integration.

*Dimensions of the VSI*

Organizational support measures satisfaction with the emotional and educational resources the agency provides to perform their volunteer assignments (Cyr & Dowrick, 1991). The second dimension of satisfaction, participation efficacy, measures the extent to which volunteers are able to accomplish the tasks given them and the impact those tasks have on the population or agency being served. Participation efficacy is often cited as the key reason that people terminate their volunteer service (Marrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). While it is important that volunteers receive adequate supervision and feel comfortable with their duties it is also important that they be afforded the opportunity to take ownership of their efforts and develop a sense of empowerment, the third dimension of satisfaction. Group integration is the social component of the VSI. It focuses on the relationship that volunteers develop with staff and each other. Cyr and Dowrick found that volunteer group relations were the leading cause of burnout for volunteers. Having direct contact with staff and other volunteers typically influences higher levels of overall satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) used the four dimensions of the VSI to examine the relationship between the dimensions and volunteer intent to return. With their sample of Girl Scout volunteers, the only significant predictors of intent to return were participation efficacy and group integration, explaining only 14% of the variance. This relatively small effect may be a result of transiency of Girl Scout volunteers. Often parents volunteer when their children are scout age, and then cease to volunteer when their children are no longer involved. In this case, satisfaction would have less impact on volunteers' intentions to return to volunteer than would their children's intent to continue in the organization. The authors

recommend that other volunteer outcome variables be used as well, like organizational commitment and level of involvement.

The VSI has been used in various studies examining volunteer outcomes (e.g., retention). In a study of non-profit volunteers in Southern California (n=383), Garner and Garner (2010) assessed the combined influence of the VFI (six domains), VSI (four domains), age and response to frustrating events on volunteer retention. In a regression analysis, 43% of the variance in intention to return was explained by a positive relationship with the values motivation, career motivation, integration satisfaction, two of the response types to frustrating events, and age. In this case, as participants were motivated by values they were more likely to intend to return to volunteer, while those who reported being motivated by career were less likely to intend to return. As volunteers were more satisfied with their groups integrations, that is the relationships that they were able to develop, the more they intended to return to volunteer. Age in this study was positively related with retention. As age increased so did the volunteers' intention to return.

### **Volunteer Consequences**

The final stage of the VPM is consequences to volunteering. There are numerous consequences to volunteering that have been examined in the volunteer literature. Commitment to the volunteer organization, level of involvement, and intention to return are all examples of volunteer consequences. Omoto and Snyder (2002), also suggest that organizational identity may be an important volunteer consequence. However, it has not been examined in the volunteer literature. Most volunteer literature has focused on organizational commitment. This section of the literature review will address organizational commitment and how it differs from true organizational identity. Following the discussion of

the organizational commitment and organizational identity literature, volunteer level of involvement will be examined as a volunteer consequence.

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) recommended that future testing of the VSI should include other volunteer outcome measures. They recommended testing other outcomes such as organizational commitment (OC) and organizational identity (OI). The authors predicted that OC or OI would provide a stronger test of the predictive validity of the VSI than single item measures of intent to return. This section of the literature review will address the importance of organizational commitment, and more importantly, organizational identity. An overview of OC will first be discussed, followed by a discussion and explanation of why OI is a better measure of organization specific dedication.

#### *Organizational Commitment*

Much attention has been paid to OC and OI in the organizational behavior literature over the past 40 years. Due to the expense of recruiting and replacing employees, managers have long sought methods of retaining satisfied, committed employees (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Sheldon, 1971). Similar to employees, committed volunteers are expensive to recruit and retain. Hence, recent research has adopted the OC and OI concepts and tried to use them to better understand volunteer retention. This section of this literature review will address how OC and OI were developed and used in organizational behavior literature, then will address how OC, and to a lesser extent OI, have been adapted and used in the volunteer literature.

Many researchers in the 1970s studied and defined OC; however, Mowday et al. (1979) summarized much of that research in an effort to create a valid, reliable, and efficient measure of OC. They defined OC as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification



with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 226). They characterized OC by three related factors: 1) a strong belief in an organization’s goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; and finally 3) a desire to remain a member of that organization. The authors suggested that because this definition was not only attitudinal, but also action oriented, it would be a more stable predictor of employee retention than would job satisfaction.

Mowday et al. (1979), created a 15-item scale to measure OC as they defined it above, called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). To test the psychometric properties of the instrument, they implemented the OCQ in a diverse group of studies, representing numerous types of employment in various environments. Despite the fact that they used three distinct factors when constructing the OCQ (e.g., goals, effort, desire to remain) in all seven of the studies they used to validate this measure, they found a one-factor solution.

The authors further tested the OCQ for convergent validity with previously used commitment based measures (i.e., intent to leave, intended length of service, intrinsic motivations, etc.). Their findings revealed that the OCQ was most correlated with intent to leave (negative correlation), intended length of service and intrinsic motivations for public employees. It was also negatively correlated with intent to leave in three other studies of university employees, hospital employees, and engineers. To test the predictive ability of the OCQ, it was correlated with level of job involvement among public employees, university employees, hospital employees, and engineers. With the exception of engineers, the correlations were all above .53.

The OCQ has become one of the most, commonly used measures of OC. Because volunteers are being treated as unpaid employees in many institutions, and because volunteer research has a tendency to adopt and adapt employee based measure (i.e., volunteer satisfaction and the VSI), the OCQ has been adapted and used in volunteer studies to capture volunteer OC (Cuskelly, 1995; Dailey, 1986).

The first to adapt the OCQ for volunteers was Dailey (1986) in a study of political campaign volunteers. He tested the OCQ on volunteers by examining the influence of four theoretical antecedents found in the organizational behavior literature. The theoretical model that was tested in this study used OCQ as the distal outcome variable, predicted job involvement, job satisfaction, personal characteristics, and job characteristics. Job satisfaction and job involvement were then treated as dependent variables and were predicted by job characteristics and personal characteristics.

This sample of campaign volunteers was ideal for testing the OCQ, because of the organization and structure that is provided by most political campaigns. The results of this study found that 27% of the variance in job satisfaction was explained by job characteristics (e.g., significance of tasks, variety). For job involvement, 58% of the variance was explained by job characteristics (i.e., autonomy, feedback) and personal characteristics. Finally, 57% of the variance in OC was explained by job satisfaction, job involvement, and job characteristics.

This study provided evidence that the OCQ may be an appropriate tool to use to examine volunteer OC. However, there were several limitations to this study. The first limitation was that the distal outcome of the study was OC, which is attitudes and feelings toward the organization, and not actual participation (e.g., time spent, actual involvement,

tenure, etc.). Dailey also used an attitudinal scale of job involvement rather than measuring actual level of involvement in the campaign.

The relationship between the OC and actual volunteer participation has been examined in other studies. In a study of Australian volunteer sport administrators, Cuskelly (1995), using the OCQ, studied the relationship between OC and tenure with an organization as well as number of hours spent per month in the volunteer role. Unlike Dailey's study of campaign volunteers, this sample of unpaid volunteer administrators had less consistent organizational structure. The sport organizations varied in size and resources.

Findings from a correlational analysis revealed that there was not a significant relationship between volunteer tenure (the number of years served as an administrator) and OC. This finding was not consistent with the relationship between OC and most paid employees (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, a significant positive relationship was found between the number of hours per month spent volunteering as an administrator and OC. The author suggested that these findings were likely influenced by working environment that is behaviorally weak. That is to say that because volunteers were not motivated to volunteer for pay, they tended to have significant amounts of flexibility and leeway with their volunteer work time.

One of the reasons that the OCQ has been adopted by some volunteer management researchers is the ease of use. Though it was proposed that the OCQ would measure the three factors of OC (e.g., goals, effort, desire to remain), it consistently factors as one scale measuring OC. Other measures have been used to evaluate OC among volunteers. Preston and Brown (2004) used another OC measure that was created to measure OC for paid workers (Meyer & Allen, 1991) to evaluate OC of nonprofit volunteer board members. The

scale is called the Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCMC). Like the OCQ the TCMC has been thoroughly tested for reliability and validity in many paid labor settings.

The TCMC (appropriately named) measures three definitions of commitment: 1) affective, 2) continuance, and 3) normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to an emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization. “Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Normative commitment represents an obligation to continue employment. This type of commitment is a moral obligation to the organization. Continuance refers to the “costs associated with leaving the organization” (p. 67). Employees motivated by continuance often work for the paycheck rather than the other reasons mentioned above.

Preston and Brown (2004) attempted to use the TCMC to assess the commitment and performance of nonprofit board members. Because the TCMC was designed for employees and not volunteers, the authors were forced to adapt the affective and commitment items. Because the language in the continuance scale only applies to employees, an entire new scale was created to measure the continuance of volunteers.

Findings of this study revealed that both affective and normative commitment were significantly correlated with tenure and time spent participating in board meetings. The continuance scale created for volunteers was not significantly related to any tenure or time spent. For this study the individual organization administrators evaluated the dedication of volunteer board members. These evaluations were also significantly related to affective and normative commitment. The affective relationships to the actual volunteer participation in this study were at least twice as strong as the normative relationships.

Though the findings from this study do not fully support the use the TCMC continuance scale, they do reinforce the importance of volunteers psychologically identifying with their volunteer organizations. Other organizational behavior literature suggests that OI is a more salient measure of dedication and retention than is OC.

### *Organizational Identity*

OID is defined as the “a perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization’s successes and failures as one’s own” (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 103). Ashforth and Mael (1989) conceptualized OID based on social identity theory, where individuals classify themselves into various groups to provide order in a social environment. At the most basic level people classify themselves into groups based on gender or race. Through this social identification a person perceives him or herself as “psychologically intertwined with the fate of the group, as sharing a common destiny and experiencing its successes and failures” (p. 105). OID is simply the perceived social identity of individuals in a specific organization. Identity with other organizations is not only possible, but also probable.

There is a distinct difference between OC and OID. According to Mowday et al. (1979), OC includes internalization of goals and values while OID, as defined by Mael and Ashforth (1992), does not include internalization. Though this seems like a rather minor distinction, it is particularly salient. An individual may identify with a group without fully agreeing with all of its values and goals. For example, a person may strongly identify (i.e., perceive an intertwined fate with that organization) with a church, yet not share all values of that organization. Although an individual may share goals/values with multiple organizations, it does not mean that the individual identifies equally with those organizations.

To operationalize their conceptual model, Mael and Ashforth proposed correlates to OID. Though their study was cross sectional and did not allow for causal testing, they grouped the correlates as antecedents of OID, and organizational consequences to “enhance conceptual clarity” (1992, p. 107). The antecedents they included in their study were grouped into two categories (organizational antecedents and individual antecedents) and the consequence of OID to the organization was financial support. In this study they examined the OID of college alumni of a small religious school. The financial support was measured in amount of money donated. OID was operationalized with a five-item scale that included items such as “when someone criticizes my school, it feels like a personal insult.”

The individual antecedents and organizational antecedents explained 33% of the variance in OID. The two significant individual antecedents were satisfaction and tenure (i.e., length of time at the school). The organizational antecedents were organizational distinctiveness, prestige, and intra-organizational competition. When total contributions (organizational consequence) was regressed on OID and the antecedent variables, OID and the presence of a mentor relationship explained 36 percent of the variance.

OC and OID are both reliable and valid measures of one’s connection to an organization. Both constructs are related to satisfaction with the specific organization, as well as other “antecedent” variables and “outcome” variables (e.g., participation, tenure, donations) (Cuskelly, 1995; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Preston & Brown, 2004). Because OID more directly targets one’s experience with a specific organization than does OC and because it easily translates to any type of organization, it may be a more relevant measure of connection to volunteer organizations. Despite this apparent relevance, Mael and Ashforth’s operationalization of OID has not been used to understand volunteerism.

### *Level of Involvement*

Level of involvement (LOI) is the extent to which a volunteer contributes to an organization. It is important for volunteer managers/coordinators to understand and to track LOI because it allows them to quantify and communicate the impact of their volunteers on the organization or community. The primary method of measuring LOI in the past has been the number of hours over a given period of time (i.e., days, weeks, months, years) spent working for the organization (Chacon, Vecina & Davila, 2007; Finkelstein, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Though time is one of the most important components of involvement, there are other ways in which volunteers contribute and are involved in their volunteer organizations.

Involvement may include other factors such as holding leadership positions and donating money (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Scott & Lane, 2000) and/or other resources, such as use of personal equipment (Gage, 2009). In a thesis on the constraints and motivations of college students, Gage asked volunteers to identify if they had contributed time, money, leadership, resources, and skills (2009). Though useful, it is not possible to quantify the extent that the volunteers contributed these items because they were simply asked to check if they had contributed an item.

In an effort to develop a more comprehensive measure of LOI for this study, a new measure of volunteer involvement was created. The first step in the development of this measure of LOI was to develop a list of possible contributions that were mutually exclusive. Gage's study provided an initial list of items from which to start. These items were then presented and examined by PDPR volunteer coordinators as well as by other researchers. All five of Gage's items were retained and one (physical labor) was added. The brief

descriptions that accompanied the items were also changed per the recommendations of the PDPR staff and other researchers. The final items were skills (e.g., teaching, organize programming, expertise); physical labor (e.g., park clean up, general maintenance); money (e.g., donations, annual dues); resources (e.g., use of personal tools, vehicles, etc.); and time (e.g., attend meetings, fund raising, not to include time spent in physical labor). An “other” category was also provided if there was something they contributed that was not present in the list. To quantify the extent to which volunteers made each of these contributions, respondents were asked to report the extent to which they contributed each individual item on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (a great deal).

### **Volunteer Leadership**

There is a significant amount of volunteer research. This research seeks to understand why people volunteer (motivations), how they experience volunteering (satisfaction), and how organizations can recruit and retain dedicated volunteers. These concepts have been studied across various types of volunteer organizations, and in numerous settings. Notwithstanding all of the previous research, relatively little is known about community recreation and park volunteers.

There are two basic levels of volunteer membership in most park and recreation organizations: leaders and non-leaders (Heidrich, 1990). In paid work situations people that have leadership positions often receive additional pay and prestige from their positions. Volunteer leaders often find the inverse of this to be true, they often put in additional hours and effort, which can reduce the amount of time they are able to dedicate to their paid employment. Volunteer leaders are more psychologically involved and committed to their volunteer organizations. A higher level of involvement and commitment is needed, because



volunteer organizations rely on these leaders to recruit and create positive social interactions among the non-leaders in order to retain an active volunteer work force (Catano, Morgan, & Pond, 2000).

Despite the relative importance of volunteer leaders, little is known about what motivate and how satisfied volunteer leaders are to their respective organizations. As park and recreation agencies face growing budget shortfalls, reliance on volunteers will continue to increase. In a recent article published in *Parks & Recreation Magazine* (P&R), reliance on park volunteers was made clear: “In an era of budget cuts and stretched resources, the role of organized, skilled, citizen volunteers have expanded into areas that formerly fell wholly under the jurisdiction of park employees” (P&R, 2011, p. 48). This article goes on to discuss that even as reliance on park volunteers is increasing, volunteer coordinator positions are being eliminated. The President of San Francisco Parks Trust explained this transition best, “Park friend groups used to supply the toppings for the sundae, they are now providing the ice cream” (p. 48). Though some volunteer research has been conducted using samples of volunteer leaders (Cuskelly, 1995; Preston & Brown, 2004), most have not addressed differences that may exist between volunteer leaders and non-leaders.

## Chapter 3

### METHODS

The procedures that were used in this study are discussed in the following sections a) Study Setting, description of friends groups and Organizational Structure, b) Data Collection Methods, c) Instrumentation, and d) Treatment of the Data.

#### **Study Setting**

On July 1, 2010 the Philadelphia Department of Recreation (PDR), and Fairmont Park System (FPS) in Philadelphia merged to become the Philadelphia Department of Parks and Recreation (PDPR). Prior to the merger FPS managed some neighborhood parks and a vast amount of watershed protection parkland and did a small amount of programming in the parks. PDR was responsible for most of the neighborhood parks, recreation centers, and recreation programming that occurred in the city.

Historically, volunteers played a key role in maintaining the park and recreation resources for both agencies. FPS and PDR report having thousands of volunteers working their facilities every year. There were various types of volunteers that the agencies utilized to maintain their parks and offer programs. The most common types of volunteers included: park friend group organizations or neighborhood park partners, advisory councils, corporate volunteer partners, individual volunteers and spontaneous volunteers. The following section examines the various types of volunteer groups.

#### **Types of Volunteer Groups**

Typically park friends groups or park partners (the names can be used interchangeably) schedule regular clean up days, hold events, and raise funds to support the park on their own. As city budgets tighten, the maintenance and care of parks will rely more

and more on these types of volunteer groups.

### *Park Friend Groups*

Many of the current park friend groups in Philadelphia were established to reclaim parks that had fallen into disrepair during the 1980s and 90s (Carroll, Moise, & Reily, 2009). In the early 1990's, numerous parks across the city were referred to as "Needle Point Park" referring to the illicit drug trafficking that was occurring in these parks. To combat the degradation of parks throughout the city, FPS and PDR partnered with the Pennsylvania Horticulture Society (PHS), a non-profit organization whose mission was to "motivate people to improve the quality of life and create a sense of community through horticulture" (Carroll et al., 2009). Since 1993 PHS has provided financial and management support to park friend groups to reclaim over 40 neighborhood parks. In these cases, PHS provided financial and organizational support to the friends groups in exchange for volunteer work hours. Friends groups had to provide written commitments from group members before PHS would consider assisting the reclamation project. Due to the success and popularity of this program PHS currently has a waiting list of park friends groups. While some of the park friends groups were organized and received support as a result of the PHS park revitalization program, there are many other park friends groups that have existed for decades, maintaining and improving other parks in Philadelphia independent of PHS. Collectively, there are approximately 246 park friend groups in Philadelphia.

While FPS and PDR did not financially support any of the park friends groups, they provided them with organizational support including equipment, supplies and some administrative needs. Friends groups were required to register with either FPS or PDR and were assigned a volunteer coordinator (paid staff member) who was the contact person

between the agency and the volunteer group. Coordinators were responsible for providing any assistance that was needed from FPS or PDR (i.e., tools, equipment, advertising) and approving or obtaining approval for projects and park related events. However, volunteer coordinators have limited access to the general park volunteer. Their main interactions are with the volunteer leaders represented the various friend groups.

#### *Advisory Councils*

The role of recreation center advisory councils is very similar to that of the park friends groups and most are made up of volunteers that reside near one of the recreation centers. A distinct difference between advisory councils and the other types of volunteer organizations is that advisory councils are required to elect new leadership every three years. Their leadership must consist of a president, vice president, and secretary/treasurer. This differs from the other volunteer organizations, which have no city-mandated limits on their leadership or organizational structure. Another small difference between advisory councils and other volunteer organizations is that the individual recreation center directors supervise the volunteer effort rather than the volunteer coordinators themselves. Advisory council members also have more opportunities than friends group members to interact with someone from PDPR.

#### *Corporate Volunteer Partners*

Over the past decade, both FPS and PDR have developed relationships with corporate volunteer partners. In an effort to give back to their communities while improving their public relations, many of the businesses and corporations in Philadelphia have “days of giving,” where employees of those businesses are given the opportunity to spend a day volunteering in lieu of working. FPS and PDR took advantage of these volunteer days by

partnering with these businesses to have one-day volunteer events (i.e., park clean up day, or a playground installation). The businesses often donate money along with the labor to support these projects. Superficially, these relationships are advantageous for the recreation and park agencies in that they provide instant access to an expanded labor pool. However, one of the downsides to these arrangements has been that the individual corporate volunteers often do not develop a long-term relationship to the park and do not continue to volunteer for the organization. The park may be cleaned in one day, but quickly returns to its previous state after several days of public use. Further, most businesses prefer capital improvement projects rather than park maintenance or clean up because of the lasting effect capital projects have. Yet, there are only so many capital improvement projects available each year to these corporate volunteers. Thus, matching a corporate volunteer work group to agency needs can be difficult.

### **Organizing and Tracking Volunteers**

Between the park friends groups, advisory councils, and corporate volunteers, FPS and PDR have thousands of volunteers working in their facilities each year. To coordinate the volunteer efforts of all the different types of volunteers, FPS and PDR historically had paid staff responsible for overseeing and coordinating the volunteer efforts of the individual volunteer groups. FPS had four volunteer coordinators responsible for managing mostly environmental stewardship activities in their parks. PDR had only one volunteer coordinator who was responsible for all volunteer efforts in the PDR managed park and recreation facilities. Because PDR had only one volunteer coordinator, they relied heavily on PHS to coordinate their volunteer efforts and track their volunteer groups.

Because there were so many individual volunteers, neither agency was able to

maintain a comprehensive list of individual volunteers. Instead both agencies attempted to track the individual volunteer groups, of which there are approximately 346 park friend and advisory councils. The merger between the two agencies was completed at the beginning of 2011 and allowed for some streamlining of these volunteer management practices. Under the newly merged PDPR, volunteer management was consolidated into the new Office of Development (OOD), under the supervision of the volunteer and stewardship director. All volunteer coordinators were reassigned to geographic districts within the city. With this reassignment, most of the coordinators were assigned parks that they had not worked in prior to the merger, but their job duties remained the same.

