

Managing the Volunteer Organization:

Strategies to Recruit, Content, and Retain Volunteers

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Managing the volunteer organization

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Chapter 1

Introduction: Theory, overview of chapters, summary and conclusions

Volunteer work is unpaid work, without any obligations, for the benefit of others and/or society (e.g., Meijjs, 1997; Pearce, 1993). This unique form of helping behavior, which takes place in an organizational context (i.e., at a macro-level, see Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005) implies that a deliberate choice is made to provide aid to unknown others over an extended period of time and at personal costs (Omoto & Snyder, 1995, 2002). Volunteers thus provide valuable services to society and its members that would not be available if they had to be paid (Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003; Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Pearce, 1993). Due to the specific nature of this work, volunteer organizations can only address *non-material* features to recruit, content, and retain volunteers. Researchers (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, in press; Dailey, 1986; Ellemers & Boezeman, in press; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Meijjs, 1997; Pearce, 1993; Wilson, 2000) have noted that there still is much to learn about the organizational behavior of volunteers. Building on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and the social identity based model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) this dissertation presents a conceptual framework that argues that status evaluations concerning the volunteer organization as well as one's own position within the volunteer organization contribute positively to psychological engagement and cooperation of individual (prospective) volunteers. Furthermore, in line with and extension of this conceptual framework, in this dissertation organizational features are identified that may help engage and commit volunteers by inducing a sense of organizational and/or individual value. These insights point to concrete interventions that can empower volunteer organizations to *retain* (chapters 2 and 3 of this dissertation; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), *recruit* (chapter 4 of this dissertation; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008b) and *content* (see the studies conducted by Boezeman, Ellemers, and Duijnhoven on volunteers' job satisfaction, reported in Ellemers & Boezeman, in press) volunteer workers (see Table 1 for an overview). In order to further contribute to the literature on the

organizational behavior of volunteers and to further help volunteer organizations to improve the work satisfaction of their volunteers, it is examined (chapter 5) how intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) during volunteer work relates to the job attitudes of volunteers. Additionally, in order to empirically address the argument that the organizational behavior of volunteers is different from that of paid employees, it is assessed whether volunteers differ from paid employees (performing identical tasks within the same organization) in the way in which they derive their job satisfaction and intentions to stay a volunteer with the volunteer organization from intrinsic need satisfaction on the job.

Volunteer motivation as an organizational problem

Previous research on the organizational behavior of volunteers has addressed the motivation to volunteer from different perspectives. Pearce (1993) characterizes this research as either focusing on individual motives for volunteering (e.g., Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991), or as specifying demographic, socioeconomic (Wilson, 2000; see also Bekkers, 2004), or personality characteristics of (potential) volunteers (e.g., Carlo, Okun, Knight, & De Guzman, 2005). By contrast, the present contribution (chapters 2, 3, and 4) considers how the motivation of individual (prospective) volunteers relates to perceived characteristics of the volunteer *organization*, and identifies specific features of the volunteer organization that are likely to elicit, enhance, and sustain motivation among (prospective) volunteers.

Previous work has addressed the recruitment, satisfaction, and retention of volunteers as separate macro-level processes, which depend on different variables (Penner et al., 2005). However, it has also been suggested that these may be considered as subsequent stages of volunteer involvement (Omoto & Snyder, 2002). In line with this approach, in this dissertation (chapters 2, 3, and 4) a single parsimonious model is developed which can help understand and predict volunteer motivation at different stages. This is not only relevant for

analytical purposes but also of practical interest, as it offers a way for volunteer organizations to address the retention (chapters 2 and 3, see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), recruitment (chapter 4, see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008b), and satisfaction (see the studies conducted by Boezeman, Ellemers, & Duijnhoven, reported in Ellemers & Boezeman, in press) of volunteer workers in an integral fashion.

This approach builds on previous work in this area, and examines social identity processes (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) as relevant to the motivation of individual volunteers. Nevertheless, the current analysis also extends previous work in that it addresses the way individuals perceive specific characteristics of the volunteer organization and their position within it as important determinants of such identity concerns. That is, while previous work considered how individuals relate to the *target group* they are trying to help (e.g., homosexuals vs. heterosexuals in AIDS-volunteerism, Simon et al., 2000, or members of the National Association to Advance Fat Acceptance, Stürmer et al., 2008), the focus of the present contribution (chapters 2, 3, and 4) is on how volunteer workers relate to the *volunteer organization* in which they perform these efforts. In doing this, a model that has been developed to understand how non-material concerns impact on the motivation and cooperative intent of paid employees (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) is extended. It is not self-evident that existing insights on the motivation of paid employees help understand the organizational behavior of volunteers, as there are fundamental differences between the work conditions of these two types of workers (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Pearce, 1993). Standard control mechanisms that are used to monitor and direct the behavior of paid employees (such as financial rewards, contractual obligations or career prospects) simply are not available in the case of volunteer workers, as compensation and incentives are symbolic instead of material (Pearce, 1993; see also Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Haslam, 2004). Thus, even though self-oriented as well as other-

oriented concerns may be relevant to the motivation of volunteers (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Omoto and Snyder, 1995), these refer to psychological outcomes and benefits, which have no legal or material basis.

Social identity and work motivation

In view of the special nature of volunteer work as detailed above, the present contribution (chapters 2, 3, and 4) takes a social identity approach to examine the organizational behavior of volunteers (see also Tidwell, 2005). Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) posits that non-material concerns, such as status evaluations and the subjective valuation of group-based identities, affect individual behavior in groups and organizations. This theory is based on the assumption that people derive (part of) their self-image from the groups and organizations they belong to – this is referred to as their social identity. As a consequence, organizational characteristics that are positively valued can contribute to a positive social identity, inducing feelings of self-esteem and self-worth. As social identity theory assumes that people prefer to feel good about themselves, the theory maintains that people generally consider it attractive to be included in groups and organizations that contribute positively to their social identity (see also Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ellemers et al., 2004; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Based on social identity theory, Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) have argued that when organizational members view their organization as having high value, this facilitates their psychological and behavioral engagement with their organization. In addition, Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) have proposed that organizational members also evaluate their individual position within their organization as a potential source of positive self-evaluation, social identity, and organizational engagement. Thus, feelings of organizational pride (the conviction that the organization has high value), and individual respect (the feeling that one is valued as a

member of the organization) are seen to contribute to psychological engagement and cooperation with organizations.

This model has received empirical support from correlational studies among paid employees (Fuller et al., 2006; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002), which have demonstrated the explanatory value of pride and respect in accounting for cooperative intent above and beyond the effects of material rewards or concrete individual benefits (see also Stürmer, et al., 2008). Additionally, experimental research among various types of group members (see for instance Branscombe, Spears, Ellemers, & Doosje, 2002; Doosje, Spears, & Ellemers, 2002; Ellemers, Wilke, & Van Knippenberg, 1993; Sleebos, Ellemers, & De Gilder, 2006; Simon & Stürmer, 2003) has further demonstrated that evaluations of pride and respect contribute to psychological engagement and cooperation with groups and organizations.

In this dissertation, *pride* will be examined as referring to the extent to which people derive a sense of value from their association with the volunteer organization (e.g., “I am proud of being a member of this organization”), and *respect* as indicating the extent to which people feel valued as individual workers of the volunteer organization (e.g., “I feel respected as a volunteer by this organization”). In the studies reported (chapters 2, 3, and 4) that focus on pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000), *psychological engagement* with the volunteer organization will be addressed by examining organizational commitment and attraction to the volunteer organization, and the willingness to participate and the intention to remain will be addressed as relevant indicators of *behavioral engagement* with the volunteer organization.

A social identity model of engagement with volunteer organizations

Based on the work of Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002), it will be examined (chapters 2, 3, and 4) whether the processes they specify also help explain the engagement and work motivation of individual volunteers within volunteer organizations.

The primary goal of volunteer organizations is to help society and its members through their services. The fact that these services would not be available if they had to be paid for is generally considered a positive feature of volunteer organizations (e.g., Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Harris, 2001; Pearce, 1993). Accordingly, it is argued that the perceived importance and effectiveness of the volunteer work indicates the status of the volunteer organization, and can be a source of *pride* to its members. Hence, it is expected that individual (prospective) volunteers (anticipate to) experience pride when they participate in a volunteer organization that they see as effective in helping its clientele, and are psychologically and behaviorally engaged with such a volunteer organization as a result.

Volunteer organizations are generally expected to direct their efforts and resources to benefit their clientele – not to their volunteer workers (Handy, 1988). Under these circumstances, the provision of support to individual volunteers can be seen as communicating that they are valued by the organization, and be an important source of perceived or anticipated *respect*. This is why it is predicted that individual (prospective) volunteers (anticipate to) feel respected when they see their volunteer organization as investing in them through the provision of organizational support, and are psychologically and behaviorally engaged with the volunteer organization as a result.

Chapter 2 *Pride, respect and the work motivation of volunteers*

Chapter 2 addresses how pride and respect are relevant to the work motivation of volunteers. That is, chapter 2 presents a preliminary study that addresses the validity of the reasoning that perceptions of the importance of the volunteer work and organizational support induce pride, respect, and engagement with the volunteer organization among volunteers. To examine how pride and respect contribute to the work motivation of volunteers, in this preliminary study measures were developed to assess volunteer pride and respect, as well as to assess the perceived importance of the volunteer work and perceived task and emotional

support as antecedents of pride and respect. This first preliminary study was conducted among a sample of 89 fundraising volunteers from a Dutch volunteer organization whose primary mission is to find a cure for cancer by funding relevant scientific research.

First, confirmatory factor analyses indicated that pride and respect could be assessed independently from the perceived importance of volunteer work and from perceived (task and emotional) support provided by the volunteer organization. Second, as predicted, the extent to which volunteers perceived their volunteer work to be of importance to the clientele of the volunteer organization predicted their experience of pride. Likewise, the extent to which volunteers saw their volunteer organization as providing them with task-and emotional support predicted their experience of respect. Third, the experience of pride and respect in turn predicted the extent to which individual volunteers psychologically engaged with their volunteer organization, as indicated by their organizational commitment. Finally, structural equation modeling with EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) confirmed that the effects of the importance of the volunteer work and the support provided by the organization on psychological engagement with the organization were mediated by pride and respect, respectively.

This first study, conducted among *volunteers* (unpaid workers), provided preliminary evidence that pride and respect are relevant to workers' psychological engagement with *volunteer* organizations, that pride and respect are relevant with regard the retention of volunteers (because they contribute to volunteers' organizational commitment), and that volunteer organizations might do well to communicate about the importance of the volunteer work (because this contributes to pride and organizational commitment) and provide organizational support (because this enhances respect and organizational commitment) in their efforts to retain volunteers. In order to cross-validate and extend these results, an extensive follow-up study on pride and respect as a way to address the retention of volunteers

was conducted, and elaborated upon in chapter 3.

Chapter 3 *Pride and respect in volunteers' organizational commitment*

Chapter 3 presents a more extensive study on what volunteer organizations can do to retain volunteers via pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003).

Organizational commitment is of particular interest as an aspect of work motivation among volunteers (Dailey, 1986), because it can be shaped independently of material rewards (Ellemers et al., 1998; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005). Furthermore, it is relevant to volunteer retention, as organizational commitment has been found to predict intentions to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization (see Jenner, 1981; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990). Therefore, in extension of the results reported in chapter 2, in chapter 3 it is examined whether pride and respect as a member of the volunteer organization predict organizational commitment and intentions to stay among volunteers. Additionally, in order to contribute to the literature and to help volunteer organizations improve their volunteer policy, in 2 different types of volunteer organizations it is (re-)examined whether among volunteers the perceived importance of the volunteer work contributes to pride and subsequently organizational commitment, and whether perceptions of organizational support contribute to feelings of respect and subsequently organizational commitment.

In research on organizational commitment among paid employees, a distinction is made between three types of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) that reflect different forms of psychological attachment to the organization. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), *affective* organizational commitment refers to emotional attachment to the organization (e.g., feeling 'part of the family'), *continuance* organizational commitment reflects a calculative form of attachment to the organization (e.g., due to loss of material benefits or participation in a pension plan), and *normative* organizational commitment indicates an attachment to the organization which is based on feelings of responsibility (e.g., due to the moral significance

of the mission of the organization).

In research among paid employees in profit organizations, affective organizational commitment is most strongly related to relevant indicators of work motivation, such as attendance and job performance (for an overview, see Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Continuance organizational commitment ties the individual to the organization, but can induce negative work behaviors (e.g., slacking or absenteeism), due to its calculative nature. Normative organizational commitment is usually less clearly associated with the behavior of paid employees. The research focuses on affective and normative organizational commitment, as these have been found particularly relevant to volunteers, in contrast to continuance organizational commitment (see Dawley, Stephens, & Stephens, 2005; Liao–Troth, 2001; Stephens, Dawley, & Stephens, 2004).

Even though normative organizational commitment seems of little relevance in the work motivation of paid employees, in this dissertation this form of organizational commitment is expected to be of particular importance in the case of volunteer workers. In fact, normative organizational commitment may even prove to be more important than affective organizational commitment for volunteer retention, due to the occasional nature of much volunteer work implying that the interaction with the volunteer organization and its members tends to be infrequent or intermittent. Thus, it is expected that the retention of volunteers relies heavily upon normative organizational commitment to the volunteer organization, as this type of commitment focuses on the perceived responsibility and morality concerns regarding the mission of the organization which are seen as central elements in the motivation of volunteer workers (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999). As a result, the degree to which individual volunteers feel morally obliged to help accomplish the mission of their organization, and are concerned with the continuity of their organization's efforts in pursuing its goals, should predict their intentions to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

In the first study (Chapter 3, Study 1) 170 fundraising volunteers were surveyed and they worked for a Dutch volunteer organization whose primary mission is to find a cure for diabetes by funding relevant research. The fundraising volunteers that were surveyed all had their own districts across the Netherlands in which they helped the volunteer organization in preparing, setting up and managing its one-week a year fundraising campaign. Their feelings of pride and respect as a volunteer at this organization were assessed, their normative and affective commitment to their volunteer organization was measured, and their intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization were recorded.

The results showed that feelings of pride and respect contribute to volunteers' sense of affective and normative organizational commitment, indicating their psychological engagement with the volunteer organization, as was the case in the preliminary study (see chapter 2). Additionally, however, it was found that only normative organizational commitment reliably predicted volunteers' intentions to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization. As a result, the beneficial effects of pride and respect on intentions to remain were reliably mediated by normative organizational commitment, but not by affective organizational commitment. Thus, this study again reminds us that existing knowledge regarding the motivation of paid employees does not necessarily apply to the situation of volunteer workers. That is, whereas normative organizational commitment is generally seen as a relatively unimportant factor in the work behavior of paid employees, this research suggests that normative organizational commitment may be a central factor in the retention of volunteers.

After having established the importance of normative organizational commitment for volunteer's intentions to stay with their volunteer organization, an additional study was conducted to cross-validate whether pride and respect lead to organizational commitment among volunteers, and to further identify antecedents of pride and respect that would

contribute to volunteers' organizational commitment. In this study, the perceived importance of the volunteer work as an antecedent of pride was assessed, the emotion- and task-support provided by the organization as antecedents of respect were measured, and it was examined whether the effects of these antecedents on normative and affective organizational commitment to the volunteer organization were mediated by pride and respect, respectively.

Two separate samples of fundraising volunteers were surveyed who worked for different types of Dutch volunteer organizations. The mission of the first volunteer organization was to help the handicapped integrate into society, for instance by providing information about relevant legal arrangements. 173 volunteers of this organization participated in the research. Some of the volunteers participate in this organization because they have family members or acquaintances that are handicapped. The second volunteer organization, from which 164 volunteers participated in the research, supports health care initiatives in developing countries through financial aid, the local delivery of materials and equipment, and other means of direct support. Accordingly, the volunteers in this organization are not related in any way to the clientele of the organization. These two organizations thus differ in the likelihood that volunteers might (indirectly) benefit from the activities of the organization, as well as in the type of help they provide (i.e., oriented towards autonomy vs. dependence, see Nadler, 2002), and offered the opportunity to examine the validity of the reasoning that perceptions of the importance of volunteer work and organizational support lead to pride, respect, and organizational commitment, across different types of volunteer organizations and organizational activities.

Confirmatory factor analyses supported the distinction between the different constructs in each of these 2 samples. Furthermore, in both samples structural equation modeling executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) confirmed that relations between these theoretical constructs were as hypothesized. Thus, the results of 2 separate samples of

volunteers working in different types of volunteer organizations converged to suggest that when volunteers perceive that their volunteer work is of importance to the clientele of their volunteer organization, they feel proud as a volunteer at their volunteer organization which in turn causes them to feel committed to their volunteer organization. Likewise, regardless of the type of volunteer organization our research participants worked in, perceived task and emotional organizational support provided by the organization predicted the experience of organizational respect, which also contributed to volunteers' commitment to the organization. Importantly, although the previous study showed that normative commitment is more relevant as a predictor of intentions to remain than affective commitment, the antecedents of pride and respect examined in this follow-up study elicited both types of organizational commitment. Thus, from these results it seems that the unique value of normative organizational commitment for the work behavior of volunteers emerges in its *consequences* for volunteer retention, but not in the unique antecedents of this type of commitment.

To conclude, the studies reported in chapters 2 and 3 indicate that pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) are relevant to the organizational behavior of volunteers, and that volunteer organizations through the interventions developed in this dissertation (see also Table 1) can address pride and respect in their volunteer policy in order to retain volunteers. The next step was to address the recruitment of volunteers via pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000).

Chapter 4 *Pride and respect in volunteer recruitment*

Chapter 4 presents a study on what volunteer organizations can do to attract and recruit volunteers via pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003).

After having established that pride and respect help to understand the motivation of existing volunteers (chapters 2 and 3), chapter 4 of this dissertation deals with the issue of

volunteer recruitment. In chapter 4 it is examined among *non-volunteers* whether the *anticipation* of pride and respect relates to the perceived attractiveness of, and willingness to participate in, the volunteer organization. Further, in this chapter it is investigated which organizational features are likely to induce anticipated feelings of pride and respect among non-volunteers. The predictions were tested in a series of experimental studies which systematically compared different features of a bogus volunteer organization to see how the provision of information about specific aspects of the volunteer organization and its activities might instill anticipated pride and respect in non-volunteers and hence foster their willingness to become involved with the volunteer organization.

The recruitment of volunteers involves attracting non-volunteers to the volunteer organization and interesting them in becoming a volunteer with the volunteer organization. Volunteer organizations are commonly in need for additional human resources (Farmer & Fedor, 2001, Pearce, 1993) and volunteer recruitment is a recurring issue for volunteer organizations. However, research to date has not highlighted how potential volunteers can become attracted to volunteer organizations.

In line with signalling theory (Spence, 1973), researchers (e.g., Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991; Turban, 2001; Turban & Cable, 2003) have suggested that non-members create an impression of what it will be like to be a member of an organization by considering the information they have about the organization as relevant signals of organizational characteristics. Barsness and colleagues (2002) have posited that non-members can use such information to derive expectations about the pride and respect they *anticipate* to experience as members in that organization. Accordingly, in this dissertation it is argued that a particular organization might become attractive to non-members, through *anticipated* feelings of pride and respect they derive from the information they have about organizational membership.

The participants in the experiments on volunteer recruitment were informed that the

Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs (which coordinates volunteer work in the Netherlands) planned to launch a campaign in order to inform Dutch citizens about volunteer work and recruit them for volunteer organizations. They then received a leaflet that provided information about a fictionalized volunteer organization, to ensure that the participants were all non-volunteers *at this organization*, and were not pre-disposed to the organization in any way. The organization presented allegedly was a charity whose mission was to help homeless people through services such as providing shelter, meals, clothing and medical care, which is considered a characteristic volunteer act across cultures (Handy, Cnaan, Brudney, Ascoli, Meijs, & Ranade, 2000).

Organizational success, anticipated pride, and the attractiveness of the volunteer organization

In line with social identity theory, researchers (e.g., Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Cable & Turban, 2003; Turban & Greening, 1996; Turban & Cable, 2003) have argued that it should be attractive for applicants to become a member of an organization to the extent that it is seen as successful, as membership in such an organization should contribute to a positive social identity. Empirical findings among paid employees are in line with this reasoning. For instance, it has been found that corporate reputation is positively correlated with organizational attractiveness (Turban & Greening, 1996), and that a company's reputation is positively associated with the number of applicants seeking employment with that organization (Turban & Cable, 2003). Additionally, expected pride from employment in a profit organization was found positively associated with applicants' job pursuit intentions and negatively associated with the minimum salary they were willing to accept (Cable & Turban, 2003).

However, in the case of volunteer organizations, communicating about the current success of the organization may also have negative side effects. The mission of charitable

volunteer organizations is directed at providing services that would otherwise not be available (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). As a result, communicating about the success of a particular organization in achieving its mission, might (unwittingly) lead non-volunteers to conclude that this organization does not need additional help, and that their volunteer efforts might be better used elsewhere. Indeed, in a fundraising competition the perceived need of a fundraising group for additional volunteer help was found to be lower when the group was more successful (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998).

Thus, it may well be that providing information about the current success of the organization backfires in the case of volunteer organizations, in that it decreases the perceived need for additional volunteers of this organization, which might impact negatively upon non-volunteers' attraction to the organization. This possibility was examined in the first recruitment study that experimentally manipulated the perceived success of a bogus volunteer organization (Chapter 4, Study 1). It was assessed how information about organizational success impacted upon anticipated pride and the perceived need of the volunteer organization for additional volunteers, and examined how anticipated pride and the perceived need for additional volunteers related to attraction to the volunteer organization among non-volunteers.

The results of this experiment revealed that providing non-volunteers with information about the success of a volunteer organization did not relate to their anticipated feelings of pride as a volunteer at that volunteer organization, nor did it increase the perceived attractiveness of the volunteer organization. However, in itself anticipated pride *was* found to contribute positively to the perceived attractiveness of the volunteer organization as an employer. At the same time, the information provided about the current success of the volunteer organization reduced the perceived need of the volunteer organization for additional volunteers. Thus, the results showed that non-volunteers are inclined to think that a volunteer organization is in less need for additional volunteers when that organization is presented as

being successful, while the current success of that organization did not induce a sense of pride nor did it enhance the attractiveness of the volunteer organization as a place to work in. This suggests that, contrary to what is found among those seeking paid employment in profit organizations, emphasizing the success of the volunteer organization does *not* contribute to the recruitment of volunteers.

Organizational support, anticipated respect and the attractiveness of the volunteer organization

In parallel to the reasoning with respect to anticipated pride, it is also expected (chapter 4, Study 1) that anticipated respect as a volunteer is relevant to volunteer recruitment. That is, it is argued that providing non-volunteers with information about organizational support might induce such feelings of anticipated respect and enhance organizational attractiveness.

However, this time too, it was explored whether such information might have negative side-effects. That is, an organization that provides support to its volunteers might be seen as less efficient in using its available resources to achieve its mission, and hence may seem less attractive as an organization to volunteer for. This is why the information participants received about the amount of support the organization offered to its volunteers was manipulated, to examine how this relates to anticipated respect, perceived organizational efficiency, and the attraction to the volunteer organization.

The results (chapter 4, Study 1) revealed that whereas non-volunteers indeed consider a volunteer organization less efficient when it offers support to its volunteers, this does not reduce the perceived attractiveness of that organization. At the same time, information about organizational support did induce anticipated respect, and in this way increased non-volunteer's attraction to the volunteer organization. Thus, in contrast to the information about the current success of the volunteer organization, providing information about organizational support appeared to offer more scope as a viable tool in volunteer recruitment. Hence, 2

additional studies were conducted, to further elaborate on how information about the support provided to volunteers can help attract new volunteers to the volunteer organization.

Because the literature emphasizes social relations among volunteers as a relevant concern in volunteer motivation and retention (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), the second experiment on recruitment (chapter 4, Study 2) focused on organizational support versus co-volunteer support and examined their impact on anticipated respect and attraction to the volunteer organization. Thus, in this experiment it is examined how different sources of support (i.e., the volunteer organization and co-volunteers) impact upon specific forms of anticipated respect (anticipated respect from the volunteer organization as well as from prospective co-volunteers), and it is examined how this affected the perceived attractiveness of the volunteer organization as a place to work in. In this study, emotional support was addressed as a relevant source of support for volunteer workers (see also Clary, 1987), because emotional support can be equally well provided by a volunteer organization as by individual volunteers.

The results of this second recruitment experiment (chapter 4, Study 2) again showed that providing information to convey that the volunteer organization offers (emotional) support to its volunteers caused non-volunteers to anticipate respect as a volunteer at the organization, which in turn enhanced their attraction to that volunteer organization. However, even though informing non-volunteers about the mutual support among volunteers at this organization induced them to anticipate co-volunteer respect, this type of support and respect did not affect their attraction to the volunteer organization. Thus, it appeared that the support provided by the volunteer organization and the anticipated respect this induces is more relevant to volunteer recruitment than is support and respect from one's co-volunteers.

A third and final experiment (chapter 4, Study 3) then elaborated on the different types of support that can be provided to volunteers within a volunteer organization, in order to further

examine how information about such support might play a role in volunteer recruitment through anticipated respect. Extending the previous experiments, this time the actual willingness of non-volunteers to participate in the activities of the volunteer organization (i.e., by enlisting for an internship in the organization) was assessed, in addition to asking about their perceived attractiveness of the volunteer organization. In this third experiment both emotional support (e.g., being attentive to problems encountered by volunteers, providing encouragement) and task-support (e.g., providing material goods and services to facilitate the work of individual volunteers) were examined as potentially relevant to volunteer recruitment (see also Clary, 1987; Galindo–Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983). The impact of providing information about these different types of support on anticipated respect as a volunteer, attraction to the organization and the willingness to participate was assessed among non-volunteers.

The results of this study again point to the importance of providing information about support in volunteer recruitment efforts. That is, both information about task support and information about emotional support instilled a sense of anticipated respect among non-volunteers. Furthermore, path analysis executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) showed that due to this information and the anticipated respect it induced, non-volunteers saw the volunteer organization as a more attractive place to work in, and as a result actually were more likely to become involved in the activities of the organization than when such support appeared to be lacking.

To conclude, the studies reported in chapter 4 indicate that *anticipated* pride and respect are relevant to the recruitment of new volunteers, and that volunteer organizations through the interventions developed (see also Table 1) can address anticipated respect in order to recruit new volunteers. The next step was to address the satisfaction of volunteers, a recurring issue for volunteer organizations.

In an effort to contribute to the literature on organizational behavior and to help volunteer organizations improve their volunteer policy, chapters 2, 3, and 4 adapted a social identity perspective in order to address the retention and recruitment of volunteers. Boezeman, Ellemers, and Duijnhoven (for an overview on these studies see Ellemers & Boezeman, in press) additionally demonstrated that pride and respect contribute to the job satisfaction of volunteers. That is, they (Boezeman, Ellemers, and Duijnhoven) surveyed different types of volunteers working in 2 different volunteer organizations, and their analyses with structural equation modeling indicated that characteristics of the volunteer organization that induced pride and respect among volunteers subsequently lead to the volunteers' satisfaction with the volunteer job. These results indicate that the conceptual framework used in chapters 2, 3, and 4 of this dissertation can also be used to *content* volunteers. However, in order to further contribute to the literature and to further help volunteer organizations to improve their volunteer policy (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, in press), in chapter 5 it is examined how intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) during volunteer work relates to the job satisfaction of volunteers and to their intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization. Indeed, whereas chapters 2, 3, and 4 focus on the *organizational characteristics* of volunteer organizations that may induce psychological and behavioral engagement with the volunteer organization, chapter 5 by contrast pays particular attention to the *working conditions* of volunteers and on their impact on the way volunteers experience their jobs. In addition, in order to empirically address the argument that the organizational behavior of volunteers is different from that of paid employees, in chapter 5 it is assessed whether volunteers differ from paid employees (performing identical tasks within the same organization) in the way in which they derive their job satisfaction and intentions to stay a worker with the organization from intrinsic need satisfaction on the job.

Chapter 5 *Intrinsic need satisfaction among volunteers versus paid employees*

Chapter 5 presents a study on how the working conditions within the volunteer organization can be addressed in order to content volunteers during volunteer work, and examines whether volunteers differ from paid employees in the way they derive their job satisfaction from intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) during work.

Job satisfaction refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976). Despite its relevance to theory development concerning job attitudes and the operation of volunteer organizations, job satisfaction has only received minor attention in the case of volunteer work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Because volunteer work is by definition an act of free choice, it reflects an activity that is self-chosen out of intrinsic interest. This means that for volunteers (in contrast to what is the case among paid employees) job satisfaction and intentions of remaining a worker with the organization can *only* arise from factors related to intrinsic motivation. This form of motivation refers to being inspired from within (i.e., from one's inner self) to actively engage in novelties, challenges, the extension of capabilities, exploration, and learning experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The research on motivation, including intrinsic motivation, is of interest because motivation sets people in motion to act, explore and raise effort (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to researchers (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000), the intrinsic motivation of people to engage and persist in activities that hold intrinsic interest to them is contingent on social conditions. Specifically, in line with self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), researchers (Baard et al., 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000) have argued that social conditions can either

have a positive or negative effect on work outcomes through their influence on three fundamental human needs that have the potential to inhibit or elicit intrinsic motivation, namely the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

The need for *autonomy* refers to the need of having choice and self-control in one's own actions, the need for *competence* refers to the need of experiencing that one is able to successfully carry out tasks and meet performance standards, and the need for *relatedness* refers to have and develop secure and respectful relationships with others (Baard et al., 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In chapter 5 it is first examined among *volunteers* how intrinsic need satisfaction during volunteer work affects the satisfaction with the volunteer job and the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

Volunteering on behalf of a volunteer organization, its mission, and its clientele is by definition a self-chosen activity. The organizational cultures of volunteer organizations emphasize independence, autonomy, and egalitarianism as important values and these characterize the work-settings of volunteers (Pearce, 1993). Therefore, in line with the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), in chapter 5 it is argued that the settings in which volunteer work takes place facilitate satisfaction of *autonomy* needs which leads volunteer workers to raise voluntary effort on behalf of the volunteer organization out of intrinsic motivation, and predicted that satisfaction of autonomy needs on the volunteer job contribute to job satisfaction and intent to remain among volunteers. In addition, it is predicted that satisfaction of relatedness needs on the volunteer job can also have these effects, because social relationships consistently emerge as a factor of importance to the motivation to volunteer (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Finally, it is predicted that among volunteers satisfaction of competence needs have no significant added value in

predicting job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer above and beyond satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs. That is, indicators of competence are unclear or even irrelevant in volunteer work, and therefore it is argued that volunteers primarily derive their job satisfaction from their satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs (which are more apparent in the case of volunteer work) on the volunteer job, and argued that the fulfilment of competence needs will not further contribute to volunteers' job satisfaction and the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

The 105 fundraising volunteers that were surveyed worked for a Dutch volunteer organization whose primary mission is to organize and facilitate leisure activities for the mentally handicapped. These volunteers served in groups of coordinators/supervisors across the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization during the leisure activities for the mentally handicapped. Their intrinsic need satisfaction on the volunteer job was assessed, their satisfaction with the volunteer job was measured, and their intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization were recorded.

First, confirmatory factor analyses indicated that satisfaction of autonomy needs, relatedness needs, and competence needs could be assessed independently from each other. Second, as predicted, path analysis indicated that the extent to which volunteers experienced satisfaction of autonomy needs during their volunteer work predicted their job satisfaction (directly) and intent to remain (indirectly). Likewise, the extent to which volunteers experienced satisfaction of relatedness needs during their volunteer work also enhanced their job satisfaction and intent to stay a volunteer with the volunteer organization. Finally, as predicted, among volunteers the satisfaction of competence needs did not contribute to job satisfaction or intent to remain beyond the satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs.

These results contribute to theory development concerning the job satisfaction of volunteers, show unique effects of satisfaction of autonomy, relatedness, and competence

needs on volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization, and provide volunteer organizations with an insight into which aspects of intrinsic need satisfaction are most likely to sustain and enhance job satisfaction and tenure among volunteers.

Chapter 3 highlighted that in contrast to what is the case among paid workers, among volunteers normative organizational commitment (not affective organizational commitment) is most strongly related to the intent to remain with the volunteer organization. Chapter 4 showed that in contrast to what is the case for people looking for paid work with a profit organization, the success of a volunteer organization does not attract people to the volunteer organization and even undermines the recruitment efforts of a volunteer organization. Chapter 5 indicated that satisfaction of competence needs is irrelevant to volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain. These results all point out to the fact that the work motivation and job attitudes of volunteers should be examined with the understanding that the volunteer workforce is a workforce in itself with its own specific job design. However, in this dissertation it has not yet been *empirically* addressed whether volunteers are different from paid employees in the way they experience their jobs. Hence, in a matched sample it is finally examined whether volunteers differ from paid employees (performing identical tasks within the same organization) in the way they derive job satisfaction and intentions to remain from intrinsic need satisfaction during work.

