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Motivations to Volunteer in Selected Service Organisations in Australia

Presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
Degree of Master of Business (Marketing),
Faculty of Business and Public Management,
Edith Cowan University.

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Student Number: 088 2004

August 2003

USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

Abstract

The contributions of volunteers assist many organisations to stretch scarce resources further in a bid to provide important services to the community. Such organisations are challenged to motivate the participation of new and continuing volunteers. Although most people in the community recognise the value and importance of volunteerism, few actually commit to participating as volunteers. This study seeks to expand the somewhat limited research on volunteers in an Australian context. The sample consisted of 361 volunteers from three service organisations in Australia—Rotary International, Home and Community Care (HACC), and Surf Life Saving Australia. Each of these groups fulfils an important role in the community, yet struggles to recruit and retain the services of volunteers. Determining the motivations that members and potential members seek to have satisfied through their volunteer participation allows persuasive communication to be developed that will more effectively attract people to these organisations. It can also assist the placement of volunteers in the most satisfying roles, resulting in longer retention of volunteers.

This study employed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), an instrument that measures the motivational profile of individual volunteers. The reasonable sample size facilitated the use of multivariate techniques such as factor, discriminant, and cluster analysis. Motivational and demographic profiles of the sample and each sub-group were determined and differences between the three sub-groups examined. The results determined that, for this sample, there were five key motivations to volunteer, contrasting with the six-factor result consistently found by the developers of the VFI. Further research is required to determine whether this is a reflection of Australian volunteers or rather of this particular sample. For the total sample and for each sub-group, the primary motivators of their volunteer participation were the Values and Understanding functions, and the Career function was the least important motivation. The Career motive was, however, significantly more important for Surf Life Saving volunteers than for the Rotary and HACC volunteers and served to differentiate between the groups. The results suggested that Surf Life Saving volunteers tended to be more egoistically-oriented in their motivations for volunteering than were the Rotary and HACC volunteers. Implications for the recruitment, placement and retention of volunteers in these organisations are subsequently discussed.

Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

i. incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

ii. contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or

iii. contain any defamatory material.

Signature ____________ Date 08/12/2003

Sonia D. Langridge

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The undertaking of this degree has been a journey for the entire family. It has been deferred and dictated by the entrance to our lives of three beautiful children, Nicholas, Megan and Adam. My thanks to Matt, Mum and Dad, Pat and Col, and the kids for lasting the distance.

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background

> The great majority of Australia's third sector organisations rely exclusively upon the voluntary labour of hundreds of thousands of Australians. These are the voluntary associations that provide a framework of opportunities for recreation or commitment in every corner of society. They are the organisations that demonstrate people's ability to work together to advance a cause or provide a service. They draw upon and maintain social capital. (Lyons, 2001, p. 150)

The year 2001, proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly as the International Year of Volunteers, saw international attention focused on volunteers the world over. Many governments, communities, and organisations combined efforts to highlight the achievements of millions of volunteers worldwide and to encourage more people globally to engage in volunteer activity (*What is IYV?*, 1999-2001). In addition to the many Australians who act as volunteers, Australians are building a profile on the world stage in the field of volunteering. Australian Margaret Bell, for example, served an eight-year term as World President of the International Association for Volunteer Effort (IAVE) and is credited as having been a major proponent of the concept of an International Year of Volunteers (*2001: International Year of Volunteers*, 2001). In spite of this focus, research into the field and studies of motivations to volunteer in an Australian context are still comparatively limited (Helman, 1992-1993; Noble, 2000). The present study seeks to further the understanding of the motivations to volunteer possessed by volunteers within selected Australian organisations.

Volunteers are often categorised according to the structure within which the volunteer effort is conducted. Most often, volunteers are considered to be those individuals who work in formal organisations or voluntary associations to help others for no monetary pay (Chambré, 1984; Marx, 1999). Some definitions of a volunteer, however, also include informal volunteer work, or helping, which is typically not carried out in the context of organisations, but rather in a less structured and more private manner (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

The current study focuses on volunteerism as it relates to planned helping in formal organisations. Such effort involves sustained helpfulness, defined by Snyder (1993, p. 253) as "prosocial behavior that involves people devoting often substantial amounts of time and energy to helping others, often for extended periods of time and at considerable personal cost".

Definitions of volunteers and volunteering are addressed briefly in section 1.5.1 and more fully in section 2.1.

1.1.1 The Importance of Volunteers

Leaders and managers of all organisations, regardless of their profit orientation, face such challenges as the achievement of goals within budget guidelines, and human resource allocation and performance (Ellis, 1986, cited in Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992). Leaders of nonprofit organisations encounter the added difficulty of having to attract financial support from sources other than the sale of products or services (Clary et al., 1992). Volunteers represent an inexpensive source of labour and their work is vital to the success and survival of many of these organisations (Brudney, 1990, cited in Harrison, 1995). Indeed, faced with reductions in government funding and decreasing budgets, many nonprofit organisations are relying increasingly, if not entirely, on volunteers to maintain service levels and to expand both the quantity and quality of services (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Danoff & Kopel, 1994; Ferris, 1988; Weisbrod, 1998, cited in Harrison, 1995; Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998; Zakour, 1994). In Australia, paid employees are engaged only by approximately 6% of third sector organisations (see section 2.2) and most of these organisations still rely heavily on the efforts of volunteers (Lyons, 2001). These range from large organisations such as the Red Cross, St Vincent's Hospital, and the Salvation Army, to those run purely on a voluntary basis such as local sporting, self-interest, and recreation activities (Lyons, 2001).

Volunteerism makes a vital contribution to society in general. O'Connell (1985) considers that such community service and active citizenship are crucial elements in fostering and preserving democracy (cited in Fitch, 1987), and citizen participation is often viewed as essential to solving many of society's problems (such as destruction of the environment, incidence of crime etc.) and encouraging social harmony (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Snyder, 1993). The United States government has, over the last several decades, actively encouraged the establishment of volunteer programs and volunteer participation (Marx, 1999), even promoting volunteer work as a patriotic duty (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Some American educational institutions now require students to participate in community service activities as part of their course (Sobus, 1995, cited in Clary & Snyder, 1999; Ferrari, Dobis, Kardaras, Michna, & Wagner, 1999).

1.1.2 Volunteerism in Australia

Volunteers play an important role in Australia, providing services, raising funds and administering for organisations in the face of competition between nonprofit organisations for fund raising dollars and volunteer labour, and decreasing government funding (Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998; Lyons, Wijkstrom, & Clary, 1998).

1.1.2.1 Volunteer Rates

The survey of voluntary work conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS] (1996) in June 1995 determined that 19% of the Australian population (aged 15 years and over) provided some form of (formal) voluntary work through an organisation or group at least once during the previous 12 months. The volunteer rate was higher for areas outside capital cities (24%) than for capital cities (16%). Research suggests that the volunteer rate in Australia is declining (Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998; Lyons & Hocking, 2000; Warburton & Mutch, 2000). This decline is being countered to an extent by highly committed volunteers who work more hours, but even this greater effort is unlikely to sufficiently match the growth rate in the population and arrest the trend for a decline in volunteering (Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998; Lyons & Hocking, 2000).

Explanations for a declining volunteer rate are largely speculative. Warburton (1997, cited in Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998) suggests that, given the higher volunteer participation rate of women over men, the trend for more married women to return to some level of paid work has made them less available for voluntary work. The ABS (1997, cited in Lyons & Fabiansson, 1998) suggests that the same trend in fact reduces the time both parents can apply to volunteer activities. Lyons and Hocking (2000) recognise that two groups that historically have shown high levels of volunteer involvement—parents with dependent children, and people living in regional Australia—are declining in absolute or relative terms. There are also a growing number of women who will not have children. However, based on historical relationships between demographic characteristics and volunteer participation, Lyons and Hocking (2000) suggest that an increasing proportion of the population gaining tertiary qualifications should result in a greater percentage of the population volunteering. Similarly, the ageing of the population and the trend for early retirement among men are factors likely to increase the volunteer rate.

In contrast to the 1995 ABS survey of formal voluntary work (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996) discussed above, the nationwide surveys on time use conducted by the ABS in 1992 and 1997 (Ironmonger, 2000) measured both volunteering through formal organisations *and* informal helping (section 2.1.3 clarifies the distinction between these two types of volunteering). Comparisons between these two time use surveys indicate that, in contrast to the declining volunteer rates for formal organisations outlined above, Australians were spending 24.4% more time across all types of volunteering in 1997 than in 1992 (Ironmonger, 2000).

1.1.2.2 Economic Value of Volunteers

Volunteer work, like unpaid household work, is not included in Australia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, far from having no economic worth, as this accounting practice would suggest, unpaid labour is important to Australian society and quantifying this contribution "provides an economic perspective from which to assess government policy on volunteering and for the provision of services" (Ironmonger, 2000, p. 56).

In 1997, some 2,161 million hours per year were spent by Australian adults in (formal and informal) volunteering (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1997, cited in Ironmonger, 2000). Ironmonger (2000) calculated that, in 1997, the full value of benefits provided by voluntarily provided goods and services to other households, both directly or through volunteer organisations and groups, amounted to nearly 8% of GDP. As outlined in the present study, volunteers also gain direct benefits from their actions for which a dollar value cannot be quantified (Ironmonger, 2000).

1.1.3 The Challenge for Volunteer Organisations

Given, then, the importance of volunteers to society in general and particularly to nonprofit organisations, one of the primary tasks of such organisations is to motivate the participation of both new and continuing volunteers. Indeed, the problem of inaction, where people tend to view volunteerism positively yet display a reluctance to actually participate in it, needs to be overcome (Snyder, 1993). To achieve this, it is useful to determine the needs, goals, and motives that underpin people's decisions to volunteer and which they seek to have satisfied by their volunteer participation (Clary et al., 1992; Danoff & Kopel, 1994; Gillespie & King, 1985). It is recognised that volunteers not only give (of themselves and their time), but also are rewarded by their involvement, even if such rewards are not economic in nature (Gidron, 1978; Ironmonger, 2000).

Although altruism is the reason most often given for volunteering, researchers believe that individuals in fact have multiple motives for volunteering, many of which are egoistic, rather than purely altruistic, in nature (Smith, 1982, cited in Black & DiNitto, 1994; Chapman & Morley, 1999; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989).

1.2 Research Significance

Nonprofit organisations most often have limited resources and hence rely heavily on the services of volunteers. The recruitment, placement and retention of volunteers are of critical importance, but also involve considerable expense (Clary et al., 1992; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Cull & Hardy, 1974, cited in Danoff & Kopel, 1994; Reed & Selbee, 2000). These processes are assisted by an understanding of the reasons why people volunteer, and of the demographic profile of volunteers and the impact these characteristics have on volunteer motivations.

1.2.1 Determining Who Volunteers and Why

Understanding what motivates people to offer free assistance allows organisations to develop more persuasive, more effective methods for appealing for, selecting and retaining volunteers (Chapman & Morley, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Persuasive communication can be tailored to the needs of potential volunteers, illustrating how participation in volunteer activity would better satisfy their motivations than would inactivity (Clary et al., 1992). This approach of using messages matched to motivations is more effective in recruiting volunteers than messages that are motivationally irrelevant (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994).

Organisations are also challenged to assign volunteers to activities that will meet both the needs of the volunteer and of the organisation (Clary et al., 1992). Individual volunteers are motivated to act by different factors, with different people therefore suited to different jobs (Lyons, 2001). An understanding of the motivational concerns of the individual assists organisations to place a volunteer in a role that best matches his or her motivation, and hence will be most satisfying for the volunteer (Clary et al., 1992).

Retention of current volunteer staff is a further concern for nonprofit organisations. Clary et al. (1992) observe that because the interests and circumstances of volunteers change over time, turnover is constant and imposes hardship on organisations. Volunteer turnover can impact negatively on the services provided by, and the morale of, an organisation, and scarce resources are directed to recruitment, training, and other aspects of human resource management. Volunteers whose (changing) motivations are, firstly, understood and, secondly, fulfilled by their involvement are likely to remain with the organisation longer (Clary et al., 1992).

Further, it is useful to establish a demographic profile of the people volunteering. There is evidence that the explanations people give for doing volunteer work are conditioned by demographic factors such as age, gender and marital status (Gillespie & King, 1985). By identifying motives that may be specific to particular age groups, genders, or other demographic profiles, efforts to persuade and attract volunteers may be more efficiently and more effectively targeted to potential volunteers, thus improving the rate of volunteer recruitment and retention (Zakour, 1994).

In summary, by developing a motivational and demographic profile for an individual volunteer or potential volunteer, the critically important tasks of recruitment, placement and retention of volunteers in nonprofit organisations will be assisted.

1.2.2 Measuring Motivations of Volunteers

Although there has been wide overseas research examining the motivations that drive people to volunteer, there are comparatively few research studies involving Australian volunteers. Noble (2000) highlights the lack of statistics, research, and literature currently available on all aspects of volunteering from an Australian perspective, particularly considering the magnitude and importance of the Australian volunteer effort.

Particular attention is drawn to the need for research into the motivations to volunteer given the continuing change in lifestyles and people's attitudes (Noble, 2000).

The current study is significant in that it focuses on Australian volunteers. It seeks to further validate the scale known as the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) when applied across three diverse groups of Australian volunteers. Limited sample sizes from previous studies have restricted the range of analysis available. The reasonable sample size in the present study has facilitated the use of multivariate techniques, which have allowed the exploration of dimensions and relationships both within and across the chosen sub-groups. At least half of the studies identified as having employed the VFI scale have been confined to student samples, a limitation highlighted by Clary, Snyder and Stukas (1996), who urged further investigation of the VFI to determine "whether the predicted six-factor structure of people's responses to the VFI can be recovered in samples other than the convenience samples of volunteers and university students used previously" (p. 489). The present research has been conducted on actual volunteers.

In summary, this research will survey a good-sized sample of actual volunteers in order to contribute to the body of research relating specifically to Australian volunteers and the factors that underpin their volunteer behaviour. The volunteer groups surveyed in the current study face the very real challenge of attracting and retaining volunteers to support the provision of important services and, as far as can be ascertained, these groups have not been the focus of similar research. As such, it is considered that this current study has both theoretical and practical worth.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Nonprofit organisations have scarce resources and many rely to a large extent on volunteer labour. Attracting and retaining these volunteers draws heavily on resources. Understanding which individuals are motivated to volunteer and what needs they seek to have satisfied through particular volunteer work may allow persuasive messages to be developed to effectively attract volunteers.

This research examines the motivations that compel volunteers to give their time and energy to assist three diverse service organisations in Australia. The three sub-groups of volunteers have been drawn from Rotary International, Home and Community Care (incorporating Meals on Wheels), and Surf Life Saving Australia. This research examines whether motivations to volunteer are consistent or diverse both within and between these volunteer groups; whether motivations are in fact multidimensional; and the level of importance placed on each motivation by individuals/groups. Further, the present study seeks to determine whether the VFI is an appropriate and reliable tool across diverse groups, and in an Australian context.

In addition to examining the application of the VFI, the results are useful in determining the types of promotional messages that would best be developed by each organisation in response to the motivations/needs identified as most important to its volunteer workforce. This would facilitate the recruitment of more volunteer members more effectively, and importantly, would ensure that the salient needs of volunteers are met, assisting the retention of volunteers.

1.4 Research Objectives and Hypotheses

The questions facing nonprofit organisations include: *what type* of people volunteer and *why* do people volunteer?

Research Question 1:

What are the demographic characteristics of the volunteers from Rotary International (Rotary), Home and Community Care (HACC), and Surf Life Saving (Surf Life)?

Research Question 2:

Does the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) provide an adequate scale to measure the motivations to volunteer in three groups of volunteers in Australia?

Research Question 3:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the motivations for volunteering held by volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 4:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the relative importance of motivations for volunteering between volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 5:

Are there motivational differences between the different demographic groups represented in the sample?

Further to consultation with management representatives from the three chosen volunteer groups and a review of relevant literature, the following hypotheses are posed in relation to each of the volunteer groups chosen:

Hypothesis 1:	The Career motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Rotary volunteers.
Justification:	Refer: 1.5.4.1
Hypothesis 2:	The Values motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for HACC volunteers.
Justification:	Refer: 1.5.4.2
Hypothesis 3:	The Social motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Surf Life volunteers.
Justification:	Refer: 1.5.4.3

1.5 Definitions of Terms

The following paragraphs outline key terms that are further discussed in the Literature Review (section 2.0).

1.5.1 Volunteers and Volunteering

The current study considers volunteers to be those individuals who, within formal organisations or voluntary associations, freely give their time and effort on an unpaid basis to help others in need (Chambré, 1984; Clary et al., 1994; Fitch, 1991; Wilson & Musick, 1997).

1.5.2 Motivations to Volunteer

The motivations of volunteers are those "internal, psychological forces that move people to overcome obstacles and become involved in volunteer activity" (Clary et al., 1996, p. 487). Studies aiming to better understand why people volunteer focus on identifying the important psychological needs, goals and motives that individuals seek to satisfy through volunteer effort (Clary et al., 1996).

1.5.3 Types of Organisations

Volunteering Australia considers volunteering to be "an activity performed in the non-profit sector only" (Cordingly, 2000, p. 74). Such organisations are also referred to as third-sector organisations (Lyons, 2001) and are separate from state/government/public service organisations and the for-profit sector. Paull (1999) observes that such categorisation can lead to the wrongful view that volunteering does not take place in the government or the profit sectors. Other definitions of the term *volunteer* freely accept that work may be undertaken for nonprofit, governmental, or even private for-profit organisations (Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996). As discussed in section 2.2, volunteers in the present study are drawn largely from the third sector, with some HACC respondents involved in programs facilitated by local government organisations. In the current study, all three groups surveyed are referred to as nonprofit organisations.

1.5.4 Introduction to Research Sample

Respondents for the present study have been drawn from volunteers active in Rotary International, Home and Community Care programs and Surf Life Saving Australia.

1.5.4.1 Rotary International (Rotary)

Rotary is a worldwide organisation that unites business and professional leaders. Rotary aims to "provide humanitarian service, encourage high ethical standards in all vocations, and help build goodwill and peace in the world" (*Rotary International: About Rotary*, 2003). With a motto of 'Service Above Self', Rotarians are business and professional leaders who participate in and administer a broad range of programs and activities designed to improve the quality of life in their local communities and throughout the world. Rotary clubs are autonomous and members meet weekly to plan service activities based on local needs and the interests and abilities of members (*This is Rotary [brochure]*, n.d.). Each club is required to develop an annual program of service that is submitted for district approval (E. Carr, personal communication, November 18, 2001). Rotary International is one of the world's largest service organisations (*Rotary International: Becoming a Rotarian*, 2003) and is recognised by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1996, p. 30) as an organisation "whose work is for the wider social benefit of the general community". Lyons (2001, p. 69) classifies these clubs as "purely volunteer organisations at the local level".

Although membership to Rotary is by invitation, it is contingent upon members having the capacity to meet the club's weekly attendance and community project participation requirements (*Rotary International: Responsibilities of membership*, 2003). Members' actual participation in particular community events, and indeed their decision to remain in the club under these expectations, is voluntary. Hence, every Rotarian can be viewed as a legitimate volunteer (see also section 2.1.1).

Four Australian Rotary clubs were surveyed for the current study, with a total of 131 responses received from volunteers at the Rotary Clubs of Perth, Scarborough, Kalgoorlie and Sydney.

It is likely that Rotary serves to meet multiple motivations/expectations for its members. Lyons (2001, p. 68) recognises that such clubs offer businesspeople "valuable opportunities for networking and business advantage", a view shared by Chambré (1987), Hausknecht (1962, cited in L. Smith, 1975), and Zakour (1994). Historically, Rotary has restricted membership to just one or two representatives from each trade/profession in order to maximise networking benefits (Rotary International, 1968). Rotary also offers members opportunities for socialising and confers upon members a certain social status (Lyons, 2001). In addition to benefiting from such 'self interest' activities, Rotary members contribute to the community via their club's program of community service activities and hence are likely to be strongly motivated by altruistic concerns. This is reflected in the activities undertaken by Rotary and the organisation's motto, 'Service Above Self'. See also Appendix C1.

1.5.4.2 Home and Community Care (HACC)

"The Home and Community Care (HACC) program is a cost shared program between the Commonwealth and State Governments which provides financial assistance for services supporting the frail aged and younger people with disabilities" (Home and Community Care, 1993, p. 7). The program offers a range of services to allow these individuals to continue living independently in their own homes for as long as possible (Home and Community Care, 1993).

The present study gathered responses from 101 volunteers active in the programs offered by:

- League of Help for the Elderly (Inc.)—Meals on Wheels
- City of Subiaco—Meals on Wheels
- Contact-S (coordinating body of volunteer services for the City of Stirling), incorporating:
    - food services (Meals on Wheels)
    - volunteer transport (to medical appointments, care groups, shopping, library)
    - home help
    - mobile library (Books on Wheels)

(*Community Services Department [brochure]*, n.d.)

