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Volunteer Commitment and Satisfaction in Sport
for Disabled Organizations

by

David Frederick Harrison Legg, B.P.E.

A Thesis submitted to the
Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Department of Kinesiology
in Partial Fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of
Master of Human Kinetics
at
The University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1994



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ABSTRACT

VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT AND SATISFACTION IN SPORT FOR DISABLED
ORGANIZATIONS

by

David Frederick Harrison Legg, B.P.E.

The first purpose of this study was to identify the sources of satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index (JDI) and commitment as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) within volunteers of Sport for the Disabled Organizations. The second purpose of this study was to identify the significant relationships between the sub-sections and general scores of commitment and satisfaction. The third purpose of this study was to identify the demographic characteristics of Sport for the Disabled volunteers and to determine if these characteristics had any relationships to the individual measures of commitment and satisfaction.

By identifying appropriate strengths and weaknesses within these relationships, volunteer administrators would be more able to create a satisfied and committed corps of volunteers. For these purposes, a sample of one hundred and eight (108) Sport for Disabled volunteers (from six games sites including St. Catharines, Brockville, Toronto,

Burlington, Ottawa, and Sudbury) completed questionnaires. These surveys included one section identifying volunteer demographics, an adapted version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday et al., 1979) identifying commitment and an adapted version of the Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) measuring satisfaction.

Results from this study showed that the measurements of satisfaction and commitment were significant reflections of their combined sub-sections, therefore minimizing the opportunity for administrators to focus on one particular sub-section versus another in the hopes of enhancing a volunteers level of satisfaction or commitment. Predictive relationships between volunteer satisfaction and commitment were minimal. Finally, demographic characteristics, presented minimal significant relationships towards the measures of volunteer satisfaction and commitment. The demographic variables that recorded positive significant relationships include; years of experience with the organization and volunteer commitment; and levels of completed education and volunteer role.

Theoretical applications were recommended for future research by highlighting possible limitations within the present study. As well, practical suggestions for volunteer administrators were presented to assist organizations in the hopes of more effectively and efficiently managing their volunteer programs.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my mother and father who showed me the value of hard work, the passion of life and the importance of family. I am constantly inspired by their ability to remain positive while coping with and adapting to the effects of multiple sclerosis and by watching, learning and participating in this daily effort, the interest in pursuing this thesis has grown. I sincerely hope that my work in promoting the interests of those with disabilities does not end here.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis reflects the efforts of many people over a period of three years. Foremost, I am indebted to Dr. Olafson as a mentor, advisor and friend. My situation as a part-time student required a great deal of long distance work, strict timeliness, mutual understanding and patience. His assistance throughout this process was greatly appreciated.

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I also wish to express my gratitude to the faculty in the Department of Kinesiology at the University of Windsor. It was my good fortune to work in a tremendously comfortable and encouraging atmosphere. I also wish to acknowledge those professors and friends at McMaster University. Both institutions provided me with the research skills, knowledge and work ethic that contributed immeasurably to the success of this undertaking.

Research is not possible without subjects and I am indebted to the staff (Faye Blackwood, Sue Mount, Bonnie Hartley) and the volunteers of Sport for Disabled Ontario and the Ontario Wheelchair Sports Association.

Finally, I must express my heartfelt gratitude to my family; Mom, Dad, my sister Heather, and my best friend Heather McKay for providing me with the love, support and confidence to take that extra step.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Prior to 1940, medicine was able to do little for people with disabilities, especially those with spinal injuries. The majority of the spinally injured died from ensuing complications a short time after their accidents. During World War Two, with its large number of people with disabilities, the idea of sport as an aid to treatment and rehabilitation was pursued.

In 1944, the British Government appointed the late Sir Ludwig Guttman as medical director at Stoke-Mandeville Hospital, where his special area of work was spinal injuries. Guttman was determined that the spinally injured should not only survive, but also function as fully contributing members of society. To meet these ideals, Guttman introduced sport into his rehabilitation programme, primarily to train the body and secondly to relieve the boredom of hospital life (Piper, 1991).

Sports for the Disabled thus began in the late 1940's as part of the rehabilitation program for soldiers at the Stoke-Mandeville Hospital in England. Since that time, interest and participation has spread to all parts of the world. Canada became officially involved in sports for the disabled in 1967, hosting the Pan-American Disabled Games in Winnipeg, Manitoba. The Province of Ontario became involved in sports for the disabled during the 1976 Olympiad/Paralympics held in

Etobicoke. (These games were held in conjunction with the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal, Quebec.) The Etobicoke Olympiad seized the attention of the public and facilitated the growth of sports for people with physical disabilities in Ontario (Baetz, 1981).

In 1992, competitive sport opportunities in Ontario were provided by the Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Recreation under the auspices of Sport for the Disabled Ontario and were available for wheelchair, amputee, blind, and cerebral palsy athletes. The organizational structure of these four provincial sport organizations were similar to that of any able bodied sports group.

The driving force behind many of the programs that Sport for the Disabled Ontario sponsored were volunteers. Subsequently, enabling the continuation of these programs required the committed services of many satisfied volunteers. The importance of volunteers were not unique to the sport for disabled community, as volunteerism had emerged in Canada as a growth industry, with enormous potential. Virtually every significant social ideology had been nurtured in the non-profit sector "...thus making volunteers a vital expression of the Canadian way of life" (Pitters-Strachan, 1986, p.66).

In 1986, 5.3 million Canadians volunteered approximately one billion hours of their time, thus contributing "...an estimated 13.2 billion dollars worth of services" (Ross Shillingham, 1987, p.13). Volunteerism was and remains an enormous financial process and is subsequently a factor demanding priority for concise social appreciation, academic

study and managerial understanding.

The concept of volunteer service, "once symbolized by community construction of a neighbour's barn, had matured into a pervasive and dynamic force" (Allen, 1981, p. 32). Pioneer co-operation had blossomed into a highly respected and increasingly essential societal component (Allen, 1981). As voluntary involvement remains a free-choice behaviour, it is characterised by intrinsic motivation and is therefore sensitive to the dimensions of satisfaction and commitment. By providing the experiences that facilitate these feelings, a non-profit organization such as Sport for Disabled Ontario would enhance the chances for success and survival.

Unfortunately, however,

...social scientists have devoted a considerable amount of time to the study of professional organizations while voluntary organizations have received considerably less attention. In the past, amateur sport organizations as a type of voluntary organization have been almost totally neglected (Mitchelson and Slack, 1982, p.11).

As non-profit organizations like Sport for Disabled Ontario progress into the 21st century, it will be important for them to recognize what satisfies volunteers, enabling the continuation and commitment of quality programs and services. The obvious significance of the voluntary sector to the economic and social well-being of the community implies that it is a field that should no longer be neglected (Jenner, 1981).

Need and Purpose

The need for this study resulted from a combination of factors. Administrators of non-profit organizations rely heavily upon volunteers and appreciate the benefits that they provide; however, changing social trends may greatly effect the composition of the volunteer population. To prepare for these social changes, while also recognizing the potential benefits that volunteers provide, an understanding of how volunteers are motivated is essential. This understanding provides valuable standards for developing future methods of enhancing volunteer commitment and satisfaction.

Benefits of Volunteering

The first rationale for conducting this study was the recognition that volunteers provide a number of benefits for their communities. This support is seen through various forms of relief and include increased services to the athletes with disabilities, an expanded number and variety of services, and more individualized programs. As well, volunteers also provide a vital rehabilitation component by intensifying and enhancing the athlete's personal sense of self-worth.

Community understanding and cooperation are also enhanced through increased public awareness, as volunteers can effectively disseminate information about disabled persons, fostering inter-organizational communication and helping to bring about inter-agency cooperation. Social activity created from community understanding may also

provide for the person with a disability advocates that are willing to speak out on matters which significantly affect the ability of the people with disabilities to support themselves, to live independently, and to enjoy cultural, educational, and social opportunities. These advantages are frequently additional bonuses to the daily lives of people with disabilities; nevertheless, volunteers who have salient facts and strong convictions are instrumental in bringing about constructive societal change.

In addition to the benefits that the person with a disability received, volunteer services also benefit the volunteers themselves, by bringing people with common interests together. For many volunteers, the fulfilled desires and satisfaction of helping others and being needed themselves are met by serving humanity in a worthwhile, meaningful way. In this respect, Sport for the Disabled Ontario offers a setting in which people can dramatically and significantly help each other while also helping themselves.

Societal Trends

The second rationale for this study was to assist the volunteer administrator by providing a synopsis of the present day volunteer and recognize how these characteristics will change in the future. By understanding the past and the present, the administrator is better prepared for the future. The first of six general societal trends affecting volunteers includes "a decentralization of services" (Livingston, 1983, p.45). This decentralization will be coupled with an

"increased sense of community, an augmented necessity for self reliance, and an extended responsibility in dealing with local issues or concerns" (Schindler-Rainman, 1987, p.53).

The implications resulting from these trends will be a greater self-reliance placed upon non-profit organizations by the government and by larger volunteer governing bodies.

"This transition will also involve moving from a stance of plenty to one of doing more and better with less money and less time"(Schindler-Rainman, 1987, p.54).

A second distinct trend is the continued growth of the elderly population, specifically those over 65 years of age. "In 1951, only 8 % of the Canadian population was over the age of 65 years, while it is predicted that by the year 2001, this percentage will have increased to 17 %" (Ellis & Noyes, 1990, p.151). Drucker (1990), noted that in the last decade of the 20th Century, "...population will be the least stable and most drastically changing element in society and world politics, and probably the single most important cause of turbulence. Motivation of the elderly to participate as a volunteer will therefore require a re-evaluation and consolidation of methods to tap this potential assembly" (Drucker, 1990, p.54).

The future demographic characteristics of the typical volunteer will be the third major social change. The historically accepted version of the volunteer as predominantly Caucasian, middle aged and female will no longer be accepted, in direct contrast to the Canadian National Survey of 1977 which noted that the traditional

image of the volunteer had been primarily that of "...the bored middle aged housewife with time on her hands, lots of money, and a zealous desire to do good" (Chapin, 1987, p.73). This myth or fact has already been disproven by Chapin (1987), noting that slightly more than half of Canada's people were involved in some form of volunteer activity or charitable giving with more men (44.5%) volunteering than had been previously expected.