Due to the fact that they work under more formal restrictions, in line with the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), it is likely that paid employees place more value on satisfaction of autonomy needs in their work than do volunteers (and that they value this type of need satisfaction above and beyond the other types of need satisfaction). *At the same time*, it is likely that satisfaction of autonomy needs may be less relevant to volunteers, either because their autonomy is self-evident (e.g., Pearce, 1993)

or because they are given too much autonomy to be able to feel that the volunteer organization takes an interest in them (Bruins, Ellemers, & de Gilder, 1999). Therefore, because social relationships have been found a consistent factor of importance to the motivation to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), it may well be that volunteers consider satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job more relevant to their job satisfaction and intent to remain than satisfaction of the other needs. As such, in this dissertation it is predicted that paid employees derive their job satisfaction and intentions to remain *primarily* from satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job, and expected that volunteers (in contrast to paid employees) derive their job satisfaction and intent to remain *primarily* from satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job.

The matched sample consisted of 27 paid employees and 41 volunteers that were surveyed in 1 of the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization. In this subdivision of the volunteer organization, these types of workers worked side-by-side as coordinators/supervisors during the leisure activities for the mentally handicapped that were assigned to them to jointly supervise. The employees received pay based on the fact that they had formal training and held the associated credentials that were relevant to the classes that they supervised. There were no formal hierarchical differences between the types of workers.

The first multiple regression analysis and mediation analyses across the 2 sub-samples revealed that among individuals working at a volunteer organization (either as a volunteer or an paid employee) satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs contribute positively to job satisfaction and intent to remain. Stepwise regression analyses and mediation analyses for the 2 separate sub-samples (volunteers versus employees) then revealed that satisfaction of autonomy needs is the most relevant predictor of job satisfaction and intent to remain for paid employees, while volunteers derive their job satisfaction and willingness to remain with the organization primarily from their satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job.

In conclusion, these results illustrate that volunteers experience their jobs and behave on the job in their own unique way, and that the organizational behavior of volunteers tends to be different from the organizational behavior of paid employees. Thus, the factors that contribute to the work motivation and job attitudes of volunteers should be examined with the understanding that the volunteer workforce is a workforce in itself (see also Pearce, 1993; Gidron, 1983).

In conclusion

The aim of this dissertation is to contribute to the literature on organizational behavior and to help volunteer organizations improve their volunteer policy. In order to do so, in this dissertation a parsimonious model of volunteer motivation was developed to shed light on psychological processes relevant to the recruitment (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008b) and retention (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a) of volunteers, and this conceptual framework has also been found relevant to enhancing satisfaction with the volunteer job among volunteers (see the studies conducted by Boezeman, Ellemers, & Duijnhoven, reported in Ellemers & Boezeman, in press). In addition, this dissertation focused on the working conditions of volunteers and how these impact upon volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization, and addressed how volunteers differ from paid workers (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, in press).

Across the board, converging support has been found for the theoretical predictions in different types of volunteer organizations, for different indicators of work motivation, and using different research methodologies. Consistent findings were: (1) that the conviction that the volunteer work is important contributes to a sense of pride in the volunteer organization, (2) that support provided by the volunteer organization contributes to the experience of respect, and (3) that both pride and respect induce psychological and behavioral engagement with the volunteer organization, as is evident from measures of work satisfaction,

commitment and intentions to stay, as well as from the attractiveness of the organization and willingness to engage among non-volunteers, 4.) that satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs (in contrast to satisfaction of competence needs) contribute to volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain, and 5.) that the organizational behavior of volunteers tends to be different from the organizational behavior of paid workers.

Even though the present analysis to some extent is based on existing knowledge on the motivation of paid employees, the application to the situation of volunteer workers has yielded a number of novel insights. Some of the conclusions drawn from the present work relate to the unique characteristics of volunteer work as compared to paid employment, but others also are unexpected in view of current insights on volunteer workers, attesting to the added value of the theoretical analysis and research above and beyond existing knowledge.

Empowering the volunteer organization

The present contribution offers a number of concrete suggestions of the types of organizational activities and policies that are most likely to contribute to the recruitment, satisfaction and retention of individual volunteers. When considering the possibilities for volunteer organizations to influence and direct the motivated behavior of individual volunteers from a traditional point of view, the main concern seems to be that the available means to do this are quite limited. That is, as indicated above, material resources tend to be scarce, there often is little regular interaction with individual volunteers, and there are no legal obligations or other formal means to tie individual volunteers to the volunteer organization. However, the present analysis and results suggest that these characteristics of volunteer work do not necessarily limit the organization's opportunities to engage and motivate individual volunteers.

A first recommendation that can be made is that volunteer organizations may do

well to communicate clearly and explicitly about the mission of their organization, the appreciation of the organization's activities for its clientele, and the importance of the (continued) contributions of individual volunteers for the accomplishment of the organization's mission. When resources to do this are limited, the internal communication within the organization about these issues, and the information provided about the organization in the recruitment of new volunteers should take precedence. However, an issue to be aware of is that when the organization is making progress in achieving its mission, any communications conveying this should recognize that the contributions of each volunteer are needed to accomplish the goals of the organization. Furthermore, to prevent (prospective) volunteers from thinking their efforts are better used elsewhere, the organization should emphasize that their continued involvement and effort are needed for the organization's activities to be truly beneficial for its clientele.

A second recommendation is for the organization to support the activities of individual volunteers, as this helps convey the appreciation and respect of the organization for their efforts. If such support can only be provided at an emotional level, it still serves this important function. However, the addition of task-support also contributes to the experience of respect. Indeed, the benefits of task-support likely outweigh the potential disadvantages, as a reasonable level of task-support will tend to facilitate the efforts of individual volunteers and optimize the effectiveness of the volunteer organization, even if at first sight investing in this form of support may appear to be a less efficient way to serve the mission of the organization. Regardless of the type and amount of support available, the organization should be explicit in what can and cannot be expected in this sense, and deliver on promises made. If the organization is successful in doing this the (anticipated) provision of support can be part of its psychological contract with individual volunteers, even in the absence of more formal obligations (see also Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

A final recommendation involves the working conditions of volunteers. The present contribution highlights that depending on their unique organizational circumstances volunteer organizations can focus on either enhancing satisfaction of autonomy needs, relatedness needs, or both, in their efforts to enhance job satisfaction and intent to remain among their volunteers. For instance, in order to promote satisfaction of relatedness needs among volunteers, volunteer organizations may do well to let newly recruited volunteers work side by side the volunteers that recruited them. In their aims to induce satisfaction of autonomy needs among volunteers, volunteer coordinators can for instance consult volunteers and inquire about how they experience their jobs, and then – when relevant – act upon their suggestions about how the operation of the volunteer organization can be improved or let them choose tasks that best suit their capabilities.

Table 1 provides an overview of opportunities for empowering the volunteer organization that evolved from the present work (see also the section ‘implications for volunteer organizations’ in chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5). Volunteer organizations might do well to – in one way or another – implement these strategies in their volunteer policy in their efforts to recruit, content, and retain volunteers.

Table 1. Overview of opportunities for empowering the volunteer organization

Interventions	→ Psychological processes	→ Psychological Engagement	→ “Behavioral” Engagement
<i>Volunteer recruitment (non-volunteers)</i>			
Information about organizational support	Anticipated Respect as a volunteer	Attraction to the volunteer organization	Willingness to participate in the volunteer organization as a volunteer
<i>Volunteer retention (existing volunteers)</i>			
Importance of the volunteer work	Pride	Organizational Commitment - Normative - Affective	Intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization
Organizational support	Organization Respect		
<i>Volunteer contentment (existing volunteers)</i>			
Importance of the volunteer work	Pride		
Organizational support	Organization Respect	Satisfaction with the volunteer work	(Effort / performance)
Clientele appreciation/ Acceptance of help	Clientele Respect		
(Support for autonomy)	Satisfaction of autonomy needs	Satisfaction with the volunteer work	Intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization
(Promotion of relatedness)	Satisfaction of Relatedness needs		

Note. See also Boezeman and Ellemers (2007, 2008a, 2008b, in press) and Ellemers and Boezeman (in press).

Chapter 2

Pride, respect and the work motivation of volunteers

This chapter featured in the European Journal of Social Psychology, see

Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (2008a). Pride and respect in volunteers' organizational commitment. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 38, 159-172.

Theories of work motivation consider the factors that energize, direct, and sustain the efforts of individual employees on behalf of the work organization (e.g., Pinder, 1998). Instrumental considerations are often considered to constitute the primary reason that people connect to the organization, and are willing to work on its behalf (see Steers, Porter, & Bigley, 1996). Volunteer organizations lack instrumental means (e.g., wages) to engage and motivate their workers (Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993). Although volunteer work is of great importance to society (e.g., Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993), it is therefore often difficult for volunteer organizations to attract, motivate, and retain volunteers.

In the present paper, we focus on organizational commitment as a key motivational factor in volunteer organizations and examine whether the notion that feelings of pride and respect foster commitment to the organization (see Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) can be used to address and understand the commitment of volunteer workers. In doing this, we expand upon the social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization (see Tyler, 1999) to include antecedents of pride and respect that volunteer organizations can specifically address in order to enhance the commitment of their volunteers.

A social identity approach to pride and respect in organizations

A basic assumption in social identity and self-categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1987) is that people tend to think of themselves in terms of the groups and organizations to which they belong. As a result of social identification (or self-categorization) processes, people may develop a sense of psychological attachment to their organization(s) which can be an important predictor of their motivated behavior (Ellemers, 2001; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004). More specifically, on the basis of the social identity framework, Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) have proposed different models to understand how psychological engagement can develop when people see themselves as members of particular groups, organizations or societies. In line with social

identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) assume that people should become more psychologically engaged with an organization, to the extent that their membership in this organization contributes to a positive social identity. That is, Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) argue that the extent to which people can derive *pride* from the organization as well as the extent to which they receive *respect* within the organization, determine the extent to which their membership in the organization contributes to a positive identity. Hence, they for instance predict that pride and respect should induce a sense of commitment to the organization (see Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000). The term *pride* is used to refer to the conviction that the *organization* is positively valued; *respect* denotes the belief that the *self* is valued as a member of the organization (Tyler & Blader, 2002).

In their research among paid employees, Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) found that pride and respect were directly and positively associated with psychological engagement with the organization. Converging evidence for the proposed causality of this relation is found in experimental studies, showing that manipulations of pride (e.g., Branscombe, Spears, Ellemers, & Doosje, 2002) and respect in work groups (e.g., Sleebos, Ellemers, & De Gilder, 2006) induce psychological attachment to the group. Based on this reasoning and previous research among paid employees, we generally argue that when *volunteer workers* experience pride and respect, this should foster their sense of commitment to the volunteer organization (Fig. 1). In the present research we specifically focus on organizational commitment among volunteers and not on for instance cognitive identification with the volunteer organization, because it has been found (Riketta, 2005) that (affective) organizational commitment (instead of organizational identification) is especially relevant to predicting individual behavior and behavioral intentions on behalf of the organization (e.g., absenteeism, intent to stay).

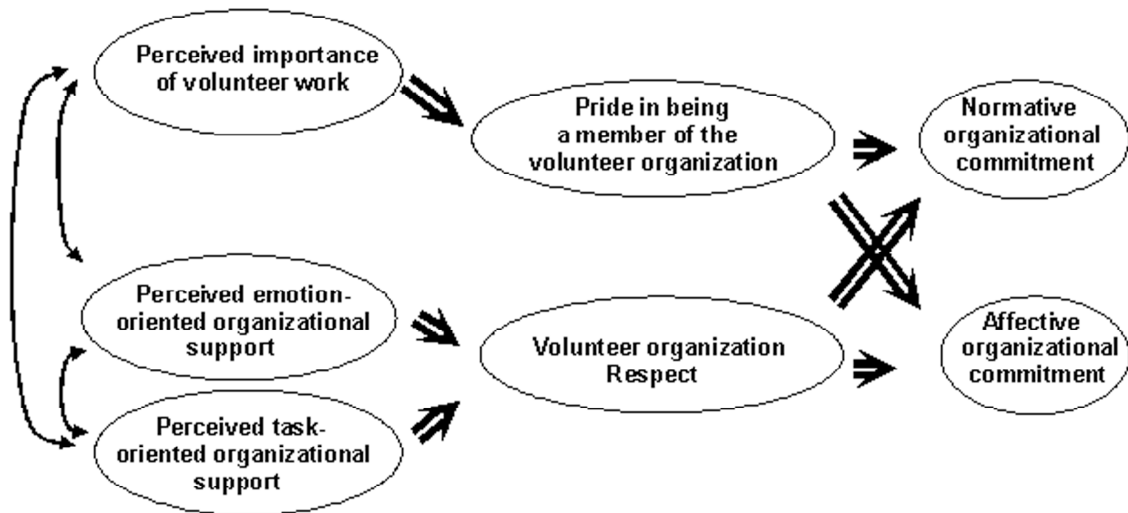


Figure 1. The predicted positive (cor)relation of the perceived importance of volunteer work and the perceived (emotion-oriented and task-oriented) organizational support with organizational commitment through pride and respect

Organizational commitment

In research among paid employees, organizational commitment emerges as a central indicator of work motivation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Meta-analyses show that commitment not only correlates with a variety of behavioral indicators, such as employee turnover, attendance, tardiness, and absenteeism (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), but that it is also strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995). This is consistent with the notion that commitment indicates workers' motivation to 'go the extra mile' for the organization. Organizational commitment also is relevant to the organizational behavior of volunteers (e.g., Dailey, 1986).

Organizational commitment has been assessed in different ways (Morrow, 1983; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). However, in the present research we adopt the conceptualization and measure developed by Allen and Meyer (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997), as it most clearly defines commitment as a *psychological* construct, that is, independently of the behavioral intentions people may have. Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997)

distinguish between *affective* and *normative* components of commitment. This distinction can also be made in the commitment of volunteer workers (e.g., Dawley, Stephens, & Stephens, 2005; Liao-Troth, 2001; Stephens, Dawley, & Stephens, 2004). In the present research we do not address the third component in Allen and Meyer's (1990) model, continuance commitment, as it refers to instrumental ties between the individual and the organization, and in previous research was found not to be relevant for volunteer workers (e.g., Liao-Troth, 2001; Stephens et al., 2004).

Affective commitment refers to a sense of emotional attachment to the organization. For example, where this is high one might feel such an emotional bond because one feels "part of the family" in the organization. Normative commitment refers to a feeling of responsibility to stay with the organization. Where this is high, one may for example feel that it is immoral to leave the organization because its mission is seen to be very worthy. These two components of commitment are of particular relevance in the case of volunteers. That is, in research among paid employees, normative commitment is generally found to be less strongly related to other variables of interest than affective commitment, and is therefore often considered as relatively unimportant (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). However, we propose that among volunteers, who tend to have less frequent and structured interactions with the organization and its members than paid workers (Pearce, 1993), moral considerations are likely to be just as important as the affective ties they have with others in the organization in determining their commitment to the organization.

Specifically, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Among volunteers the experience of pride in being a member of the volunteer organization and respect from the volunteer organization are directly and positively associated with affective and normative commitment to the volunteer organization.

Organizational antecedents of pride and respect

Based on previous theory and research, we have argued that organizational commitment is a key factor in the motivation of volunteer workers, and that pride and respect should foster commitment to the volunteer organization. However, for volunteer organizations to benefit from this knowledge, we should also establish which characteristics of the *volunteer organization* might possibly induce feelings of pride and respect among volunteers. Thus, to complement to previous findings regarding the antecedents of feelings of pride and respect among paid workers (see for instance Tyler & Blader, 2003; Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, Relyea, & Beu, 2006), we will now focus on antecedents of pride and respect that are relevant to the field of volunteer work.

Given that pride stems from the conviction that the organization is positively valued (Tyler & Blader, 2002), we argue that individual volunteers may take pride in their volunteer organization to the extent that they feel that it meets its primary goals of *helping* society and its members (Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993) through their work as a member of the volunteer organization. This reasoning is consistent with previous work (e.g., Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) indicating that volunteers are more satisfied and less likely to quit volunteering to the extent that they clearly perceive their volunteer efforts to benefit others. We thus hypothesize that the perceived importance of their work for the people the volunteer organization is trying to serve, affects volunteers' pride in the organization, which in turn should be related to organizational commitment (Fig. 1). Specifically, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2: Among volunteers the perceived importance of volunteer work is directly and positively associated with pride in being a member of the volunteer organization (2a), and the perceived importance of volunteer work is indirectly and positively associated with affective and normative organizational commitment through pride (2b).

Respect denotes the belief that the self is valued as a member of the organization (Tyler

and Blader, 2002), which can be communicated for instance by just treatment. Both in for-profit (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) *and* in volunteer organizations (Farmer & Fedor, 1999) the general provision of support is seen as a way for the organization to communicate that it values individual workers and cares for their well-being. Accordingly, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) indicate that perceived organizational support can yield important benefits, such as the feeling of being respected by the organization. Previous work on support for volunteers (Clary, 1987) distinguished between emotion-oriented support and task-oriented support.

Emotion-oriented support addresses the recipient's feelings and sense of well-being, conveying concern and appreciation for the individual volunteer. Task-oriented support refers to more concrete forms of assistance that directly facilitate task performance, and communicates in this way that the organization values the contributions of its volunteers. In volunteer organizations, funds and resources to provide support to volunteers tend to be quite limited (Pearce, 1993), and furthermore the aim of the volunteer organization is to help its clientele instead of paying attention to its volunteers. Therefore, we propose that both emotion- and task-oriented support from the volunteer organization directed to its volunteers can make volunteer workers feel respected by the organization (see also Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003), which in turn should be related to organizational commitment (Fig. 1). Specifically, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Among volunteers the perceived emotion-oriented and task-oriented organizational support is directly and positively associated with volunteer organization respect (3a), and the types of perceived organizational support are indirectly and positively associated with affective and normative organizational commitment through respect (3b).

Method

Participants. Participants were 89 fundraising volunteers from a Dutch volunteer organization

whose primary mission is to find a cure for cancer by funding relevant scientific research. The volunteers in this organization all have their own districts across the Netherlands in which they help the volunteer organization in setting up and managing its annual fundraising campaign on a local level. 94 questionnaires were returned by mail (response rate = 23.5%), and 89 were complete and could be used for the particular analysis of this study. The respondents' mean age was 57.3 ($SD = 11.4$), 84.3% were women, and 41.6% held paid jobs besides working as a volunteer. The sample is representative of volunteer workers in general, because volunteer work in volunteer organizations is commonly carried out by a majority of women volunteers (see for instance Greenslade & White, 2005; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Tidwell, 2005), and more specifically because the mean age of our volunteers is consistent with findings from Knulst and Van Eijck (2002) who report that in the Netherlands most volunteers are between 46 and 75 years of age.

Procedure. The volunteers received a survey with an accompanying letter in which they were asked for their participation by the volunteer organization and the researchers, told that the volunteer organization needed their opinion to improve its volunteer policy, and guaranteed anonymity. The volunteers participating in the study sent their surveys in a self-addressed return envelope to the volunteer organization, which handed the envelopes *unopened* to the researchers.

Measures. Measures were adapted from validated scales or consisted of existing scales that were translated into Dutch. When necessary, items were adjusted to be more appropriate to volunteer work as is common practice in research among volunteers (e.g., Tidwell, 2005). All items are listed in Table 3, together with their factor loadings. Responses were recorded on 5-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 5 = *totally agree*). We measured the *perceived importance of the volunteer work* with items based on the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). We measured the *perceived emotion-oriented* and *task-oriented*

organizational support with items based on the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). *Pride* was assessed with items adapted from the autonomous pride scale, and we measured volunteer organization *respect* with items adapted from the autonomous respect scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002). *Commitment* to the volunteer organization was measured with items adapted from the scales developed by De Gilder, Van den Heuvel, and Ellemers (1997), based on the work of Allen and Meyer (1990). As *control* variables we asked participants to indicate their age, gender, and the number of years of tenure in the volunteer organization.

Results

Preliminary analyses. We calculated average scores for each of the intended scales to inspect scale reliabilities and to conduct preliminary analyses of the correlations among the constructs (see Table 1). All scale reliabilities were .75 or higher. Correlations between model parameters were significant and in the direction predicted by the model. Of the control variables, age and gender were not associated with any of the model variables, thus these were not included in further analyses. Because reliable correlations were observed between years of tenure and several model variables, we controlled whether the relationship with organizational tenure might spuriously account for the interrelations between these variables. We therefore calculated partial correlations between these model variables, correcting for the variance in organizational tenure. However, when controlling for organizational tenure, the partial correlations between emotion-oriented support and respect ($r = .61, p < .001$), task-oriented support and respect ($r = .53, p < .001$), pride and affective commitment ($r = .59, p < .001$), and respect and affective commitment ($r = .55, p < .001$) all remained intact. As a result, we decided that tenure in the organization is not relevant to the structural relations between these variables in the hypothesized model (Fig. 1), and we did not include tenure as a variable in further analyses.

Table 1 *Correlations between averaged constructs*

(N = 89)	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Importance work	4.16	.61	(.80)								
2. Emotion-oriented org. support	4.35	.63	.27*	(.92)							
3. Task-oriented org. support	4.13	.72	.40**	.39**	(.84)						
4. Pride	3.86	.82	.64**	.39**	.39**	(.86)					
5. Org. Respect	4.02	.60	.49**	.64**	.56**	.61**	(.82)				
6. Affective org. commitment	3.47	.78	.49**	.32**	.33**	.62**	.58**	(.83)			
7. Normative org. commitment	4.01	.67	.37**	.25*	.25*	.39**	.42**	.47**	(.75)		
8. Age ^a	57.3	11.4	-.07	-.02	.03	-.10	.04	.07	-.01	-	
9. Gender	-	-	.13	.18	.05	.04	.02	.07	.12	-.03	-
10. Tenure ^a	18.5	11.4	.15	.22*	.21*	.37**	.29**	.24*	.16	.57**	.00

Note. Alpha coefficients in the parentheses; ^a N = 88 due to a missing value; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Measurement analysis. We conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) in order to examine whether the items should be clustered as predicted. We report the chi-square (χ^2), the Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as omnibus fit indexes. In the case of measurement analysis (as well as structural analysis), these typically indicate model fit when the values of NNFI and CFI are between .90 and 1, and when RMSEA is less than .10 (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

The hypothesized 7-factor model showed an acceptable fit to the data of $\chi^2(149, N = 89) = 195, p < .01$, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, and RMSEA = .06 (Table 2). In order to further examine the validity of the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model, we subsequently tested this model against alternative measurement models (Table 3). For instance, we tested the

hypothesized measurement model against the 6A-factor measurement model in which affective and normative organizational commitment were merged into one aggregate factor, that was constructed because the different types of organizational commitment could have been understood as merely reflecting a global sense of organizational commitment by the respondents, as suggested by the correlation between these two constructs ($r = .47, p < .01$). Furthermore, before addressing our hypotheses that the independent latent variables (i.e., perceived importance of volunteer work and organizational support) are antecedents, in view of the correlations between the antecedents on the one hand and pride and respect on the other, in this case we specifically needed to establish that the antecedents can be seen as distinct constructs from its criterion variable (i.e., pride or respect). Thus, we constructed alternative measurement models in which we merged each type of presumed antecedent with its criterion variable (i.e., pride or respect), in order to examine whether these can be actually considered separate constructs. Finally, because pride sometimes shares overlap with organizational identification on the measurement level, and because organizational identification itself is conceptually and empirically closely related to (but distinct from) affective organizational commitment (Riketta, 2005), we also tested an alternative measurement model in order to establish whether pride and affective organizational commitment are distinct constructs in the present research. In sum, as can be seen in Table 3, the alternative measurement models fitted the data significantly less well than the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model in terms of omnibus fit indexes as well as in terms of chi-square differences tests. Thus, the items are best clustered as intended, supporting the distinction we make between the hypothesized constructs. Furthermore, the fact that the one-factor measurement model does not have acceptable fit (Table 3) indicates that a single factor does not adequately account for the covariation among the items. This provides (initial) evidence against bias from common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, &

Table 2 Standardized Parameter Estimates of Factor Loadings, R^2 's, and Item Means

Questionnaire Items	Factor Loadings		
	Factor Loadings	R^2	Item means
Perceived Importance of Volunteer Work			
1.) "I perceive that my volunteer work benefits the <clientele of volunteer organization>"	.64	.41	3.73
2.) "My voluntary effort really benefits <name volunteer organization>"	.82	.67	4.39
3.) "My volunteer work is of importance for <mission volunteer organization>"	.89	.78	4.36
Perceived Emotion-oriented Organizational Support			
1.) "<Name volunteer organization> appreciates the effort of her volunteers"	.90	.80	4.44
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> lets her volunteers frequently know that she appreciates their effort"	.83	.69	4.27
3.) "<Name volunteer organization> expresses its appreciation to its volunteers"	.96	.92	4.35
Perceived Task-oriented Organizational Support			
1.) "<Name volunteer organization> assists me sufficiently in my volunteer work"	.90	.80	4.27
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> advices and assists me in my volunteer work"	.81	.65	3.98
Pride			
1.) "I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause"	.84	.70	3.75

2.) "I am proud of being a member of <name
volunteer organization>" .82 .67 4.00

3.) "I feel good when people describe me as
a typical volunteer" .81 .65 3.82

Volunteer organization Respect

1.) "I feel respected as a volunteer by
<name volunteer organization>" .81 .65 4.10

2.) "<Name volunteer organization> values my
contribution as a volunteer" .83 .69 4.18

3.) "<Name volunteer organization> cares about
my opinion as a volunteer" .70 .49 3.79

Affective organizational Commitment

1.) "I feel like part of the family at <name
volunteer organization>" .75 .56 3.26

2.) "<Name volunteer organization> has personal
meaning to me" .84 .70 3.89

3.) "I feel as if the problems of <name volunteer
organization> are my own" .78 .60 3.25

Normative organizational Commitment

1.) "I feel morally responsible to work as a
volunteer for <mission volunteer organization>" .87 .76 3.91

2.) "I feel morally responsible to work as a volunteer
for charity" .59 .35 3.80

3.) "One of the major reasons I continue to work for
<name volunteer organization> is that I find
<mission volunteer organization> important" .71 .50 4.33

Table 3 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results*

(N = 89)						
Model	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
7-factor measurement model	195***		149	.94	.96	.06
6A-factor measurement model ^A	234***	39***	155	.90	.92	.08
6B-factor measurement model ^B	271***	76***	155	.86	.89	.09
6C-factor measurement model ^C	231***	36***	155	.91	.93	.08
6D-factor measurement model ^D	236***	41***	155	.90	.92	.08
6E-factor measurement model ^E	278***	83***	155	.85	.88	.10
6F-factor measurement model ^F	234***	39***	155	.91	.92	.08
1-factor measurement model	572***	377***	170	.56	.61	.16

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates the deviation of each alternative model compared to the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model.

^A Affective + normative organizational commitment, ^B Perceived task-oriented + perceived emotion-oriented organizational support, ^C Perceived importance of volunteer work + pride, ^D Perceived task-oriented organizational support + respect,

^E Perceived emotion-oriented organizational support + respect. ^F Pride + affective organizational commitment. *** $p < .001$.

Podsakoff, 2003).

Structural analysis. We used SEM executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) to test whether the hypothesized model (Fig. 1) and its structural relationships are supported by the data. The statistics we obtained when testing the fit of the overall model were $\chi^2(160, N = 89) = 233, p < .001$, NNFI = .92, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .07. These statistics indicate that overall the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) fits the empirical data well.

At this stage we tested the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) against two alternative structural models. First, we tested a partially mediated model (examining whether importance of volunteer work and the two forms of organizational support directly predict organizational commitment in addition to the paths shown in Fig. 1) to address the full mediation nature of the hypothesized structural model. The statistics obtained were $\chi^2(154, N = 89) = 226, p < .001$, NNFI = .91, CFI = .93, and RMSEA = .07. A chi-square differences test showed that the fit of the partially mediated model is not significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2_6 = 7, ns$) from the more

parsimonious hypothesized model (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the Wald Test generated by EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) indicated that the additional direct paths under examination could be omitted from the alternative model without substantial loss in model fit. Second, we tested an alternative model in which the directionality of *all* the structural relations was reversed, to examine whether this offers a better representation of the interrelations between the latent constructs. However, in this reversed causal order model neither the association between normative organizational commitment and pride ($\beta = -.02, ns$) nor the association between normative organizational commitment and respect ($\beta = .02, ns$) was significant. Furthermore, the Wald Test indicated that in the reversed model the paths from normative organizational commitment to pride and respect could be omitted from the reversed order model without substantial loss in model fit. This disconfirms the possibility that the reverse causal model provides an adequate representation of these data (cf. Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999). On the basis of these tests of alternative models, we accepted the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) as the final model and proceeded with the examination of the hypothesized relationships among the latent variables.

We predicted that among volunteers the perceived importance of volunteer work is associated with pride (Hypothesis 2a) and that perceived organizational support is associated with volunteer organization respect (Hypothesis 3a). These predictions were supported by the SEM-analysis. The perceived importance of volunteer work is directly and positively associated with pride ($\beta = .73, p < .001, R^2 = .53$), and the emotion-oriented ($\beta = .50, p < .001$) and task-oriented organizational support ($\beta = .48, p < .001$) are directly and positively associated with respect. The two types of perceived organizational support jointly account for 68% of the variance in volunteer organization respect.

We predicted that among volunteers both pride and respect are associated with organizational commitment (Hypothesis 1). This hypothesis was also supported by the SEM-

analysis. Pride is directly and positively associated with both affective ($\beta = .59, p < .001$) and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = .35, p < .05$). Respect is directly and positively associated with both affective ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = .27, p < .05$). Pride and respect jointly account for 57% of the variance in affective organizational commitment and for 25% of the variance in normative organizational commitment.

Finally, we predicted (Hypotheses 2b and 3b) that the independent latent variables (the perceived importance of volunteer work and perceived organizational support) relate to organizational commitment through pride and respect, respectively. These hypotheses were also supported by the SEM-analysis. The results show an indirect and positive relation of the perceived importance of volunteer work with affective ($\beta = .43, p < .001$) and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = .25, p < .05$), through pride. The results also show an indirect and positive relation of perceived emotion-oriented organizational support with affective ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = .14, p \leq .05$), through respect. Likewise, we observed a significant indirect and positive relation between task-oriented support and affective ($\beta = .16, p \leq .01$) as well as normative organizational commitment ($\beta = .13, p \leq .05$), through respect. These results support the structural model we hypothesized (Fig. 1), and for an overview the final model is represented in Figure 2.

General Discussion

In line with our theoretical model (Fig. 1) based on the work of Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003), we found that pride and respect are directly and positively associated with organizational commitment among volunteer workers (H1), that the perceived importance of volunteer work is an antecedent of pride (H2a) (and of organizational commitment through pride, H2b), and that perceived organizational support is an antecedent of respect (H3a) (and of organizational commitment through respect, H3b).

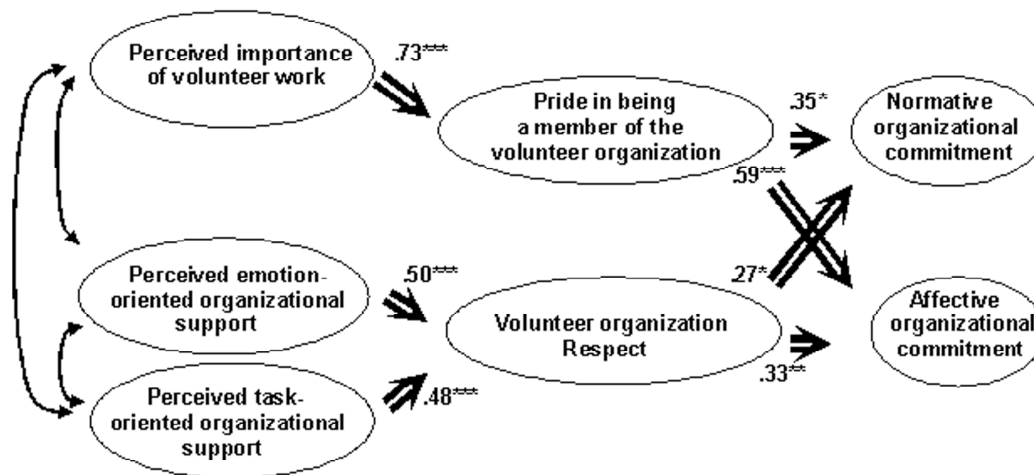


Figure 2. Results of the hypothesized structural model. Notes: Indirect effects can be calculated by multiplying the standardized regression coefficients of the relevant paths, and all indirect paths are significant. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

This study shows that theoretical notions about pride and respect can be used to understand the organizational commitment of workers in volunteer organizations. Furthermore, this research elucidates how pride and respect can develop in response to specific characteristics of the volunteer organization, namely the extent to which it successfully conveys information about the importance of volunteer work, and the extent to which it communicates a sense of emotion- and task-support for its members. We think these are important contributions that have practical as well as theoretical significance. In particular, this knowledge may help volunteer organizations develop concrete policies and measures that induce pride and respect, as a means to foster commitment to the volunteer organization. More specifically, the results suggest that volunteer organizations can possibly induce feelings of pride among their volunteers, for instance by arranging informal meetings between their volunteers and the clientele of the organization so that the volunteers have the opportunity to hear from the organization's beneficiaries what the efforts of the volunteers mean to them. Furthermore, the results suggest that volunteer organizations can possibly

enhance feelings of respect from the organization among their volunteers, for instance by letting their volunteer coordinators communicate (e.g., in a regular newsletter) that the organization appreciates the volunteers' donations of time and effort (emotion-oriented support) or by compiling a manual that provides guidelines for the volunteer activities that have to be carried out (task-oriented support).