Following the merger, a priority of the OOD was to compile a list of active volunteer groups working in park and recreation facilities. PDR was able to provide an updated list of advisory councils and their leaders, and PHS provided an updated list of PDR park friends groups for the purpose of the present study. Unfortunately, following the merger, the lead FPS volunteer coordinator, who had maintained relationships with the corporate volunteer partners and the friends groups, resigned and left no current records of the park friends groups or corporate sponsors. The most current list of FPS park friends groups available for this study was from 2008. There was also no record of FPS corporate partners. The combined PDPR volunteer partner database included 523 volunteer group leaders representing 100 advisory councils, and 246 park friend groups. Corporate volunteer partners were not included in this inventory of volunteer groups due to the loss of data and the difference in organizational structure between the corporate groups and the other volunteer groups.

## **Data Collection Methods**

### **Mail Survey of Volunteer Leaders**

To better understand how antecedent constructs, volunteer experiences and volunteer interrelated among volunteer leaders, mail questionnaires were distributed to all (n = 523) volunteer group leaders in a packet containing a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, the mail questionnaire (Appendix A), and a stamped, self-addressed envelope. Upon receipt of the packet, the volunteers were asked to complete the questionnaire if they were age 18 or older. A modified Dillman mailing procedure was used to increase the response rate to this survey. Specifically, mail post card reminders were sent to non-respondents two weeks after the initial mailing. Replacement questionnaires were then mailed two weeks after the postcard reminders to non-respondents. A drawing for a small prize was also provided and described in the cover letter as an incentive to return the questionnaire. A link to an online version of the survey was also included in the letter of recruitment and the postcard reminder to allow respondents multiple options for completing the questionnaire. Respondents selecting the online survey were required to enter the ID number from the mail copy of their survey.

Of the 523 questionnaires mailed to the volunteer leaders, 106 were returned as undeliverable or stop sending, reducing the total number of possible respondents to 417. The number of undeliverable addresses was relatively high (20%) for a mail survey in Philadelphia. By way of comparison, Graefe, Mowen, Trauntvein, and Covelli (2009) reported an undeliverable rate for a random sample of residents in Philadelphia County to be

under nine percent. At 20% the return to sender rate for this study was significantly higher than that random sample drawn from everyday residents in Philadelphia. In large part this can be attributed to the database that was provided by FPS that had not been updated since 2008. Volunteer leadership is bound to change in a three year time period. Volunteers and organizations change addresses frequently in large cities. In total, 127 completed questionnaires were returned for a response volunteer leader response rate of 30.5%. Of the 127 returned questionnaires 11 were completed online from the link provided in the cover letter. Of those surveys that were returned 16 were not fully completed. A questionnaire was considered incomplete if it was less than 6 of the 8 pages were complete. Data for these cases will not be used in the analysis.

Not surprisingly, the response rate for this study of dedicated volunteers was higher than prior studies done of general residents in Philadelphia. For example, using similar mailing techniques, Graefe et al. (2009), reported a response rate of 6.4% in their 2009 outdoor recreation study.

#### **Email Survey Distribution to Non-Leader Volunteers**

Prior to the PDPR merger, FPS and PDR made no efforts to track or collect information on individual volunteers who worked in their facilities. To protect the privacy of their members many of these groups do not share their volunteers' information openly. Thus, it is impossible to get an accurate count or even an estimate of exactly how many people volunteer at PDPR facilities. Further, it is not possible to randomly sample the individual PDPR volunteers.



To collect data on active volunteers who did not identify as volunteer group leaders, a sample of 15 park friend groups, which were geographically dispersed throughout the city, were selected by the PDPR administrators to participate in a survey of their active volunteers. Active volunteers were defined as any member of their group that had volunteered in the past 12 months. The groups selected were geographically dispersed throughout the city and represented all different types of parks, including squares (i.e., Campbell Square), watershed protection parks (i.e., Wissahickon Natural Area), and large regional/multipurpose parks (i.e., Pennypack Park). These groups varied in size and resources; some like the Friends of the Wissahickon had hundreds of members, a board of directors and actually had a paid staff that carried out administrative responsibilities, while others like the Friends of Dickinson Square only had 10 members and had very little in the way of external resources (i.e., administrative assistance, capital resources, etc.).

The Director of Volunteerism and Stewardship from OOD contacted each of the group leaders to ask them to participate in this study. Following that initial contact from the OOD, the researcher then contacted each volunteer group leader to request that general members of their volunteer group participate in the study. All of the group leaders contacted agreed to participate in an online survey of their active volunteers. A delimiting factor in the selection of these friends groups was their ability to identify who the “active” volunteers were. All 15 groups were identified and active volunteers were contacted for inclusion in this study.

The primary method of communication used by all the friend groups was email.

Most group leaders distribute email newsletters and all leaders use email to announce group events and volunteer opportunities. Because most groups did not maintain any other form of contact information for volunteers, the decision was made to send out an email invitation with a web link to an online survey version of this study. The survey was created, and responses were collected using Survey Monkey (an online survey company).

A limitation of conducting an email survey of active volunteers was that group leaders, due to privacy issues, were not able to directly provide the researcher with contact information for their volunteers. Consequently, group leaders were asked to distribute the recruitment and survey materials directly to their active volunteers. Not having access to the contact information proscribed the ability to conduct survey non-response bias checks, thus threatening the validity of the survey (Connelly, Brown, & Decker, 2003; Graefe, Mowen, Covelli, & Trauntvein, 2011). In many online and email surveys, response rates can't be calculated, let alone check for non-response bias (Lozar-Manfreda, Bosnjak, Haas, & Vehovar, 2008). In this case, group leaders provided the number of people who received their emails, providing the means to calculate a response rate for each group. To further assist in calculating the response rate for each group, groups received a unique survey collection link that identified their volunteer group. Nevertheless, the lack of non-response bias checks was a limitation of this online survey that could not be remedied.

Initially group leaders agreed to distribute the recruitment email and two follow-up reminder emails to 1,470 active volunteers. Following the second emailing (the first reminder email), several of the volunteer groups expressed concerns of overburdening their

list serves. An excessive number of emails increase the risk that recipients will ignore or report a sender as spam. At that point several of the smaller volunteer groups had reached a response rate over 90% (Table 1). In light of these circumstances, it was determined by the researcher that the final email reminder would be eliminated for all the groups.

Though the mail survey was directed to volunteer leaders and the online survey was sent primarily to non-leaders, a criterion question, “what is your role in the volunteer organization?” was used to determine whether the volunteers classified themselves as leaders or non-leaders. This classification was used to determine the role of the volunteer. It is possible that a respondent could have received the mail survey and classified themselves as a non-leader and the inverse is true for the online survey.

The online survey had a total of 225 total respondents with a response rate of 15.3%, less than half that of the mail survey. A lower response rate for the online survey was anticipated. Duda and Nobile (2010) suggest that email filters, ease of ignoring email and ease of email deletion all contribute to lower email survey response rates. Response rates varied greatly between the friend groups. As might be expected the groups with more volunteers had significantly lower response rates than did the smaller groups. Groups with more than 25 active volunteers all had response rates below 16%, while 2 of the smaller groups reported over a 90% response rate (Table 1).

Table 1. Email Survey Response Rate by Park Friends Group

Park Friend Group	# of Survey Recipients	# of Respondents	Response Rate
Friends of Campbell Square	13	13	100.0%
Friends of Dickinson Square	10	9	90.0%
Friends of Fitler Square	14	8	57.1%
Morris Park Restoration Association	11	5	45.5%
Friends of Mifflin Square	10	4	40.0%
Friends of Schulykill River Park	10	4	40.0%
Friends of Bardscino Park	25	8	32.0%
Friends of Ned Wolf Park	20	5	25.0%
Friends of Conshohocken	10	2	20.0%
Friends of Gold Star Park	20	5	20.0%
Friends of the Wissahickon	673	105	15.5%
Friends of Carpenters Woods	92	14	15.2%
Friends of Pennypack Park	285	35	12.3%
Friends of Vernon Park	15	1	6.7%
Friends of Clark Park	262	7	2.7%
Total	1470	225	15.3%

### **Instrumentation**

This dissertation examined the relationships between volunteer antecedents (i.e., demographics and motivations), experiences (i.e., satisfaction), and consequences or outcomes (i.e., organizational identity and level of involvement) for both volunteers and volunteer leaders. A copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix A. This survey questionnaire included a variety of items designed to assess respondents' antecedents to volunteering (i.e., demographic characteristics and motivations), experiences (satisfaction), and consequences (organizational identity, level of involvement, average hours per month volunteered, and years of service). The following sections will describe the various measures of the VPM used in this study.

## **Antecedents**

### *Demographic variables*

Various demographic variables were collected as part of this study (e.g., age, education, gender, parental status, and race/ethnicity). With the exception of age, which was measured interally, demographic variables were either measured ordinally (e.g., income, and education) or categorically (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity). To ascertain age, respondents were asked to report the year in which they were born. To measure education, respondents were given a scale from 5 to 22. Educational benchmarks were noted for middle school, high school, technical school, college, masters, doctorate to assist respondents in identifying the number of years of school. Gender was measured with a dichotomous question (i.e. male or female). Race/ethnicity was a categorical variable with seven races or ethnicities listed and an “other” category. Income was measured on an ordinal scale with \$20,000 increments, capping at \$140,000 or more. For income, a “no response” option was provided. To ascertain parental status, respondents were asked if there were children under the age of 18 living in their household.

### *Motivations*

Motivation to volunteer for the selected organization was measured using the Volunteer Functions Inventory, a reliable measure of volunteer motivation (Clary et al., 1998). The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was utilized to measure the six domains of volunteer motivations (values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, protective). Each VFI domain was represented by four individual items. Respondents reported the importance

of each item on a bipolar adjective scale from (1) extremely unimportant to (5) extremely important (Figure 3).

Values Function
I volunteer because I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
I volunteer because I feel compassion toward people in need.
I volunteer because I feel it is important to help others.
I volunteer because I can do something for a cause that is important to me.
Understanding Function
I volunteer because I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.
I volunteer because I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.
Enhancement Function
Volunteering makes me feel important.
Volunteering makes me feel needed.
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
Volunteering is a way to make new friends.
Career Function
Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.
Social Function
My friends volunteer.
People I'm close to want me to volunteer.
I volunteer because people I know share an interest in community service.
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.
Protective Function
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me forget about it.
By volunteering I feel less lonely
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt I feel over being more fortunate than others.
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.

Figure 3. Volunteer Functions Inventory items and domains used to measure motivations

Another function of volunteerism not included in the VFI is the coproduction function. Coproduction is the active involvement of citizens (including volunteers) in the creation and maintenance of public goods and services (Backman et al., 1997).

Theoretically, when faced with not having park and recreation related public goods, citizens will seek out ways to volunteer to maintain those public goods. To measure coproduction, five items from Silverberg's (2004) coproduction scale were added to the VFI. Respondents reported the importance of each item on a bipolar adjective scale from (1) extremely unimportant to (5) extremely important (Figure 4).

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Coproduction
I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs.
If I volunteer, chances of the park or a program closing or ending are reduced.
I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service.
I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility.
I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility.

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Figure 4. Items from the coproduction motivation domain

## **Experiences**

### *Satisfaction*

A key component of volunteer retention and participation is satisfaction with the volunteer experience (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Finkelstein, 2007; Silverberg Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). To evaluate volunteer satisfaction the Volunteer Satisfaction Index was used. This index was adapted for this study and included 18 individual items from the 4 domains of volunteer satisfaction (organizational support, participation efficacy, sense of empowerment, group integration) (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Respondents reported their level of satisfaction for each item on a bipolar adjective scale from (1) very dissatisfied to (5) very satisfied (Figure 5).

Organizational Support
My relationship with paid staff.
The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.
The amount of communication coming to me from paid staff and/or board members.
The support I receive from people in the organization.
The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.
How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.
The amount of permission I need before I can do the things I do on this job.
Participation Efficacy
The difference my volunteer work is making.
The opportunities I have to learn new things.
The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.
How worthwhile my contribution is.
Sense of Empowerment
The access I have to information concerning the organization.
The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment.
The Chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work.
Group Integration
My relationship with other volunteers in the organization.
The friendships I have made while volunteering with the organization.
The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization.
The amount of time I spend with other volunteers in the organization.

Figure 5. Volunteer Satisfaction Inventory items and domains used to measure volunteer experiences

## Consequences

### *Organizational Identity*

The extent to which individuals develop a personal and social identity with a volunteer organization was measured using the Organizational Identity Scale (OID) developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). The OID scale was adapted from a scale that measured the organizational identity of college alumni. This scale examined how psychologically intertwined alumni were with their college and was easily adapted to address the same with volunteer organizations. Five of the original six OID items were used in this study. Respondents reported their level of agreement with each statement on a bipolar adjective scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree (Figure 6).



Omoto and Snyder (2002) suggest that organizational identity is a consequence in the volunteer process, though they have never tested it as such. In this study, OID was used as a proximal consequence to LOI. It is logical to assume that as organizational identity increases and volunteers see the organizations success and failures as their own, their LOI will be related.

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Organizational Identity

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When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.

I am interested in what others think about this organization.

This organization's successes are my successes.

When someone praises this organization it feels like a personal compliment.

If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed.

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Figure 6. Volunteer Organizational Identity items used to measure OI

*Level of Involvement*

The number of hours volunteered over a specific period of time (i.e., week, month, year) has often been used to measure the level of involvement (LOI) of volunteers (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Finkelstein, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Though time is an important component of involvement, there are other ways in which volunteers contribute and are involved in their volunteer efforts. For example, involvement can also include factors such as holding leadership positions and donating money and/or other resources, such as use of personal equipment (i.e., vehicles, tools, etc.) (Gage, 2000; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Scott & Lane, 2000). Little attention has been paid to these other forms of involvement. LOI was operationalized in this study by asking volunteers to report the extent (on a 1-5 scale where 1 = Not at all and 5 = a great deal) that they contribute seven different elements (e.g., skills, physical labor, money, resources, time, other). Because 1 was equal to “not at all” or no

contribution, responses were recoded from 0 = Not at all to 4 = a great deal. Recoded responses were then summated providing a level of involvement score between 1 and 28 (Figure 7). Because LOI was based on not just attitudes but actions taken by the volunteers LOI was treated as a distal consequence in the multivariate regression analyses.

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Level of Involvement*
Skills (e.g. teaching, organize programming, expertise)
Physical Labor (e.g. park cleanup, general maintenance)
Money (e.g. donations, annual dues)
Leadership (e.g. hold office, chair a committee)
Resources (e.g. use of personal tools, vehicles, etc)
Time (e.g. attend meetings, fund raising, etc.) Do Not include time spent in physical labor.

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\* To what extent do you contribute the following to the organization that you volunteer for?  
Figure 7. Items used to measure volunteer LOI.

### **Treatment of the Data**

Data from the mail questionnaires were entered into an SPSS 18.0 database and then merged with data from online questionnaires. Subsequently, data was cleaned and incomplete questionnaire responses (i.e., when respondents did not complete at least 6 of the 8 pages of the survey) were removed from the database.

Following the cleaning of the data, both reliability and factor analysis were used to establish which variables comprise the latent constructs for the VFI/Coproduction and the VSI. Reliability analysis was then conducted on OID and LOI. This analysis included exploratory factor analysis to compare the a priori sub-domains to those of this study. Principal Components Analysis, which divided variables into subgroups that contrast each other to reveal relationships, was used in the exploratory factor analysis. Because this type

of factor extraction does not produce easily identifiable factors, varimax orthogonal rotation was used to identify the main factors in this study

To address research question one, regarding differences in motivations, experiences and consequences based on socio-demographic characteristics, bivariate correlation analysis using the Pearson Product Moment Statistic, and one-way analysis of variance were used. Analysis of variance was used instead of t-tests because it allows the examination of multiple variables at the same time and results are identical with t-tests. Correlation analysis was only used to assess differences based on age, because it was the only socio-demographic variable measured on an interval scale. Gender, race/ethnicity, education, and parental status were all assessed using one-way analysis of variance. Because education had more than three categories, Bonforoni's post-hoc was used with Tamhane's equal variance not assumed.

To address research question two, regarding differences in antecedents, experiences and consequences, between leaders and non-leaders, two kinds of bivariate analyses were conducted depending upon the nature of the variables examined. For the intervally scaled variables, one-way analysis of variance was conducted to examine differences in mean scores between leaders and volunteers. Again analysis of variance was used instead of t-tests because it allows the examination of multiple variables at the same time. Differences between nominally scaled variables (i.e., gender, education, etc.) and were assessed using chi-square statistics.

To address research question three, regarding the combined influence of antecedents and experience on volunteer outcomes, the VPM for volunteer leaders and non-leaders, a series of stepwise regressions at each level of the VPM were conducted to determine

significant linkages and the magnitude of those linkages, first for non-leaders, then for leaders (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Vaske, 2008).

## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

#### **Introduction**

Results of this study are organized and presented in the order of the research questions in Chapter 1. Prior to addressing the research questions, an examination of the outliers, description of the sample, factor/reliability analyses and means of sub-domains are presented. Research question one is then addressed using bivariate analyses (e.g., one-way analysis of variance for comparing nominal and interval variables to examine how motivations, experiences, and consequences of the VPM differ based on demographic characteristics (age, gender, race/ethnicity, parental status, education). Question two is also addressed using bivariate analyses (e.g., one-way analysis of variance for comparing nominal and interval variable), but here the purpose was to examine how motivations, experiences, and consequences of the VPM differed between volunteer leaders and non-leaders. Finally, research question three is examined using multivariate analyses of the antecedents, experiences and consequences. These analyses were conducted on volunteer leaders and non-leaders separately (using stepwise regression analysis).

#### **Examination of Outliers**

Two of the intervally-measured items that are presented in the descriptive analysis sections of this chapter (years of service and hours of participation) had outliers that were significantly influencing their distribution. Responses were determined to be outliers if they were 1.5 times the interquartile range above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of responses. To minimize the influence of outliers on the distribution, outliers were adjusted to fall 1.5 times the interquartile range when above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. This method was used because it

nominally changes the overall distribution, yet avoids the bias created by completely eliminating all outliers (Branstetter, Bower, Kamein, & Amass, 2008; Branstetter, Furman, & Cottrell, 2009). Before outliers were removed, the variable “number of years with the organization” ranged from less than 1 to 60 ( $M = 10.3$ ;  $SD = 9.3$ ) and “average hours per month volunteering with the organization” ranged from less than 1 hour to 275 ( $M = 16.2$ ;  $SD = 29.4$ ). Following the outlier adjustment the range for number of years ranged from 1 to 27.8 ( $M = 9.9$ ;  $SD = 7.9$ ) and hours per month range was reduced to 0.5 to 40.5 ( $M = 12.8$ ;  $SD = 12.6$ ).

## **Description of the Sample**

### **Response Rate**

Of the 417 volunteer leaders who were sent the mail survey, 143 returned the questionnaire. In the cover letter of the mail survey, survey recipients were also given the option to complete the survey online. Of the 143 mail questionnaire respondents, 11 completed the online version. An online survey was also sent to 1,470 friend group members, of which 425 individuals opened and started the survey. However, not all returned questionnaires were completed fully. The mail surveys were considered complete if respondents completed at least the first 6 (of 8) pages. Similarly, online responses were considered complete if respondents completed all questions through the organizational identity questions (question #11, corresponding to page 6 of the mail survey). In total, there were 16 incomplete mail survey responses, and 200 incomplete online survey responses, and all of these incomplete questionnaires were deleted from the final data set. After removing the incomplete responses, there were a total of 127 completed mail questionnaires for a response rate of 30.5%. While 425 people opened and/or started the online survey, nearly

half did not complete it, leaving 225 complete responses for a final response rate of 15.3%. The combined total number of respondents to this questionnaire from volunteer leaders and non-leaders was 352.

The two data collection methods (e.g., mail and online) were used to obtain a sample of volunteers and volunteer leaders. The mail questionnaire went out to a list of volunteer group leaders provided by PDPR. The online questionnaire was sent out to active volunteers of 15 park friend groups, geographically dispersed throughout the city with the intent of reaching non-leader active volunteers. To further clarify whether respondents were volunteers or volunteer leaders, respondents were asked to describe their role as either a member (non-leader), leader, or other. This single item was used to define volunteer leaders and non-leaders. If respondents identified themselves as leaders they were considered as such. Like wise, if they identified as members only they were considered to be non-leaders.

Of those completing the mail survey, 103 (81%) described their role as leaders and 24 described themselves as members only. While online respondents were much more likely to be members only ( $n = 125$ , 55.6%), over 35% ( $n = 79$ ) reported being leaders of the group with which they identified. Of online respondents, 21 (9.3%) did not report being an organizer/leader or member, but reported their role as “other.” Respondents reporting “other” as their role were then asked in an open-ended question to describe their role. A majority of these respondents reported being occasional volunteers or inconsistent volunteers with the organizations with which they volunteered. These respondents were not used in the comparisons made between leaders and non-leaders.