A fourth social trend noted by MacDuff (1991) from the J.C. Penney/National VOLUNTEER Centre focussed on short term volunteering as the "wave of the future" (MacDuff, 1991, p.13). This trend will create new challenges for non-profit organizations as it will be "imperative that volunteers immediately feel comfortable, understand their duties and responsibilities, and feel that they were making an important contribution" (Sutherland, 1992, p.10).

A fifth social trend involves a change in previously accepted norms and values as the definition of success in terms of large financial reserves and upward mobility will be altered. "North America is changing from a largely Judeo-Christian motivational system where we served to make a difference, towards some additional kinds of reasons for serving, such as altruism" (Schindler- Rainman, 1987, p.86).

The final trend is that society is changing in accordance to the rapidly changing economic conditions.

Worst of all, there was the psychological impact of instability and economic uncertainty, resulting in people being less willing as well as less able to participate in the full life of their community. In short, we were facing a turbulent world in which

developed countries must confront the realities of their limitations and the price they now must pay for their development. We were facing a world in which the search is on for alternative ways of doing business, delivering services and living our lives (Sutherland, 1992, p.147).

Varying levels of government hoping to relieve these problems have been looking towards volunteers as a means to justify government assistance and to act as an aid for those hoping to return to the work force.

These six social trends will effect the daily operations for volunteer organizations. To secure continued programs, organizations such as Sport for the Disabled Ontario must acknowledge and understand how these changes will effect the future of volunteering.

Purposes

Three research purposes were developed as a result of the needs and rationales outlined for this study. These purposes are represented by the eleven variable matrix on page 47.

The first purpose of this study was to identify the sources of satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index (JDI) and commitment as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) within volunteers of Sport for the Disabled Organizations. The second purpose of this study was to identify the significant relationships between the sub-sections and general scores of commitment and satisfaction. Satisfaction as measured by the JDI was

divided into four sub-sections including volunteer role, co-workers, opportunity for rewards and supervision. Commitment as measured by the OCQ was divided into three sub-sections including willingness to exert effort, belief and acceptance of organizational goals and values, and finally loyalty to the organization.

The third purpose of this study was to identify the demographic characteristics of Sport for the Disabled volunteers and to determine if these characteristics had any relationships to the individual measures of commitment and satisfaction. The demographic characteristics analyzed in this study included age, gender, years experience with the organization and highest level of completed education.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Volunteer

A volunteer is an individual who pursued goals that are not primarily remunerative and which they were not forced to pursue (Smith, Baldwin, & White, 1980).

Voluntarism

Voluntarism corresponded to the French expression "benevolent", and designates the entire sector of social activities including volunteers, their activities and voluntary agencies (Naylor, 1976).

Volunteerism

Volunteerism "...is concerned with the experience of the individual person, active in voluntarism in a leadership role, in an administrative role or possibly in direct service to make programs possible"(Naylor, 1976, p.2).

Volunteer Action

Volunteer action is the contributions of energy and expertise which may be an end in itself and "...is an inherent function of the perceived expected utility of the experience" (Naylor, 1976, p.57).

Sport for the Disabled Ontario

Sport for Disabled Ontario is an organization that consists of four Provincial Sport Organizations (P.S.O.) which included the Ontario Amputee Sport Association, the Ontario Blind Sport Association, the Ontario Cerebral Palsy Sport Association and the Ontario Wheelchair Sport Association. The mandate of Sport for Disabled - Ontario is two fold: to provide a competitive sporting opportunity for athletes with physical disabilities parallel to the sport delivery system available to able bodied athletes, and to promote the development of sport for youth with physical disabilities, allowing participants the opportunity to grow in a physical, sport oriented environment.

Disabled Athletes

Disabled athletes have "a physical disability creating a disadvantage possessed by one person in comparison to another" (Brisile, Kleiber & Harnisch, 1991, p.18). Some of these disabilities may include amputations, blindness, cerebral palsy and spinal injuries.

Motivation

Motivation is "a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual, to initiate work related behaviour and to determine its' forms, directions, and duration" (Steers & Porter, 1987, p.543). Motivation can be further defined as a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motives. Deci (1975) defined intrinsic (internal) motivation as "...the motivation to engage in activities for which there was no apparent reward except the activity itself. These activities are done for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward" (Steers & Porter, 1987, p.545).

Extrinsic motivation is external to the work itself and was generally "...administered by someone else.." (Daft & Steers, 1987, p.141). Motivation "was therefore a complex set of forces, drives, needs, tension states, and other mechanisms that started and maintained volunteer activity towards the achievement of personal goals" (Daft & Steers, 1987, p.72). A singular motive means some inner drive or

impulse that causes one to act in a certain way and the term motivation then means to be impelled by such a motive.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's [situation] as facilitating the achievement of one's ..[nonremunerative] values"(Kikulis, 1987, p.14).

Commitment

Commitment is defined as a state of identification with and involvement in a given organization. It is characterized by three related factors: (a) a strong loyalty to remain a part of the organization; (b) an willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization and (c) a strong belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Non-profit organizations have often been without sufficient financial resources to employ a professional staff. This situation, if coupled with a lack of qualified volunteers, facilitates a continuous cycle of ineptitude as the "people decisions made by paid employees and volunteers are the ultimate - perhaps the only control of an organization; and these decisions would eventually determine the performance capacity of any organization"(O'Connell, 1986, p.17). Non-profit organizations have also been frequently shown a low priority by public concern, due in part to the constant struggle for legitimization, with "a glaring contradiction between what the sector means to the society and how little the public really knows about it" (O'Connell, 1986, p.16).

A logical alternative solving these problems has been successful volunteerism, as the lack of funding restricts an increase in professional staff and the nature of a non profit organization itself implies philanthropic activity. Understanding how to facilitate successful volunteerism is addressed through a thorough review of the literature pertaining to volunteer demographics, general theories of motivation, volunteer satisfaction and volunteer commitment.

Demographics

In 1987, an estimated total of 1,470,000 Canadians actively volunteered in the leisure, recreation and sports fields, each averaging 118 hours per year. "Sixty-five percent of these volunteers were employed full time, 60% were male, 34% had post-secondary education while 48% of the volunteers had completed some secondary but no post-secondary education" (Kent, 1989, in Sutherland, 1992, p.8). In a subsequent survey on volunteer activity Statistics Canada, with the support of the Department of the Secretary of State, completed the most far reaching survey of volunteer activity ever undertaken in Canada. About 70 000 persons across the country were surveyed using two specifically designed and extensive sets of questionnaires. In this study, almost 80% of all active volunteers had been involved for more than three years in a volunteer organization, while 56% had volunteered for more than seven years (Statistics Canada, 1991).

Many studies have also concentrated on gaining information to create a specific profile of the typical volunteer in a particular situation. Research attempting to portray the average volunteer has included Slack (1985) who investigated individual characteristics of volunteer sport administrators. Slack (1985) suggested that these volunteers were on average, married, middle-aged males, with upper socioeconomic status. Slack (1985) also found that volunteer sport executives were involved in their particular sport for

a number of years and were cross representatives of more than one sport, executive position, and non-sport organization.

In addition to these general descriptions of volunteers, many surveys focussed on four specific demographic attributes of the volunteer. These attributes included gender, age, years experience with an organization and the highest level of completed education.

Gender

The motivation to participate as a volunteer has been suggested to be related to gender differences. Volunteer research has generally focussed on both genders, although women have generally been the majority (Pearce, 1980). Many of these studies however, have focussed towards the non-sport related environment. Nevertheless, recent studies have shown sociologists attempting to identify the biographic and demographic characteristics of volunteers in the non-profit, sport environments.

Three studies have specifically examined volunteers in amateur sport organizations. Beamish (1978) analyzed the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of volunteers and administrators from twenty-two Canadian National Sport Associations. Bratton (1970) detailed the biographic and demographic characteristics of administrators from the Canadian Volleyball Association and the Canadian Amateur Swimming Association. His sample included all national and provincial administrators and the local or club administrators from the provinces of Alberta and Manitoba.

Slack (1978), examined similar characteristics for the executive members of sixty Alberta provincial sport associations. Both Slack (1978) and Beamish (1978) noted that the levels of participation by both males and females varied according to the individual's social status and that the time commitment by males and females within each level of social status was approximately the same for both sexes (Kikulis, 1987).

Studies which have indicated the gender of members within voluntary organizations concluded that the traditional image of the volunteer as a middle/upper class female was false. In agreement, Scott (1957), Palisi (1965), Dotson (1951), and Babcock and Booth (1969) all found a greater level of participation in voluntary [sport] associations by males (Mitchelson and Slack, 1982).

The Municipal Recreation Bulletin on Volunteers published by the Ministry of Tourism and Recreation in 1992, found that 54.4% of volunteers in Ontario were women, while 45.5% were men. Results from the National Survey in 1977 "Tapping the Untapped Potential Towards a National Policy on Volunteerism" confirmed these figures noting that men consisted of 44.5% of active volunteers (Statistics Canada, 1981). "The traditional image of the volunteer therefore, has been primarily that of the "bored, middle aged housewife with time on her hands, lots of money, and a zealous desire to do good" (Chapin, 1987, p.73) has been refuted by many studies but not altogether proven false.

Education

In 1987, the Survey of Volunteer Activity, conducted by Statistics Canada for the Department of the Secretary of State, found that 34% of volunteers had post-secondary education while 48% had at least some completed secondary education. In a previous study completed in 1977, the majority of total Canadian volunteers had only achieved a high school education. Nonetheless, with respect to the percentages of the demographic categories, the tendency to volunteer appeared to increase with the levels of completed education (Statistics Canada, 1990).