Of course, this study also has its limitations, as it examines correlational data from cross-sectional self-reports provided by a relatively small sample of volunteers in a single organization. Indeed, the robustness of these findings should be cross-validated in future research, using additional methodologies and examining a broader range of volunteers from different organizations. However, there are a number of indications that the results we obtained do reflect meaningful relations between the hypothesized constructs. *First*, when we addressed the possibility of common method variance, we found that a one-factor measurement model did not fit the data, making it less likely that the observed relations stem from a methodological bias (cf. Podsakoff et al., 2003). *Second*, our interpretation of these data not only reflects the causal relationships proposed in the theoretical framework that we used (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tyler, 1999), but is also consistent with research among paid employees (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) as well as results from relevant experimental work (e.g., Branscombe et al., 2002; Sleebos et al., 2006). *Third*, we have empirically addressed the possibility that the causal relations between the model variables might be different, but these alternative models could not account for the present data. Thus, despite the limitations of the present study, we think it offers an interesting and important first step into this new area of research.

There still is much to be known about commitment in volunteer organizations and the way it relates to organizational behavior of volunteer workers (Dailey, 1986; Pearce, 1993). Future research in this area could address how different foci of commitment that are relevant

for paid employees (e.g., Becker, 1992) relate to the commitment and organizational behavior of volunteer workers, as it is not self-evident that parallel relations should occur. For instance, whereas the interaction with colleagues in one's work team often constitutes the primary source of commitment in regular employment situations (Ellemers, De Gilder, & Van den Heuvel, 1998), team relations may be less important as a source of commitment for volunteer workers, whose interactions with fellow volunteers are likely to be less frequent and less structured (Pearce, 1993). Instead, it may well be that for volunteer workers, their commitment to the plight of the people the organization is trying to serve (customer commitment, cf. Reichers, 1985) is more important.

The reason that we considered commitment as the focal variable in this research, is the key role it is supposed to play in the motivation of volunteer workers (Dailey, 1986). Accordingly, future research might further explore how (different forms of) commitment affect(s) different behavioral efforts volunteer workers are expected to make. For instance, in line with what we know about paid employees, organizational commitment among volunteer workers should predict their tendency to remain involved with the organization, as well as their willingness to participate in concrete volunteer activities.

The literature is currently lacking models that can explain why people engage in volunteer work (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Furthermore, there is very little that we know about the things *a volunteer organization can do* to promote volunteerism (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Thus, we think that our conclusion that pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) are relevant to the organizational commitment of volunteer workers, as well as the notion that it is possible to identify concrete characteristics of the volunteer organization that tend to instill pride and respect, offers a novel and promising perspective to theory development and the research on the organizational behavior of volunteers.

Chapter 3

Pride, respect and the organizational commitment of
volunteer workers

This chapter featured in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, see

Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (2007). Volunteering for charity: Pride, respect, and the commitment of volunteers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 771-785.

Volunteer work is labor in an organizational context, unpaid and without any obligations, for the benefit of others and/or society (e.g., Meijs, 1997). In order for a volunteer organization to function effectively it is necessary that its individual volunteers perform and attend as relied upon. Volunteer organizations are often confronted with non-performance and non-attendance of volunteers as a result of the characteristics of volunteer work (e.g., the absence of obligations in volunteer work), and this problem is referred to as the reliability problem (Pearce, 1993). The reliability problem (Pearce, 1993) is not easily solved, for example because reward structures that operate to motivate and retain paid workers (e.g., pay, promotion, etc.) are not available in volunteer organizations. Dailey's (1986) observation that researchers largely neglect the organizational behavior of volunteers is still valid. Researchers (e.g., Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993; Wilson, 2000) have noted that there still is much to be known about the organizational behavior of volunteers. In the present research we adopt an organizational perspective, extending the social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) to examine commitment and cooperative intent among volunteer workers, with the aim to develop insights that have the potential to be used to address volunteers' contributions to their organizations.

A social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization

Social identity theory (SIT), developed by Tajfel and Turner (1979), has been used to understand the behavior of individuals in social groups and organizations, and has been found useful as a conceptual framework to examine volunteer organizations (Cadinu & Cerchioni, 2001; Tidwell, 2005). One of the assumptions in SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) is that people think of themselves as psychologically linked to the groups and organizations to which they belong (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000), and that people consider characteristics that apply to the group or organization relevant for the self

(Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004). This process is called social identification (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). On the basis of SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) have argued that the social identification process links the individual to the organization and that this connection leads to cooperation with the organization to the degree that the organization contributes favorably to the self-image of the individual. More specifically, Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) have argued that members of an organization evaluate the status of their organization (pride) as well as their individual status within their organization (respect), to determine the favorability of their relationship with the organization. Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) posit that both pride and respect can lead to a range of behaviors that benefit the organization. In the view of Tyler and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002), behaviors aimed at the benefit of the organization as well as behavioral intentions on behalf of the organization manifest cooperation with the organization. The latter form of cooperation will be addressed in the present research.

Tyler and Blader (2002) indicate that pride and respect can be defined both comparatively and autonomously. In general, pride reflects the evaluation that one is part of an organization with high status, and respect reflects the evaluation that one is accepted, appreciated, and valued as a member of the organization (e.g., Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000). Although pride and respect are often described in comparative terms, Tyler and Blader (2002) argue that when making such evaluative judgments in practice, these comparisons often remain implicit or hypothetical. This is why they have also conceptualized and measured pride and respect as autonomous beliefs, that refer to the way people evaluate their organization (pride) or perceive their own position within the organization (respect) without making explicit comparisons with other organizations or with other individuals in the organization (Tyler & Blader, 2002). In the present research, we define and measure pride and respect

autonomously. Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) further argue that pride and respect are crucial for the motivation and performance of individuals in organizations because people respond to favorable identity-relevant information by developing a sense of psychological attachment to the organization, which is denoted as identification or commitment.

Pride, respect, and psychological attachment to the organization

Organizational commitment is a form of psychological attachment to the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000) argue that it is commitment to the organization, based on pride and respect, which leads people to voluntarily cooperate with their organization (see also Ellemers et al., 2004; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Van den Heuvel, 1998). Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000) examined the validity of this model for *paid employees* and found empirical evidence that pride and respect are associated with feelings of commitment and certain behaviors and behavioral intentions that can be seen as indicating cooperation with the organization (e.g., loyalty, intent to remain). Additionally, results from *experimental* studies (e.g., Branscombe, Spears, Ellemers, & Doosje, 2002; Doosje, Spears, & Ellemers, 2002; Ellemers, Wilke, & Van Knippenberg, 1993; Sleebos, Ellemers, & De Gilder, 2006; Simon & Stürmer, 2003) show results that support the reasoning offered by the social identity-based model of cooperation. That is, empirical findings consistently show that experimental manipulations of pride (Doosje et al., 2002; Ellemers et al., 1993) and respect in work groups (Branscombe et al., 2002; Sleebos et al., 2006; Simon & Stürmer, 2003) induce psychological attachment to, and behavioral effort on behalf of, the group. Thus, the validity of the theoretical reasoning offered in the social-identity based model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) is supported by correlational data as well as experimental research.

Organizational commitment is relevant to volunteers (Dailey, 1986), in particular because it can be shaped independently from material rewards (cf. Ellemers et al., 1998; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005). Indeed, organizational commitment has been found to be related to withdrawal cognitions (intentions to remain or leave) among both paid workers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) *and* volunteers (Jenner, 1981; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990). For instance, in an investigation among female volunteers Jenner (1981) found that organizational commitment is positively associated with plans to stay a volunteer at the service of the volunteer organization. Likewise, Miller et al. (1990) found that organizational commitment is negatively associated with the intention to leave among hospital volunteers. Importantly, as volunteer work is unpaid and not obligatory (Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993), it is easy for volunteers to act upon their desire to leave the organization (Pearce, 1993) and therefore the willingness of volunteer workers to stay in the organization remains important, irrespective of, for instance, their tenure in the volunteer organization or their level of job embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2002).

Types of organizational commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) have made a distinction between 3 different types of organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment refers to a sense of emotional attachment to the organization. One might feel such an emotional bond with an organization, for instance, because one feels “part of the family” at the organization and feels as if the problems of the organization are ones own. Normative organizational commitment refers to a feeling of responsibility to stay with the organization. For instance, one may feel that it is immoral to leave the organization because of the mission of the organization. Continuance organizational commitment is a calculative form of attachment to the organization that binds the individual to the organization because important costs are

associated with leaving the organization (e.g., loss of pension benefits). Given their specific nature, the types of organizational commitment operate differently in psychologically attaching the individual to the organization and in the behavior of individuals within the organization. The 3-component model of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) has been used extensively to examine employee involvement in for-profit organizations (see for an overview Meyer et al., 2002). The findings generally converge to the conclusion that affective commitment is most strongly related to attendance and performance on the job. Continuance commitment may tie the individual to the organization, but is often related negatively to work-relevant behaviors because of its calculative nature. Normative commitment is usually found to be less clearly associated with employee behavior in for-profit organizations than affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

On the basis of the definition of volunteer work (e.g., Meijs, 1997), we suggest that the 3 types of organizational commitment operate differently in non-profit volunteer organizations as compared to for-profit organizations. Given the calculative nature of continuance organizational commitment one may expect that this type of organizational commitment is less relevant to volunteers because volunteer work is not bound by legal obligations and occurs without material benefits. Indeed, Liao-Troth (2001) examined attitude differences between paid workers and volunteers and concluded that continuance organizational commitment is not relevant to (hospital) volunteers. Converging evidence for this position can be found in the research of Stephens, Dawley, and Stephens (2004) and Dawley, Stephens, and Stephens (2005), which consistently demonstrates that continuance commitment (related to personal sacrifice) is irrelevant among (board member) volunteers. Accordingly, in the present research we do not focus on continuance organizational commitment. As for affective and normative organizational commitment, these are as likely to be relevant in volunteer organizations as in for-profit organizations. Indeed, both affective and normative

organizational commitment emerged as relevant correlates of (perceived) volunteer participation in research carried out by Preston and Brown (2004), Stephens et al. (2004), and Dawley et al. (2005) among board member volunteers. Accordingly, in our research we will assess affective as well as normative organizational commitment.

We propose that the model of Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) can offer a unique perspective to examine commitment and cooperative intent among volunteer workers, and can help address the reliability problem (Pearce, 1993). This research is the first that we know of to connect this theoretical approach to the field of volunteer work. Based on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) as a conceptual framework and in line with previous research (e.g., Branscombe et al., 2002; Doosje et al., 2002; Ellemers et al., 1993; Jenner, 1981; Miller et al., 1990; Sleebos et al., 2006; Simon & Stürmer, 2003; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Among volunteers the experience of pride in being a member of the volunteer organization and the experience of respect from the volunteer organization are directly and positively associated with affective and normative commitment to the volunteer organization.

Hypothesis 2: Among volunteers pride and respect are indirectly and positively associated with cooperative intent on behalf of the volunteer organization (intention to remain) through organizational commitment.

As for the relative importance of affective and normative organizational commitment, when Preston and Brown (2004) compared the relative strength of the relations between affective and normative commitment on the one hand and (perceived) participation of board members on the other (using hierarchical regression analyses), they concluded that affective organizational commitment is most strongly associated with (perceived) volunteer performance. Similar observations have been made in other research among board member volunteers (Dawley et al., 2005; Stephens et al., 2004). However, we argue that such findings

may be specific for board member volunteers, and likely not generalize to all types of volunteer workers. Indeed, both at the theoretical and at the empirical level, different groups of volunteers can be distinguished, based on their self-chosen level of interest and effort invested in the volunteer organization (Pearce, 1993). Compared to board member volunteers, volunteers who (choose to) contribute to the volunteer organization on an occasional basis will tend to be less informed of broader issues concerning the volunteer organization, interact less frequently with the organization and its members, and can generally be seen as less emotionally involved with the volunteer organization and its activities (Pearce, 1993). Therefore, although occasional volunteers do contribute to the volunteer organization, it is less likely that they do so on the basis of affective ties to the organization than would be the case for board member volunteers. Indeed, we argue that it is more likely that occasional volunteers act upon their normative commitment to the organization, which focuses on perceived responsibility and more abstract morality concerns, instead of relying on interpersonal interactions and affective ties with the organization. Indeed, personal normative beliefs are considered a general driving force in the field of volunteer work (see for instance Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998). Thus, we predict that:

Hypothesis 3: Among volunteers working on an occasional basis (i.e., fundraising volunteers working for an occasional fundraising campaign) normative organizational commitment is more strongly associated with behavioral intent on behalf of the volunteer organization (intention to remain) than is affective organizational commitment.

In sum, Study 1 applies the social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) to the field of volunteer work, and addresses the relative importance of affective and normative organizational commitment among (occasional) volunteer workers. The hypotheses we derived are graphically represented in Figure 1. In Study 1, we examine empirical support for this hypothesized



Figure 1. Pride and respect as directly and positively associated with organizational commitment (Hypothesis 1), and as indirectly and positively associated with behavioral intent on behalf of the volunteer organization through organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2).

model in a volunteer fundraising organization, with the use of Structural Equation Modeling.

Study 1

Method

Participants. Participants in this study were 251 volunteers working on an occasional basis for a Dutch volunteer organization whose primary mission is to find a cure for diabetes by funding relevant research. Once a year this volunteer organization (that is in business all year through) has permission to gather funds among the general Dutch public during one week and this task is carried out by fundraising volunteers of the volunteer organization. Specifically, the fundraising volunteers of this study all have their own districts across the Netherlands in which they help the volunteer organization in setting up and managing the fundraising campaign on a local level. Although most of the work of these fundraising volunteers is concentrated in one week a year, they are required to invest additional preparation time in advance of the fundraising week. Furthermore, although the contribution of the fundraising volunteers is occasional, there is an ongoing relationship between the volunteer organization and these volunteers all year through. That is, on the basis of their fundraising activities these volunteers, for instance, sometimes are contacted for additional

occasional volunteer work within the volunteer organization.

202 of the 251 questionnaires were filled out by actual fundraising volunteers¹, and only 170 were complete and could be used for the analysis of this study in which testing the model requires complete cases. Of the 170 people who returned usable questionnaires, 76.5% were women. This is representative for volunteer organizations in general, which are often characterized by a majority of female volunteers (e.g., Greenslade & White, 2005; Miller et al., 1990; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Tidwell, 2005). The respondents' mean age was 52.8 ($SD = 11.3$), which is in line with the observations of Knulst and Van Eijck (2002) who report that in the Netherlands most volunteers are between 46 and 75 years of age. The mean number of years that the volunteers had been working for this organization was 10.41 ($SD = 7$), which reflects the ongoing relationship between the volunteer organization and its volunteers. 45.8% of the respondents held paid jobs besides working as a volunteer. 85.4% of the respondents reported to have infrequent contact with the other volunteers, which is consistent with our characterization of these volunteers and their activities.

Procedure. Randomly selected fundraising volunteers were mailed a survey and a form in which they were notified about additional needs for volunteer work within the volunteer organization. In an accompanying letter the volunteers were asked for their participation by the volunteer organization and the researchers, were told that the volunteer organization needed their opinion to improve its volunteer policy, and were guaranteed anonymity. The volunteers participating in the study then sent their surveys in a self-addressed return envelope to the volunteer organization, which handed them *unopened* to the researchers.

Measures. All measures were adapted from validated Dutch scales or consisted of existing scales that were translated into Dutch (see Table 3). Where necessary, items were

¹ This is a reflection of the fact that volunteer organizations often do not keep records of their volunteers up to date (cf. Meijs, 1997).

adjusted to be more appropriate to volunteer work, as is common practice in research among volunteers (e.g., Tidwell, 2005). All responses were recorded on 5-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 5 = *totally agree*).

We measured *pride* with 3 items adapted from the autonomous pride scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002) e.g., “I am proud of being a member of <name of the volunteer organization>” ($\alpha = .87$).

We measured volunteer organization *respect* with 3 items adapted from the autonomous respect scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002) e.g., “I feel respected as a volunteer by <name volunteer organization>” ($\alpha = .84$).

Commitment to the volunteer organization was measured with 3 items adapted from the Dutch version of the affective organizational commitment scale, e.g., “<Name volunteer organization> has personal meaning to me” ($\alpha = .84$), and 3 items adapted from the Dutch version of the normative organizational commitment scale, e.g., “One of the major reasons I continue to work for <name volunteer organization> is that I find <mission volunteer organization> important” ($\alpha = .78$), by De Gilder, Van den Heuvel, and Ellemers (1997) that are based on the work of Allen and Meyer (1990).

We measured behavioral intent on behalf of the volunteer organization (*cooperation*) by asking volunteers to indicate their intention to remain with the volunteer organization (see Miller et al., 1990) as a volunteer ($\alpha = .79$), for instance by asking: “How likely is it that you will continue your work as a volunteer at <name volunteer organization> for the next two years?”. The form included with the questionnaire through which volunteers were notified about the need for additional volunteer work within the volunteer organization implicitly conveyed that this was not just a hypothetical question.

*Results***Table 1** *Correlations between averaged constructs of Study 1*

(N = 170)	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	
1. Pride	3.44	.85	-					
2. Volunteer organization respect	3.55	.68	.38**	-				
3. Affective commitment	2.96	.83	.52**	.49**	-			
4. Normative commitment	3.95	.75	.48**	.39**	.48**	-		
5. Intention to remain	4.24	.82	.26**	.24**	.18*	.33**	-	
6. Number of years of active volunteering for the organization ^a	10.41	7.03	.13	.19*	.22**	.21**	.02	-

Note. ^a N = 148 due to missing values. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Preliminary analyses. We calculated average scores for each of the intended scales to conduct preliminary analyses of the correlations among the different constructs. The variables were associated in the way we expected (see Table 1). Because the number of years of active volunteering for the organization is associated with organizational respect, affective organizational commitment, and normative organizational commitment, we examined whether this affected the hypothesized relation between volunteer organization respect on the one hand and the 2 types of organizational commitment on the other. When we corrected for the number of years of active volunteering, the partial correlation between respect and affective organizational commitment remained intact ($r = .46, p < .001$). Likewise, after controlling for the number of years of active volunteering, a correlation between respect and normative organizational commitment was also retained ($r = .37, p < .001$). As a result, we decided not to include the number of years of active volunteering as a control variable in the hypothesized model (Fig. 1).

Measurement analysis. In order to examine whether the items should be clustered as

predicted, before examining the relations between the hypothesized constructs, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004). We report the chi-square (χ^2), the Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as omnibus fit indexes in both the *measurement analysis* and the *structural analysis*. The omnibus fit indexes typically indicate model fit when the values of NNFI and CFI are between .90 and 1, and when RMSEA is less than .10 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). We report chi-square differences tests to compare the fit of different alternative models to the hypothesized measurement model. The results of the confirmatory factor analyses are summarized in Tables 2 and 3.

We first tested the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model, which showed acceptable fit to the data of $\chi^2(67, N = 170) = 115, p < .001, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, \text{ and } RMSEA = .07$ (see Table 2). In order to further examine the validity of the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model, we subsequently tested the model against alternative measurement models. In the alternative 4A-factor measurement model affective and normative organizational commitment were merged into one aggregate factor, because the different types of organizational commitment could have been understood as merely reflecting a global sense of organizational commitment by the respondents, as suggested by the correlation between these 2 constructs ($r = .48, p < .01$). Furthermore, before we examine the hypothesis that pride and respect predict organizational commitment, in view of the correlations between pride and respect on the one hand and organizational commitment on the other, we first needed to establish whether these can actually be considered separate constructs. Thus, we examined additional 4-factor measurement models in which pride and respect were merged with each type of organizational commitment. As can be seen in Table 3, the alternative measurement models fitted the data significantly less well than the hypothesized measurement

Table 2 *Standardized Parameter Estimates of Factor Loadings, R^2 's, and Item Means*

(N = 170)		5-Factor Measurement Model		
Questionnaire	Factor		Item	
Items	loadings	R^2	means	
Pride				
1.) "I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause"	.87	.75	3.27	
2.) "I am proud of being a member of <name volunteer organization>"	.84	.70	3.55	
3.) "I feel good when people describe me as a typical volunteer"	.79	.62	3.50	
Volunteer organization Respect				
1.) "I feel respected as a volunteer by <name volunteer organization>"	.72	.51	3.82	
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> listens to what I have to say about volunteer work"	.84	.70	3.40	
3.) "<Name volunteer organization> cares about my opinion as a volunteer"	.86	.73	3.42	
Affective organizational Commitment				
1.) "I feel like part of the family at <name volunteer organization>"	.93	.86	2.76	
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> has personal meaning to me"	.67	.44	3.36	
3.) "I feel as if the problems of <name volunteer organization> are my own"	.83	.68	2.81	
Normative organizational Commitment				
1.) "I feel morally responsible to work as a	.92	.84	3.81	

volunteer for <mission organization>”			
2.) “I feel morally responsible to work as a	.62	.38	3.82
volunteer for charity”			
3.) “One of the major reasons I continue to work	.71	.50	4.21
for <name volunteer organization> is that I			
find <mission volunteer organization>			
important”			
Intent to remain			
1.) “How likely is it that you will quit your work	.77	.59	4.29
as a volunteer at <name volunteer			
organization> within the next 6 months?”			
(reverse scored)			
2.) “How likely is it that you will continue your	.84	.70	4.19
work as a volunteer at <volunteer organization>			
for the next two years?”			

Table 3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Study Variables Study 1

Model	df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
5-factor measurement model	67	115***		.94	.96	.07
4A-factor measurement model ^a	71	235***	120***	.82	.86	.12
4B-factor measurement model ^b	71	252***	137***	.80	.84	.12
4C-factor measurement model ^c	71	221***	106***	.83	.87	.11
4D-factor measurement model ^d	71	256***	141***	.80	.84	.12
4E-factor measurement model ^e	71	259***	144***	.79	.84	.13
1-factor measurement model	77	542***	427***	.52	.60	.19

Note. $N = 170$. $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates the deviation of each alternative model compared to the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model. ^a Combining affective and normative commitment, ^b Combining pride and affective commitment, ^c Combining pride and normative commitment, ^d Combining respect and affective commitment, ^e Combining respect and normative commitment. *** $p < .001$.

model in terms of omnibus fit indexes as well as in terms of chi-square differences tests. In sum, the confirmatory factor analyses indicate that the items are best clustered as intended, supporting the validity of the hypothesized constructs.

The fact that the 1-factor measurement model does not have acceptable model fit (Table 2) indicates that a single factor does not adequately account for the covariation among the items and this provides initial evidence against bias from common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Furthermore, when we introduced a factor that represents common method variance (on which all of the items of the constructs were allowed to load, see Podsakoff et al., 2003) to the measurement model, all but one of the factor loadings of the constructs under examination remained significant, which indicates that common method variance does not distort the construct validity of the scales (cf. Kelloway, Loughling, Barling, & Nault, 2002)².

Structural analysis. We used structural equation modeling (SEM) executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) to test whether the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) is supported by the data. As our data did not depart substantially from normality and our sample was small ($N < 200$), we interpreted normal theory Maximum Likelihood estimates as recommended by West, Finch, and Curran (1995).

The statistics we obtained when testing the fit of the overall model were $\chi^2(70, N = 170) = 121, p < .001$, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07. These statistics indicate that overall the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) fits the empirical data well (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). We consider (see also Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000) χ^2 to show significant deviation from the model mainly as a result of (over-) sensitivity of the χ^2 -test, due to the number of degrees of freedom and the

²We are grateful to Ab Mooijaart, Ed Sleebos, and Daan Stam for their advice concerning this analysis.

sample size (according to the power tables given by MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara (1996) the power of our χ^2 -test approximates .88, which is high).

At this stage we tested the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) against 2 alternative structural models. We constructed an alternative partially mediated model (examining whether pride associates directly with the intent to remain in addition to the paths shown in Figure 1), because in a sample of paid employees pride was found to relate both directly *and* indirectly (through psychological attachment) to turnover intentions (see Tyler & Blader, 2001), making it relevant to examine whether this also might be the case for volunteer workers. The hypothesized model (Fig. 1) is nested within the partially mediated model, and thus the models can be compared on the basis of the chi-square differences test. The statistics we obtained when testing the overall fit of the partially mediated model were χ^2 (69, $N = 170$) = 120, $p < .001$, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07. A chi-square differences test showed that the fit of the partially mediated model is not significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2_{1} = 1$, $p = ns$) from the more parsimonious and well-fitting hypothesized model (Fig. 1). Furthermore, in the partially mediated model the path from pride to the intent to remain was not significant ($\beta = .15$, $p = ns$), and the Wald Test generated by EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) indicated that the direct path from pride to the intent to remain could be omitted from the partially mediated alternative model without substantial loss in model fit (see for a discussion Byrne, 1994). Thus, the hypothesized fully mediated model shows best fit to the data as compared to the partially mediated alternative model, as hypothesized. Additionally, because our data were all collected at a single point in time, we examined an alternative *non-nested* structural model to address the possibility that the causal order of the variables in our model might be reversed (intention to remain is directly associated with organizational commitment, and the intention to remain is indirectly associated with pride and respect through organizational commitment). The omnibus fit indexes of the alternative reversed model (χ^2 (71, $N = 170$) = 144, $p < .001$,

NNFI = .92, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .08) indicate that it fits the data less well than the hypothesized structural model. More importantly, according to Bentler (2004) in the case of non-nested model comparison one should specifically favor the model with the lowest value of AIC. The AIC-statistic indicated that our hypothesized structural model provides a more appropriate representation of the data (AIC = -19) than the reversed model (AIC = 2.1). Thus, we accepted the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 1) as the final model and proceeded with the examination of the relationships among the latent variables in this model to examine each of our hypotheses.

We hypothesized (Hypothesis 1) that among volunteers both pride and volunteer organization respect are directly and positively associated with organizational commitment. Hypothesis 1 was supported by the SEM-analysis. First, pride ($\beta = .41, p < .001$) and volunteer organization respect ($\beta = .37, p < .001$) are both directly and positively associated with affective commitment to the volunteer organization, and they jointly account for 42.9% of the variance in affective organizational commitment. Second, pride ($\beta = .50, p < .001$) and volunteer organization respect ($\beta = .22, p < .05$) are both directly and positively associated with normative commitment to the volunteer organization, and they jointly account for 38.1% of the variance in normative organizational commitment.

Additionally, we hypothesized (Hypothesis 2) that among volunteers both pride and volunteer organization respect are indirectly and positively associated with the intent to remain through organizational commitment. Hypothesis 2 was supported by the SEM-analysis. The results confirm that pride ($\beta = .20, p < .001$) and volunteer organization respect ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) are both indirectly and positively associated with the intent to remain, through organizational commitment.

Finally, we hypothesized (Hypothesis 3) that among occasional volunteers, normative organizational commitment is more strongly related to the intent to remain than is affective

organizational commitment. We addressed this hypothesis with a sequential 3-step procedure³. In step 1, we tested a model in which only affective organizational commitment is related to the intent to remain *against* a model in which only normative organizational commitment is related to the intent to remain. The model in which only affective organizational commitment is related to the intent to remain fit the data less well, $\chi^2(71, N = 170) = 133, p < .001, NNFI = .93, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .07$, and $AIC = -9.1$, than the model in which only normative organizational commitment is related to the intent to remain, $\chi^2(71, N = 170) = 121, p < .001, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .06$, and $AIC = -21$. In step 2, we specified a model in which the paths from both affective and normative organizational commitment to the intent to remain were constrained to be equal. The estimation procedure for this alternative model yielded a model fit of $\chi^2(71, N = 170) = 125, p < .001, NNFI = .94, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .07$. A chi-square differences test subsequently showed that this alternative model fits the data significantly less well than the hypothesized model (Fig. 1), in which the two paths were allowed to be different (i.e., not constrained; $\Delta\chi^2_1 = 4, p < .05$). This indicates that the two regression slopes are different from each other, and thus that the association between normative organizational commitment and intention to remain differs significantly from the relation between affective organizational commitment and the intention to remain. Finally, in step 3, we compared the relations between organizational commitment and the intent to remain in the hypothesized model (which allows the two forms of commitment to have different relations with the intent to remain). In the hypothesized model (Fig. 1), only normative organizational commitment shows a significant relation with the intent to remain ($\beta = .38, p < .001$), while the relation between affective commitment and the intent to remain is not significant ($\beta = .04, p = ns$). In sum, these results support our

³ We are grateful to an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

Hypothesis 3 that among occasional volunteers normative organizational commitment is more strongly related to the intention to remain than is affective organizational commitment.

Furthermore, they indicate that pride and respect are both indirectly and positively associated with the intent to remain, primarily through normative organizational commitment.

Discussion

In our analysis based on the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) we found support for our predictions that among volunteers both pride and volunteer organization respect are directly and positively associated with organizational commitment (Hypothesis 1), and that pride and respect are indirectly and positively associated with cooperative intent on behalf of the volunteer organization through organizational commitment (Hypothesis 2). Furthermore, we found support for our reasoning that among occasional volunteers it is primarily normative organizational commitment that is associated with behavioral intent on behalf of the volunteer organization (Hypothesis 3). In sum, these findings extend existing knowledge about the likely causes and consequences of organizational commitment among volunteer workers, and they complement the results obtained in previous research among board member volunteers (e.g., Dawley et al., 2005; Preston & Brown, 2004; Stephens et al., 2004).

On the basis of the results of this first study we conclude that pride and respect are relevant to the commitment and behavioral intent of volunteer workers. This knowledge may help address the reliability problem (Pearce, 1993). That is, the results suggest that when volunteers experience pride and volunteer organization respect it is more likely that they will feel committed to, and intend to cooperate with, the volunteer organization. If so, volunteer organizations may do well to implement pride and volunteer organization respect in their policy to address the reliability problem (Pearce, 1993). But what can volunteer organizations then possibly *do* to induce feelings of pride and volunteer organization respect to enhance

the commitment of their volunteers? We will address this issue in Study 2.

Study 2

Now that we have established that the model of Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) is relevant to the field of volunteer work, it is important to examine *which organizational experiences* are associated with feelings of pride and respect among volunteers. Therefore, in Study 2 we focus on the possible antecedents of pride and respect and their association with volunteers' organizational commitment through pride and respect. Additionally, we cross-validate the central process specified by the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) among 2 further samples of volunteers, working in different volunteer organizations.

The perceived importance of volunteer work as an antecedent of pride

Which organizational experiences are likely to be associated with the experience of pride among volunteers? We argue that the perceived importance of volunteer work is a direct antecedent of pride, and an indirect antecedent of organizational commitment through pride.

The fact that the primary aim of the volunteer organization is to help society and its members, instead of making a profit or pursuing other more instrumental concerns, can be considered a favorable characteristic of volunteer organizations (e.g., Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Harris, 2001; Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993). Therefore, we argue that individual volunteers may take pride in their volunteer organization, to the degree that they feel that society and its members are helped through their work as a member of the volunteer organization. This reasoning is consistent with the research of Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) in which they report that when volunteers do not perceive their efforts to be of importance to other people than themselves they are often dissatisfied and quit volunteering. Furthermore, we argue that the perceived importance of volunteer work is indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment through pride, because the theoretical

framework developed by Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000) assumes that pride is the psychological mechanism underlying the relation between the (perceived) status cues of the organization on the one hand, and commitment to the organization on the other. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4: Among volunteers the perceived importance of volunteer work is directly and positively associated with pride in being a member of the volunteer organization (4a), and the perceived importance of volunteer work is indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment through pride (4b).

Perceived organizational support as an antecedent of respect

Which organizational experiences are likely to be associated with the experience of volunteer organization respect among volunteers? We argue that the experience of organizational support is a direct antecedent of respect, and an indirect antecedent of organizational commitment through respect.

While some researchers (e.g., Farmer & Fedor, 1999) have examined perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; see also Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) as reflecting the *general* belief of volunteers that the volunteer organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being, others (e.g., Clary, 1987; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983) have addressed the role of *specific* types of support from the volunteer organization and how these are experienced (i.e., perceived) by volunteers workers. Emotion-oriented support (Clary, 1987) is a form of support that addresses the recipient's feelings, for example an expression of appreciation by the volunteer organization for the volunteers' time and effort. In expressing emotion-oriented organizational support, the volunteer organization aims to enhance the feeling of the individual volunteer of being valued, for instance by communicating that his or her

contributions are worth the effort. Task-oriented support (Clary, 1987) refers to more concrete forms of assistance, for instance when the recipient is confronted with a problem. In the field of volunteer work task-oriented organizational support is important because it can help volunteers to overcome problems during volunteer work. The distinction between emotion-oriented support and task-oriented support offers further insight into the different types of perceived organizational support and their effects among volunteers. Therefore, for the present research we adopt the distinction between the perceived emotion-oriented organizational support and the perceived task-oriented organizational support that has been suggested by researchers in the field of volunteer work (e.g., Clary, 1987; see also Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983).