Historically, Meals on Wheels agencies have depended heavily on volunteers and a shortage of volunteers has been, and remains, a common problem (R. Smith, 1984). Smith (1984) observed that there had been few studies of the characteristics of existing Meals on Wheels volunteers, and little is known about what motivates these volunteers to give their time to this particular organisation. The most commonly held assumption is that Meals on Wheels volunteers want to be of service to others, but Smith (1984) stresses the value of understanding more accurately why different volunteers offer their services in order to be better able to attract new volunteers, perhaps from less traditional sources. See also Appendix C2.

1.5.4.3 Surf Life Saving Australia (Surf Life)

Surf Life Saving Australia is the safety organisation recognised throughout the community as being responsible for protecting the 60 million people that visit Australia's beaches each year. Volunteers play a pivotal role in providing, for the benefit of the community, an essential emergency service. This encompasses surveillance, protection, medical assistance, and rescue services at all patrolled beaches, in addition to ongoing development in rescue techniques, lifesaver training, and education programs outlining first-aid, water awareness and the like (*About lifesaving and lifeguarding*, 2000).

Some 100 years ago, the surf lifesaving movement grew from a desire to both assist public safety and provide a pleasurable recreational opportunity (Jaggard, 1979). This remains the case today, with many members competing in surf carnivals and enjoying the social environment afforded by the clubs. At the same time, members are attracted to volunteer with the organisation "because of the perceived societal value of its work" (Helman, 1992-1993, p. 23). They devote considerable time to patrolling beaches and training to perform their duties, and are prepared to place themselves at very real personal risk to support public safety. Many lifesavers are young people not yet in the labour force, for whom job procurement/career advancement may be a relevant concern and who concur with Lammers' view that "to get a good job these days, you have to volunteer somewhere" (1991, p. 132).

Survey responses were received from a total of 129 volunteers at the Western Australian Surf Life Saving clubs of Floreat, Trigg Island, Scarborough, Sorrento and Mullaloo, and the Somerton club in South Australia. See also Appendix C3.

2.0 Literature Review

The following section reviews literature that relates to volunteers and their motivations for participating in volunteer activity. There exist many definitions of, and many facets to, the term *volunteer* and this section aims to describe the factors characterising volunteers and volunteer activity. These factors are used to verify the sub-groups surveyed in the current study as legitimate volunteer organisations and individuals active in these organisations as volunteers.

Also presented are a range of views that have been expressed about the motivations that underpin volunteer behaviour and the dimensional structure of these motivations. Demographic characteristics most commonly associated with volunteers are discussed and the influence of these characteristics on motivations to volunteer explored. The Volunteer Functions Inventory is introduced as a tool for measuring motivations to volunteer and its application in previous studies reported.

2.1 Volunteers and Volunteering

Most definitions of the term volunteer are broad in nature and the use of the term varies considerably (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994). In reviewing more than 300 articles and reports, Cnaan and Amrofell (1994) found that volunteer was not even defined in the majority of cases and was generally assumed to be "a robust and agreed-upon phenomenon" (p. 336). They emphasise, however, that researchers should not consider volunteers as one homogeneous group and that without exact profiles of volunteers being reported in studies, results cannot be reliably generalised. Lyons, Wijkstrom and Clary (1998) also highlight the importance of having comparable data if meaningful and valid comparisons between different fields and types of volunteering are to be made. For example, statistics indicating the participation rate of individuals in volunteering will vary greatly depending on the definition of volunteers that is adopted (Chambré, 1984). A discussion of the definitions used for the purposes of large-scale surveys and by various organisations is included in section 2.1.5 of this review.

It is generally agreed that volunteers are those individuals who freely give their time and effort on an unpaid basis to help others in need (Clary et al., 1994; Fitch, 1991; Wilson & Musick, 1997). In addition, Smith (1981, cited in Wilson & Musick, 1997, p. 695) considers that volunteering may involve "the contribution of services, goods, or money . . . without substantial coercion". Cnaan and Amrofell (1994) contended that the term itself needed to be "redefined to reflect the great diversity that it contains" (p. 337). This was undertaken by Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996), who determined that there are four key dimensions of volunteering, each composed of an internal continuum ranging from a 'purist' view to a more 'broadly defined' view of what constitutes volunteer activity. An activity is *most* likely to be seen as volunteer work, and the individual(s) who carries out that activity as a volunteer, if

- it is freely chosen
- it receives no remuneration at all
- it is undertaken for a formal organisation
- it benefits people not known to the volunteer.

However, many volunteer activities do not correspond directly with this narrow definition. To accommodate definitions of the term volunteer that are broader than the purist view expressed above, Cnaan et al. (1996, p. 371) proposed a framework (see Table 1).

Table 1

Key Dimensions of the Term Volunteer

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

Source: Cnaan, R.A., Handy, F., & Wadsworth, M., Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 25(3), pp. 364-383, copyright 1996 by Sage Publications, Inc. Reprinted by Permission of Sage Publications, Inc.

This approach emphasises that the term volunteer is not uniformly defined and that the line between what is volunteering and what is not is blurred. Each element is further discussed in this section in order to verify the choice of volunteers for the present study.

2.1.1 Free Choice

Under a purist definition of what constitutes a volunteer, individuals freely commit their time to the volunteer activity. A broader definition would also consider as a volunteer a person who performs volunteer work under court order (e.g. community service) as part of his/her sentence (Cnaan et al., 1996). Of particular interest in the present study are volunteers in organisations such as Rotary and Surf Life, where one becomes a member of the association and, as a consequence, one's active, voluntary commitment is demanded. If a surf lifesaver wishes to compete in surf carnivals, he or she must complete a minimum number of hours (generally 16 hours per season) of 'volunteer' beach patrol (Bruce, 1992). Similarly, Rotary demands that members attend 60 percent of weekly meetings (Niven, 1994) in recognition that a club can only operate efficiently when its membership participates fully (Rotary International, 1968). Members are also required to participate adequately in the community-based activities undertaken by the club (Niven, 1994; *Rotary International: Responsibilities of membership*, 2003). Individuals not meeting either of these requirements may face expulsion from the club (E. Carr, personal communication, November 18, 2001). It could be argued that in meeting these stringent requirements, Surf Life and Rotary members are not freely choosing their level of volunteer involvement, rather it is being forced upon them. This element of 'coercion' is acceptable within the framework developed by Cnaan et al. (1996) [refer Table 1]. It could also be argued that individuals are unlikely to remain volunteers at Meals on Wheels or any other such organisation if not prepared to carry out the core requirements of the organisation.

2.1.2 Remuneration

Most accepted definitions of volunteerism deem that volunteers receive no monetary reward. The framework outlined by Cnaan et al. (1996) presents a broader perspective, accommodating situations where monetary reward is offered, but is substantially less than the market value of the service provided. Remuneration is not received by volunteers surveyed in the current study.

2.1.3 Structure

The literature indicates that a key factor in categorising and measuring volunteer behaviour is whether volunteer activity is carried out informally or under the auspices of a formal organisation.

2.1.3.1 Informal Volunteering

Informal volunteering is often in the form of 'helping out' friends, neighbours, and relatives living outside the household and is frequently motivated by a sense of obligation. Informal volunteer work is not carried out in the context of organisations, but rather is more private and not organised (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Although the literature widely recognises the value of informal volunteer work, such helping is often spontaneous or sporadic in nature. Most studies and large-scale population surveys (see section 2.1.5) focus on formal volunteering, which is more structured and planned in nature (Clary et al., 1998; Snyder, Clary, & Stukas, 2000). The framework (Table 1) presented by Cnaan et al. (1996) considers informal volunteer work to be within the bounds of legitimate volunteer activity.

2.1.3.2 Formal Volunteering

Formal volunteering occurs most often within the context of a formal organisation or a voluntary association (Chambré, 1984; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Such action demands significant effort on the part of the volunteers, who:

> often actively seek out opportunities to help others; may deliberate for considerable amounts of time about whether to volunteer, the extent to which they become involved, and the degree to which particular activities fit with their own personal needs. (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517)

Volunteers in formal organisations usually have to commit to helping on an ongoing basis, involvement that may incur substantial costs in terms of time, energy, and opportunity, and which in fact resembles a job (Chambré, 1984; Clary et al., 1998).

Being a member of a nonprofit organisation does not designate individuals as volunteers of that organisation, although there may be some overlap. Some organisations demand active participation from members, but others may simply require that membership dues are current (Lyons, 2001). Clearly, enjoying a game of tennis with fellow members of the club or enjoying the accreditation brought about by membership of a professional body is not the same as volunteering to assist with the running of the organisation. All respondents to this survey are considered actively-volunteering members of the organisations they represent: all Surf Life members surveyed patrol beaches; the HACC respondents deliver meals and the like; and the Rotarians surveyed commit themselves regularly and actively to the community-focused activities of their organisation (see sections 1.5.4 and 2.1.1).

2.1.4 Intended Beneficiaries

Beneficiaries of volunteer effort range from oneself to strangers (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994). Jenner (1980, p. 30) defines a volunteer as someone who works for a formal organisation that "has as its purpose service to someone or something other than is [sic] membership" (that is, strangers). This narrow approach would preclude from being viewed as volunteers the vast numbers of individuals who facilitate the existence and operation of myriad support groups, community groups, sporting groups, services for children and families, and the like on the basis that they and their families benefit from the effort. Broader definitions, however, also consider as valid beneficiaries friends, relatives and the volunteer personally, as may be the case in the scenarios presented above (Cnaan et al., 1996). Lyons (2001) observes that if voluntary activity were to be understood as providing assistance only to strangers, there would be a need for a more all-encompassing term to adequately describe the full range of activities that perhaps involve some element of self-interest, whether for a sporting club, self-help group, professional association, political group, or even for wider social causes, such as protection of the environment. The framework presented by Cnaan et al. (1996) proposes that it is appropriate to describe the range of beneficiaries discussed above under the term volunteer activity. Within this framework it is therefore appropriate to consider as legitimate volunteers Rotarians, who volunteer to benefit both strangers and, from a business networking aspect, themselves, and surf lifesavers, who assist the general public, in addition to being eligible to compete in sporting competition on the basis of their participation in volunteer beach patrols.

2.1.5 Current Definitions

Using formal and informal volunteerism as the major variable, it is interesting to note the varying definitions of volunteers adopted by bodies that conduct large-scale surveys of volunteer activity internationally. The Independent Sector's survey of Giving and Volunteering in the United States (1999) collected data on both formal and informal volunteering, as did the 1987 survey of volunteering in Canada conducted by Statistics Canada (Lyons et al., 1998). However, studies conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1965 and 1974 concentrated only on volunteer activity facilitated by formal organisations (Chambré, 1987), as did the Canadian National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating conducted in 1997 by Statistics Canada (Reed & Selbee, 2000).

In Australia, for its first *national* survey of voluntary work, the ABS deemed a volunteer to be "someone who willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group" (1996, p. 31). Similarly, the peak body Volunteering Australia stipulates that volunteering occurs within (nonprofit) organisations or groups that have a formal structure (Cordingly, 2000). Research in Australia has also tended to be inconsistent, with state surveys on volunteer participation (for example, in South Australia in 1988) including informal volunteering, rendering comparison between the state and national surveys difficult (Jamrozik, 1996).

2.1.6 Volunteers as Defined by the Present Study

The term volunteer is used to cover a wide range of varied situations and the literature shows that it is inconsistently applied in studies. It is therefore imperative that an exact profile of volunteers be reported in each study if comparisons and generalisations are to be drawn (Cnaan et al., 1996). The 'purist' (and narrowest) definition deems that a volunteer has exercised free will, for no remuneration, in a formal setting, to benefit strangers. In contrast, the framework presented by Cnaan et al. (1996) [Table 1] is more accommodating of the enormous diversity encompassed by the terms volunteer and volunteer activity and builds on the pure definition of volunteers. Different users, according to their needs, may apply the framework in different ways. Of importance is that the profile of volunteers being adopted is clearly reported so that valid comparisons can be drawn between studies (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994). For the purposes of the present study, the dimensions outlined in Table 2 apply to the sub-groups of volunteers.

Table 2

Key Dimensions of the Sample Volunteer Groups

Dimension	Rotary	HACC	Surf Life
Free will	Free will or relatively uncoerced	Free will	Free will or relatively uncoerced
Remuneration	Volunteers do not receive stipend or low pay	Volunteers do not receive stipend or low pay	Volunteers do not receive stipend or low pay
Structure	Formal volunteer setting	Formal volunteer setting	Formal volunteer setting
Intended beneficiaries	Beneficiaries likely to include all categories of this dimension, including self	Benefit/help others/strangers	Beneficiaries likely to include all categories of this dimension, including self

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2.2 Types of Organisations

Cnaan et al. (1994; 1996) report that formal volunteering may include work undertaken for nonprofit, government, or even private *for-profit* organisations.

Government volunteers include those who volunteer in public schools and hospitals, fire departments, libraries and prisons (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Lyons, 2001). The incidence of for-profit organisations managing and owning services traditionally run by nonprofit and government bodies is increasing. These include services that often attract volunteers, such as nursing homes, hospitals and schools (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Cordingly, 2000).

Volunteering Australia considers volunteering to be restricted to the nonprofit sector (Cordingly, 2000). It views nonprofit organisations as distinct from both the state and for-profit sectors and observes that they may variously be known as "third sector, non-profit, charitable, benevolent, voluntary, or non-government organisations" (Cordingly, 2000, p. 74). Lyons (2001) also excludes public and business sectors from his definition of the *third sector*. Third sector organisations do not seek to make a profit for its members (Cordingly, 2000), nor can they distribute a profit or surplus assets when they are wound up (Lyons, 2001), characteristics that contrast with profit-making organisations that are guided by the imperative of making money. Even though government organisations are expressly excluded from definitions of nonprofit organisations, many can be viewed in a similar manner in relation to their profit orientation. The amount of control held by nonprofit organisations is viewed as a key point of difference. They are independent of the public sector (government) in that they are "not directed or controlled by ministers or government officials" (Lyons, 2001, p. 6), but rather by private individuals. It is possible, therefore, for these third sector/nonprofit organisations to receive much, even all, of their funding from government while remaining independent (Lyons, 2001).

For the purposes of the current study, Rotary and Surf Life may be considered true third sector, or nonprofit, organisations. Rotary raises its own funding, and although individual surf lifesaving clubs obtain funding from a number of sources, including local government, they are part of a single national [independent] nonprofit organisation (Lyons, 2001). HACC operates variously. In Western Australia, its services fall in most instances under the banner of the government (public) sector, as they are conducted under the auspices of local government, which, in addition to providing resources such as funding, accommodation, and staff, ultimately exerts control over the operation of the service. This is the case for the Meals on Wheels program operated by the City of Subiaco, and the HACC program operated by City of Stirling. There is no doubt, however, that the programs are run to provide a necessary service, not with a view to making a profit. This contrasts with some social welfare services, including some branches of Meals on Wheels, which are clearly operated by for-profit organisations (Cordingly, 2000). Survey responses were also collected from The League of Help for the Elderly Inc. (West Perth), an autonomous nonprofit organisation that operates a Meals on Wheels program with funding support from local government and HACC.

In the current study, all three groups surveyed are referred to as nonprofit organisations.

2.3 *Fields of Volunteer Activities*

Researchers have used a range of subtly different classifications to specify the field of volunteer activity that respondents are involved in, making comparisons across similar activity areas difficult (Lyons et al., 1998). Volunteer activity areas typically include health, education, religious organisations and the environment. Areas of activity are relevant, as different fields of volunteerism reflect different combinations and strengths of motivational factors (Snyder et al., 2000).

For the purposes of the present study, the sub-groups surveyed are considered to be associated with the following fields of volunteer activity:

2.3.1 Emergency Services

The primary focus of emergency services is search and rescue (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996). Surf Life Saving, with its aims of prevention, recognition and rescue (Bruce, 1992), is considered an emergency service (Barwick & Barwick, 2001; Lyons, 2001).

2.3.2 Welfare/Community

The ABS (1996) determined that organisations such as Rotary operate in the field of welfare/community, providing human and social services for the wider social benefit of the general community, even though they may not provide direct services. Other organisations in this category, such as Meals on Wheels, often provide "material assistance, personal care and advice" (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996, p. 30). Lyons (2001) identifies categories that place HACC and Rotary in the separate fields of community services and recreation respectively.

2.3.2.1 Community Services

The goals of HACC are encompassed in Lyons' observation (2001) that the many different types of services that fall under the banner of community services all have in common a desire to:

> provide support, care, encouragement and advice for people in a way that is primarily determined by them, involves some enduring pattern of interaction and is designed to remove the need for support or to enable people to achieve maximum feasible independence or autonomy in their home and community. (p. 33)

2.3.2.2 Recreation

Lyons (2001) recognises that community service clubs, such as Rotary, Lions and Apex, tend to "mix self-interest and public-interest activities to varying degrees" (p. 68), but have as a central tenet regular meetings of club members for the purpose of socialising, and hence represent a form of recreation. Although Rotary provides its selected members opportunities for socialising, networking and business advantage, these elements do not detract from the activities undertaken by members of this 'sociability' club for the benefit of the wider social community. These include volunteering time and expertise, mediating between the business sector and third sector community organisations, raising funds, raising public awareness of issues and the like (Lyons, 2001).

2.3.3 Summary

For the purposes of the present study, the volunteer groups have been purposefully selected. Surf Life is considered an emergency service, HACC a community service and Rotary as belonging to the volunteer field of recreation. These categorisations are relevant in determining whether different combinations of motives are associated with volunteerism in different activity areas.

2.4 *Motivations, Demographics and Volunteerism*

2.4.1 Motivation

Motivation is the driving force behind the actions and behaviours of every individual. An unfulfilled need results in tension, and individuals are impelled to behave in such a way that those needs will be satisfied, thus relieving the stress they feel (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson, & Kanuk, 1997). The motivation process is outlined in Figure 1.

Motivational researchers attempt to identify the factors that can trigger motivation (Schiffman et al., 1997). Volunteer research seeks to identify and understand the forces—the psychological needs, goals and motives—that encourage people to become active volunteers (Clary et al., 1996).

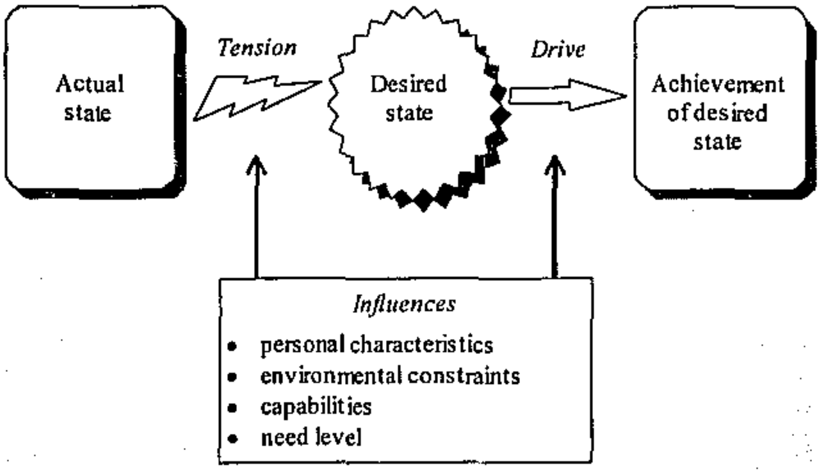
Actual state
Tension
Desired state
Drive
Achievement of desired state
Influences
personal characteristics
environmental constraints
capabilities
need level

Figure 1. The motivation process

(Source: Craig-Lees, Joy, & Browne, 1995, p. 154)

Motivations to volunteer are discussed in section 2.4.2, and demographic characteristics as an influencing factor are discussed in sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.4.

2.4.2 Motivations to Volunteer

The literature agrees that people volunteer for a variety of reasons that by their very nature are variable and complex (Chapman & Morley, 1999; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Gillespie & King, 1985; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). Some individuals are motivated to volunteer by one key function; for other individuals multiple functions or goals may coexist and jointly impel them to volunteer (Clary et al., 1992; Jenner, 1980). The salient functions that motivate volunteer action are different for different volunteers (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

Understanding the motives that stimulate and maintain volunteer action facilitates more effective communication with potential groups. Hence, much research has been devoted to determining what triggers volunteer action. It is accepted that although volunteers may not be paid, they do gain intangible rewards that serve a similar function to pay and other tangible rewards in profit-making firms (Gidron, 1978; Harrison, 1995; Lauffer & Gorodesky, 1977, cited in Kingsley & Tomlins, 1992). There have, however, been many views expressed about "the structure and dimensionality of [the] motivational constructs" (Harrison, 1995, p. 372).