Age

Previous research on non-profit organizations and volunteer behaviour, including Bell and Force (1956), Foskett (1955), Scott (1957), Hausknecht (1962), and Babchuk and Edwards (1965), have suggested that for the majority of an individual's life, a linear relationship existed between age and volunteer participation (i.e., participation exists through life until the age of 50 or 60 years when it started to decline) (Davie, 1980). Bratton (1970) noted a mean age of 40.6 years for swimming administrators and 29.5 years for volleyball administrators. He suggested that this difference was due to the large amount of parental involvement in the administrative positions in swimming and the higher percentages of active players involved in the administrative positions in volleyball. Therefore, when considering sport associations, the nature of the sport itself may have

influenced the age level of the administrators (Kikulis, 1987).

Slack (1979) found that 57.6 % of the volunteer sport administrators in Alberta were 40 years of age or over. Slack (1979) also noted that women were less involved between the ages of 30 and 50 years. "One explanation of this finding could be that for many women, this age bracket was when families were being raised and, consequently, less time was available to volunteer" (Mitchelson & Slack, 1982, p.17). Generalized differences that existed between men and women included that women who volunteered were generally on average, three years older than their male counterparts. This survey also noted that volunteer participation generally increased with age until about mid-life (35 to 45 years), before starting a gradual decline (Kikulis, 1987).

Years Experience

The Municipal Recreation Bulletin on Volunteers published by the Ministry of Tourism and Recreation (1992), found that 80 % of volunteers surveyed had been working voluntarily for more than three years, 56% more than seven years; with most volunteering from one half to one full day per week while 12% volunteered three or more days per week.

Affecting these levels of participation were two main evolutionary stages that a volunteer encountered: namely, the beginning and mature volunteer (Beugen, 1985). Becoming familiar with the organization and its expectations was the first stage to making an initial commitment to volunteer. The

mature volunteer was frequently unassuming or even modest as he/she had become comfortable in carrying out responsibility, intuitively knowing what to do and how to do it (Beugen, 1985).

Motivation

The role of the volunteer in society has been increasing in importance as "...solutions are sought for the ubiquitous problems that face communities, institutions, organizations, and the whole society. Volunteers, however cannot offer quality services without being motivated" (Henderson, 1983, p.20). In non-profit organizations, this need for member motivation is multiplied, as there has been a lack of monetary incentives, and the differences in performance between the best and worst worker in any organization, can be 100% or more" (Moore & Anderson, 1985, p.1).

Volunteer motives have been identified by a variety of sources and has included achievement, recognition and feedback, personal growth, giving something back to society, bringing about social change, family ties, friendship, support, bonding and a feeling of belonging. This list is certainly not exhaustive but is instead meant as an introduction.

The review of literature regarding volunteer motivation has revealed "a paucity of findings" (Wiche & Isenhoer, 1977, p.75), possibly due to the complex nature of motivation as a behaviour, as well as the many dimensions of the concept

itself. Nevertheless, with specific reference to the motives of volunteers, two themes have been prominent: multiple motives, and a need for some sense of purpose regardless of the original need that volunteering was intended to satisfy.

Motivation has been seen as a crucial element in organizations, yet "each of the various functions or disciplines has a different axe to grind and understandably a different perspective" (Hinrichs, 1974, p. 37). Prominent throughout these varied theories, however, have been the principles of mixed motives for involvement. Volunteers, have multiple and often unique combinations of internal (intrinsic) incentives referring to potentially unconscious needs or motives, and external (extrinsic) incentives to participate, which reflect a more overt impetus (Hinrichs, 1974).

Many theories of motivation applied to voluntarism were also developed from personality focussed theories of why people work; helping explain the "why" of behaviour. These theories have not been mutually exclusive to those focussing on situational components, but have instead been complementary. Most theories that combine personal motives have suggested that to be motivated in any activity, "a person must decide what will be given to the activity, what one expects to receive from the activity, and how great the risk will be" (Henderson, 1983, p. 20).

Staw (1976), based on the research of Festinger (1961), de Charms (1968), and Deci (1975), proposed that when both the extrinsic (situation) and intrinsic (personal)

organizational rewards were abundant, individuals would experience a greater amount of justification for their decision to volunteer than if these rewards were scarce. "This over justification reduced dissonance, and thereby depreciated the less tangible intrinsic rewards such as altruism"(Staw, 1974, p.46). Similarly, when individuals performed work for which the rewards were few, "they [volunteers] experienced insufficient justification, which lead them to enhance the importance of the intrinsic rewards" (Pearce,1983,p.646). It was the combination of these personal and situational motives that affected the levels of the volunteer's need satisfaction.

As volunteers are in accordance with human nature, their multiple motives for participation should not have been unexpected. Attempting to simplify this confusion however, were several studies identifying typical volunteer motivation characteristics.

Chapman (1985) identified five reasons for volunteer participation by University students from an inventory of thirty two potential causes. The justifications for volunteering included : "(1) volunteering offered an opportunity to work in a preferred career field, (2) an opportunity to learn by doing, (3) a chance to help other people, (4) a chance to explore a career field, and finally (5) a chance to gain experience with a specific client group" (Chapman, 1985, p.88). Chapman(1985) hoped to reveal personal motives for participation, yet recognized that results remained in question, as volunteer motives were difficult to

identify, due in part, to an imperfect methodology of receiving a volunteer's personal feelings, and also a lack of an accurate measuring instruments.

Revealing the volunteer's need for multiple motives, Wiche and Isenhoer (1977) also attempted to identify the reasons why people choose to volunteer. Individuals requesting a referral from a community placement agency were asked to identify their motives for volunteering. The resulting characteristics included personal satisfaction, self-improvement, altruism, and other demands from the environment. Personal satisfaction was the most important motive for creating interest. The interaction between situational and individual variables collectively recognized the importance of "maintaining the perception of power/purpose in each of a project's participants" (Davie, 1980, p. 37).

Wiche and Isenhoer (1977) recognized altruism as a primary motive for volunteering which was consistent with many studies in the 1970's; yet, has been overlooked and all but eliminated as a potential motivating factor in more recent research. Theories of motivation have "tended to be egoistic and built on the assumption that everything we do is ultimately directed towards the end state goal of benefiting ourselves" (Batson et al., 1981, p.290). Smith (1983) provided further comment towards this assumption and "summarized this literature forcefully: Volunteers are not generally altruistic although they like to think of themselves as altruistic" (Murnighan, Kim & Metzger, 1993,

p.516).

Batson et al. (1981) in agreement with Wiche and Isenhoer (1977) recognized that altruism may in fact prevail to be an important motivator, noting that experimental conditions meant to produce a relatively high empathic response to a person in distress led to helping, regardless of whether escape was easy or difficult. As well, experimental conditions assumed to produce a relatively low empathic response actually led to helping only when it was difficult to escape, thus lending support to the theory that empathetic motivation for helping may have remained altruistic in nature (Batson et al., 1981) .

Volunteers have also reported, however, that they placed less emphasis on charitable motivation and admitted that their involvement arose from their need of self expression, self development and self protection (Hinrichs, 1974).

Whether the volunteer personally experienced growth, needed human contact, the satisfaction of a strong ego for social status, promotion within the company, political training, or the fulfilment of a need to get out of the house, the strength of voluntary activity offers opportunities for their fulfilment in a socially useful manner (Hinrichs, 1974, p.14).

The second common factor throughout the literature pertaining to volunteer motivation included the need for a sense of purpose. Wright and Bonnett (1991) concluded that throughout the research of volunteer characteristics several divisions including:

sex (Hill, Rubin, Peplau & Willard, 1979); sociability (MacDonald, 1972); extroversion (Francis & Diespecker, 1973); altruism (Condie, Warner, & Gillman, 1976; Orne, 1969); need for

achievement (Atkinson, 1955); approval seeking (Alderman, 1972); risk taking (Jobe, Holgate, & Scrapansky, 1983); intelligence (Frey, 1973); education (Stein, 1971) and age (Kaats & Davis, 1971, p.553)

Within these characteristics however was an overriding conviction that a potential volunteer must have a sense of purpose created by the combination of personal and situational characteristics. This sense of purpose was the perceived motivation that the volunteer directed towards his/her experience. It was essential for volunteers to "have a sense of some real power that they could make a difference; or, of course, there was no real reason to get involved" (Davie, 1980, p.35).

This importance of self purpose, where "...the self expressive ego dimension, was a function of the process of voluntary action, meant that an activity must have had some personal relevance or individuals would not volunteer their time, effort, expertise, and/or money" (Kikulis, 1987, p.33). This sense of purpose was, initially a function of the volunteer's own personal characteristics or attributes, but as time commitments increased this sense of purpose would also become a function of the environment. Situational variables were a function of the organizational culture and climate, and were driven by assumptions often unknown to the individual. It was this combination of personal and situational forces that would eventually establish the sensation of satisfaction, leading hopefully to greater organizational commitment (Kikulis, 1987). In contrast, however, it may not have been the combination of personal and

circumstantial variables as suggested by Porter and Lawler(1986), but instead, "...the situational parameters alone that discriminated the majority of volunteer characteristics" (Jobe, Holgate & Scrapansky, 1983, p.105).

Complementing Porter and Lawler's (1969) research, Pearce(1983) reported on attitudinal differences between volunteers in a hospital setting completing similar work as paid employees. The volunteers reported that they worked for the rewards of social interaction and service to others, yet significant differences were not found for intrinsic motivation. These findings "supported the contention that personal causation may have been overemphasised by individuals and [that] the significance of situational forces [may have been] neglected" (Kikulis,1987,p.36) when analyzing a volunteer's motives.

Satisfaction

Ensuring that volunteer assignments are satisfying and fulfilling has had the potential return of satisfied volunteers. This process however, also reaches beyond the goal of volunteers remaining with the organization. Some of the best agents for volunteer recruitment are the volunteers who share their positive experiences with others. "Recent surveys have shown that most individuals who volunteer learn about these opportunities from personal contact" (Chambre, 1987, p.34). Approximately 40% of new volunteers become involved because someone asked them and over 25% learned

about the volunteer opportunities from a relative or friend already involved within the activity. Less than 20% sought out the activity on their own (Chambre, 1987). Every satisfied volunteer therefore, should have been seen as a potential recruiter in addition to providing the services as an active volunteer.

