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VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, AND CONTINUANCE: THE ROLE OF TRAINING

A Thesis

Presented to

The Department of Psychology

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Pamela M. Wells

December 2005

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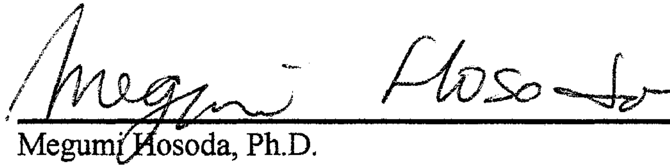

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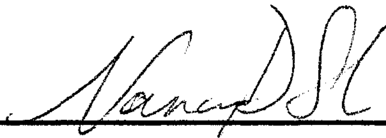

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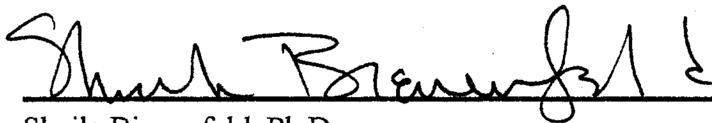

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ABSTRACT

VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, AND CONTINUANCE: THE ROLE OF TRAINING

by Pamela M. Wells

Due to the dearth in the research investigating the role of training in volunteer organizations, this study, using data from a questionnaire issued to 84 volunteers from a large non-profit organization, tested the hypotheses that training components (i.e., reaction, knowledge retention, and transfer) would predict volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer, over and above altruistic motivation. Results indicated that only training reaction predicted volunteer satisfaction, over and above altruistic motivation. Results also showed that altruistic motivation predicted both volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. This study emphasizes the importance of investigating the role of training in volunteer organizations. Implications of the findings are also discussed.

Dedication

To Megumi Hosoda, for all her hard work and patience with me through this educational, yet sometimes trying, process; to Nancy Da Silva, for her leadership role, her creative guidance, her organization and wisdom, without which I would not have remained on track; to Sheila Bienenfeld who, when I lost my third reader, stepped up so that I could finish the project; and finally, to my husband, Michael Wells, and my sons Jason and Corey, your patience, support and understanding helped me get through. I am grateful to you all.

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Introduction

Each decade since the 1950s has seen an increase in the number of nonprofit organizations (Internal Revenue Service, 2003). As of May 2004, there were an estimated 1.8 million nonprofit organizations registered with the Internal Revenue Service of the United States (Internal Revenue Service, 2005). A nonprofit entity can be broadly defined as an organization that serves a societal purpose of providing public or mutual benefit for reasons other than that of making a profit ("What is a Non-Profit?", n.d.). Funding for a nonprofit organization comes from various sources, but typically, a nonprofit organization is funded through private, corporate, or foundation donations ("Hidden Resources", 2000). Because donations may not be received on a consistent basis, nonprofit organizations usually operate under the constraints of tight budgets, and therefore, they need to rely on the work of volunteers to carry out operations (Bowen, Andersen, & Urban, 2000).

Not only are volunteers essential to the operations of non-profit organizations, they also perform duties for establishments that are for-profit, such as sports, health, educational, and civic organizations (Boraas, 2003). In fact, volunteers make up a major part of the entire labor force (nonprofit and for-profit sectors), with approximately 59 million people (27 % of civilian, non-institutional population) in the United States donating their time volunteering (Boraas, 2003).

In 2004, the estimated dollar value of volunteer time was $17.55 per hour, totaling an annual dollar value estimated to be $272 billion (Independent Sector, 2005). Collectively, the aforementioned facts and statistics highlight the great contribution that

volunteers make to American communities, and the importance of volunteerism in American society as a whole.

Volunteerism can be defined as the act of providing personal resources (e.g., time, energy, money) to help others without receiving monetary compensation (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Elshaug & Metzer, 2001). As mentioned previously, many nonprofit organizations rely on volunteers to carry out the daily activities of operation (Bowen et al., 2000). To the extent that an organization relies on volunteers to operate, volunteers can be considered a valuable source of human capital (Flamholtz, Bullen, & Hua, 2003).

Within any organization, maintaining and increasing the value of its human capital can be accomplished through many strategies, one of which is employee training programs (Flamholtz et al., 2003). Not only can a well-constructed training program increase the value of a trainee through providing him or her with the necessary knowledge, skills, information, and attitudes to perform a designated job (Goldstein & Ford, 2002), it also can provide the trainee with the first point of socialization into the organization, as well as help to facilitate his or her organizational commitment and motivation (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). It can be reasonably assumed then that the training a volunteer receives to prepare him or her for a volunteer job can influence the volunteer experience within the organization, and promote organizational commitment. Indeed, research has shown that volunteers who participate in a training program are more committed to the organization and more satisfied with the volunteer experience (Ozminkowski, 1991; Starnes & Wymer, 2001).

Alternatively, volunteers who had not received training for their volunteer job reported being dissatisfied with the volunteer experience (Jamison, 2003).