We argue that support from the organization can be considered a cue for one's status within the organization. Specifically, volunteers may derive feelings of respect from organizational support (instead of simply seeing the supporting efforts of the organization as a way to optimize the effectiveness of their work), because the main aim of the volunteer organization is to achieve its mission of helping people, not to support their volunteer workers. Indeed, according to Pearce (1993) lack of money and human resources is common among volunteer organizations. Thus, the resources that *are* available are primarily there to help the people the organization is trying to serve and are not to be spent on volunteers. In other words, as the clientele of a volunteer organization is central in the mission of a volunteer organization, this causes the volunteer workers to be considered less important by implication. Under these conditions, we expect that the degree to which volunteers experience support from their volunteer organization is directly and positively associated with the degree to which volunteers feel respected by the organization. Furthermore, we argue that the types of perceived organizational support are indirectly and positively associated with

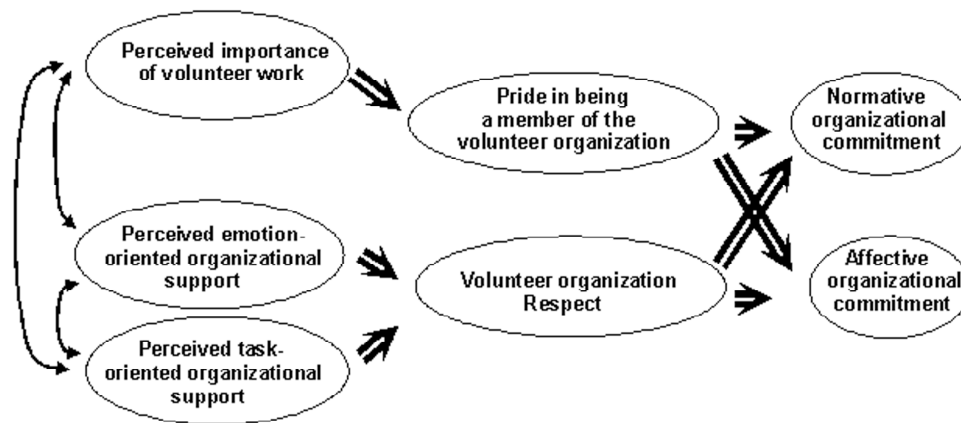


Figure 2. The perceived importance of volunteer work and the perceived organizational support as directly and positively associated with pride (Hypothesis 4a) and respect (Hypothesis 5a), and as indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment through pride (Hypothesis 4b) and respect (Hypothesis 5b).

organizational commitment through respect, because the theoretical framework developed by Tyler (1999) and Blader (Tyler & Blader, 2000) assumes that respect is the psychological mechanism underlying the relation between one's (perceived) status cues within the organization and commitment to the organization. We thus hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: Among volunteers perceived emotion-oriented and task-oriented organizational support is directly and positively associated with volunteer organization respect (5a), and the types of perceived organizational support are indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment through respect (5b).

In sum, Study 2 extends the social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000), because it focuses on possible antecedents of feelings of pride and respect and their relation with organizational commitment through pride and respect. To address the robustness of our analysis, we will examine the empirical support for our hypotheses (which are modeled in Figure 2) in 2 volunteer organizations

which differ in the extent to which the volunteers are likely to (indirectly) benefit from the activities of the organization.

Method

Participants. Sample 1: Participants were 203 fundraising volunteers from a Dutch volunteer organization whose mission is to help the handicapped integrate in society. According to the volunteer organization, sometimes their volunteers hold family relations with a handicapped person and thus some of these volunteers can be seen to *indirectly* benefit from the activities of the volunteer organization⁴. According to the volunteer organization roughly half of their volunteers have an association with the clientele of the volunteer organization and most of their volunteers have infrequent interpersonal and organizational contact as a volunteer. Of the 203 questionnaires only 173 were complete and could be used for the analysis of this study in which testing the model requires complete cases. Of the 173 people who returned usable questionnaires 82.1% were women. The respondents' mean age was 53.8 ($SD = 10.46$), the respondents' mean number of years volunteered for the organization was 8.52 ($SD = 6.5$), and 32.4% held paid jobs besides working as a volunteer.

Sample 2: Participants were 193 fundraising volunteers from a Dutch volunteer organization that supports health care initiatives in developing countries through direct financial aid, the delivery of materials and equipment, and other means. Because of the mission and the geographical location of the volunteer organization, it is highly unlikely that the Dutch volunteers are in some way related to the people the organization is trying to serve⁵. This implies that they are unlikely to have an instrumental interest in supporting the volunteer

⁴ In the remarks on the questionnaire one of the volunteers made a request to the organization to transport her wheel chaired daughter to a leisure activity. This illustrates that volunteers of this organization sometimes hold family relations with the organization's beneficiaries.

organization. Of the 193 questionnaires only 164 were complete and could be used for the analysis of this study in which testing the model requires complete cases. Of the 164 people who returned usable questionnaires 84.8% were women. The respondents' mean age was 54.7 ($SD = 10.8$), the respondents' mean number of years volunteered for the organization was 12.37 ($SD = 9.76$), 51.8% held paid jobs besides working as a volunteer, and 87.2% reported to have infrequent interpersonal contact with the other volunteers.

Procedure. Randomly selected fundraising volunteers were mailed a survey with an accompanying letter in which they were asked for their participation by the volunteer organization and the researchers, told that the volunteer organization needed their opinion to improve its volunteer policy, and guaranteed anonymity. The volunteers participating in the study then sent their surveys in a self-addressed return envelope to the volunteer organization that handed the envelopes *unopened* to the researchers.

Measures. Pride (Sample 1: $\alpha = .80$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .84$), volunteer organization respect (Sample 1: $\alpha = .83$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .86$), affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\alpha = .86$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .85$), and normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\alpha = .68$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .81$) were measured with the same items as in Study 1. As in Study 1 all responses were recorded on a 5-point scale (1 = *totally disagree*; 5 = *totally agree*).

We measured the *perceived importance of the volunteer work* with 3 items based on the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), for example: "I perceive that my volunteer work benefits the <clientele of volunteer organization>" (Sample 1: $\alpha = .77$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .80$).

⁵ In the remarks on the questionnaire one volunteer indicated to have lived a couple of years as an expatriate in one of the developing countries in which the organization is active. However, none of the volunteers indicated to have relatives, friends, etc. in the developing countries who might benefit from the activities of this organization.

We measured the *perceived emotion-oriented organizational support* (2 items, Sample 1: $\alpha = .92$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .80$) and the *perceived task-oriented organizational support* (2 items, Sample 1: $\alpha = .89$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .85$) with items based on the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), such as: “<Name volunteer organization> lets her volunteers frequently know that she appreciates their effort” (for emotion-oriented support), and “<Name volunteer organization> assists me sufficiently in my volunteer work” (for task-oriented support).

Results

Preliminary analyses. We calculated average scores for each of the intended scales to conduct preliminary analyses of the correlations among the different constructs. The variables were associated in the way expected (see Table 4). Because in Sample 2 the number of years of active volunteering for the organization is associated with pride as well as with affective organizational commitment, we examined whether this might account for the hypothesized relation between pride and affective commitment. However, when controlling for the number of years of active volunteering, the partial correlation between pride and affective organizational commitment remained ($r = .63, p < .001$). Therefore, we decided not to include the number of years of active volunteering as a control variable in the hypothesized model.

Measurement analysis. In order to examine whether the items should be clustered as predicted, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004). The results of the confirmatory factor analyses are summarized in Tables 5 and 6 for both Sample 1 and Sample 2. We first tested the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model and this model showed an acceptable model fit to the data in both Samples (see Table 5). Omnibus fit indexes are $\chi^2(131, N = 173) = 245, p < .001, NNFI = .92, CFI = .94,$ and $RMSEA = .07$ for Sample 1, and $\chi^2(131, N = 164) = 219, p < .001, NNFI = .93, CFI = .95,$ and $RMSEA = .06$ for Sample 2. In order to further examine the validity of the hypothesized 7-factor

Table 4 *Correlations between averaged constructs of Study 2*

Sample 1 (<i>N</i> = 173)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Perceived importance of volunteer work	4.08	.58	-						
2. Perceived emotion-oriented organizational support	4.01	.68	.31**	-					
3. Perceived task-oriented organizational support	3.44	.82	.26**	.60**	-				
4. Pride	3.46	.74	.53**	.31**	.23**	-			
5. Organizational Respect	3.43	.64	.36**	.74**	.68**	.38**	-		
6. Affective commitment	2.98	.76	.49**	.32**	.29**	.68**	.41**	-	
7. Normative commitment	3.86	.69	.35**	.36**	.36**	.48**	.37**	.53**	-
8. Years of volunteering for the organization ^a	8.52	6.50	.08	.00	.08	.07	-.01	.05	.18*
Sample 2 (<i>N</i> = 164)									
1. Perceived importance of volunteer work	3.86	.60	-						
2. Perceived emotion-oriented organizational support	3.88	.61	.27**	-					
3. Perceived task-oriented organizational support	3.67	.73	.31**	.55**	-				
4. Pride	3.11	.79	.35**	.39**	.30**	-			
5. Organizational Respect	3.62	.66	.32**	.63**	.73**	.36**	-		
6. Affective commitment	2.82	.75	.32**	.27**	.33**	.63**	.35**	-	
7. Normative commitment	3.98	.65	.26**	.28**	.27**	.38**	.32**	.35**	-
8. Years of volunteering for the organization ^b	12.37	9.76	.08	.01	.08	.21*	.11	.25**	.14

Note. ^a *N* = 161 due to missing values; ^b *N* = 144 due to missing values. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5 Standardized Parameter Estimates of Factor Loadings, R^2 's, and Item Means

Questionnaire Items	Sample 1 (N = 173)			Sample 2 (N = 164)		
	Factor loadings	Item R^2	Item means	Factor loadings	Item R^2	Item means
Perceived Importance of Volunteer Work						
1.) "I perceive that my volunteer work benefits the <clientele of volunteer organization>"	.56	.31	3.71	.74	.54	3.51
2.) "My voluntary effort really benefits <name volunteer organization>"	.87	.75	4.29	.75	.56	4.09
3.) "My volunteer work is of importance for <mission volunteer organization>"	.87	.75	4.25	.82	.67	3.97
Perceived Emotion-oriented Organizational Support						
1.) "<Name volunteer organization> appreciates the effort of her volunteers"	.91	.82	4.07	.86	.73	4.06
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> lets her volunteers frequently know that she appreciates their effort"	.95	.90	3.95	.78	.60	3.70
Perceived Task-oriented Organizational Support						
1.) "<Name volunteer organization> assists me sufficiently in my volunteer work"	.89	.79	3.51	.83	.68	3.79
2.) "<Name volunteer organization> advices and assists me in my volunteer work"	.91	.82	3.36	.89	.79	3.54
Pride						
1.) "I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause"	.80	.64	3.31	.85	.72	3.01
2.) "I am proud of being a member of <name volunteer organization>"	.79	.62	3.61	.85	.72	3.10

volunteer organization>”

3.) “I feel good when people describe me
as a typical volunteer”

.69	.47	3.46	.69	.47	3.21
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

Volunteer organization Respect

1.) “I feel respected as a volunteer by
<name volunteer organization>”

.81	.65	3.68	.73	.53	3.84
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

2.) “<Name volunteer organization> listens
to what I have to say about volunteer work”

.75	.56	3.26	.86	.73	3.47
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

3.) “<Name volunteer organization> cares
about my opinion as a volunteer”

.80	.64	3.35	.88	.77	3.54
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

Affective organizational Commitment

1.) “I feel like part of the family at <name
volunteer organization>”

.85	.72	2.79	.91	.82	2.60
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

2.) “<Name volunteer organization> has
personal meaning to me”

.84	.70	3.14	.77	.59	3.20
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

3.) “I feel as if the problems of <name
volunteer organization> are my own”

.78	.60	3.00	.74	.54	2.65
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

Normative organizational Commitment

1.) “I feel morally responsible to work as a
volunteer for <mission volunteer
organization>”

.71	.50	3.80	.84	.70	4.02
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

2.) “I feel morally responsible to work as a
volunteer for charity”

.62	.38	3.72	.76	.57	3.98
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

3.) “One of the major reasons I continue to work
for <name volunteer organization> is that I
find <mission volunteer organization> important”

.61	.37	4.05	.71	.50	3.95
-----	-----	------	-----	-----	------

Table 6 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Study Variables Study 2*

Sample 1 (N = 173)						
Model	df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
7-factor measurement model	131	245***		.92	.94	.07
6A-factor measurement model ^a	137	371***	126***	.85	.88	.10
6B-factor measurement model ^b	137	301***	56***	.89	.91	.08
6C-factor measurement model ^c	137	318***	73***	.88	.91	.09
1-factor measurement model	152	1020***	775***	.49	.55	.18
Sample 2 (N = 164)						
7-factor measurement model	131	219***		.93	.95	.06
6A-factor measurement model ^a	137	274***	55***	.90	.92	.08
6B-factor measurement model ^b	137	264***	45***	.91	.92	.08
6C-factor measurement model ^c	137	250***	31***	.92	.93	.07
1-factor measurement model	152	927***	708***	.48	.54	.18

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates the deviation of each alternative model compared to the hypothesized 7-factor measurement model.

^a Combining perceived emotion-oriented and task-oriented organizational support, ^b Combining the perceived emotion-oriented organizational support and respect, ^c Combining the perceived task-oriented organizational support and respect.

*** $p < .001$.

measurement model, we subsequently tested the model against alternative measurement models, using the chi-square differences test. In the alternative 6A-factor measurement model, perceived emotion-oriented and task-oriented organizational support were merged into one aggregate factor, because some researchers do not distinguish between these two forms of support (e.g., Farmer & Fedor, 1999), and indeed the correlation between the 2 constructs (Sample 1: $r = .60$, $p < .01$; Sample 2: $r = .55$, $p < .01$) indicates that respondents might have seen both as indicators of more global organizational support. Furthermore, before examining

our hypothesis that organizational support predicts respect, in view of the correlations between the different types of perceived organizational support on the one hand and respect on the other, we needed to establish that these can be seen as distinct constructs. Thus, we constructed additional 6-factor measurement models in which we merged each type of perceived organizational support with organizational respect. As can be seen in Table 6, these alternative measurement models all fit the data significantly less well than the hypothesized measurement model in terms of omnibus fit indexes as well as in terms of chi-square differences tests. Thus, the confirmatory factor analyses show that the items are best clustered as intended, supporting the validity of the hypothesized constructs.

As we did in Study 1, we also examined whether the relations between the hypothesized constructs might be caused by common method variance. Again, initial evidence against bias from common method variance is provided by the fact that the 1-factor measurement model does not have acceptable model fit in either Sample (Table 6). Additionally, we used the same procedure as in Study 1 to further examine whether the factor loadings of the hypothesized constructs remain significant when controlling for the effects of a factor that represents common method variance. After correcting for common method variance in this way, in Sample 1 all, and in Sample 2 all but one, of the factor loadings of the constructs under examination remained significant, providing additional evidence that common method variance does not distort the construct validity of the scales (cf. Kelloway et al., 2002) ⁶.

Structural analysis. We used SEM executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) to test whether the hypothesized structural model (Fig. 2) is supported by the data. When testing the overall model, the fit indices for Sample 1 were $\chi^2(142, N = 173) = 268, p < .001, NNFI = .92,$

⁶ Initially, we encountered a Heywood case (see Chen, Bollen, Paxton, Curran, & Kirby, 2001) in these analyses, but in both Samples we have resolved the Heywood case in model re-estimation.

CFI = .93, and RMSEA = .07, and for Sample 2 were $\chi^2(142, N = 164) = 240, p < .001$, NNFI = .93, CFI = .94, and RMSEA = .07. These results suggest that in both Samples the hypothesized model shows acceptable fit to the empirical data (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

We subsequently tested our hypothesized model (Fig. 2) against a partially mediated structural model (with direct paths from the perceived importance of volunteer work and the perceived organizational support to organizational commitment, in addition to the paths depicted in Fig. 2), because it is possible that status cues have a direct effect on psychological engagement in addition to an indirect effect through pride and respect as underlying psychological mechanisms. That is, although it can be assumed that the characteristics of an organization relate to psychological engagement with this organization because of the pride and respect they instill in individual workers, previous research among paid employees (e.g., Carmeli, 2005; Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001) has established direct relations between the perceived status of the organization and organizational commitment, as well as between perceived support provided by the organization and organizational commitment (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The alternative partially mediated structural model yielded a model fit for Sample 1 of $\chi^2(136, N = 173) = 261, p < .001$, NNFI = .92, CFI = .93, and RMSEA = .07, and for Sample 2 of $\chi^2(136, N = 164) = 236, p < .001$, NNFI = .92, CFI = .94, and RMSEA = .07. A chi-square differences test showed that the alternative model does not represent a significant improvement over the more parsimonious hypothesized model for Sample 1 ($\Delta\chi^2_6 = 7, p = ns$) or Sample 2 ($\Delta\chi^2_6 = 4, p = ns$). Furthermore, in both Samples all additional direct paths were non-significant, and the Wald Test generated by EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) showed that in both Sample 1 and Sample 2 the additional direct paths were redundant. Thus, these results indicate that pride and respect fully mediate the relationship between the perceived importance of volunteer work and perceived organizational support on the one hand

and organizational commitment on the other. We accepted the hypothesized model and proceeded with the close examination of the hypothesized relationships among the latent variables.

We predicted (Hypothesis 4a) that among volunteers the perceived importance of volunteer work is directly and positively associated with pride, and (Hypothesis 5a) that the types of perceived organizational support are directly and positively associated with volunteer organization respect. These hypotheses were supported by the SEM-analysis of both Sample 1 and Sample 2. The perceived importance of volunteer work is directly and positively associated with feelings of pride (Sample 1: $\beta = .60$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .359$; Sample 2: $\beta = .47$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .22$). Perceived emotion-oriented organizational support (Sample 1: $\beta = .59$, $p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$) and perceived task-oriented organizational support (Sample 1: $\beta = .41$, $p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .67$, $p < .001$) are both directly and positively associated with feelings of volunteer organization respect. In Sample 1, the types of organizational support jointly account for 82.5% of the variance in respect. In Sample 2, the types of organizational support jointly account for 73% of the variance in respect.

In addition, we re-examined the relations between pride, respect, and organizational commitment specified in the core of our model, to cross-validate the results obtained in Study 1. In Hypothesis 1, we predicted that among volunteers both pride and respect are directly and positively associated with organizational commitment. This hypothesis was further supported by the SEM-analysis of both Sample 1 and Sample 2. As hypothesized, the results indicate that pride is directly and positively associated with both affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .77$, $p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .71$, $p < .001$) and normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .60$, $p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .37$, $p < .001$). The results also indicate that volunteer organization respect is directly and positively associated with both affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .19$, $p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$)

and normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .30, p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .23, p < .01$). In Sample 1, pride and volunteer organization respect jointly account for 69% of the variance in affective organizational commitment, and in Sample 2 they jointly account for 56.4% of the variance. In Sample 1, pride and volunteer organization respect jointly account for 51.8% of the variance in normative organizational commitment, and in Sample 2 they jointly account for 21.8% of the variance.

Finally, we addressed Hypotheses 4b and 5b, which stated that the hypothesized antecedents of pride and respect (i.e., the perceived importance of volunteer work and perceived organizational support) are indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment. Hypotheses 4b and 5b were supported by the SEM-analysis. The results show an indirect and positive relation of the perceived importance of volunteer work with affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .46, p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .33, p < .001$) and normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .36, p < .001$; Sample 2: $\beta = .17, p < .01$), through pride. The results also show an indirect and positive relation of perceived emotion-oriented organizational support with affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .11, p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .04, p < .10$) and normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .17, p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .06, p < .10$), through respect. Likewise, we observed a significant indirect and positive relation between perceived task-oriented organizational support and affective organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .08, p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .11, p < .05$) as well as normative organizational commitment (Sample 1: $\beta = .12, p < .01$; Sample 2: $\beta = .15, p < .05$), through respect.

In sum, in both Samples we found consistent empirical support for the structural model (Fig. 2) we hypothesized.

Discussion

We found support for our main prediction that among volunteers the perceived

importance of volunteer work is associated with pride (Hypothesis 4a), that perceived organizational support is associated with volunteer organization respect (Hypothesis 5a), and that the antecedents are indirectly and positively associated with organizational commitment through respectively pride (Hypothesis 4b) and respect (Hypothesis 5b). Importantly, we also cross-validated the main part of the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) in 2 additional volunteer organizations, as we again found empirical evidence in support of our prediction (Hypothesis 1) that both pride and respect are associated with volunteers' organizational commitment, in two different types of volunteer organizations. On the basis of the results of Study 1 we posited that pride and volunteer organization respect can help predict volunteers' commitment to the organization, and that pride and respect can hence contribute to the willingness to cooperate with the volunteer organization among volunteers. Extending Study 1, the results from Study 2 suggest that volunteer organizations might use organizational experiences that enhance the perceived importance of volunteer work and foster the perception that support is provided by the organization, to induce feelings of pride and respect, when they aim to enhance the commitment of their volunteer workers.

General Discussion

In this research, we have found that the (extended) social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization is valid in, and relevant to, volunteer organizations. However, this research has value beyond showing a possible way to address the commitment and cooperative intent of volunteers. First, there is a lack of theory and models that explain why people (continue to) volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Furthermore, there is a lack of knowledge of what volunteer organizations can do to promote volunteerism (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Therefore, our finding that the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) is relevant to the motivation of volunteers adds a new and promising perspective to research on the organizational behavior of volunteer workers. Second, because

we examined the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) in a setting where material rewards are absent we were able to show that pride and respect can be reason to cooperate with the organization in their own right. That is, we demonstrated that pride and respect are of importance as motivators beyond, and independently of, instrumental considerations (such as monetary rewards or career opportunities). Although this knowledge is of particular importance to non-profit volunteer organizations because these organizations can only use non-material means (such as pride, respect) to reward and motivate their workers, it also is relevant to a broader range of organizations, as organizational experiences that induce pride and respect can be expected to enhance motivation among paid employees in ways that cannot be understood from more instrumental approaches to work motivation. Finally, when we addressed the cooperative intentions of *occasional* volunteers in Study 1, we found that these are mainly associated with their *normative* organizational commitment. Indeed, this is relevant because it extends the notion that in for-profit organizations and in volunteer boards the performance and behavioral intentions of workers are primarily associated with their affective commitment to the organization (Dawley et al., 2005; Meyer et al., 2002; Preston & Brown, 2004; Stephens et al., 2004). As far as we know, the present research is the first to indicate that there are specific circumstances under which normative commitment is more relevant as a predictor of behavioral intentions than is affective organizational commitment. This is not to say that affective commitment is less important or less relevant for volunteer organizations in general. In fact, there may be specific behaviors (such as mutual support and helping behaviors among volunteers) for which affective commitment is the primary determinant. This is another result of the present investigation that opens up interesting possibilities for further development of theory and for additional research.

Implications for volunteer organizations

On the basis of the results obtained we consider the model of cooperation (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) to be valuable in addressing the reliability problem (Pearce, 1993). In line with theoretical reasoning and relevant research, we interpret our present findings as indicating that when volunteers experience pride and respect it is more likely that they will cooperate with the volunteer organization. Therefore, we think that volunteer organizations may do well to implement strategies that induce pride and respect.

Our results suggest that volunteer coordinators can induce feelings of pride among volunteers by making it clear to them that their activities are important for the people the organization is trying to serve. For instance, volunteer organizations can provide volunteers with concrete feedback about the successes of their joint efforts in a magazine or (electronic) newsletter (e.g., reporting the amount of money collected, describing the projects supported, etc.). Alternatively, volunteer organizations can arrange informal meetings between volunteers and the people the organization is trying to serve so that volunteers have the opportunity to hear from the organization's beneficiaries what the efforts of the volunteers mean to them. Our findings further suggest that volunteer organizations might enhance feelings of respect among volunteers by providing them with emotion-oriented and task-oriented organizational support during volunteer work. For instance, volunteer coordinators often form the link between the volunteer organization and individual volunteers. Therefore, volunteer coordinators can be trained to create a supportive environment in which they regularly communicate to the appointed volunteers that the organization appreciates their donations of time and effort (emotion-oriented support) and inquire whether all goes well or offer their help during volunteer work (task-oriented support). Other strategies volunteer organizations can use to provide volunteers with task-oriented support, may include the appointment of a special contact person and/or telephone line for task-related questions,

providing volunteers with the opportunity to receive additional training to optimize the effectiveness of their volunteer work, compiling a manual that provides guidelines for the different activities that have to be carried out, or letting volunteers choose a task that best suits their capabilities.

Limitations of the present research

A limitation of the present research is that the data are cross-sectional self-reports, which can only be analyzed with statistical techniques based on correlational analysis. The main concern regarding results obtained from self-report data is the possible threat of common method variance that might attenuate the theoretical significance of the observed relations between the variables that were measured (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, when we addressed this possibility in different ways, we found no evidence in any of the 3 samples examined that the relations we observed among the variables in our model are merely the result of common method variance, supporting the notion that the results we obtained reflect meaningful relations between the hypothesized constructs. A further consequence of the correlational nature of our data is that they can at best only suggest causality among the variables. Thus, additional longitudinal or experimental studies are required to further validate the causal relations among the constructs in the models we hypothesized. In this context, it is important to note that our interpretation does reflect the causal relations proposed in the theoretical framework that was used (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tyler, 1999), and is consistent with observations in relevant research among paid workers (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002), as well as results from experimental research in this area (e.g., Branscombe et al., 2002; Doosje et al., 2002; Ellemers et al., 1993; Sleebos et al., 2006; Simon & Stürmer, 2003). Furthermore, when analysing the present data we tested the hypothesized models against alternative models, and found that the models we proposed show the best fit to these data. Nevertheless, we think there is value in conducting experimental

field studies that aim to manipulate different presumed antecedents of pride and respect, in order to see whether these induce the hypothesized states and contribute to commitment and cooperative behavior.

Suggestions for further research

There is still much to be known about the organizational behavior of volunteers. We have argued that the different types of organizational commitment distinguished by Allen and Meyer (1990) can operate differently among volunteers as opposed to paid workers, and even that the types of organizational commitment can operate differently among specific groups of volunteer workers. Future research should further explore how, when and why the different types of organizational commitment distinguished by Allen and Meyer (1990) are relevant among specific groups of volunteers.

In this research we have addressed 1 specific aspect of the cooperation construct, namely behavioral intent on behalf of the organization (see Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002). Now that we have established the validity of the social-identity based model of cooperation as a tool to understand organizational commitment among volunteer workers, future studies might further explore how actual behaviors aimed at cooperation with the volunteer organization are related to pride, respect, and organizational commitment. For instance, researchers can address the behavioral efforts exerted by volunteer workers, examine the extent to which they actually cooperate with paid staff within the volunteer organization, or assess the degree of behavioral compliance to requests or guidelines provided by the volunteer organization⁷.

For now, we have shown that pride and respect are relevant and valuable in the field of volunteer work, and that they hold a clear promise with regard to further theory development and research on the organizational behavior of volunteer workers.

⁷ We are grateful to an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

Chapter 4

Anticipated pride and respect in volunteer recruitment

This chapter featured in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, see

Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (2008b). Volunteer recruitment: The role of organizational support and anticipated respect in non-volunteers' attraction to charitable volunteer organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 1013 – 1026.

To sustain or expand their activities, volunteer organizations are commonly in need of additional volunteers (Farmer & Fedor, 2001, Pearce, 1993). Several theories and recruitment strategies offer a view on how workers can become attracted to organizations (see for an overview Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991; Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987). However, these have mainly been developed and examined in the context of paid work. As volunteers are unpaid workers by definition (e.g., Meijjs, 1997; Pearce, 1993) and because volunteer work is fundamentally different from paid work (see for an overview of key differences Cnaan & Cascio, 1999; Pearce, 1993), it is not self-evident that the existing literature on the attraction and recruitment of (paid) workers is well suited to help charitable volunteer organizations recruit volunteers. For instance, material resources (e.g., salary, bonuses, participation in a pension fund, etc.) that profit organizations can use to recruit employees are not available to charitable volunteer organizations who aim to recruit volunteers, due to for instance the ideological and financial circumstances in which charitable volunteer organizations operate. As a result, charitable volunteer organizations can only apply their non-material features to present their organization to potential volunteers as an attractive place to work. Hence, current insights based on the recruitment of paid employees are not necessarily relevant to the recruitment of volunteer workers. Indeed, it has been noted that research is needed to address how volunteer organizations can promote volunteerism and attract new volunteers (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). We present 3 studies that build upon and extend the social identity-based model of cooperation with the organization (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), and in this way develop theoretical and practical insights about the recruitment of volunteers.

A social identity approach to recruitment

In this paper we argue that social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) is particularly relevant to the recruitment of volunteers, because SIT addresses non-material

outcomes - such as feelings of self-worth - as motives for group attraction. Indeed, SIT has been found to offer a valid conceptual framework to examine the organizational behavior of existing volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a; Cadinu & Cerchioni, 2001; Tidwell, 2005).

SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), a group-based theory that is also relevant to organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000), postulates that people derive their self-image partly from their group and organizational membership(s). The part of one's self-concept derived from such membership in groups or organizations is referred to as one's social identity. Furthermore, positively distinct organizational characteristics can contribute to a *positive* social identity, inducing feelings of self-esteem and self-worth. As SIT assumes that people prefer to feel good about themselves, the theory maintains that people consider it attractive to be included in groups and organizations that contribute positively to their social identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ellemers et al., 2004; Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

According to Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000), 2 assessments concerning organizations contribute to a positive social identity, namely pride and respect. Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) further argue that pride and respect have the potential to instigate psychological engagement that should subsequently lead to behavioral engagement with the organization. Among existing members of organizations, pride reflects the evaluation that one is part of an organization with high status and respect reflects the evaluation that one is a valued member of the organization (e.g., Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000). Correlational studies among paid employees (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) as well as experimental research (e.g., Branscombe, Spears, Ellemers, & Doosje, 2002; Sleebos, Ellemers, & De Gilder, 2006; Simon & Stürmer,

2003) offer data in support of the reasoning that evaluations of pride and respect induce engagement with organizations. Accordingly, we argue that both pride and respect are likely to be relevant to individual attraction to organizations. However, previous research on pride and respect has solely focused on the engagement of *existing members* of groups and organizations. The question remains whether *anticipated* feelings of *pride* and *respect* are relevant to *non-members'* attraction to organizations and – if this is the case – whether anticipated pride and respect can be used for recruitment purposes.

The anticipation of pride and respect

Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) argues that people tend to behave in ways that they expect to yield valued outcomes. Based on expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) in combination with SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and the work of Tyler et al. (e.g., Smith & Tyler, 1997), Barsness, Tenbrunsel, Michael, and Lawson (2002) have argued that people value the membership of an organization that has high status and in which one would be esteemed as an individual, and therefore assess the pride and respect that they anticipate to experience when evaluating their potential membership in organizations. Hence, according to Barsness et al. (2002), it is through *anticipated* feelings of pride and respect associated with organizational membership that an organization might become attractive to non-members of that organization. Initial findings to this effect showed that expected pride from the organizational membership of a profit organization was positively associated with applicants' job pursuit intentions and negatively associated with the minimum salary that they were willing to accept (Cable & Turban, 2003). Thus, based on relevant theory and previous research among people looking for paid work, we predict that anticipated pride (Hypothesis 1) and anticipated respect (Hypothesis 2) predict non-volunteers' attraction to charitable volunteer organizations.

If anticipated feelings of pride and respect contribute positively to non-volunteers' attraction to volunteer organizations, the next question is how volunteer organizations can

benefit from this knowledge in their recruitment efforts. Researchers (e.g., Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991; Turban, 2001; Turban & Cable, 2003) have argued in line with signalling theory (Spence, 1973) that non-members create an impression of what it will be like to be a member of an organization by considering the information they have about the organization as relevant signals of organizational characteristics. Thus, what kind of information about the volunteer organization is likely to represent the characteristics of the volunteer organization from which non-volunteers can infer anticipations of pride and respect? To advance theory development concerning non-volunteers' attraction to volunteer organizations, and to be able to address volunteer attraction in practice, it is important to examine antecedents of anticipated pride and respect.

Perceived organizational success and anticipated pride

In the theoretical framework developed by Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) it is assumed that perceived indications of the status of the organization are linked to evaluations of pride, which in turn should lead to engagement with the organization (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Fuller et al., 2006). This is relevant to the question of how *anticipated* feelings of pride and the resulting attraction to the volunteer organization can develop among non-volunteers.

The success of an organization in achieving its mission can be considered an indicator of the status of that organization, because it signals the relative standing of the organization in terms of its central defining feature. Research findings (Fuller et al., 2006) obtained among (paid) workers indeed indicated that the perceived success of an organization in achieving its goals positively affected the perceived status (i.e., prestige) of that organization, which subsequently contributed positively to workers' psychological engagement with that organization. More specifically, Cable and Turban (2003) found job seekers' corporate reputation perceptions, as based on a rating of corporate achievements, positively linked to

the pride they expected from organizational membership. These results lead us to predict that when non-volunteers are informed that a charitable volunteer organization is successful in achieving its mission, they will anticipate experiencing pride as a volunteer at that organization (Hypothesis 3a), and as a result they will be attracted to that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 3b).