The concept of satisfying experiences is not new, as job satisfaction has been extensively studied in the fields of organizational psychology where motivation-based content theories had attempted to specify the particular needs that should be maintained. Regardless, and including the fact that volunteers are fundamental to service organizations, there has been very little organizational behaviour literature that focuses on the psycho-social factors and processes which underlie voluntary action, specifically, volunteer satisfaction (Kikulis, 1987).

Theoretically, two of the major motivation-based content theories dealing with volunteer satisfaction included: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene theory. Despite the intuitive appeal of Maslow's theory, there had been a lack of support for its major contention of a fixed hierarchy of needs (Locke, 1976). Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene theory meanwhile had made major contributions to the study of human motivation by recognizing the importance of psychological growth. The insistence, however, of "the two unipolar continuum had appeared indefensible, both logically and empirically" (Locke, 1976, p.1318).

Satisfaction, in these two theoretical contexts was commonly viewed as an input to an individual's motivation system and was subsequently thought to contribute directly to productivity. The general implication was that "a satisfied worker was a productive worker" (Hinrichs, 1974, p.54). When research failed to validate this simple relationship, the concept of satisfaction was re-considered (Hinrichs, 1974).

Appearing more conclusive, however, had been evidence concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and employee commitment. Porter and Steers (1973) examined fifteen studies published between 1955 and 1972, and found a positive relationship in all but one. Hulin et al. (1963), examined the relationship between satisfaction and turnover within a group of female clerical workers. A comparison was made over a twelve month period between those who had left the company and those who had stayed. Their results indicated that the 'leavers' had substantially lower levels of job satisfaction prior to their departure than those who had stayed.

Porter and Steers (1973) also studied the factors that were important within the processes of dissatisfied employees searching for alternative jobs. A number of hypotheses were considered, all of which appeared to have a significant effect on precipitating resignation. Evidence regarding salary and promotion suggested that low pay and lack of promotional opportunities were a major cause of resignation. The objection, however, appeared not only to be the actual level of pay but also the perceived equality of it

(Gruneberg, 1979). In the non-profit sector, pay was replaced with other methods of rewards, while the same perceived equality was needed to ensure constituent satisfaction.

Sales (1982) stated "concern is not simply aimed at selecting the proper person to volunteer, but ... the ultimate maintenance of that person's commitment" (Sales, 1982, p.43). In this study, volunteer judges in the Canadian Figure Skating Association (CFSA) attempted to demonstrate what factors contributed to their initial and continuing interests. Personal needs supported by altruism were the motivators to begin and continue volunteer involvement. Social contact and support were not significant motivators for volunteer judges in the CFSA (Sales, 1982 in Kikulis, 1987).

In addition to the studies measuring the consequences of satisfaction, were many attempts to identify its antecedents. Social activity was noted as an antecedent to life satisfaction with considerable support for a basic premise of activity theory, where "...there was a positive relationship between involvement in different social roles, levels of social activity such as volunteering, and life satisfaction" (Chambre, 1987, p.43). Involvement in social and in leisure activities also appeared to become more important as people grew older. Tobin (1985) found a stronger connection between activity and life satisfaction for people in their seventies than for people in their fifties or sixties. "High activity also enhanced people's sense of well being as activity had a positive effect on their feelings about themselves which in

turn was beneficial for their overall sense of well being" (Chambre, 1987, p.46). In another study looking specifically at an organization's board members, the five most important antecedents to feelings of satisfaction were; a feeling of being of service, fellowship, a sense of upholding one's civic duty, being part of a developing institution and having one's belief in the agency's purpose reinforced (Blumberg and Arsenian, 1950, p.11).

Dailey (1986) focused on the personality, job characteristics, and attitudinal antecedents that underlie organizational satisfaction among volunteers. Job satisfaction, was highly predicted by three job dimensions: task significance, skill variety, and task identity. The personality characteristics of need for achievement and affiliation were not significant predictors of satisfaction.

Instruments measuring the employees level of satisfaction included the Job Description Index (JDI). The JDI had several advantages as a measure of job satisfaction which included direction towards specific areas of satisfaction rather than global and/or general terms. Secondly, the verbal level required to answer the JDI was low and therefore could be easily understood by a wide range of people. Thirdly, the JDI did not ask the respondents directly how satisfied they were with their work, but rather asked them to describe the work. The individual's responses therefore, were a job reference rather than a self reference, thereby limiting personal bias (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969).

The JDI has also been used in subsequent research, yet, it was necessary to verify whether the dimensions and items of the selected and modified JDI items were relevant for the volunteer sport context. Volunteer organizations have unique characteristics, the most prevalent being, that volunteer activity has not been financially remunerated. This has been in contrast to financial and business organizations where organizational members are guaranteed monetary remuneration for their services and expertise.

"Despite the voluminous research on job satisfaction, the integration of individual and organizational variables has not been a frequent research approach. A great deal is known about the components of job satisfaction (eg. Locke, 1969; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969), but the processes that contribute to satisfaction have remained open to various interpretations (Kikulis, 1987, p.31) especially within the volunteer driven non-profit segment. By understanding the dimensions of satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1987; Steers, 1977; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978; Williams & Hazer, 1986), attention will be focused on the perceived deficiencies, while also ensuring the continuation of the variables that may have sustained high levels of commitment.

Commitment

Successful non-profit organizations have only persisted if the volunteers have felt satisfied and motivated towards

them. Improvements or continuation of these services will not be realized unless more individuals make the necessary commitment to volunteer. Since being a volunteer by definition means that they may change their minds at any time, "they can make their own policy about how much time and energy they wish to devote" (Schindler-Rainman, 1987, p.47). After the volunteer has said "yes" and has become in some way involved in the volunteer activity, they are continually faced with the question of how long they will continue the volunteer commitment and whether to put more or less energy into it.

While the development of volunteer satisfaction and commitment are dependent upon varying degrees of multiple factors, they are nevertheless related. To better understand this relationship, it is necessary to understand both the concept of commitment itself and the previous attempts of it's measurement.

The construct of commitment has occupied a prominent place in organizational behaviour research (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Unfortunately, the "growth in commitment related concepts has not been accompanied by a careful segmentation of commitment's theoretical domain in terms of the intended meaning of each concept or the concept's relationships among each other" (Salancik, 1977, p.486). This incongruence is evident from the over "...twenty five commitment related concepts and measures" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p.492) used in research. In addition, Henderson (1983) noted that within previous research dealing

with measures of commitment, the majority of published empirical studies were concentrated towards for-profit organizations, therefore limiting useful comparisons for non-profit agencies.

One of the earliest concepts of commitment was developed by March and Simon (1958) regarding the decision to participate. It was hypothesized that individuals would continue participation while receiving satisfactory rewards. Dissatisfaction would subsequently induce search behaviour, "where actual leaving would be a function of the perceived desirability and possibility of doing so" (Jenner, 1981, p.65).

Etzioni (1961) later developed one of the first typologies of organizational involvement or attachment, distinguishing among moral, calculative and alienative involvement. These items were responses to the primary control mechanisms used by the organization to gain compliance with organizational directives. Moral involvement was defined as an intense relationship with the organization, based on the individual's internalization of goals, values and norms. Calculative involvement was a less intense, utilitarian relationship, based on an equitable exchange between the individual and organization and alienative involvement which was based on organizational coercion (Etzioni, 1961).

Kanter's (1961) concept of commitment focused on the three different behavioural requirements imposed on the membership by the organization. These conditions included;

continuance, control, and cohesion. It was maintained that organizations often employed all three of these approaches simultaneously, in order to strengthen the member attachment to the organization. This theory was a departure from Etzioni(1961) who had maintained that organizations tended to be characterized by only one type of commitment or control mechanism (Kanter, 1968).

Buchanan (1974), similar to Kanter (1968), defined commitment as consisting of three components. These three items included adoption of the organization's goals and values, absorption in work activities, and affection for and attachment to the organization. Buchanan (1974) investigated the development of commitment over time and found that creation of a reference group, an intrinsically rewarding first assignment, and compatibility of personal and organizational values were critical during the first year of employment. Following this first year, however, the opportunity to perform and the presence of valued peer relationships were the most influential factors affecting commitment (Jenner, 1981).

Sheldon (1971) perceived organizational commitment as an attitude which linked or attached the identity of the person to the organization. This attachment was indicated by a positive evaluation of the organization and an intention to work towards its goals. The resulting behaviour persisted over time and implied a rejection of other alternatives. Further analysis from this study revealed that investments, or side bets, were correlated with commitment for those with

long tenure, but that at mid-career, when professional commitment and opportunity were high, it was social involvement that was found to be important (Sheldon, 1971; Jenner, 1981).

Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) defined commitment as an attitudinal concept dealing with the perceived utility of continued participation in the employing organization. A four item scale was developed to measure unwillingness to leave the organization for slight increases in pay, status, professional freedom, or collegial friendliness. They found that levels of tension and years of experience were the most important variables explaining commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Porter (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter et al., 1974) defined organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a given organization. This definition was similar to Kanter's (1968) and Buchanan's (1974) definition in that it was characterized by three factors. Porter and his associates determined, however, that a willingness to remain, desire to exert high levels of effort, and belief in and acceptance of the organization's values and goals were the dominant factors defining commitment (Mowday et al., 1982, p.27).

One study utilizing this definition of commitment included research on psychiatric technician trainees (Porter et al., 1974), where organizational commitment was determined to be the most important variable in differentiating between

those who stayed and those who departed. Satisfaction based on the opportunities for promotion and the work itself were the next most important factors. A longitudinal study conducted by Porter, Crampon & Smith (1976) suggested that a marked decline in commitment signalled a voluntary termination, although it was not clear whether the decision to leave preceded or followed the decline in commitment.

Much of the research on turnover had involved the collection of attitude related data from terminated employees either at the point of departure or shortly thereafter through the use of exit interviews or exit questionnaires. The problems involved in obtaining valid attitude data under such circumstances are obvious and have been demonstrated in a number of studies (e.g., Lefkowitz & Katz, 1969).