### **Descriptive Analysis – Demographic Background**

Descriptive analysis of all respondents indicated that they were highly educated and affluent. Respondents were predominantly female (56.8%), white (85.6%), college (4 year) graduates (71.9%), and had incomes higher than \$60,000 (62.9%). The average age of the sample was almost 54 years old, and just over 21% of respondents reported having children under the age of 18 living in their household (Table 2). Compared to the census data, respondents were not representative of the overall population of Philadelphia (US Census Bureau, 2010). Respondents differed considerably from the general population on the basis of race, education and income. PDPR does not track volunteer demographic information; however, their anecdotal evidence suggested that a majority of their volunteers were white. The second largest group was African-Americans, and they know of very few Latino and Asian volunteers. Racially/ethnically, Philadelphia is very diverse; Caucasian/White residents make up only 39.7% of the population compared to the 85.6% of whites that responded to this survey (Table 2). African Americans/blacks are the largest racial group in Philadelphia at 43.7%, yet only 9.4% of the respondents reported being African American/Black. Philadelphia was targeted for this study because of the city's diverse and changing population. Because race/ethnicity was an important demographic variable being examined in this study, it was retained as a dichotomous variable. To create this dichotomous variable all respondents who reported a race or ethnicity (Hispanic/Latino) were classified as people of color. If respondents reported being white they were classified as white. The term "people of color" was selected to denote all respondents that reported a race other than white because it emphasizes common experiences of racism, rather than using



terms that denote subordinate roles of races other than white (i.e., minority or non-white) (American Heritage, 2005).

Of the respondents to this survey, 71.9% had college degrees or higher, compared to only 17.9% of the population of the city (Table 2). Because of the significant number of individuals with college degrees and beyond, the education variable was split into three relatively similar sized groups. The first group included anyone with less than a 4-year college degree (27.6%), the second group included those reporting having earned a 4-year college degree (35.7%) and finally the third group included those with more than a 4-year degree (36.2%). These educational groups were used for all subsequent bivariate analysis.

Direct comparisons between this study and census data is not possible for the income variable because income was reported as a categorical variable in the present study and the census reports an interval/ratio figure. Despite the difference in measurements, this sample still appears to be wealthier than the general population of Philadelphia. A vast majority of respondents to this survey report a household income of \$60,000 or higher, while the median income for the general population was \$37,090. A descriptive summary of respondents is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Philadelphia Park &amp; Recreation Volunteer Demographic Characteristics

Variable	<i>N</i>	% or <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )
Age	331	53.8 years (12.7)
Gender		
Female	197	56.8%
Male	150	43.2%
Income		
\$100,000 or more	99	37.1%
\$60,000-\$99,999	69	25.8%
\$40,000-\$59,999	55	20.6%
\$0-\$39,999	44	16.5%
Refused	85	-
Education		
More than a 4 year college degree	125	36.2%
College degree	123	35.7%
Less than a college degree	97	27.6%
Race/Ethnicity		
Caucasian or White	292	85.6%
African American or Black	32	9.4%
Asian	4	1.2%
Latino/Hispanic	2	< 1%
Native American/American Indian	3	< 1%
Multi-Racial or Mixed Race	3	< 1%
Other	6	1.8%
Refused	11	-
Race/Ethnicity Dichotomized		
White	292	85.6%
People of Color	49	14.4%
Households w/ Children < 18		
No Children	277	78.7%
Yes Children	75	21.3%

### Descriptive Analysis – Volunteer Service Characteristics

Overall, respondents to this survey were dedicated volunteers that had volunteered with their selected organization for an average for 9.9 years ( $SD = 7.9$ ), spending an average of 12.8 hours ( $SD = 12.6$ ) per month with that organization (Table 3). Volunteers in this sample spent more time than the average volunteers in Philadelphia. The average number of hours per year that volunteers in Philadelphia spent volunteering was 29 hours (National & Community Service, 2010). Volunteers in this sample averaged that many hours in less than three months. A majority of respondents (56.8%,  $n = 200$ ) identified their volunteer work

with a specific park friend organization (e.g., Friends of Pennypack Park), while 23.2% ( $n = 82$ ) identified with PDPR directly, and 7.4% identified with a specific advisory council. The remaining 12.5% ( $n = 44$ ) of respondents identified with another park, related volunteer group (e.g., Philadelphia Mountain Biking Association, Horse Stables, etc.). Respondents to this survey not only dedicated their time to these PDPR related groups, but nearly 79% of respondents reported volunteering for one or more other organizations besides the 1 they identified in this survey. More than one-third of respondents actively volunteered at three or more organizations. A summary of respondent volunteer service characteristics is illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3. Philadelphia Park & Recreation Volunteer Characteristics**

Variable	<i>N</i>	% or <i>M(SD)</i>
Years of Organizational Membership	341	9.9 (7.9)
Average # of hours per month	322	12.8 (12.6)
Type of Organization	352	
Specific Park Friends Groups	200	56.8%
Philadelphia Parks & Recreation	82	23.3%
Specific Advisory Council	26	7.4%
Other (PMBA, Horse Stables, etc.)	44	12.5%
Average # of other volunteer organizations	345	2.0 (1.6)
No other volunteer organizations	74	21.4%
1 other volunteer organization	72	20.9%
2 other volunteer organizations	82	23.8%
3 or more other volunteer organizations	117	33.9%

### **Factor/Reliability Analyses with Item and Scale Means**

In the present study, two of the stages of the VPM were operationalized with measures that had been validated and tested for reliability in numerous studies. As an “antecedent” of the VPM, the VFI with an additional sub-construct of coproduction was used to measure volunteers’ motivations. To understand the second stage of the VPM experience, volunteer satisfaction was assessed with the VSI. Both the VFI and the VSI consist of many

individual variables that are often factored together to represent sub-constructs of motivations and satisfaction.

The psychometric qualities of the VFI are well established by Clary et al. (1996); however, for the present study the sub-construct, coproduction was included, possibly influencing the structure of the sub-domains of the VFI. The sub-constructs of the VSI have not been as consistently reliable as those of the VFI (Wong, Chui & Kwok, 2010; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). To confirm or establish appropriate sub-constructs of both the VFI and VSI, principal components analysis (with Varimax rotation) was used in conjunction with reliability analysis to confirm the reliability of each factor. The results of the factor analysis and reliability analysis are now presented for the VFI and VSI, followed by the reliability analysis of OID and the LOI.

#### **Factor Analysis – Antecedent (VFI)**

All 24 individual VFI items and the 5 coproduction items were entered into a principal components factor analysis, which produced 8 unique and identifiable factors. The first six factors in this analysis directly corresponded to the six VFI sub-constructs (career, enhancement, social, values, protective, understanding). Two other identifiable factors were produced by the factor analysis, which divided the coproduction items. With the exception of the values and understanding functions, all the individual items factored into their corresponding functions with acceptable factor loading scores and Cronbach's alpha scores above .85 (Table 4). In cases where more than one item loaded on a factor the higher factor loading was used. Some of the individual items loaded on more than one factor. Frequency distributions for individual motivation items are presented in Appendix B.

### *Understanding*

The understanding function had a single item that had a low factor loading score of .45 (Table 4). The item “I volunteer because I can learn how to deal with a variety of people” factored best with the understanding function; however, its factor loading score was much lower than the other three items in this function. The Cronbach’s alpha for all four items was .84 (Table 4). If the item above was removed from the understanding function, the Cronbach’s alpha would only increase marginally (.843). All four items were retained in the understanding function. With all four items, the understanding function was the second strongest motivation to volunteer with a mean score of 3.6 ( $SD = 0.9$ ).

### *Values*

Three of the four items that represented the values function had acceptable factor loadings. The fourth item that did not have an acceptable factor loading (.29) was “I volunteer because I can do something for a cause that is important to me.” The reliability analysis of the values function with all four items had an acceptable Cronbach’s alpha of .84 (Table 4); however, the “alpha if item deleted” for the item mentioned above was significantly higher (.92). As a result of low factor loading and an increase in the Cronbach’s alpha when this item was removed, it was eliminated from the values factor. With the three remaining factors, the values factor had a mean score of 3.4 ( $SD = 1.0$ ), representing one of the four strongest motivations for people to volunteer (Table 4).

### *Enhancement*

Omoto and Snyder’s enhancement scale factored very well with a Cronbach’s alpha of .88 and could only be slightly improved to a .89 if the item “volunteering is a way to make

new friends” was removed (Table 4). Despite this slight improvement, all four enhancement items were retained. The enhancement factor had a mean score of 3.0 ( $SD = 1.0$ ).

### *Social*

Like enhancement, the social factor factored well and had a Cronbach’s alpha of .86, which could not be improved by removing any items (Table 4). The social function was not as strong a motivation as understanding, values or enhancement with a mean score of 2.7 ( $SD = 1.1$ ).

### *Protective*

The protective function had a reliability of .86 that could not be improved by removing any of the individual items (Table 4). It was one of the least important reasons that people volunteered, with a mean score of 2.3 ( $SD = 1.0$ ), which was below the middle point of the importance scale (1 = Extremely unimportant reason to 5 = Extremely important reason).

### *Career*

The career function was the most reliable of the motivations with a Cronbach’s alpha of .92, which could not be improved by removing any of the individual items (Table 4). Like the protective factor, the career factor was not an important reason for volunteering. With a mean score of 2.0, it was actually the weakest motivation to volunteer ( $SD = 1.1$ ).

### *Coproduction*

The coproduction function (motivation) was measured with five items. Two items were focused on assisting the department and the other three items were related to personal benefits that the volunteer or someone close to the volunteer received. In previous research conducted by Backman et al. (1997) the five items factored into one coproduction factor with

an acceptable reliability. Here, factor analysis produced two separate coproduction factors divided by the types of questions mentioned above. Because the factor analysis divided the coproduction factor into two logical sub-domains that were both reliable at acceptable levels, the decision was made to divide coproduction into coproduction-improvement and coproduction-personal.

#### *Coproduction-Improvement*

The two items that represented coproduction-improvement were “I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs” and “if I volunteer, chances of the park or program closing or ending are reduced.” Both items had acceptable factor loading scores (.81 and .80 respectively) and a Cronbach’s alpha of .70 (Table 4). These two items relate directly to the concept of coproduction; people volunteer so that their facilities and services are not impacted. Prior to this data being collected, citywide budget cuts forced PDPR to reduce the number of seasonal maintenance workers they pay to maintain and care for the parks and recreation facilities during the summer months. This may have made this part of coproduction more salient. In fact, the coproduction-improvement factor was the strongest of the eight motivation factors ( $M = 4.0$ ,  $SD = 0.9$ ) measured in this study (Table 4).

#### *Coproduction-Personal*

The second coproduction factor (coproduction-personal) included the remaining three coproduction items (“I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility,” “I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility” and “I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service”) with modest to low factor loading scores (.51 to .76) and an acceptable Cronbach’s alpha of .63

(Table 4). These three items were conceptually related in that they all deal with direct or indirect benefits received by respondents or people close to the respondents. The coproduction-personal factor had the same mean score as the values factor ( $M = 3.4$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ).



Table 4. Factor/Reliability Analysis for Motivation Subdomains with Item and Scale Means

Index	Items Included†	Item Mean (SD)	Factor Loading	$\alpha$ if Item Deleted	Cron. $\alpha$	Scale Mean (SD)
Understanding	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	3.8 (1.1)	.820	.763	.835	3.6 (0.9)
	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	3.7 (1.1)	.823	.737		
	I volunteer because I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	3.5 (1.2)	.818	.815		
	I volunteer because I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	3.2 (1.2)	.451	.843		
Values	I volunteer because I can do something for a cause that is important to me	4.6 (0.7)	.292	.919*	.838	3.4 (1.0)
	I volunteer because I feel it is important to help others.	3.8 (1.1)	.855	.759		
	I volunteer because I feel compassion toward people in need	3.2 (1.2)	.908	.706		
	I volunteer because I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself	3.2 (1.1)	.898	.714		
Enhancement	Volunteering is a way to make new friends	3.3 (1.1)	.618	.890	.880	3.0 (1.0)
	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	3.2 (1.2)	.791	.848		
	Volunteering makes me feel needed	2.8 (1.3)	.802	.812		
	Volunteering makes me feel important	2.6 (1.2)	.793	.825		
Social	I volunteer because people I know share an interest in community service	3.2 (1.3)	.803	.824	.864	2.7 (1.1)
	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	2.9 (1.3)	.813	.814		
	My friends volunteer	2.4 (1.2)	.781	.825		
	People I am close to want me to volunteer	2.2 (1.2)	.747	.840		
Protective	No matter how bad I have been feeling, volunteering helps me forget about it	2.9 (1.3)	.701	.848	.859	2.3 (1.0)
	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	2.1 (1.2)	.790	.792		
	By volunteering I feel less lonely	2.4 (1.3)	.798	.796		
	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt I feel over being more fortunate than others	1.9 (1.0)	.750	.841		
Career	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	2.1 (1.2)	.850	.904	.921	2.0 (1.1)
	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume	2.1 (1.3)	.799	.911		
	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	2.0 (1.2)	.850	.880		
	Volunteering can help me to get a foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	1.9 (1.1)	.819	.893		

Index	Items Included†	Item Mean (SD)	Factor Loading	$\alpha$ if Item Deleted	Cron. $\alpha$	Scale Mean (SD)
Coproductio Overall**	If I volunteer, chances of the park or program closing or ending are reduced	4.0 (1.0)	.804	.620	.670	3.6 (0.8)
	I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs	3.9 (1.0)	.813	.631		
	I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility	3.6 (1.4)	.011	.661		
	I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service	3.7 (1.2)	.315	.603		
	I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility	2.9 (1.4)	.119	.572		
Coproductio Improvement	If I volunteer, chances of the park or program closing or ending are reduced	4.0 (1.0)	.804	-	.700	4.0 (0.9)
	I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs	3.9 (1.0)	.813	-		
Coproductio Personal	I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service	3.7 (1.2)	.507	.595	.630	3.4 (1.0)
	I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility	3.6 (1.4)	.722	.610		
	I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility	2.9 (1.4)	.756	.346		

† “Please read each statement and indicate how important the reason is for your volunteer efforts with the organization you listed in question #1.” (1 = extremely unimportant and 5 = extremely important)

\* Item eliminated from the sub-construct due to poor factor loading.

\*\* The five item coproduction measure factored into two conceptually sound sub-domains

### Factor Analysis – Experience (VSI)

According to Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) the VSI consists of four volunteer satisfaction sub-domains (organizational support, participation efficacy, sense of empowerment, group integration). The principal components factor analysis of the 18 individual VSI items produced only three satisfaction factors. Though not entirely consistent with Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley’s findings, the three factors that emerged from this analysis matched three of their original factors (organizational support, participation efficacy, group integration). However, the sense of empowerment factor that was measured with three items was not supported by this analysis. Instead those three items factored into two of the other VSI sub-domains, organizational support and participation efficacy. Group integration

remained consistent with Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley. In cases where more than one item loaded on a factor the higher factor loading was used.

Despite the elimination of the empowerment factor, the average scores of the remaining VSI sub-domains were consistent with previous research. Mean scores for organizational support, participation efficacy, and group integration in this study were within two-tenths of a point (on a five-point scale) of those of Garner and Garner (2010). Frequency distributions for the all satisfaction items are presented in Appendix C.

#### *Participation Efficacy*

The participation efficacy sub-domain consisted of five satisfaction items: the four original items and one of the sense of empowerment items (“the chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work”). This item fits with the participation efficacy sub-domain, in that it relates effectively with how the volunteer is able to use his/her knowledge or skills. The five items all had acceptable factor loadings above .63 and a Cronbach’s alpha of .87 that could not be improved by removing any of the individual items (Table 5). Respondents were most satisfied with participation efficacy with an average score of 4.1 ( $SD = 0.7$ ) on a five-point scale. Under the participation efficacy sub-domain volunteers were most satisfied with how worthwhile a contribution they were able to make and how much difference their work made ( $M = 4.2$  for both). Sub-domain and individual item mean scores are presented in Table 5.

#### *Group Integration*

The group integration factor matched the factor analysis conducted by Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001). The four items had acceptable factor loadings (ranging from .75 to .85) and an overall reliability of .92 that could not be improved by deleting any items (Table 5).

The two items volunteers were most satisfied with related to relationships and friendships that had developed through the organization. Volunteers reported an average group integration score of 4.0 on a five point scale ( $SD = .08$ ).

#### *Organizational Support*

Organizational support had a total of 9 items with factor loadings ranging from .48 to .81 and a Cronbach's alpha of .90 (Table 5). The two organizational support items with the lowest factor loadings were "the access I have to information concerning the organization" and "the freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment," with factor loadings of .58 and .48, respectively. Both of these items were originally in the sense of empowerment factor, yet they conceptually fit with organizational support as well. Moreover, the organizational support sub-domain could not be improved by removing either item. The decision was made to retain all nine organizational support items. Of the three satisfaction factors, volunteers were least satisfied with organization support ( $M = 3.9$ ,  $SD = 0.7$ ), though they were still more satisfied than not with organizational support (Table 5).

Table 5. Factor/Reliability Analysis for Satisfaction Subdomains with Item and Scale Means

Index	Item Included†	Item Mean (SD)	Factor Loading	$\alpha$ if Item Deleted	Cron. $\alpha$	Scale Mean (SD)
Participation Efficacy	How worthwhile my contribution is.	4.2 (0.7)	.800	.838	.870	4.1 (0.7)
	The difference my volunteer work is making.	4.2 (0.8)	.790	.845		
	The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.	4.0 (0.8)	.765	.835		
	*The chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my vol. work.	4.0 (0.8)	.667	.846		
	The opportunities I have to learn new things.	3.9 (0.8)	.634	.849		
Group Integration	My relationship with other volunteers in the organization.	4.1 (0.8)	.846	.901	.923	4.0 (0.8)
	The friendships I have made while volunteering with the organization.	4.1 (0.9)	.751	.904		
	The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization.	4.0 (0.9)	.820	.889		
	The amount of time I spend with other volunteers in the organization.	3.9 (0.9)	.825	.904		
Organizational Support	The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.	4.0 (0.9)	.779	.889	.902	3.9 (0.7)
	The support I receive from people in the organization.	4.0 (0.9)	.740	.883		
	My relationship with paid staff.	4.0 (0.9)	.624	.896		
	*The access I have to information concerning the organization.	4.0 (0.9)	.577	.893		
	*The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment.	4.0 (0.8)	.484	.893		
	The amount of communication coming to me from paid staff and/or board members.	3.8 (1.0)	.812	.884		
	How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.	3.7 (0.9)	.659	.892		
	The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.	3.6 (.9)	.761	.891		
	The amount of permission I need before I can do the things I do on this job.	3.6 (0.9)	.579	.895		

†"Thinking about the organization you selected in question #1, please read each of the following statements and indicate your level of satisfaction." (1 = Very Dissatisfied and 5 = Very Satisfied)

\* Factors originally in the sense of empowerment factor.

### Reliability Analysis – Consequences (OID)

Organizational identity was measured using the OID scale that has been tested on various types of organizations, including businesses, student organizations, alumni associations, and U.S. Army Squad Members. Further, this scale has been used to assess OID of leaders, managers and organizational group members. Using their six-item scale, Mael and Ashforth (1992) report alpha coefficients from various studies ranging from 0.81 (employees) to 0.89 (U.S. Army Squad Leaders). In their study of college alumni they reported an alpha of 0.87 for the OID scale. The five-item OID scale used in this study had a reliability of .82 which was consistent with the reliabilities reported by Mael and Ashforth (1992) (Table 6). The alpha coefficient could not be improved by removing any individual items; hence, all five items were retained in the creation of the scale. The average OID score was 3.6 (on a five point scale), which is consistent with Mael and Ashforth's findings among college alumni (Table 6).

Table 6. Reliability Analysis for OID with Item and Scale Means

Item Included <sup>†</sup>	Item Mean (SD)	$\alpha$ if Item Deleted	Cron. $\alpha$	Scale Mean (SD)
I am interested in what others think about this organization	3.9 (0.8)	.809	.817	3.6 (0.8)
This organization's successes are my successes	3.8 (1.0)	.767		
When someone praises this organization it feels like a personal compliment	3.7 (1.0)	.740		
When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult	3.4 (1.1)	.791		
If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed	3.4 (1.1)	.794		

<sup>†</sup> "For each of the following statements about the organization you selected in question #1, please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements." (1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree)

### **Validity/Reliability Analysis – Consequences (LOI)**

Volunteer level of involvement was measured by having respondents rate on a scale of one to five (1 = Not at all to 5 = A great deal), seven possible contributions (e.g., skills, labor, money), adapted from previous volunteer research (Gage, 2009). Responses were recoded on a scale of 0 (not at all) to 4 (a great deal), because a response of one would mean no contribution at all.

Because the LOI scale used in this study had not been tested previously, validity and reliability were tested. The content validity, criterion-related validity and internal reliability of LOI are discussed in this section.

In order to establish content validity, the questionnaire was sent to seven volunteer administrators and coordinators at PDPR. They were asked to assess each item based on relevance, and clarity of wording of the statement and examples. Base on the feed back received, the term “physical labor” was removed as an example of the “skills” item and was added as an independent item with examples of park clean up and general maintenance. Adjustments were also made to the examples of several other items. To the item “time” a clause was added informing respondents not to include time spent in physical labor.