Perceived organizational support and anticipated respect

In the theoretical framework developed by Tyler and Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002) it is assumed that indications of intraorganizational status are linked to evaluations of respect, which in turn should enhance engagement with the organization (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Fuller et al., 2006). But how can *anticipated* feelings of respect and the resulting attraction to the volunteer organization develop among non-volunteers?

In general, social support refers to support that stems from one's relationships with others (Goldsmith, 2004), such as from one's relationship with one's organization (e.g., Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The main purpose of a charitable volunteer organization is to help its clientele, and within the charitable volunteer organization the primary task of volunteers is to work towards achieving this mission, often with a minimum of organizational resources (Pearce, 1993; see also Handy, 1988). Thus, within charitable volunteer organizations organizational policies and practices tend to focus on the clientele instead of on the volunteer workers. In such a context, organizational support for individual volunteers is not self-evident. Thus, when such support is provided, this is likely to be perceived as a sign of effort from the volunteer organization on behalf of the individual volunteer, which conveys the extent to which the volunteer is appreciated and valued, thus communicating respect. In line with this reasoning Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) found that *existing* volunteers derived feelings of respect from their perceptions of

being supported by their volunteer organization, and as a result were psychologically engaged with their volunteer organization. Accordingly, we predict that when non-volunteers are made aware that a charitable volunteer organization provides support to its volunteers, they will anticipate experiencing respect as a volunteer at that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 4a), and this will cause them to become attracted to that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 4b).

Negative side effects of organizational success and organizational support

We have argued that the provision of information about organizational success and organizational support can contribute to the recruitment efforts of volunteer organizations because they might induce anticipations of pride and respect as a volunteer. However, in the specific case of volunteer organizations we suspect that it is also possible that non-volunteers interpret organizational success and organizational support in a way that undermines volunteer recruitment efforts. To gain a better understanding of processes relevant to volunteer recruitment, we will address and examine possible negative side effects of organizational success and organizational support and explore how these effects impact upon non-volunteers' attraction to charitable volunteer organizations.

The mission of charitable volunteer organizations is directed at helping and providing services to a certain clientele, for whom there otherwise would be no services (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). As a result, non-volunteers' observations that a charitable volunteer organization is successful in helping its clientele might (unwittingly) lead them to conclude that this volunteer organization has achieved its mission, and does not need additional volunteer help. Indeed, Fisher and Ackerman (1998) found that in a fundraising competition the perceived need of a fundraising group for additional volunteer help was lower when it was more successful. Therefore, we predict that among non-volunteers the information that a charitable volunteer organization is successful in achieving its mission will reduce the perceived need of that volunteer organization for additional volunteers (Hypothesis 5).

Handy (1988) has indicated that it is normative in volunteer organizations, and in the field of volunteer work more generally, to consider “the cause” as most important. Given that volunteer organizations commonly lack human and material resources to engage in other activities besides the achievement of their mission (Pearce, 1993), the re-direction of resources originally intended for helping the clientele - for instance to provide support for volunteers - can be interpreted as indicating a lack of organizational efficiency.¹ This is why we predict that - among non-volunteers – the information that a charitable volunteer organization provides support to its volunteers will reduce the perceived efficiency of that volunteer organization in directly helping its clientele (Hypothesis 6).

We conducted 3 studies to examine these predictions. Study 1 examines organizational success and organizational support as precursors of anticipated pride and respect that enhance attraction to a charitable volunteer organization. In addition, Study 1 also addresses whether organizational success and organizational support can impact negatively upon non-volunteers’ attraction to the charitable volunteer organization. Studies 2 and 3 then build on the results of Study 1 by further examining different sources and types of support. Study 2 compares the effects of organizational support vs. co-volunteer support in inducing anticipated respect and attraction to the organization. Study 3 examines the separate effects of task-support vs. emotion-support on anticipated respect and organizational attractiveness and furthermore assesses the actual willingness of non-volunteers to become involved in activities of the charitable volunteer organization.

¹ As Handy (1988) noted, although in theory the cause of a volunteer organization can be (more) effectively served through the improvement of the operation of the volunteer organization, in practice volunteers simply do not perceive resources spent on the improvement of organizational effectiveness to be really relevant in helping the clientele of the volunteer organization.

Study 1

Method

Participants

Participants were 124 students (38 males, 85 females, one gender unidentified) at Leiden University with a mean age of 21 ($SD = 2.54$) years, 49.2% indicated being familiar with volunteer work through (past) volunteer jobs, and all participants were non-volunteers at the volunteer organization of the present research.

Design and Procedure

We used a 2 (Organizational Success: High versus Low) X 2 (Organizational Support: High versus Low) between-participants factorial design. At the beginning of each 20-minute session of the experiment, participants were seated in separate cubicles. They were informed that the Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs (which coordinates volunteer work in the Netherlands) planned to launch a campaign in order to inform Dutch citizens about volunteer work and recruit them for volunteer organizations. Participants were informed that a series of leaflets, which each focused on a single Dutch volunteer organization, had to be read and checked before being formally issued. The participants were led to believe that they were randomly given a sample leaflet to evaluate through a questionnaire. In fact, the leaflet was bogus and each issued leaflet described the same fictitious volunteer organization with varying information (depending on the experimental condition the participant was in) about the characteristics of this organization. The volunteer organization was fictionalized to ensure that the participants were all non-volunteers *at this organization*. The organization presented allegedly was a charity whose mission was to help homeless people through services such as providing shelter, meals, clothing and medical care, which is considered a characteristic volunteer act across cultures (Handy, Cnaan, Brudney, Ascoli, Meijs, & Ranade, 2000). In the leaflet, a general introductory text was allegedly written by the Dutch government about

volunteer work in the Netherlands, followed by the presentation of the alleged charitable volunteer organization and its mission. Subsequently, the leaflet presented individual volunteers (2 males and 4 females, with ages specified between 40 and 67) and their reports about their experiences as a volunteer at the organization, and in this section of the leaflet the independent variables were manipulated.

In the *low organizational success condition*, a volunteer for instance said that all Dutch homeless people are in need for warm clothes for the cold winter, but that the activities of the volunteer organization can actually only help a few of them out. This was in contrast with the *high organizational success condition* in which the same volunteer allegedly stated that all Dutch homeless people are in need for warm clothes for the cold winter and that most of them are actually helped out by the activities of the volunteer organization. Similar information about the success of the organization in achieving its mission (or lack of success, depending on experimental condition) was provided in the reports of other volunteers that referred to the different activities of the organization.

In the *low organizational support condition* a volunteer for instance said that the mission of the volunteer organization is to help the homeless people and that therefore in the activities of the volunteer organization the available time and monetary resources of the volunteer organization are directed towards helping the homeless, and that they are only incidentally spent on organizational support for volunteers. This was in contrast with the *high organizational support condition* in which the same volunteer stated that although the mission of the volunteer organization is to help the homeless people, in the activities of the volunteer organization the available time and monetary resources of the volunteer organization are not only directed towards helping the homeless but are also used to provide organizational support for volunteers. Again, depending on experimental condition, further information conveying either high or low organizational support was provided with different reports of

other volunteers.

After the participants had finished reading the leaflet, the questionnaire (starting with a few filler questions in support of the cover story) containing the dependent variables was administered. After completing the questionnaire, participants were fully debriefed, paid (Euro 2.50), and thanked for their research participation.

Dependent variables

All measures consisted of, or were adapted from, existing scales that were translated into Dutch. Where necessary, items were adjusted to be more appropriate to volunteer work and/or the context of the present research. We used 7-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 7 = *totally agree*) to assess the participants' responses to the items.

The *perceived success* of the volunteer organization (4 items, $\alpha = .84$) was assessed with items adapted from the scale developed by Fuller and colleagues (2006), e.g., "As a volunteer organization <organization> is successful in helping the homeless". The *perceived organizational support* (4 items, $\alpha = .95$) was measured with items adapted from the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), e.g., "<Organization> assists its volunteers sufficiently in their volunteer work". *Anticipated pride* (5 items, $\alpha = .86$) was assessed with items adapted from the Autonomous Pride Scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002), e.g., "If I were a volunteer at <organization>, I would feel proud". *Anticipated respect* (5 items, $\alpha = .93$) was measured with items adapted from the Autonomous Respect Scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002), e.g., "I would feel respected by <organization> as a volunteer". The *perceived need for additional volunteers* of the volunteer organization (4 items, $\alpha = .82$) was measured with items adapted from the Group Need-Scale (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998), e.g., "<Organization> has a need for additional volunteers in order to be more successful in helping the homeless". The *perceived efficiency of the volunteer organization* (4 items, $\alpha = .75$) was measured with items adapted

from the Collective Efficiency Beliefs Scale (Riggs & Knight, 1994), e.g., “<Organization> is efficient in helping the homeless”. *Attraction to the volunteer organization* (5 items, $\alpha = .89$) was measured with items adapted from the scale developed by Turban and Keon (1993), e.g., “I consider <organization> an attractive organization to volunteer for”.

A Principal Components Analysis with Varimax-rotation confirmed that the items intended to measure the dependent variables (anticipated pride, anticipated respect, the perceived organizational need for additional volunteers, the perceived efficiency of the volunteer organization, and the attraction to the volunteer organization) all fell into separate clusters (see Table 1 for intercorrelations).

Table 1 *Correlations between averaged constructs of Study 1*

(N = 124)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Org. success (dummy)	-									
2. Perceived org. success	.59**	-								
3. Org. support (dummy)	-.02	.08	-							
4. Perceived org. support	-.00	.20*	.84**	-						
5. Anticipated pride	-.01	.15	.06	.12	-					
6. Anticipated respect	-.03	.13	.44**	.54**	.30**	-				
7. Attraction to organization	.09	.09	.25**	.31**	.37**	.28**	-			
8. Perceived need for volunteers	-.36**	-.20*	.10	.11	.19*	.24**	.14	-		
9. Perceived org. efficiency	.07	.25**	-.31**	-.21*	.21*	.07	.13	.13	-	
10. Gender ^a	.11	.20*	.07	.06	.15	.09	.25**	.04	.15	-
11. Experience as volunteer ^a	-.01	.01	-.01	.02	.03	.15	.07	.11	-.06	-.11

Note. ^a N = 123 due to a missing value. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Results

Manipulation checks

An ANOVA with $F(1, 122) = 66.69, p < .001, \eta^2 = .35$ indicated that participants in

the low success condition ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.07$) perceived the organization as not very successful in achieving its mission of helping its clientele in contrast to participants in the high success condition ($M = 5.16$, $SD = .83$). An ANOVA with $F(1, 122) = 286.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .70$ indicated that participants in the low organizational support condition ($M = 2.34$, $SD = 1.19$) perceived the organization as providing not much support to its volunteers in contrast to participants in high organizational support condition ($M = 5.30$, $SD = .72$). There were no cross-over or interaction effects.

In the analysis of the hypothesized effects that follows next, we will use regression analysis to examine relations between different measured variables for testing Hypotheses 1 and 2, and we will use ANOVA's to test the direct effects of our experimental manipulations on the intended outcome variables (Hypotheses 3a, 4a, 5, and 6). However, to be able to summarize the final results of all hypothesis testing in a single graphic representation (see Figure 1), in addition to the results from the ANOVA's we will also report the results of regression analyses when examining Hypotheses 3a, 4a, 5, and 6.

Anticipated pride and respect, and the attraction to the volunteer organization

A hierarchical regression analysis showed support for our predictions that among non-volunteers anticipated feelings of pride (Hypothesis 1) and respect (Hypothesis 2) as a volunteer both contribute positively to the attraction to the volunteer organization. In Step 1 we entered participants' previous experience as a volunteer ($\beta = .10$, $p = ns$) and gender ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$) as control variables ($R^2 = .07$). Step 2 showed that, beyond participants' previous experience as a volunteer ($\beta = .06$, $p = ns$) and gender ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$), anticipated pride ($\beta = .30$, $p = .001$) and anticipated respect ($\beta = .16$, $p = .07$) both contributed positively to the attraction to the volunteer organization ($\Delta R^2 = .14$). This suggests that non-volunteers consider a volunteer organization more attractive as they anticipate experiencing more pride and respect as a volunteer at that organization (see Figure 1).

The effects of organizational success

We hypothesized (Hypothesis 3a) that information about organizational success induces anticipated pride among non-volunteers. However, an ANOVA indicated that there was no difference between participants in the low success condition ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.28$) versus the high success condition ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 1.04$) in the amount of pride they anticipated to experience as a volunteer, $F(1, 122) = .004$, $p = ns$, $\eta^2 = .00$. Accordingly, regression analysis also showed that organizational success ($\beta = -.01$, $p = ns$) does not predict anticipated pride as a volunteer ($R^2 = .00$). However, in support of Hypothesis 5 an ANOVA indicated that participants in the high success condition ($M = 5.42$, $SD = .99$) perceived the volunteer organization to be in lesser need for additional volunteers than the participants in the low success condition ($M = 6.08$, $SD = .70$), $F(1, 122) = 18.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .13$. A regression analysis corroborated this by showing that organizational success ($\beta = -.36$, $p < .001$) impacts negatively on the perceived need of the charitable volunteer organization for additional volunteers ($R^2 = .13$). Thus, our data reveal that informing non-volunteers that a charitable volunteer organization is successful in achieving its mission does *not* lead them to anticipate greater pride in being a volunteer at that organization, but induces the idea that the organization has a lesser need for additional volunteers than an organization that is less successful (see Figure 1).

The effects of organizational support

Confirming our prediction (Hypothesis 4a), an ANOVA showed that the participants in the high organizational support condition anticipated to experience significantly more respect ($M = 5.56$, $SD = .89$) from the volunteer organization than the participants in the low organizational support condition ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 1.21$), $F(1, 122) = 29.32$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .19$. Accordingly, organizational support emerged as a reliable predictor of anticipated respect ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$) in a regression analysis ($R^2 = .19$). An ANOVA also revealed a negative side

effect of organizational support as predicted in Hypothesis 6, in that participants in the high organizational support condition perceived the volunteer organization to be less efficient in helping its clientele ($M = 4.47$, $SD = .95$) than participants in the low organizational support condition ($M = 5.05$, $SD = .81$), $F(1, 122) = 13.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .10$. This relation also emerged in a regression analysis showing that organizational support ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$) impacts negatively on non-volunteers' perceptions that a charitable volunteer organization is efficient ($R^2 = .10$).

In sum, these results suggest that when non-volunteers are informed that a volunteer organization provides support to its volunteers, they anticipate to be respected as a volunteer at that organization, but this information also causes them to think that the volunteer organization is less efficient in directly helping its clientele (see Figure 1).

Anticipated pride and respect as mediators of attraction to the volunteer organization

We hypothesized that organizational success fosters attraction to the volunteer organization through anticipated feelings of pride as a volunteer (Hypothesis 3b), and that organizational support fosters attraction to the organization through anticipated feelings of respect as a volunteer (Hypothesis 4b). Additionally, we wanted to explore whether non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization suffers from negative side effects of providing information about organizational success (because this decreases the perceived need for additional volunteers) and/or organizational support (as this lowers perceived organizational efficiency).

In line with the procedure for testing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; see also Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001), Hypothesis 3b was not further examined because one of the pre-conditions for the analysis was not met. That is, even though the mediator (anticipated pride) was related to the outcome variable (organizational attraction) in this case the intended predictor (organizational success) was

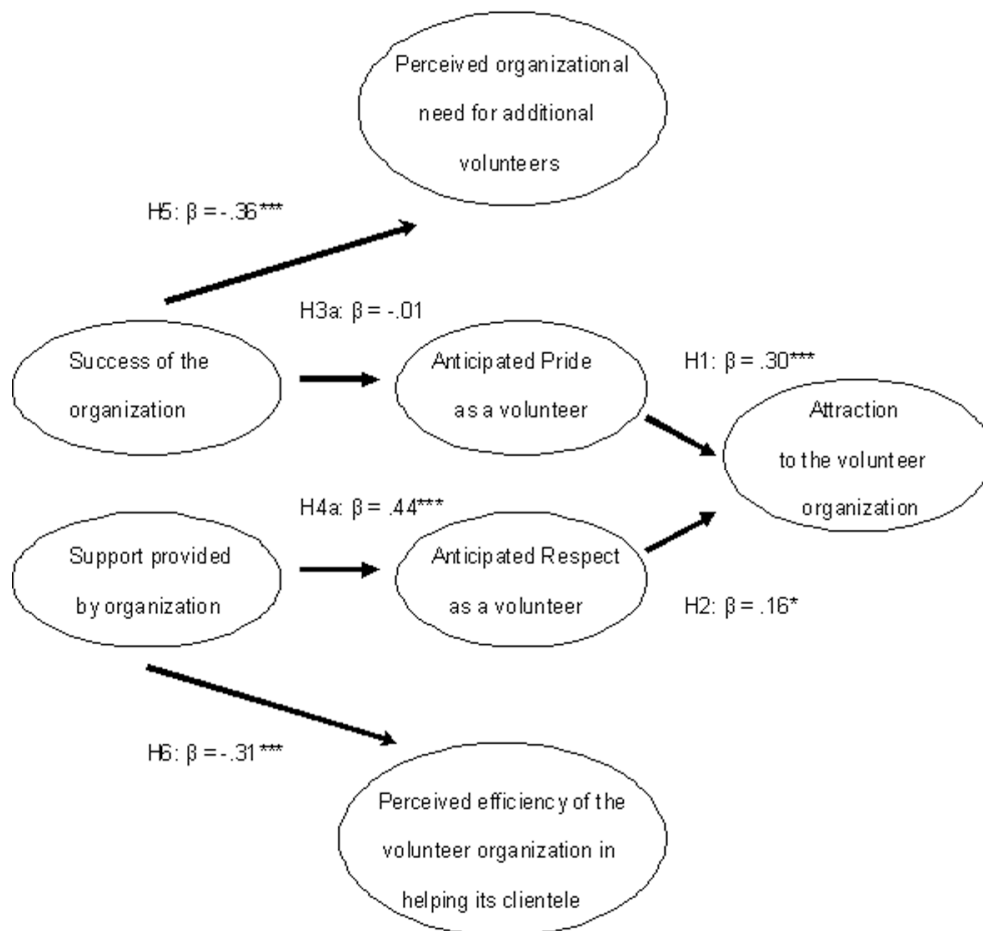


Figure 1. Study 1. Predicted relations between variables (with Hypothesis numbers indicated) and direct effects observed. * $p < .10$, *** $p < .001$.

found to be unrelated to the mediator (anticipated pride; see also Table 1), excluding the possibility of an indirect effect. In fact, the intended predictor (organizational success) was also unrelated to the outcome variable (organizational attraction). This may either imply that organizational success is not relevant to the attraction of non-volunteers to a volunteer organization, or that there is a curvilinear relation between these two variables, in that there is an optimal level at which intermediate organizational success fosters attraction to the volunteer organization.

After having established that the pre-conditions to test Hypothesis 4b were met, the

relevant regression analyses (Baron & Kenny, 1986) showed support for the predicted mediation. The direct effect ($b = .62$, $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .06$) of support provided by the organization (dummy-coded) on attraction to the volunteer organization became non-significant ($b = .40$, $\beta = .16$, $p = ns$) when anticipated respect ($b = .22$, $\beta = .21$, $p < .05$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .10$) indicating full mediation, which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 1.99$, $p < .05$). Further, we calculated a 95% confidence interval (.0355; .4203) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004), which corroborated that the mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included in the confidence interval. In line with predictions, these results suggest that the provision of information about organizational support to non-volunteers leads them to anticipate more respect as a volunteer, which in turn causes them to perceive the volunteer organization as a more attractive place to work.

Finally, we explored whether the negative side effects of organizational success and organizational support affect non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization. Neither the perceived need for additional volunteers ($r = .14$, ns) nor the perceived (in)efficiency of the volunteer organization ($r = .13$, ns) were reliably correlated with the attraction to the volunteer organization (see Table 1). From this we concluded that even though information about organizational success and organizational support may have (unintended) negative side-effects, this does not negatively affect non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization.

Study 2

Study 1 supports the notion that anticipated pride and respect are relevant to the recruitment of non-volunteers, and provides clear cues to what volunteer organizations might do to attract non-volunteers to the volunteer organization. In Study 2 we build on these initial results, to examine whether information about support from the organization and support from

co-volunteers elicit different types of anticipated respect (anticipated organizational respect, anticipated co-volunteer respect), and we address how this impacts upon non-volunteers' attraction to charitable volunteer organizations.

Social relationships with others are considered a relevant factor in the motivation of volunteer workers (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Accordingly, previous research among existing volunteers suggests that social integration in the volunteer organization and interpersonal relations with co-volunteers contribute to the satisfaction of volunteer workers and enhance the intention to stay in the volunteer organization (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Therefore, we think it is important to examine whether information about support from co-volunteers also contributes to non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization (through anticipated co-volunteer respect), or whether attraction to the organization mainly depends on the support and anticipated respect at the level of the volunteer organization (see also Ellemers & Boezeman, in press).

Even though social relationships with other volunteers are important to existing volunteers, for non-volunteers it is less clear which individuals they are likely to encounter when they join the volunteer organization, or how they will relate to these individuals. Hence, in determining the attraction of non-volunteers, it may be more important to consider the support and respect one can anticipate to receive from the volunteer organization, because this information may seem more stable and predictive of one's own future experiences than co-volunteer support and respect. To examine this, we will assess how anticipated organizational respect (induced by information about organizational support) versus anticipated co-volunteer respect (induced by information about co-volunteer support) affects the attraction to the volunteer organization.

In line with research findings obtained among existing members of organizations (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Fuller et al., 2006; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001,

2002), we predict that when non-volunteers are informed that a charitable volunteer organization provides support to its volunteers (*organizational support*), this will cause them to anticipate experiencing organizational respect (Hypothesis 7a), which in turn will enhance their attraction to that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 7b). We also predict that when non-volunteers are informed that the volunteers of a charitable volunteer organization provide support to their co-volunteers (*co-volunteer support*), this will cause them to anticipate experiencing co-volunteer respect (Hypothesis 8a), which in turn will contribute to their attraction to that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 8b). In examining these hypotheses we focus on the provision of emotional support in the organization as a predictor of respect, because this form of support has been found relevant to the psychological engagement of existing volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007) and can be equally well provided by a volunteer organization as by individual volunteers.

Method

Participants

Participants were 58 students (17 males, 41 females) at Leiden University with a mean age of 20.5 ($SD = 2.86$) years, and 39.7% was familiar with volunteer work through (past) volunteer jobs.

Design and Procedure

We used a 2 (Organization Emotional Support: High versus Low) X 2 (Co-volunteer Emotional Support: High versus Low) between-participants factorial design. With this design, we followed the same procedure as in Study 1.

In the *low organizational support condition* a volunteer for instance said that the volunteer organization is not really concerned with how volunteers personally feel when they go home at the end of the day. This was in contrast with the *high organizational support condition* in which the same volunteer stated that the organization really is

concerned with how volunteers personally feel when they go home at the end of the day.

In the *low co-volunteer support condition* a volunteer for instance said that she would feel more motivated to keep going if her co-volunteers would cheer her up, but that that does not happen very often during the volunteer work. This was in contrast with the *high co-volunteer support condition* in which the same volunteer stated that co-volunteers often cheer her up, which keeps her going in the volunteer work. As in Study 1, both manipulations were further reinforced with other examples of support provided in the reports of different volunteers.

Dependent variables

We used 7-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 7 = *totally agree*) to assess the participants' responses to the items. The perception of *organizational emotional support* (4 items, $\alpha = .96$) was measured with items such as “<Organization> provides sufficient emotional support to its volunteers”, and perceived *co-volunteer emotional support* (4 items, $\alpha = .97$) was measured with items such as “<Organization> - volunteers provide each other with sufficient emotion-oriented support”. These measures were adapted from the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a). We measured each form of *anticipated respect* with 5 items adapted from the Autonomous Respect Scale (Tyler & Blader, 2002), and specified the source of respect in the items. A sample item from the *anticipated organizational respect* scale ($\alpha = .95$) is: “I would feel respected by <organization> as a volunteer”. A sample item from the *anticipated co-volunteer respect* scale ($\alpha = .95$) is: “I would feel respected by <organization> - volunteers as a volunteer”. The *attraction to the volunteer organization* was measured with the same 5 items as in Study 1 ($\alpha = .88$).

A Principal Components Analysis with Varimax-rotation confirmed that the dependent variables (anticipated organizational respect, anticipated co-volunteer respect, and the attraction to the volunteer organization) all clustered as intended. The correlations between

Table 2 Correlations between averaged constructs of Study 2

(N = 58)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Organizational support (dummy)	-								
2. Perceived organizational support	.89**	-							
3. Co-volunteer support (dummy)	.04	.11	-						
4. Perceived co-volunteer support	-.04	.11	.89**	-					
5. Anticipated organizational respect	.82**	.90**	.11	.09	-				
6. Anticipated co-volunteer respect	-.10	.02	.74**	.81**	.07	-			
7. Attraction to volunteer organization	.30*	.31*	-.05	-.01	.39**	-.04	-		
8. Gender	-.14	-.15	-.09	-.12	-.14	.02	-.01	-	
9. Previous experience as a volunteer	-.01	-.03	.01	-.00	.01	.06	.12	.06	-

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

the constructs are shown in Table 2.

Results

Manipulation checks

An ANOVA showed that the participants in the low organizational support condition ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 1.06$) perceived the volunteer organization to provide less support to its volunteers than the participants in the high organizational support condition ($M = 5.66$, $SD = .79$), $F(1, 56) = 218.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .80$. The manipulation of organizational support did *not* affect the level of perceived co-volunteer support. Further, an ANOVA indicated that the participants in the low co-volunteer support condition ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.16$) perceived the volunteers to provide less support to their co-volunteers than the participants in the high co-volunteer support condition ($M = 5.99$, $SD = .65$), $F(1, 56) = 213.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .79$. The manipulation of co-volunteer support did *not* affect the level of perceived organizational support. Thus, both manipulations worked as intended and there were no cross-over effects.

Support and anticipated respect

Confirming our prediction (Hypothesis 7a), an ANOVA showed that participants in the low organizational support condition ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.14$) anticipated to experience less

organizational respect than the participants in the high organizational support condition ($M = 5.78$, $SD = .71$), and $F(1, 56) = 117.72$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .68$. The manipulation of organizational support did *not* affect non-volunteers' amount of anticipated co-volunteer respect. Confirming our prediction (Hypothesis 8a), an ANOVA showed that the participants in the low co-volunteer support condition ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.30$) anticipated to experience less co-volunteer respect than participants in the high co-volunteer support condition ($M = 6.01$, $SD = .59$), and $F(1, 56) = 67.08$, $p < .001$, and $\eta^2 = .55$. The manipulation of co-volunteer support did *not* affect anticipated organizational respect. These results suggest that non-volunteers derive anticipations of organizational and co-volunteer respect from the reports about support received by the organization and current volunteers respectively.

Anticipated respect as a mediator of attraction to the organization

We predicted that in the case of non-volunteers, information about the provision of organizational support fosters attraction to the volunteer organization through anticipated feelings of organizational respect (Hypothesis 7b), and that information about co-volunteer support fosters attraction to the organization through anticipated feelings of co-volunteer respect (Hypothesis 8b).

After having established that the mediator (anticipated organizational respect) correlates positively with the intended predictor (organizational support), the relevant regression analyses (Baron & Kenny, 1986) showed support for Hypothesis 7b. That is, the direct effect ($b = .67$, $\beta = .30$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .09$) of organizational support (dummy-coded) on attraction to the volunteer organization became non-significant ($b = -.17$, $\beta = -.08$, $p = ns$) when anticipated organizational respect ($b = .31$, $\beta = .45$, $p < .05$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .16$), indicating full mediation which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 2.04$, $p < .05$). Further, we calculated a 95% confidence interval (.1196; 1.4155) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004), which corroborated

that the mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included in the confidence interval. As for Hypothesis 8b, in line with the procedure for testing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986) this hypothesis was not further examined because the pre-conditions for this analysis were not met. That is, we found (see also Table 2) that attraction to the volunteer organization was neither related to co-volunteer support ($r = -.05, ns$) nor to anticipated co-volunteer respect ($r = -.04, ns$), excluding the possibility of an indirect effect. Thus, despite the notion that interpersonal relations with co-volunteers enhance the satisfaction and engagement of existing volunteers, the provision of information about co-volunteer support did not enhance attraction to the volunteer organization among non-volunteers beyond inducing anticipated co-volunteer respect.

Study 3

The previous studies indicate that non-volunteers derive anticipations of respect from information that volunteers are supported within the volunteer organization during volunteer work, and that anticipated respect in turn enhances non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization. However, information about the type of support provided was not specified in Study 1, and Study 2 only addressed the effects of information about emotional support. Hence, we will now distinguish between task and emotional support as two central dimensions of support that are likely to be relevant to the development of anticipated respect as a volunteer, and we will assess non-volunteers' actual willingness to participate in the charitable volunteer organization.

It has been established that both emotional support (support aimed at enhancing the emotional well-being of the recipient) *and* task support (support aimed at helping the recipient overcome practical problems through the provision of material goods and services) are relevant forms of support for those working in volunteer organizations (Clary, 1987; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983). Based on

relevant theory and previous research (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a) we consider it likely that information about both dimensions of support can induce the anticipation of respect as a volunteer, and hence contribute to non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization. We therefore predict that when non-volunteers are informed that volunteers receive task support in the volunteer organization, they will anticipate experiencing respect as a volunteer at that organization (Hypothesis 9a), and that this will cause them to become attracted to that volunteer organization (Hypothesis 9b). We also predict that when non-volunteers are informed that volunteers receive emotional support at the volunteer organization, they will anticipate experiencing respect as a volunteer at that organization (Hypothesis 10a), and that this will cause them to become attracted to that organization (Hypothesis 10b).

The target outcome variable in the previous studies consisted of non-volunteers' attraction to the volunteer organization. In this third study we will address the actual willingness to participate in activities of the volunteer organization as the final outcome variable, because this can be regarded as a central goal of the recruitment efforts of volunteer organizations. This not only extends our theoretical analysis but also enhances the practical applicability of our findings. Among existing volunteers, the willingness to keep participating in the volunteer organization is commonly assessed by measuring their intention to remain a volunteer with the organization (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990). A parallel measure in the case of non-volunteers thus is to measure their intentions of becoming a volunteer with the organization. We aimed to assess this intention as concretely as possible, namely through the acceptance of an internship as a volunteer at the volunteer organization. Previous analyses using the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; see also Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) to understand the recruitment of paid employees have argued that attraction to the organization enhances applicants' intentions

of accepting a job offer (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005). Based on our reasoning and in line with this previous work we predict (Hypothesis 11) that the willingness to actually participate in the volunteer organization results from the attraction to the volunteer organization that is induced by the respect non-volunteers anticipate because of the information they receive about task support (H11a) and emotional support (H11b) available to volunteers within the volunteer organization.

Method

Participants

Participants were 93 students (22 males, 71 females) at Leiden University with a mean age of 21 ($SD = 2.11$) years, and 48.4% was familiar with volunteer work through (past) volunteer jobs.

Design and Procedure

We used a 2 (Task-oriented support: High versus Low) X 2 (Emotion-oriented support: High versus Low) between-participants factorial design. With these independent variables, we followed the same procedure as in the previous studies.

In the *low task support* condition, a volunteer for instance said that within the volunteer organization individual volunteers are supposed to try and solve task-related problems on their own as much as possible, without using the help of the human and organizational resources available within the organization. In contrast, in the *high task support* condition the same volunteer stated that within the volunteer organization individual volunteers are freely allowed to rely on the help of the human and organizational resources available within the organization to solve task-related problems.

In the *low emotional support* condition a volunteer for instance said that it is not really possible to share disappointments during volunteer work with others in the organization, and that the staff of the organization is often too busy to cheer her up. In contrast, in the *high*

emotional support condition the same volunteer indicated that it is always possible to share disappointments during volunteer work with others in the organization as a volunteer, and that the staff of the organization often takes time to cheer her up. As in the previous studies, additional examples of high vs. low support (depending on experimental condition) were provided in the reports of other volunteers.

Dependent variables

We used 7-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 7 = *totally agree*) to measure the responses to the items. We checked the perceived provision of *task-oriented support* (3 items, $\alpha = .94$) with items adapted from the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), such as: “Within <organization>, volunteers receive practical support during volunteer work”. We checked the perceived provision of *emotion-oriented support* (3 items, $\alpha = .93$) with items adapted from the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley; see also Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), such as “Within <organization> sufficient emotional support is provided to volunteers when necessary”. *Anticipated respect* (5 items, $\alpha = .92$) and *attraction to the volunteer organization* (5 items, $\alpha = .86$) were measured with items identical to Studies 1 and 2. The actual *willingness to participate* in the volunteer organization (2 items, $\alpha = .75$) was measured by asking participants about their willingness to do an internship at the volunteer organization, namely: “At my own convenience and for 1 part of 1 day, I am willing to do an internship at <organization> to see what the volunteer work is like”. The second item asked about this same intention, but was reverse scored. Participants were informed that if they expressed their interest in an internship, the researchers would provide the information needed to contact them to the volunteer organization. Thus, the participants could actually expect that the alleged volunteer organization would contact them for an internship based on how they had answered these questions. Therefore their expressed intention to participate in the

volunteer organization was not just hypothetical.