Porter et al.'s (1974) definition of commitment had been criticized, however, for neglecting several important variables. These missing factors included: satisfaction with, and interest, in the work itself (Buchanan, 1974; Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975); the length of time within the organization (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Sheldon, 1971); satisfaction of the need for a challenge, self fulfilment and autonomy (Brown, 1969); and satisfaction with co-workers and met expectations (Buchanan, 1974).

The evolving definitions of commitment have thus produced many interpretations, yet within this multitude of views emerged two distinct divisions; attitudinal and behavioural. Meyer and Allen (1984) acknowledged the importance of both approaches (labelling them as affective

and continuance commitment respectively) and developed scales measuring each category.

Affective or attitudinal commitment involved the individual's identification with the organization, resulting in the maintenance of membership in order to pursue the organization's goals. In addition to Meyer and Allen (1984), this approach has also been operationalized by Porter et al.(1974). This affective commitment scale showed two distinct sectors, the first reflecting commitment based on a few existing employee alternatives and the second reflecting commitment based on personal sacrifices when leaving the organization (Porter et al., 1974).

Also known as prospective commitment (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981), attitudinal commitment referred to the process by which the individual identified with the goals and values of the organization and desired to maintain membership in it. From this perspective, behaviour was associated with organizational commitment shaped by attitudes. This definition subsequently served as the basis for the development of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Porter et. al., 1974).

The second category of organizational commitment; behavioural, was also known as the "side bet" theory and was developed from the work of Becker(1960). This theory regarded commitment as behavioural rather than attitudinal, where organizational commitment was a function of the benefits and costs associated with organizational membership. Many studies using this approach (Grunsky, 1966; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972;

Stevens et al., 1978) defined commitment in terms of the employee's desire to remain with the organization, measuring it by asking what it would take for the employee to leave.

Accordingly, the individual employee or volunteer was bound to the organization through extraneous interests rather than a favourable affect. Scales measuring this view of commitment were developed by Ritzer and Trice (1969) and modified by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). Behavioural, or retrospective commitment referred to the process by which the individual was bound to the organization through a positive interpretation of past behaviours, especially those that were voluntary, visible and irrevocable. In this view, attitudes were shaped by behaviours.

Becker (1960) defined commitment as that which was used to explain consistent behaviour, and attempted to specify the characteristics of being committed, independent of the behaviour used to explain it. He proposed that the major elements of commitment included the individual being in a position with which his/her decision with regard to a particular line of action had consequences for other interests and activities not necessarily related to it (side bets). The second element was that the individual had placed him/herself in that position by their own prior actions. The final element was that the individual was aware of the side bets and recognized that the decision in the present case would have ramifications beyond it. Typical side bets that reinforced the initial decision to accept a given job and cause an individual to remain were investments in educational

preparation, responsibility to dependents, seniority rules, pension plans, and finally, attachments to co-workers or to a region (Jenner, 1981).

"Side bets" according to Jenner (1981), were the processes of linking irrelevant or extraneous actions and rewards to organizational membership and were done in such a way that the individual reduced the options available for future behaviour. Although the side bet theory has not remained a full explanation for commitment (Aranya & Jacobson, 1975), structural characteristics such as age and seniority frequently appeared as factors in other commitment research (Buchanan, 1974; Jenner, 1981)

Questionnaires containing both attitudinal and behavioural commitment were designed by Meyer and Allen (1984) and mailed to 997 faculty from four year Colleges and Universities in the United States and Canada. Affective commitment was measured using the eight item Affective Commitment Scale while continuance commitment was measured using an eight item Continuance Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

This study provided substantial support for the conceptual distinction between affective and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Reichers, 1985; Steers and Porter, 1983) and nurtured additional evidence for the usefulness of the commitment scales developed by Meyer and Allen (McGee & Ford, 1987, p.638-43).

A second study, utilizing both attitudinal and behavioural approaches, examined relationships between personal and role related factors of commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1971). Subjects included 318 elementary and secondary

school teachers and 395 registered nurses. The results from this study indicated that the levels of tension and the number of years teaching or nursing experience were the most important variables explaining obligation. Commitment, therefore, depended partially "on the perceptions of the inducements, contributions, balances, and the ratio of rewards received from the organization in relation to the costs incurred to receive them" (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1971, p.555).

Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979; 1982) also maintained that both attitudinal and behavioural commitment were important and useful concepts. However, in their extensive research efforts, they choose to emphasize attitudinal commitment, while referring separately to committing behaviours and the reinforcing interrelationships between the two forms. Since the object of attitudinal commitment was the organization (that is, the extent to which an individual identified with their employee), Mowday, Porter & Steers (1979) used attitudinal commitment and organizational commitment interchangeably.

In an effort to create a reliable and accurate measure of commitment, Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) developed the 15 item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which was tested for reliability and validity using 2,563 employees in a wide variety of settings (Jenner, 1984). This measuring instrument subsequently became one of the most frequently used to assess organizational commitment (Tetrick & Farkas, 1988), and as a result of this wide-spread use,

much of the diversity towards defining commitment disappeared (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Fifteen items from the OCQ represented compliance, identification and internalization and were either generated by the researchers or drawn from previous studies. It appeared that critical voluntary behaviour that was not specified by job description but was largely a function of identification and internalization rather than the instrumental involvement.

The natural progressions from developing a theory of commitment (c.f. Porter et al., 1974), was to understanding the practical implications through the identification of cause and effect. As a result of this progression there was a steady increase in the number of studies conducted to identify the "antecedents" and "consequences" of organizational commitment (Jenner, 1981).

Forming the basis behind many of these "antecedents of commitment" studies, were Porter and his colleagues who had defined commitment as the strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization. The measurement instrument (OCQ) included an individual assessment of desire to exert effort, intent to remain, and identification with the values and goals of the organization.

Other research dealing with this question has often been cross sectional in design and despite repeated calls for more longitudinal research (e.g. Buchanan, 1974, Tetrick & Farkas, 1988), only a few such studies have been conducted (e.g.

Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Porter et al., 1974). Previous research, however, had produced numerous studies on the relationships between commitment and the hypothesized antecedents and outcomes (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982; Reichers, 1985). While most of these studies demonstrated an association between commitment and the subsequent outcomes, the research findings on antecedents of commitment had been less consistent (Balfour, 1991).

In a study utilizing the OCQ addressing the antecedents of commitment, approximately 900 nurses was surveyed. In this study, job satisfaction, most commonly considered a cause or antecedent of organizational commitment, was instead an outcome. Organizational commitment and the motivating potential of the job itself were also found to have positive causal impacts, while job tension, leader punitive behaviour, and environmental alternatives had negative impacts. Thus, the overall pattern of causal relationships from these results suggested that several variables were antecedents not to commitment but instead to satisfaction, and that commitment itself was one of the several causes of satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1977) also attempted to identify the clusters of motivational antecedents that caused volunteers to increase and decrease their commitment to volunteer responsibilities. Adapting Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt's model, Mitchelson and Slack (1982) designed the "Decision to Continue, Increase Commitment, or Drop Out" questionnaire to more appropriately reflect volunteer

opportunities in amateur sport. This questionnaire consisted of example statements used by amateur sport organizations as cues in an attempt to assess the factors which influenced volunteers in maintaining membership (Mitchelson & Slack, 1982).

Angle and Perry (1981) also identified principle types of antecedents that have been associated with organizational commitment. The two general approaches of member and organizational based models were distinguished by the initiator of actions that ultimately lead to an increase in the member's organizational commitment. Questionnaires for this study were administered to bus operators in 24 mass transit organizations in the Western United States. Organizational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and also included a set of six personal attributes, considered to be tantamount to side bets. These factors were obtained by self reports with demographic information including the respondent's sex, education level, marital status and age. Results from this study confirmed the findings from Bateman and Strasser(1984), revealing that there was more than a single antecedent path to organizational commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1987), in contrast to Bateman and Strasser (1984) found, consistent with Porter et al.'s (1974) suggestion, that commitment was influenced by job satisfaction as an antecedent. Additional support for the satisfaction-commitment relation transpired from research examining determinants of commitment. A model developed by

Steers(1977) described the antecedents of commitment and although he did not specifically include job satisfaction as an antecedent, he did propose that it would probably influence commitment more than job characteristics (Steers, 1977).

Similarly, Stevens, Beyer & Trice (1973) developed a model of organizational commitment in their attempt to clarify psychological and structural determinants of the managerial commitment process. Although job satisfaction was again not included in their analysis, they suggested that it might be an important predictor of commitment (Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1973, p.391; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Job satisfaction was not included in these studies, yet the antecedents of commitment that were previously identified had also been established as important determinants of satisfaction (Williams & Hazer, 1986).

Williams and Hazer (1986) examined models of organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Stevens Beyer & Trice, 1973) and turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981), and indicated that the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment had been overlooked. Another observation was that attempts to identify the antecedents of these variables suffered from conceptual and methodological limitations (Williams & Hazer, 1986). It was proposed that satisfaction was a determinant of organizational commitment and that other variables associated with the work environment and representing personal characteristics influenced commitment indirectly via

satisfaction. Satisfaction was therefore proposed to be an intervening variable between environmental and personal characteristics and organizational commitment. These hypotheses followed a review of conceptual models of commitment and the established relationships between environmental and personal characteristics, and the measurements of satisfaction (Williams & Hazer, 1986).

Results from Williams and Hazer (1986) strongly supported the proposition that personal and organizational characteristics influenced satisfaction directly and influenced commitment indirectly. There was also less support for a causal link from commitment to satisfaction than the reverse direction. Nevertheless, a clear need for more longitudinal research to examine the development and maintenance of commitment at various points in the employees' tenure remained (Meyer et al., 1989).

Bateman and Strasser (1984) added to this approach by providing the first longitudinal multi-variate analysis aimed at deriving causal inferences regarding a number of presumed antecedents. Past research had not established empirically the causal relationship between commitment and those situational variables and attitudes presumed to be antecedents.