Criterion related validity was tested by comparing scores from the LOI (sum of the responses to each item, recoded on a zero to four scale) to the average number of hours volunteered per month (outliers recoded), which is frequently used in volunteer research as the measure of level of involvement. The LOI exhibited a moderate concurrent validity with the average number of hours volunteered in the past month (Pearsons correlation of .499).

Comparing the LOI to the average number of hours volunteered, reveals that they have very similar mean scores, yet the standard deviation of LOI is nearly half that of the

average number of hours. Despite having made adjustments for outliers, the average number of hours is still skewed beyond an acceptable 1.0; While LOI falls within the normal range of both skewness and kurtosis. LOI measures are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Comparison of LOI and Average # of Hours Volunteered

Item Included	LOI	Average # of Hours
Mean	12.2	12.8
Median	12	8
Mode	4	4
Standard Deviation	6.5	12.6
Skewness	0.245	1.170
Kurtosis	-0.824	0.099
Pearson Correlation	.499**	

\*\* sig. < .010

The Cronbach's Alpha for the seven-item LOI was .88 that could only be improved marginally by removing the "physical labor" item (from .88 to .90) or the "money" item (from .88 to .89). This degree of change was not significant enough to warrant removing either item. Reliability analysis for LOI is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Reliability Analysis for LOI with Scale and Item Means

Item Included	Item		Cron. $\alpha$	Scale Sum (SD)
	Mean (SD)	$\alpha$ if Item Deleted		
Physical Labor (e.g. park clean up)	2.5 (1.4)	.902	.881	12.2 (6.5)
Time (e.g. fund raising, meetings)	2.3 (1.4)	.848		
Skills (e.g. teaching, organize programs)	2.2 (1.6)	.854		
Leadership (e.g. hold office)	2.1 (1.7)	.841		
Resources (e.g. use of personal tools)	1.8 (1.5)	.845		
Money (e.g. donations, dues)	1.8 (1.2)	.892		
Other (e.g. writing newsletters, host website)	1.3 (1.5)	.854		

† "To what extent do you contribute the following to the organization you selected in question #1?" (Originally measured on 1-5 scale, 1 = not at all to 5 = A great deal. Items were recoded to a 0-4 scale, 0 = not at all to 4 = a great deal)



## **Bivariate Comparisons of Socio-Demographic Characteristics**

This section addresses research question one regarding differences in the constructs of the VPM across volunteers representing diverse demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, parental status, education). The results of the bivariate analyses will be presented in order of the research sub-questions, which follow the order of the volunteer process model (e.g., antecedents, experiences, consequences). To examine relationships, two types of bivariate analyses were used depending upon the scale of measurement of the variables examined, bivariate correlations and one way analysis of variance. Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonferroni adjustment required a significance level of 0.002 (i.e., 0.05/15) to be used.

Research question #1: Are there differences in how people with different sociodemographic characteristics (age, gender, race, parental status, education) experience volunteerism in park and recreation settings?

### **Age**

R1a: Do volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differ based on age?

To assess differences in the motivations, experiences, and consequences based on age, bivariate correlation analysis using the Pearson Product Moment Statistic was used. Analysis of variance was used to compare age to the other antecedent demographic variables (gender, race, parental status, education), and is discussed and presented in the respective subsections of this chapter.

### *Antecedents*

Age was significantly and negatively related to four of the eight motivations measured in this study after making a Bonferroni adjustment that required a significance

level of .002. Age was most strongly related to the career motivation. Younger volunteers were more likely to report being motivated to volunteer for career related reasons (Table 9). The second strongest correlation with age was coproduction for personal benefits. Followed by the values and enhancement motivations. As age increased, the motivation to personally benefit themselves or someone close to them decreased (See Table 9). Age was not significantly related to volunteer experiences.

### *Consequence*

After making the Bonforroni's adjustment, duration of service was the only consequence that was significantly and positively related to age. As volunteers aged they were more likely to have volunteered for more years.

**Table 9. Correlations between VPM Motivations, Experiences and Consequences and Age**

Variable	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2 Tailed)*
<b>Antecedent – Motivations</b>			
Career	321	-.315	.000
Coproduction-Personal	324	-.211	.000
Values	322	-.169	.002
Enhancement	328	-.166	.003
Understanding	326	-.142	.010
Social	327	-.123	.026
Coproduction-Improvement	328	-.086	.121
Protection	325	-.039	.481
<b>Experience-Satisfaction</b>			
Organizational Support	328	.059	.288
Group Integration	322	-.031	.576
Participant Efficacy	326	-.018	.750
<b>Consequences</b>			
Duration	321	.466	.000
Hours per Month	303	.153	.008
LOI	330	-.074	.183
OID	328	-.056	.308

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonforroni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

## **Gender**

R1b: Do volunteer motivations, experiences, and consequences differ based on gender?

Differences between motivations, experiences, and consequences based on gender were assessed using analysis of variance. The results of this analysis are discussed in the following sections.

### *Antecedents*

When accounting for the Bonferroni adjustment, female respondents were significantly more likely than male respondents to report being motivated to volunteer on two of the eight volunteer motivation factors (protective and values) (Table 10). The average scores for the protective motivation were important reasons for female respondents and unimportant reasons for males. On a five-point scale, where 1 was an extremely unimportant reason and five was extremely important reason, male respondents reported an average of 2.1 ( $SD$  0.9) or a relatively unimportant motivation, while female respondents reported an average score of 3.1 ( $SD = 1.0$ ), which was a slightly important motivation (Table 10).

### *Experiences*

None of the experience measure differed significantly based on gender, when accounting for the Bonferroni adjustment. Both genders were generally satisfied with their volunteer experiences, female respondents ( $M = 4.1$ ,  $SD = 0.7$ ) were slightly (though not significantly) more satisfied with the group integration than were males ( $M = 3.9$ ,  $SD = 0.8$ ). In other words, having opportunities to interact and develop friendships was more important for female respondents than male respondents.

### Consequences

Volunteers differed significantly on one of the consequences of volunteering as well, when accounting for the Bonferroni adjustment. Female respondents ( $M = 13.2$ ,  $SD = 6.5$ ) reported a significantly higher level of involvement than did male respondents ( $M = 10.9$ ,  $SD = 6.3$ ). In other words, female volunteers reported contributing more to their volunteer organization than did males (Table 10). It should be noted that the effect sizes for all these relationships were relatively small according to Cohen (1992).

Significant differences in motivations and consequences existed between male and female respondents. Overall, female respondents were more likely to report being motivated to volunteer, and reported a significantly higher level of involvement than did male respondents.

Table 10. Bivariate analyses between VPM Motivations, Experiences and Consequences and Gender

Variable	Male	Female	N	F	Eta <sup>p2</sup>
	M(SD)	M(SD)			
Antecedent – Motivations					
Protective	2.1 (0.9)	3.1 (1.0)	341	11.647*	.033
Values	3.2 (1.1)	3.6 (1.0)	338	11.578*	.033
Understanding	3.4 (0.9)	3.7 (0.9)	342	8.325	.024
Coproduction Improvement	3.8 (0.9)	4.1 (0.9)	344	7.360	.021
Enhancement	2.8 (1.0)	3.1 (1.0)	344	4.942	.014
Career	1.9 (1.0)	2.1 (1.1)	337	3.785	.011
Coproduction-Personal	3.3 (1.0)	3.4 (1.0)	340	0.147	.000
Social	2.7 (1.1)	2.7 (1.1)	343	0.093	.000
Experience – Satisfactions					
Group Integration	3.9 (0.8)	4.1 (0.7)	338	5.419	.016
Participation Efficacy	4.0 (0.6)	4.1 (0.6)	342	3.015	.009
Organizational Support	3.8 (0.7)	3.9 (0.7)	344	1.184	.003
Consequence					
LOI	10.9 (6.3)	13.2 (6.5)	346	11.020*	.031
Duration of Service	8.8 (7.4)	10.8 (8.2)	336	4.635	.014
Average Hours per Month	12.6 (12.7)	13.2 (12.7)	317	0.183	.001
OID	3.6 (0.7)	3.7 (0.8)	344	0.460	.001

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonferroni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

## **Race**

R1c: Do volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differ based on race?

Differences between motivations, experiences and consequences based on race were assessed using analysis of variance, using Bonferroni adjustment for multiple analyses to account for type one error. Only one of the motivations differed based on race. Similarly, only one of the consequences (number of hours per month) differed significantly based on race. There were no significant differences in the experience measures between white respondents and people of color.

### *Antecedent*

The values motivation was the only motivation that was significantly different based on race and had a medium sized effect,  $\eta^2 = .08$  (Table 11). People of color were more likely than whites to report being motivated by values ( $M = 4.1, SD = 1.0; M = 3.3, SD = 1.0$  respectively). For people of color, values were a relatively important reason for volunteering, and for white respondents it was essentially neutral. In other words, people of color volunteer for more altruistic reasons than white respondents.

### *Consequences*

The average number of hours volunteered per month was the only consequence that differed significantly based on race. People of color reported volunteering almost twice as many hours as white respondents ( $M = 21.5, SD = 15.3; M = 11.2, SD = 11.3$  respectively). This is particularly noteworthy for PDPR volunteer managers, because only 14% of volunteers in this study were people of color, while people of color account for more than 60% of the population of Philadelphia (Table 11). The level of involvement was not significantly different with the Bonferroni adjustment, however, it showed a similar pattern

of difference to the average number of hours volunteered per month. On the LOI scale people of color reported an average score of 14.4 ( $SD = 6.7$ ), compared to 11.8 ( $SD = 6.3$ ) for white respondents.

Table 11. Bivariate analyses between VPM Motivations, Experiences and Consequences and Race

Variable	People of		N	F	Cramer's V or Eta <sup>p2</sup>
	White % or <i>M(SD)</i>	Color % or <i>M(SD)</i>			
Antecedent – Motivations					
Values	3.3 (1.0)	4.1 (1.0)	332	28.584*	.080
Enhancement	3.0 (1.0)	2.8 (1.1)	338	2.726	.008
Career	2.0 (1.0)	2.2 (1.1)	331	1.656	.005
Protective	2.3 (1.0)	2.5 (1.0)	335	1.540	.005
Coproduction-Personal	3.3 (1.0)	3.5 (1.0)	334	1.419	.004
Coproduction-Improvement	3.9 (0.9)	4.1 (1.0)	338	0.878	.003
Social	2.7 (1.0)	2.8 (1.3)	337	0.149	.000
Understanding	3.6 (0.9)	3.5 (1.1)	336	0.015	.000
Experience - Satisfactions					
Participation Efficacy	4.1 (0.6)	4.1 (0.7)	336	0.485	.001
Group Integration	4.0 (0.7)	4.1 (0.8)	332	0.470	.001
Organizational Support	3.9 (0.7)	3.8 (0.7)	338	0.007	.000
Consequences					
Average Hours per Month	11.2 (11.3)	21.5 (15.3)	311	28.599*	.085
LOI	11.8 (6.3)	14.4 (6.7)	340	7.231	.021
Duration of Service	9.5 (7.5)	12.3 (9.3)	330	5.550	.017
OID	3.6 (0.8)	3.6 (0.8)	338	0.002	.000

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonforoni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

\*\_

### Parental Status

R1d: Do volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differ based on parental status?

Parental status was determined by whether there were children under the age of 18 living in the household of the respondent. Differences between motivations, experiences and consequences based on parental status were assessed using one-way analysis of variance, using Bonforroni adjustment for multiple analyses to account for type one error. Significant differences existed between people with children in their home and people without children in their home only at the antecedent level. No significant differences existed at the experience or consequence levels.

### *Antecedents*

Only one of the motivations differed significantly based on parental status. People with children were significantly more likely to be motivated by the coproduction personal benefit than were people without children in the home. People with children reported an average score of 3.7 (on a five-point scale) and people without children reported a 3.3 (Table 12). In other words, if the respondent or someone close to the respondent (possibly a child) had benefited from the park or program in the past they were more likely to volunteer themselves.

### *Consequences*

Though consequences did not differ significantly by race Not only were people with children more likely to be motivated by the coproduction personal benefit, they also reported a higher LOI ( $M = 13.7$ ,  $SD = 6.6$ ) than those without children ( $M = 11.8$ ,  $SD = 6.4$ ), though the effect size was quite small for this difference with an  $\text{Eta}^2$  of .014 (Table 12).



Table 12. Bivariate analyses between VPM Motivations, Experiences and Consequences and Parental Status

Variable	Children % or <i>M(SD)</i>	No Children % or <i>M(SD)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>F</i>	Eta <sup>p2</sup>
Antecedent – Motivations					
Coproduction-Personal	3.7 (1.0)	3.3 (1.0)	345	13.000*	.037
Values	3.6 (1.1)	3.4 (1.1)	343	1.826	.005
Protective	2.2 (1.1)	2.4 (1.1)	346	1.280	.004
Coproduction-Improvement	4.0 (0.9)	3.9 (1.0)	349	0.525	.002
Social	2.8 (1.1)	2.7 (1.1)	348	0.192	.001
Career	2.1 (1.0)	2.0 (1.1)	342	0.708	.000
Understanding	3.6 (0.9)	3.6 (0.9)	347	0.900	.000
Enhancement	3.0 (1.0)	3.0 (1.0)	349	0.999	.000
Experience - Satisfaction					
Group Integration	4.1 (0.7)	4.0 (0.8)	343	1.007	.003
Organizational Support	3.9 (0.7)	3.9 (0.7)	349	0.305	.001
Participation Efficacy	4.0 (0.7)	4.1 (0.6)	347	0.192	.001
Consequences					
LOI	13.7 (6.6)	11.8 (6.4)	351	4.985	.014
Duration of Service	8.7 (6.9)	10.3 (8.1)	341	2.388	.007
OID	3.8 (0.7)	3.6 (0.8)	347	2.279	.007
Average Hours per Month	14.0 (14.0)	12.5 (12.2)	322	1.049	.003

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonforroni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

### Education

R1e: Do volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differ based on education?

Differences between antecedents, experiences and consequences based on education were assessed using one-way analysis of variance, using Bonforroni adjustment for multiple analyses to account for type one error. Significant differences only existed at the consequence level.

#### *Antecedents*

Though none of the antecedents differed significantly based on education after the Bonforroni adjustment, the values motivation approached near significance. Respondents with less than a college degree were more likely to be motivated by altruistic, values-based reasons ( $M = 3.7$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ) than respondents with more than a 4-year college degree ( $M = 3.3$ ,  $SD = 1.1$ ) (Table 13). On the values motivation, those with a 4-year college degree were in the middle and did not differ significantly from the other two groups.

### *Consequences*

Two of the four volunteer consequences differed significantly based on level of education. Level of involvement, as measured by the LOI scale approached significance, and the average hours of participation were significantly different based on level of education. Respondents with less than a 4-year college degree were more likely to be involved in the volunteer organizations than were the volunteers with a college degree or more (Table 13). Volunteers with less than a 4-year college degree spent on average 8.6 hours more time volunteering for the organization than those with a 4-year college degree and 10.7 hours more time volunteering than those with more than a 4-year college degree (Table 13).

Not only was the number of hours higher for volunteers with less than a 4-year college degree, but they had also been volunteering for the organization for significantly more years than those with more education. Those with less than a 4-year degree reported volunteering for the organization for an average of 13.2 years ( $SD = 8.5$ ), while those with a 4-year degree and those with more than a 4-year degree reported significantly less ( $M = 9.3$ ,  $M = 8.1$ , respectively). See Table 13 for detailed results of the one-way analysis of variance.

Like the LOI measure, organizational identity approached significant differences based on education. Organizational Identity was higher for respondents reporting having less than a 4-year college degree ( $M = 3.8$ ,  $SD = 0.8$ ) and those reporting having a 4-year college degree ( $M = 3.7$ ,  $SD = 0.7$ ), than for those with more than a 4-year degree ( $M = 3.5$ ,  $SD = 0.8$ ). In other words, respondents with more than a 4-year degree did not identify as strongly with the organization as did those with less education (Table 13).

Table 13. Bivariate analyses between VPM Motivations, Experiences and Consequences and Education

Variable	Less than	College	More than	N	F
	College	Degree	College		
	% or <i>M(SD)</i>	% or <i>M(SD)</i>	% or <i>M(SD)</i>		
<b>Antecedent-Motivations</b>					
Values	3.7 (1.0) <sup>a</sup>	3.4 (1.0) <sup>ab</sup>	3.3 (1.1) <sup>b</sup>	343	4.093*
Coproduction-Improvement	4.1 (0.9)	3.9 (0.8)	3.8 (1.0)	343	2.424
Protective	2.5 (1.1)	2.4 (1.0)	2.2 (1.0)	339	2.420
Coproduction-Personal	3.5 (1.1)	3.4 (0.9)	3.3 (1.0)	338	1.043
Understanding	3.6 (1.0)	3.6 (0.8)	3.5 (1.0)	340	1.037
Enhancement	3.1 (1.1)	3.1 (0.9)	2.9 (1.1)	342	0.951
Social	2.7 (1.2)	2.8 (1.1)	2.7 (1.0)	341	0.607
Career	2.0 (1.1)	2.1 (1.0)	2.0 (1.1)	335	0.352
<b>Experience-Satisfactions</b>					
Organizational Support	4.0 (0.7)	3.8 (0.7)	3.9 (0.7)	342	2.738
Group Integration	4.2 (0.8)	4.1 (0.8)	4.0 (0.7)	336	1.459
Participation Efficacy	4.1 (0.7)	4.1 (0.6)	4.0 (0.6)	340	0.472
<b>Consequences</b>					
Average Hours per Month <sup>o</sup>	19.9 (14.6) <sup>a</sup>	11.3 (11.1) <sup>b</sup>	9.2 (10.2) <sup>b</sup>	315	21.944***
Duration of Service <sup>o</sup>	13.2 (8.5) <sup>a</sup>	9.3 (7.6) <sup>b</sup>	8.1 (7.1) <sup>b</sup>	334	12.623***
LOI	14.1 (6.7) <sup>a</sup>	11.8 (6.4) <sup>b</sup>	11.3 (6.2) <sup>b</sup>	344	5.866**
OID <sup>o</sup>	3.8 (0.8) <sup>a</sup>	3.7 (0.7) <sup>a</sup>	3.5 (0.8) <sup>b</sup>	342	4.291*

<sup>o</sup> Equal variance not assumed, Tamhane's Post hoc test reported

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonforoni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

### Bivariate Analysis of Leaders and Non-leaders

This section will address research question two regarding the differences between volunteers and volunteer leaders. Bivariate analysis will be presented in order of the research sub-questions, which follow the order of the volunteer process model (e.g., antecedents, experiences, consequences).

To examine such relationships, two kinds of bivariate analyses were conducted depending upon the nature of the variables examined. For the intervally scaled variables, analysis of variance was conducted to examine differences in mean scores between leaders

and volunteers. Differences between nominally scaled variables (i.e., gender, education, etc.) were assessed using chi-square statistics.

Research Question #2: Do volunteer antecedents, experiences, and consequences differ significantly across park volunteers and volunteer leaders?

### **Antecedents – Demographics**

R2a: Do socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, parental status, education) differ between leader and non-leader volunteers?

To answer research question 2a, demographic differences between volunteer leaders and volunteers were compared. Results indicated that statistically significant differences existed between leaders and volunteers for three socio-demographic variables (gender, race/ethnicity, education). Volunteer leaders were more likely than non-leaders to be female (63.7%) ( $\chi^2 = 6.210$ , sig. < .050). Furthermore, more than 80% of non-leaders reported having completed four years or more of college, while 62% of leaders had completed the four years of college or more ( $\chi^2 = 11.928$ , sig. < .010). People of color were more likely to be represented in leadership capacities than were white volunteers (Table 14). Over 21% of volunteer leaders were people of color, while less than 7% of non-leaders were people of color ( $\chi^2 = 13.179$ , sig. < .001).

Table 14. Bivariate Analyses Between Demographic Characteristics and Leaders and Non-Leaders

Variable	Leaders	Non-leaders	N	Test Statistic	Cramer's V or Eta <sup>2</sup>
	% or <i>M(SD)</i>	% or <i>M(SD)</i>			
Age (in years)	54.3 (12.1)	53.5 (12.9)	331	$F = 0.325$	.001
Gender			347	$\chi^2 = 6.210^*$	.013
Female	63.7%	50.0%			
Male	36.3%	50.0%			
Income			267	$\chi^2 = 2.840$	.107
\$100,000 or more	35.9%	39.5%			
\$60,000-\$99,999	23.7%	28.6%			
\$40,000-\$59,999	20.6%	19.3%			
\$0-\$39,999	19.8%	12.6%			
Refused	-	-	85		
Education			345	$\chi^2 = 11.928^{**}$	.192
More than a College Degree	30.7%	39.7%			
College Degree	31.8%	40.4%			
Less than a College Degree	37.4%	19.9%			
Race/Ethnicity Dichotomous			341	$\chi^2 = 13.179^{***}$	.202
White	78.9%	93.2%			
People of Color	21.1%	6.8%			
Households w/ Children < 18			352	$\chi^2 = 0.693$	.046
No Children	77.5%	81.2%			
Yes Children	22.5%	18.8%			

\* sig. < .050, \*\* sig. < .010, \*\*\* sig. < .001

### Antecedents - Motivations

R2b: Do volunteer motivations differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

To answer research question 2b, volunteer leaders and non-leaders were compared across various motivations or reasons for volunteering. The only motivation that varied significantly between leaders and volunteers was the values motive. Volunteer leaders ( $M = 3.7$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ) were significantly more likely than volunteers ( $M = 3.2$ ,  $SD = 1.0$ ) to report being motivated by the values factor ( $f = 14.200$ , sig. < .001) (Table 15). In other words volunteer leaders volunteered for more altruistic reasons (i.e., compassion and concern) than did non-leaders.