The most commonly held belief is that altruistic motives lead people to volunteer. Early studies by Herzberg (1966, cited in Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) and Sills (1957, cited in Gidron, 1978) suggested that altruism, or a concern for the welfare of others, was not the sole motivating factor, but that self-serving (egoistic) motives also played a role in motivating volunteer behaviour. Various two-factor models have since been proposed, some discussing the role of intrinsic rewards (such as volunteering for the pleasure of it or to contribute to a better community) and extrinsic motives (such as volunteering to acquire skills to assist future employment) in prompting volunteer behaviour (Kidd, 1977, cited in Black & DiNitto, 1994; Herzberg, 1966, cited in Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Gidron, 1978). Others contend that people are encouraged to volunteer either by egoistic or altruistic motives (Horton-Smith, 1981, cited in Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Fitch, 1987; Frisch

& Gerrard, 1981). Further research suggests that volunteers' motivations cannot be neatly classified as either altruistic or egoistic, but that volunteers more typically possess both types of motives, so that at the same time they are helping both out of concern for the self and out of concern for the welfare of others (Clary & Orenstein, 1991; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Latting, 1990; Snyder, 1993).

Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989) proposed three key reasons for individuals volunteering, adding social reasons (that is, to gain social interaction) to the previous two-category classification of altruistic and egoistic (labelled *material* reasons by Morrow-Howell and Mui, 1989). Their study found, however, that material gain was not a significant motivating factor among their sample of older (average age 65 years) volunteers.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) supported the existence of a unidimensional model after finding that 28 motives to volunteer, when subjected to factor analysis, tended to group on one factor. These findings suggest that volunteers are both altruistic and egoistic, but rather than differentiating between types of motives, "volunteers act...from a combination of motives that can be described overall as a 'rewarding experience'" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 281).

To understand and explain why people engage in volunteerism, Clary and Snyder (1991) built on the functional analysis first theorised by Katz (1960) and Smith, Bruner and White (1956, cited in Snyder et al., 2000). When applied to volunteerism, the functional theory suggests that volunteer activity is influenced by multiple motives or functions. Whereas Katz (1960) and Smith et al. (1956) identified four functions served by an individual's attitudes or behaviour, Clary et al. (1992) developed a more complex model, identifying six primary functions as the motivational foundations underpinning volunteer behaviour. These six broad volunteer motivations represent motivations of generic relevance to volunteerism (Snyder et al., 2000) and together comprise the

Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI, developed by Clary and others, is an instrument that measures a volunteer's motivations and "yields a motivational profile for an individual volunteer or potential volunteer" (Clary et al., 1992, p. 346). It was developed in response to the lack of measures available to identify the multiple functions or goals that individuals seek to satisfy through their attitudes, intentions, and behaviours (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Clary et al., 1994), in the process assisting research and application based on the functional approach. The six primary functions identified as relevant to volunteering are outlined in Table 3. The functional analysis of volunteerism proposed by Clary et al. (1992) recognises that different volunteers are motivated to act by different functions (goals), and each function may hold more or less importance for one individual as compared to another. Individuals may be seeking to satisfy more than one goal through their volunteerism, and although volunteers may be engaged in similar volunteer activities, they do so to satisfy very different needs. Clary and Snyder (1991) note that a function may not necessarily be purely altruistic or purely egoistic in nature, but in fact may consist of a mixture of the two.

The VFI instrument has been employed in a number of recent studies (refer section 2.5 and Table 5). The validity of the VFI is discussed further in section 4.3.

Table 3

Six Primary Functions Served by Volunteer Service

Motivation	Description
Values motive	Acting on the belief of the importance of helping others (Chapman & Morley, 1999). Values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others (Clary et al., 1998).
Understanding motive	"Involves the opportunity for volunteerism to permit new learning experiences [learning for the sake of learning] and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills, and abilities that might otherwise go unpracticed" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). Volunteering may satisfy "the desire to understand the people whom one serves, the organisation for which one volunteers, or oneself" (Clary et al., 1992, p. 337).
Career motive	Satisfied when "volunteer behavior enhances career opportunities or skills, or allows one to develop career contacts" (Chapman & Morley, 1999, p. 21). Volunteerism may become "part of an attempt to strategically move oneself along in life" (Snyder et al., 2000, p. 371).
Social motive	Concerns relationships with others. Volunteering may offer opportunities to be with one's friends, to fit in with one's existing social group, expand one's social circle or to engage in an activity viewed favourably by important others [those who are valued or held in high esteem]. (Chapman & Morley, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1992; Snyder et al., 2000).
Esteem/ enhancement motive	Service may provide "an opportunity for one to feel good [or better] about himself or herself or to feel needed or important as a result of engaging in service" (Chapman & Morley, 1999, p. 21). This function involves "a motivational process that centers on the ego's growth and development and involves positive strivings of the ego" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518).
Protective motive	Motivations that "center on protecting the ego from negative features of the self" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). Volunteering may provide "relief or escape from negative feelings about one's self and [serves] a protective function" (Clary et al., 1992, p. 338). One may seek to relieve through volunteering unpleasant feelings such as loneliness and guilt over being more fortunate than others (Clary et al., 1992).

The above discussion highlights the range of views held by researchers about the constructs of motivations to volunteer. Although Cnaan and Goldberg (1991) consider that there is sufficient overlap in the motives for volunteering for them to be viewed as a unidimensional phenomenon, Clary et al. (1992) justify the distinction of six categories (functions) of motivations, which, although related, are quite discrete. Okun, Barr and Herzog (1998) sought to evaluate various measurement models of motivations to volunteer using a sample of volunteers aged 50 and over. The VFI and its six-factor model of motivation to volunteer were found to be superior to either a single motivational dimension or a two-factor solution and also generalised well across different samples (Okun et al., 1998). The wide acceptance of this six-dimensional model in a relatively short timeframe is reflected by the number of studies of motivations to volunteer that have employed the VFI since its inception (see section 2.5). The current study has adopted the VFI as a measurement tool.

2.4.3 Demographic Characteristics and Volunteering

Associations have been seen between volunteer participation and demographic factors such as age, gender, income, level of education, and participation in the labour force. Volunteers are generally more likely to be female and employed, and the incidence of volunteering tends to increase with educational achievement and income (Chambré, 1984, 1987; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991; Lyons & Hocking, 2000; Reed & Selbee, 2000; L. Smith, 1975; Warburton & Mutch, 2000). Income, education, and occupation combine to form an individual's socioeconomic profile, with volunteers most often drawn from the higher socioeconomic status groups (Warburton, Le Brocque, & Rosenman, 1998). Volunteers are more likely to be married than not, and individuals aged between 35-44 display the highest rate of volunteer participation. In this scenario, individuals are likely to be involved in their children's school and leisure activities and hence may have many volunteer opportunities readily available to them (Chambré, 1987; Hayghe, 1991).

Pusey (2000) has challenged such generalisations, suggesting that the propensity to volunteer is independent of gender, age and other demographic characteristics.

Table 4 presents the demographic characteristics reported by respondents to a number of surveys.

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics of Volunteers: Results of Other Studies

Author	Pub-. lished	Survey/data	Sample size	Most frequent response to various demographic variables					
				Gender	Age	Life stage	Work status	Education/ profession	Income
Independent Sector	1999	Giving and Volunteering in the US 1999 *includes informal volunteering	2,553 people	62% of women 49% of men	35-44 years			College graduates	The higher the income, the more likely to volunteer
Australian Bureau of Statistics	1996	June 1995 Voluntary Work Australia	54,500 people	21% of women 17% of men	35-44 years	Married with dependants	Full- or part-time employed	Professionals and managers	
Omoto & Snyder	1995	AIDS Volunteers	116 AIDS volunteers	36% female 63% male	36.4 years (median age)	Involved in an exclusive relationship	Full-time employed	College graduates	
Hayghe	1991	May 1989 Current Population Survey (USA)	150,000 people	22% of women 19% of men	35-44 years	Married with dependants	Full- or part-time employed	College graduates	The higher the income, the more likely to volunteer
Chambré	1984	Americans Volunteer – 1974 survey [part of the April 1974 Current Population Survey (USA)]	Subset of 4,339 from total sample of 23,830 people	Women volunteer more frequently than men at all stages of life cycle		Married	In the labour force	Better educated (high school graduate or further schooling)	The higher the income, the more likely to volunteer

2.4.4 Demographic Characteristics and Motivations to Volunteer

Individuals with different demographic characteristics generally give the same reasons for volunteering. Differences are observed, however, in the order of importance of particular motivations and particularly in the amount (intensity) of importance placed by different groups on these motivations (Clary et al., 1996; Gillespie & King, 1985).

Older individuals tend to be motivated to volunteer by altruism to a greater extent than are younger people (Frisch & Gerrard, 1981; Gillespie & King, 1985). Older volunteers are more likely to seek social recognition from their volunteer activities than are younger volunteers, and are also more likely to use volunteerism as an avenue of social interaction (Gidron, 1978).

Younger people more frequently have employment related motives (skills training and experience) for volunteering than do older people (Clary et al., 1996; Gidron, 1978; Gillespie & King, 1985; Zakour, 1994). Men are more likely to use volunteerism as an avenue to acquire skills and contacts to assist employment opportunities and advancement than are women (Gillespie & King, 1985; Harrison, 1995; Zakour, 1994), although volunteering may be a valuable avenue for some women to acquire and hone skills that will assist them to enter or return to employment (Gidron, 1978; Jenner, 1980).

Gillespie and King (1985) note a relationship between the motives of volunteers and marital status. For example, older people who are single or widowed may show strong altruistic motives because they have more free time, whereas the motivations to volunteer of younger respondents are more likely to reflect their family and career responsibilities. This suggests that age, and in turn social and economic circumstances, may influence the relationship between the marital status of volunteers and their reasons for volunteering (Gillespie & King, 1985).

Respondents at higher income levels place less importance on Career and Protective motives compared with lower income earners (Clary et al., 1996).

Female respondents tend to assign more importance to all motivations than do males, as is reflected by the common observation that women are more likely than men to volunteer (Chapman & Morley, 1999; Clary et al., 1996). This could also be a factor of how females respond to the data collection method (Ryan, Henley, & Soutar, 1998).

Despite an apparent relationship between demographic variables and motivations to volunteer, it is unwise to expect that broad generalisations will be applicable to particular individuals or audiences or that expectations about the likely motivations of an audience will be accurate (Clary et al., 1992). As in most situations, demographics provide an interesting profile of volunteers, but alone are not an adequate means of explaining volunteer behaviour. Underlying motivations must be established in order to understand the trigger that encourages volunteers to act.

2.5 Other Studies Using the Volunteer Functions Inventory

A number of previous studies on the motivations to volunteer have been limited by small samples [less than 100 respondents] (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Marx, 1999). Table 5 outlines several studies that have employed the VFI as a tool for measuring motivations to volunteer. Of the few studies that have surveyed large sample groups, two of these were collecting data either for the purpose of developing the VFI instrument (Clary et al., 1998), or for evaluating the model (Okun et al., 1998). Studies by Chapman and Morley (1999), Switzer, Switzer, Stukas and Baker (1999), Ferrari et al. (1999) and Lucas and Williams (2000) share the greatest similarities with the present study in that they sought to assess the motivations to volunteer of particular sample groups. However, all sample groups, with the exception of Lucas and Williams (2000), contained less than 100 respondents and relied largely on responses from student populations. The external validity of studies can be weakened where the focus is limited to a single program, or one group of people, such as older volunteers or college students (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Marx, 1999). The current study has endeavoured to address these issues by surveying over 100 respondents from each of three groups that represent different fields of volunteer activity, and by profiling the total sample and then each sub-group individually.

In developing the VFI inventory, Clary et al. (1998) surveyed 467 adult, active volunteers from five organisations engaged in a wide range of volunteer activities in the Unites States of America. The results of the survey were determined for the total sample only and not for the individual organisations. Results of a second sample, composed of 535 university students, were used for the purpose of cross-validation of the VFI. Coefficients of congruence were calculated for two sub-groups within the student sample—those with and those without prior volunteer experience—resulting in factor structures that suggested that volunteer experience does not impact on motivational concerns (Clary et al., 1998). The VFI instrument has since been used as a tool in several research studies in the United States of America and, to a limited extent, Australia.

Schrock (1998) employed the VFI to determine the reasons for volunteering held by 282 current and former Missouri Master Gardener volunteers and to determine whether an individual's demographic profile was a sound predictor of motivations for volunteering.

Okun et al. (1998) surveyed two samples of older (aged 50 years and over), active volunteers who carry out a range of activities in heterogeneous settings in the United States. The samples consisted of 409 volunteers from a health care facility and 372 volunteers from a Retired and Senior Volunteer Program. The focus of the study was, however, less on comparisons between the two sample groups, and rather more on testing four measurement models of motivation. Okun et al. (1998) did examine separately for each sample the correlations of the VFI scales with the demographic variables because the groups differed significantly on some demographic characteristics. They determined that there was no support for either the unidimensional model proposed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) [discussed in section 2.4.2], or two-factor models that maintain people are motivated by either altruistic or egoistic motives. Qualified support was observed for the multifactor model (six-factor) proposed by Clary et al. (1992) that suggests that "older adults are motivated by multiple, distinct motives" (Okun et al., 1998, p. 613).

A study by Switzer et al. (1999) focused on the motivations of medical students to participate in a volunteer health care program in the United States. The study surveyed 40 medical students and these results were compared with the results of the study by Clary et al. (1998) outlined above. It was determined that medical students' motivations to participate were higher in all six motive categories than the motivations of active adult volunteers and university students as reported by Clary et al. (1998).

Chapman and Morley (1999) surveyed a group of 85 college students in the United States to determine motivations to volunteer in a collegiate population and to establish whether motives changed after participating in service. These college students represented two groups: those enrolled in service-learning courses ($n = 58$) and those in nonservice-learning courses ($n = 27$). Cursory comparison only of the motives of each group was conducted, including *t* tests to determine differences in the relative importance of motives between the two groups. Chapman and Morley (1999) cautioned against generalising results of the study to student populations.

Ferrari et al. (1999) assessed in three studies the motivations for volunteering of young adults involved in several volunteer settings and activities in the United States. They also sought to determine whether these motives changed over time from selfish to more selfless reasons. The generalisability of the results is limited by the small number of participants in each study (36, 21 and 42 participants respectively). Further, two of the studies were restricted to student samples.

Limited published research has been found that has employed the VFI as a tool to measure motivations to volunteer in an Australian context. Two recent Australian studies have employed modified versions of the VFI, but results were drawn from relatively small samples. Lucas and Williams (2000) enquired into the motivations of 51 volunteers of the NSW Police Service's Volunteers in Policing (VIP) program. A modified version of the VFI formed part of the study's design, together with 30 items specific to the VIP program. (Lucas & Williams, 2000). Battaglia and Metzer (2000) sought to determine the needs of retired adults as volunteers. They surveyed 157 volunteers from nine community organisations in South Australia, incorporating items adapted from the VFI into their survey instrument.

The VFI has consistently proved itself as a reliable measure of motivations for volunteer work (see section 4.3) and one that is applicable to volunteers engaged in a diverse range of activities (Clary et al., 1998). Since its development, the VFI has become a widely used measure of motivations to volunteer, albeit often with studies using relatively small sample sizes and samples composed of college students. Table 5 presents a summary of previous studies that have employed the VFI.

Table 5

Use of Volunteer Functions Inventory as a Survey Instrument in Other Studies

Author(s)	Year	Article/thesis	Topic	Sample size	How survey instrument implemented	Relevant analyses employed
Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen & Miene	1998	Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach	Development of an inventory of volunteers' motivations (VFI)	1. 467 active, adult volunteers from 5 organisations in USA 2. 535 university students both with and without volunteer experience	1. VFI administered by each organisation's director of volunteer services. 2. VFI administered to students in mass testing sessions.	• Descriptive analysis • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses to show theoretical motivations distinct and evident in responses of volunteers, including: • principal components analysis which suggested six factors underlying responses to the VFI, and • principal-axis factor analysis with oblique rotation • Various indexes of goodness of fit suggest six-factor oblique model fits the data well and preferred to five- or seven-factor solution • Cronbach's alpha coefficient to assess internal consistency of each VFI scale • Correlations computed among scales • Temporal stability of VFI tested

Table 5 (cont.)

Use of Volunteer Functions Inventory as a Survey Instrument in Other Studies

Author(s)	Year	Article/thesis	Topic	Sample size	How survey instrument implemented	Relevant analyses employed
Schrock	1998	A functional approach to understanding and assessing the motivation and retention of University Extension Master Gardener Volunteers	Assessing reasons for volunteering	282 current and former Missouri Master Gardeners (USA)	VFI distributed via mailout, with follow-up mailout to non-respondents.	• Descriptive analysis • Correlations and chi-square analyses • Principal factor analysis to confirm all six components present • Principal component analysis and oblique/orthogonal rotations • Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test reliability of the six components of VFI • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Mean separations by Duncan's multiple range test
Okun, Barr & Herzog	1998	Motivation to volunteer by older adults: A test of competing measurement models	Motivations to volunteer assessed to allow evaluation of four measurement models	1. 409 volunteers from a health care facility (in USA) 2. 372 volunteers "matched" with organisations that need volunteers (in USA)	VFI distributed via mailout. No follow up due anonymity guaranteed.	• Descriptive analysis • Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to establish generalisability of findings in respect to the models being tested • Correlational analyses to supplement CFAs and examine assoc. between motives and demographics • Chi-square tests to determine demographic differences between the two samples • Correlations between motive factors • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Coefficient alphas determined for volunteer motivation scales (internal consistency)

Table 5 (cont.)

Use of Volunteer Functions Inventory as a Survey Instrument in Other Studies

Author(s)	Year	Article/thesis	Topic	Sample size	How survey instrument implemented	Relevant analyses employed
Switzer, Switzer, Stukas & Baker	1999	Medical student motivations to volunteer: Gender differences and comparisons to other volunteers	Assessing motives of medical students to participate in a volunteer health care program	40 medical students in USA	VFI administered to students by the coordinator of the Maternal Care Program.	• Descriptive analysis • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Coefficient alphas • Comparison of average VFI scores between sample and other groups • t tests to determine gender differences in importance of motives within sample
Chapman & Morley	1999	Collegiate service-learning: Motives underlying volunteerism and satisfaction with volunteer service	Assessing volunteer motives among college students and whether levels of motives changed after participation in service	85 college students (58 enrolled in service-learning courses, 27 in nonservice-learning students, in USA)	VFI questionnaire data obtained at beginning and end of each of two consecutive semesters. Distributed during scheduled classes with a return envelope provided.	• Descriptive analysis • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Cronbach's alpha coefficient • t tests to determine gender differences in importance of motives • t tests to determine differences in importance of motives between service and nonservice-learning groups

Table 5 (cont.)

Use of Volunteer Functions Inventory as a Survey Instrument in Other Studies

Author(s)	Year	Article/thesis	Topic	Sample size	How survey instrument implemented	Relevant analyses employed
Ferrari, Dobis, Kardaras, Michna & Wagner	1999	Community volunteerism among college students and professional psychologists: Does taking them to the streets make-a-difference?	Assessing motives of community service volunteers	Study 1: 36 students Study 2: 21 students Study 3: 42 graduate psychologists All based in USA	Studies 1 & 2: VFI administered to students by female experimenter. Students asked to again complete VFI after 8 weeks, and 12 weeks respectively. Study 3: Surveys mailed to graduates and returned by mail to researchers.	• Descriptive analysis • Means to determine importance of the six functions of VFI • Coefficient alphas to test reliability of data • t tests to compare volunteer and mandatory groups • t tests to compare changes in reported motives from initial VFI testing to follow-up VFI.
Lucas & Williams	2000	Motivation as a function of volunteer retention	Examination of whether motivations for volunteering, as well as other site-specific factors, might predict volunteers' level of satisfaction with the Volunteers in Policing (VIP) program and impact on turnover of volunteers.	51 VIP members (NSW, Australia)	Survey mailed to VIP members in northern NSW. Response rate of 52% obtained.	• Descriptive analysis • Reliability of VFI scales tested • Other tests to determine volunteer satisfaction.

Table 5 (cont.)

Use of Volunteer Functions Inventory as a Survey Instrument in Other Studies

Author(s)	Year	Article/thesis	Topic	Sample size	How survey instrument implemented	Relevant analyses employed
Battaglia & Metzer	2000	Older adults and volunteering: A symbiotic association	Investigating the needs of retired adults in terms of volunteer service	157 volunteers from nine Adelaide (Australia) community organisations, consisting of 82 retired adults >55yrs and 75 younger volunteers who had a paid work role	Not stipulated.	• Descriptive analysis • *t* tests to determine differences between retired adult volunteers and younger volunteers still working • Multiple regression analysis to identify factors that predicted retired adults' satisfaction with their volunteer work

2.6 Summary

The preceding literature review has determined that the members of Rotary, HACC and Surf Life surveyed for the present study are legitimate volunteers. Each organisation represents a different field of volunteer activity, with Surf Life considered an emergency service, HACC a community service and Rotary a recreational pursuit. Surf Life and Rotary are nonprofit organisations, whereas HACC (Meals on Wheels) is most often coordinated, in Western Australia, by the public (local government) sector. Nevertheless, it is undeniably reliant on volunteer input and has a nonprofit orientation.