Other longitudinal studies include Tetrick and Farkas (1988), who recognized antecedents of organizational commitment early in the volunteer's development process. This timeframe was proposed when attitudes were most malleable (Porter et al., 1974) and declining morale and excessive

turnover had been found to be the most problematic.

It was predicted that commitment would decline during the first year of employment and was measured at six, nine and twelve month intervals following the initial study (Meyer & Allen, 1987). A change in commitment was expected as early volunteer experiences generally did not live up to expectations, and attitudes would therefore deteriorate. The failure of organizations to fulfil these initial expectations became inflated as a result of cognitive distortion following the decision to participate (Meyer & Allen, 1987).

Few studies have assessed the commitment of volunteers in non-profit organizations. If future research can reveal the causes of commitment that organizations can influence directly then a number of benefits will occur.

First, the costs associated with incorrect interventions may be reduced. Second, appropriate interventions may have their intended results. Finally, the improvements in commitment levels may have positive behavioural consequences (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p.95-112).

Summary

The preceding review of literature included references to volunteer demographics, motivation, commitment and satisfaction. It was recognized that the majority of studies within these fields were completed using a questionnaire format or interview process and identified one specific cohort group.

The majority of the studies dealing with commitment and satisfaction were completed in the profit sector or within the non-profit, non-sport sector. Research dealing with the

separate measurements of satisfaction and commitment were also more extensive than those that included both measures. As a result, few studies have analyzed volunteers within the amateur, non-profit sport environment, specifically with regards to their motivation for participation. Within the literature pertaining to the measurements of commitment and satisfaction, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire created by Porter et al. (1974) and the Job Description Index formulated by Hulin, Kendall & Smith (1969) were considered the most reliable. These instruments were selected as appropriate for the purposes of this present study.

Demographic characteristics for this study included gender, years spent with the organization, highest level of completed education and age. These characteristics were all identified by previous studies as possible significant variables affecting volunteer motivation including both satisfaction and commitment.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The first purpose of this study was to identify the sources of satisfaction, as measured by the Job Description Index and commitment, as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire within volunteers of Sport for the Disabled Organizations. The second purpose of this study was to identify the significant relationships between the sub-sections and general scores of commitment and satisfaction. The third purpose was to identify the demographic characteristics of Sport for the Disabled volunteers and to determine if these characteristics had any relationships to the individual measures of commitment and satisfaction.

Figure 1 assists with in the conceptualization of these three purposes by providing an eleven item matrix. The two independent variables, commitment and satisfaction have seven sub-sections while the dependent variables of volunteer demographic characteristics had four sub-sections.

The following research problems and hypotheses were statistically analyzed at ($p < .05$) level of significance which was judged to be appropriate, "since the larger alpha level decreased the potential for Type II errors" (Kikulis, 1987, p.95), and the risk of failing to reject the null hypothesis was more acceptable. "A Type I error is made when the researcher rejects a true hypothesis; a Type II error is made when the researcher fails to reject a false hypothesis"

The diagram shows a 3D grid representing a contingency table. The vertical axis (y-axis) lists factors related to commitment and satisfaction: Belief in Goals, Maintain Membership, Exertion of Effort, Opportunities for Rewards, Co Workers, Supervision, and Volunteer Role. The horizontal axis (x-axis) lists demographic characteristics: Age, Gender, Education, and Years Experience. The grid consists of 7 rows and 4 columns of empty cells, indicating a 7x4 contingency table.

	Age	Gender	Education	Years Experience
Belief in Goals				
Maintain Membership				
Exertion of Effort				
Opportunities for Rewards				
Co Workers				
Supervision				
Volunteer Role				

Demographic Characteristics

Figure 1: Contingency Table Regarding Demographic Variables, Commitment and Satisfaction

(Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979, p.263).

"Raising the level of significance from .05 to .10 (increasing the probability of a Type I error) would have decreased the probability of making a Type II error. When selecting the level of significance for an investigation however, a researcher must carefully consider the consequences of either type of error in the specific situation and decide upon an appropriate alpha level" (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979, p.265). It was determined that it would be more beneficial for administrators of volunteer organizations to assume that no differences existed and continue directing their efforts towards improving all sub-sections of volunteer commitment and satisfaction. Lowering the level of significance from (.05) to (.01) was also unnecessary however, as the specific consequence of making a Type II error would not be severe. Although (.05) was chosen as the appropriate level of significance for this study, statistical relationships at (.01) and (.10) levels of significance were noted.

"As a statistical term, significance does not mean important, remarkable, or even noteworthy; it means reliable" (Levin, 1983, p. 138). A result was considered significant at the (.05) level if it had been shown that chance (i.e., 5%), in the form of sampling error, was unlikely to have produced the outcome. When a result was statistically significant, it meant only that it had a low probability of happening by chance and that it was probable that the independent variable resulted in the change or difference in the dependent

variable (Levin, 1983).

Research Problems

This study was designed to investigate relationships between volunteer commitment, satisfaction and four demographic variables. With respect to the three purposes of this study, the following research problems and hypotheses were advanced:

1. Are there significant differences between the sub-sections of commitment and satisfaction to their respective combined scores?

Ho1 : There will be no difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of commitment.

Ha1 : There will be a difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of commitment.

Ho2 : There will be no difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of satisfaction.

Ha2 : There will be a difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of satisfaction.

2. Do the general scores and sub-sections of commitment and satisfaction predict each other?

Ho3 : There will be no difference in predicting volunteer commitment and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Ha3 : There will be a difference in predicting volunteer commitment and its sub-sections between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Ho4 : There will be no difference in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

Ha4 : There will be a difference in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

3. Are there significant differences between the demographic characteristics and the total and separate sub-section measures of satisfaction and commitment?

Ho5 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of commitment.

Ha5 : There will be a difference between demographic characteristic and the total score and sub-sections of commitment.

Ho6 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction.

Ha6 : There will be a difference between demographic characteristic and the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction.

Research Design

A model for directing the research in this present study (See Figure 1) integrated the theoretical dimensions of satisfaction, commitment and volunteer demographic variables. Using quantitative and qualitative methods, data was collected using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, the Job Description Index, a demographic characteristic checklist and a final section for qualitative feedback (See Appendices B,C,D).

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of one hundred and eight (N=108) volunteers who participated at six Sport for the Disabled events, occurring between May 1st and July 30th, 1992. The Sport for Disabled organizations that agreed to participate in this study included; Sport for Disabled Ontario, Ontario Wheelchair Sports Association, the Windsor Bulldogs Disabled Sport Club, Sport by Ability - Niagara, Ottawa Stingers Wheelchair Rugby Club, Burlington Disabled Sports Club, Sudbury Shooting Stars Disabled Sports Club, and the Brockville Disabled Sports Club.

Instrumentation

An adapted version of the Job Description Index (JDI) (Kikulis, 1987; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) was used to measure volunteer satisfaction with regard to four sub-sections: (a) supervision, (b) rewards, (c) volunteer experience, and (d) co-workers (See Appendix D). The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) measured volunteer commitment and included three sub-sections: (a) the volunteers belief in the organization's goals and values, (b) their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) their desire to maintain membership within that organization (Porter et al., 1974) (See Appendix C).

Demographic Characteristics

Four demographic variables were collected including : age (8 options in ten year increments), gender (male - female), years experience with the organization (nine options, one year to nine years), and highest level of education completed (six options, grade 8 to Doctorate Degree). These four variables were collected on page one of the volunteer questionnaire (See Appendix B).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The OCQ, a 15 item measure developed by Porter and his associates*, was utilized to identify personal commitment characteristics and to distinguish the degree with which subjects felt committed to an organization (Porter et al., 1974 ; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The original OCQ items were altered by substituting the word "volunteer" for "work" to provide greater relevance to the volunteer subjects (Jenner, 1981).

The fifteen questions included statements pertaining to the subject's perceptions concerning loyalty towards the organization, willingness to exert a great deal of effort to achieve organizational goals, and finally, acceptance of the organization's values. Questions for the sub-section "willingness to exert effort" included numbers 1, 4, 8, 10, and 11. Questions for the sub-section "loyalty to the

* Permission was granted to use the Organizational commitment Questionnaire for the present study by Dr. Porter at the Graduate School of Management, University of California - Irvine, Irvine, California, U.S.A., 92717 - 3125.

organization" included the numbers 3, 7, 9, 13, and 15. Questions for the sub-section "acceptance of organizational goals and values" included numbers 2, 5, 6, 12, and 14 (See Appendix C).

Responses to these fifteen statements were recorded using a seven point Likert scale, ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". The general measure of organizational commitment was based on the mean score across all fifteen items. Six of the fifteen questions (3,7,9,11,12, 15) were negatively worded and scoring for these questions were reversed.

Job Description Index (JDI)

Volunteer satisfaction was assessed using an adapted version of the Job Description Index (JDI) *(Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). The JDI has been described as the most carefully developed measure of job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). In its original form, the JDI assessed five dimensions of job satisfaction derived from factor analytic research: (a) work, (b) supervision, (c) pay, (d) promotions, and (e) co-workers. A total job satisfaction score was determined by adding the individual scores of each dimension.

To accommodate volunteer subjects in comparison to paid employees, an adapted version of the JDI was developed by Kikulis (1987). This adapted instrument was included within

*Approval for the use of the J.D.I. was received in writing from Dr. Smith, at Bowling Green State University, Department of Psychology, Bowling Green, Ohio, 43403.

the larger Volunteer Sport Administrator Experience Questionnaire (VSAEQ) (Kikulis, 1987). "The adapted JDI included measures of the nature of the volunteer role, the characteristics of supervision and rewards, and personal relationships with co-workers, while eliminating the category of pay" (Kikulis, 1987, p.14). Further alterations within the original JDI by Kikulis (1987) include the word item "Opportunities for promotion" changed to "Opportunities for rewards" although the context of each item was retained. These modifications were necessary to provide relevance to the volunteer subjects and were adopted for the present study.