## **Experience – Satisfaction**

R2c: Does volunteer satisfaction differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

To answer research question 2c, volunteer leaders and non-leaders were compared regarding their volunteer satisfaction. Across all three of the volunteer satisfaction sub-domains (participation efficacy, group integration, organizational support), volunteer leaders reported being more satisfied than non-leaders. Volunteer leaders differed significantly on two of the three satisfaction sub-constructs (participation efficacy and group integration).

Volunteer leaders reported a significantly higher level of satisfaction with participation efficacy ( $M = 4.2$ ,  $SD = 0.6$ ) than did non-leaders ( $M = 4.0$ ,  $SD = 0.6$ ) (Table 15). In other word, volunteer leaders had a stronger feeling that they were making a difference than did non-leaders.

Volunteer leaders also reported being significantly more satisfied ( $M = 4.2$ ,  $SD = 0.7$ ) than non-leaders ( $M = 3.9$ ,  $SD = 3.9$ ) with group integration (Table 15). That is to say, volunteer leaders were more satisfied with the social interactions, relationships, and friendships that they developed through volunteering than were non-leaders.

## **Consequences**

### *Organizational Identity*

R2d: Does volunteer organizational identity differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

To answer research question 2d, volunteer leaders and volunteers were compared regarding the extent that they identified with their specific volunteer organization. Not surprisingly, volunteer leaders identified more with the organization than did the non-leaders ( $M = 3.8$ ,  $SD = 0.8$ ;  $M = 3.5$ ,  $SD = 0.8$  respectively) (Table 15). Leaders were more likely to

have a feeling of “oneness” with the organization and perceive that the organization’s successes and failures were their own.

*Level of Involvement*

R2e: Does volunteer level of involvement differ between volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

To answer research question 2e, volunteer leaders and non-leaders were compared regarding their level of involvement as volunteers. Volunteer leaders reported a level of involvement score ( $M = 16.1$ ,  $SD = 5.2$ ) that was significantly higher than non-leaders ( $M = 8.6$ ,  $SD = 5.0$ ) (Table 15).

Further, volunteer leaders spent significantly more hours volunteering than non-leaders. Volunteer leaders reported spending an average of 17.6 hours ( $SD = 12.1$ ) volunteering for the organization, while non-leaders reported 7.3 hours ( $SD 9.2$ ) (Table 15). The LOI scale explained more of the variance ( $\text{Eta}^2 = .352$ ) between leaders and non-leaders than did average number of hours per month ( $\text{Eta}^2 = .164$ ). For this reason the LOI scale was used as the primary volunteer consequence for research question three.

Table 15. Volunteer Demographic Characteristics Volunteer Leaders and Non-leaders

Variable	Leaders	Non-	N	F	Sig.	Eta <sup>p2</sup>
	N = 182	Leaders N = 149				
	M(SD)	M(SD)				
Antecedent – Motivations						
Values	3.7 (1.0)	3.2 (1.0)	323	14.200	.000*	.042
Coproduction Improvement	4.1 (0.9)	3.9 (0.8)	329	2.745	.099	.008
Enhancement	3.0 (1.1)	2.9 (1.0)	328	1.030	.311	.003
Coproduction Personal Benefit	3.4 (1.1)	3.3 (0.9)	325	0.537	.464	.002
Understanding	3.6 (0.9)	3.6 (0.9)	327	0.238	.626	.001
Protective	2.3 (1.0)	2.3 (1.0)	326	0.062	.803	.000
Social	2.7 (1.1)	2.7 (1.1)	327	0.025	.875	.000
Career	2.0 (1.1)	2.0 (1.1)	322	0.000	.988	.000
Experience – Satisfaction						
Participation Efficacy	4.2 (0.6)	4.0 (0.6)	326	14.077	.000*	.042
Group Integration	4.2 (0.7)	3.9 (0.7)	322	10.837	.001*	.033
Organizational Support	3.9 (0.7)	3.8 (0.7)	328	1.745	.187	.005
Consequences						
LOI (Overall)	16.1 (5.2)	8.6 (5.0)	330	178.204	.000*	.352
Average # of Hours Per Month	17.6 (12.1)	7.3 (9.2)	308	60.138	.000*	.164
OID	3.8 (0.8)	3.5 (0.8)	328	10.955	.001*	.033

\* Because 15 ANOVAs were run, a Bonforoni adjustment required a significance level of .003 (i.e., .05/15) to be used.

### Multivariate Regression (Path Analysis) of the Volunteer Process Model

The volunteer process model provides a conceptual framework to understand the psychological and behavioral qualities that are associated with volunteerism (Omoto & Snyder, 2002). The framework consists of three stages of volunteering, the first being antecedents, such as socio-demographic characteristics and motivations for volunteering. Experience is the second stage and is most commonly measured with a volunteer's psychological response to the volunteer experience, in the form of satisfaction. The final stage of this framework is consequences of volunteering. Omoto and Snyder (1991) propose that these consequences can be both psychological (i.e., how much someone identifies with a cause or specific volunteer organization) and/or behavioral (i.e., the number of hours a person volunteers). The relationships between each of these stages have been considered and examined separately and collectively (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Davila, 2009).



The following sections address research question three regarding the combined influence of volunteering antecedents and experiences on volunteer consequences for recreation volunteers and volunteer leaders. The proposed model being tested is presented in Figure 2 (p. 31) .

To test these relationships, a series of stepwise linear regression analyses were conducted. First, LOI was regressed on OID (a proximal consequence to LOI), the three satisfaction sub-domains, the eight volunteer motivations, as well as the interval and dichotomous demographic variables. The second regression analysis regressed organizational identity on satisfaction sub-domains, motivational sub-domains, and demographic characteristics. The third set of regression analyses regressed the three satisfaction variables separately on the motivation and dichotomous demographic variables.

Because earlier bivariate analyses revealed significant differences between volunteers and volunteer leaders at every level of the VPM, the multivariate analysis was conducted twice, first for volunteers and again for volunteer leaders.

Stepwise regression analyses were conducted to examine the relative importance of antecedents, experiences and proximal consequences on LOI. Final models with only significant relationships are presented below.

### **Multiple Regression Analyses of the Volunteer Process Model for Non-Leaders**

R3) Do antecedents, and experiences contribute to volunteering outcomes of park and recreation volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

*Non-Leader Volunteers*

*Multiple Regression Analysis Step 1: LOI as the Dependent Variable*

Results will be presented in the order that they were entered in the analysis. The first level of analysis regressed LOI on OID (a proximal consequence), experiences, and antecedents. After removing all non-significant variables, the three experiences (satisfaction with organizational support, participant efficacy, group integration) and two of the socio-demographic variables (gender and parental status) explained a significant amount of the variance in LOI ( $R^2 = .318$ , sig.  $< .001$ ). Volunteer motivations did not have direct, significant relationships to LOI (Table 16).

The beta weights from the regression model were used to determine the relative influence of participation efficacy, group integration and organizational support. These results indicated that the volunteer experience factors had the strongest impact on LOI. Of those experiences, participant efficacy had the most substantial impact ( $\beta = .414$ ,  $p = .000$ ) on the volunteers' LOI, followed by group integration ( $\beta = .371$ ,  $p = .000$ ) and organizational support ( $\beta = -.348$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Parental status ( $\beta = .178$ ,  $p = .017$ ) and gender ( $\beta = .144$ ,  $p = .046$ ) had less substantial, but significant impacts on LOI. Gender and parental status had much smaller direct impacts on LOI than did the three satisfaction items; however, they still significantly influenced LOI. Non-leaders with children living in their homes had higher LOI ( $\beta = .178$ ,  $p = .017$ ) than non-leaders without children. Similarly, female non-leaders reported higher LOI than male and non-leaders ( $\beta = .144$ ,  $p = .046$ ) (Table 16).

It is important that volunteers feel that their efforts make a difference. The more effective volunteers feel they are, the more likely they are to have higher levels of involvement with the organization. Participation efficacy was the strongest predictor of

volunteer LOI. In other words, the more that volunteers felt their efforts were making a difference, the higher their LOI.

Likewise, it is important that volunteers are able to maintain and develop relationships with other members of their group. As satisfaction with group integration increased so did level of involvement with the organization. Interestingly, as volunteers were more satisfied with the support they received from their organization their level of involvement with the organization decreased. This seemingly contradictory finding will be discussed in chapter five.

*Multiple Regression Analysis Step 2: OID as the Dependent Variable*

It was proposed for this study that OID was a more proximal outcome of the VPM, which would influence LOI. As a consequence, it was also proposed that antecedents and experiences in the model would influence OID as well. At this step in the analysis, OID was regressed on experiences (satisfactions) and antecedents (motivations). The stepwise regression analysis revealed that OID for non-leaders was not influenced by any of the experiences or antecedents.

*Multiple Regression Analysis Step 3: Experiences as the Dependent Variable*

At this step in the regression analysis, each of the experience measures (organizational support, participation efficacy, and group integration) were regressed on antecedents. After removing all non-significant variables using stepwise regression, two motivations (understanding and coproduction improvement) explained 11.6% of the variance in organizational support (Table 16). Volunteers that were motivated by understanding ( $\beta = .261, p = .002$ ) the parks or organization and wanted to improve the quality of the parks and/or prevent them from closing (coproduction-improvement,  $\beta = .160, p = .05$ ) were more

likely to be satisfied with the organizational support that was provided by the organization.

The social ( $\beta = .210, p = .013$ ) and values ( $\beta = .193, p = .022$ ) motivations explained 10.2% of the variance in group integration. Non-leaders' motivations to socialize with other people and care for others positively influenced their satisfaction with the relationships and friendships they developed through the volunteer organization.

The career ( $\beta = .272, p = .001$ ) motivation by itself explained 7.4% of the variance in participant efficacy (Table 16). In other words, as non-leaders were motivated to volunteer by the opportunities their volunteer work provided to their career, they were more satisfied with the contribution that they were able to make.

*Summary for Research Question 3 (Non-leaders)*

In summary, nearly one third of the variance in LOI can be explained by how effective non-leaders felt their work was, how integrated they were into their organization, and by how much support they received from their organization. Antecedents of children in the household and gender also predicted LOI. For non-leaders OID was not part of the VPM. It neither predicted the LOI (the more distal consequence), nor was it predicted by antecedents or experiences. Overall, the VPM provides a good conceptual framework for non-leader park and recreation volunteers. See Figure 8 for a summary of the VPM for non-leaders.

Table 16. Volunteer Process Model Path Analysis Regression Results for Non-Leaders

Outcome Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Independent Variables	$\beta$	p
Level of Involvement	.318***	Satisfaction – Organizational Support	-.348	.001
		Satisfaction – Participant Efficacy	.414	.000
		Satisfaction – Group Integration	.371	.000
		Children Under 18 in the Household	.178	.017
		Gender	.144	.046
Organizational Identity	ns	-		
Satisfaction Organizational Support	.116***	Motivation – Understanding	.261	.002
		Motivation – Coproduction	.160	.050
Satisfaction Group Integration	.102**	Motivation – Social	.210	.013
		Motivation – Values	.193	.022
Satisfaction Participant Efficacy	.074**	Motivation – Career	.272	.001

\* p < .050, \*\* p < .010, \*\*\* p < .001, Only significant variables were used in this model.

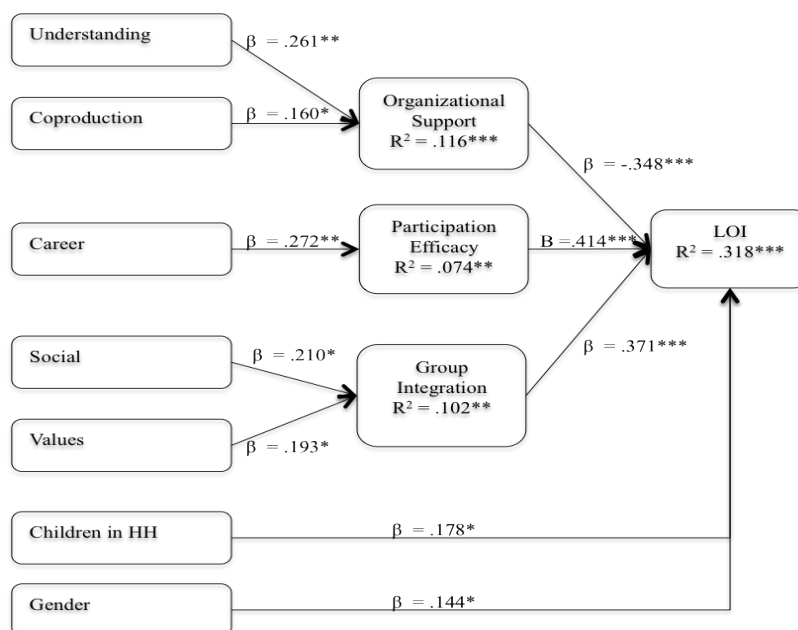


Figure 8. VPM Path Model for Non-Leaders

### **Multiple Regression Analyses of the Volunteer Process Model for Leaders**

R3) Do antecedents, and experiences contribute to volunteering outcomes of park and recreation volunteer leaders and non-leaders?

#### *Volunteer Leaders*

##### *Multiple Regression Analysis Step 1: LOI as the Dependent Variable*

Results will be presented in the order that they were entered in the analysis. The first level of analysis regressed LOI on OID (a proximal consequence), experiences, and the antecedents. After removing all non-significant variables through a series of stepwise regression analyses, OID and two of the experience domains (satisfaction with organizational support, participant efficacy) explained 17.2% of the variance in LOI for volunteer leaders (Sig. < .001). Participant efficacy ( $\beta = .404, p = .000$ ) had the most substantial relationship with LOI for leaders, followed by organizational support, which, like the regression for volunteers, revealed a negative relationship with LOI ( $\beta = -.276, p = .001$ ). Unlike the regression for non-leader volunteers, OID was significantly and positively related to the LOI of volunteer leaders. The more volunteers identified with their organization the higher their LOI.

##### *Multiple Regression Analysis Step 2: OID as the Dependent Variable*

At this step in the analysis, OID was regressed on experiences and antecedents. Satisfaction with group integration ( $\beta = .163, p = .018$ ) and the motivations, coproduction-improvement ( $\beta = .196, p = .007$ ) and enhancement ( $\beta = .312, p = .000$ ) explained a significant amount of the variance in OID ( $R^2 = .204, \text{sig.} < .001$ ) (Table 17).

The more leaders were motivated by the enhancement motive (i.e., volunteering makes me feel better about myself) the stronger their organizational identity. The

coproduction-improvement motivation was also positively related to OID. That is to say, the more volunteer leaders were seeking to improve their park or facility, the more they identified with their organization. Satisfaction with group integration was also positively related to organizational identity. In other words, the more volunteer leaders were satisfied with their relationships with other volunteers, the more they identified with their organization.

*Multiple Regression Analysis Step 3: Experiences as the Dependent Variable*

At this step in the regression analysis, the experience measures (organizational support, participation efficacy, and group integration) were regressed on the antecedents. After removing all the non-significant variables using stepwise regression, one motivation explained a relatively small amount of the variance in two of the experiences (organizational support and participation efficacy). For organizational support, coproduction improvement explained 2.8% (sig. <.05) of the variance ( $\beta = .167, p = .025$ ) (Table 17). Volunteers that were motivated by a desire to improve and maintain their facility were more satisfied with organizational support. Coproduction-improvement explained more of the variance in participation efficacy ( $r^2 = .065, \text{sig.} <.001$ ). Volunteer leaders were more satisfied with the difference that they were making when they were motivated by coproduction-improvement ( $\beta = .255, p = .001$ ).

*Summary for Research Question 3 (Volunteers Leaders)*

In summary, 17% of the variance in LOI was explained by organizational support, participation efficacy, and OID. When examining the combined influence of antecedents, experiences, and OID (proximal consequence), antecedents were not directly related to LOI. Unlike non-leaders, OID was related to LOI. Further, 20% of the variance in OID was

explained by group integration and two of the motivations. Similar to non-leaders, organizational support had a surprisingly negative influence on LOI. Overall the VPM provides a reasonable conceptual framework for park and recreation volunteer leaders. See Figure 9 for a summary of the VPM for volunteer leaders.

Table 17. Volunteer Process Model Path Analysis Regression Results for Leaders

Outcome Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Independent Variables	$\beta$	p
Level of Involvement	.172***	Organizational Identity (OID)	.165	.021
		Satisfaction – Organizational Support	-.276	.001
		Satisfaction – Participant Efficacy	.404	.000
Organizational Identity	.204***	Satisfaction – Group Integration	.163	.018
		Motivation – Enhancement	.312	.000
		Motivation – Coproduction	.196	.007
Satisfaction Organizational Support	.028*	Improvement		
		Motivation – Coproduction	.167	.025
Satisfaction Participation Efficacy	.065**	Improvement		
		Motivation – Coproduction	.255	.001
Satisfaction Group Integration	ns	-		

\* p < .050, \*\* p < .010, \*\*\* p < .001, Only significant variables were used in this model.



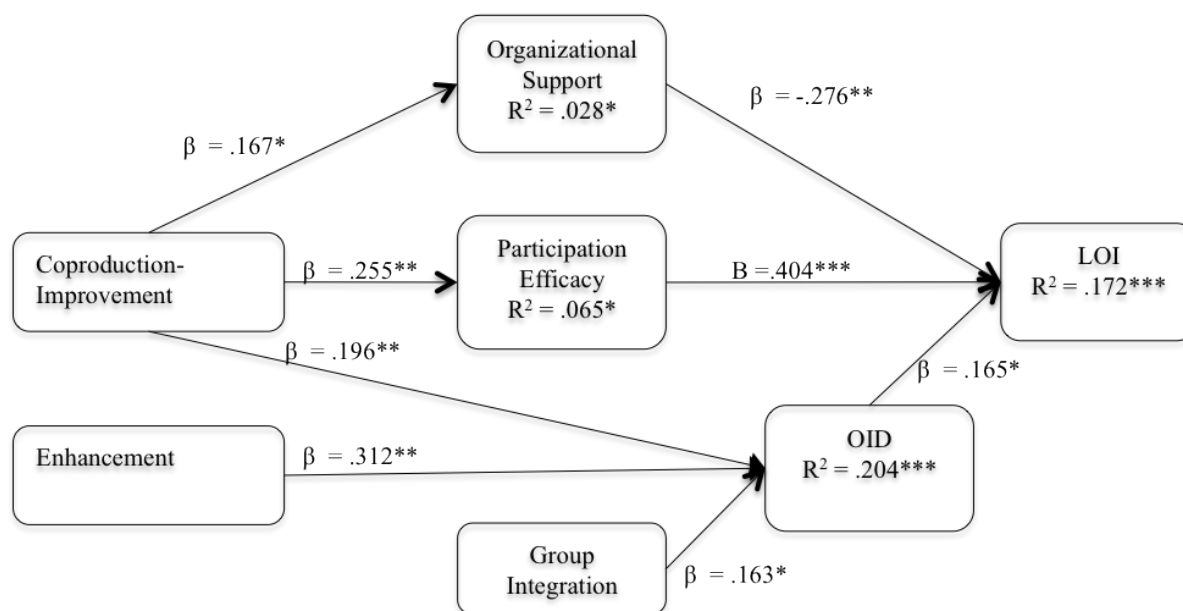


Figure 9. VPM Path Model for Leaders

### Summary

The results of this study indicate that volunteers experience the volunteer process in different ways depending on their socio-demographic characteristics and whether they are volunteer leaders or not. Though they were a small portion of this sample of volunteers, people of color were very engaged leaders and volunteers. People of color volunteered more hours, were more involved, and had volunteered for their organizations longer than white volunteers. Volunteers with children in their households were also more likely to spend more time volunteering and had higher levels of involvement than people without children.

There were comparative differences between volunteer leaders and non-leaders as well. Volunteer leaders spent more time volunteering, had volunteered for more years and reported higher levels of involvement than non-leaders. Furthermore, volunteer leaders had developed a stronger OID, which directly influenced their overall LOI.

The combined influence of the antecedents and consequences revealed that, for both volunteer leaders and non-leaders, coproduction-improvement positively influenced

organizational support, which was negatively related to LOI. The more people were motivated to improve and protect their parks, the more they were satisfied with the support they received from the organization. Yet organizational support reduced their level of involvement. The implications of these findings for research and managerial applications are discussed in chapter five.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

#### **Introduction**

In this chapter I discuss the implications of this study's findings. Volunteers have had a significant role in the provision of leisure services in the past, and their role in continuing these services is growing. While there is some evidence that suggests volunteers play important roles in the provision of leisure services, notable gaps still exist in our understanding of park and recreation volunteer characteristics, their motivations, and how they identify with and contribute to their organizations.