Considering the monetary value of volunteer time, along with the rate of growth in established non-profit organizations that heavily rely on volunteers, and the potential impact a training program can have on a volunteer and the volunteer experience, one can understand why it becomes an important issue for any organization that relies on volunteers to effectively attract, secure, train, and retain human resources in the form of volunteers.

Much research has examined motivations behind what makes a person volunteer (Bowen, et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Elshaug & Metzer, 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Harrison, 1995; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto, Snyder, & Martino, 2000), and other research has examined why one continues to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Jamison, 2003; Litwin, & Monk, 1984; Nelson, Netting, Huber, & Borders, 2004; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Starnes & Wymer, 2001). Even though some research has found that training is important to a volunteer (Jamison, 2003; Ozminowski, 1991; Starnes & Wymer, 2001), to the author's knowledge, no research has specifically investigated the relationship between training and volunteers. Hence, the purposes of this study are threefold; this study will (a) explore the motivations that serve as antecedents to volunteerism, (b) investigate the consequences of volunteerism (i.e., volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer), and (c) study the role of training in the volunteer experience and its potential relationship with volunteer satisfaction and the

intention to continue volunteering. This research can serve to provide organizations that rely on volunteers with useful information that will help to facilitate effective recruiting, training, and retention of volunteer personnel.

Volunteerism and Motivation

The act of volunteering is comprised of a helping behavior, derived from a personal value system that provides the motivation to act (Batson, Ahmad, & Tsang, 2002). Past research has examined the motivations and attitudes that cause people to volunteer (Bowen et al, 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Elshaug & Metzer, 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Harrison, 1995; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto et al., 2000). For example, some studies have examined different levels of volunteer motivations as a function of variables such as age (Bowen et al., 2000; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto et al., 2000), whereas other studies have examined dispositional factors (e.g., agreeableness, extroversion) (Elshaug & Metzer, 2001; Omoto & Snyder, 1995), and personality traits (e.g., prosocial orientation) (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). One approach used to explain the motivation behind volunteering is what is termed a "functional approach" (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

The functional approach explaining the motivation to volunteer posits that volunteering results from the individual's expectation that the act of volunteering will fulfill a certain function important to the individual (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). A functional approach to understanding motivations is based on research by Katz (1960). Katz (1960) defined values as a hierarchical set of attitudes, and a behavior as a manifestation of an attitude, or an expression of a set of values resulting in an action. Katz proposed a functional approach to understanding attitudes, asserting that attitudes form psychological motivations that serve to fulfill a function of providing psychological benefits to the individual. This suggests that even when people hold the same attitudes,

the function these attitudes fulfill might differ per individual. Similarly, the functional approach to volunteerism suggests that even though attitudes about volunteering may be the same amongst volunteers (e.g., volunteering is important because it helps people in need), the function that the act of volunteerism fulfills may differ per individual (e.g. the psychological benefit of making a contribution to society versus the psychological benefit of gaining a greater understanding of others).

Within the functional framework of volunteer motivations, there are motivational goals that exist for the sole purpose of helping others, as well as motivational goals that serve personal functions. Goals that exist for the primary purpose of helping others cans be thought of as altruistic in nature, and goals that primarily serve to meet personal needs can be thought of as egoistic (Batson et al., 2002; Holmes, Miller, & Lerner, 2002). Although the most commonly reported motivation behind volunteerism is altruistic motivation (Bowen, Andersen, & Urban, 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990), some studies suggest that there may be multiple motivations, comprised of both egoistic and altruistic functions (Batson, 1990; Holmes et al., 2002; Kiviniemi, Snyder, & Omoto, 2002; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). Regardless of what function(s) the motivation behind volunteerism fulfills (altruistic and/or egoistic), to the extent that the act of volunteering benefits others, it can be said that all volunteerism fulfills, at least to some degree, an altruistic function (Pilavian, & Charng, 1990).

Consequences of Volunteerism

Satisfaction and the Continuance to Volunteer

When examining the potential consequences of volunteerism, some research has linked altruistic motivation to the continuance to volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), whereas other research has linked egoistic motivation to the continuance to volunteer (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). In addition, the volunteer experience has been linked to volunteer satisfaction, and volunteer satisfaction has been linked to the continuance to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003; Jamison, 2003; Litwin & Monk, 1984; Nelson, Netting, Huber, & Borders, 2004; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Starnes & Wymer, 2001). Volunteer satisfaction can be defined as the degree to which the volunteer experience meets or exceeds the expectations or valence of the volunteer's motivation within the volunteer organization (Davis et al., 2003; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Starnes & Wymer, 2001), and it has been shown to have a positive relationship with the continuance to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Davis et al., 2003; Jamison, 2003; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Starnes & Wymer, 2001). Similarly, Davis et al. (2003) found that initially, when volunteers experienced motivation fulfillment, they reported being more satisfied, however, after a year of volunteering, motivation fulfillment was no longer related to satisfaction. Perhaps Davis et al's. findings can be explained by Kovacs and Black (1999) who reported that during the volunteer experience, motivations change, which in turn, can have an effect on satisfaction and the continuance to volunteer. Kovacs and Black suggested that one way to address motivational changes (as well as address initial

motivations) is through training. Kovacs and Black submitted that not only can a training program help mitigate a volunteer's initial expectations through presenting a realistic view of the organization and the volunteer job, but an ongoing training program can present the volunteer with additional opportunities to learn and participate within the organization, thereby addressing potential motivational changes. Interestingly, Jamison (2003) found that volunteers entering a volunteer organization already had an expectation that they would receive training. In addition, Jamison's research revealed that 55% of volunteers who had not received any training reported dissatisfaction with the volunteer experience. This research provides evidence that training can be an important factor not only in the volunteer experience, but also in volunteer satisfaction and continuance to volunteer.