To determine the level of volunteer satisfaction, each respondent indicated agreement with a choice of items for each dimension using the following scale: "Y" for "Yes" if they agreed with the item, "N" for "No" if they disagreed with the item, and "?" if they could not decide. The coding for responses from positive descriptive words, such as "fascinating" and "intelligent", received 3 points for "Yes", 1 for "?" and 0 for "No". Coding for negative descriptive words such as "boring" and "lazy" received 0 points for "Yes", 1 for "?" and 3 for "No".

Further insight and verification of the quantitative results received from the OCQ and JDI were provided through qualitative feedback. This information was collected by offering the volunteers an opportunity to provide written comments at the bottom of the questionnaire (See Appendix D).

Validity and Reliability

The OCQ and JDI, were chosen to measure volunteer commitment and satisfaction after an extensive review of literature and were presumed to be representative of the properties being measured. An attempt to confirm the reliability and validity of the assessed instrumentation and statistical treatments were achieved by a pilot study. The results from the pilot study "reduced the danger of improper interpretation of results"(Kerlinger, 1986, p.145).

Volunteers for the Windsor Bulldogs Disabled Sport Club used in the pilot were not included in the final study sample. Submitting the instruments to a small pilot study (N=23) sample of twenty three volunteers on March 25, 1992, allowed revisions for establishing clear, concise, and unambiguous statements prior to the study's main data collection commencing May 1, 1992.

One of the major sources of measurement error considered was sampling of content. If the items were not consistent, or correlations among item responses were low, the test would be subject to error and would consequently not be reliable (Jenner, 1981). The correlation of items has been termed "internal consistency" of which Cronbach's coefficient alpha is the basic formula for determining. If the coefficient alpha is low, ".either the test was too short or the items had little in common" (Jenner, 1981, p.87)

The OCQ has shown considerable reliability (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) as tests for validity revealed

adequate correlations with other single and multiple measures of commitment (Balfour, 1991). The OCQ had been used frequently in the profit sector and the feeling that research methods and instruments developed for the profit environment could be applied to volunteer work was supported by an analysis of Porter's Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) for a volunteer population (Jenner, 1981). The internal consistency of the OCQ in Jenner's (1981) study of volunteers was evidenced by a Cronbach's alpha of (.84).

A second study measuring "the internal consistency of the OCQ using a Cronbach's coefficient alpha produced scores ranging from (.82) to (.93) across four time periods" (Porter et al., 1974, p.605), while a third study reported a Cronbach's alpha of (.90) (Angle & Perry, 1981). Bateman & Strasser (1984) also found that the OCQ demonstrated internal consistency reliabilities with Cronbach's alpha of (.90) and a test-retest reliability of (.65).

Collection of Data

Each Sport for Disabled organization was contacted one month prior to the event date for permission to distribute questionnaires by both letter and telephone. All event organizers responded positively. Letters of explanation and instruction were attached to each questionnaire. All questionnaires used in this study were collected between May, 1992 and August, 1992.

Questionnaires for the Regional Games for the Physically

Disabled held in St. Catharines and Brockville were distributed to the volunteer within their volunteer packages. These packages also included information for the volunteer from event organizers. These packages were retrieved by the volunteers at registration tables during the morning of each event. The volunteers were individually requested by event organizers to complete and return the questionnaires to the University of Windsor in self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

Questionnaires distributed at the Provincial Wheelchair Rugby Championships in Ottawa, the Metro Toronto Wheelchair Challenge in Toronto, the Junior Disabled Games in Burlington and the Provincial Sport for Disabled Ontario Championships in Sudbury were collected by the author of the study handing out questionnaires at the volunteer registration tables with personal requests that the volunteers return the completed questionnaires during that day to predetermined sites.

A total of two hundred and ten questionnaires (210) were either mailed or hand-delivered to volunteers at six Sport for Disabled Games locations. Sixty questionnaires were designed to be returned by mail at the St. Catharines and Brockville sites. One hundred and fifty questionnaires (150) were hand delivered by the researcher to each specific volunteer at the Toronto, Sudbury, Burlington, and Ottawa sites (For a complete listing of return rates please refer to Table 1).

Statistical Analysis

Attitudes regarding satisfaction, commitment and motivation are complex and require a multivariate methods when conducting a statistical analysis (Kikulis, 1987). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) at the University of Windsor was used to compute an analysis of variance (ANOVA), regression analysis, and correlations with respect to the six research hypotheses (Kikulis, 1987). The field of statistical inquiry has developed to the point where for any given research design there were a number of alternative statistical tests that could be employed to arrive at a decision concerning the possible rejection, or failure to reject the null hypothesis. With the SPSSx program, various statistical tests were available (Keppel, 1982). "The difficulty in choosing from among the different procedures was that no one test was consistently best under all possible conditions" (Keppel, 1982, p.97).

Since there were alternative tests, "a rational basis for selecting the best or most appropriate one was needed" (Hill and Kerber, 1967, p.293). Recognizing the nature of the research questions posed, three main types of statistical analysis were chosen including: analysis of variance, correlation and regression analysis.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Statistical tests within the SPSSx program are tools used to apply to a set of data to aid the researcher if the

data is meaningful (Kikulis, 1987). The rationale for choosing analysis of variance (ANOVA) as the primary statistical technique for this study was based on the research questions asked. The ANOVA was applied in this study as the design included using one independent variable that was presented at several levels or strengths (Hopkins & Stanley, 1981).

"Parametric tests such as the ANOVA assumed that the data was based on continuous scales and that the variances of the populations sampled were homogeneous" (Keppel, 1982, p.46). These assumptions meant that the distributions of the sample "N" were more or less similar. ANOVA was judged as the appropriate method of data analysis because it would be used to determine whether significant differences existed among the means of three or more groups of scores. Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) could also have been utilized for this study, however, due to extremely low correlations within the three demographic variables, ANOVA was determined to be more acceptable (Keppel, 1982).

The ANOVA was also chosen as it further determined if the results of the different manipulations were significant. If only chance (using .05 level of significance) was operating and the null hypothesis was true, the two estimates of variance should have been approximately the same. However, if the independent variable had a significant effect, the two variances should have differed. If the between group variance (the degree to which the groups as a whole differed from each other) was significantly larger than the within group

variance (the estimate of how much variation there was normally in the groups without any manipulation), the null hypothesis would have been rejected (McCall, 1980).

In behavioural science, many independent variables of interest can occur at more than two levels.

Identifying all possible significant differences among several groups of scores by means of t-tests would not only be cumbersome but would also increase the overall probability of a Type I error because conducting several tests provides more opportunities for a Type I error to occur (Levin, 1983, p. 191).

If properly employed, the ANOVA is a powerful technique, as the simple set of calculations allowed testing the statistical significance of several comparisons and interactions among groups of subjects who varied on one or more factors (McCall, 1980).

Computing the significant difference in means for independent variables such as gender were completed using a t-test (McCall, 1981). For independent samples, t-tests provide both separate and pooled variance estimates. "The t-test takes into account the fact that the distributions for small samples are flat, or platykurtic, in comparison to a normal distribution" (McCall, 1981, p.152). The t-test was used in this study, to measure the effect that gender had on the independent measures of commitment and satisfaction (McCall, 1980).

Post-hoc tests were necessary to specify the exact direction of the significant relationships. Perhaps the most versatile of the methods for testing post-hoc comparisons was

due to Scheffe (1959). "This method had the advantage of simplicity, applicability to groups of unequal size and suitability for any comparison as it was flexible in its application to the analysis of an experiment" (Keppel, 1982, p.151)

Correlation

A correlation coefficient represented the degree of observed linear association between two variables but not the extent of their causal relationship. The Pearson-product moment correlation and the Spearman correlation were chosen for this study based on their appropriateness for the chosen variables (Edwards, 1984).

The Pearson-product moment correlation was appropriate for data that attained at least an interval level of measurement (McCall, 1981). For ordinal data or interval data that did not satisfy the normality assumption applied to rank ordering, another measure of the linear relationship between two variables, the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, was available (Norusis, 1990). Spearman correlations were utilized for three categories of demographic data as age, years experience and levels of completed education were ordinal level data and were suitable for analyzing two sets of scores (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Regression Analysis

Predicting one variable from another is known as regression which signifies a variety of techniques that

describe relationships between variables and predicts one variable from another. Linear regression used in this study consisted of statistical techniques for establishing a linear function, a straight line, and relating two variables. This process was represented by the equation ($y = mx + b$) where "y" represented the dependent variable, "b" reflected the constant and "x" equalled the independent variable. With this line, or a regression equation describing this line mathematically, it was possible to identify a certain portion of the variation on the dependent variable that was associated with the independent variable (McCall, 1980).

Multiple regression measures were used to measure the relationships between the sub-sections and total scores of satisfaction and commitment. Stepwise regression was an exploratory analysis where the importance of each variable entered was unknown. The results of a stepwise regression showed the rank order importance of the sub-sections.

In stepwise regression, with forward selection, there was no preset order in which the X variables were introduced into the regression equation. Rather, the point was to include the variables one at a time, generally with the goal of accounting for the largest additional amount of Y variance with each next X variable added to the equation (Kiehl, 1989, p.55).

The second regression analysis used in this study, forced entry regression analysis, was unique from the stepwise process in that it only imputed those variables that showed statistical significance. The analysis entered each variable one at a time in the order of importance to the dependent variable.

Limitations of the Study

Within the nature of the research questions posed were certain theoretical and practical, limitations imposed by the environment. these limitations were considered for their potential effects on the stated research problems and findings (Kikulis, 1987).

Theoretical Limitations

A limitation when studying human behaviour was the tendency to desire being proud and satisfied with yourself. Human defence mechanisms cushion failures, minimize faults and maximize virtues so that people maintained a sense of personal worth. The data received in this study may therefore not have been representative of reality but instead represented the perceived perfect ideal of the volunteer's expectations (Jenner, 1981).

Secondly, as the JDI was slightly modified, the majority of cross study comparisons with previous research could have only be inferred (Kikulis, 1987). Finally, identification of volunteer motivation was hampered by four factors: the inability to generalize personal and situational variables; the ineptitude of measuring unconscious motives; a lack of continued theoretical acceptance; and finally, the incongruence of personal motives over a long period of time (Locke, 1984).