As the demographic composition of the nation changes, park and recreation agencies have struggled to find ways to connect with and provide services for new user groups. This challenge extends to volunteer management; indeed, one of the concerns that park and recreation volunteer-managers face is recruiting and retaining volunteers that are representative of their diverse constituencies. Chavez (2005) suggested that one of the best ways to engage diverse communities is having staff that represent these user groups and, where appropriate, speak the same language as the diverse user groups. Unfortunately, in light of the current economy, most organizations are downsizing their paid labor force, rather than growing or diversifying them. Volunteers that represent these diverse communities may be a less expensive, more feasible short-term or immediate solution for park and recreation agencies to reach out to all their constituents. Though agencies benefit from having volunteers that represent their constituencies, little focus has been given to understanding

how park and recreation volunteers from different demographic backgrounds participate in and experience their volunteering opportunities.

Another concern facing park and recreation volunteer managers is their increased inability to provide staff support for volunteer recruitment and training. In the past, agencies have provided support from paid staff to coordinate and resource volunteer efforts yet, as paid staff positions are being eliminated, agencies not only rely on volunteers to provide labor, they also rely on unpaid volunteer leaders to organize and coordinate volunteer activities. However, there has been a limited amount of research on volunteer leadership outside of board membership and youth organizations and little is known about park and recreation volunteer leaders. Volunteer research should focus on our understanding of the existing, diverse work force and the volunteer leaders.

To better understand volunteers working for PDPR, a mail survey of volunteer leaders and an online survey of non-leaders were conducted. The mail survey had a response rate of over 30% while the online survey had a response rate of 15%. The total sample size was 352. Of those, 182 reported being leaders and 149 reported being non-leaders.

Overall, results indicated that volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences differed by the demographic characteristics of the volunteers and by both, leaders and non-leaders. Analysis of leaders and non-leaders revealed that motivations, experiences and consequences varied significantly between these two types of volunteers. In addition, the testing of the path analysis for leaders and non-leaders produced models that explained a significant amount of the variance in the LOI for both leaders and non-leaders.

A discussion of the findings will be presented in three sections; first, differences in the volunteer process for socio-demographically different groups; then, differences in the

volunteer process for leaders and non-leaders; and third, a discussion of the combined influence of all the levels of the VPM for leaders and non-leaders.

### **Differences in the Volunteer Process for Socio-demographically Different Groups**

Volunteer motivations, experiences and consequences were significantly different for volunteers representing certain sociodemographic groups. Most of these differences were at the antecedent and consequence level of the VPM. The sociodemographic differences will be discussed at each level of the VPM.

#### **Antecedents**

Motivations to volunteer differed significantly between all of the sociodemographic groups measured in this study. Some of these findings are consistent with previous research, others are contradictory and one is a new finding.

Consistent with previous research (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996), female volunteers were more motivated than male volunteers by a majority of the motivations and people of color were more motivated by the values motive than were white volunteers. Also consistent with previous research, age was negatively related to the career, social, and understanding motives (Clary et al., 1996).

One finding that was not expected was the relationship between education and the values motive. Previous research had found a positive linear relationship between education and how motivated volunteers were by altruistic reasons (Clary et al., 1996). The opposite was true in this study; volunteers with the least amount of education (less than a 4-year college degree) reported being motivated more by the values motive than the more educated groups. This difference may be influenced by the fact that overall, this sample was very well educated. A significant majority of the sample has 4-year college degrees.

The volunteer motivation that had not been compared between volunteers from different sociodemographic backgrounds was coproduction-personal. Volunteers motivated by coproduction-personal reasons were more likely to volunteer because of someone they know, their child, or the fact that they benefit from the work. Volunteers that reported having a child under the age of 18 living in their home were significantly more likely to be motivated by the coproduction-personal motive. Though this relationship had not been tested before, it is quite logical. Parents, whose children use the parks and recreation programs are more likely to be motivated to volunteer. This relationship is very positive for volunteer managers, who struggle to recruit younger volunteers. If parents are more motivated to volunteer so their children can benefit from a safe, clean place to play, they are easier targets for volunteer managers.

### **Experiences**

Volunteer experiences were very consistent across the sociodemographic groups. The only experience that was significantly different based on one of the sociodemographic variables was group integration. Females respondents were more likely to be satisfied with their group integration. That is to say that they were more satisfied with the opportunities that they had to develop friendships and other relationships. This finding has direct management implications. Females volunteer at higher levels than do males in the United States, and volunteer managers can increase the satisfaction of their female volunteers by promoting positive social situations for their volunteers. Such situations may include providing or organizing childcare for mothers that allow women with children to volunteer. Another way to promote positive social situations is to provide safer volunteer programs. The first step in providing safer volunteer programs should be to have background checks

conducted on all volunteers, and especially on volunteers that may come in contact with vulnerable populations. With modern technology, the social interactions of volunteers no longer need to stop after the park is cleaned up. By providing a safe social media presence, volunteer managers can foster the relationship development that is important for their female volunteers. One way to provide a safe social media presence is to create a website or Facebook page for the group or organization and have a staff member or volunteer leader monitor the content on a regular basis. Providing an unmaintained social media presence leaves the organization vulnerable to inappropriate content being posted, which may actually deter people from volunteering.

### **Consequences**

Volunteer consequences differed significantly based on sociodemographic characteristics. Consistent with previous research, age was positively related with both the amount of time spent volunteering and the duration of volunteer service (Choi, 2003; Wilson, 2000). Caro and Bass (1997) suggest that this relationship is directly related to volunteers retiring from their paid jobs and becoming more active in their unpaid volunteer work. Their findings actually showed that volunteers who volunteered with an organization before retirement increased their time spent volunteering after retirement, but people who did not volunteer prior to retirement were not likely to volunteer after retirement. This finding should magnify the importance of recruiting and retaining younger volunteers. Other findings that were consistent with previous research include the fact that females volunteer more hours and spend more years with their volunteer organizations than do their male counterparts (Clary & Snyder, 1996; Corporation for National and Community Service, 2010) and parents report higher levels of involvement than people without children. Once

again, this supports the idea that parents are an important group for volunteer managers to focus their efforts on. One way that managers can support parents' volunteer efforts is to have family volunteer days, or "bring your kid to volunteer days." If parents are volunteering with their children, their volunteer efforts are not taking time away from their families, but are providing quality family time. Besides the direct benefits of getting motivated and involved as volunteers, parents are also modeling positive volunteer behavior to their children. Previous research has found that when parents model positive altruistic behaviors their children are more likely to also exhibit long-term altruistic behaviors (Clary & Miller, 1986). Having parents volunteer, not only provides a labor force, it may be creating a labor force for the future.

Differences between education and volunteer consequences are contrary to previous research. In this study volunteers with the least amount of education volunteered more hours, had been volunteers for that organization for more years, and were more likely to identify with the organization than those volunteers with a 4-year college degree or more. While, future research is needed to examine these relationships in more detail, these results should not suggest to volunteer managers that recruiting dedicated volunteers with more formal education is not valuable. Volunteers with advanced degrees or specific educational training can provide services that the organization needs and would be easier for them to give. In fact Eisner et al. (2009) recommended that volunteer organizations seek out volunteers with advanced degrees or trades that can benefit the agency, by having those volunteers use their training to the benefit of the organization. The authors suggested that recruiting to the strengths of the volunteers would greatly assist in volunteer commitment to remain a volunteer for the organization.



## **Differences in the Volunteer Process Between Volunteer Leaders and Non-leaders**

As park and recreation agencies are forced to layoff paid employees, particularly maintenance staff, the role of volunteer leaders who coordinate volunteer projects has become increasingly important. Volunteer leaders are typically going to be responsible for organizing and coordinating their groups' volunteer efforts. While a lot of volunteer studies have focused on the individual, volunteerism researchers have not to my knowledge examined differences that exist between volunteer leaders and non-leaders. In this dissertation, 182 respondents reported that they were volunteer leaders, and 149 indicated that they were volunteer non-leaders. In this section, implications for significant bivariate differences between volunteer leaders and non-volunteers will be discussed.

### **Volunteer leaders vs. Non-leaders**

#### *Antecedents – Demographic Characteristics*

The bivariate analysis comparing the antecedents of volunteer leaders with those of non-leaders revealed that several demographic differences existed. Volunteer leaders were more likely to be female, have less than a college degree, and to be people of color. Non-leaders were evenly split between males and females, had a 4-year college degree or more, and were overwhelmingly white. These findings are contrary to previous volunteer research, which suggests that female volunteers are less likely to be in leadership positions than are men and that leaders have higher levels of education (Cable, 1992; Schlozman et al. 1994).

Though most volunteer and non-profit research suggests that females are less likely than males to hold leadership positions, a recent study conducted on French voluntary organizations' leadership found that indeed volunteer group leaders were more often than not male, however, they also found that certain types of volunteer organizations were more likely

to have female presidencies and leaders (Prouteau & Tabaries, 2010). Leisure volunteer organizations were one of the organizations most likely to have female volunteer leadership. While sport organizations and civil right organizations were least likely to have female leadership.

Though historically underrepresented as leaders in most of society, women, people of color, and the less educated are able to obtain leadership opportunities in park and leisure service organizations. As traditionally underrepresented leaders have encountered discrimination in many aspects of their lives (i.e., career, domestic obligation, etc.), park and recreation volunteer organizations provide an outlet where such groups are welcomed and encouraged to take on leadership roles. This is not only beneficial to the volunteer leaders; it is extremely beneficial to the volunteer organization. Having diverse leaders provides access to more user groups, while typically improving the organizational performance (Prouteau & Tabaries, 2010; Vinnicombe et al., 2008). Current correlational research has revealed that significant relationships between diversity in organizational leadership and organizational performance exist (Vinnicombe et al., 2008). Though park and recreation organizations and the organizations in this sample in particular are more likely to have diverse volunteer leadership there is always room for improvement.

Two ways to improve the diversity of the park volunteer group leadership are, first, to understand and control how volunteer groups establish their leaders, and second, control the tenure of the volunteer leadership (Pynes, 2000). From a study of non-profit board members, Pynes (2000) suggested that organizations examine how they recruit and select their volunteer leaders. Nomination and selection of volunteer leaders should include more diverse groups whenever possible. Pynes (2000) also suggest shortening the tenure of

leadership positions would provide opportunities to a greater number of individuals to gain leadership experience. This may be part of the reason that PDPR volunteer leaders are more diverse. In Philadelphia, PDPR has set limits on the length of service that advisory councils can serve. PRPR can take further action by implementing systematic term limits across all type of volunteer groups, including friends groups.

The fact that volunteer leaders were more likely to be females and people of color than were non-leaders is encouraging for volunteer administrators in Philadelphia. If park administrators are to recruit a more racially/ethnically diverse group of volunteers, the volunteer leaders that represent these groups can be a valuable resource for identifying untapped groups of volunteers.

#### *Antecedents – Motivations*

Only one of the motivations was significantly different between volunteer leaders and non-leaders. As was the case with differences between race and education, the only significant motivation was the values motivation. Volunteer leaders reported that they were more motivated by altruistic values than were the non-leaders. Because female volunteers were more likely to be volunteer leaders and were more motivated by values (consistent with previous research), gender may be influencing this relationship.

#### *Experiences*

Two experience measures differed significantly between volunteer leaders and non-leaders: participation efficacy and group integration. Participant efficacy refers to how satisfied volunteers feel with their contribution to the organization or how much they felt they were making a difference. Group integration refers to how satisfied volunteers were with their relationships and friendships they were able to make while volunteering. In both

cases volunteer leaders were significantly more satisfied than were non-leaders. It should come as no surprise that volunteer leaders who are dedicating significant amounts of time and energy to their organizations are going to feel their contributions made a difference. As for the satisfaction with group integration, again, volunteer leaders were more likely to be female and female volunteers were more satisfied with group integration. Wilson (2000) found that female volunteers become more involved in their volunteer organizations when they receive adequate social support. The female respondents in this sample were significantly more satisfied than their male counterparts regarding the social integration that they experienced with their volunteer organizations.

Because of their role in the volunteer organizations, volunteer leaders have more opportunities to meet other people, develop relationships and build social capital with members of the community. While this is beneficial to the volunteer leaders, non-leaders often do not have these same opportunities. Volunteer administrators should focus on ensuring that leaders and non-leaders see the value of their myriad of contributions. Also, fostering social relationships between volunteer leaders, non-leaders, park users and the department is important. It is difficult from a volunteer management perspective to promote more group integration, especially when volunteer leaders are planning and carrying out activities. Volunteer managers might consider promoting group integration between various volunteer groups, not just within the volunteer groups. One way of fostering this is to provide online forums where volunteers can meet one-another and share experiences. Not only would this provide volunteer leaders opportunities to make further connections, but it may also assist them in brainstorming new ideas to reach out to their communities.

### *Consequences*

Differences were found on all of the volunteer outcomes or consequences measured in this study, both attitudinally and behaviorally, including organizational identity, level of involvement, hours spent volunteering, and the duration of their service with the organization. Volunteer leaders reported significantly higher levels of organizational identity than did non-leaders. In a study conducted on US Army soldiers, unit leaders reported significantly higher levels of OID than the regular members of their units (Mael and Ashforth, 1989). Thus, it is not surprising that volunteer leaders would more readily identify with the organization they lead. While organizational identity is often viewed as a positive for the organization, it can also be a liability. In this case, if volunteer leaders have a strong organizational identity and the facility or program they are working with receives negative attention, there is a possibility they will personalize the negative attention and cease to volunteer. It is important to remember that, unlike paid employees, volunteers are not remunerated for their efforts and additional care needs to be taken to protect them from negative attention.

Level of involvement was also significantly higher for volunteer leaders than it was for non-leaders. The average level of involvement score for volunteer leaders was almost double that of non-leaders. This is not surprising as planning and organizing a volunteer function or series of functions requires a higher LOI.

The measure developed for this study to measure level of involvement, LOI proved to be a dynamic and good measure of overall volunteer level of involvement. Traditionally LOI had been measured using the average number of hours volunteer spent volunteering. Not only is recollection error an issue with averaging the number of hours that a volunteer works each month, but response bias will also be an issue. Volunteers, particularly volunteer

leaders may want to inflate the number of hours that they volunteer each month. Outliers were not a significant issue with this new measure of LOI, unlike the average number of hours, which required significant adjustments for its outliers. Further, simply counting the number of hours that a person spends volunteering does not take into account other possible contributions that volunteers may be making. This new valid and reliable measure of LOI provides a better overall measure of involvement, taking into account numerous contributions that volunteers can make to an organization. While this measure proved to be valid and reliable for this sample of park and recreation as a new measure of volunteer level of involvement, care should be taken applying it to other samples. Yet another benefit of this measure of involvement is that it is easily adaptable for other volunteer settings.

While all of these consequences of volunteering are very positive for the PRPR, they do not necessarily imply that volunteer leaders are prepared to take on the extra responsibilities of paid staff. Volunteer leaders need to be consulted before they are given additional responsibilities. If volunteer leaders are already giving 17.6 hours (half of a work week) of his or her time each month to the organization, they may be stretched as far as they can go. Volunteer leaders, no matter how dedicated, can be pushed beyond their limits and always have the option of quitting. Volunteer administrators could examine the possibility of providing more support along the lines of recruiting and training co-leaders or assistant leaders in an effort to alleviate some of the stress and responsibility that rests on the volunteer leaders and assist in leader retention. Further, this would also assist in fostering future leadership and give more people an opportunity to lead. Volunteer managers should remember that there are countless other non-profit organizations that are in need of dedicated

volunteers. In many aspects, retaining volunteers (especially volunteer leaders) is more important than recruiting new ones and this could both retain and recruit new leaders.

### **Implications of Multivariate Testing of the VPM**

Multivariate path analyses, using stepwise multiple regressions, were used to examine the combined and separate effects of antecedents, experiences, and consequences on the overall level of involvement. Two separate path analyses were conducted to examine how all constructs together related to level of involvement, first for volunteer leaders, then for non-leaders. Results of those analyses are discussed in the following sections.

#### **Path Analysis of the Volunteer Process Model for Volunteer Leaders**

One of the shortcomings of the VPM has been that it has almost exclusively been used with health service volunteers working with individuals with HIV/AIDS organizations. Though it was designed to be applicable to most forms of volunteering, it has not been readily used or tested outside the health service field. This research extended the use of the VPM to a public-sector park and recreation agency and non-profit friends group context.

The VPM provided a reasonable framework for volunteer leaders. The antecedents, experiences, and the more proximal consequence (OID) explained a significant amount of the variance in LOI. Volunteer leaders' LOI was significantly and directly related to satisfaction with the participation efficacy, and satisfaction with organizational support and OID. Leader satisfaction with participation efficacy had the strongest relationship with LOI. In other words, the more volunteer leaders perceived that their efforts made a difference or their contributions mattered, the higher their level of involvement. Satisfaction with organizational support for volunteers was negatively related to leaders' LOI. This finding was not anticipated; previous research consistently documented that volunteer satisfaction,

including satisfaction with organizational support, was either not related with volunteer outcome measures or it was positively related to those measures (Chacon et al., 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Garner & Garner, 2010).

A possible explanation for this may lie in the direct relationship that organizational support has with the motivation, coproduction-improvement. Leaders who are motivated by coproduction-improvement volunteer because they want to improve their recreation facility and fear that if they do not volunteer, the facility or program will no longer be available. As Philadelphia has reduced the number of paid staff, it is possible that volunteer leaders have felt the pressure to pick up the slack. They are highly motivated to protect their parks. As this motivation increases, their satisfaction with any support they receive from the organization also increases. However, this organizational support is not sufficient to maintain and care for the parks and the volunteers, so the leaders are required to increase their LOI.

When OID was tested as the final outcome measure, a significant portion of the variance was explained by coproduction improvement, group integration and the enhancement motivation. Enhancement had the strongest relationship of these three. Enhancement refers to motivations that make volunteers feel better about themselves, or in other words enhance their ego. The more volunteers were motivated by enhancement the stronger their OID. Coproduction improvement was also directly and positively related to OID. The more leaders were motivated to maintain and protect the park or facility the higher their OID. OID was also significantly related to satisfaction with group integration. The more volunteers were satisfied with the relationships they developed through their organization, the more they identified their successes and failures with the organization.



The relationship that coproduction-improvement has with participation efficacy, organizational support, and OID suggests that volunteer leaders have a strong sense of responsibility not just with the park or facility, but with the organization and the people in that organization. Volunteer leaders not only work for the organization, they identify with it. Thus, as the organization experiences successes and failures so does the volunteer leader.

### **Path Analysis of the Volunteer Process Model for Non-leaders**

The VPM provided a better conceptual framework for non-leaders than leaders in this study, in that antecedents, and experiences explained more of the variance in LOI. Collectively, the three satisfaction sub-constructs, along with gender and parental status, explained nearly a third of the variance in LOI. Motivations also explained a significant amount of the variance in the three satisfaction constructs as well.

Volunteer experiences were the predominant predictors of non-leaders' LOI. Similar to leaders, participation efficacy had the strongest relationship with LOI. Though it is tempting for volunteer administrators and managers to use their volunteer labor force as replacement maintenance workers, managers need to remember that volunteers are not being paid and are volunteering to make a difference. It is inevitable that non-leaders will end up doing some tasks that will not provide them with a sense of accomplishment. In those cases managers should seek out ways to acknowledge non-leaders' efforts. Whether it is an awards ceremony, letters of appreciation, or a "shout out" on the departmental blog, some form of acknowledgement can help leaders and non-leaders alike feel their volunteer efforts are making a difference.

Similar to volunteer leaders, non-leaders' LOI was negatively related to organizational support. That is to say, the more communication and assistance that non-leaders received, the lower their LOI. Again, like the volunteer leaders, volunteer organizational support was predicted by coproduction-improvement. In other words, the more that they were motivated to improve their parks and prevent them from closing, the more satisfied they were with the assistance they received from the organization. Yet, as they became more satisfied with organizational support, they decreased their LOI. The explanation provided for this contradiction is that even the non-leaders are acutely aware of the influence the economy is having on the PDPR and they are picking up the slack for the department.

Unlike leaders, non-leaders, LOI was directly predicted by group integration. The more satisfied non-leaders were with the social connections and relationships that they developed through the organization the more their LOI increased. These findings are consistent with previous research that has found positive relationships between organizational support and other volunteer consequences such as organizational tenure (Galido-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Non-leaders LOI was also related to two of the demographic characteristics, children living in the household and gender. For non-leaders, having children living in their household and being female increased the LOI. Both of these findings are consistent with previous research on volunteer participation (Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1997; Wuthnow, 1998). These findings add to our understanding that it is not simply time that parents and females are contributing, but that they are actually more involved in the organization. Because they are already more involved in the volunteer organizations, parents

and female non-leaders are logical potential future leaders. This is not to say that volunteer managers should solely focus their recruitment efforts on parents and females, it simply suggests that those two groups may have an easier transition to becoming volunteer leaders given their propensity to volunteer.