Intentions and Behavior

In their study of volunteer decision making, Warburton and Terry (2000) found a strong relationship between one's intention to perform a behavior and the actual behavior. Warburton and Terry's research was based on the theory of planned behavior which, in general, postulates that intention to perform a behavior provides impetus for the actual behavior (Ajzen, 1987). Therefore, with regard to volunteerism, it can be reasonably assumed that the intention to continue volunteering is what motivates one to continue to volunteer. As mentioned previously, because training can be an important factor in the continuance to volunteer, and the continuance to volunteer is preceded by the intention to continue to volunteer, it can be reasonably assumed that training is an

important factor in the intention to continue to volunteer. The following section briefly reviews the literature on training.

Training

Training can be defined as "the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in improved performance in another environment" (Goldstein & Ford, 2002, p.1). Training can be done on-the-job, where the training environment is mostly the same as (or identical to) the job environment, or in a classroom, where the training environment is far removed from the actual job environment (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). As mentioned previously, many training programs serve as the first point of socialization into an organization (Tannenbaum, et al., 1991). Thus, effective training programs can be an important tool in integrating trainees into an organization, helping to shape their attitudes, as well as providing the necessary knowledge, information, and skills that will allow them to be successful in the organization (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Even so, Jamison (2003) reported that most volunteers receive no formal training prior to beginning their volunteer job.

Although a training program can provide knowledge, information, and skills necessary to perform the job, it may not guarantee that what is taught in the training program will be learned and transferred to the job with positive results. According to Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, and Shotland (1997), prior to evaluating the impact a training program has on the organization, training effectiveness can be evaluated on three other levels that pertain to the trainee as an individual: (a) reactions, (b) knowledge retention, and (c) transfer to the job. Reactions are measured immediately following a training program and can include initial emotional responses, judgments of utility, or a combination of both (Alliger et al.). Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and

Cannon-Bowers, (1991) found that trainee reactions and training fulfillment (i.e., the degree to which the training meets the trainee's expectations) had a positive relationship with post-training organizational commitment. Alliger et al. report that trainee reactions are the most common form of evaluating a training program, and although trainee reactions are important in evaluating the effectiveness of a training program, they do not ascertain whether learning has occurred.

Learning can be defined as "declarative or procedural knowledge," and consists of three components (Alliger et al., 1997, p. 345). The first component of learning is immediate knowledge. Immediate knowledge is usually assessed using a paper and pencil measure that is administered directly after the training material is presented. The second component of learning is knowledge retention. Knowledge retention is assessed at some established time after the training and with the purpose of measuring how much knowledge has been retained from the original training (Alliger et al., 1997). For example, in the case of first aid training, a test could be administered directly after the training to test if immediate knowledge has occurred, and another test could be issued one month following the training to examine if the knowledge has been retained. The third component of learning is change of behavior. Change of behavior is usually assessed through some sort of simulation (Alliger et al., 1997). Similar to the first two components of learning, change of behavior can be measured directly after the training, and/or at some future time following the training. However, the change of behavior should not be confused with training transfer. The transfer of training incorporates the

change in behavior, however, it is the behavior change applied to the job (Alliger et al., 1997).

Transfer of training can be defined as the behavior change that results when learning has occurred and is transferred to the job (Alliger et al., 1997, Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanaugh, 1995). Although learning is requisite to the transfer of training, it does not necessarily guarantee the transfer of training. The transfer of training can occur only if the trainee has learned, and possesses the capacity and willingness to perform (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000).

Research has found that trainees' pre-training attitudes, motivation, and commitment are related to post-training attitudes, motivation, and commitment to the organization (Colquitt et al., 2000; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Tracey et al., 1995). Specifically, the extent to which a training program meets the desires and expectations of the trainee, post-training organizational commitment will occur, as well as positive post-training attitudes (Tannenbaum et al, 1991). Organizational commitment is comprised of three factors, one of which is the desire to remain with the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

As mentioned previously, altruism is the most frequently reported motivation behind volunteerism (Bowen et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990) and motivation fulfillment within the volunteer experience is related to volunteer satisfaction and the continuance to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Davis et al., 2003; Jamison, 2003; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Starnes & Wymer, 2001). In addition, inasmuch as altruism is a motivation to

volunteer, it can also be considered a pre-training motivation for a volunteer job. As mentioned previously, research shows that pre-training motivation (altruistic motivation in this study) can lead to post-training motivation and commitment to the organization (including the desire to remain within the organization) (Tannenbaum, et al., 1991), and the lack of training has a positive relationship with volunteer dissatisfaction (Jamison, 2003). Hence, it is reasonable to assume that training fulfillment might have a greater impact, above and beyond altruistic motivation, upon volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer because training serves to firmly integrate a trainee into the organization and can lead to post-training desire to remain with the organization (Tannenbaum, et al.). Thus, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1: Reaction to training will predict volunteer satisfaction above and beyond altruistic motivation.