It has been identified that people become volunteers for many reasons, both altruistic and egoistic, and that volunteering may satisfy more than one motivation at any one time. The current study follows a multi-factor model developed by Clary et al. (1992) that identifies six major functions underpinning volunteer service: Values, Understanding, Career, Social, Esteem/Enhancement, and Protective motives. The Volunteers Function Inventory (VFI) is a tool that allows the motivational profile of individual volunteers to be measured. There is evidence that volunteer participation may be influenced by demographic variables and a demographic profile of the 'typical' volunteer has been developed by considering the results of previous volunteer studies. Further, there is evidence that motivations for volunteering and the relative importance of those motivations are influenced by demographic variables.

The literature review has determined that previous studies of motivations to volunteer have largely surveyed samples consisting of less than 100 respondents, with a focus on one group of volunteers. This current study seeks to extend the analysis of the VFI scale by obtaining samples of over 100 respondents from each of the three groups that represent different fields of volunteer service. As far as possible, it has been determined that the volunteer groups of HACC, Surf Life and Rotary have not been the focus of similar previous studies and indeed, with indications that all three associations face a continuous and ever-increasing problem of attracting sufficient numbers of volunteers, such research is warranted from both a theoretical and practical perspective. Finally, limited research is available in the public arena on the nature of volunteers in Australia and their motivations to commit themselves to volunteer activity.

The following section outlines the conceptual framework adopted by the present research in order to explain why people volunteer.

3.0 Theoretical Framework

This section focuses on the conceptual frameworks that have been presented to explain what motivates people, despite the associated costs and obstacles, to engage in volunteerism. Motivation in general has previously been discussed in the Literature Review (section 2.4.1).

Blau's *social exchange theory* (1964) has been used to explain aspects of volunteer behaviour that has been motivated by the returns such behaviour is expected to bring (Black & DiNitto, 1994; Fitch, 1987; Gidron, 1978). Warburton, Terry, Rosenman and Shapiro (2001) support the use of the *theory of planned behavior* (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) as a framework for volunteer behaviour. Adapted from the theory of reasoned action, the *theory of planned behavior* proposes that "behaviour and intentions are influenced by attitudes, norms and beliefs specific to particular groups of people" (Kashima & Gallois, 1993, p. 225; Warburton et al., 2001). *Activity theory* (Havighurst, Neugarten and Tobin, 1968, cited in Chambré, 1984) was used by Chambré (1984) to test whether volunteering might be used as a substitute for the loss or lack of significant roles (such as those related to work, family and friends) in old age. Chambré (1984) found that this theory did not adequately explain the level of volunteer activity among the elderly.

The functional theory of motivation has been presented as a means of addressing the personal and social motivational foundations of volunteerism. Snyder (1993) supports functional analyses in relation to volunteerism because they explicitly recognise "the motivational and purposive agendas that guide and direct human thoughts, feeling, and actions" (p. 262) and hence have great value in addressing the question of why people volunteer. He views functional analyses as having "the potential to advance theory and research ... in personality and social psychology" (Snyder, 1993, p. 262). One of the earliest and most prominent functional theorists was Katz (1960), who sought to understand how an individual's attitudes—encompassing opinions, beliefs and behaviours—can serve to satisfy functions such as one's psychological and social needs, goals and motives. Katz (1960) recognised the existence of multiple motivational forces and identified four major functions that attitudes may serve for the individual: the adjustive function, the ego-defensive function, the value-expressive function, and the knowledge function. Central to functionalist theorising is the observation that the same attitudes may serve different motivations (functions) for different people; these attitudes are more likely to be influenced, and behaviour changed, by strategies that address "the relevant motivational basis of the attitude" (Katz, 1960, p. 203).

In relation to volunteerism, Clary et al. (1994) consider that:

> the functional approach offers a conceptual framework for understanding the motivational foundations of peoples' attitudes toward volunteerism, their intentions to become involved or not become involved in volunteer activities, and their actual participation or lack of participation in volunteer service. (p. 1142)

Functional theory as applied to volunteer activity suggests that the key to motivating individual and collective action is found in the important social and psychological goals (functions) that action (volunteering) seeks to satisfy. It recognises that each function may hold more or less importance for one individual as compared to another. Individuals may be seeking to satisfy more than one goal through their volunteerism, and although volunteers may be engaged in similar volunteer activities, they do so to satisfy very different needs (Clary et al., 1992; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Snyder, 1993).

The functional approach also suggests that recruitment of volunteers is assisted when prospective volunteers are targeted by persuasive messages that focus on the motivations to volunteer salient to those individuals/groups. It holds, too, that satisfaction and, in turn, retention of volunteers will reflect the extent to which the particular motivations/needs underlying their volunteerism are identified and continually met by the organisation (Clary et al., 1992; Snyder, 1993).

In response to these observations, Clary et al. (1992) developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), a tool that allows volunteer administrators to quickly and efficiently gauge the personal motivations served by a individual's volunteer behaviour (see sections 2.4.2 and 4.3). This instrument builds on the four primary functions outlined by Katz (1960) and identifies six key categories of motivations that may be satisfied by volunteer activity.

The present study has adopted a functional approach to explain the complex issue of why people engage in volunteerism. Clary and Snyder (1991) consider that "analyzing volunteer work in terms of the functions it serves ... encourages [one] to consider the wide range of personal and social motivations that promote this form of helping behaviour" (p. 126). The following section outlines how the functional approach has been applied in the current study to determine the nature of motivations served by the volunteer behaviour of the chosen sample.

4.0 Research Methods

This section outlines the research methodology applied in the present study. The sample selection process and research design are described, and the background to the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) and its administration discussed. This section also outlines the statistical analyses applied to the data collected.

4.1 Sampling

A nonprobability convenience sample selection process was adopted for the present study.

Surveys were collected from a total of 361 active volunteers, with respondents drawn from the sub-groups of Rotary (*n* = 131), HACC (*n* = 101), and Surf Life (*n* = 129). Each of these sub-groups relies heavily on the services of volunteers to achieve its goals. The three sample groups were purposefully selected to provide diversity in terms of the fields of volunteer activity represented, the activities carried out, the demographic composition of the sub-groups, and the likely motivations to volunteer held by each group. An overview of each of these groups is provided in section 1.5.4 and Appendix C.

4.2 Design

The research design was descriptive in nature, incorporating a quantitative survey methodology. This involved a self-administered questionnaire (see section 4.3). A descriptive research design was chosen as the research aimed to describe aspects of the respondents. The objective of the research was to better understand the reasons underpinning the volunteer behaviour. In an effort to better forecast, explain and understand this phenomenon, a quantitative study was considered most appropriate (Creswell, 1994). In addition, a relatively large sample enabled more sophisticated analysis of the interrelationships between a relatively large number of independent variables (Churchill, 1995).

4.3 Instrument

A self-administered questionnaire survey was used to gather information from volunteers in each sub-group (see Appendix A). The questionnaire introduction outlined the purpose of the study; the time required to complete the questionnaire; and contact details for researcher and supervisor. To further encourage participation an egoistic appeal was made to the respondents, with acknowledgement of the value of volunteer effort and emphasis on the importance of their responses to the success of the study (Tyagi, 1989). Respondents were guaranteed anonymity to both encourage participation and minimise social desirability bias in completing the VFI.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Simple, concise instructions guided respondents in answering the questions in each section. Section A of the questionnaire gathered demographic data from respondents to provide background information. These criteria were determined in consultation with other research studies (see sections 2.4.3 and 2.5) to facilitate comparison of end results. They included gender, age, marital status, presence of school-aged children in the household, employment status, education and annual household income.

Section B incorporated the VFI instrument developed by Clary and colleagues (1991, 1992). The VFI was developed in response to an identified need for an instrument capable of measuring the multiple motivations that encourage people to volunteer, and in particular for an instrument that could be generically applied to volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Clary et al., 1994). The resultant VFI is considered a psychometrically sound measure of people's motivations for actively participating in volunteer work (Clary et al., 1992; Snyder et al., 2000).

The VFI consists of 30 reasons that one might have for volunteering. To make the task of answering all 30 items seem less intimidating to respondents, five items at a time were grouped together and descriptions of the scale values repeated. Respondents rated the importance of each reason for volunteering on a seven-point scale, with 1 indicating *not at all important* and 7 indicating *extremely important* (Clary et al., 1992). The 30 items represent six motivation subscales or functions that can be satisfied by volunteering—Values, Understanding, Career, Social, Esteem/Enhancement and Protective motives (see Table 3, section 2.4.2)—with each motivation assessed by five items from the VFI. Confirmation of the correct implementation of the VFI for the current study was received from Professor Mark Snyder, one of the key developers of the instrument (M. Snyder, personal communication, April 15, 2000).

When tested across diverse samples in its development stage, the VFI consistently presented a six-factor structure. The samples included current active volunteers, diverse both demographically and in the volunteer activities in which they were engaged (Clary et al., 1998); nonvolunteers (Clary et al., 1998); and volunteers aged 50 or over (Okun et al., 1998). Items representing the six VFI scales were included in a national survey of American adults' giving and volunteering, with the items again loading on the appropriate scales (Clary et al., 1996). Subsequent studies employing the VFI (see section 2.5) have also replicated the six-factor solution.

Further, Clary et al. (1996) state:

> the Volunteer Functions Inventory . . . possesses desirable psychometric qualities. . . . Research with several samples has revealed that each of the six [motivation] scales is internally consistent [i.e. the items of each scale relate to each other] and temporally stable (over a 1-month interval). . . . The predictive validity of the scales of the VFI was examined in a persuasion context. . . . [and] the persuasive appeal of a message promoting volunteering was greater when the message and motivation were matched rather than mismatched. (p. 448)

Clary et al. (1998, p. 1528) further consider that "each of the VFI scales measures a single, stable, nonoverlapping construct that coincides with a theoretically derived motivation for volunteering". Internal reliability coefficients are high [≥ .80] and test-retest reliabilities are acceptable [all correlations ≥ .60] (Clary et al., 1992).

Clary et al. (1992, p. 339) conclude that "the VFI is reliable and valid and has a solid conceptual base. Furthermore, the VFI explicitly recognizes the multimotivational nature of volunteering and measures many motivations at once".

With surveys that aim to determine motivations to volunteer there is the risk that respondents will attempt to provide socially desirable or "politically correct" answers. Clary et al. (1992) consider that the VFI overcomes this problem, determining that "none of the inventory scales are significantly correlated with a measure of social desirability, [suggesting] that respondents are quite willing to endorse functions regardless of how desirable they may appear to be" (p. 339). This is further supported by research evidence that motivations, and the importance of motivations, vary considerably from individual to individual (Clary et al., 1992).

Section C of the questionnaire used in the current study consisted of an optional open-ended question that gave respondents the opportunity to express any other reasons they may have had for volunteering.

The questionnaire was pre-tested for content and wording on a small sample of approximately 20 respondents from each of the sub-groups included in the current research. This confirmed that the format of the self-report questionnaire was simple to follow; the terminology used in instructions and questions was understood by respondents; the questions posed were easily answered; and respondents were willing to answer the survey questions.

4.4 *Procedure*

4.4.1 Administration of Questionnaire

The Surf Life and Rotary sub-groups meet on a regular basis, as teams and as clubs respectively. Questionnaires were administered to these groups via group distribution and generally collected immediately following completion. HACC volunteers visit a central point to collect meals and the like for delivery and were issued with a questionnaire at this point of contact. The instrument was designed as a self-report questionnaire and as such it was not imperative that the researcher administer each questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to volunteers of each group either by the researcher (at surf patrol stations on beaches and at Rotary meetings), or by a volunteer/coordinator from within the sub-group, who had been briefed by the researcher and who took responsibility for handing out and collecting the questionnaires. This approach assisted in maximising the response rate within a reasonable time frame. A similar approach to distributing questionnaires has been adopted by other researchers employing the VFI, as outlined in Table 5 (section 2.5)

Prior to the collection of data, ethics clearance was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee at Edith Cowan University. Completion of the questionnaire indicated the respondent's consent to participating in the study. Where Surf Life respondents were aged under 18 years and parents/guardians were not present to consent to their participation in the survey, these minors were issued with a survey pack that contained a copy of the questionnaire (including disclosure statement), consent forms for the parents/guardians and the minor, and a reply-paid envelope to facilitate the return of the above to the researcher (see Appendix B).

4.4.2 Response Rate

As outlined above, the self-report questionnaires were distributed largely in group situations. If individuals did not wish to participate in the survey, they simply did not accept a questionnaire from the administrator or pick one up from the central distribution point (such as a table at a Rotary meeting, the collection point at Meals on Wheels or the surf patrol shelter on the beach). As such it was difficult to establish a refusal rate. However, the experiences of the researcher and the feedback from other administrators suggested that such nonresponse was limited and that most of the people approached were prepared to participate.

Surf Life was the only sub-group where it was likely that minors would be surveyed as volunteers. Survey packs, as outlined in 4.4.1, were distributed to 13 minors. Three completed packs were returned, representing a response rate of 23%. Administrators other than the researcher obtained a further 17 survey responses from Surf Life minors, but as the necessary consent was not obtained these questionnaires were not included in the final sample.

4.4.3 Analysis of Data

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] (Norusis, 2000) has been used to analyse the collected data.

4.5 Data Analysis

In line with the research objectives and to test the hypotheses posed, statistical analysis was undertaken to give meaning to the data collected via the questionnaire.

4.5.1 Description of Sample

Descriptive analyses including frequencies and cross tabulations allowed demographic profiles of the volunteers in the total sample and within each sub-group to be determined (see section 5.2).

4.5.2 The VFI Scale

The multivariate analytical technique of factor analysis was applied to the VFI scale (see section 5.3.1). Factor analysis aims to reduce and summarise data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995) resulting in "a smaller set of underlying factors [dimensions] that summarise the essential information contained in the variables" (Coakes & Steed, 1997, p. 183). Factor analytic techniques allowed all 30 items of the VFI to be considered simultaneously, refining and reducing these items to form a smaller number of coherent subscales that represented the motivations to volunteer held by respondents (Pallant, 2001). The suitability of the data for factor analysis was examined in accordance with the following criteria:

- that the sample exceed 300 cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996)
- that sufficient intercorrelation exist among the (VFI) items, as indicated by a number of coefficients greater than .3 in the correlation matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996)
- that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy exceed .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974)
- that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) be statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Principal components analysis, the most commonly used approach to factor analysis (Pallant, 2001), was employed to analyse the data in the present study. The results from the principal components analysis were then compared with the six-factor (motivational) solution of Clary et al. (1998). Separate principal components analyses were conducted for the total sample and each sub-group (see section 5.3.1). The number of factors that best described the underlying relationship among the variables was determined using both the eigenvalue rule and Catell's scree test (Catell, 1966). The eigenvalue of a factor represents the amount of total variance explained by that factor and, using this rule, only factors with an eigenvalue of 1 were further examined (Pallant, 2001). To assist interpretation of the resultant factors, oblique rotation, which allows for correlation between the factors, was employed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient (1951) was used to measure the internal consistencies and reliability of the principal components/factors derived from the principal components analysis.

As outlined above, factor analysis was used to determine the motive subscales and the VFI items that comprised each subscale. Subscale scores were then calculated for the total sample and the individual sub-groups by averaging values for the relevant VFI items. Higher motive scores indicated greater importance of that motivation, allowing both the order of importance of the motivations for volunteers in the sample/sub-groups and the level (intensity) of importance to be determined (see section 5.3.2). A one-way ANOVA was used to establish whether the differences between the means of the motive subscales for the sub-groups were significant at a confidence level of 95% and therefore statistically different (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2003).

4.5.3 Motivational Differences Between Sub-Groups

Discriminant analysis was then employed to address group differences within the current study (see section 5.4.1). In the present study, discriminant analysis assisted to:

- determine whether the sub-groups of Rotary, HACC and Surf Life differed with respect to the factors (motivational dimensions) identified in the principal components analysis;
- identify the variables, in this case the motivational dimension(s), that accounted most for the differences in the profiles of the groups; and
- determine which variables could be used to predict group membership

Discriminant analysis was used as it is the appropriate technique when the dependent variables (the volunteer groups) are nominally scaled; the independent variables (motivations to volunteer) are intervally scaled; and the objective is to find a linear combination of independent variables that shows large differences in group means (Hair et al., 2003).

Discriminant analysis was conducted using the factors extracted in the principal components analysis as independent variables to test for group (Rotary, HACC and Surf Life) separation. Factor scores were used in preference to the individual items of the VFI, given that the instrument is well-constructed, valid and reliable (Hair et al., 1995). Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) further assert that scores calculated from the factor analysis are more reliable than scores on individual observed variables.

To determine whether the individual variables displayed significant differences between the group means, reference was made to the *F* statistic, based on the Mahalanobis squared distance between pairs of group centroids (Hair et al., 1995). The *F* statistic (with degrees of freedom) is reported in the analysis, and was computed by the discriminant function on SPSS (Norusis, 2000). As this statistic is sensitive to group size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), a significance level of .01 was adopted in testing group differences. The Chi-square statistic measured the statistical significance of the canonical discriminant functions. To establish the accuracy of the predictive ability of the discriminant functions, the hit ratio was considered and compared with the values that could have been expected to have been achieved by chance.

The discriminant functions were then examined to determine the relative importance of each independent variable in discriminating between the groups. The discriminant loadings (or structure correlations) were used as the basis for interpretation as they are considered "relatively more valid than [standardized discriminant] weights as a means of interpreting the discriminating power of independent variables because of their correlational nature" (Hair et al., 1995, p. 206).

In addition to indicating the associated level of significance for each variable, examination of the *F* values also contributed to the understanding of the relative discriminating power of the independent variables (Hair et al., 1995). The larger the *F* value, the greater the discriminating power of the independent variable.

The Peterson and Mahajan (1976) discriminating index (I^2) was used to determine the amount of variance in the groups, as explained by the discriminating variables. This indicated the strength of the significant relationship by determining how much of the difference between the groups could be explained by the function. The I^2 statistic is used to give the 'practical' significance of the relationship as it takes into account the effect of sample size on the strength of the relationship (Peterson & Mahajan, 1976).

Averaging the discriminant scores for individuals within each sub-group allowed a group mean, or centroid, to be determined. The centroids indicate the most typical location of any individual from a particular group and facilitate group comparison. Centroids for each of the sub-groups have been plotted to indicate how far apart the groups were along the dimensions being tested and thus illustrate the differences between the groups on each function (Hair et al., 1995). The discriminant loadings have also been plotted (as vectors) to depict differences in the groups on the predictor variables. Hair et al. (1995, p. 208) explain that "vectors point to the groups having the highest mean on the respective predictor, and away from the groups having the lowest mean scores".

4.5.4 Sample Differences: Relationship between Motivations and Demographic Characteristics

Cluster analysis was employed to further investigate sample differences (see section 5.5.1). In the current study, factor analysis grouped the motivations to volunteer as variables; in contrast, cluster analysis serves to group objects, that is, the survey respondents. This data reduction procedure results in clusters, or segments, that display a high degree of homogeneity within the segment and a high level of heterogeneity between segments (Hair et al., 1995). As such, in the current study cluster analysis sought to identify clusters of respondents that had similar motivations to volunteer (as measured by the VFI). The motivations to volunteer were distinctly different between clusters.

Cluster analysis was conducted in SPSS (Norusis, 2000) using the hierarchical cluster analysis method. The hierarchical method was performed with a sample of 321 cases and used squared Euclidean distances, a measure of similarity, to investigate cluster existence. Ward's method was employed to minimise the within-cluster differences (Hair et al., 1995). The cluster variables were the five motive subscales, represented by the factor scores determined in 5.3.1.

A one-way ANOVA was used to establish whether the differences between the means of the clusters were significant at a confidence level of 95% and therefore statistically different (Hair et al., 2003). Mean scores were calculated for each of the motive subscales (variables) that resulted from the factor analysis, allowing descriptive labels to be ascribed to the resultant clusters (Hair et al., 1995). Profiles of each cluster were then developed by determining the demographic characteristics that differed significantly between clusters. The Chi-Square Test for Independence was used to explore the relationship between two categorical variables: the identified clusters and demographic factors such as gender, age and income (Pallant, 2001). The Chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample size, with its greatest reliability achieved with sample sizes between 100 and 200 (Hair et al., 1995). The Chi-square output was examined to ensure that at least 80% of cells had expected frequencies of 5 or more. The Pearson Chi-square value was examined to determine whether a minimum significance level of .05 was achieved, thus indicating significant differences between clusters. Where each variable had only two categories, resulting in a 2 x 2 output table, the Yates' Correction for Continuity value was examined for significance (Pallant, 2001).