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) confirmed that the items we used to measure the constructs clustered as intended, and that relevant alternative measurement models did not account more satisfactorily for the data (see Table 3). The correlations between constructs are shown in Table 4.

Table 3 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Study Variables Study 3*

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
5-factor measurement model	125	202***	-	.93	.94	.08	- 49
4A-factor measurement model ^a	129	465***	263***	.70	.75	.17	207
4B-factor measurement model ^b	129	317***	115***	.83	.86	.13	59
4C-factor measurement model ^c	129	406***	204***	.75	.79	.15	148
4D-factor measurement model ^d	129	218***	16**	.92	.93	.09	- 40
1-factor measurement model	135	760***	558***	.47	.53	.22	490

Note. $N = 93$. $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates the deviation of each alternative model compared to the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model. Alternative models combine into a single factor variables that show high intercorrelations. ^a Combining perceived task and emotional support, ^b Combining perceived emotional support and anticipated respect, ^c Combining perceived task support and anticipated respect, ^d Combining the perceived attractiveness of the organization and the willingness to participate. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4 Correlations between averaged constructs of Study 3

(N = 93)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Task support (dummy)	-								
2. Perceived task support	.91***	-							
3. Emotional support (dummy)	.05	.15	-						
4. Perceived emotional support	.22**	.30***	.82***	-					
5. Anticipated respect	.47***	.54***	.61***	.75***	-				
6. Attraction to the organization	.25**	.33***	.23**	.26**	.40***	-			
7. Willingness to participate in the volunteer organization	.10	.19*	.27***	.24**	.25**	.61***	-		
8. Gender	-.10	-.04	.01	-.12	-.09	.06	.16	-	
9. Experience as a volunteer ^a	.09	.14	-.02	.08	.13	.16	.12	-.01	-

Note. ^a N = 92 due to a missing value. * $p < .10$ **, $p < .05$., *** $p < .01$.

Results

Manipulation checks

An ANOVA showed that the participants in the low emotion-oriented support condition ($M = 2.47$, $SD = .89$) perceived that volunteers received less emotional support within the volunteer organization than the participants in the high emotion-oriented support condition ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 1.09$), $F(1, 91) = 192.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .68$. The manipulation of emotional support did not affect the level of perceived task support at the organization. Further, an ANOVA indicated that participants in the low task-oriented support condition ($M = 2.08$, $SD = .68$) perceived that volunteers received less task support at the volunteer organization than participants in the high task-oriented support condition ($M = 5.32$, $SD = .80$), $F(1, 91) = 441.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .83$. An ANOVA showed that the manipulation of task support also affected the level of perceived emotional support ($F(1, 91) = 4.57$, $p = .04$, and $\eta^2 = .05$), which we did not anticipate. Nevertheless, comparison of effect sizes revealed that the effect of information about task support on perceived emotional support was negligible when compared to its effect on perceived task support. Importantly too, the intended difference in perceived emotional support due to the manipulation of high vs. low emotional support was

retained at both levels of task support, and there was no interaction effect. From this we concluded that the manipulations worked as intended.

The effects of task- and emotional support on anticipated respect

Confirming our prediction (Hypothesis 9a), an ANOVA showed that participants in the low task-oriented support condition ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 1.32$) anticipated to experience less respect as a volunteer than the participants in the high task-oriented support condition ($M = 5.06$, $SD = 1.09$), and $F(1, 91) = 25.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .22$. Also confirming our prediction (Hypothesis 10a), an ANOVA showed that participants in the low emotion-oriented support condition ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.21$) anticipated to experience less respect as a volunteer than the participants in the high emotion-oriented support condition ($M = 5.25$, $SD = .96$), and $F(1, 91) = 52.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .37$. These results indicate that information about available (task and emotional) support for volunteers leads non-volunteers to anticipate respect as a volunteer at the organization.

Attraction to the volunteer organization and the willingness to participate as a volunteer

We hypothesized (Hypotheses 9b and 10b) that the provision of information about task and emotional support enhances the attraction to the volunteer organization through anticipated respect. Furthermore, we predicted (Hypothesis 11) that the attraction to the volunteer organization thus enhanced should increase the actual willingness of non-volunteers to participate in the volunteer organization. As addressing these predictions required the examination of a 4-stage mediation model, at this point we constructed a path model (see Figure 2) and used path analysis executed in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) to test whether the hypothesized path model involving the specified indirect effects was supported by the data. Previously, we examined the direct effects of our manipulations (Hypotheses 9a and 10a) with ANOVA's using the manipulated independent variables. However, in the path analysis that follows, we will also examine the possibility of reversed directionality of the

relationships among the variables, which requires the use of the measured independent variables as substitutes for the manipulated independent variables. Thus, to be able to compare the fit of different models, in our further analysis we will use *perceived* task and emotional social support as independent variables. We note that the results of testing the hypothesized path model (Fig. 2) that we will now report on the basis of the measured independent variables are similar to the results of testing this model using the dummy-variables.

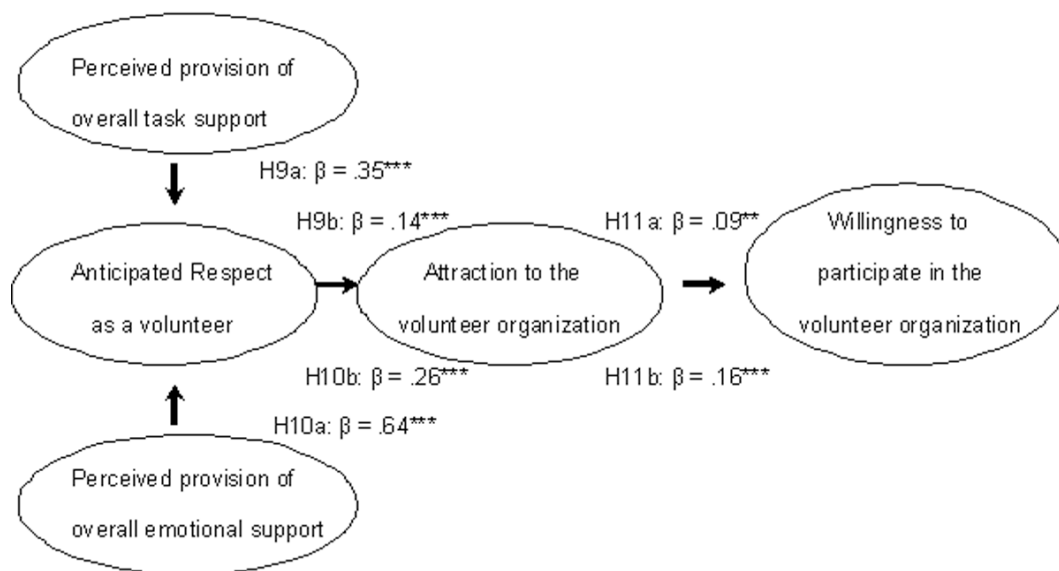


Figure 2. Path model Study 3. Direct effects (Hypotheses 9a and 10a) and indirect effects (Hypotheses 9b, 10b, and 11) are depicted. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The statistics we obtained when testing the fit of the overall model were $\chi^2(5, N = 93) = 4$, $p = ns$, NNFI = 1.01, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, and AIC = -5.9. These statistics indicate that overall the hypothesized path model (see Figure 2) fit the data well (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). To further examine the validity of our hypothesized path model, we tested it against 2 alternative path models.

We tested the hypothesized fully mediated model against an alternative partially

mediated path model, in order to examine whether the types of perceived support were directly associated with the attractiveness of the volunteer organization in addition to the paths shown in Figure 2, because previous research suggests there may be a direct link between anticipated support within the organization and the job pursuit intentions of individuals seeking (paid) employment (see Casper & Buffardi, 2004). The hypothesized path model was nested within the partially mediated path model, and thus the models could be compared on the basis of the chi-square differences test. The statistics we obtained when testing the overall fit of the partially mediated path model were $\chi^2(3, N = 93) = 2, p = ns$, NNFI = 1.02, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, and AIC = -4. A chi-square differences test showed that the fit of the partially mediated model was not significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2, p = ns$) from the more parsimonious and well fitting hypothesized path model. Furthermore, perceived task-oriented support ($\beta = .15, p = ns$) and emotion-oriented support ($\beta = -.06, p = ns$) did not affect the attraction to the organization directly in the alternative path model. Also, a Wald Test (see for a discussion Byrne, 1994) indicated that the additional direct paths under examination were redundant. Thus, the hypothesized fully mediated path model showed better fit to the data than the partially mediated alternative path model. Additionally, we examined an alternative non-nested path model to address the possibility that the causal order of the variables in our model might be reversed. The omnibus fit indexes for the alternative reversed path model were $\chi^2(6, N = 93) = 8, p = ns$, NNFI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05, and AIC = -4. In the case of non-nested model comparison one should (see Bentler, 2004) specifically favor the model with the lowest value of Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), and therefore we concluded that the alternative reversed path model fit the data less well (AIC = -4) than the hypothesized path model (AIC = -5.9). We accepted the hypothesized path model (Fig.2) as the final model, and continued our analysis.

First, when using the perceptual measures (instead of the dummy-coded experimental

manipulations) as independent variables we again found that (perceived) task support ($\beta = .35, p < .001$) and emotional support ($\beta = .64, p < .001$) enhance anticipated respect as a volunteer, as predicted in Hypotheses 9a and 10a. The types of support jointly accounted for 66.8% of the variance in anticipated respect as a volunteer. Our prediction (Hypotheses 9b and 10b) that the types of support would enhance the attraction to the organization through anticipated respect was also supported by the path analysis. The results showed an indirect and positive relation of perceived task support ($\beta = .14, p < .001$) and perceived emotional support ($\beta = .26, p < .001$) with the attraction to the volunteer organization, through anticipated respect. Finally, our prediction (Hypothesis 11) that perceived task support (Hypothesis 11a) and perceived emotional support (Hypothesis 11b) would contribute positively to the willingness to participate in the volunteer organization, through anticipated respect and the resulting attraction to the volunteer organization, was supported by the path analysis. The results showed an indirect and positive relation of perceived task support ($\beta = .09, p < .01$) and perceived emotional support ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) with the willingness to participate in the volunteer organization, through anticipated respect and the subsequent attraction to the volunteer organization (anticipated respect was indirectly associated with the willingness to participate in the volunteer organization through attraction to the volunteer organization as $\beta = .25, p < .001$). These results support the model we hypothesized (see Figure 2).

General Discussion

In a programmatic series of experiments we developed and tested theoretical insights to understand and predict non-volunteers' attraction to charitable volunteer organizations. Across 3 studies we found that anticipated respect as a volunteer is the link between what volunteer organizations can do in recruitment efforts and non-volunteers' engagement with charitable volunteer organizations. Our analysis based upon SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and

the concepts of pride and respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002), as well as the empirical data we obtained to test the validity of this analysis, contribute to the literature in several ways.

Mainstream research in line with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) focuses on how members of groups and organizations respond to the standing of their group or organization. Tyler and colleagues (Smith & Tyler, 1997; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) have argued and empirically demonstrated that the standing of the individual *within* the group or organization is also relevant for the development of a positive social identity. However, both these strands of theory development and research have focused on *existing* group or organizational members. Although there are a few studies that compared social identity processes among marginal vs. core group members (e.g., Noel, Wann, & Branscombe, 1995), the present research is the first to address the causes and effects of *anticipated* pride and respect among *non-members* of the group or organization in question. Thus, these studies are unique in that they examine social identity processes among those for whom (potential) membership in the group is not (yet) part of their self-relevant identity. We think this expands existing insights in this area of research.

Second, there is a lack of theory and models that explain why people volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), and there still is much to learn about what volunteer organizations can do to enhance the effectiveness of their recruitment efforts (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). The current findings help fill this gap, as they indicate some of the ways in which volunteer organizations can induce anticipated respect, in order to enhance non-volunteers' attraction to, and willingness to participate in, the volunteer organization.

A third contribution of the present research is that it reminds us that it is not self-evident that psychological processes that have been found relevant for profit organizations apply in the same way to non-profit volunteer organizations. Indeed, although research (e.g., Cable &

Turban, 2003; Fuller et al., 2006) has indicated that the perceived success of a for-profit organization makes the profit organization attractive as a place to work, we found no evidence that emphasizing the success of a volunteer organization benefits recruitment efforts (see also Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). This illustrates that separate theory development and research are necessary to acquire specific knowledge about the recruitment, motivation, and retention of volunteer workers.

Implications for volunteer organizations

Our results suggest that volunteer organizations can induce anticipated respect among non-volunteers - as a way to attract them to the organization - by conveying to them that the organization *invests in and cares for* its volunteers. For instance, through relevant marketing procedures (i.e., flyers, commercials, a leaflet as in the present research, etc.), or through the social network of current volunteers, volunteer organizations can communicate about the task and emotional support individual volunteers receive. Research (see Pearce, 1993) indicates that people are often recruited through their social network to volunteer, meaning that they are asked to volunteer by for instance a relative, a friend, or a colleague who already is a volunteer. Thus, in social network recruitment the organization should make sure that their volunteers are aware of, and mention, the forms of support they receive from the organization in doing their volunteer work. In fact, our research suggests that this is likely to be more effective than focusing on the success of the organization in achieving its mission, or promoting the possibility to establish interpersonal relations with other volunteers. A potential drawback of this approach may be that information about support provided can make the organization seem less efficient. However, this was not found to undermine attraction to the organization, while realistic information about what can be expected may protect against negative effects at a later stage (Premack & Wanous, 1985).

Limitations of the present research

The primary dependent variable in the first 2 Studies reported here was attraction to the volunteer organization. This might be considered a limitation in that this measure can be seen to indicate a rather broad evaluation of the organization, which does not necessarily predict concrete behavior relevant to volunteer recruitment. However, we addressed this in Study 3, where we included non-volunteers' actual willingness to participate in the volunteer organization as a more specific and concrete outcome of the psychological process under examination. The results of Study 3 were in line with predictions and corroborated the relevance of attraction to the volunteer organization as a dependent measure in the first two studies, in that we were able to establish that attraction to the organization does predict the actual willingness of non-volunteers to participate in the volunteer organization. Thus, although we did not address actual volunteer application decisions with an existing volunteer organization, we think our research provides an important first step in examining volunteer attraction and recruitment (see also Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). In fact, in this sense our work does not deviate from previous recruitment research, which commonly focuses on attraction to the organization before examining actual recruitment outcomes (Turban & Cable, 2003).

Another limitation of the current research is that we examined a specific group of potential volunteers, namely university students. On the one hand, the observation that in each study about half of our participants were familiar with volunteer work through (past) volunteer jobs, indicates the appropriateness of examining this sample as potential volunteers that might be targeted in recruitment efforts. Additionally, with the different experimental manipulations, the written information about the volunteer organization presented in the research was relatively complex, and we needed a sample of potential volunteers who would be able to easily read and process this complex information. Nevertheless, we are aware that examining a homogeneous group of research participations may limit the generalizability of results, in our case with the implication that the insights on how to inform non-volunteers

about the volunteer organization to increase their attraction to the organization may specifically apply to highly educated non-volunteers. Even with this limitation, however, we think the present results remain useful as charitable volunteer organizations can often use all the volunteer help they can get (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Pearce, 1993), including the volunteer help of students. Thus, the fact that we demonstrated a way to attract students to the charitable volunteer organization is certainly of interest to the recruitment efforts of volunteer organizations.

Suggestions for further research

An issue that remained unresolved in the present research is how to induce anticipated pride as a volunteer, as the information we provided about organizational success did not have this effect. Nevertheless, we found that anticipated pride is a valid predictor of attraction to the volunteer organization among non-volunteers, and this is why it is important to further explore the antecedents of anticipated pride. Charitable volunteer organizations contribute positively to society and are generally valued. Hence, likely antecedents of anticipated pride among non-volunteers involve appreciation for the mission of the volunteer organization, or the subjective importance of the volunteer work as considered by the clientele of the volunteer organization. Further, while there is a clear societal need for additional (practical) knowledge of volunteer attraction and recruitment, research to date has mainly addressed the attraction of *paid* workers. As a result, in the literature on organizational behavior little is known about ways to attract *volunteers*. Thus, besides a need for additional research on organizational characteristics that can induce anticipations of pride and respect, more research is needed to examine the recruitment of volunteers.

We conclude that anticipated feelings of pride and respect are relevant and valuable in the field of volunteer work, and hold a clear promise with regard to further theory development and research on the attraction and recruitment of (volunteer) workers.

Chapter 5

Intrinsic need satisfaction among volunteers versus paid employees

This chapter features in a revised version in the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, see Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (in press). Intrinsic need satisfaction and the job attitudes of volunteers versus employees working in a charitable volunteer organization.

Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.

The work motivation of volunteers is non-instrumental by definition. Hence, one of the few possible ways in which volunteer organizations can motivate and retain volunteers is by addressing their satisfaction with the volunteer job. In research on organizational behavior, the job satisfaction of paid workers has been extensively addressed (for an overview see Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). In contrast, only a few studies so far have focused on the job satisfaction of volunteers and its predictors (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The volunteer workforce is a workforce in itself with its own specific job design (Pearce, 1993; Gidron, 1983) which merits specified theory development and research (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008b). Therefore, further insight into the ways in which work experiences can sustain and enhance satisfaction with the job among volunteers are theoretically relevant, and can also help volunteer organizations to improve their volunteer policy. The goal of the present research is to examine intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) as a potential cause of volunteers' job satisfaction and intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization. We first examine whether satisfaction with the volunteer job and the resulting intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization relate to intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) during volunteer work. Additionally, we examine whether volunteers differ from paid employees (performing identical tasks within the same organization) in the way in which they derive job satisfaction and intentions to remain from intrinsic need satisfaction during work.

Job satisfaction in volunteer work

Volunteer work is work in an organizational context, unpaid and without any obligations, for the benefit of others and/or society (e.g., Meijs, 1997). In line with the mission of their volunteer organization, volunteers provide services to society and its members that would not be available if they had to be paid for (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Thus, the fact that people are willing to work in volunteer organizations without compensation enables these

organizations to contribute positively to society.

Although volunteer work is a self-chosen activity (suggesting that volunteers cooperate, perform, and attend because they want to), volunteer organizations are often confronted with personnel problems in coordinating their volunteers towards contributing to the mission of the volunteer organization (Pearce, 1993). That is, volunteers often refuse to cooperate with their volunteer organization and/or do not perform and attend as expected, for instance when they do not see the relevance of organizational procedures (Pearce, 1993). The reason why volunteers can easily non-cooperate, non-perform, and non-attend, is that volunteer work is non-obligatory and unpaid (Pearce, 1993). Indeed, volunteer organizations can neither reward volunteers for performing desired behavior nor sanction them for failing to do so. Nevertheless, it is important that volunteers remain and perform their task as they promised, because volunteer organizations have a clientele to serve that is dependent upon the services of the volunteer organization. As material rewards and punishments do not apply to volunteer work, one of the few ways in which volunteer organizations *can* coordinate volunteers towards contributing to the mission and services of the volunteer organization is by addressing their satisfaction with the volunteer job. Thus, it is critical for volunteer organizations to address the job satisfaction of volunteers, because financial and material rewards cannot be used to motivate volunteers, due to the ideological and financial circumstances in which volunteer organizations operate.

Job satisfaction refers to an attitude concerning one's work and its aspects (Griffin & Bateman, 1986). For instance, Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction has been extensively addressed in the field of paid work. Findings (Judge et al., 2001; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993) obtained among paid workers for instance showed that job satisfaction is positively linked to

performance and helping behaviors on the job (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior) and negatively associated with withdrawal cognitions (e.g., intent to leave the organization). However, despite its relevance to theory development concerning job attitudes and the operation of volunteer organizations, job satisfaction has only received minor attention in the case of volunteer work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). To date, Clary et al. (1998) found that volunteers are more satisfied with their volunteer work insofar as the volunteer work provides them with non-material benefits (e.g., work experience) in line with their initial motivation for performing the volunteer work. Additionally, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) established among volunteers that perceptions of the importance of the volunteer work and social integration within the volunteer organization (which were seen to indicate volunteers' job satisfaction) were positively correlated with the willingness to stay a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

As preliminary research (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) on satisfaction with the volunteer job indicates, due to the fact that volunteer work is unpaid (Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993) volunteer organizations can only enhance the job satisfaction of their volunteers by addressing the non-material features of the volunteer work experience. Because volunteer work is by definition an act of free choice, it reflects an activity that is self-chosen out of intrinsic interest. This means that for volunteers (in contrast to what is the case among paid employees) job satisfaction and intentions of remaining a worker with the organization can *only* arise from factors related to intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic need satisfaction as a predictor of volunteers' job satisfaction and intentions to stay

Intrinsic motivation refers to being inspired from within (i.e., from one's inner self) to actively engage in novelties, challenges, the extension of capabilities, exploration, and learning experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The research on motivation, including intrinsic motivation, is of interest because motivation sets people in motion to act, explore and raise

effort (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to researchers (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000), the intrinsic motivation of people to engage and persist in activities that hold intrinsic interest to them is contingent on social conditions. Specifically, in line with self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), researchers (Baard et al., 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000) have argued that social conditions can either have a positive or negative effect on work outcomes through their influence on three fundamental human needs that have the potential to inhibit or elicit intrinsic motivation, namely the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

The need for *autonomy* refers to the need of having choice and self-control in one's own actions, the need for *competence* refers to the need of experiencing that one is able to successfully carry out tasks and meet performance standards, and the need for *relatedness* refers to have and develop secure and respectful relationships with others (Baard et al., 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research has shown that intrinsic need satisfaction (with intrinsic motivation as an underlying psychological mechanism) contributes positively to performance evaluations, psychological adjustment, and work engagement in paid work (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001). Additionally, there is some initial evidence to suggest that intrinsic need satisfaction relates to the number of hours worked on, and psychological engagement with, volunteer work (Gagne, 2003). Accordingly, and in line with the preliminary study of Gagne (2003) on intrinsic need satisfaction and its effects among volunteer workers, we argue that intrinsic need satisfaction will contribute positively to volunteers' job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization). However, *in extension of* previous studies (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne, 2003), we will address satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs as separate factors (instead of as a single factor

representing intrinsic need satisfaction as an overall construct, see Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2004; Gagne, 2003). The reason for doing this is that we argue that satisfaction of autonomy, competence and relatedness needs each can have differential effects on volunteers' job satisfaction as well as on their intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

Satisfaction of autonomy needs

Volunteering on behalf of a volunteer organization, its mission, and its clientele is by definition a self-chosen activity. The organizational cultures of volunteer organizations emphasize independence, autonomy, and egalitarianism as important values and these characterize the work-settings of volunteers (Pearce, 1993). In line with the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), we therefore argue that the settings in which volunteer work takes place facilitate satisfaction of *autonomy* needs which leads volunteer workers to raise voluntary effort on behalf of the volunteer organization out of intrinsic motivation. Specifically, in the present research we will examine *among volunteers* whether satisfaction of autonomy needs on the volunteer job contributes to job satisfaction and subsequently to the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization. Findings (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993) obtained among paid workers indicate that satisfaction of autonomy needs during work has the potential to enhance job satisfaction. Nevertheless, to date it has not been examined whether satisfaction of autonomy needs during *volunteer* work also enhances volunteers' job satisfaction, and thus leads to the intent to stay a volunteer. In this research, we consider job satisfaction a relevant predictor of the intent to remain, because measures reflecting satisfaction with the volunteer job have been found (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) positively related to the intent to remain. In line with previous research (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne, 2003; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Satisfaction of autonomy needs on the volunteer job contributes directly and positively to volunteers' job satisfaction (1a), and indirectly and positively to volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization through job satisfaction (1b).

Satisfaction of relatedness needs

Social relationships consistently emerge as a factor of importance to the motivation to volunteer (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Boezeman and Ellemers (2007), for instance, found that volunteers are more inclined to stay a volunteer with their volunteer organization when they feel that their volunteer organization respects them. As social relations are considered relevant and important in the field of volunteer work (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Pearce, 1993), we argue that satisfaction of relatedness needs on the volunteer job is relevant to the job satisfaction and intentions of remaining a volunteer with the organization among volunteers. Indeed, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) found that social integration within the volunteer organization was positively associated with volunteers' intent to remain with the organization. However, this previous work has not addressed satisfaction with the volunteer job as mediator of on the one hand the importance of social relationships and on the other hand intentions of remaining a volunteer. Therefore, in line with previous work (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne, 2003; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) in the current research we predict and examine:

Hypothesis 2: Satisfaction of relatedness needs on the volunteer job contributes directly and positively to volunteers' job satisfaction (2a), and shows an indirect and positive relation to volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization through job satisfaction (2b).

Satisfaction of competence needs

Given the circumstances in volunteer work we consider it likely that satisfaction of competence needs is less relevant to the job satisfaction and intent to remain with the volunteer organization among volunteers compared to satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs. That is, in the case of volunteer work performance standards are often minimal (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; 2001; Pearce, 1993), formal job-descriptions involving job standards and evaluation criteria are vague or absent (Pearce, 1993), and performance evaluations are infrequent if even present (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). As indicators of competence are unclear or even irrelevant in volunteer work, we argue that volunteers primarily derive their job satisfaction from their satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs (which are more apparent in the case of volunteer work) on the volunteer job, so that the fulfilment of competence needs will not further contribute to volunteers' job satisfaction and the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization. Accordingly, we predict: Hypothesis 3: Among volunteers satisfaction of competence needs will have no significant added value in predicting job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer above and beyond satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs.

Thus, in order to contribute to theory development concerning satisfaction with the volunteer job and to help volunteer organizations improve their volunteer policy, we will focus on the effects of intrinsic need satisfaction on satisfaction with the volunteer work and the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization among volunteers. We thus a.) contribute to theory development concerning the job satisfaction of volunteers, b.) distinguish between satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs on the volunteer job to examine their unique effects on volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization, and c.) provide insight into which aspects of intrinsic need satisfaction are most likely to sustain and enhance job satisfaction

and tenure among volunteers.

Effects of intrinsic need satisfaction on the job

Although paid work is fundamentally different from volunteer work (e.g., Cnaan & Cascio, 1999; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Gidron, 1983; Pearce, 1993), both work types can be seen as sharing similarities on certain levels of analysis (Gidron, 1983). For instance, paid and volunteer work both are carried out in an organizational context, and both types of employment can be used to have people fulfil identical tasks. Furthermore, the well-being and performance of paid employees as well as volunteers depends on relevant job attitudes such as their work satisfaction. These similarities between paid and volunteer work have led researchers (e.g., Laczó & Hanisch, 1999; Liao-Troth, 2001; Pearce, 1983, 1993; see also Netting, Nelson, Borders, & Huber, 2004 for an overview) to compare the job attitudes of paid employees to those of volunteers in order to gain more systematic insight in differences and similarities between paid employees and volunteers, relevant to the management of these two types of workers.

In the literature (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Pearce, 1993) it has been suggested that volunteers by definition are more autonomous in their jobs than paid employees are, because volunteers do not work under formal restrictions in contrast to paid employees. Due to the fact that they work under more formal restrictions, in line with the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), it is likely that paid employees place more value on satisfaction of autonomy needs in their work than do volunteers (and that they value this type of need satisfaction above and beyond the other types of need satisfaction). *At the same time*, there is another possible reason for volunteers to place less value on satisfaction of autonomy needs in their work than paid employees. That is, field observations (Pearce, 1993) have indicated that volunteers often do not know how to carry out tasks properly or which guidelines to follow, and feel uncertain, as a result of the considerable

autonomy they have in their jobs. Satisfaction of autonomy needs may be less relevant to volunteers, either because their autonomy is self-evident (e.g., Pearce, 1993) or because they are given too much autonomy to be able to feel that the volunteer organization takes an interest in them (Bruins, Ellemers, & de Gilder, 1999). Because social relationships have been found a consistent factor of importance to the motivation to volunteer (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), it may well be that volunteers consider satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job more relevant to their job satisfaction and intent to remain than satisfaction of the other needs. At the same time, in the case of paid employees we suspect satisfaction of autonomy needs is most relevant to job satisfaction and the intent to remain. Thus, we will examine whether paid employees derive their job satisfaction and intentions to remain *primarily* from satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job, and investigate whether volunteers (in contrast to paid employees) derive their job satisfaction and intent to remain *primarily* from satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job. In doing this, we gain more systematic insight in differences and similarities between paid employees and volunteers, which might help organizations to coordinate these different types of workers. Accordingly, we predict:

Hypothesis 4: The job satisfaction and intentions to remain with the organization of paid employees are *primarily* and positively affected by the satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job (4a), in contrast, the job satisfaction and willingness to stay with the organization of volunteers are *primarily* and positively affected by the satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job (4b).

Method

Participants

The organization that hosted this research was a volunteer organization that organizes and facilitates leisure activities for the mentally handicapped. Participants were volunteers

(working in the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization) as well as paid employees (working side-by-side with volunteers in 1 of the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization) that served in groups of coordinators/supervisors during the leisure activities for the mentally handicapped.

Main sample. From the volunteers working in the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization, 112 questionnaires were returned by regular mail (response rate = 29.28%, which is representative of previous survey research among volunteers, see for instance Tidwell, 2005), and 105 of these were complete and could be used for further analysis ($N = 105$). The respondents' mean age was 44.5 ($SD = 14.5$), 65.7% were women, 76.2% held paid jobs besides working as a volunteer, and 32.4% also worked for other organizations as a volunteer. This sample is representative of volunteer workers in general, for instance because volunteer work in volunteer organizations is commonly carried out by a majority of female volunteers (see for instance Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008; Greenslade & White, 2005; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Tidwell, 2005) and because it is common that volunteers work for multiple organizations (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999).

Matched sample. In 1 of the 3 subdivisions of the volunteer organization paid employees performed identical tasks in the same type of job as volunteers during the volunteer organizations' leisure activities (e.g., dance classes, computer classes) for the mentally handicapped. These activities were assigned to teams of volunteers and paid employees to jointly supervise. The employees received pay based on the fact that they had formal training and held the associated credentials that were relevant to the classes that they supervised. There were no formal hierarchical differences between the volunteers and the employees. From the total amount of 50 paid workers in this matched sample, 27 questionnaires were received (response rate = 54%) and 25 could be used for further analysis ($N = 25$). In terms of background characteristics, this sample was roughly comparable to the sample of volunteer

workers described above. The respondents' mean age was 38.3 ($SD = 11.9$), 92% were women, and 88% also worked for other organizations as a paid employee. From the 104 volunteers in the subdivision matched to work side-by-side with the paid employees, 43 questionnaires were received (response rate = 41.35%) and 41 could be used for further analysis ($N = 41$).

Procedure

All volunteers and paid employees (performing the same tasks as the volunteers) working in the volunteer organization as coordinators/supervisors during the leisure activities for the mentally handicapped were mailed a survey with an accompanying letter. In the accompanying letter volunteers or paid employees were asked for their participation by the volunteer organization. The researchers indicated that the volunteer organization was interested in their opinion with regard to its human resource management policy, and guaranteed anonymity as well as confidential treatment of the information that they provided. The volunteers and paid employees participating in the study sent their surveys in a self-addressed envelope directly to the researchers.

Measures

All measures consisted of validated scales that were translated into Dutch, see Table 1 for all items used. In the questionnaire distributed among the paid workers the words 'volunteer' and 'volunteer work' were substituted by 'employee' and 'work' respectively. Responses were recorded on 7-point scales (1 = *totally disagree*; 7 = *totally agree*), unless otherwise stated.

The *satisfaction of autonomy needs* (main sample volunteers: $\alpha = .68$; sub-sample paid workers: $\alpha = .76$, sub-sample volunteers: $\alpha = .61$), the *satisfaction of competence needs* (main sample volunteers: $\alpha = .74$; sub-sample paid workers: $\alpha = .86$, sub-sample volunteers: $\alpha = .80$), and the *satisfaction of relatedness needs* (main sample volunteers: $\alpha = .88$; sub-sample

paid workers: $\alpha = .88$, sub-sample volunteers: $\alpha = .92$) on the job were each measured with 3 items from the Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale, which for instance has previously been used by Deci and colleagues (2001) to assess intrinsic need satisfaction on the job.

General *job satisfaction* (main sample volunteers: $\alpha = .90$; sub-sample paid workers: $\alpha = .77$, sub-sample volunteers: $\alpha = .86$) was assessed with 3 items adapted from the measure developed, validated, and used by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez (2001).

The *intent to remain* (main sample volunteers: $\alpha = .76$; sub-sample paid workers: $\alpha = .70$, sub-sample volunteers: $\alpha = .57$) a worker with the volunteer organization was assessed with 2 items that are generally used for measuring this construct among volunteers (see for instance Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990). The responses to these items were recorded on a 5-point scale (1 = *highly unlikely*, 5 = *highly likely*).