H2: Knowledge retention from training will predict volunteer satisfaction above and beyond altruistic motivation.

H3: Transfer of training will predict volunteer satisfaction above and beyond altruistic motivation.

H4: Reaction to training will predict continuance to volunteer above and beyond altruistic motivation.

H5: Knowledge retention from training will predict continuance to volunteer above and beyond altruistic motivation.

H6: Transfer of training will predict continuance to volunteer above and beyond altruistic motivation.

Summary

In sum, because training, as it relates to volunteerism, has not been well-examined in the existing literature, this study will examine the relationship between three specific components of training (a) how a volunteer reacts to training, (b) the knowledge the volunteer retains from training, and (c) the transfer of training onto the volunteer job, with two volunteer outcomes (a) volunteer satisfaction and (b) the intention to continue to volunteer, in an effort to provide a theoretical basis for further training research in volunteer organizations.

Method

Participants

Out of approximately 300 volunteers working within a large non-profit organization in Northern California, 160, serving 12 different programs and services, participated in the present study. Of the 160 respondents, 84 participants indicated that they had received training, about 53% of the sample. Thus, approximately 47% of volunteers reported having not received any training for their volunteer job, and therefore, their data were not analyzed for this study.

Of the 84 volunteers used for the study, 30% (n = 25) were between the ages of 18 and 31 years, 8.3% (n = 7) were between the ages of 32 and 42, 8.3% (n = 7) were between the ages of 43 and 53, 19% (n = 16) were between the ages of 54 and 64, and 31% (n = 26) were 65 years and over. Three volunteers declined to state their age category. In sum, most of the volunteers were either in the youngest age category or the oldest age category. Twenty-five percent of the respondents were male (n = 21) and 74% of the respondents were female (n = 62). One respondent did not state his or her gender. 49% (n = 41) of the respondents were retirees. Of the respondents who were not retired, 12% (n = 10) worked full-time outside of their volunteer job and 26% (n = 22) worked part-time outside of their volunteer job. Nine participants did not respond to whether or not they worked outside their volunteer job.

Measures

Altruistic motivation. Altruistic motivation was measured by three items. These items ("I feel it is important to help others," "I feel compassion toward people in need,"

and "I am genuinely concerned about others") were from The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary, et al., 1998), which was designed to assess the motivations for volunteerism. The VFI consists of six functions (or factors) that can be fulfilled through volunteerism (*protective, career, social, understanding, enhancement, values)*, and contains a total of five items designed to measure altruistic motivation (*values*) specifically. Because of the length of this study's questionnaire, two items (out of the original five designed to measure altruistic motivation) were excluded. The excluded items were those with the lowest factor loadings, according to Clary et al. The VFI's use in research has yielded both good internal consistencies (α .75 to α .89) and good test-retest reliabilities (Allison, Okun, & Dutridge, 2002; Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). For the present study, the wording of the last item was changed to include the name of the organization so that the survey would be more personalized and better address the volunteer audience (i.e., "I am genuinely concerned about others at *organization name*"). Respondents were asked to rate each item on how accurately the statement reflected how they felt, using a 5 point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all accurate,* 5 = *extremely accurate*). The Cronbach's alpha for the altruistic motivation scale in this present study was .71. Scores for the items were summed and averaged. The higher the score, the more the respondent was altruistically motivated.

Training reaction. Because of the lack of validated instruments available to measure training components, four items were developed specifically for this study and were designed to measure reactions that volunteers had had to the previously received training (e.g., "The clarity to which the training material was communicated"). A

complete list of items can be found in the Appendix. Respondents were asked to rate their reactions to each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all satisfied*, 5 = *extremely satisfied*). Cronbach's alpha for the reaction scale was .93. All reaction items scores were summed and averaged. A higher score indicated that the respondents reacted with more satisfaction to the training.

Knowledge retention. Three items were developed specifically for this study to measure self-report of knowledge retention (e.g., "I feel I have mastered the material presented at *organization name* training"). A complete list of items can be found in the Appendix. Respondents were asked to rate, on a 5-point Likert-type scale, how much they agreed with each item (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The alpha coefficient for this study was .85. All knowledge retention items were summed and averaged. The higher the score, the more strongly the respondent felt that they had retained knowledge from the training.