4.6 Summary

The present study used a self-administered questionnaire—the Volunteer Functions Inventory—to survey the chosen sample, which consisted of 361 volunteers from Rotary, HACC and Surf Life. The data were analysed using the SPSS software package and the results are presented and discussed in section 5.0.

5.0 Findings and Discussion

A sample of 361 volunteers was surveyed in order to address the research questions posed for the current study. This section reviews these research questions and outlines the results from the various analyses undertaken to answer them. A discussion of these results is provided where appropriate.

5.1 Review of Research Questions

As will be recalled from section 1.4, the research questions that the present study sought to address were:

Research Question 1:

What are the demographic characteristics of the volunteers from Rotary International (Rotary), Home and Community Care (HACC), and Surf Life Saving (Surf Life)?

Research Question 2:

Does the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) provide an adequate scale to measure the motivations to volunteer in three groups of volunteers in Australia?

Research Question 3:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the motivations for volunteering held by volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 4:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the relative importance of motivations for volunteering between volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 5:

Are there motivational differences between the different demographic groups represented in the sample?

The following hypotheses were posed in relation to each of the volunteer groups surveyed:

Hypothesis 1: The Career motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Rotary volunteers.

Hypothesis 2: The Values motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for HACC volunteers.

Hypothesis 3: The Social motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Surf Life volunteers.

5.2 *Description of Sample*

The final sample consisted of 361 completed questionnaires from volunteers involved in Rotary, HACC, or Surf Life organisations. Table 6 shows the composition of the sample.

Table 6

Composition of Sample ($N = 361$)

Sub-group	Number of respondents ($N = 361$)	Proportion of total sample (%)
Rotary	131	36
HACC	101	28
Surf Life	129	36
Total	361	100

General demographic characteristics of the total sample ($N = 361$) were examined. The sample consisted of the following:

- males comprised 66% of the sample, females 34%
- 42% of respondents were aged over 55 years
- 82% of respondents did not have school-aged children
- 40% of the sample was employed on a full-time basis
- 36% of the sample had achieved a university qualification
- 41% of the sample had an annual household income in the top bracket of more than A$70,000

Table 7 outlines the demographic characteristics of the sample. These demographic characteristics are further discussed in the following paragraphs.

Table 7

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 361)

Characteristic	Rotary (n = 131) Valid %	Surf Life (n = 129) Valid %	HACC (n = 101) Valid %	Total sample Valid %
Gender (n = 360)				
Male	84	65	42	66
Female	16	35	58	34
Total	100	100	100	100
Age (n = 359)				
Under 24 years	1	59	0	21
25 to 34 years	5	16	2	8
35 to 54 years	41	23	21	29
55 years and over	53	2	77	42
Total	100	100	100	100
Marital status (n = 359)				
Single, never married	9	67	11	30
Married/de facto	83	26	56	55
Separated/divorced	6	6	8	7
Widowed	2	1	25	8
Total	100	100	100	100
School-aged children (n = 358)				
Yes	22	19	10	18
No	78	81	90	82
Total	100	100	100	100
Employment status (n = 359)				
Student	0	32	0	11
Full-time employed	62	49	0	40
Part-time employed	12	12	8	11
Homemaker	1	2	21	7
Retired	24	2	63	27
Unemployed	1	3	8	4
Total	100	100	100	100
Education level (n = 354)				
Some high school	7	12	17	12
High school completed	9	23	38	22
Post high school	21	40	28	30
Completed university	63	25	17	36
Total	100	100	100	100
Household income (n = 340)				
Under A$10,000	1	11	19	9
A$10,000 to A$49,999	12	30	52	29
A$50,000 to A$69,999	14	32	16	21
A$70,000 or more	73	27	13	41
Total	100	100	100	100

5.2.1 Gender

For this sample, 66% (*n* = 236) of respondents were male, although women are generally more likely to be involved in volunteer activities than men (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Chambré, 1984; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991; Independent Sector, 1999; Warburton & Mutch, 2000). This trend was evident among the HACC volunteers, 58% (*n* = 58) of whom were female. However, the Rotary and Surf Life organisations have historically been male-dominated, with women only accepted as members in approximately the last 15-20 years (Bruce, 1992; Niven, 1994). This was reflected in the sample, with males comprising 84% (*n* = 110) of Rotarians and 65% (*n* = 84) of Surf Life volunteers surveyed. Female Rotarians were almost exclusively aged under 55 years (90%, *n* = 19) and were somewhat underrepresented in each age category of this sub-group. Females accounted for over 42% (*n* = 41) of all surf lifesavers surveyed in the under-35 year age category of the sample, suggesting strong and growing participation by young women. Figure 2. depicts the proportion of males and females within each of the sub-groups surveyed.

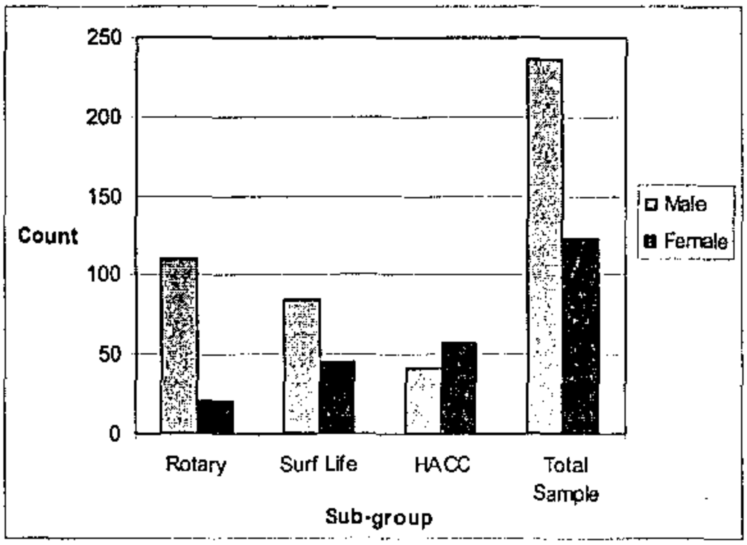

Figure 2. Gender mix of sample by sub-group

5.2.2 Age

The largest proportion of volunteers in the sample was aged over 55 years (42%, *n* = 149), a result influenced by the older age composition of the Rotary and HACC sub-groups. Almost 53% (*n* = 68) of Rotary members and 77% (*n* = 78) of HACC volunteers surveyed were aged over 55 years. The HACC sub-group displayed the greatest age bias in the older age brackets, with people aged over 65 years accounting for 57% (*n* = 57) of respondents. These results contrast with those of other studies/surveys that have found persons in the 35- to 44-year-old age group more likely to volunteer than those in younger or older age brackets, largely because of their involvement in the recreational and educational activities of their (school-age) children (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Hayghe, 1991; Independent Sector, 1999). Respondents in the sub-groups in the present study were mostly older than 35 years (Rotary and HACC, as described above) or younger than 35 years (75% [*n* = 97] of Surf Life respondents were aged under 35 years). Further, 82% (*n* = 294) of the sample did not have school-age children. The age mix found within each sub-group is shown in Table 7.

5.2.3 Marital Status

Consistent with previous findings that married men and women are more likely to volunteer than those in other marital situations (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Chambré, 1984; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991), 55% (n = 197) of respondents to this survey reported being in a marriage or de facto relationship. Although Hayghe (1991) considers that married couples are more likely to have children living with them and hence have greater volunteer opportunities, this is clearly not the case in the current study due to the nature of the sub-groups surveyed. Chambré (1984) determined that married people aged under 65 years more often did volunteer work than the unmarried: In the present study, respondents who were aged *over* 65 years were also more likely to be married (64%, n = 55) than unmarried. The marital status according to the age of sample respondents is outlined in Table 8.

Table 8

Marital Status of Respondents by Age (n = 357)

	Marital Status				
Age	Single n = 110 %	Married/ de facto n = 196 %	Separated/ divorced n = 23 %	Widowed n = 28 %	Total n = 357 %
34 years and under	25	4	1	0	30
35-44 years	2	8	1	0	11
45-64 years	2	28	3	2	35
65 years and over	2	15	1	6	24
Total	31	55	6	8	100

5.2.4 Employment Status

The majority of respondents in the sample (51%, n = 185) were active to some extent in the (paid) labour force, with 40% (n = 145) employed on a full-time basis. Most Rotarians (62%, n = 82) were fully employed, and Surf Life accounted for all the students surveyed (11% of total sample, n = 41). HACC volunteers were largely retired (63%, n = 62) or homemakers (21%, n = 21). Indeed, as many as 73% (n = 72) of HACC volunteers might be considered retired, given that several HACC homemakers were aged over 55 years. Previous research suggests that employed persons are more likely to be volunteers than those who do not work, despite the often time-consuming demands of full-time jobs (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991). Chambré (1984) credits the higher rate of volunteer participation of people active in the labour force to socioeconomic factors, since the incidence of volunteering tends to increase with educational achievements and income (further discussion in sections 5.2.5 and 5.2.6). Her findings (1984) suggest that the better educated and the more affluent volunteers who do not work are also the most active. This is evident in the results of the present study, with 56% (n = 52) of retired respondents having undertaken at least some post-secondary education, and 41% (n = 36) of all retired respondents reporting annual household incomes higher than A$50,000 (see Table 9).

Table 9

Annual Household Income and Education Levels of Retired Respondents (n = 88)

	Education level			
Annual household income	Some high school n = 14 %	Completed high school n = 24 %	Post high school n = 50 %	Total n = 88 %
Less than A$10,000	6	3	2	11
A$10,000-A$49,999	5	17	26	48
A$50,000 and above	6	7	28	41
Total	17	27	56	100

5.2.5 Level of Education

Adults with a university (college) qualification are more likely to participate in volunteer work than those with fewer years of schooling (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Chambré, 1984; Hayghe, 1991; Independent Sector, 1999; Warburton et al., 1998). The job skills and higher social status often possessed by people with higher levels of education are attractive to organisations seeking volunteers, and these people are often placed in the volunteer positions that accord the greatest prestige or other rewards (Chambré, 1987; Warburton et al., 1998). In the current study, 66% (*n* = 234) of respondents had pursued some post-secondary education, with 36% (*n* = 129) of the sample having completed university. Rotarians, and in particular female Rotarians, were the most likely of the sub-groups to have graduated from university (63%, *n* = 81). The largest proportion of HACC volunteers (38%, *n* = 37) had completed high school, with 17% (*n* = 16) possessing a university qualification.

5.2.6 Household Income

Volunteer participation tends to increase with income (Chambré, 1987; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991; Independent Sector, 1999). The results of the present study are consistent with this observation, with 41% (*n* = 138) of respondents reporting a household income in the highest bracket of more than A$70,000 per annum. This result is largely influenced by the high proportion of Rotarians at this income level (73%, *n* = 94). The majority of HACC volunteers (53%, *n* = 47) reported annual household incomes of less than A$30,000, accounting for almost 60% of all respondents at this lower income level. This result likely reflects both the comparatively lower education levels achieved by HACC volunteers and the large number of retired volunteers in this sub-group. Reed and Selbee (2000) view education and occupation as precursors of income, with income itself playing less of a role in determining volunteer participation. The costs of volunteering can also contribute to the higher volunteer rates among higher income earners: It often costs volunteers money to volunteer [for example, for transport, meals, appropriate clothing] (Chambré, 1987; Hayghe, 1991), and the time spent in volunteering could be used to earn additional income (Schram & Dunsing, 1980, cited in Chambré, 1987). Incomes for the student respondents were spread quite evenly across all income categories, a reflection of the fact that many students reside with working parents whose annual income was recorded rather than that of the individual student.

5.2.7 Summary

Research Question 1 sought to identify the demographic composition of the sample. Although the present study used a convenience sample, the representation of demographic characteristics displays similarities to those most often associated with volunteer participation, particularly in relation to marital status, employment status and levels of education and income (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Chambré, 1984; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991; Independent Sector, 1999). In terms of gender, this sample is interesting as it is comprised of a larger percentage of males than females, in contrast to the general trend for females to volunteer in greater numbers than males. In addition, this sample has a higher percentage of volunteers aged over 55 years than would generally be expected, due to the nature of the volunteer groups chosen.

The following section determines the motivations, as measured by the VFI, that have encouraged the participation of the sample in volunteer activity.

5.3 Analysis of the Volunteer Functions Inventory

Current volunteers from Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life responded to the VFI by indicating how important each of 30 reasons was in encouraging them to volunteer for their particular organisation. In the following section, factor analysis is used to test the robustness of the VFI in the context of the current study (Research Question 2). The relative importance of the motivations for volunteering for both the total sample and each sub-group is determined to address Research Question 4.

5.3.1 Factor Analysis

A factor analysis of participants' responses to the VFI scale was conducted to establish the underlying dimensions in the scale and to compare with previous research (Hair et al., 1995).

The 30 items of the VFI were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS (Norusis, 2000). Prior to performing PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was .93, exceeding the recommended minimum value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant ($p < .05$). Factorability of the correlation matrix was thus supported.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, suggesting five factors underlying responses to the VFI. These components explained 39%, 12%, 6%, 5% and 4% of the variance respectively. Catell's scree test (Catell, 1966) indicated a sixth factor might be included for further investigation. The eigenvalue of the sixth factor was 0.961, very close to 1. It was decided to explore both the five- and six-factor solutions.

To assist in the interpretation of the five- and six-factor solutions, factor rotation was employed. Both orthogonal (Varimax) and oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotations were carried out in order to find simple structure. Both rotations resulted in similar solutions for this sample; however, the oblique solution provided the clearer result. As such, the oblique technique (Direct Oblimin) was chosen to interpret the factors for the total sample. The rotations were conducted for five and six factors and in all cases no items loaded (over .3) on the sixth factor.

A five-factor solution was observed as the most parsimonious solution for the sample in the present study. The rotated solution (presented in Table 10) revealed the presence of simple structure, with the 30 original items of the VFI scale grouped into five components (Thurstone, 1947). Internal consistencies computed by Cronbach's alpha coefficient (1951) confirmed the reliability of the five principal components for the present study. The Cronbach coefficients were high (≥ 0.82) for each of the VFI scales: Ego, 0.91; Values, 0.82; Social, 0.82; Career, 0.92; and Understanding, 0.86.

The five factors that emerged in the current study are discussed with reference to the six key functions determined by Clary et al. (1998) to be served by volunteering. These functions have been described more fully in Table 3 (section 2.4.2).

Factor 1: Ego Motive

Factor 1 consists of VFI items that in the research of Clary et al. (1998) loaded on two distinct factors: the Protective and Enhancement subscales. The items comprising the Protective motive are related to ego defensive concerns, whereas those comprising the Enhancement motive centre on the growth and development of the ego (Clary et al., 1998). As such, the factor combining these two subscales that has emerged in the present study will be referred to throughout the remainder of this report as the *Ego* subscale or motive. In addition, and consistent with the results of analyses conducted by Clary et al. (1998), Item 29 ("volunteering is a way to make new friends") did not load on its intended factor (Enhancement), but rather with the Understanding factor.

Factor 2: Values Motive

Factor 2 depicts items comprising the Values subscale, which recognises that volunteer service may provide opportunities "for individuals to express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517). These items loaded together on one factor as predicted by Clary et al. (1998). Items 3 and 16, which expressed compassion and concern toward people less fortunate than oneself, loaded highly (> .8) on this factor.

Factor 3: Social Motive

Factor 3 consists of items relating to the Social motive, which considers a volunteer's relationship with others. Individuals may volunteer in order to be with one's friends, or to be seen to participate in an activity that is well regarded by important others, as reflected by Items 6 and 17 which displayed high loadings (>.7) on this factor.

Factor 4: Career Motive

Factor 4 reflects the Career motive. This function recognises that individuals may volunteer in order to benefit one's career; for example, by developing skills or facilitating the establishment of career contacts. Items 10, 21 and 15, relating to a desire to forge career contacts and the view that volunteering will assist one to succeed in a chosen profession and even to explore different career options, loaded highly (>.8) on this factor.

Factor 5: Understanding Motive

Factor 5 consists of items indicating the Understanding function, where volunteer activity may "permit new learning experiences and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills, and abilities" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1518). In this sample, Item 12 ("I can learn more about the cause for which I am working"), predicted by Clary et al. (1998) to load on the Understanding factor, was a complex variable with dual loadings on both the Values and Understanding factors. Item 18, which related to volunteering as a means of learning things through direct, hands on experience, displayed the highest loading of -.6.

Table 10

Total Sample Factor Pattern Matrix (Principal Component Analysis, Oblique [Oblimin] Rotation with Kaiser Normalization) for VFI Items

VFI Scale and Items	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: Ego					
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.	.52				
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	.69				
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	.59				
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	.53				
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	.66				
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	.71				
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.73				
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	.86				
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	.84				
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.					-.54
Factor 2: Values					
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.		.83			
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.		.78			
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.		.86			
19. I feel it is important to help others.		.66			
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.		.62			
Factor 3: Social					
2. My friends volunteer.			.69		
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.			.66		
6. People I know share an interest in community service.			.77		
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.			.74		
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.			.65		
Factor 4: Career					
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.				.82	
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.				.88	
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.				.81	
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.				.88	
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.				.77	
Factor 5: Understanding					
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.		.35			-.34
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.					-.45
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.					-.60
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.					-.48
30. I can explore my own strengths.					-.56

Note: Shaded rows indicate items that have loaded in a different manner to that predicted by Clary et al. (1998).

The factor analysis results for the total sample in the current study presented a clear 5-factor structure. Results of similar analyses on the individual sub-groups were less consistent.

5.3.1.1 Rotary

The factorability of the correlation matrix resulting from principal components analysis of the data from the Rotary sub-group was confirmed by the KMO measure of .867, a Bartlett's test result that was statistically significant and the presence of a substantial number of correlations greater than .3. A five-factor result also emerged for the Rotary sub-group, as shown in Appendix D: Table D1.

Ego Motive

Factor 1 shows the Enhancement and Protective items again loading together (to form the Ego subscale) as was observed for the total sample (shown in Table 10). Item 29 (Enhancement) again loaded on the Understanding factor. item 8 ("I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving") loaded highest on to a sixth factor, as did Item 12 ("I can learn more about the cause for which I am working"), instead of on the predicted Values and Understanding subscales respectively. These exceptions are likely explained by the specific questions in relation to the Rotary sub-group. Rotary respondents are likely to have read Item 8 ("I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving) and Item 12 ("I can learn more about the cause for which I am working") as referring to Rotary (the organisation) as the group/cause. However, the respondents from Rotary are most likely to have considered the beneficiaries of their volunteer efforts—a range of groups external to, and independent of, the Rotary organisation—to be their primary focus and concern, rather than Rotary itself, and have responded accordingly.

Factor 2 consists of items relating to the Career motive. Factor 3 relates to the Understanding motive. Factors 4 and 5 consist of items relating to the Social and Values motives respectively.

5.3.1.2 HACC

The factorability of the correlation matrix resulting from principal components analysis of the data from the HACC sub-group was confirmed by the KMO measure of .785, a Bartlett's test result that was statistically significant and the presence of a substantial number of correlations greater than .3. Principal components analysis for the HACC sub-group resulted in basically a five-factor solution (see Appendix D: Table D2).

Factors 2, 3, 4 and 5 emerged very clearly and consisted of items that related to the Career, Understanding, Values and Social scales respectively.

Ego Motive

Factor 1 consisted once again of items relating to both the Enhancement and Protective scales. Item 7 ("no matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it"), predicted to load on the Protective scale, loaded similarly on both the Ego and Understanding scales. Item 11 ("doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others"), from the Protective scale, loaded highly (.83) on a sixth factor. This suggests that 'guilt', perhaps over being more active or enjoying better health than other elderly people, is emerging as a salient factor for HACC volunteers.

5.3.1.3 Surf Life

The factorability of the correlation matrix resulting from principal components analysis of the data from the Surf Life sub-group was confirmed by the KMO measure of .902, a Bartlett's test result that reached statistical significance and the presence of a substantial number of correlations greater than .3.

The results of principal components analysis for the Surf Life sub-group show a structure that is not as well defined as those observed for the total sample and the Rotary and HACC sub-groups (see Appendix D: Table D3).

The Values, Career and Social scales emerged cleanly as factors 1, 2 and 5 respectively. Item 17 ("others with whom I am close place a high value on community service"), a Social item, loaded similarly on the Social and Values scales, and item 28 ("volunteering experience will look good on my résumé"), a Career item, loaded similarly on the Career and Understanding scales.

Item 29 (Enhancement) once again loaded on the Understanding scale. Interestingly, many of the items (Items 12, 14, 18 and 25) predicted to load on the Understanding scale (factor 6) in fact loaded on the Values factor. The explanation for this occurrence is likely a complex one, but it may in part be attributed to the younger age composition of the Surf Life sub-group. Respondents may not have the necessary experience/life skills to recognise the worth individually of the skills development afforded by surf lifesaving.

The Enhancement and Protective items were split between factors 3 and 4, each of which was poorly defined. Item 11("doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others"), a Protective item, loaded on the Career factor.