### **General Discussion**

There are several overall implications of this study for future park and recreation volunteer research. First, park and recreation volunteers experience volunteering differently based on their sociodemographic backgrounds. People of color were significantly more involved than white volunteers. They reported a higher LOI, more hours per month spent volunteering, and longer durations of service with the volunteer organizations than white volunteers. Most important, people of color were significantly more likely than white respondents to be leaders. Park and recreation organizations and PDPR specifically are an exception to diversity among volunteer leaders. Prouteau and Tabaries (2010) found this to be true for women leisure service agencies in France. PRPR has some policies in place that encourage a more diverse volunteer leadership. For example recreation center and playground advisory councils have term limits and elections for their leadership. This maximizes opportunities for more volunteers to gain leadership experience. PDPR has established term limits that force constant turnover of the volunteer leadership in their recreation center advisory councils. Due to a lack of diversity amongst the PDPR volunteer staff, these diverse volunteer leaders may be the answer to recruiting a more diverse volunteer base.

Race was not the only demographic characteristic that strongly influenced volunteer participation. Results from this study showed that gender and parental status also strongly

influenced the LOI of non-leaders. Females and parents reported higher LOI scores. Having parents volunteer is very important to park and recreation organizations because it introduces younger volunteers and their children to volunteering, which may prove fruitful in the future. Specifically, children exposed to the benefits of volunteering may incorporate it into their lifestyle and become life long volunteers.

Findings from this study also showed that younger non-leaders were more likely than older non-leaders to be motivated by the career function. The younger non-leaders that were motivated by the career function were more likely to be satisfied by participant efficacy, or how much their contribution made a difference. As their participant efficacy increased, so did their LOI. In other words, younger non-leaders that are seeking career building experiences still want their volunteer efforts to make a difference in the parks. Hence, volunteer managers wish to recruit and retain them they need to match their skills and abilities to organizational needs. For example, an increasing number of volunteer organizations are developing a social media presence, and many young volunteers or potential volunteers have the expertise necessary to develop such a presence. Recruiting younger volunteers to use their skills with such technologies not only benefits the organization, but it plays to the strengths of the younger volunteers. Further research is warranted, however, to better understand the motivations and experiences of people of color and younger volunteers.

Second, the volunteers that spent the most time volunteering, and overall are the most involved and dedicated to the organizations, are volunteer leaders. Not only are volunteer leaders more involved in the organizations, they also experience the volunteer process differently than non-leaders. The most significant difference between volunteer leaders and

non-leaders was the influence of OID among the leaders. Volunteer leaders develop a much stronger identity and attachment to the organization than do non-leaders. OID was a new measure of volunteer consequences that appears to have relevance for park and recreation volunteer leaders. This is not surprising, considering volunteer leaders are responsible for recruiting new volunteers, fund raising, and planning and organizing volunteer activities. With so much responsibility, it is no wonder that volunteer leaders see their successes and failures as those of the organization. While this is generally positive for park and recreation organizations, volunteer administrators should be cautioned not to overburden these leaders or groups. As park and recreation organizations rely more heavily on volunteers it will be important to maintain realistic expectations for these volunteer groups. If expectations are not achievable, and the group fails to meet those expectations, volunteer leaders may personalize these failures and stop volunteering. Unlike paid staff, financial compensation does not bind volunteer leaders and non-leaders to their organizations and there are numerous other causes and organizations for volunteers to join.

Things that predict leaders' OID are satisfaction with group integration, and by personally benefiting (psychologically or physically) from their volunteer service. Volunteer leaders have stronger OID if they are motivated to volunteer because volunteering makes them feel better about themselves. OID is also higher for volunteers who personally benefit from the organization or facility. Acknowledging the work of volunteer leaders and their groups may be more important for volunteer leaders than it is for non-leaders.

Though non-leaders were not as involved as the volunteer leaders, they were still quite dedicated to their volunteer organizations donating, on average, more than seven hours of service per month. Yet, OID was not a significant consequence for the non-leaders.

Another key difference in the VPM between volunteer leaders and non-leaders was the role of group integration. Group integration was significantly related to volunteer consequences. For leaders, the more they were satisfied with their groups' integration, the higher their OID. Group integration for non-leaders, on the other hand, had a direct relationship with their LOI. While this is important for both leaders and non-leaders, organizations are going to see a more immediate impact from the increased level of involvement of non-leaders. Volunteer antecedents explained a small portion of the variation in group integration. Because group integration is such a strong predictor of LOI for non-leaders and OID for leaders further research is needed to examine how volunteer managers and leaders have developed and fostered group integration.

Third, coproduction-improvement, an antecedent, had a strong relationship with the volunteer experience for both volunteers and leaders. Of particular interest was the relationship between coproduction-improvement and the satisfaction with organizational support, and then the relationship between organizational support and level of involvement. Volunteers motivated by coproduction-improvement volunteer because they want to improve the quality of their facilities, and they fear that if they do not volunteer those services may cease to exist. Both volunteer leaders and non-leaders were motivated by coproduction-improvement and in both cases, it was a significant predictor of volunteer satisfaction with organizational support. As volunteers were motivated by coproduction-improvement, their satisfaction with the organizational support increased. The more that volunteers care about maintaining the facilities and programs, the more they are satisfied with assistance and communication they receive from the organization.

As volunteer satisfaction with organizational support increases, their LOI decreases. This was contrary to previous research on all types of satisfaction measures that suggest the more satisfied volunteers are with their organization, the more they will participate and be involved. While further research is needed to examine this relationship, it is possible that the dedicated volunteer leaders and non-leaders in this sample understand the needs and abilities of the PDPR in maintaining the parks and recreation facilities and, as a result, they are more willing to pick up the slack when necessary. It would be unwise to assume that volunteers will be more involved if their organizations provide them with less support.

Finally, overall the VPM, is a reasonable conceptual model in settings other than those tested by Omoto and Snyder (1995). The VPM had been primarily used and tested on health service volunteer groups dealing with HIV/AIDS. This research applied and tested the VPM on volunteer leaders and non-leaders and was found to be a reasonable conceptual model for both groups. As recommended by Omoto and Snyder, organizational identity was tested as a consequence of the VPM. It was only a significant consequence or predictor of LOI in the model for volunteer leaders, not non-leaders. Because non-leaders have fewer responsibilities, the extent to which they identify their successes and failures with their organization was lower.

The LOI measure used in this study was also a new addition to the VPM. In the past, volunteer involvement has been largely measured by the average number of hours volunteered over a given period of time. While this is a good measure of the time spent volunteering, it does not fully assess the LOI of volunteers. The measure used in this study was a valid and reliable measure of the combined contributions that volunteers made to their organizations and worked well as the most distal consequence in the VPM.

Omoto and Snyder (2002) suggested that antecedents such as motivations and sociodemographic characteristics would influence volunteer involvement. For volunteer leaders, the findings from this study do not support the idea that these antecedents directly influence leaders' LOI. Instead the motivation coproduction-improvement is indirectly related through the volunteer experiences. It explains a modest amount of the variance in both organizational support and participation efficacy, which are directly related to LOI. These relatively small indirect relationships may be a result of the fact that these volunteer leaders have been volunteering for years and their involvement is tied to continued operation and improvement of the facilities.

Omoto and Snyder (2002) posited that OID was an important consequence for volunteers. For the volunteer leaders this was true. The antecedents and experiences explained a significant portion of variance in OID. Further, OID was positively related to LOI. This is a valuable addition to the VPM literature, which had not previously tested OID as a consequence. The more volunteer leaders identify with the organizations the more involved they become. Unlike LOI, OID was directly related to both antecedents and experiences, as was predicted by Omoto and Snyder.

While the VPM provides a reasonable conceptual framework for volunteer leaders, it has several shortcomings. First, the traditionally studied antecedents (motivations and sociodemographic characteristics) are not directly related to volunteer involvement, and only explain a small amount of the variance in the experiences of volunteer leaders. The volunteer experiences then explain a significant amount of the variance in the LOI of leaders. Because the experiences are so important for volunteer leaders a better understanding of what influences them would be more useful than weakly related motivations.



For non-leaders the VPM framework proposed in figure 2 was partially supported. Antecedents and experiences explained nearly a third of the variance in LOI for non-leaders. Two of the sociodemographic characteristics were directly related to LOI and all three of the experiences were directly related to the LOI. Similar to the model for leaders, none of the motivations were directly related to LOI and explained only modest amounts of the variance in the volunteer experiences. Yet, experiences explained a significant amount of the variance in LOI. Again a better understanding of what really influences volunteers experiences is needed.

There was no support for using OID as a consequence for non-leaders. Not only was OID not related to the more distal consequence (LOI), antecedents and experiences were not related to it at all. Non-leaders, possibly because they are not spending as much time or contributing as much as volunteer leaders are not developing an OID.

For this study the VPM provided an adequate framework to examine and compare volunteer leaders and non-leaders in a park and recreation setting. Because motivations and sociodemographic characteristics only explain a small amount of the variance in the volunteer experiences, further research should be needed to better understand the volunteer experiences.

### **Limitations**

As discussed in Chapter 1, several limitations affect the generalizability and applicability of these findings. First, individuals who were sent the mail or the online surveys were not randomly sampled. In order to obtain a sample size large enough to conduct the analyses in this dissertation, the mail survey was distributed to all known PDPR volunteer leaders. This sample of leaders was further limited by an unusually high rate of

undeliverable surveys (20%). A comprehensive list of non-leader volunteers was not maintained by PDPR. In an effort to gain a sample of non-leader volunteers, the PDPR volunteer management team selected 15 park friend groups that geographically represented all areas of the city. A random sample of the park friend groups was warranted however, PDPR management requested that the groups they selected be used, greatly reducing the generalizability of this study to all PDPR volunteers.

Another limitation to this dissertation was the cross-sectional design of the study. In order to more fully examine the VPM, data should be collected over time for example, in the first step of the VPM, antecedents to volunteering were examined. Antecedents included socio-demographic characteristics and motivations to volunteer. Respondents to this survey had been volunteering for many years, and were identifying with the items that currently motivate them to participate as volunteers, rather than identifying the motives that influenced them to start volunteering. To more fully examine the influence of motivations, it would be more appropriate to collect motivation data at the beginning of the volunteer experience and monitor it throughout the experience. Unfortunately, because of the expense and difficulty of developing a sample of volunteers prior to their service, most volunteer research has been conducted with cross-sectional designs similar to this study.

Though response rates were comparable to previous mail and email survey, they were still relatively low. Two issues related to low response rates that limit this study are response and non-response bias. With response bias, it is possible that respondents to the survey cognitively responded in a way that they perceived the researcher would want or in ways that would provide positive outcomes for their organizations. Equally possible, non-response bias can influence the results of this study. Leaders and non-leaders who are simply too busy

may not have had time to respond to the survey. Yet, they could have very different responses to survey questions.

A final limitation to this study was that in every section of the survey volunteers were asked to respond to the questions as they related to a single volunteer organization that was identified at the beginning of the survey. Volunteers could identify their service with any organization they wanted (PDPR, a park friends group, etc.). However, they were asked to relate back to that specific group as they answered all the subsequent questions. In the mail questionnaire, volunteers were asked repeatedly to refer back to their response on the first page. It is possible, by the time respondents reached the end of the survey, that they were no longer referencing that organization. This was not as significant a limitation for the online survey because the survey instrument reminded them of the organization they selected for each question. These and other potential limitations lead to suggestions for future research.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

Based on the findings and limitations of this research, there are several suggestions for future research. First, a random sample of both volunteer leaders and non-leaders would allow for better generalizability of the results to all the leaders and volunteer of Philadelphia. Developing such a sample would entail having access to a regularly updated list of volunteer leader and volunteer groups. Because specific park friend groups vary significantly in size and resources, a stratified random sample of park friends groups also would be warranted.

Thompson (2002, p. 122), suggested that for human populations it is often best to stratify populations geographically or by socioeconomic factors. For the current study PDPR management attempted to provide a sample that geographically represented all areas of Philadelphia. It would be possible to conduct a true stratified random sample of park friend

groups in Philadelphia if PDPR were able provide a complete list of friend groups and could geographically identify the areas these groups represented. Using a stratified random sample would allow results of this study to be generalizable to all PDPR friend group volunteers.

Second, there is a need to conduct more focused research on volunteer leaders and non-leaders who represent demographically diverse volunteers. According to the findings of this study, people of color were more likely to be volunteer leaders than were white respondents, and parents with children under the age of 18 reported higher levels of involvement than non-parents. While both of these groups represent dedicated volunteers, little is known about how they were introduced to their organizations or why they selected to volunteer for those organizations. Future research needs to be directed at these diverse groups of volunteers. Due to the relatively small number of respondents from these groups, in-depth interviews with key informants from these groups is recommended. Such interviews will inform administrators and researchers of the possible constraints and barriers that prevent these users from volunteering or volunteering as much as they would like.

Third, results suggested that the amount of support volunteers received from the organization actually had a negative relationship with their level of involvement with the organization. Volunteer managers could easily interpret this finding as a reason to reduce their support for the volunteers. Because these results are contrary to previous research, which suggests that volunteers will be more likely to participate if they are well supported by their organization, further research is needed to examine this relationship. Beyond organizational support further research is needed to better understand all of the volunteer experiences, because motivations and sociodemographic characteristics only explain a small amount of the variance in the volunteer experiences.

Fourth, in order to determine how representative volunteers are of park and recreation facility users, a better understanding of sociodemographic background of facility users and potential users would be beneficial. Knowing who the users of the park are and who is not using the park could help better determine which user groups to target as future volunteers. Some park and recreation agencies track this information regularly, while others, such as the department included within this study, only have anecdotal evidence of who their users are.

Finally, there are multiple levels of analysis that can be used to understand the VPM. Most volunteer research focuses on the individual level of analysis, as did this dissertation. Other levels that Omoto and Snyder (1995) recommend are the agency and social systems levels. There are approximately 9,000 public recreation agencies in the United States and many, if not most of them, have volunteers and park friends groups that help maintain and support their operations. Very little research has been conducted at the agency level to understand how antecedents (i.e., identifying, recruiting, and training volunteers) relate to the volunteer experiences (i.e., assignment and tracking of volunteers) and how both antecedents and experiences influence volunteer consequences (i.e., quantity and quality of service). Future research on park and recreation volunteers should not only focus on the individual volunteer level, but should also focus on the agency and community levels.

## **Conclusion**

This study provided support for the relevancy of the VPM in park and recreation settings. While many of the findings in this study were consistent with previous research (i.e., motivations were related to satisfaction and satisfaction was related to LOI), there were some significant differences noted in this dissertation. For volunteer leaders, coproduction-improvement influences leaders' perception of organizational support, participation efficacy

and their level of OID. Clearly these volunteer leaders perceive that they are needed and they feel that their work is making a valuable contribution to their organization.

Coproduction-improvement also positively influences the organizational support of non-leaders. Of the motivations that were measured in this study, coproduction-improvement is quite possibly the most easily influenced by volunteer managers. It is possible that as volunteer managers communicate their need, reliance, and appreciation for volunteers, volunteers will continue to step up to the tasks at hand.

While coproduction-improvement improves volunteer satisfaction with the support they receive from the organization, organizational support negatively influences the LOI of volunteers (leaders and non-leaders). Volunteers are motivated by their desire to improve their parks and keep them open, and these motivations make them more satisfied with any support they may receive from their organizations. However, it is possible that the support they are receiving is not sufficient to maintain the parks, so they increase their level of involvement to make up the difference. It is also possible that the more support volunteers receive from the organizations, the less they perceive that they need to contribute to the organizations. This relationship between organizational support and LOI is not consistent with previous research, which suggests that the more satisfied volunteers are with their organizational support the more likely they are to be involved. Further research is needed to examine why such contradictions exist with these volunteers.

Though Omoto and Snyder (1995) had suggested that organizational identity might be a consequence of the volunteer process, it had not been tested as such. Results of this study showed mixed support for OID as a consequence of the VPM, depending on the leadership role of the volunteers. For volunteer leaders, antecedents, and experiences

strongly influenced OID, which in turn was significantly related to leaders' LOI. For non-leaders, OID completely fell out of the model. Thus the extent that volunteers develop an organizational identity may be determined by their role in the organization. Organizational identity warrants further examination among park and recreation volunteers.

Populations that were underrepresented in this sample (i.e., people of color and parents) reported higher levels of involvement and people of color were more likely to be volunteer leaders than the rest of the sample. As the demographics of our nation continue to change, it will be increasingly important that volunteer managers reach out to people of all races, parental statuses, genders, and ages. Younger volunteers, who were also underrepresented in this sample, were motivated to volunteer for different reasons than were older volunteers. They were motivated to volunteer more for their own personal benefits, such as, career related reasons (i.e., building up their resume, gaining experience, etc.). Volunteer managers need to provide opportunities for these younger volunteers to gain experience while still helping the organization.

As the need for dedicated volunteers grows and competition for their service increases, volunteer managers need to adapt and engage their volunteers differently than they have in the past. Administrators may need to take more active roles in inviting and involving specific user groups as volunteers. Chavez (2005) suggested that if managers want more diverse users and volunteers in their parks they need to do four basic things. First, they need to specifically invite people from these groups to participate as volunteers. It may not be enough to invite these new groups in the same manner that agencies have invited existing volunteers. Volunteer administrators need to learn how to communicate with the groups they desire to recruit. Second, going beyond inviting to including diverse user groups in the

planning and decision making process will greatly encourage continued participation from these new volunteers and user groups. Third, volunteer managers should involve these new volunteer user groups at every level of the organization. This means continuing to foster a diverse volunteer leadership, and going beyond that to have volunteer administrators and paid staff that represent these communities. Finally, volunteer administrators should be adaptable. At a time when the sociodemographic diversity of the US is changing rapidly, volunteer managers need to be willing to adapt as well. Some of these adaptations may include providing information in languages other than English or having an active and safe social media presence.

As the economy, demographic characteristics of the population, and technologies change, volunteer administrators will need to continue to invite, and include volunteers in the provision of services, but most importantly they are going to need to be able to their current and potential volunteer labor force. In order for them to adapt, they are going to need to understand the needs and demands of their volunteer labor force. The VPM provides a valuable framework from which volunteer managers can assess and track their volunteer efforts now and into the future.



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APPENDIX A.

Mail Questionnaire Instrument

# 2011 Philadelphia Volunteer Survey

Conducted by:

**The Pennsylvania State University  
Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Management**

Sponsored by:

PHILADELPHIA  
**PARKS &  
RECREATION**



## **Important Please Read First**

The Pennsylvania State University is conducting this survey to assist the new Philadelphia Department of Parks and Recreation. The information you provide in this survey will help Philadelphia Parks & Recreation better understand and serve the needs of volunteers like you. Your participation is voluntary, but very important. Your individual answers will remain completely confidential and only the summarized data will be shared with Philadelphia Parks & Recreation. If you wish to comment or provide additional information, please use the margins or a separate sheet of paper.

### **Filling out the Questionnaire**

In this questionnaire you will be asked about your attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs toward volunteering. For each item in the questionnaire, choose the answer that is most true for you. Please use the stamped and addressed envelope to return the questionnaire.

To show our appreciation for your participation, you will be entered in a drawing for a small prize. If you have any questions about the survey or lose track of the postage-paid return envelope, you can contact Nate Trauntvein at Penn State University:

Nate Trauntvein  
801 Ford Building  
State College, PA 16802  
(814) 867-1714  
[net117@psu.edu](mailto:net117@psu.edu)

<b>PART 1. VOLUNTEER BEHAVIORS</b>
------------------------------------

- 1) Which of the following organizations do you associate your volunteer work with most? (Circle only one)
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Philadelphia Dept. of Recreation   | e. <input type="checkbox"/> Trail Ambassadors             |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Fairmount Park                     | (Please Specify) _____                                    |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Pennsylvania Horticultural Society | f. <input type="checkbox"/> A specific park friends group |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> An advisory council                | (Please Specify) _____                                    |
| (Please Specify) _____   | g. <input type="checkbox"/> Other                         |
|  | (Please Specify) _____                                    |

***Please take note of which organization you selected above. Throughout this questionnaire you will be asked to answer questions related to that specific organization.***

- 2) How many years have you volunteered with the organization you selected in question #1?  
\_\_\_\_\_ years
- 3) What is/are your role(s) in the organization you selected in question #1 (Check all that apply)?
- |   |
|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Group member  |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Group organizer (Advisory Council Officer, Officer of a Friends Group, etc) |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____  |
- 4) On average, how many hours do you spend per month volunteering for the organization you selected in question #1?  
\_\_\_\_\_ hours per month
- 5) There are numerous ways volunteers contribute to their organizations. Some people provide physical labor, others attend meetings, and some may donate money. For this section we would like to know how you contribute to the organization you selected in question #1.