Transfer of training. Three items were developed specifically for this study to measure self-perception of the transfer of training (e.g., "I am performing the job exactly how I was trained to do it). A complete list of items can be found in the Appendix. Again, respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale, how much they agreed with each item (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The alpha coefficient for this study was .76. All transfer of training items were summed and averaged. The higher the score, the more the respondent perceived transfer of training.

To examine whether three training factors could be extracted, as was hypothesized, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on all the training items.

Varimax rotation was chosen, forced to a three factor solution. Indeed, three factors were extracted and 79% of the total variance was explained. Factor loadings are presented in Table 1.

Volunteer satisfaction. Volunteer satisfaction was measured using the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI) (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The VSI contains 22 items and assesses volunteer satisfaction on four dimensions, organizational support, participation efficacy, empowerment, and group integration (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley). For this study, seven items were from the VSI to measure two dimensions of volunteer satisfaction: communication and group integration. Even though the dimensions of the VSI do not include communication, there are three items within the organizational support dimension that focus directly on communication (e.g., "The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing"); those were the items used to measure communication in this study. With regard to group integration, the VSI contains a total of four items that make up the group integration dimension. For this study, four items were also used to measure group integration, however only two of the items were from the group integration dimension of the VSI, with the wording slightly altered to reflect the name of the agency in which the volunteers were working (e.g., "My relationship with other volunteers at *organization name.*"). The other two items for this study were derivations of the aforementioned referenced VSI item, in order to address additional group member relationships relevant to the organization (e.g., "My relationship with paid staff at *organization name*"). Two of the original items measuring group integration from the VSI were not chosen because conceptually, they were

Table 1

Scale Items and Factor Loadings for Volunteer Satisfaction Scales

Scales and items	Factor 1	Factor 2
Communication		
The flow of communication coming to me from paid staff and board members.	.72	.48
The amount of information I receive about what *organization name* is doing.	.72	.54
The degree to which *organization name* communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.	.73	.54
Group Integration		
My relationship with other volunteers at *organization name.*	.80	
My relationship with paid staff at *organization name.*	.80	
My relationship with customers of *organization name.*	.59	
The friendships I have made while volunteering here.	.77	
Volunteer Satisfaction		
All in all, my volunteer experience at *organization name.*	.85	
In general, my volunteer job at *organization name.*	.80	
In general, working at *organization name.*	.81	

Note: Loadings derived from confirmatory factor analysis using the Principle Component Analysis extraction method

irrelevant to the organization. Finally, The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983) contains a total of three items designed to assess the dimension of overall volunteer satisfaction. For this study, those three items were used, albeit they were slightly altered to reflect the name of the organization (e.g., "All in all, my volunteer experience at *organization name.*"). For each item, respondents were instructed to rate the degree of satisfaction on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all satisfied*, 5 = *extremely satisfied*). A complete list of items for volunteer satisfaction can be found in the Appendix. For this study, Cronbach's alpha was .91. All items were summed and averaged. The higher the score, the more satisfied the respondent was with their volunteer experience.

In order to confirm whether three factors could be extracted for volunteer satisfaction, an exploratory factor analysis using Varimax rotation was conducted on all volunteer satisfaction items. Results showed that only two factors were extracted explaining 71% of the total variance. The first factor extracted explained 58% of the variance; however, the second factor explained only an additional 13% of the variance. In addition, the communication items were the only items loading onto the second factor, but curiously, they were also loading onto the first factor. Hence, because the communication items were the only items loading onto factor two, and because their factor loadings on factor one were higher than their loadings on factor two, the decision was made to merge all satisfaction items into one scale measuring volunteer satisfaction. Factor loadings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Scale Items and Factor Loadings for Training Scales

Scales and items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Training Reaction			
The clarity to which the training material was communicated	.73		
The extent to which the training prepared me for my job at...	.90		
The amount of information received at the training	.89		
The pace of the training material presented	.86		
Knowledge Retention			
I feel I have mastered the material presented at...training		.81	
I believe I have retained what I received during training at...		.79	
If tested today, I would be able to demonstrate what I learned from...training		.83	
Transfer of Training			
I am using the skills I learned in training to do my job at...			.82
I am using the information I received in training to do my job at...			.82
I am performing my job exactly as I was trained to do it			.70

Note: Loadings derived from confirmatory factor analysis using the Principle Component Analysis extraction method

Intention to continue to volunteer. Items measuring intention to continue to volunteer were from The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983) where two items were selected from a three item scale designed to measure intention to turnover. In her research, Jamison (2003) demonstrated that turnover (leaving the organization) was the opposite of retention (remaining in the organization), therefore, the two items for this study were reworded to reflect intention to remain as opposed to intention to leave (e.g., "I will continue volunteering at *organization name.*" and "It is unlikely that I will quit volunteering soon"). The third item from the original scale was not used due to a poor conceptual fit with the organization. Respondents were asked to rate, on a 5 point Likert type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*), the likelihood of continuing to volunteer. The correlation between these two items was $r = .43$ ($p < .01$).