> A number of factors likely contribute to the departure from the clean factor structure observed in the data relating to the total sample and the sub-groups of Rotary and HACC. The majority of Surf Life respondents fell into the younger age brackets (59% were aged 24 years and under) and may not have properly understood the questions being asked. Although the survey was designed to be self-reporting, younger Surf Life respondents were observed by the researcher to be unsure of how to respond to some items on the VFI scale, perhaps because the questions related to life experiences not yet encountered or considered by the respondents (for example, Item 11: "doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others"). This will be further discussed in section 5.6 as a limitation of the study.

5.3.2 Ranked Importance of Motive Subscales

The motivations to volunteer for the total sample and each sub-group have been ranked according to the observed order of importance, thus addressing Research Question 4. A significance test determined that the motivations to volunteer differed significantly (*p* < .05) across the sub-groups (see Appendix D: Table D4); hence, it is unlikely that the observed results have occurred by chance. Discriminant analysis, outlined in section 5.4.1, has been employed to determine which motivations to volunteer serve to differentiate most between the organisations of Rotary, HACC and Surf Life.

Table 11 indicates that, for the total sample, altruism was the strongest motivator, with the Values motive the most important function served by volunteering. This was followed the Understanding motive, whereby volunteering facilitates new learning experiences, the chance to practice skills and abilities, and the opportunity to learn more about the volunteer organisation, its beneficiaries and even oneself. The Social and Ego functions were ranked next in importance. The opportunity afforded by volunteer participation to enhance career prospects, skills and development (Career motive) was the least important motivation for this sample of respondents.

The ordering of the motivate subscales by the Rotary sub-group was identical to that of the total sample, with the Values motive shown to be even more important (as indicated by a higher mean score) for this group and the Ego motive less important when compared with the other sub-groups. The ordering of the motive subscales by HACC respondents was very similar, with the exception of the Ego motive, which was accorded slightly higher importance than Social motives for volunteering.

In contrast, Surf Life respondents indicated the Understanding motive as the most important function served by volunteering, followed by the Values motive. However, the Values motive was accorded a lower average score by this sub-group than by the Rotary and HACC sub-groups. Although the Career function was ranked as one of the least important motives by Surf Life, the mean score was much higher for this sub-group than for Rotary and HACC, suggesting that greater importance was placed on this function by Surf Life.

Table 11

Ranking of Motivations to Volunteer for Total Sample and Sub-Groups

Motivation	Total sample (*SD*)	Rank	Rotary (*SD*)	Rank	HACC (*SD*)	Rank	Surf Life (*SD*)	Rank
Values	5.33 (1.27)	1	5.64 (1.01)	1	5.54 (1.40)	1	4.89 (1.21)	2
Understanding	4.35 (1.59)	2	4.19 (1.58)	2	3.59 (1.75)	2	5.43 (1.37)	1
Social	3.34 (1.47)	3	3.14 (1.37)	3	2.84 (1.61)	4	3.91 (1.28)	3
Ego	3.10 (1.49)	4	2.75 (1.40)	4	3.03 (1.69)	3		
(Enhancement/							3.79 (1.43)	4
Protective)							3.60 (1.48)	5
Career	2.58 (1.69)	5	2.19 (1.37)	5	1.47 (1.11)	5	3.53 (1.52)	6

Note: Factor analysis elicited a five-factor solution for the total sample, and the Rotary and HACC sub-groups; a six-factor solution was determined for the Surf Life sub-group.

The hypotheses posed in the present study (restated in 5.1) predicted that the Career motive would be the most important for Rotary volunteers and the Social motive the most important for Surf Life respondents. These hypotheses are not supported by the results. The hypothesis that the Values motive is the most important motive for the volunteer participation of the HACC sub-group is supported. Indeed, for the sub-groups of Rotary, HACC and Surf Life, the Values and Understanding motives were the most important motivations for volunteering. In contrast, the Career and Social motives were accorded a low level of importance by each sub-group. Analysis outlined in the following sections further explores group differences.

5.3.3 Other Reasons for Volunteering

Section C of the questionnaire allowed respondents to contribute any other reasons they may have had for volunteering.

The responses received suggest that the motives for volunteering identified by the developers of the VFI comprehensively encapsulate the factors that prompted individuals, in this sample, to devote their time and energy to volunteer pursuits. Altruism and a sense of civic duty were clearly key motivators, with many respondents expressing a desire to "give something back to the community" (Rotary, Male, 35-44 years; HACC, F, 65+; Surf Life, F, 25-34) and a belief that "community service ... makes the world a better place" (Rotary, M, 55-64). Many felt that 'what goes around, comes around': One respondent (Rotary, M, 55-64) said, "I just like to help wherever possible. I believe it will come back whenever I need help". Indeed, several respondents (HACC, F, 65+; HACC, F, 55-64) were grateful that Meals on Wheels had assisted their own parents and relatives at a time when they were unable, due to work commitments or distance, and so were reciprocating now that they were in a position to do so. Others simply felt an internal drive to help others, "I have an inner need to involve myself in doing good for others" (Rotary, M, 65+; Rotary, M, 45-54). Another respondent indicated, "I just like to help people less fortunate than myself" (HACC, M, 65+).

The Understanding motive was particularly strong among the Surf Life volunteers, many of whom were keen to maintain fitness levels and to learn new skills (such as CPR, driving inflatable rubber boats and learning more about first aid). Many Surf Life respondents indicated that their participation in beach patrols was fuelled by their passion for competing in surf lifesaving carnivals, because a minimum number of patrolling hours was a prerequisite for such competition (Surf Life, F, 16-24; Surf Life, M, 25-34). Other volunteers indicated an interest in or admiration for the group for which they volunteered. One Meals on Wheels respondent (F, 45-64) said, "I have a genuine interest in aged care from when I … worked for the Silver Chain Nursing Association", and another volunteer (Rotary, M, 65+) explained, "I have served on many organisations, i.e. Red Cross, Salvation Army, etc., but it was always because I admired them". One respondent (Rotary, M, 45-54) felt that volunteering enabled an individual to "influence the direction of a cause he/she believes in", and another felt that volunteerism led to "personal growth" (Rotary, M, 45-54). One volunteer (HACC, M, 65+) felt it was important to "put your skills to good use throughout your whole life, not just your working life".

Although no comments were written to suggest the importance of the Career motive to volunteers, verbal comments made by respondents to the researcher at the point of survey indicated that that it was a salient motivation. Comments included, "volunteering [for surf lifesaving] looks good on my CV [curriculum vitae]" (Surf Life, M, 16-24).

Volunteerism provided social opportunities for many who valued teamwork, new friendships and the chance to "join friends who are also volunteering" (Rotary, M, 65+). One mother (HACC, F, 35-44) indicated that she wanted to "set positive role models" for her young child, and another volunteer (Surf Life, M, 16-24) suggested that volunteering enhanced one's "standing in the community".

For some, volunteering was a means of helping others who were less fortunate—perhaps financially or healthwise. One respondent explained: "I am lucky enough to have good health, a good car, adequate money for my needs, time to spare, and I should give something back, and this [Meals on Wheels] is a way to do that" (HACC, M, 65+). Several respondents emphasised that wishing to help others who were in a less fortunate position than themselves was not an indication that they felt guilty about their own good fortune (HACC, F, 65+). Volunteering also played an 'ego protective' role as indicated by such comments as "volunteering brought a whole new life to gradually overcome my grief and loneliness [after the loss of a loved one]" (HACC, F, 55-64).

5.3.4 Summary

Clary et al. (1998) concluded that the Volunteer Functions Inventory is a useful tool in identifying "motivations of generic relevance to volunteerism" (p. 1528), having found that a reliable and replicable six-factor solution emerged from analyses conducted on groups of volunteers diverse in both their demographic profile and the tasks in which they are engaged. However, they did not rule out the likelihood that fewer, or more, functions will emerge, "such as in cases where considerations relevant to specific forms of volunteerism are highly prominent" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1528).

Research Question 2, concerning the appropriateness of VFI as a tool for measuring motivations to volunteer in an Australian context, has been addressed in the preceding section. Emerging consistently from factor analyses on the sample for the present study was a five-factor structure, with Values, Career, Social and Understanding items loading on individual factors, and the Enhancement and Protective items loading together on one factor (the Ego motive). The results of the factor analyses of the responses of the Rotary and HACC sub-groups to the VFI were largely consistent with those observed from the total sample, with five clear factors evident. However, factor analysis of the Surf Life sub-group did not elicit as clean a structure, suggesting that the VFI as it stands is not the most suitable instrument to measure the salient motivations of these particular volunteers and may need adaptation. Further research is necessary to establish whether the five-factor solution is typical of Australian volunteers or rather a result of the particular sample surveyed.

Respondents surveyed for the current study were motivated to volunteer by multiple reasons. Both the total sample and respondents in each sub-group indicated that the opportunity to help others (Values motive) and acquiring knowledge and practicing new skills (Understanding motive) were most instrumental in encouraging their volunteer participation. Reasons relating to Social and Ego aspects and Career development were ranked lower in priority (mean scores of less than 4 on the 7-point Likert scale). These results address Research Question 4. These findings support only the hypothesis relating to the HACC sub-group: that for HACC volunteers the Values motive is the most important motivation to volunteer.

Unstructured input from the respondents suggests that the VFI was a comprehensive measure of the types of motivations that encouraged them to volunteer.

Factor scores from the factor analysis for the total sample have been used in subsequent analyses. The following analysis examines the motivations that serve to differentiate most between sub-groups.

5.4 *Motivational Differences between Sub-Groups*

5.4.1 Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis has been used to address group differences within the current study (Research Question 3). Discriminant analysis was conducted using the five factors extracted in the principal components analysis (representing the motivational dimensions of Ego, Values, Social, Career and Understanding) as independent variables to test for group (Rotary, HACC and Surf Life) separation. This allowed identification of the motivational dimensions that are most important in distinguishing between the sub-groups of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life.

Table 12 indicates that there are significant differences between the group means for all the variables.

Table 12

Tests of Equality of Group Means between Different Motivations to Volunteer

	Wilks' Lambda	F	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
Ego motive	.916	14.682	2	319	.000
Values motive	.891	19.488	2	319	.000
Social motive	.874	23.016	2	319	.000
Career motive	.679	75.412	2	319	.000
Understanding motive	.848	28.624	2	319	.000

Two canonical discriminant functions were then calculated to discriminate between the three groups. These discriminant functions were found to be statistically significant at a confidence level of 99% ($\chi^2(10) = 270.675$, $p = .000$ and $\chi^2(4) = 27.588$, $p = .000$ respectively), indicating that the population means are statistically different. This provides support for the rejection of the null hypothesis that the members of each sub-group are compelled to volunteer by similar motivational dimensions. The eigenvalue of 1.153 for Function 1 and canonical correlation value of .732 indicate the ability of this discriminant function to differentiate between the groups. However, values for Function 2 (eigenvalue of 0.091 and canonical correlation value of .289) suggest that there was minimal difference between the sub-groups based on this discriminant function. Indeed, 93% of the variance between the three sub-groups has been explained by Discriminant Function 1. The results of the discriminant analysis are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Canonical Discriminant Functions

		Percent of variance							
Function	Eigen-value	Function	Cumulative	Canonical correlation	Test of functions	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	*df*	Sig.
1	1.153	92.7	92.7	.732	1 thru 2	.426	270.675	10	.000
2	0.091	7.3	100.0	.289	2	.917	27.588	4	.000

The predictive validity of the discriminant function serves to reinforce the statistical difference between the motivations to volunteer of the three sub-groups. The discriminant analysis accepted 322 cases as valid. The calculated values for the maximum chance criterion and the proportional chance criterion (see Appendix E: Table E2) were 39.1% and 34.3% respectively. As the hit ratio of 69.3% (Appendix E: Table E1) exceeded these criteria substantially, the discriminant analysis can confidently be described as predicting group membership better than chance (Hair et al., 1995).

The classification results (Appendix E: Table E1) suggest that the number of correct predictions for Surf Life is greater than for either Rotary or HACC. Rotary members are most likely to be misclassified as HACC volunteers, and HACC volunteers most likely to be wrongly associated with Rotary. This suggests that Rotary and HACC are the two sub-groups with the most in common in terms of their motivations to volunteer. This observation is also supported by the mapping of the group centroids (see Figure 3.).

The above examinations have determined that the discriminant functions are statistically significant and possess an acceptable level of predictive accuracy, thus allowing further interpretation of the data. Adopting .3 as a cut off for significant discriminant loadings [or structure correlations] (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), the groups were found to differ significantly across three out of five variables (motives) on both Function 1 and Function 2 (see Table 14). The loadings suggest that the Career motivational dimension (factor 4) is most useful in discriminating between sub-groups on Function 1, followed by the Understanding (factor 5) and Social (factor 3) motive subscales. Although Function 2 accounts for a minimal amount of difference between the groups, it appears to correspond most closely with the Values (factor 2) motivational dimension.

Table 14

Results of Three-Group Discriminant Analysis—Canonical Discriminant Functions

Variable	Label	Standardised discriminant coefficients		Correlation with discriminant function	
		Function 1	Function 2	Function 1	Function 2
Factor 1	Ego motive	.016	1.001	-.262	.376
Factor 2	Values motive	.744	-.711	.286	-.553
Factor 3	Social motive	-.338	-.144	-.353	-.105
Factor 4	Career motive	-.680	-.460	-.637	-.234
Factor 5	Understanding motive	.624	.318	.383	.338

Examination of the *F* values outlined in Table 12 further supports these findings. These *F* values suggest that the Career variable has the greatest discriminating power, followed by the Understanding and Social motives.

The discriminant index (I^2) suggested that 57% of the variance between the groups was explained by the discriminating functions.

The group centroids (Appendix E: Table E3) on each discriminant function indicate "the most typical location of any individual from a particular group, and a comparison of the group centroids shows how far apart the groups are along the dimension being tested" (Hair et al., 1995, p. 182). Plotting the group centroids (see Figure 3.) demonstrates the differences between the groups on each function (Hair et al., 1995). By examining the centroids along the X axis it can be seen that the Surf Life sub-group has the highest value on Function 1, whereas the Rotary and HACC sub-groups are much closer together. This indicates that Function 1 separates Surf Life from Rotary and HACC and indeed explains the largest amount of variance between the three sub-groups. As suggested by the significant discriminant loadings (Table 14), this difference is likely attributable to the stronger importance of the Career motive, and to a lesser extent the Understanding and Social motives, as reasons for volunteering for Surf Life compared with the other sub-groups.

Function 2, in contrast, accounted for little of the group variance as suggested earlier by the low eigenvalue and canonical correlation of this function (Table 13) and as indicated visually by the mapping of the group centroids (Figure 3.).

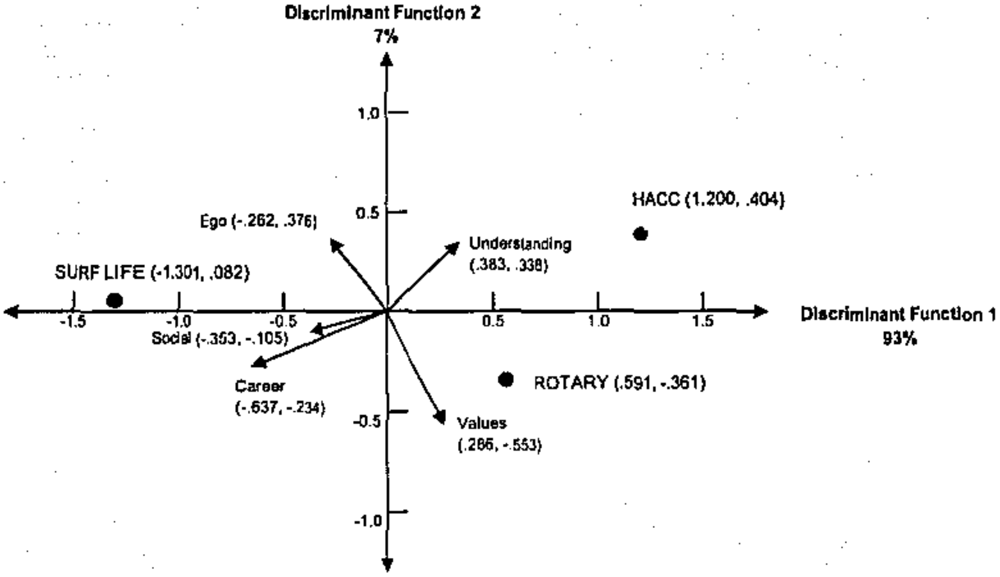

Figure 3. Plot of group centroids and attribute vectors (variables) in reduced discriminant space

Figure 3. also plots the discriminant loadings, which depict differences in the groups on the predictor variables. The length of each vector reflects the relative importance of each motive subscale in discriminating among the groups (Hair et al., 1995). This reinforces the interpretations outlined earlier, with the Career and Values motives acting as the primary discriminating variables on Functions 1 and 2 respectively. Surf Life is most motivated by the Career function and the Values motive is of primary importance to members of Rotary. HACC volunteers are least motivated by the Career function, and Rotary members are least motivated by the Career and Ego functions.

5.4.2 Summary

In addressing Research Question 3, it was determined that significant differences exist between the three sub-groups of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life. The greatest difference has been identified between Surf Life and the other two sub-groups: Surf Life volunteers are more likely to be motivated to volunteer by the Career subscale than are Rotary and HACC volunteers.

Function 1 broadly represents motives that can be viewed as egoistic, or selfish. Most significant was the Career motive, which incorporates volunteering as a means of enhancing career opportunities or skills, or developing career contacts. To a lesser extent, the Understanding motive (volunteering providing new learning experiences, experience in dealing with a variety of people, allowing one to explore one's own strengths and the like) and the Social motive scale (volunteering as a means of being with one's friends, fitting in with one's existing social group, engaging in an activity viewed favourably by important others) were also evident.

The significant discriminant loadings for Function 2 highlight the Values motive subscale as being the most important, suggesting that this function tends more towards altruistic or selfless motives for volunteering. The Values scale encompasses participating as a volunteer because one is genuinely concerned about the particular group one serves, or about those less fortunate than oneself and because compassion is felt towards people in need. Function 2 accounted for a relatively small proportion of the discriminating variance. The main discriminating factors revolve around Function 1.

The following section considers whether different patterns of motivations were associated with different demographic groups within the sample.

5.5 Sample Differences: Relationship between Motivations and Demographic Characteristics

5.5.1 Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was employed to identify clusters of respondents that had distinctly different motivations to volunteer. A demographic profile of each of these clusters was determined, thus addressing Research Question 5. The agglomeration schedule that resulted from the cluster analysis (presented in Appendix F: Table F1) shows the largest increase in the clustering coefficients (35%) was in going from one cluster to two clusters. This suggested a two-cluster solution as the most parsimonious. Hair et al. (2003) observed that error is reduced by a large extent by going from one to two clusters rather than to three clusters. A two-cluster solution was deemed easier to interpret.

Execution of a one-way ANOVA between the two clusters determined that for each of the five cluster variables (representing the motive subscales) the differences between the means of the two clusters were highly significant ($p < .05$) and therefore statistically different (see Appendix F: Table F2).

As the factor scores used in the cluster analysis did not allow interpretation of the clusters, the raw scores for the variables (i.e. the motive subscales, as identified by the factor analysis) were used to compute the average profile for each group (Hair et al., 1995). A significance test determined that the two clusters differed significantly across all motivations (Appendix F: Table F3). For each cluster, the mean value on each of the five motivation variables (Table 15) was examined. The results suggest that for both clusters one of the most important motivations was to act on their concern for others (Values motive). Volunteering also served to foster new learning experiences and a better understanding of the organisation, the people it served and even oneself (Understanding motive). The variables that differentiated most between the two clusters were the Career, Ego and Social motives. This suggests that Cluster 1 was somewhat more self-focused than was Cluster 2, which appeared to be more selflessly, or altruistically, oriented in its reasons for volunteering than did Cluster 1.

Table 15

Group Means for Two-Group Cluster Solution

	Cluster		
Variable	1	2	% diff.
Values motive	5.64	5.02	-11.0%
Understanding motive	5.60	3.58	-36.1%
Social motive	4.33	2.64	-39.0%
Ego motive	4.27	2.26	-47.1%
Career motive	4.27	1.67	-61.0%

Examination of demographic variables allowed the characteristics of each cluster to be described. The Chi-Square Test for Independence was employed to determine where significant differences existed between the clusters and demographic variables. The cluster sizes of 114 and 208 respectively, fell into the range for optimum reliability for this test (Hair et al., 1995). The analysis tested a null hypothesis (H_0) stating that there is no association between clusters and the individual demographic variables.

The results determined that the null hypothesis could be rejected in relation to many of the demographic variables tested. Age was found to be statistically different between clusters, $\chi^2(2, N = 320) = 53.598, p = .000$. With 58% ($n = 66$) of members aged less than 34 years, Cluster 1 had a much younger composition than did Cluster 2, in which 47% ($n = 97$) of members were aged 55 years and over (see Appendix F: Table F4).