Results

Measurement and correlation analyses

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses on our main sample of volunteers in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) in order to examine whether the items should be clustered as predicted. We report the chi-square (χ^2), the nonnormed fit index (NNFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) as omnibus fit indexes in the measurement analysis (as well as in the path analysis that follows next). Model fit is typically indicated by these fit indexes, when NNFI and CFI are between .90 and 1.00 and when RMSEA is less than .10 (e.g., Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The results of the confirmatory factor analyses are summarized in Tables 1 and 2.

The hypothesized 5-factor measurement model showed an acceptable fit to the data with $\chi^2(67, N = 105) = 100.29, p = .005, NNFI = .94, CFI = .96, \text{ and } RMSEA = .07$. In order to further test the validity of the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model, we subsequently

tested this model against alternative measurement models. In the alternative 4-factor measurement model, job satisfaction and the intent to remain were merged into one aggregate factor, because they could have been understood by the respondents as reflecting a global sense of work engagement. Further, previous research (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne, 2003) addressed intrinsic need satisfaction in a global way, and thus we also tested a 3-factor measurement model (where fulfilment of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs were combined in a global factor) against our hypothesized 5-factor measurement model (in which satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs were considered individual factors). Finally, we tested a 1-factor measurement model, in order to address bias from common method variance. As summarized in Table 2, these alternative models fit the data significantly less well than the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model. Furthermore, the 1-factor measurement model did not indicate that a single factor accounted for the covariation among the items and this provides preliminary evidence against bias from common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Thus, we accepted the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model as our final measurement model. Importantly, this model indicates that satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs can be considered as providing separate contributions to intrinsic need satisfaction (see also Baard et al., 2004). Based on the results from the confirmatory factor analyses, we averaged the scores for the scales and computed the correlations among the constructs (see Table 3). Finally, we also calculated the averaged scores and correlations for the matched sample, see Table 4 (issues of sample size (see Russell, 2002) did not permit confirmatory factor analysis on the matched sample).

Path analysis

We conducted path analyses in EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) to test the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) and its individual paths. The statistics we obtained indicated that overall

Table 1 *Standardized Parameter Estimates of Factor Loadings, R^2 , Item Means*

(N = 105)		5-Factor Measurement Model		
Questionnaire		Factor	R^2	Item
Items		loadings		means
Satisfaction of autonomy needs				
1.) "I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my volunteer job gets done"		.63	.39	5.25
2.) "I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the volunteer job"		.85	.73	5.86
3.) "There is much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my volunteer work"		.56	.31	5.30
Satisfaction of competence needs				
1.) "I feel very competent when I am at my volunteer work"		.63	.40	5.82
2.) "On my volunteer job I get a lot of chance to show how capable I am"		.59	.35	5.00
3.) "When I am working at <organization> I often feel very capable".		.89	.79	5.50
Satisfaction of relatedness needs				
1.) "At <organization>, I really like the people I work with"		.82	.68	5.86
2.) "I get along with people at my volunteer work"		.94	.88	5.91
3.) "People at my volunteer work are pretty friendly towards me"		.79	.63	6.04
Job satisfaction				
1.) "All in all, I am satisfied with my volunteer job at <organization>"		.95	.90	5.96
2.) "In general, I like my volunteer job at <organization>"		.88	.78	6.12
3.) "In general, I like working as a volunteer at <organization>"		.80	.64	5.98
Intent to remain				
1.) "How likely is it that you will quit your work as a volunteer at <name volunteer organization>"		.76	.57	3.93

within the next 6 months?" (reverse scored)

2.) "How likely is it that you will continue your work
as a volunteer at <name volunteer organization>
for the next two years?"

.82 .67 3.77

Table 2 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Study Variables Main Volunteer Sample*

Model	df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
5-factor measurement model	67	100**	-	.94	.96	.07	-33.7
4-factor measurement model ^a	71	131***	31***	.90	.92	.09	- 11
3-factor measurement model ^b	74	188***	-	.82	.85	.12	40
1-factor measurement model	90	365***	265***	.60	.66	.17	185

Note. $N = 105$. $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates the deviation of each alternative model compared to the hypothesized 5-factor measurement model for nested models, AIC is additionally reported and also serves as comparison index between non-nested models. a Combining job satisfaction and intent to remain, b Combining satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3 *Correlations between averaged constructs Main Volunteer Sample*

($N = 105$)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.) Satisfaction of autonomy needs	5.47	.96	-							
2.) Satisfaction of competence needs	5.44	.94	.35**	-						
3.) Satisfaction of relatedness needs	5.94	.80	.52**	.44**	-					
4.) Job satisfaction	6.02	.81	.54**	.31**	.60**	-				
5.) Intent to remain	3.85	1.03	.24*	.11	.29**	.55**	-			
6.) Age	44.5	14.5	-.17	-.14	-.02	-.00	.09	-		
7.) Organizational tenure	6.29	6.70	-.02	.07	-.17	-.33**	-.18	.27**	-	
8.) Gender	-	-	.07	.22*	.08	.17	.00	-.35**	-.24*	-

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

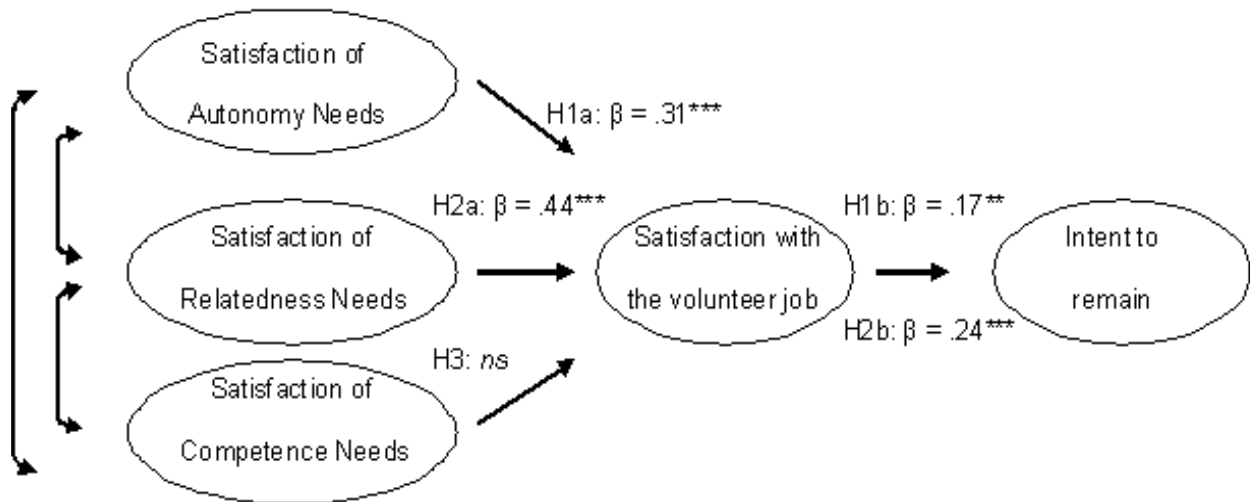


Figure 1. Predicted relations between variables (with Hypothesis numbers indicated) and direct and indirect effects observed. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

the hypothesized path model fit the data well with $\chi^2(3, N = 105) = 1.18, p = ns$, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00. At this stage, we tested our hypothesized fully mediated path model (Fig. 1) against alternative path models. First, we tested our hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) against an alternative partially mediated path model with direct paths from satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs to the intent to remain in addition to the paths depicted in Figure 1. We tested our hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) against this alternative partially mediated path model, because Deci and colleagues (2001) for instance found a direct relation between on the one hand intrinsic need satisfaction on the job and on the other hand engagement with the organization among paid workers. In the partially mediated path model, the additional paths all were non-significant, and thus this alternative model did not represent a significant improvement over the more parsimonious hypothesized path model (Fig. 1). Further, due to the fact that our data were collected at a single point in time, we also tested our hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) in a reversed order to address the proposed directionality of the relationships among the variables. The alternative reversed causal order path model did not show a significant improvement of fit over the hypothesized

path model (Fig. 1), as the Akaike's information criterion (AIC) of the hypothesized path model (AIC = -4.8) was smaller than in the case of the alternative reversed causal order model with $\chi^2(6, N = 105) = 24.80, p < .001, NNFI = .78, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .17,$ and AIC = 12.8 (cf. Bentler, 2004). This argues for the proposed directionality of the paths in our hypothesized model. In sum, we accepted the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) for further analysis, and continued with the examination of the specific hypotheses.

Satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs among volunteer workers

We predicted that among volunteers the satisfaction of *autonomy* needs on the volunteer job contributes directly and positively to job satisfaction (Hypothesis 1a), and indirectly to the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization (Hypothesis 1b). Hypothesis 1 was supported by the path analysis. We found that satisfaction of autonomy needs during volunteer work is directly and positively associated with volunteers' job satisfaction ($\beta = .31, p < .001$), and indirectly and positively associated with volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization through job satisfaction ($\beta = .17, p < .01$). These results suggest that when volunteers experience satisfaction of autonomy needs during their volunteer work, they are more satisfied with their volunteer job and that this in turn enhances their intentions to stay a volunteer with their volunteer organization.

We predicted that among volunteers the satisfaction of *relatedness* needs on the volunteer job contributes directly and positively to job satisfaction (Hypothesis 2a), and indirectly to the intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization (Hypothesis 2b). Hypothesis 2 was also supported by the path analysis. We found that satisfaction of relatedness needs during volunteer work is directly and positively associated with volunteers' job satisfaction ($\beta = .44, p < .001$), and indirectly and positively associated with volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization through job satisfaction ($\beta = .24, p < .001$). These results suggest that when volunteers experience satisfaction of

relatedness needs during their volunteer work, they are more satisfied with their volunteer job and that this in turn enhances their willingness to stay a volunteer at their volunteer organization.

Finally, we predicted (Hypothesis 3) that when controlling for the satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs on the volunteer job as predictors of volunteers' job satisfaction, the satisfaction of competence needs on the volunteer job is less relevant to volunteers' job satisfaction and volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization. This prediction was supported by inspection of the path analysis of the model that we hypothesized (Fig. 1) as well as by testing an alternative path model (in which we specified no relation between on the one hand satisfaction of competence needs and on the other hand job satisfaction and intent to remain) against the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1).

When we inspected the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) that was tested, we found that beyond satisfaction of autonomy needs ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) and relatedness needs ($\beta = .44, p < .001$), the satisfaction of competence needs did not further contribute to volunteers' job satisfaction ($\beta = .01, p = ns$). Thus, satisfaction of competence needs was also *unrelated* to volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization ($\beta = .00, p = ns$). A Wald Test (see Byrne, 1994 for a discussion) generated by EQS 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2004) corroborated this as it indicated that the direct path from satisfaction of competence needs to job satisfaction could be omitted from the hypothesized model (Fig.1) without substantial loss in model fit. This indicates that among volunteers satisfaction of competence needs has no significant added value in predicting job satisfaction and the intent to remain a volunteer above and beyond satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs. In order to further address Hypothesis 3, we then tested our hypothesized path model (including a relation between on the one hand satisfaction of competence needs and on the other hand job satisfaction and intent to remain) against a path model in which we specified *no relation*

between satisfaction of competence needs on the one hand and job satisfaction (directly) and intent to remain (indirectly) on the other hand. We found that the model in which satisfaction of competence needs was not related to job satisfaction and intent to remain fit the data well with $\chi^2(4, N = 105) = 1.19, p = ns, NNFI = 1.05, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, AIC = -6.8$. Furthermore, this model was nested within the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) and thus this alternative model could be directly compared against the hypothesized path model (Fig 1.) on the basis of the chi-square differences test. The chi-square differences test showed that the fit of the hypothesized path model (Fig. 1) was not significantly different from the more parsimonious and well fitting model that specified no relation between on the one hand satisfaction of competence needs and on the other hand job satisfaction (directly) and intent to remain (indirectly). These results further support Hypothesis 3, in that they show that satisfaction of competence needs has no significant added value in predicting job satisfaction and intentions of staying with the volunteer organization above and beyond the effects of satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs.

To provide an overview, we inserted the final results of the path analysis in Figure 1. The satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs on the volunteer job jointly account for 43% of the variance in volunteers' job satisfaction, and job satisfaction in turn accounts for 31% of the variance in volunteers' intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization.

The effects of satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs on the job among volunteers versus paid employees

Because of the relative small sample size (volunteers $N = 41$; paid employees $N = 25$), we conducted a sequential series of regression analyses (instead of path analysis) in order to test Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 predicted that in the case of *paid workers* job satisfaction and intent to remain are primarily enhanced by the satisfaction of *autonomy* needs on the job,

while the job satisfaction and intent to remain of *volunteers* should primarily be enhanced by satisfaction of *relatedness* needs on the job. As the volunteers and employees were all workers at the same volunteer organization performing identical tasks, we first (with a multiple regression analysis across the 2 sub-samples) inspected how intrinsic need satisfaction on the job overall affected job satisfaction across the matched sample. Subsequently, in line with the procedure for testing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; see also Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001), we inspected how the workers' intentions of remaining with the organization were affected by their intrinsic need satisfaction on the job (i.e., satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs) through their job satisfaction. We then conducted stepwise regression analyses as well as mediation analyses in which we compared the 2 types of workers in order to address Hypothesis 4.

The overall multiple regression analysis showed that satisfaction of autonomy needs ($\beta = .33, p < .05$) and relatedness needs ($\beta = .34, p < .01$) on the job were both directly and positively related to the workers' satisfaction with their job at the volunteer organization ($R^2 = .35$). These results suggest that satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs on the job are important to the job satisfaction of individuals working at a volunteer organization (regardless of whether they work as a volunteer or an employee).

We established that the pre-conditions to test whether satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job indirectly affects the intent to remain with the organization were met (see Baron & Kenny, 1986). Subsequently, we found that the direct effect of satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job ($b = .26, \beta = .25, p < .05, R^2 = .06$) on the intent to remain became non-significant ($b = -.02, \beta = -.02, p = ns$) when job satisfaction ($b = .88, \beta = .52, p < .001$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .26$). This indicates full mediation, which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 3.13, p < .01$). Further, we calculated a 95% confidence interval (.1274; .4518) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004),

which corroborated that the mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included as a value in the confidence interval. These results suggest that among individuals working at a volunteer organization (either as a volunteer or as a paid employee), the satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job leads to job satisfaction and subsequently to the intent to remain with the organization.

Further, we established that the pre-conditions to test whether satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job indirectly affects the intent to remain with the organization were met (see Baron & Kenny, 1986). We subsequently found that the direct effect of satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job ($b = .46$, $\beta = .34$, $p = .01$, $R^2 = .09$) on the intent to remain became non-significant ($b = .08$, $\beta = .06$, $p = ns$) when job satisfaction ($b = .81$, $\beta = .48$, $p < .001$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .26$). This indicates full mediation, which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 2.99$, $p < .01$). Further, we calculated a 95% confidence interval (.1773; .6723) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004), which corroborated that the mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included as a value in the confidence interval. These results suggest that the satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job leads to job satisfaction and subsequently to the willingness to remain with the organization among individuals working at a volunteer organization (either as a volunteer or as a paid employee).

We then continued our analysis with stepwise regression analyses for the 2 separate subsamples (volunteers versus paid employees). In the case of the *paid employees*, the first stepwise regression analysis showed that satisfaction of *autonomy* needs on the job ($\beta = .45$, $p < .05$) is the primary predictor of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .20$). After inclusion of autonomy needs as a predictor of job satisfaction, satisfaction of relatedness needs ($\beta = .13$, $p = ns$) and competence needs ($\beta = .24$, $p = ns$) did not explain additional variance in the paid workers' job satisfaction in the regression model. However, in the case of the *volunteer workers*, the

subsequent stepwise regression analysis revealed that the satisfaction of *relatedness* needs on the job ($\beta = .55, p < .001$) is the primary predictor of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .30$), while satisfaction of autonomy needs ($\beta = .26, p = ns$) and competence needs ($\beta = .14, p = ns$) emerged as non-significant predictors in this regression analysis.

To further address Hypothesis 4, among the different types of workers we then examined the indirect effects of satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs on the job on the intent to remain with the organization through job satisfaction. After checking that the preconditions for testing mediation were fulfilled (see Baron & Kenny, 1986), we found that in the case of *paid employees* satisfaction of *autonomy* needs on the job was *only* indirectly and positively related to the intent to remain with the organization through job satisfaction, while in the case of the *volunteers* we found that *only* satisfaction of *relatedness* needs on the job contributed indirectly and positively to the willingness to stay with the volunteer organization through job satisfaction. That is, in the case of the *paid employees* satisfaction of relatedness needs ($\beta = .06, p = ns$) did not predict the intent to remain at all, in contrast to satisfaction of autonomy needs which reliably affected the intent to remain. Thus, the direct effect of satisfaction of autonomy needs ($b = .45, \beta = .36, p = .08, R^2 = .13$) on the intent to remain became non-significant ($b = .17, \beta = .14, p = ns$) when job satisfaction ($b = .96, \beta = .49, p < .05$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .32$). This indicates full mediation, which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 1.74, p = .08$). Further, a 95% confidence interval (.0285; .8017) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004) corroborated that this mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included as a value in the confidence interval. In the case of the *volunteers* (in contrast to what was the case among the paid employees) in the sub-sample satisfaction of autonomy needs ($\beta = .11, p = ns$) did not affect the intent to remain at all, in contrast to the satisfaction of relatedness needs which reliably affected the intent to remain. Thus, the direct effect of satisfaction of

relatedness needs on the job ($b = .52, \beta = .39, p < .05, R^2 = .15$) on the intent to remain became non-significant ($b = .26, \beta = .19, p = ns$) when job satisfaction ($b = .56, \beta = .35, p < .05$) was included as an additional predictor in the analysis ($R^2 = .24$). This indicates full mediation, which was significant as indicated by a Sobel test ($z = 1.85, p = .06$). Further, a 95% confidence interval (.0438; .5824) for testing indirect effects (see Preacher & Hayes, 2004) corroborated that this mediation effect was significant because zero (0) was not included as a value in the confidence interval.

In sum, through a series of regression analyses we first established that across the 2 types of workers we examined, satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs predict job satisfaction and intentions of remaining with the organization. However, when we subsequently distinguished between different worker types (volunteer versus employee) in predicting the relevant job attitudes, we found that satisfaction of autonomy needs is the most relevant predictor of job satisfaction and intent to remain for *paid employees*. In contrast, we found that *volunteers* derive their job satisfaction and willingness to remain with the organization primarily from their satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job. Thus, the results offer empirical evidence for Hypothesis 4.

General Discussion

We found that intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) on the job, particularly satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs, is relevant to volunteers' job satisfaction and their intentions of remaining a volunteer with the volunteer organization. When examining the effects of intrinsic need satisfaction on the job among volunteers more closely, our results revealed a difference between volunteers and employees. That is, we found that *paid employees* primarily derive their job satisfaction and willingness to stay with the organization from their satisfaction of autonomy needs on the job, while *volunteers* primarily consider satisfaction of relatedness needs on the job relevant to

their satisfaction with their job and their intentions of remaining with the organization. We will now elaborate upon how these findings contribute to the literature and previous research on organizational behavior.

Theoretical implications

First of all, in our analysis of intrinsic need satisfaction and work related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, intent to remain) among volunteers, we found that different types of need satisfaction can have independent roles in predicting work-related outcomes as dependent upon social conditions. That is, in contrast to previous research (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001) that has addressed intrinsic need satisfaction as a single and more global construct, we addressed the *independent* contribution of satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs on the job in predicting work-related outcomes. In the situation of volunteer work, where job standards and evaluation criteria are unclear, and where performance evaluations are infrequent or even non-existent, we predicted and found that satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs are more relevant to job satisfaction and intentions of remaining with the organization than satisfaction of competence needs. As our research points out that satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs can instigate differential effects on work-related outcomes, these results indicate that avenues for further research on work-related outcomes can be explored by addressing the types of intrinsic need satisfaction independently from each other.

Second, our research suggests that the organizational experiences of volunteers are different from the organizational experiences of paid employees, presumably as a result of differences in the organizational conditions in which the types of workers work. That is, even though the jobs they performed for the organization were quite similar, we found that *volunteers* primarily derive their job satisfaction and intent to remain with the organization from their satisfaction of *relatedness* needs on the job. By contrast, *paid employees* consider

satisfaction of *autonomy* needs the most important predictor of job satisfaction and willingness to stay. These results converge to the conclusion that the factors that contribute to the work motivation and job attitudes of volunteers indeed should be examined with the understanding that the volunteer workforce is a workforce in itself with its own specific job design (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008; Pearce, 1993; Gidron, 1983).

Finally, researchers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Dailey, 1986; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993; Wilson, 2000) have noted that there still is much to learn about the organizational behavior of volunteers. Indeed, as opposed to the research on the organizational behavior of paid workers, only a few studies on the organizational behavior of volunteers exist (even though we have noted that the organizational behavior of volunteers needs to be examined in its own right). We have addressed the job satisfaction of volunteers, which to date has received only minor attention in empirical research (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), and found that the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) regarding intrinsic need satisfaction on the job is relevant to predicting and enhancing job satisfaction and intent to remain among volunteers.

Implications for volunteer organizations

Our results in line with the conceptual framework of Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) regarding intrinsic need satisfaction on the job provides 2 avenues through which volunteer organizations can address the job satisfaction and tenure of their volunteers. That is, our results suggest that the satisfaction of autonomy needs as well as the satisfaction of relatedness needs have the potential to *independently from each other* elicit job satisfaction and intentions of remaining with the organization among volunteers. Indeed, in this way our results complement and extend previous suggestions (e.g., Baard et al., 2004) about how organizations can address intrinsic need satisfaction on the job as a way to improve their human resource policy, as these suggestions only focused on enhancing *global* intrinsic need

satisfaction on the job as a way to enhance engagement with the organization among workers.

Satisfaction of relatedness needs on the volunteer job involves experiencing that one gets along well with the people at work and works in an environment amongst friends. Volunteers are often recruited through their interpersonal networks (Pearce, 1993), meaning that one is asked to become a volunteer with the volunteer organization by for instance a family member, a friend, or a colleague (see also Boezeman & Ellemers, in press). As this mechanism of recruitment – in one way or another – is already active in most volunteer organizations, volunteer organizations may do well to let newly recruited volunteers work side by side the volunteers that recruited them. In this way, volunteer organizations are likely to, in an integral fashion, promote satisfaction of relatedness needs among the already active volunteers as well as among the new volunteers that they recruited. Satisfaction of autonomy needs involves the experience that one can have a say in how the volunteer job gets done, is free to express ideas and opinions on the volunteer job, and has much opportunity to decide for oneself how to go about the volunteer work. Hence, in order to induce satisfaction of autonomy needs among volunteers, volunteer coordinators can for instance consult volunteers and inquire about how they experience their jobs, and then – when relevant – act upon their suggestions about how the operation of the volunteer organization can be improved or let them choose tasks that best suit their capabilities.

In this research, we regarded satisfaction of autonomy needs and relatedness needs as independent constructs, and indicated that the components of intrinsic need satisfaction are likely to impact independently from each other on volunteers' job satisfaction and intent to remain a volunteer with the volunteer organization. The results corroborated this argument, with the implication that volunteer organizations (depending on their unique organizational circumstances) can focus on either enhancing satisfaction of autonomy needs, relatedness needs, or both, in their efforts to enhance job satisfaction and intent to remain among their

volunteers.

Limitations of the present research

A limitation of the research reported is that it examined correlational data from cross-sectional self-reports obtained among a relatively small sample of people working in a single volunteer organization. However, in analyzing the results we attempted to examine whether this influenced the results we obtained. First of all, we found indications that the results that we obtained reflect meaningful relations between the hypothesized constructs. That is, when we addressed the possibility of common method variance, we found that a 1-factor measurement model did not fit the data, making it less likely that the observed relations stem from a methodological bias (cf. Podsakoff et al., 2003). Also, our interpretation of the data not only reflect the causal relationships proposed in the theoretical framework that we used (Deci & Ryan, 1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), but is also consistent with previous research findings (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001). Finally, in our statistical analysis we have addressed the possibility that the causal relations between the model variables (see Fig 1.) might be different, but alternative models accounted less well for the present data. As such, despite its limitations, we think this research offers an interesting and important first step into examining and addressing the job attitudes of volunteers, even though the robustness of our findings should be cross-validated in future research that uses additional methodologies and examines a broader range of volunteers working in different organizations.

A second limitation of the present research is that we compared the effects of intrinsic need satisfaction on the job among volunteers versus paid employees in a relatively small matched sample. However, in examining this sample we were able to control for confounding organizational variables that tend to plague the research on the job attitudes of volunteers versus paid employees (see for a discussion Liao-Troth, 2001). That is, our research is the first that we know of to contrast volunteers with paid workers performing *identical work*

within the *same organization* in which *no formal hierarchical differences* between the worker types were present. As such, despite the relatively small sample, the results certainly contribute to the research on differences and similarities between volunteers and paid employees and provide new insights in this relatively new area of research.

Suggestions for further research

This present work has outlined several suggestions for further research. First of all, the factors that contribute to the job satisfaction of volunteers need further attention. It is of particular interest to examine in which way factors that are presumed to predict job satisfaction have comparable and differential effects between volunteers and paid workers. Further, our research shows that satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs as components of intrinsic need satisfaction can be addressed separately for testing specific hypotheses (see also Baard et al., 2004). Hence, researchers can examine differential effects of satisfaction of autonomy needs, competence needs, and relatedness needs with regard to work motivation, job attitudes, and work-related outcomes across work domains.

For now, we have shown that intrinsic need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 1985b, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) on the job can help address and examine volunteers' job satisfaction and intentions of staying a volunteer at the service of the volunteer organization as well as that it provides an insight in differences in predictors of job attitudes among volunteers versus paid employees.

Nederlandse Samenvatting

Vrijwilligerswerk is werk in enig georganiseerd verband, onverplicht en onbetaald, ten behoeve van anderen en/of de samenleving (o.a. Meijs, 1997). Verspreid over verschillende sectoren (zie bijvoorbeeld Bekkers & Boezeman, ter perse) dragen vrijwilligers op positieve wijze bij aan de Nederlandse samenleving. Zo bijvoorbeeld collecteren vrijwilligers om onderzoek te financieren gericht op het tegengaan van kanker, begeleiden vrijwilligers vrijetijdsactiviteiten voor verstandelijk gehandicapten en werken vrijwilligers in voedselbanken die voedsel verstrekken aan mensen die dat nodig hebben. Omdat vrijwilligerswerk onbetaald en onverplicht is hebben organisaties die steunen op vrijwilligers vaak moeite met het aansturen van, en omgaan met, vrijwilligers en daaraan gerelateerd organisatiebeleid (vrijwilligersbehoud, vrijwilligerswerving en het tevreden stellen en houden van vrijwilligers). De wetenschappelijke literatuur over gedrag in organisaties heeft altijd veel aandacht besteed aan organisatiegedrag van betaalde medewerkers, aan organisatiegedrag van vrijwilligers is (veel) minder aandacht besteed en meer kennis erover is maatschappelijk en theoretisch gezien zeer nodig. Vrijwilligersorganisaties zijn organisaties waar vrijwilligers zowel de koers van de organisatie bepalen als de uitvoerende taken in overeenstemming met de missie van de organisatie uitvoeren (Meijs, 1997). Deze organisaties verlenen hun diensten op basis van vrijwillige (onbetaalde) inzet van mensen die zij geen materiele vergoeding in ruil voor hun inzet kunnen geven. Wat kan je als vrijwilligersorganisatie doen om mensen te interesseren om als vrijwilliger bij de organisatie te gaan werken (vrijwilligerswerving)? Hoe kan je er als vrijwilligersorganisatie voor zorgen dat mensen bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie vrijwilliger willen blijven (vrijwilligersbehoud)? Hoe zorg je er als vrijwilligersorganisatie voor dat vrijwilligers tevreden zijn en blijven met hun werk als vrijwilliger (bevorderen van de arbeidstevredenheid)? Vanuit de sociale en organisatiepsychologie heeft deze dissertatie aandacht besteed aan deze vragen van vrijwilligersbeleid. De sociale en

organisatiepsychologie is het onderzoeksveld van het denken, voelen en doen (gedrag) van mensen in, en onder invloed van, groepen en organisaties. Het theoretisch kader gebruikt is het model van trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) zoals gebaseerd op de sociale identiteitstheorie van Tajfel en Turner (1979).

Het model van trots en respect

De sociale identiteitstheorie (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; zie ook Ashforth & Mael, 1989) stelt dat mensen het beeld van wie zij zijn mede invullen aan de hand van de groepen en organisaties waar zij deel van uitmaken, en dat voorzover het zelfbeeld positief wordt beïnvloedt als gevolg van het lidmaatschap van de organisatie mensen meer begaan zijn met de organisatie. In het verlengde van de sociale identiteitstheorie (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) hebben Tyler en Blader (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) geredeneerd dat wanneer medewerkers gevoelens van trots (het idee dat men deel uitmaakt van een organisatie die zich positief onderscheidt), maar ook respect (het idee dat men wordt gewaardeerd als deelnemer aan de organisatie), ervaren zij meer begaan zijn met hun organisatie. Trots en respect zijn dus evaluaties ten aanzien van de organisatie waartoe men behoort, en wanneer zij aanwezig zijn dragen zij positief bij aan het zelfbeeld waardoor men als medewerker meer psychologisch en gedragsmatig begaan is met de organisatie.

Verschillende onderzoeken onder (betaalde) medewerkers (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002; Fuller et al., 2006) tonen dat trots en respect onder andere bijdragen aan de betrokkenheid bij de organisatie, een gevoel van eenheid met de organisatie, het voornemen om bij de organisatie te blijven en inzet ten gunste van de organisatie. Onder medewerkers kunnen gevoelens van trots en respect dus op niet-materiële wijze de begaanheid met het werk en de organisatie bevorderen. Maar geldt dat ook in het geval van vrijwilligers, gaat het model van trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) ook op voor vrijwilligers? En kunnen trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) een

bijdrage leveren in zaken als vrijwilligersbehoud, vrijwilligerswerving en het tevreden stellen en houden van vrijwilligers? En aan welke aspecten van de vrijwilligerswerkervaring zouden vrijwilligers dan gevoelens van trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) kunnen ontleenen?

Hoofdstuk 2

Trots, respect, en de begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie van vrijwilligers

In een eerste verkennende studie (hoofdstuk 2) hebben we onderzocht of onder vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect een rol spelen in de begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie, en aan welke aspecten van de vrijwilligerswerkervaring bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect zouden kunnen ontleenen. In deze studie hebben we ook meetinstrumenten ontwikkeld en getoetst voor het meten van trots en respect onder vrijwilligers. Dit onderzoek is uitgevoerd onder 89 vrijwilligers in de fondsenwerving actief voor een organisatie gericht op het tegengaan van kanker.

We verwachtten dat wanneer vrijwilligers meer notie hebben van het nut van hun inzet zoals gerelateerd aan de missie van de organisatie (waarmee de organisatie zich positief onderscheidt) zij reden hebben om trots te ontleenen aan hun deelname aan de vrijwilligersorganisatie als vrijwilliger, en vervolgens meer betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie. Tegelijkertijd verwachtten we dat wanneer vrijwilligers zich gesteund voelen door hun organisatie (het idee hebben dat de organisatie ook voor hen klaarstaat, anders dan dat ze zich enkel richt op het nastreven van haar missie en/of het helpen van de doelgroep van de organisatie), zij zich gerespecteerd voelen als vrijwilliger en vervolgens meer betrokken zijn bij hun organisatie.

Betrouwbaarheidsanalyses en confirmatieve factoranalyses toonden dat de door ons ontwikkelde instrumenten geschikt waren voor het meten van trots en respect onder vrijwilligers. Vervolgens toonden de resultaten dat vrijwilligers meer betrokken zijn bij hun

vrijwilligersorganisatie naarmate zij trots ervaren op basis van de waarneming dat hun inzet nut heeft ten aanzien van de missie van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en daaraan gerelateerd het helpen van de doelgroep van de organisatie. Daarnaast toonden de resultaten ook dat vrijwilligers meer betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie naarmate de vrijwilligersorganisatie haar vrijwilligers ondersteuning biedt in het vrijwilligerswerk, omdat dit onder vrijwilligers gevoelens van respect van de kant van de vrijwilligersorganisatie bevordert.

Aldus toonde het eerste verkennende onderzoek dat trots en respect relevant zijn voor de psychologische begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie van vrijwilligers, dat ze een rol spelen in vrijwilligersbehoud (omdat ze betrokkenheid bevorderen), en dat vrijwilligersorganisaties er mogelijk goed aan zouden doen om naar vrijwilligers toe te communiceren over het nut van hun (goede) werk zoals gerelateerd aan de missie van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en het helpen van de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie (omdat dit trots en vervolgens betrokkenheid bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie stimuleert) en er goed aan zouden doen om aandacht te geven aan vrijwilligers in de vorm van ondersteuning bij het vrijwilligerswerk (omdat dit respect en vervolgens betrokkenheid bevordert). Deze eerste algemene resultaten hebben we verder uitgewerkt en gevalideerd in additioneel en verdiepend onderzoek.