Procedure

Questionnaires were completed over a period of three weeks. Completion of the questionnaire was strictly voluntary, thus was not a requirement of the organization. Volunteers, reporting for their normal volunteer duty, were asked if they would participate in a survey to assess volunteerism within the organization, and in return, they would be entered into a drawing to win either a first place prize of a professional Sonicare™ toothbrush, second place, a box of Sees™ candy, or third place, a $10 gift card to Starbucks™ coffee. Willing volunteers were ushered to an area where they were given the option to either complete the survey with a pencil and paper or online. All participants were given an informed consent to read and sign before responding to the

questionnaire. The participants were told not to put their name on the questionnaire in order to insure anonymity. In addition, the participants were informed that all the data collected would be kept confidential. Participants were told that if desired, they could terminate their participation at any time during the procedure. Furthermore, they were instructed to complete the survey alone, and to ask questions of the proctor only, if they needed further clarification on anything. Following the survey, volunteers were debriefed and given a raffle ticket to keep until the drawing for the prizes took place, one week following the finish of data collection.

Results

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the measured variables are presented in Table 3. As can be seen in the table, participants scored high on altruistic motivation (M = 4.6). Additionally, on average, respondents' reactions to training indicated that they were moderately to very satisfied with the training they had received (M = 3.6), and somewhat agreed that they had retained the knowledge they had received in training (M = 3.6). With regard to transfer of training, respondents somewhat agreed that they were transferring what they had learned in training to the job (M = 3.9). Finally, respondents reported that they were very satisfied with their overall volunteer experience (M = 3.9), and they indeed intended to continue to volunteer (M = 4.0).

The examination of the correlations among the measured variables revealed that volunteer satisfaction had positive relationships with all the variables except gender (r =.08 to .71), and intention to continue to volunteer had positive relationships with all the variables except gender and training reaction (r = -.04 to .44). Gender was not significantly related to any of the other variables. With regard to training, the three components were moderately related to one another. Training reaction showed the strongest relationship with volunteer satisfaction.

Tests of Hypotheses

All the hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analyses. Table 4 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis predicting volunteer satisfaction (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3). At step one, two demographic variables, age and gender, were entered as control variables. At step two, altruistic motivation was entered and at step

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations for all Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age[a]	-	-	-							
2. Gender	1.8[b]	.44	-.15	-						
3. Altruistic Motivation	4.6	.52	.28*	.18	(.71)					
4. Reaction	3.6	.79	.20	.15	.34**	(.93)				
5. Knowledge Retention	3.6	.71	.31**	-.05	.13	.47**	(.85)			
6. Transfer of Training	3.9	.74	.11	.10	.26*	.63**	.58**	(.76)		
7. Volunteer Satisfaction	3.9	.72	.34**	.08	.44**	.71**	.44**	.42**	(.91)	
8. Intention to Continue	4.0	.97	.39**	-.04	.34**	.19	.43**	.26*	.44**	-

n = 84
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
[a] mean and standard deviation not computed because age was categorized into age groups
[b] 1 = male, 2 = female

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Volunteer Satisfaction

Predictor	β	R^2	F	ΔR^2
Step 1				
Age	.34**			
Gender	.01			
		.11	4.3*	--
Step 2				
Altruism	.27*			
		.18	4.8**	.06*
Step 3				
Training Reaction	.49***			
Knowledge	.18			
Transfer	-.07			
		.48	10.1***	.31***

* p<.05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001

three, all three training components (reaction, knowledge retention, and transfer of training) were entered.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis showed that 11% of the variance in volunteer satisfaction was accounted for by the control variables ($R = .33$, $R^2 = .11$, adjusted $R^2 = .09$, $F[2, 69] = 4.3$, $p < .05$). Even though age and gender together contributed significantly to volunteer satisfaction, results showed that only age made a significant contribution ($\beta = .34$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, the results also showed that altruistic motivation explained an additional 6% of the variance in volunteer satisfaction, above and beyond the variance accounted for by the control variables ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F_{cha}[1, 68] = 5.3$, $p < .05$). Finally, the results of the analysis showed that training predictors accounted for an additional 31% of the variance in volunteer satisfaction, over and above altruistic motivation, and the control variables ($\Delta R^2 = .31$, $F_{cha}[3, 65] = 12.9$, $p < .001$). Interestingly, however, the only training component that made a significant and unique contribution to volunteer satisfaction was reaction ($\beta = .49$, $p < .001$). These results show support for Hypothesis 1, but Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported.

Table 5 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis predicting intention to continue to volunteer (Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6). At step one, age and gender were entered as control variables, at step two, altruistic motivation was entered, and at step three, all three training predictors were entered.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis showed that 18% of the variance in intention to continue to volunteer was accounted for by the control variables ($R = .42$, $R^2 = .18$, adjusted $R^2 = .15$, $F[2, 69] = 7.4$, $p = .001$). Even though age and gender together

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Intention to Continue Volunteering

Predictor	β	R^2	F	ΔR^2
Step 1				
Age	.42**			
Gender	-.01			
		.18	7.4**	--
Step 2				
Altruism	.24*			
		.23	6.7***	.05*
Step 3				
Training Reaction	-.08			
Knowledge	.28			
Transfer	.10			
		.31	4.9***	.08

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

contributed significantly to one's intention to continue to volunteer, it appears that, similar to when predicting volunteer satisfaction, only age made a significant contribution ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$). Results also showed that altruistic motivation significantly explained an additional 5% of the variance in one's intention to continue to volunteer, above and beyond the variance explained by the control variables ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $F_{cha}[1, 68] = 4.6$, $p < .05$). Lastly, the results showed that training accounted for an additional 8% of the variance in intention to continue to volunteer, over and above altruistic motivation and the control variables, however, the contribution was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $F_{cha}[3, 65] = 2.6$, $p > .05$), and thus, Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were not supported.