Marital status also differed between clusters, $\chi^2(3, N = 320) = 44.543$, $p = .000$. Most volunteers in Cluster 1 were not, and had never been, married (56%, $n = 64$), whereas 68% ($n = 139$) of Cluster 2 volunteers were in a marriage relationship (see Appendix F: Table F5). The presence of school-age children in each cluster's household is likely a reflection of both the age and marital status results observed above: just 12% ($n = 14$) of Cluster 1 members had school-age children, compared with 23% ($n = 47$) of members in Cluster 2, $\chi^2(1, N = 320) = 4.618$, $p = .032$. These results are presented in Appendix F: Table F6.

Statistical differences were observed in the employment status of the two clusters, $\chi^2(5, N = 321) = 47.017$, $p = .000$, and it is again likely that the results reflect the age composition of the two groups. Approximately one quarter of Cluster 1 volunteers ($n = 28$) were students, compared with just 6% ($n = 12$) of Cluster 2 volunteers. Both clusters had similar proportions of members active to some extent in the paid workforce (60%, $n = 68$ and 51%, $n = 106$ respectively), but 34% ($n = 70$) of Cluster 2 members were retired, compared with 8% ($n = 9$) of Cluster 1 members (see Appendix F: Table F7).

Income levels were also statistically different between clusters, $\chi^2(3, N = 307) = 11.023$, $p = .012$. Although these results are reported for the total household and hence do not reflect the higher proportion of students in Cluster 1, they are an indication of the socio-economic environment in which the individuals live and that in itself may impact on their propensity to volunteer. Almost half of members in Cluster 2 (48%, $n = 94$) had an annual household income in the highest bracket of more than A$70,000, compared with 31% ($n = 34$) of volunteers in Cluster 1. More volunteers from Cluster 1 earned less than A$10,000 per annum (12%, $n = 13$) relative to Cluster 2 (5%, $n = 10$). These results are reported in Appendix F: Table F8.

Given the above characteristics, it is not surprising that there were significant differences in the sub-group composition of each cluster, $\chi^2(2, N = 322) = 62.056, p = .000$. Almost 68% ($n = 77$) of Cluster 1 volunteers were from Surf Life, representing over 60% of all Surf Life volunteers. The majority of all Rotary and HACC volunteers (77%, $n = 90$ and 87%, $n = 69$ respectively) were grouped into Cluster 2. Over 76% ($n = 159$) of Cluster 2 members were from Rotary or HACC (see Appendix F: Table F9).

The results determined that gender did not differ significantly between clusters, $\chi^2(1, N = 321) = .637, p = .425$. Males dominated both cluster groups, accounting for 64% ($n = 73$) of Cluster 1 and 69% ($n = 143$) of Cluster 2 members (see Appendix F: Table F10). The null hypothesis was also supported in relation to achieved education levels, with no association established between education and the clusters, $\chi^2(3, N = 318) = 2.403, p = .493$. Similar results were recorded across all categories of educational achievement (see Appendix F: Table F11). Of particular interest is the similarity between the clusters in terms of the proportion of volunteers who had completed university (32% [$n = 36$] of Cluster 1 volunteers and 40% [$n = 81$] of Cluster 2 volunteers). This result is perhaps unexpected given the younger composition of Cluster 1 and the high proportion of students in this group. It supports, however, the observation that volunteers in general tend to be better educated than nonvolunteers (Chambré, 1984, 1987; Clary & Snyder, 1991; Hayghe, 1991; Lyons & Hocking, 2000; Reed & Selbee, 2000; L. Smith, 1975; Warburton & Mutch, 2000)

5.5.2 Summary

Cluster analysis assisted in addressing Research Question 5. Cluster analysis resulted in the identification of two cluster groups that differed significantly in their motivations for volunteering and demographic profiles of the cluster members. All five motivations to volunteer (as determined by factor analysis) were relevant to both clusters and were ranked in the same order of importance by both groups. However, motivations for volunteering for Cluster 1 appear to have been somewhat more selfish in nature relative to Cluster 2, whose members appeared more selfless, or altruistic, in their orientation.

Cluster 1 consisted of 114 volunteers who were most likely to be male, aged less than 34 years, single and members of the Surf Life sub-group. Twenty-five percent of these volunteers were students, but most were active to some extent in paid employment. A greater proportion of volunteers in Cluster 1 earned less than A$10,000 compared to those in Cluster 2, but almost one third of respondents in Cluster 1 were in the highest income earning bracket.

Cluster 2 consisted of 208 mostly male volunteers, but who were most likely to be aged over 55 years, married and members of either the Rotary or HACC sub-groups. They were more likely to have children than volunteers in Cluster 1. The majority of Cluster 2 members worked on a full- or part-time basis, but more Cluster 2 members were likely to be retired than volunteers in Cluster 1. Almost half of volunteers in Cluster 2 had a household income in the highest bracket of more than A$70,000 per annum. Volunteers in both clusters were well educated, with over 60% of both groups having undertaken some form of post-secondary education.

The final discussion point in this section relates to recognised limitations of the present study.

5.6 *Study Limitations*

The volunteer groups surveyed represent different fields of volunteer activity. The interpretation of results is, however, limited to the groups surveyed and the results cannot be generalised across other volunteer groups representing these same volunteer fields. Indeed, the results highlight the need to examine a range of volunteer groups in Australia and to investigate the development of the VFI to ensure its suitability in an Australian context.

Volunteers were asked to rate how important each of 30 reasons was for engaging in volunteer work. Okun et al. (1998) highlight this approach as a possible limitation, commenting that it "assumes that volunteers know the real reasons for their actions. . . . Reasons may represent justifications for volunteer work that are generated on a post hoc basis as opposed to motivations that are springboards for volunteer work" (p. 620).

It is possible that in completing the VFI respondents may have endeavoured to provide the most socially desirable responses (for example, it may be perceived as more admirable to volunteer for the good of humanity than to further one's career). Kashima and Gallois (1993) question the reliability of self-report measures of behaviour, particularly where the behaviour possesses an element of social desirability. However, Clary et al. (1992, p. 339) determined that "none of the inventory scales are significantly correlated with a measure of social desirability", and it was felt that social desirability bias would have been further minimised by guaranteeing the anonymity of respondents.

The researcher observed that some younger members of Surf Life (59% were aged 24 years and under) were unsure how to respond to some of the VFI items and it was felt that this may have been because the questions related to life experiences not yet encountered or considered by the respondents (for example, Item 11: "doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others"). In these instances it is likely that respondents felt compelled to provide an answer and guessed the response. This lack of comprehension was reflected in the factor analysis of the Surf Life responses, which did not elicit as clean a factor structure as did the data from the Rotary and HACC sub-groups and the total sample. Many of the younger Surf Life respondents, many of whom were living with parents, were also uncertain of their total household income, making this measure less reliable for this sub-group.

The following section restates the objectives of the study and presents a summary of results. Further, the implications of the results are discussed in relation to the sub-groups surveyed.

6.0 Conclusions

The present study examined the motivations underlying the volunteer efforts of 361 members of the Australian service groups of Rotary International, Home and Community Care (Meals on Wheels) and Surf Life Saving Australia. Respondents were surveyed using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to record their demographic characteristics and to measure the importance of 30 reasons for volunteering in encouraging their involvement in volunteer activity. This section reviews the objectives of the current study and presents a summary of the key findings of the research. A discussion of the practical implications of this research for the volunteer groups surveyed is presented.

6.1 Review of Research Questions

The study was undertaken to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1:

What are the demographic characteristics of the volunteers from Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 2:

Does the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) provide an adequate scale to measure the motivations to volunteer in three groups of volunteers in Australia?

Research Question 3:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the motivations for volunteering held by volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 4:

Are there differences, as determined by the VFI, in the relative importance of motivations for volunteering between volunteers of Rotary, HACC, and Surf Life?

Research Question 5:

Are there motivational differences between the different demographic groups represented in the sample?

The following hypotheses were posed in relation to each of the volunteer groups surveyed:

Hypothesis 1: The Career motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Rotary volunteers.

Hypothesis 2: The Values motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for HACC volunteers.

Hypothesis 3: The Social motive is the most important motivation to volunteer for Surf Life volunteers.

Demographic profiles of the volunteers in the sample were determined using descriptive analyses. The size of the sample supported multivariate analytical techniques, including factor analysis, discriminant analysis and cluster analysis, which were employed to explore motivational dimensions and relationships both within and across the chosen sub-groups.

6.2 Conclusions

In addressing Research Question 1, the demographic profile of this convenience sample was found to be similar to that most often displayed by volunteers. However, due to the nature of the volunteer groups surveyed, respondents in this sample were more likely to be male and, overall, older than is generally found in volunteering. The greatest proportion of young volunteers (aged less than 34 years), single people and students was found among the Surf Life Saving respondents, whereas Rotarians dominated the highest education and income brackets. HACC volunteers were more likely to be female than male, and the greatest proportion of both widowed and retired respondents were found in this sub-group.

The VFI, which asked respondents how important each of 30 reasons was for their volunteering, was used to assess the motivational structure of the sample. Principal components analysis established that, for this sample, underlying these responses were five key factors, labeled Ego, Values, Social, Career and Understanding motives. This result contrasts with the six-factor model determined by the developers of the VFI (Clary et al., 1998). When examining each sub-group independently, the Surf Life Saving group results from a PCA did not present a clear five- or six-factor structure, indicating that this group had some difficulty identifying with items, particularly the Protection and Enhancement motives [collectively referred to in the current study as Ego motives] (Langridge & Ryan, 2002). Hence, in response to Research Question 2, these results suggest that some adjustment to the VFI may be necessary for specific volunteer activities and/or in an Australian context (Langridge & Ryan, 2002).

The ranked order of importance of these reasons for volunteering was very similar for each group surveyed. For each sub-group, the Values and Understanding motives were the most important functions served by volunteer participation, and the Career function was the least important. Despite the lesser role played by the Career function in motivating volunteer participation, it was the motivational dimension that served to differentiate most between the three volunteer groups. Discriminant analysis determined that Rotary and HACC respondents shared the greatest similarities in their motivations to volunteer, whereas Surf Life Saving respondents were set apart by their view of volunteering as a means of enhancing career opportunities (Career motive). These results address Research Questions 3 and 4 and suggest that Surf Life Saving volunteers tended to be somewhat more selfish or egoistically-oriented in their motivations for volunteering than were the Rotary and HACC volunteers.

Cluster analysis applied to the total sample identified two respondent groups that had distinctly different motivations to volunteer. For both clusters, the order of importance of the five motive subscales was identical, with the Values and Understanding motives again the most important motivations for volunteering, and Career motive the least important. Not surprisingly, it was the Career motive that once again stood out as the differentiating variable between the two groups. The Ego and Social motives also acted as somewhat differentiating variables between clusters, suggesting that Cluster 1 was more self-oriented than Cluster 2, which appeared more focused on the welfare of others. Surf Life Saving volunteers comprised over two thirds of Cluster 1, and members of this cluster were typically young (aged less than 34 years), single and male. In contrast, Cluster 2 volunteers were more likely to be members of either the Rotary or HACC sub-groups, male, aged over 55 years and married. These results, which address Research Question 5, suggest that age is one of the key demographic variables associated with motivations to volunteer. The Career motive appears less important to the older respondents who were more established and advantaged in terms of education, income and having achieved some of their work-related needs (Cluster 2) than members of Cluster 1. Cluster 1 volunteers tended to be younger and in the earlier stages of their education, rendering Career concerns a salient motive.

These results suggest that the hypotheses outlined in 6.1 cannot be supported in relation to the current sample of Rotary and Surf Life Saving respondents. For all three sub-groups, the Values and Understanding motives were ranked highest on importance. It was established that the Career and Social motives, hypothesised to be the most important motivations for Rotary and Surf Life Saving respectively, were in fact ranked far lower in order of importance.

The VFI provides a starting point for examining the underlying motivations for volunteering in the three Australian service groups. Further research involving other Australian volunteer groups would be necessary before drawing firm conclusions about the robustness of this instrument in an Australian context. This research highlights the value in researching the motivations for specific types of volunteer work to facilitate targeted recruitment campaigns. Further research into the motivations of Surf Life Saving volunteers, and young volunteers in general, is suggested to further understanding of the forces that encourage volunteer participation, and to improve the rate of volunteer recruitment and retention in vital resources.

6.3 Implications for the Marketing of the Sample Groups

There are many practical implications of this research for the volunteer groups surveyed. The VFI has assessed the motivations relevant to current volunteers in each organisation. This information can benefit the crucial areas of volunteer retention and volunteer recruitment.

An understanding of the specific needs that current volunteers seek to have served by volunteer participation allows organisations the opportunity to better meet these needs. In doing so, it is more likely that a volunteer will continue to volunteer. Understanding the motivations of current volunteers can also assist the recruitment of potential volunteers who possess a similar motivational profile to the current volunteers.

Functional theories suggest that messages are more persuasive when they address an individual's salient motivations, a theory that was successfully applied to volunteerism by Clary et al. (1994). In the context of the current study, one can demographically profile the primary source of potential volunteers for Surf Life Saving as young and single, with other descriptive factors such as an interest in health and fitness, proximity to a beach and similar incentives being relevant. The most effective messages to attract these individuals as volunteers would centre on the ways in which volunteering for Surf Life Saving can satisfy the Understanding motive. The opportunity to learn new skills, such as first aid and rescue techniques, and to develop and practice these skills and abilities (perhaps for competition) would be relevant to the potential volunteers. One might also appeal to their sense of community, emphasising the important role Surf Life Saving plays in protecting and assisting beachgoers. In addition, one might focus on the ways volunteering for Surf Life Saving can provide career-related benefits to the volunteer. The appropriate group for such an approach might be younger, less established (career and financially) individuals. The same message delivered to an older, more established and advantaged potential volunteer, such as those most likely to join Rotary International, would be largely ineffective given the low level of importance of the Career motive to this group. These potential volunteers are more likely to respond positively to an appeal that emphasises altruistic or humanitarian concerns for others, such as the difference that the activities of Rotary can make to the lives of disadvantaged others. An effective way to do this would be to present case studies of Rotary achievements. Such a strategy would also serve to show current volunteers of Rotary tangible results of their volunteer efforts, which in turn might assist to maintain their levels of satisfaction and encourage ongoing service to the organisation. A Values appeal would also be the most effective approach to potential volunteers of the HACC sub-group. Messages could be well targeted, based on the demographic profile of current HACC volunteers. For example, older, retired individuals, perhaps not demographically different from the people they serve but likely in better health, are the most likely source of volunteers. The key message should again centre on the Values motive, focusing on the intrinsic 'feel-good' benefits to the individual of helping others less fortunate. Again, such evidence of the achievements of HACC volunteers could reinforce the commitment of current volunteers, although this was not specifically examined in the current research.

This research has thus addressed one of the key purposes of the current study, resulting in practical suggestions to assist the volunteer groups of Rotary, Home and Community Care, and Surf Life Saving in their efforts to recruit and retain much-needed volunteers.

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Appendices

Appendix A Questionnaire

RESEARCH STUDY: WHY PEOPLE VOLUNTEER

Dear Valued Volunteer

The considerable efforts of volunteers allow many nonprofit organisations to benefit both individuals and the community in general. By understanding the many reasons **why** people volunteer, such organisations may be better able to encourage more people to volunteer and to place volunteers in the most rewarding work positions.

This study will consider the reasons why people are motivated to give their time, energy and expertise as volunteers. It will form part of my Masters studies at Edith Cowan University.

Your input to this research is valuable. I would be pleased if you could spare just **5 minutes** to complete this survey. This is an anonymous questionnaire. Please ensure that you do not write your name, or any other comments that will make you identifiable, on the survey. By completing this questionnaire you are consenting to take part in this research.

Any questions concerning the project entitled: **Motivations to Volunteer in Selected Service Organisations in Australia** may be directed to the principal researcher, Sonia Langridge, at Edith Cowan University (School of Marketing) on phone: 9400 5708. If you have any concerns about the project or would like to talk to an independent person, you may contact research supervisor, Marie Ryan, at Edith Cowan University on phone: 9273 8291.

I thank you for your time.

Sonia Langridge

December, 2001

Please answer *all* questions in Sections A & B. Section C is optional.

SECTION A: Background Information

Please tick or circle the correct response as it relates to you personally. All responses will remain anonymous.

1. **Gender:** ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Age:**
   - ☐ under 16
   - ☐ 16-24
   - ☐ 25-34
   - ☐ 35-44
   - ☐ 45-54
   - ☐ 55-64
   - ☐ 65 or over

3. What is your **marital status:**
   - ☐ single, never married
   - ☐ married/de facto relationship
   - ☐ separated
   - ☐ divorced
   - ☐ widowed

4. Do you have **school-aged children** (i.e. preschool - year 12)? ☐ Yes ☐ No
   If yes, please indicate **how many** school-aged children: ____

SECTION A (cont.)

Please tick or circle the correct response as it relates to you personally.

5. Which category best reflects your **employment status?**

☐ student (full-time)	☐ homemaker (not in labour force)
☐ employed, full-time	☐ retired
☐ employed, part-time	☐ unemployed

6. Please indicate the highest level of **formal education** you have attained:

☐ some high school	☐ post-high school education
☐ completed high school	☐ completed university

7. Please indicate which category best describes the **total annual income** of your immediate household.

☐ less than $10,000	☐ $50,000 - $59,999
☐ $10,000 - $29,999	☐ $60,000 - $69,999
☐ $30,000 -$49,999	☐ more than $70,000

Thank you for completing this background information. Please proceed to Section B.

SECTION B: Volunteer Work

Following are 30 possible reasons for volunteering.
Please indicate how important or accurate *each* of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation (i.e. do not consider your reasons for volunteering for *other* organisations).

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My friends volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B (cont.) Please indicate how important or accurate each of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation.

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
6. People I know share an interest in community service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. No matter how bad I'm feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B (cont.)

Please indicate how important or accurate each of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation.

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
21. Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I can explore my own strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: (optional)

Do you wish to add any other reasons that encouraged you to volunteer for this organisation?

....

....

....

Thank you very much for your participation.

Please leave this form at your organisation for collection, or hand to the researcher.

Appendix B Survey Pack for Minors

CONSENT FOR THE PARTICIPATION OF A MINOR

Minors (persons aged under 18 years) may not be approached to participate in surveys such as this without the written consent of a parent/guardian and the minor.

The introduction on the enclosed survey outlines the nature of this research and has a contact number should you wish to discuss any further aspects of the study. All respondents will be anonymous. For this reason it is important that you do not write your name on the survey itself. These consent forms will be kept separate to the completed questionnaire to ensure anonymity of survey responses.

Please firstly view the survey, then complete the following consent forms. It would be appreciated if the completed survey and the consent forms could then be returned at your earliest convenience to the researcher in the reply-paid envelope provided.

Thank you for your assistance in this research study.

Sonia Langridge

December/January, 2001

✂- -

Parental Consent: Motivations to Volunteer in Selected Service Organisations in Australia

I, (name) .... have been informed about all aspects of the above research project and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

As parent/guardian of (minor's name) .... I give my consent for him/her to participate in this activity, subject to his/her agreement and understanding that he/she may withdraw at any time.

I understand that participants in this survey will remain anonymous and with this understanding I agree that the research data gathered for this study may be published.

Signature of parent/guardian:.. Date:......................................

Consent of Minor: Motivations to Volunteer in Selected Service Organisations in Australia

I, (minor's name) .... have been informed about all aspects of the above research project and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realising I may withdraw at any time.

I agree that research data gathered for this study may be published provided I am not identifiable.

Signature of minor:.. Date:......................................

RESEARCH STUDY: WHY PEOPLE VOLUNTEER

Dear Valued Volunteer

The considerable efforts of volunteers allow many nonprofit organisations to benefit both individuals and the community in general. By understanding the many reasons **why** people volunteer, such organisations may be better able to encourage more people to volunteer and to place volunteers in the most rewarding work positions.

This study will consider the reasons why people are motivated to give their time, energy and expertise as volunteers. It will form part of my Masters studies at Edith Cowan University.

Your input to this research is valuable. I would be pleased if you could spare just **5 minutes** to complete this survey. This is an anonymous questionnaire. Please ensure that you do not write your name, or any other comments that will make you identifiable, on the survey. Please ensure that the attached consent forms are completed and returned with this questionnaire to allow the responses of a volunteer aged under 18 years of age to be considered.

Any questions concerning the project entitled: **Motivations to Volunteer in Selected Service Organisations in Australia** may be directed to the principal researcher, Sonia Langridge, at Edith Cowan University (School of Marketing) on phone: 9400 5708. If you have any concerns about the project or would like to talk to an independent person, you may contact research supervisor, Marie Ryan, at Edith Cowan University on phone: 9273 8291.