<i>To what extent do you contribute the following to the organization you selected in question #1?</i>	Not at all	1	2	3	4	A great deal
a. Skills (e.g. teaching, organize programing, expertise)	1	2	3	4	5	
b. Physical Labor (e.g. park clean up, general maintenance)	1	2	3	4	5	
c. Money (e.g. donations, annual dues)	1	2	3	4	5	
d. Leadership (e.g. hold office, chair a committee)	1	2	3	4	5	
e. Resources (e.g. use of personal tools, vehicles, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	
f. Time (e.g. attend meetings, fund raising Do not include time spent in physical labor)	1	2	3	4	5	
g. Others _____	1	2	3	4	5	

- 5h. Of all these, which would you consider your most significant contribution? \_\_\_\_\_

<b>PART 2. WHY YOU VOLUNTEER</b>
----------------------------------

**6) In this section we would like to know why you volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1.**

<i>Please read each statement and indicate whether it is an unimportant or important reason why you volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1: (i.e. Advisory Council, Park Friends, etc.)</i>		Extremely Unimportant Reason	Neutral			Extremely Important Reason
6a.	I volunteer because I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	1	2	3	4	5
6b.	I volunteer because I feel compassion toward people in need.	1	2	3	4	5
6c.	I volunteer because I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5
6d.	I volunteer because I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6e.	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me forget about it.	1	2	3	4	5
6f.	By volunteering I feel less lonely	1	2	3	4	5
6g.	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt I feel over being more fortunate than others.	1	2	3	4	5
6h.	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	1	2	3	4	5
6i.	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	1	2	3	4	5
6j.	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	1	2	3	4	5
6k.	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	1	2	3	4	5
6l.	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	1	2	3	4	5
6m.	My friends volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5
6n.	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5
6o.	I volunteer because people I know share an interest in community service.	1	2	3	4	5
6p.	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	1	2	3	4	5
6q.	I volunteer because I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	1	2	3	4	5
6r.	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	1	2	3	4	5
6s.	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	1	2	3	4	5
6t.	I volunteer because I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	1	2	3	4	5
6u.	Volunteering makes me feel important.	1	2	3	4	5
6v.	Volunteering makes me feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5
6w.	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5

<i>Question #6 continued... Please read each statement and indicate how important the reason is for your volunteer efforts with the organization you listed in question #1:</i>		Extremely Unimportant Reason		Neutral		Extremely Important Reason	
6x.	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5	
6y.	I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs.	1	2	3	4	5	
6z.	If I volunteer, chances of the park or a program closing or ending are reduced.	1	2	3	4	5	
6aa.	I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service.	1	2	3	4	5	
6bb.	I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility.	1	2	3	4	5	
6cc.	I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility.	1	2	3	4	5	
6dd.	I volunteer because I want my neighborhood to be a better place to live.	1	2	3	4	5	
6ee.	I volunteer because I take pride in my neighborhood.	1	2	3	4	5	
6ff.	I volunteer to keep my neighborhood clean and safe.	1	2	3	4	5	
6gg.	I volunteer because I was raised in this neighborhood.	1	2	3	4	5	

### PART 3. BARRIERS TO YOUR VOLUNTEER PARTICIPATION

**We hope that you are able to volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1 as much as you would like. However, we realize that is not always possible. We would like to know what prevents you from volunteering as often as you would like and what your organization can do to help you volunteer more.**

7) Do you volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1 as often as you would like?

Yes  No (If yes, skip to question #10)

8) In your own words, what are the most important reasons keeping you from volunteering with the organization (selected in question #1) as often as you would like?

9) What could the organization you selected in question #1 do to help you volunteer more frequently?

<b>PART 4. SATISFACTION WITH YOUR VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE</b>
--

**10) In this section we would like to know how satisfied you are with your volunteer experiences with the organization you selected in question #1.**

<i>Thinking about the organization you selected in question #1, please read each of the following statements and indicate your level of satisfaction:</i>	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
10a. My relationship with paid staff.	1	2	3	4	5
10b. The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
10c. The amount of communication coming to me from paid staff and/or board members.	1	2	3	4	5
10d. The support I receive from people in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10e. The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.	1	2	3	4	5
10f. How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
10g. The amount of permission I need before I can do the things I do on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
10h. The difference my volunteer work is making.	1	2	3	4	5
10i. The opportunities I have to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
10j. The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
10k. How worthwhile my contribution is.	1	2	3	4	5
10l. The access I have to information concerning the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10m. The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
10n. The Chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5
10o. My relationship with other volunteers in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10p. The friendships I have made while volunteering with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10q. The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10r. The amount of time I spend with other volunteers in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5



<b>PART 5. YOUR PERCEPTIONS</b>
---------------------------------

**11) We would like to know more about your perceptions towards the organization that you selected in question #1.**

<i>For each of the following statements about the organization you selected in question #1, please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements:</i>		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11a.	There is a common sense of purpose in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
11b.	This organization has a clear and unique vision.	1	2	3	4	5
11c.	There is a strong feeling of unity in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
11d.	When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5
11e.	I am interested in what others think about this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
11f.	This organization's successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5
11g.	When someone praises this organization it feels like a personal compliment.	1	2	3	4	5
11h.	If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed.	1	2	3	4	5
11i.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
11j.	This organization has similar goals as mine.	1	2	3	4	5
11k.	This organization is a good steward of tax dollars.	1	2	3	4	5

**12) We would also like to know more about how the organization you selected in question #1 is managed and operated. Please respond to the statements below.**

<i>In managing its volunteers, to what extent does the organization you selected in question #1 do the following?</i>		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
12a.	Provides a role or job description for individual volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5
12b.	Matches the skills, experience and interests of volunteers to specific roles.	1	2	3	4	5
12c.	Actively recruits volunteers from diverse backgrounds (e.g., minority ethnic groups, people with disabilities).	1	2	3	4	5
12d.	Introduces new volunteers to people with whom they will work (e.g., employees, other volunteers).	1	2	3	4	5
12e.	Provide sufficient resources for volunteers to effectively carry out their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
12f.	Supply volunteers with food and beverages when volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5

<i>Question #12 continued... In managing its volunteers, to what extent does the organization you selected in question #1 do the following?</i>		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
12g.	Recognize outstanding work or task performances of individual volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5
12h.	Thank volunteers for their efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
12i.	Publicly recognize the efforts of volunteers (e.g., newsletters, media releases).	1	2	3	4	5

**13) We would like to know about your intentions to remain a volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1.**

<i>Thinking of the organization you selected in question #1, please indicate the extent that you disagree or agree with the following statements:</i>		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13a.	I will be a volunteer for this organization 1 year from now.	1	2	3	4	5
13b.	I will be a volunteer for this organization 3 years from now.	1	2	3	4	5
13c.	I will be a volunteer for this organization 5 years from now.	1	2	3	4	5

**PART 6. COMMUNICATING WITH YOUR VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATION**

14) Where do you get information about the volunteer organization you selected in question #1 (i.e. newspaper, newsletter, website, Facebook, word-of-mouth, etc.)?

\_\_\_\_\_

15) Do you use/visit the website of the organization you mentioned in question #1?

Yes  No (If no, skip to question #16)

If yes, what type of information would you most like to see on this website?

\_\_\_\_\_

16) Do you use Twitter/Facebook or other forms of social media?

Yes  No (If no, skip to question #17)

a) If yes, please name the social media outlet you use most often:

\_\_\_\_\_

b) Do you subscribe or "follow" the organization you mentioned in question #1?

Yes  No

c) Would you subscribe or "follow" the organization you mentioned in question #1?

Yes  No (If no, skip to question #17)

d) If yes, what kind of information would you prefer to see there?

\_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX B.

Individual VFI (motivation) frequency distributions & item means

## Individual VFI (motivation) frequency distributions &amp; item means

N (%)	1 Extremely Unimportant Reason	2 Unimportant Reason	3 Neutral	4 Important Reason	5 Extremely Important Reason	Item M/(SD)
<b>Values Function</b>						
I volunteer because I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	33 (9.8%)	40 (11.4%)	136 (38.6%)	82 (24.3%)	46 (13.6%)	3.2 (1.12)
I volunteer because I feel compassion toward people in need.	35 (10.4%)	37 (10.9%)	125 (37.0%)	89 (26.3%)	52 (15.4%)	3.2 (1.16)
I volunteer because I feel it is important to help others.	21 (6.1%)	14 (4.1%)	70 (20.5%)	129 (37.7%)	108 (31.6%)	3.8 (1.10)
I volunteer because I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	5 (1.4%)	1 (0.3%)	14 (4.0%)	104 (29.7%)	226 (64.6%)	4.6 (0.72)
<b>Understanding Function</b>						
I volunteer because I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	38 (11.0%)	28 (8.1%)	79 (22.9%)	126 (36.5%)	74 (21.4%)	3.5 (1.23)
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	26 (7.5%)	24 (7.0%)	57 (16.5%)	166 (48.1%)	72 (20.9%)	3.7 (1.11)
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	20 (5.8%)	18 (5.2%)	58 (16.9%)	158 (45.9%)	90 (26.2%)	3.8 (1.06)
I volunteer because I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	39 (11.4%)	37 (10.8%)	121 (35.3%)	104 (30.3%)	42 (12.2%)	3.2 (1.15)
<b>Enhancement Function</b>						
Volunteering makes me feel important.	89 (26.0%)	64 (18.7%)	114 (33.3%)	55 (16.1%)	20 (5.8%)	2.6 (1.20)
Volunteering makes me feel needed.	71 (20.6%)	60 (17.4%)	96 (27.8%)	90 (26.1%)	28 (8.1%)	2.8 (1.25)
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	48 (13.9%)	41 (29.5%)	102 (29.5%)	113 (32.7%)	42 (12.1%)	3.2 (1.21)
Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	38 (11.1%)	29 (8.5%)	96 (28.0%)	144 (42.0%)	36 (10.5%)	3.3 (1.13)
<b>Career Function</b>						
Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	163 (47.9%)	82 (24.1%)	60 (17.6%)	26 (7.6%)	9 (2.6%)	1.9 (1.09)
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	156 (45.6%)	78 (22.9%)	61 (17.9%)	34 (10.0%)	12 (3.5%)	2.0 (1.16)
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	153 (45.0%)	71 (20.9%)	67 (19.7%)	32 (9.4%)	17 (5.0%)	2.1 (1.21)
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	159 (46.8%)	71 (20.9%)	56 (16.5%)	34 (10.0%)	20 (5.9%)	2.1 (1.25)

## Individual VFI (motivation) frequency distributions and item means - continued

N (%)	1 Extremely Unimportant Reason	2 Unimportant Reason	3 Neutral	4 Important Reason	5 Extremely Important Reason	Item M(SD)
<b>Social Function</b>						
My friends volunteer.	109 (32.0%)	76 (22.3%)	81 (23.8%)	62 (18.2%)	13 (3.8%)	2.4 (1.21)
People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	133 (39.1%)	71 (20.9%)	77 (22.6%)	50 (14.7%)	9 (2.6%)	2.2 (1.19)
I volunteer because people I know share an interest in community service.	60 (17.3%)	41 (11.8%)	68 (19.7%)	122 (35.3%)	55 (15.9%)	3.2 (1.33)
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	74 (21.7%)	45 (13.2%)	99 (29.0%)	87 (25.5%)	36 (10.6%)	2.9 (1.29)
<b>Protective Function</b>						
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me forget about it.	73 (21.3%)	48 (14.0%)	101 (29.4%)	83 (24.2%)	38 (11.1%)	2.9 (1.29)
By volunteering I feel less lonely	114 (33.4%)	71 (20.8%)	92 (27.0%)	40 (11.7%)	24 (7.0%)	2.4 (1.25)
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt I feel over being more fortunate than others.	163 (47.7%)	73 (21.3%)	83 (24.3%)	20 (5.8%)	3 (0.9%)	1.9 (1.01)
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	140 (40.7%)	81 (23.5%)	72 (20.9%)	41 (11.9%)	10 (2.9%)	2.1 (1.16)
<b>Coproduction</b>						
I volunteer because it helps the department offer higher quality facilities and programs.	13 (3.8%)	17 (5.0%)	71 (20.8%)	137 (40.1%)	104 (30.4%)	3.9 (1.02)
If I volunteer, chances of the park or a program closing or ending are reduced.	16 (4.7%)	7 (2.0%)	55 (16.0%)	140 (40.7%)	126 (36.6%)	4.0 (1.01)
I volunteer because someone I know benefits from my service.	27 (7.9%)	17 (5.0%)	88 (25.8%)	122 (35.8%)	87 (25.5%)	3.7 (1.15)
I volunteer because I have a child, relative or friend who is involved in the activity and/or uses the facility.	84 (24.6%)	49 (14.3%)	89 (26.0%)	70 (20.5%)	50 (14.6%)	2.9 (1.38)
I volunteer because I previously benefited from the activity or facility.	47 (13.8%)	21 (6.2%)	71 (20.9%)	97 (28.5%)	104 (30.6%)	3.6 (1.35)

\* "Please read each statement and indicate whether it is an unimportant or important reason why you volunteer for the organization you selected in question #1: (i.e., Advisory Council, Park Friends, etc.)"

## APPENDIX C.

Individual VSI (satisfaction) frequency distributions & item means

## Individual VSI (satisfaction) frequency distributions &amp; item means

Individual Satisfaction Items*	N (%)					Item M(SD)
	1 Very Dissatisfied	2 Dissatisfied	3 Neutral	4 Satisfied	5 Very Satisfied	
<b>Organizational Support</b>						
My relationship with paid staff.	0 (0%)	8 (2.4%)	103 (30.7%)	110 (32.8%)	114 (34.0%)	4.0 (0.86)
The support I receive from people in the organization.	4 (1.2%)	16 (4.7%)	81 (24%)	124 (36.7%)	113 (33.4%)	4.0 (0.93)
The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.	7 (2.1%)	18 (5.3%)	57 (16.7%)	159 (46.6%)	100 (29.3%)	4.0 (0.93)
The amount of communication coming to me from paid staff and/or board members.	3 (0.9%)	24 (7.2%)	93 (27.8%)	125 (37.4%)	89 (26.6%)	3.8 (0.94)
How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.	5 (1.5%)	18 (5.3%)	109 (32.3%)	132 (39.2%)	73 (21.7%)	3.7 (0.91)
The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.	3 (0.9%)	15 (4.6%)	150 (42.6%)	106 (32.2%)	55 (16.7%)	3.6 (0.85)
The amount of permission I need before I can do the things I do on this job.	10 (3.0%)	16 (4.8%)	127 (37.9%)	118 (35.2%)	64 (19.1%)	3.6 (0.94)
<b>Participation Efficacy</b>						
The difference my volunteer work is making.	0 (0%)	6 (1.7%)	58 (16.9%)	146 (42.4%)	134 (39.0%)	4.2 (0.77)
How worthwhile my contribution is.	0 (0%)	4 (1.2%)	54 (15.8%)	152 (44.4%)	132 (38.6%)	4.2 (0.74)
The fit of the volunteer work to my skills.	1 (0.3%)	2 (0.6%)	82 (24.3%)	147 (43.6%)	105 (31.2%)	4.0 (0.78)
The opportunities I have to learn new things.	1 (0.3%)	6 (1.8%)	103 (30.2%)	146 (42.8%)	85 (24.9%)	3.9 (0.80)
<b>Sense of Empowerment</b>						
The access I have to information concerning the organization.	5 (1.5%)	11 (3.2%)	75 (22.1%)	139 (41.0%)	109 (32.2%)	4.0 (0.90)
The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment.	1 (0.3%)	11 (3.2%)	76 (22.3%)	139 (40.8%)	114 (33.4%)	4.0 (0.84)
The Chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work.	1 (0.3%)	6 (1.7%)	88 (25.7%)	146 (42.6%)	102 (29.7%)	4.0 (0.81)



## Individual VSI (satisfaction) frequency distributions &amp; item means – continued

N (%)	1 Very Dissatisfied	2 Dissatisfied	3 Neutral	4 Satisfied	5 Very Satisfied	Item M(SD)
Individual Satisfaction Items* Group Integration						
My relationship with other volunteers in the organization.	2 (0.6%)	8 (2.5%)	56 (17.2%)	134 (41.1%)	126 (35.8%)	4.1 (0.83)
The friendships I have made while volunteering with the organization.	4 (1.2%)	5 (1.5%)	66 (19.4%)	127 (37.2%)	139 (40.8%)	4.1 (0.86)
The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization.	2 (0.6%)	9 (2.7%)	76 (22.7%)	139 (41.5%)	109 (32.5%)	4.0 (0.85)
The amount of time I spend with other volunteers in the organization.	2 (0.6%)	10 (3.0%)	102 (30.2%)	136 (40.2%)	88 (26.0%)	3.9 (0.85)

\* “Thinking about the organization that you selected in question #1, please read each of the following statements and indicate your level of satisfaction.”

## APPENDIX D.

Individual OID frequency distributions & item means

## Individual OID (organizational identity) item means and frequency distributions

<i>N</i> (%)	1	2	3	4	5	Item <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )
Individual OID Items*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
I am interested in what others think about this organization	5 (1.5%)	7 (2.0%)	74 (21.6%)	173 (50.6%)	83 (24.3%)	3.9 (0.82)
This organization's successes are my successes	11 (3.2%)	16 (4.7%)	99 (28.8%)	140 (40.7%)	78 (22.7%)	3.8 (0.96)
When someone praises this organization it feels like a personal compliment	9 (2.6%)	32 (9.3%)	107 (31.0%)	119 (34.5%)	78 (22.6%)	3.7 (0.96)
When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult	19 (5.5%)	48 (14.0%)	109 (31.7%)	99 (28.8%)	69 (20.0%)	3.4 (1.12)
If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed	21 (6.1%)	48 (13.9%)	109 (31.6%)	109 (31.6%)	58 (16.8%)	3.4 (1.11)

\* "For each of the following statements about the organization you selected in question #1, please indicate extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements."

## APPENDIX E.

Individual LOI frequency distributions & item means

Individual LOI (level of involvement) item means and frequency distributions (prior to recoding)

<i>N</i> (%)	1	2	3	4	5	Item <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )
	Not at all				A great deal	
Individual Involvement Items						
Skills (e.g. teaching, organize programs)	81 (25.1%)	39 (12.1%)	43 (13.3%)	54 (16.7%)	106 (32.8%)	3.2 (1.60)
Physical Labor (e.g. park clean up)	33 (9.9%)	52 (15.5%)	69 (20.6%)	63 (18.8%)	118 (35.2%)	3.5 (1.36)
Money (e.g. donations, dues)	42 (12.7%)	95 (28.7%)	101 (30.5%)	59 (17.8%)	34 (10.3%)	2.8 (1.16)
Leadership (e.g. hold office)	112 (35%)	14 (4.4%)	26 (8.1%)	51 (15.9%)	117 (36.6%)	3.2 (1.17)
Resources (e.g. use of personal tools)	86 (27.2%)	64 (20.3%)	53 (16.8%)	59 (18.7%)	54 (17.1%)	2.8 (1.45)
Time (e.g. fund raising, meetings)	51 (15.6%)	48 (14.7%)	69 (21.1%)	71 (21.7%)	88 (26.9%)	3.3 (1.41)
Other (e.g. writing newsletters, host website)	50 (51.0%)	9 (9.2%)	17 (17.3%)	7 (7.1%)	15 (15.3%)	2.3 (1.52)

\* "To what extent do you contribute the following to the organization you selected in question #1?"

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## Nate Trauntvein Curriculum Vitae

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### Education

- Ph.D. (2011)     **The Pennsylvania State University**  
Recreation, Park and Tourism Management
- M.S. (2007)     **The Pennsylvania State University**  
Leisure Studies
- B.S. (2003)     **Utah State University**  
Park and Recreation

### Manuscripts

- Graefe, A.R., Mowen, A.J., Covelli, E.A., & Trauntvein, N.E. (2011). Wildlife-related recreation participation and conservation attitudes: Differences between mail and online respondents in a mixed-mode survey. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 16(3), 183-199.
- Kerstetter, D.L., Mowen, A.J., Trauntvein, N.E. Graefe, A.R., Liechty, T., & Zielinski, K.D. (2010). Visitor perceptions of who should provide services and amenities in state parks. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 28(4), 21-36.
- Mowen, A.J., Kerstetter, D.L., Trauntvein, N.E., & Graefe, A.R. (2009). What factors shape visitor support for the privatization of park services and amenities? *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 27(2), 33-45.

### Selected Presentations

- Trauntvein, N.E. (Presenter), Mowen, A.J., Graefe, A.R., & Covelli, E.A. (2011). Public recreation and park volunteers: The influence of motivations, satisfaction, and organization. *Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium*, Bolton Landing, NY, April.
- Trauntvein, N.E. (Presenter), Mowen, A.J., Graefe, A.R., & Covelli, E.A. (2010). Behaviors, attitudes and management priorities for people of difference in Pennsylvania. *Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium*, Bolton Landing, NY, April.
- Trauntvein, N.E. (Presenter), Son, J., Mowen, A.J., & Kerstetter, D. (2008). The role of volunteerism in the physical activity of adults in mid to late life. *Gerontological Society of America Annual Scientific Meeting*, Washington, D.C., November.

### Teaching Experience

- PRP 1000 (3 Credits) Introduction to Parks and Recreation, Utah State University
- PRP 3000 (3 Credits) Recreation Programming, Utah State University
- PRP 3100 (3 Credits) Leisure and Aging, Utah State University
- PRP 4300 (3 Credits) Legal Aspects of Parks and Recreation, Utah State University
- RPTM 120 (3 Credits) Leisure and Human Behavior, Pennsylvania State University
- RPTM 470 (3 Credits) Recreation and Park Management, Pennsylvania State University
- RPTM 4971 (1 Credit) Legal Liability, Pennsylvania State University