Discussion

Given the importance of volunteer work in all sectors of American society, it becomes particularly critical for any organization that relies on volunteers to attract, satisfy, and retain those who volunteer. In addition, although past research has examined the motivations behind what makes one volunteer (Bowen, et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Elshaug & Metzer, 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Harrison, 1995; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto et al., 2000), and other research has examined the role of training within organizations (Alliger, et al, 1997; Colquitt et al., 2000; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Tracey et al., 1995), no study has specifically examined the role of training, and its impact upon volunteers, within the volunteer organization. Thus, the present study was the first to investigate whether training would better predict volunteer satisfaction and the intention to continue to volunteer, over and above altruistic motivation, the most commonly reported motivation behind volunteerism (Bowen et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990).

Results of the hierarchical regression analyses found support only for Hypothesis 1, in which training reaction predicted volunteer satisfaction over and above altruistic motivation. The other training components (knowledge retention and transfer of training) did not significantly predict volunteer satisfaction, thus no support was found for Hypotheses 2 and 3. One possible explanation that training reaction was the only component of training that made a significant contribution to volunteer satisfaction is because of the particular training these volunteers had received. For example, 80% (n = 67) of the respondents reported that they had received on-the-job training, whereas only

21% ($n = 18$) reported that they had received classroom training (one person reported having received both on-the-job and classroom training). On-the-job training is typically informal, while classroom training tends to be more formal. Because reaction is more of a quick thinking response and does not require as much cognitive and behavioral elaboration as knowledge retention and transfer of training (Aliger et al., 1997), it may be that respondents believed that the reaction questions were more appropriate to the training they had received, whereas respondents may have felt that the knowledge retention and transfer of training items were not applicable. If this is indeed what the respondents believed, then it would be reasonable to assume that a respondent would neither agree nor disagree with knowledge retention and transfer of training items (deeming these items irrelevant) and therefore, the mean for the items would be the midpoint of the scale (3.0). Indeed, the results of this study showed that the means of the knowledge retention and transfer of training items were only slightly higher than the midpoint of the scale ($M = 3.6$, $M = 3.9$, respectively). This suggests that for whatever the reason, respondents only somewhat agreed with these statements, and therefore, may have not found them to be relevant. Although this is a plausible conclusion, it is speculative.

Furthermore, it is possible that many of the hypotheses in this study were not supported because, according to Goldstein and Ford (2002), the most effective training programs consist of a combination of both formal classroom and informal on-the-job training. Because most respondents received on-the-job training and only one respondent indicated that he or she had received both, it might be ascertained that the training did not

fulfill the expectations of the volunteer or adequately serve to integrate him or her into the organization, and therefore, did not fully satisfy the volunteer and inspire him or her to intend to continue to volunteer. It is also conceivable that the on-the-job training reported by the respondents was not actual training, but simply the observation of other volunteers performing the job. If this is true, then it is possible that the "training" received was inadequate and therefore, did not motivate respondents enough to prompt them to intend to continue to volunteer, similar to what Jamison reported (2001).

Another possible explanation that many of the hypotheses were not supported could be due to the small sample size. Out of the original sample size of 160 respondents, only 53% (n = 84) reported that they had received training for their volunteer position. This, in and of itself is an interesting finding because it seems to underscore the issue of a lack of training within volunteer organizations. Jamison (2003) found that 47% of volunteers never received a formal training (which in fact the volunteer was expecting) prior to beginning their volunteer job, and volunteers had to rely upon on-the-job experience, mainly consisting of observing and replicating other volunteers' actions so that they may successfully perform their volunteer job. Likewise, this study also found that 47% of respondents reported that they had never received training for their volunteer job.