I thank you for your time.

Sonia Langridge

December, 2001

Please answer *all* questions in Sections A & B. Section C is optional.

SECTION A: Background Information

Please tick or circle the correct response as it relates to you personally. All responses will remain anonymous.

1. **Gender:** ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Age:**
   - ☐ under 16
   - ☐ 16-24
   - ☐ 25-34
   - ☐ 35-44
   - ☐ 45-54
   - ☐ 55-64
   - ☐ 65 or over

3. What is your **marital status:**
   - ☐ single, never married
   - ☐ married/de facto relationship
   - ☐ separated
   - ☐ divorced
   - ☐ widowed

4. Do you have **school-aged children** (i.e. preschool - year 12)? ☐ Yes ☐ No
   If yes, please indicate **how many** school-aged children: _____

SECTION A (cont.)

Please tick or circle the correct response as it relates to you personally.

5. Which category best reflects your **employment status**?

☐ student (full-time)
☐ employed, full-time
☐ employed, part-time
☐ homemaker (not in labour force)
☐ retired
☐ unemployed

6. Please indicate the highest level of **formal education** you have attained:

☐ some high school
☐ completed high school
☐ post-high school education
☐ completed university

7. Please indicate which category best describes the **total annual income** of your immediate household.

☐ less than $10,000
☐ $10,000 - $29,999
☐ $30,000 -$49,999
☐ $50,000 - $59,999
☐ $60,000 - $69,999
☐ more than $70,000

Thank you for completing this background information. Please proceed to Section B.

SECTION B: Volunteer Work

Following are 30 possible reasons for volunteering.
Please indicate how important or accurate *each* of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation (i.e. do not consider your reasons for volunteering for *other* organisations).

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My friends volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B (cont.)

Please indicate how important or accurate each of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation.

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
6. People I know share an interest in community service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. No matter how bad I'm feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B (cont.)

Please indicate how important or accurate each of these reasons was in encouraging you to do volunteer work for this organisation.

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
21. Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Not at all important/ accurate						Extremely important/ accurate
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I can explore my own strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: (optional)

Do you wish to add any other reasons that encouraged you to volunteer for this organisation?

....

....

....

Thank you very much for your participation.

Please leave this form at your organisation for collection, or hand to the researcher.

Appendix C Research Sample

Appendix C1 Rotary International

There are over 1.2 million Rotarians, members of some 31,000 Rotary clubs in more than 160 countries (*Rotary International: About Rotary*, 2003). Rotary is organised at club, district and international levels to carry out its program of service. Rotarians are members of their clubs, and the clubs are members of the global organisation, Rotary International (*Rotary International: Administration*, 2003). Established in 1905, Rotary permitted women to join the organisation (at each club's discretion) only in 1989 (Niven, 1994).

The main objective of Rotary is service—in the community, in the workplace, and throughout the world. Rotary programs are intended to meet community needs, whether to promote literacy, help the elderly or disabled, combat urban violence or provide opportunities for local youth. Rotarians worldwide are committed to the global eradication of polio and by Rotary's centenary year in 2005 aim to certify the world polio-free (*Rotary International: About Rotary*, 2003).

Membership to Rotary is by invitation and the classification principle and rigorous selection process strives to ensure that each club is representative of the community's business, vocational, and professional interests. Such a cross-section of businesses, professions and institutions establishes the pool of resources, expertise and motivated individuals necessary to implement Rotary's programs of service (Rotary International, 1968; *Rotary International: Becoming a Rotarian*, 2003; "The Rotary spirit," 1994).

Appendix C2 Home and Community Care (HACC)

The Home and Community Care Program (HACC) aims to assist frail older people and younger people with disabilities to continue living in their own homes (Home and Community Care, 1993). The HACC program funds a wide range of organisations that provide a range of services that support its goals, including meals and other food services, domestic assistance, transport and nursing care, (*Home and Community Care (HACC) Program*, 2000). The organisations surveyed for the present study all receive HACC funding, but differ in their independence from government. In contrast to the situation in the eastern states of Australia, Meals on Wheels in Western Australia is most commonly operated by local councils, such as the surveyed organisations of City of Subiaco and City of Stirling. These local government bodies in turn rely on volunteers to deliver the meals/provide services. The League of Help for the Elderly (Inc.) is an example of a community organisation independent of local government in its operation, but supported by funding from the HACC program and local government.

In the other states of Australia, most Meals on Wheels and Food Service organisations are autonomous, run by local Management Committees made up from community representatives (*Our members: Who runs Meals on Wheels?*, 2003). It is less common for these services to be operated by local councils than is the case in Western Australia.

Meals on Wheels and Food Services organisations in each state are generally represented by their peak State body, which in turn are members of the national body, the Australian Meals on Wheels Association (*Australian Meals on Wheels Association: Our members*, 2003).

Appendix C3 Surf Life Saving Australia

Australia led the world in establishing surf lifesaving clubs (Bruce, 1992) and surf lifesavers are considered an integral part of the Australian culture. Surf lifesaving began in Australia in the early 1900s, with women having the right to full membership only since 1980 (Bruce, 1992). Demand for surf lifesaving services has increased due to factors such as real estate development in outlying areas, growth of coastal resorts and the tourist industry, the popularity of a greater variety of aquatic recreational pursuits, and increased mid week usage of beaches due to changes to hours of work (*Services - Lifeguards*, 2002).

Surf lifesaving programs are achieved through the coordinated efforts of over 260 volunteer clubs with some 80,000 members Australia-wide (*SLSQ: Profile*, 2000). These clubs are represented by their State surf lifesaving organisation, which operates under the auspices of the national body, Surf Life Saving Australia. Funding for these programs is received largely from state government bodies, special grants, business sponsorship and membership fees. Volunteer services may also be supplemented by the use of contract lifeguards, often funded by local government authorities or local business to ensure the safety of beach patrons outside the usual volunteer patrol times of weekends and public holidays [from September/October to March/April] (*About lifeguarding*, n.d.; *Services - Lifeguards*, 2002).

Surf Life Saving Australia offers membership to both males and females from the age of 7 years. Members aged 7 to 13 (*nippers*) learn surf safety, board paddling, basic resuscitation and first aid, and may compete in national competitions. Surf lifesavers aged between 13 and 15 years may assist on beach patrol, although they are not expected to be involved in life threatening rescues. From the age of 15 years, a surf lifesaver may train for the Surf Life Saving Bronze Medallion, enabling active and full participation in patrols and competition in senior carnivals (*All you need to know about Surf Lifesaving: Membership categories*, 2002).

Appendix D Analysis of the Volunteer Functions Inventory

Table D1

Rotary Sub-Group Rotated Component Matrix (Principal Component Analysis, Orthogonal [Varimax] Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, Six Factors Specified) for VFI Items

		Factor					
	VFI Scale and Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1: Ego							
5.	Volunteering makes me feel important.	.62					
7.	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	.59					
9.	By volunteering I feel less lonely.	.52					
11.	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	.66					
13.	Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	.68					
20.	Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	.64					
24.	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.74					
26.	Volunteering makes me feel needed.	.73					
27.	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	.76					
29.	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.			.64			
Factor 2: Career							
1.	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.		.83				
10.	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.		.79				
15.	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.		.78				
21.	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.		.85				
28.	Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.		.78				
Factor 3: Understanding							
12.	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.						.58
14.	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.			.78			
18.	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.			.68			
25.	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.			.60			
30.	I can explore my own strengths.			.68			
Factor 4: Social							
2.	My friends volunteer.				.71		
4.	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.				.71		
6.	People I know share an interest in community service.				.56		
17.	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.				.71		
23.	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.				.71		
Factor 5: Values							
3.	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.					.66	
8.	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.						.81
16.	I feel compassion toward people in need.					.68	
19.	I feel it is important to help others.					.78	
22.	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.					.54	

Note: Shaded rows indicate items that have loaded in a different manner to that predicted by Clary et al. (1998).

Table D2

HACC Sub-Group Rotated Component Matrix (Principal Component Analysis, Orthogonal [Varimax] Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, Six Factors Specified) for VFI Items

	Factor					
VFI Scale and Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1: Ego						
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.	.62					
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	.58		.56			
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	.74					
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.						.83
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	.60					
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	.70					
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.82					
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	.69					
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	.60					
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	.49					
Factor 2: Career						
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.		.76				
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.		.89				
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.		.78				
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.		.88				
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.		.86				
Factor 3: Understanding						
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.			.68			
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.			.68			
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.			.81			
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.			.75			
30. I can explore my own strengths.			.52			
Factor 4: Values						
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.				.85		
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.				.79		
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.				.82		
19. I feel it is important to help others.				.48		
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.				.76		
Factor 5: Social						
2. My friends volunteer.					.81	
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.					.77	
6. People I know share an interest in community service.					.70	
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.					.74	
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.					.47	

Note: Shaded rows indicate items that have loaded in a different manner to that predicted by Clary et al. (1998).

Table D3

Surf Life Sub-Group Rotated Component Matrix (Principal Component Analysis, Orthogonal [Varimax] Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, Six Factors Specified) for VFI Items

VFI Scale and Items	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1: Values						
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	.54					
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	.72					
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.	.72					
19. I feel it is important to help others.	.74					
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	.78					
Factor 2: Career						
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.		.75				
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.		.74				
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.		.72				
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.		.72				
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my résumé.		.58				.60
Factor 3: Enhancement						
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.				.62		
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.			.54			
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.			.71			
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.			.73			
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.						.77
Factor 4: Protective						
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.				.62		
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.				.60		
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.		.60				
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.			.64			
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.			.71			
Factor 5: Social						
2. My friends volunteer.					.81	
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.					.57	
6. People I know share an interest in community service.					.61	
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	.49				.45	
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.					.62	
Factor 6: Understanding						
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	.62					
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	.60					
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	.54					.49
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	.50					
30. I can explore my own strengths.						.66

Note: Shaded rows indicate items that have loaded in a different manner to that predicted by Clary et al. (1998).

Table D4

One-Way ANOVA between Sample Sub-Groups

Variable		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	F	Sig.
Ego motive	Between groups	50.349	2	25.175	12.077	.000
	Within groups	735.819	353	2.084		
	Total	786.168	355			
Values motive	Between groups	47.025	2	23.513	15.653	.000
	Within groups	537.769	358	1.502		
	Total	584.795	360			
Social motive	Between groups	69.422	2	34.711	17.496	.000
	Within groups	692.376	349	1.984		
	Total	761.798	351			
Career motive	Between groups	296.126	2	148.063	73.721	.000
	Within groups	686.880	342	2.008		
	Total	983.006	344			
Understanding motive	Between groups	131.505	2	65.753	30.193	.000
	Within groups	770.929	354	2.178		
	Total	902.434	356			

Appendix E Discriminant Analysis

Table E1

Classification Results of Three-Group Discriminant Analysis

			Predicted group membership			
		Group surveyed	Rotary	Surf Life	HACC	Total
Original	Count	Rotary	61	17	39	117
		Surf Life	12	105	9	126
		HACC	16	6	57	79
	%	Rotary	52.1	14.5	33.3	100.0
		Surf Life	9.5	83.3	7.1	100.0
		HACC	20.3	7.6	72.2	100.0

69.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified

Table E2

Calculation of Chance Criteria for Classification

Maximum chance criteria

Rotary: 117/322 = 36.4%

Surf Life 126/322 = 39.1%

HACC 79/322 = 24.5%

$C_{MAX} = 39.1\%$

Proportional chance criteria

$C_{PRO} = p_1^2 + p_2^2 + p_3^2$

$C_{PRO} = 0.364^2 + 0.391^2 + 0.245^2$

$C_{PRO} = 0.343$ or 34.3%

Table E3

Group Means (Centroids) of Canonical Discriminant Functions

Group	Discriminant function centroids	
	Function 1	Function 2
Rotary	.591	-.361
Surf Life	-1.301	.082
HACC	1.200	.404

Appendix F Cluster Analysis

Table F1

Analysis of Agglomeration Coefficient for Hierarchical Cluster Analysis

Number of clusters	Agglomeration coefficient	Percentage change in coefficient to next level
10	576.082	5.5%
9	607.745	1.1%
8	614.302	10.0%
7	675.995	8.1%
6	730.912	9.7%
5	802.039	10.4%
4	885.281	12.5%
3	995.834	19.2%
2	1186.811	35.2%
1	1605.000	–

Table F2

One-Way ANOVA between Cluster Groups

Variable		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	F	Sig.
Factor 1:	Between groups	130.523	1	130.523	219.277	.000
Ego motive	Within groups	190.477	320	.595		
	Total	321.000	321			
Factor 2:	Between groups	11.749	1	11.749	12.158	.001
Values motive	Within groups	309.251	320	.966		
	Total	321.000	321			
Factor 3:	Between groups	81.985	1	81.985	109.764	.000
Social motive	Within groups	239.015	320	.747		
	Total	321.000	321			
Factor 4:	Between groups	166.913	1	166.913	346.636	.000
Career motive	Within groups	154.087	320	.482		
	Total	321.000	321			
Factor 5:	Between groups	27.018	1	27.018	29.410	.000
Understanding	Within groups	293.982	320	.919		
motive	Total	321.000	321			

Table F3

Independent Samples Test for Two-group Cluster Solution

Variable		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference
		t-test for equality of means			
Ego motive	Equal variances not assumed	17.272	247.257	.000	2.0085
Values motive	Equal variances assumed	4.305	320	.000	.6217
Social motive	Equal variances not assumed	12.699	255.100	.000	1.6952
Career motive	Equal variances assumed	19.270	320	.000	2.6062
Understanding motive	Equal variances assumed	13.865	320	.000	2.0165

Table F4

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Age

Crosstabulation

Age		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Total
34 years and under	Count	66	39	105
	% within gender	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%
	% within cluster	57.9%	18.9%	32.8%
	% of total	20.6%	12.2%	32.8%
35-54 years	Count	28	70	98
	% within gender	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	24.6%	34.0%	30.6%
	% of total	8.8%	21.9%	30.6%
55 years and over	Count	20	97	117
	% within gender	17.1%	82.9%	100.0%
	% within cluster	17.5%	47.1%	36.6%
	% of total	6.3%	30.3%	36.6%
Total	Count	114	206	320
	% within gender	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	53.598[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	53.961	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	49.591	1	.000
N of valid cases	320		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34.91.

Table F5

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Marital Status

Crosstabulation

Marital status		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Total
Single	Count	64	41	105
	% within gender	61.0%	39.0%	100.0%
	% within cluster	56.1%	19.9%	32.8%
	% of total	20.0%	12.8%	32.8%
Married/de facto	Count	39	139	178
	% within gender	21.9%	78.1%	100.0%
	% within cluster	34.2%	67.5%	55.6%
	% of total	12.2%	43.4%	55.6%
Separated/divorced	Count	7	16	23
	% within gender	30.4%	69.6%	100.0%
	% within cluster	6.1%	7.8%	7.2%
	% of total	2.2%	5.0%	7.2%
Widowed	Count	4	10	14
	% within gender	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	3.5%	4.9%	4.4%
	% of total	1.3%	3.1%	4.4%
Total	Count	114	206	320
	% within gender	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.543[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.113	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	22.017	1	.000
N of valid cases	320		

a. 1 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.99.

Table F6

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Presence of School-Age Children in Household

Crosstabulation

		Cluster		
School-age children		1	2	Total
Yes	Count	14	47	61
	% within gender	23.0%	77.0%	100.0%
	% within cluster	12.3%	22.8%	19.1%
	% of Total	4.4%	14.7%	19.1%
No	Count	100	159	259
	% within gender	38.6%	61.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	87.7%	77.2%	80.9%
	% of total	31.3%	49.7%	80.9%
Total	Count	114	206	320
	% within gender	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)	Exact sig. (2-sided)	Exact sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.279[b]	1	.022		
Continuity Correction[a]	4.618	1	.032		
Likelihood Ratio	5.577	1	.018		
Fisher's Exact Test				.025	.014
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	5.262	1	.022		
N of valid cases	320				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table.

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.73.

Table F7

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Employment Status

Crosstabulation

		Cluster		
Employment status		1	2	Total
Student	Count	28	12	40
	% within gender	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%
	% within cluster	24.6%	5.8%	12.5%
	% of total	8.7%	3.7%	12.5%
Full-time employed	Count	50	85	135
	% within gender	37.0%	63.0%	100.0%
	% within cluster	43.9%	41.1%	42.1%
	% of total	15.6%	26.5%	42.1%
Part-time employed	Count	18	21	39
	% within gender	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
	% within cluster	15.8%	10.1%	12.1%
	% of total	5.6%	6.5%	12.1%
Homemaker	Count	3	14	17
	% within gender	17.6%	82.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	2.6%	6.8%	5.3%
	% of total	.9%	4.4%	5.3%
Retired	Count	9	70	79
	% within gender	11.4%	88.6%	100.0%
	% within cluster	7.9%	33.8%	24.6%
	% of total	2.8%	21.8%	24.6%
Unemployed	Count	6	10	14
	% within gender	54.5%	45.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	5.3%	2.4%	3.4%
	% of total	1.9%	1.6%	3.4%
Total	Count	114	207	321
	% within gender	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	47.017[a]	5	.000
Likelihood Ratio	49.956	5	.000
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	24.926	1	.000
N of valid cases	321		

a.1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.91.

Table F8

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Annual Household Income

Crosstabulation

		Cluster		
Household income		1	2	Total
Less than A$10,000	Count	13	10	23
	% within gender	56.5%	43.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	11.7%	5.1%	7.5%
	% of total	4.2%	3.3%	7.5%
A$10,000-A$49,999	Count	34	52	86
	% within gender	39.5%	60.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	30.6%	26.5%	28.0%
	% of total	11.1%	16.9%	28.0%
A$50,000-A$69,999	Count	30	40	70
	% within gender	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%
	% within cluster	27.0%	20.4%	22.8%
	% of total	9.8%	13.0%	22.8%
A$70,000 and over	Count	34	10	14
	% within gender	26.6%	73.4%	100.0%
	% within cluster	30.6%	48.0%	41.7%
	% of total	11.1%	30.6%	41.7%
Total	Count	111	196	307
	% within gender	36.2%	63.8%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	36.2%	63.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.023[a]	3	.012
Likelihood Ratio	11.035	3	.012
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	8.509	1	.004
N of valid cases	307		

a.0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.32.

Table F9

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Volunteer Sub-Group

Crosstabulation

		Cluster		
Sub-group		1	2	Total
Rotary	Count	27	90	117
	% within gender	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	% within cluster	23.7%	43.3%	36.3%
	% of total	8.4%	28.0%	36.3%
Surf Life	Count	77	49	126
	% within gender	61.1%	38.9%	100.0%
	% within cluster	67.5%	23.6%	39.1%
	% of total	23.9%	15.2%	39.1%
HACC	Count	10	69	79
	% within gender	12.7%	87.3%	100.0%
	% within cluster	8.8%	33.2%	24.5%
	% of total	3.1%	21.4%	24.5%
Total	Count	114	208	322
	% within gender	35.4%	64.6%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.4%	64.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	62.056[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	63.721	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	.286	1	.593
N of valid cases	322		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.97.

Table F10

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Gender

Crosstabulation

Gender		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Total
Male	Count	73	143	216
	% within gender	33.8%	66.2%	100.0%
	% within cluster	64.0%	69.1%	67.3%
	% of total	22.7%	44.5%	67.3%
Female	Count	41	64	105
	% within gender	39.0%	61.0%	100.0%
	% within cluster	36.0%	30.9%	32.7%
	% of total	12.8%	19.9%	32.7%
Total	Count	114	207	321
	% within gender	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)	Exact sig. (2-sided)	Exact sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.851[b]	1	.356		
Continuity Correction[a]	.637	1	.425		
Likelihood Ratio	.845	1	.358		
Fisher's Exact Test				.385	.212
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	.848	1	.357		
N of valid cases	321				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table.
b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37.29.

Table F11

Chi-Square Test for Independence: Relationship between Cluster Groups and Level of Education Achieved

Crosstabulation

		Cluster		
Education level		1	2	Total
Some high school	Count	11	20	31
	% within gender	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	9.7%	9.8%	9.7%
	% of total	3.5%	6.3%	9.7%
Completed high school	Count	30	42	72
	% within gender	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%
	% within cluster	26.5%	20.5%	22.6%
	% of total	9.4%	13.2%	22.6%
Post high school	Count	36	62	98
	% within gender	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%
	% within cluster	31.9%	30.2%	30.8%
	% of total	11.3%	19.5%	30.8%
Completed university	Count	36	81	117
	% within gender	30.8%	69.2%	100.0%
	% within cluster	31.9%	39.5%	36.8%
	% of total	11.3%	25.5%	36.8%
Total	Count	113	205	318
	% within gender	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%
	% within cluster	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of total	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.403[a]	3	.493
Likelihood Ratio	2.403	3	.493
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	1.383	1	.240
N of valid cases	318		

a.0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.02.