Hoofdstuk 3

Trots, respect, en de betrokkenheid bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie van vrijwilligers

Op basis van de resultaten uit eerste verkennende studie (hoofdstuk 2) hebben we vervolgens (hoofdstuk 3) in het kader van vrijwilligersbehoud specifiek onderzocht of en hoe onder vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect bijdragen aan de betrokkenheid bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie en het voornemen om vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Ook hebben we in meerdere en verschillende typen vrijwilligersorganisaties

onderzocht aan welke aspecten van de vrijwilligerswerkervaring vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect ontlenen, zoals relevant voor vrijwilligersbehoud.

Medewerkers kunnen op verschillende manieren betrokken zijn bij hun organisatie, en Allen en Meyer (1990) onderscheiden daarin affectieve betrokkenheid, continuïteitsbetrokkenheid en normatieve betrokkenheid. Affectieve betrokkenheid (Allen & Meyer, 1990) staat voor emotionele verbondenheid met een organisatie, waarbij men zich bijvoorbeeld als een deel van de familie bij de organisatie voelt en de organisatie gevoelsmatig veel waarde toekent. Normatieve betrokkenheid (Allen & Meyer, 1990) staat voor verbondenheid met een organisatie op basis van een verantwoordelijkheidsgevoel jegens de organisatie, hierbij voelt men zich bijvoorbeeld geroepen om zich in te zetten voor de organisatie omdat men de missie van de organisatie een morele waarde toekent.

Vrijwilligerswerk is vaak incidenteel werk (bv. een paar uurtjes per week) waarbij vrijwilligers slechts incidenteel contact hebben met hun vrijwilligersorganisatie en medevrijwilligers (Pearce, 1993), hierdoor kan een emotionele band met organisatie en medevrijwilligers moeilijk vorm krijgen. Gezien dat vrijwilligerswerk morele verantwoordelijkheid en begaanheid met de maatschappij weergeeft (o.a. Cnaan & Cascio, 1999), verwachtten we dan ook wat betreft de voorspellende waarde van affectieve versus normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid dat normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid, meer dan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid, invloed zou hebben op het voornemen om vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Continuïteitsbetrokkenheid (Allen & Meyer, 1990) geeft verbondenheid met een organisatie weer op basis van een calculatieve kosten- en baten analyse, men voelt zich verbonden met de organisatie omdat men bij het verlaten van de organisatie ongewenste kosten maakt, maar deze versie van betrokkenheid is gezien het niet-materiële karakter van vrijwilligerswerk niet echt relevant voor vrijwilligers (Dawley, Stephens, & Stephens, 2005; Liao-Troth, 2001; Stephens, Dawley, & Stephens, 2004) en

hebben we daarom niet verder in het onderzoek opgenomen.

De eerste vragenlijststudie (hoofdstuk 3, Studie 1) gedaan onder 170 fondsenwervende vrijwilligers werkzaam voor een organisatie gericht op het tegengaan van, en voorlichting geven over, diabetes toonde op basis van SEM-analyses resultaten in overeenstemming met de verwachtingen. Zoals voorspeld, en gevonden, toonden de resultaten dat vrijwilligers die trots en respect als vrijwilliger ervaren meer affectief en normatief betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie, hetgeen overeenkomt met de resultaten uit de verkennende studie (hoofdstuk 2). Ook zoals voorspeld, en gevonden, toonden de resultaten dat trots en respect bijdragen aan het voornemen om bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven via de organisatiebetrokkenheid van vrijwilligers, en zoals voorspeld en gevonden, via normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid. Affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid bleek geen significante voorspeller van het voornemen om vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven, en is onder vrijwilligers mogelijk relevant(er) voor andere vormen van begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie en gedragingen ten gunste van de vrijwilligersorganisatie.

Vervolgens hebben we onder verschillende typen vrijwilligersorganisaties aan de hand van vragenlijsten onderzocht of, en hoe, trots en respect bijdragen aan de affectieve en normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid van vrijwilligers. De eerste organisatie was een vrijwilligersorganisatie die opkomt voor de belangen van gehandicapten, en 173 fondsenwervende vrijwilligers van deze vrijwilligersorganisatie namen deel aan het onderzoek. Naar schatting van de vrijwilligersorganisatie had bij benadering de helft van de vrijwilligers indirect op instrumentele wijze profijt van de activiteiten en het bestaan van de vrijwilligersorganisatie, in de zin dat vrijwilligers zich soms ook inzetten voor de organisatie vanwege een gezins- of familielid met een handicap. De tweede organisatie was een vrijwilligersorganisatie die waterprojecten in ontwikkelingslanden faciliteert, en 164 fondsenwervende vrijwilligers van deze vrijwilligersorganisatie namen deel aan het

onderzoek. De vrijwilligers van deze organisatie hadden geen instrumenteel profijt van hun activiteiten als vrijwilliger voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie, ze hadden geen familieband met de doelgroep van de organisatie. Het ervaren nut van het vrijwilligerswerk ten aanzien van de missie en doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie hebben we gemeten als voorspeller van trots, en vervolgens affectieve en normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid. Ervaren taakgerichte en sociaal-emotionele ondersteuning hebben we gemeten als voorspellers van respect, en vervolgens affectieve en normatieve organisatiebetrokkenheid.

Zoals verwacht, en gevonden, toonden de resultaten wederom dat vrijwilligers die trots en respect als vrijwilliger ervaren meer affectief en normatief betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie. Daarnaast toonden de resultaten, zoals verwacht, dat wanneer vrijwilligers ervaren dat hun inzet nut heeft ten aanzien van de missie en doelgroep van de organisatie, zij zich trots voelen en vervolgens affectief en normatief betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie. Langs een andere weg toonden de resultaten, zoals verwacht, dat wanneer vrijwilligers ervaren dat hun vrijwilligersorganisatie zich ook voor hen inzet door het verlenen van taakgerichte en emotionele ondersteuning tijdens het vrijwilligerswerk, zij zich gerespecteerd voelen en vervolgens affectief en normatief betrokken zijn bij hun vrijwilligersorganisatie. Deze resultaten tonen dat trots en respect de betrokkenheid van vrijwilligers in verschillende typen vrijwilligersorganisaties kunnen bevorderen, en dat het ervaren nut van het vrijwilligerswerk (als voorspeller van trots) en verleende ondersteuning (als voorspeller van respect) daarin een belangrijke rol spelen.

Samengevat tonen de resultaten van hoofdstuk 2 en 3 dat trots en respect belangrijk zijn voor vrijwilligersbehoud, dat vrijwilligersorganisaties ze kunnen sturen (door het benadrukken van het nut van het vrijwilligerswerk en door ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers te faciliteren), en dat ze onder vrijwilligers organisatiebetrokkenheid en het voornemen om bij de organisatie vrijwilliger te blijven bevorderen.

Hoofdstuk 4

Trots, respect en het werven van vrijwilligers

We hebben onderzocht (Hoofdstuk 4) of, en hoe, trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) bij kunnen dragen aan het werven van vrijwilligers. Bij vrijwilligerswerving gaat het erom om de vrijwilligersorganisatie als een aantrekkelijke werkgever aan niet-vrijwilligers te presenteren om ze te interesseren om vrijwilligerswerk bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te gaan doen. Voor vrijwilligersorganisaties is de werving van nieuwe vrijwilligers een continu aandachtspunt, en vrijwilligersorganisaties hebben in de regel veel behoefte aan vrijwilligers (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Pearce, 1993). Daarnaast is het zo dat er nog zeer weinig wetenschappelijk onderzoek is gedaan naar de werving van vrijwilligers. In een serie experimenten hebben we onder niet-vrijwilligers (mensen die geen vrijwilliger bij de wervende vrijwilligersorganisatie zijn) onderzocht of verwachte gevoelens van trots en respect als vrijwilliger bijdragen aan de waargenomen aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn en de daadwerkelijke bereidheid om zich als vrijwilliger in te zetten voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie. Hierbij hebben we ook onderzocht welke aspecten van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en de vrijwilligerswerkervaring verwachte trots en respect en beoogde uitkomsten (aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie als werkgever, bereidheid om zich als vrijwilliger voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie in te zetten) bevorderen.

In overeenstemming met de signaaltheorie (Spence, 1993) hebben onderzoekers (vb., Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991; Turban, 2001; Turban & Cable, 2003) geredeneerd dat mensen een indruk vormen van organisaties door uit de informatie die zij over de organisatie hebben kenmerken van de organisatie af te leiden. Barsness en collega's (2002) hebben geredeneerd dat niet-deelnemers aan een organisatie van kenmerken van een organisatie verwachte gevoelens van trots en respect als deelnemer aan de organisatie afleiden. Op basis

hiervan hebben we geredeneerd en onderzocht of onder niet-vrijwilligers verwachte gevoelens van trots en respect bijdragen aan de waargenomen aantrekkelijkheid van, en bereidheid tot deelname aan, de vrijwilligersorganisatie. In dit kader hebben we informatie over het succes van de organisatie en aanwezige ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers onderzocht als voorspellers van respectievelijk verwachte trots en respect als vrijwilliger.

De onderzoeksdeelnemers hebben we een fictieve vrijwilligersorganisatie voorgelegd en informatie over deze organisatie hebben we gevarieerd over de onderzoekscondities, waarbij we de vrijwilligersorganisatie presenteerden als een bestaande organisatie (de Dak- en Thuislozen Voorzieningen Organisatie, een organisatie gericht op het verlenen van hulp aan dak- en thuislozen).

Het succes van de vrijwilligersorganisatie, verwachte trots als vrijwilliger en de aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie

In overeenstemming met de sociale identiteitstheorie (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) hebben onderzoekers (e.g., Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Cable & Turban, 2003; Turban & Greening, 1996; Turban & Cable, 2003) geredeneerd dat mensen graag deel uitmaken van een succesvolle organisatie, omdat deelname aan een dergelijke organisatie bijdraagt aan een positieve sociale identiteit. Onderzoek (Turban & Cable, 2003; Turban & Greening, 1996) onder (betaalde) medewerkers toont inderdaad dat de reputatie van een organisatie bijdraagt aan het aantal (betaalde) medewerkers dat bij die organisatie wil werken (Turban & Greening, 1996) en dat verwachte trots als werknemer bij een commerciële organisatie onder mensen op zoek naar (betaald) werk bijdraagt aan de inzet om bij die organisatie een baan te krijgen (Cable & Turban, 2003). In overeenstemming hiermee hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, onder niet-vrijwilligers verkregen informatie over het succes van de organisatie bijdraagt aan verwachte trots als vrijwilliger en vervolgens de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger voor te werken.

Tegelijkertijd hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, informatie over de succesvolheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie vrijwilligerswerving negatief beïnvloedt. Immers, wanneer niet-vrijwilligers het idee hebben dat een vrijwilligersorganisatie het al goed doet wat betreft het nastreven van haar missie en helpen van haar doelgroep kunnen zij ook denken dat zij minder nodig zijn als vrijwilliger voor die vrijwilligersorganisatie. Dit komt overeen met een eerdere onderzoeksbevinding, waarbij onderzoekers (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998) vonden dat mensen dachten dat zij minder nodig waren als vrijwilliger in de fondsenwerving wanneer zij het idee hadden dat de vrijwilligers die de fondsenwerving voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie deden voldoende fondsen wisten binnen te halen.

Het eerste experiment toonde dat niet-vrijwilligers zich niet meer trots als vrijwilliger verwachten te voelen, of een vrijwilligersorganisatie als aantrekkelijker als werkplek zien, wanneer zij denken dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie succesvol is (verwachte trots als vrijwilliger droeg op zichzelf staand wel bij aan de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn). Aan de andere kant bleek het wel zo te zijn dat wanneer niet-vrijwilligers een vrijwilligersorganisatie als succesvol zien zij minder het idee hebben dat zij bij die vrijwilligersorganisatie nodig zijn als vrijwilliger. Benadrukken dat een vrijwilligersorganisatie succesvol is heeft volgens de onderzoeksresultaten dus een negatieve impact op vrijwilligerswerving, het genereert onder niet-vrijwilligers geen verwachte gevoelens van trots maar zorgt ervoor dat men denkt dat men weinig nodig is als vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie.

Ondersteuning van de vrijwilligersorganisatie, verwachte respect als vrijwilliger en de aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie

In overeenstemming met de eerdere onderzoeken (Hoofdstukken 2 en 3) hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, informatie over ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers bijdraagt aan vrijwilligerswerving middels een effect op verwachte respect als vrijwilliger onder niet-

vrijwilligers. Tegelijkertijd hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, ondersteuning van de vrijwilligersorganisatie een negatief effect heeft inzake vrijwilligerswerving, in de zin dat het de waargenomen efficiëntie van de vrijwilligersorganisatie negatief kan beïnvloeden.

Wanneer niet-vrijwilligers het idee hebben dat een vrijwilligersorganisatie weinig efficiënt is in het helpen van haar doelgroep, omdat zij middelen voor het helpen van de doelgroep aanwendt om vrijwilligers ondersteuning in het vrijwilligerswerk te kunnen verlenen (hetgeen vrijwilligers als inefficiënt kunnen zien, zie Handy, 1988), kan dit een negatieve impact hebben op de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn.

Het eerste experiment toonde dat niet-vrijwilligers zich meer gerespecteerd als vrijwilliger verwachten te voelen en vervolgens een vrijwilligersorganisatie als aantrekkelijker als werkplek zien wanneer de vrijwilligersorganisatie voor vrijwilligers klaar staat met ondersteuning. Aan de andere kant bleek het ook zo te zijn dat niet-vrijwilligers een vrijwilligersorganisatie als minder efficiënt zien wanneer de vrijwilligersorganisatie middelen aanwendt voor ondersteuning van vrijwilligers, maar dat heeft geen effect op de aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn.

Benadrukken dat men als vrijwilligersorganisatie ook klaar staat voor de vrijwilligers, naast het nastreven van de missie van de organisatie en het verlenen van hulp aan de doelgroep, heeft dus een positieve impact op vrijwilligerswerving omdat het onder niet-vrijwilligers verwachte gevoelens van respect als vrijwilliger genereert en vervolgens bijdraagt aan de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn.

Aan dit inzicht hebben we verder aandacht besteed in 2 extra experimenten.

Ondersteuning van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en medevrijwilligers, verwachte respect als vrijwilliger en de aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie

Sociale contacten zijn voor vrijwilligers een belangrijke reden voor het gaan en blijven

doen van vrijwilligerswerk (o.a., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzey, 2001), terwijl de relatie die vrijwilligers met hun vrijwilligersorganisatie hebben ook van belang is voor hun begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie (zie bijvoorbeeld hoofdstukken 2 en 3). Aldus hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, informatie over ondersteuning van de vrijwilligersorganisatie onder niet-vrijwilligers verwachte gevoelens van respect van de kant van de vrijwilligersorganisatie bewerkstelligt en vervolgens bijdraagt aan de notie van de aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn. Daartegenover hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, informatie over ondersteuning van medevrijwilligers onder niet-vrijwilligers verwachte gevoelens van respect van medevrijwilligers bewerkstelligt en of dit bijdraagt aan de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie als werkplek.

De resultaten toonden dat niet-vrijwilligers verwachten zich door de vrijwilligersorganisatie gerespecteerd te voelen als vrijwilliger en de vrijwilligersorganisatie als aantrekkelijk zien om vrijwillig actief voor te zijn, op basis van informatie dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie haar vrijwilligers ondersteuning in het vrijwilligerswerk biedt. Aan de andere kant toonden de resultaten dat niet-vrijwilligers verwachten zich door medevrijwilligers gerespecteerd te voelen op basis van informatie dat zij elkaar onderling steunen binnen de vrijwilligersorganisatie, maar dit had geen impact op de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn.

Aldus tonen de resultaten wederom dat informatie over ondersteuning van de vrijwilligersorganisatie inzake vrijwilligerswerving voor niet-vrijwilligers relevant is voor een positieve evaluatie ten aanzien van de vrijwilligersorganisatie. In een vervolgsperiment hebben we daarom aandacht besteed aan verschillende vormen van ondersteuning die binnen een vrijwilligersorganisatie verleend kunnen worden aan vrijwilligers, en aandacht besteed aan de daadwerkelijke bereidheid van niet-vrijwilligers om zich in te zetten voor de

vrijwilligersorganisatie.

Taakgerichte en emotionele ondersteuning, verwachte respect als vrijwilliger en de aantrekkelijkheid van, en bereidheid tot deelname aan, de vrijwilligersorganisatie

We hebben onderscheid gemaakt tussen taakgerichte en emotionele ondersteuning die binnen een vrijwilligersorganisatie verleend kunnen worden aan vrijwilligers (o.a., Clary, 1987; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983), en waar bestaande vrijwilligers begaanheid met hun vrijwilligersorganisatie aan ontlene (zie hoofdstukken 2 en 3). Taakgerichte ondersteuning is erop gericht om vrijwilligers bij te staan met middelen die het uitvoeren van hun taken vergemakkelijken, zoals het verstrekken van een handboek waarin de taken van de vrijwilliger staan omschreven. Emotionele ondersteuning is erop gericht om vrijwilligers zich beter te laten voelen in het vrijwilligerswerk en over henzelf, bijvoorbeeld vrijwilligers bemoedigen wanneer zij geconfronteerd worden met teleurstellingen in het vrijwilligerswerk. We hebben geredeneerd dat, en onder niet-vrijwilligers onderzocht of, informatie over taakgerichte en emotionele ondersteuning bijdraagt aan verwachte gevoelens van respect als vrijwilliger en vervolgens de ervaren aantrekkelijkheid van de vrijwilligersorganisatie om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn, en of dit vervolgens leidt tot de bereidheid om deel te nemen aan de vrijwilligersorganisatie als vrijwilliger.

De resultaten toonden dat niet-vrijwilligers verwachte gevoelens van respect als vrijwilliger ontlene aan informatie dat een vrijwilligersorganisatie vrijwilligers taakgerichte en emotionele ondersteuning verleend, en dat zij hierdoor deze vrijwilligersorganisatie als aantrekkelijk zien om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn en daadwerkelijk bereid zijn om als vrijwilliger deel te nemen aan de vrijwilligersorganisatie.

Samengevat tonen de resultaten van de experimenten dat verwachte gevoelens van trots en respect als vrijwilliger relevant zijn in het kader van vrijwilligerswerving, en dat vrijwilligersorganisaties deze verwachte gevoelens kunnen aanspreken onder niet-

vrijwilligers. Vervolgens hebben we aandacht besteed aan het bevorderen en onderhouden van de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk onder vrijwilligers, een belangrijk punt van vrijwilligersbeleid (o.a., Clary et al., 1998), en onderzocht of de werkbeleving van vrijwilligers anders is dan die van betaalde medewerkers.

Hoofdstuk 5

Het bevorderen van de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk onder vrijwilligers, en de arbeidsbeleving van vrijwilligers versus die van betaalde medewerkers

Boezeman, Ellemers en Duijnhoven (zoals gerapporteerd in Ellemers & Boezeman, ter perse) hebben onder vrijwilligers werkzaam voor 2 verschillende typen vrijwilligersorganisaties aangetoond dat trots (door het ervaren nut van het vrijwilligerswerk), respect van de vrijwilligersorganisatie (door verleende ondersteuning) en respect van de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie (door het idee dat de doelgroep de hulp van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en haar vrijwilligers accepteert en op prijs stelt) bijdragen aan tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk. Daarnaast hebben we aandacht besteed aan de werkomstandigheden van vrijwilligerswerk en de bijdrage daarvan aan tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en het voornemen om als vrijwilliger bij de organisatie te blijven werken.

Wanneer mensen vanuit zichzelf gemotiveerd zijn voor een activiteit, zoals het doen van vrijwilligerswerk, dan is het volgens Deci en Ryan (2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) zo dat 3 innerlijke behoeftes van mensen de motivatie om die taak uit te voeren kunnen beïnvloeden. Voorzover de sociale omgeving waarin de activiteit wordt uitgevoerd voorziet in een gevoel van zelfbepaling, bekwaam zijn in het uitvoeren van de activiteit en verbondenheid met anderen gedurende de activiteit, dan zal dit bijdragen aan de motivatie om de activiteit uit te voeren en de tevredenheid met het uitvoeren van de activiteit (Baard et al., 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Aldus hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onder 105 vrijwilligers werkzaam voor een organisatie die

vrijtijdsactiviteiten voor verstandelijk gehandicapten verzorgd onderzocht of, ervaren voorziening in zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen gedurende het vrijwilligerswerk bijdragen aan tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en vervolgens het voornemen om als vrijwilliger actief voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Dit omdat vrijwilligerswerk wordt gekenmerkt door zelfstandigheid en onafhankelijkheid (Meijs, 1997; Pearce, 1993) en omdat sociale contacten voor vrijwilligers belangrijk zijn om vrijwilligerswerk te gaan en blijven doen (o.a., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Tegelijkertijd hebben we geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, onder vrijwilligers ervaren bekwaamheid in het vrijwilligerswerk ten opzichte van ervaren zelfstandigheid en verbondenheid met anderen minder relevant is voor het bewerkstelligen van tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en het voornemen om vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Dit omdat er in vrijwilligerswerk weinig tot geen indicatoren zijn, zoals functioneringsgesprekken, waar vrijwilligers bekwaamheid aan kunnen afleiden (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Pearce, 1993).

Confirmatieve factoranalyses toonden dat we met onze meetinstrumenten ervaren zelfbepaling, bekwaamheid en verbondenheid met anderen apart van elkaar konden meten. Padanalyses toonden vervolgens dat zowel ervaren zelfbepaling als verbondenheid met anderen onder vrijwilligers de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk bevorderen en op deze wijze bijdragen aan het voornemen om als vrijwilliger voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie actief te blijven. Daarnaast toonden de resultaten dat wanneer vrijwilligers hun ervaren zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen in overweging nemen, de ervaren bekwaamheid in het vrijwilligerswerk zoals voorspeld geen invloed heeft op de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en het voornemen om als vrijwilliger voor de vrijwilligersorganisatie actief te blijven.

Aldus toonden de resultaten dat bevordering en benadrukking van zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen voor vrijwilligers voornamelijk van belang zijn voor een gevoel

van tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en het voornemen om als vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Door dit proefschrift heen (hoofdstukken 2, 3, 4, 5) hebben we beargumenteerd dat vrijwilligers een arbeidsbeleving hebben die verschillend is van de arbeidsbeleving van betaalde medewerkers, en resultaten gevonden die uniek zijn voor de situatie van vrijwilligerswerk (zie hoofdstukken 3, 4, en 5). In een vervolganalyse hebben we op empirische wijze de arbeidsbeleving van vrijwilligers vergeleken met die van betaalde medewerkers.

We hebben geredeneerd dat, en onderzocht of, betaalde medewerkers hun werktevredenheid en voornemen om medewerker bij de organisatie te blijven voornamelijk ontlenen aan zelfbepaling in het werk. Dit in tegenstelling tot vrijwilligers, die volgens onze redenering hun werktevredenheid en voornemen om medewerker bij de organisatie te blijven voornamelijk ontlenen aan ervaring van verbondenheid met anderen. Dit omdat betaalde medewerkers zich op basis van hun arbeidsovereenkomst onder het gezag van de organisatie plaatsen en vandaar mogelijk meer waarde hechten aan zelfbepaling dan vrijwilligers, terwijl vrijwilligers gezien het karakter van vrijwilligerswerk in de regel al zelfbeschikking hebben en sociale contacten voor vrijwilligers belangrijk zijn om vrijwilligerswerk te gaan en blijven doen (o.a., Clary et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

De 27 betaalde medewerkers en 41 vrijwilligers werkten allen als begeleider van vrijetijdsactiviteiten voor verstandelijk gehandicapten binnen dezelfde vrijwilligersorganisatie, de betaalde medewerkers kregen salaris enkel op basis van het feit dat zij geschoold waren in het begeleiden van de betreffende vrijetijdsactiviteit. Stapsgewijze regressieanalyses, aangevuld met mediatieanalyses (Baron & Kenny, 1986), toonden zoals voorspeld dat betaalde medewerkers hun werktevredenheid en voornemen om medewerker bij de organisatie te blijven voornamelijk ontlenen aan zelfbepaling, terwijl vrijwilligers hun werktevredenheid en voornemen om medewerker bij de organisatie te blijven voornamelijk

ontlenen aan ervaren verbondenheid met anderen gedurende het werk. Aldus tonen deze resultaten empirische evidentie dat de werkbeleving van vrijwilligers anders is dan die van betaalde medewerkers.

Conclusie

Conclusie

Deze dissertatie draagt bij aan kennis over gedrag in (vrijwilligers)organisaties en heeft voor vrijwilligersorganisaties kennis ontwikkeld ten gunste van vrijwilligersbeleid. Hierbij is een theoretisch kader gebruikt gericht op trots en respect (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000) dat is toegepast op vrijwilligersbehoud (zie ook Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008a), de werving van vrijwilligers (zie ook Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008b) en het bevorderen van de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk (zie de studies gedaan door Boezeman, Ellemers & Duijnhoven, zoals gerapporteerd in Ellemers & Boezeman, ter perse). Met het theoretisch kader van Deci en Ryan (2000, Ryan & Deci, 2000) is aanvullend onderzoek onder vrijwilligers gedaan naar de bevordering van de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk, en is de arbeidsbeleving van vrijwilligers gecontrasteerd met die van betaalde medewerkers.

Consistent tonen de resultaten 1.) dat ervaring dat het vrijwilligerswerk nut heeft ten aanzien van de missie van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en/of de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie onder vrijwilligers bijdraagt aan een gevoel van trots op deelname aan de vrijwilligersorganisatie, 2.) dat wanneer vrijwilligers het idee hebben dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie aandacht aan haar vrijwilligers besteed (in de vorm van het verlenen van ondersteuning bij het vrijwilligerswerk) zij zich daardoor gerespecteerd voelen, 3.) dat gevoelens van trots en respect onder vrijwilligers begaanheid met de vrijwilligersorganisatie bevorderen, 4.) dat verwachte trots en respect als vrijwilliger niet-vrijwilligers ertoe aanzet de vrijwilligersorganisatie positief te beoordelen om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn, 5.) dat ervaren zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen gedurende het vrijwilligerswerk onder

vrijwilligers bijdragen aan tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en het voornemen om als vrijwilliger bij de organisatie actief te blijven, en 6.) dat de arbeidsbeleving van vrijwilligers uniek is en niet gelijk staat aan die van betaalde medewerkers.

Vrijwilligersorganisaties die vrijwilligers wensen te behouden doen er goed aan onder vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect (waardering) te bevorderen, omdat gevoelens van trots en respect onder vrijwilligers bijdragen aan betrokkenheid bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie en het voornemen om vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie te blijven. Het bevorderen van gevoelens van trots onder vrijwilligers kan bijvoorbeeld door naar vrijwilligers te communiceren dat hun inzet nut heeft wat betreft de missie van de vrijwilligersorganisatie en/of het helpen van de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie, bijvoorbeeld in een magazine voor vrijwilligers. Het bevorderen van gevoelens van respect onder vrijwilligers kan bijvoorbeeld door vrijwilligers taakgerichte ondersteuning te geven in hun vrijwilligerswerk wanneer nodig en door aandacht te besteden aan hoe vrijwilligers hun vrijwilligerswerk emotioneel ervaren. Dit kan bijvoorbeeld door vrijwilligers een handboek behorende bij het betreffende vrijwilligerswerk ter beschikking te stellen en door vrijwilligers aan te moedigen in hun vrijwilligerswerk, en aandacht te besteden aan hun ervaringen, wanneer relevant (bv. in het geval van collectanten die zich teveel afgewezen voelen op hun collecterondes).

Vrijwilligersorganisaties die vrijwilligers wensen te werven doen er goed aan niet-vrijwilligers het idee te geven dat zij gerespecteerd (gewaardeerd) zullen worden wanneer zij als vrijwilliger actief aan de slag gaan bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie. Dit kan bijvoorbeeld door naar niet-vrijwilligers te communiceren dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie, naast het nastreven van haar missie en/of helpen van de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie, aandacht heeft voor haar vrijwilligers. Een boodschap, bijvoorbeeld in informatiemateriaal of bij persoonlijke werving, dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie voor vrijwilligers zorgt doordat ze

ondersteuning verleent gedurende het vrijwilligerswerk, kan hierbij van dienst zijn.

Daartegenover wordt vrijwilligersorganisaties afgeraden het succes van de organisatie, ten aanzien van het nastreven van de missie van de organisatie en/of het helpen van de doelgroep van de organisatie, teveel te benadrukken. Dit omdat het onder niet-vrijwilligers niet bijdraagt aan verwachte gevoelens van trots als vrijwilliger, maar wel leidt tot het idee dat de vrijwilligersorganisatie minder een behoefte heeft aan nieuwe vrijwilligers.

Vrijwilligersorganisaties die onder vrijwilligers de tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk wensen te bevorderen en onderhouden, doen er goed aan om –naast onder vrijwilligers gevoelens van trots en respect te bevorderen- vrijwilligers zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen te laten ervaren in het vrijwilligerswerk. Dit omdat ervaren zelfbepaling en verbondenheid met anderen onder vrijwilligers bijdragen aan tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk en vervolgens het voornemen om als vrijwilliger bij de vrijwilligersorganisatie actief te blijven. Zelfbepaling genereren onder vrijwilligers kan bijvoorbeeld door vrijwilligers ideeën en suggesties voor verbetering ten aanzien van het vrijwilligerswerk te laten opperen, en door daar dan gehoor aan te geven. Verbondenheid met anderen genereren onder vrijwilligers kan bijvoorbeeld door vrijwilligers dichter bij de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie te brengen, zoals in een gearrangeerde bijeenkomst waar vrijwilligers en de doelgroep van de vrijwilligersorganisatie op informele wijze met elkaar in contact kunnen treden en bekend kunnen worden met elkaar.

Tabel 1 geeft schematisch weer wat vrijwilligersorganisaties kunnen doen aan vrijwilligerswerving, het tevreden stellen en houden van vrijwilligers, en vrijwilligersbehoud. Vrijwilligersorganisaties wordt aangeraden kennis te nemen van deze strategieën en ze te implementeren in hun vrijwilligersbeleid.

Tabel 1. *Interventies voor vrijwilligersorganisaties*

Interventie	→ Psychologisch Proces	→ Psychologische begaanheid	→ “Gedragsmatige” begaanheid
<i>Vrijwilligerswerving (niet-vrijwilligers)</i>			
Informatie over ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers	Verwachte respect (waardering) als vrijwilliger	Perceptie van vrijwilligersorganisatie als aantrekkelijk om als vrijwilliger actief voor te zijn	Bereidheid om als vrijwilliger deel te nemen aan vrijwilligersorganisatie
<i>Vrijwilligersbehoud (actieve vrijwilligers)</i>			
Nut van het vrijwilligerswerk	Trots	Betrokkenheid bij organisatie - Normatief - Affectief	Voornemen om als vrijwilliger actief te blijven bij vrijwilligersorganisatie
Ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers	Respect (waardering) van organisatie		
<i>Bevorderen tevredenheid met vrijwilligerswerk (actieve vrijwilligers)</i>			
Nut van het vrijwilligerswerk	Trots		
Ondersteuning voor vrijwilligers	Respect (waardering) van organisatie	Tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk	(inzet/presteren)
Doelgroep accepteert en apprecieert hulp en inzet van vrijwilligersorganisatie en vrijwilligers	Respect (waardering) van doelgroep		
(Ruimte voor zelfbepaling)	Ervaring van zelfbepaling	tevredenheid met het vrijwilligerswerk	Voornemen om als vrijwilliger actief te blijven bij vrijwilligersorganisatie
(Stimuleren van contacten)	Ervaring van verbondenheid met anderen		

Zie ook Boezeman en Ellemers (2007, 2008a, 2008b, ter perse) en Ellemers en Boezeman (ter perse).

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Curriculum Vitae

Born in Dordrecht, The Netherlands, Edwin J. Boezeman (1977) received his secondary education from Walburg College Zwijndrecht (HAVO) and Da Vinci College Dordrecht (VWO). After completion he started studying psychology at Leiden University in September 1998. In February 2004 he graduated in Social and Organizational Psychology and his master thesis focused on volunteers, volunteer organizations, and volunteer policy. With a few jobs on the side, he continued his research on the organizational behavior of volunteers, and aligned with, and worked pro bono as a researcher and management consultant for, several charitable volunteer organizations. In May 2005, he started a Ph. D. project covering strategies to recruit, content, and retain volunteers from a social identity perspective, under the supervision of Professor Doctor Naomi Ellemers, of Leiden University, department of Social and Organizational Psychology. Covering the topic of volunteer work and addressing the organizational behavior of volunteer workers, Edwin J. Boezeman published jointly with Naomi Ellemers in international and refereed scientific journals such as *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *European Journal of Social Psychology*, and *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, while they also contributed to relevant edited volumes and to media such as the *Stanford Social Innovation Review*. Currently, and started August 2008, Edwin J. Boezeman is in the rank of assistant professor and works at the Free University of Amsterdam, department of Work and Organizational Psychology.