One interesting finding was with regard to the control variables gender and age. Gender did not significantly contribute to any of the variance in either volunteer satisfaction or intention to continue to volunteer. This suggests that there may not be gender differences amongst those who engage in volunteerism with respect to volunteer

satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. This finding is unique from other research that has found gender differences with respect to motivations to volunteer and expectations of the volunteer experience (Mjelde-Mossey & Chi, 2004; Switzer, Switzer, Stukas, & Baker, 1999). Age, on the other hand, made a unique significant contribution in predicting intention to continue to volunteer through all steps of the analysis. This finding suggests that older volunteers tend to express more of an intention to continue to volunteer than younger volunteers. Past research that has examined age in volunteerism has only investigated it as it relates to motivations behind volunteerism (Bowen et al., 2000; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Omoto et al., 2000). Thus, the results of the present study shed a new light on the role of age and a volunteer's intention to continue to volunteer. Even so, this study may support the existing research that suggests that volunteerism allows older people an opportunity to stay active and socialize, while at the same time help others (Bowen et al., 2000; Omoto et al., 2000). To the extent that these needs are met, an older person is likely to continue to volunteer. In addition, an ongoing training program can help make sure that the older volunteer's motivational needs are being identified and met. This would be particularly valuable because past research shows that older people tend not to spend time volunteering (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Herzog, Kahn, Morgan, Jackson, & Antonucci, 1989, Starnes & Wymer, 2001). An added note to highlight the relevance of the aforementioned age related research is that the upcoming retiring "Baby Boomer" generation is the most educated, largest, wealthiest, and predicted to be the most active retirees in American history (Magee, 2004). If volunteer organizations could meet the needs of this age group, it is likely that an increase would

occur in the number of older people who volunteer. At the very least, volunteer organizations should explore this age group as a target market from which to recruit volunteers.

Not surprisingly, participants in this study scored high on altruistic motivation which supports other research findings that altruism is the most frequently reported motivation behind volunteerism (Bowen et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). In addition, in this study, altruistic motivation significantly predicted both volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. This finding supports the importance of altruistic motivation on volunteerism (Bowen et al., 2000; Clary et al., 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990) and suggests that this important motivation not be ignored when recruiting, training, and retaining volunteers.

Limitations and Future Direction

Despite the interesting findings of the present study, it is not without limitations. As mentioned previously, one limitation of the present study is the small sample size. Therefore, future research should repeat this study using a larger sample. Another limitation is that this study measured intention to continue to volunteer. Whereas research has shown that intentions can lead to behavior (Warburton & Terry, 2000), it does not guarantee the behavior will occur. Therefore, it may be prudent to measure actual volunteer tenure, or at least, determine the relationship between intention to continue to volunteer and volunteer tenure.

Another limitation of this study is that it was conducted in one type of non-profit organization. There are many different types of non-profit organizations (not to mention

for profit organizations that rely on volunteers), as well as different kinds of volunteer jobs; some that require volunteers to complete simple tasks (e.g., stuffing envelopes, handing out food) and others that require more sophisticated skills (accounting, newsletter publication, teaching English). Because most respondents of this study indicated that the training they had received consisted mostly of informal on-the-job training, it is unclear whether volunteers perceived the knowledge retention and transfer of training items the same as had they also (or if they had only) participated in a more formal classroom training, or if volunteers even perceived that they needed training (simple job versus complex jobs). Even so, perhaps formal training could have been utilized to socialize the volunteer more deeply into the organization. An idea for future research would be to compare groups who had received formal classroom training and those who received informal on-the-job training to examine whether there are differences among them with respect to volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. Similarly, it would be useful to investigate the differences in training with regard to complex jobs (e.g., teaching English as a second language) and simple jobs (handing out food) to streamline the issues that would make the training most effective.

Another direction for future research would be to investigate (or introduce) ongoing training within the volunteer organization. It may make sense, in terms of retention, to have volunteers participate in staff trainings alongside paid staff (Starnes & Wymer, 2001). In addition, ongoing training could help address the motivational changes that occur after the volunteer has been with the organization for some time (Davis, et al., 2003; Kovacs & Black, 1999).

Finally, it might be interesting to replicate this study on a wide range of organizations to investigate whether there are differences across different types of organizations on volunteer motivations, and the effects of training on volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. This could help organizations identify where to focus their recruitment and retention efforts, as well as how to design effective training programs (initial and ongoing), in order to achieve maximum results.

In sum, the present study demonstrates the importance of altruistic motivation and training in predicting volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue to volunteer. Results of this study can be used to help organizations effectively, attract, train, and retain valuable capital in the form of volunteers.

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Appendix: Questionnaire

Training Reaction

The clarity to which the training material was communicated.

The extent to which the training prepared me for my job at *organization name.*

The amount of information received at the training.

The pace of the training material presented.

Knowledge Retention

I feel I have mastered the material present at *organization name* training.

I believe I have retained what I received during training at *organization name.*

If tested today, I would be able to demonstrate what I learned from training.

Transfer of Training

I am using the skills I learned in training to do my job at *organization name.*

I am using the information I received in training to my job at *organization name.*

I am performing my job exactly how I was trained to do it.

Volunteer Satisfaction

Communication

The flow of communication coming to me from paid staff and board members.

The amount of information I receive about what *organization name* is doing.

The degree to which *organization name* communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.

Group Integration

My relationship with other volunteers at *organization name.*

My relationship with paid staff at *organization name.*

My relationship with customers of *organization name.*

The friendships I have made while volunteering here.

Volunteer Satisfaction

All in all, my volunteer experience at *organization name.*

In general, my volunteer job at *organization name.*

In general, working at *organization name.*