Finally, the sample population was deliberately confined to Sport for Disabled organizations participating in events

located within the province of Ontario. Although the volunteers within these organizations matched a description of a larger segment of volunteers, there was always the possibility that membership in these sport for disabled organizations were unique.

Practical Limitations

The inclusion of items which are descriptive in nature along with terms which are evaluative in nature created limitations in scoring. The individual's value standard was unknown, therefore attitudes towards the values provided for answers are unique to each individual. A second practical limitation was that questionnaires were completed without supervision and returned at the respondent's leisure either by mail or during the day that they were received. Therefore, it was difficult to control for, or prevent, communication between volunteer subjects, potentially resulting in collaborative answers. A third limitation existed when dealing with return rates of completed questionnaires. One might expect for example that those who return the questionnaire were more interested in being examined than those who did not (Gruneberg, 1979).

Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations imposed on the study by the researcher included the OCQ (Porter et al., 1974) and JDI (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) both being modified to accommodate the sample

of the study, and using restrictive point scales. Questions for the OCQ were answered using of a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly agree" to 7 "strongly disagree". The JDI used a forced choice response choosing between "Yes", "No" or "?". These structured options for possible responses may have restricted volunteers from providing accurate feedback, while the adaptation from the original measuring instrument limited opportunities for comparisons to previous studies.

Other delimitations imposed on this study included the sample being confined to six athletic events throughout Ontario (Windsor, Brockville, St. Catharines, Ottawa, Toronto, Burlington, and Sudbury) and specifically associated with Sport for the Disabled Ontario. The conceptualization and operationalization of the independent variables were also delimited by an analysis of previous research, which had tended to concentrate on job satisfaction and commitment rather than volunteer satisfaction and commitment.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

One of the main goals of this study was to identify significant relationships between volunteer satisfaction, commitment and demographic characteristics. To determine the relationships, a combination of the Job Description Index (JDI), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and a listing of four demographic characteristics were used. The JDI measured the dimensions of satisfaction (adapted from Smith, Kendall & Hulin's JDI (1969)) while the dimensions of commitment were measured by the OCQ (Porter, Mowday and Steers, 1987). Demographic characteristics were collected from volunteers responding to appropriate categories with respect to age, gender, years experience with the organization, and their highest level of completed formal education.

In this chapter, descriptive results were presented with analysis and discussion pertinent to the research questions and related hypotheses. This chapter also linked data and results from the present study to the review of literature in light of the proposed research questions.

DemographicsResults

Eighteen of the sixty questionnaires distributed from volunteer registration tables at Brockville and St.

Catharines were returned in the self addressed stamped envelopes provided. Of the remaining one hundred and thirty questionnaires that were hand delivered at Sudbury, Ottawa, Toronto and Burlington, ninety were collected on site during the event. The final sample size was one hundred and eight volunteers (N=108) with a 51.4% return rate (See Table 1).

Demographic questions involved five categories including age, years experience with the Sport for Disabled organization, highest level of completed education, gender and occupation. Occupation, was the only demographic characteristic not analyzed statistically due to poor return rates and an inability to categorize responses.

In the present study, male respondents represented 35.2% (N=38) while females represented 53.7% (N=58) (See Table 2). These measures did not take into consideration the respondents that did not distinguish their gender on the questionnaire.

The percentage of the volunteers with levels of completed education were as follows; grade 8 (2.3%), high school (33.3%), community college (7.4%), university undergraduate (19.4%), university graduate (15.7%) and university doctorate (9%).

The majority of volunteers were between 10 and 49 years of age (86.9%), with the greatest percentage in ten year intervals between the ages of 20 and 29 (30.3%) years. Forty-one and one-half percent (41.5%) of the volunteers were involved for the first time with a Sport for Disabled organization, while 9.6% had volunteered for Sport for

Table 1

Return Rates for Each Games Site

Location	# returned	# distributed	percent completed
Brockville :	11	30	36%
St. Cath. :	07	30	23%
Ottawa :	16	20	80%
Burlington :	29	40	72%
Toronto :	21	50	42%
Sudbury :	24	50	48%
Total :	<hr/> 108	<hr/> 210	<hr/> 51%

Table 2

Demographic Distribution of Respondents

Demographic Variable	Demographic Characteristic	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender	Male	38	39.6
	Female	58	60.4
	Missing	11	
Age	10-19	20	20.2
	20-29	30	30.3
	30-39	15	15.2
	40-49	21	21.2
	50-59	06	06.1
	60-69	04	04.0
	70-79	01	01.0
	80+	02	02.0
	Missing	09	
Years with Organization	1	39	41.5
	2	24	25.5
	3	05	05.3
	4	11	11.7
	5	03	03.2
	6	03	03.2
	7	02	02.1
	8	01	01.1
	9+	06	06.4
		Missing	14
Highest Level of Completed Education	Grade 8	09	09.8
	High School	36	39.1
	Community College	08	08.7
	University, Under.	21	22.8
	University, Grad.	17	18.5
	University, Doc.	01	01.1
	Missing	16	

Table 3

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Matrix for the
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Job Description
Index

	com.	loy.	wil.	acc.	sat.	vol.	sup.	co-w.	opp.
com.	1.000	0.703 **	0.846 **	0.791 **	0.195 *	0.234 *	0.237 *	0.183	0.172
loy.	0.703 **	1.000	0.401 **	0.276 **	0.048	0.130	0.133	0.186	0.163
wil.	0.846 **	0.401 **	1.000	0.562 **	0.204 *	0.247 *	0.212 *	0.081	0.149
acc.	0.791 **	0.276 **	0.562 **	1.000	0.200 *	0.170	0.211 *	0.174	0.100
sat.	0.195 *	0.048	0.204 *	0.220 *	1.000	0.542 **	0.852 **	0.802 **	0.395 **
vol.	0.234 *	0.130	0.247 *	0.170	0.542 **	1.000	0.487 **	0.500 **	0.163
sup.	0.237 *	0.133	0.212 *	0.211 *	0.852 **	0.487 **	1.000	0.606 **	0.374 **
co-w.	0.183	0.186	0.081	0.174	0.802 **	0.500 **	0.606 **	1.000	0.263 *
opp.	0.177	0.163	0.149	0.100	0.395 **	0.163	0.374 **	0.263 *	1.000

Key

com. commitment

wil. willingness

vol. volunteer role

co-w. co-workers

loy. loyalty

acc. acceptance

sup. supervision

opp. opportunity for rewards

* significant at .05

** significant at .01

Disabled organizations for more than five years (see Table 2).

Discussion

Prior to addressing the six research questions, the common demographic characteristics of the present cohort group and other volunteer groups was discussed. Peter Drucker once noted that any organization, including both those for-profit and non-profit...

...can't reasonably hope to recruit and hold much better people than anybody else, unless it is a very small organization, let's say a string quartet. Otherwise the organization can only hope to attract and hold the common run of humanity (Drucker, 1990, p.145).

Generalizations like these, however, should not overshadow the importance of the individual's personal decision to volunteer. If Drucker's words hold true, it remains imperative to understand the cohort group that was participating in the volunteer agency. This understanding would allow increased recruitment efforts for those not represented and greater recognition for those already involved.

Plato noted that, "citizens, you are all brothers [sisters], yet God had created you differently" (Gleitman, 1986, p.467). To facilitate a committed and satisfied volunteer corps, each individual must be attended to with singular importance regardless of demographic generalizations. For the sake of simplicity and ease of understanding however, it was necessary to create broad

statements from the resulting demographic data.

The statistics collected during this study were compared to the 1987 Survey of Volunteer Activity, conducted by Statistics Canada for the Department of the Secretary of State. This survey acted as a "measuring stick" for the results found in the present study.

Gender: In the present study, men represented (39.6%) of the valid respondents while females represented (60.4%) (See Table 2). These scores appeared to reflect the results from other studies including the Municipal Recreation Survey, yet they also contradicted previous studies which have surmised that a surge in male participation, especially in the sporting environment, was occurring (C.F. Mitchelson & Slack, 1982). Reasons for this difference may be accounted for by the actual number of returned questionnaires. It was possible that a greater number of male volunteers did not return their questionnaires or that they did not receive the questionnaires at the point of dispersal. The gender related demographic results may therefore have reflected an impetus to return completed questionnaires versus a good representation of volunteers in Sport for Disabled organizations.

Volunteers were requested to pick up volunteer packages at the beginning of each event. After that point, volunteers were then approached and asked for the completed questionnaires at all sites other than St. Catharines and Brockville. It was possible that a larger number of male

volunteers choose to not retrieve their volunteer packages, thus eliminating the potential for a completed and returned questionnaire.

It may also have been possible that Sport for Disabled Ontario was not perceived as an elite sport organization and was instead perceived as a rehabilitative and health care oriented organization. Historically, volunteers in these sectors have tended to be women, due in part to a perceived dominant nurturing role. This attitude may still have prevailed, thus possibly effecting the gender of participating volunteers (Jenner, 1981).

Education: In the present study the percentages of volunteers with the highest levels of completed education were as follows: grade 8 (2.3%), High School (33.3%), Community College (7.4%), University, undergraduate (19.4%), University, graduate (15.7%) and University, doctoral (9%). Fifteen percent of the sample did not complete this section (See Table 2).

Comparing the data collected in this study to the Canadian survey in 1987, it appeared that volunteers in the Sport for Disabled Community had higher levels of education than other volunteer organizations, as 51.1% had at least completed one level of post secondary education. This score was even more remarkable considering the large number of students who returned the questionnaire as determined from the listing of occupation. Although not considered an official demographic variable within this study, 32

respondents provided information on their employment. Twenty two of these respondents listed their current occupation as a student. It could be hypothesized that a vast majority of these students would continue with their educational pursuits to complete some form of post secondary studies possibly correlating to higher numbers of highly educated volunteers.

The levels of completed education may also be attributed to Sport for Disabled events requiring a large number of medical personnel, most of whom would have attained a minimum of post secondary education. Many volunteers with experience in the medical fields were required for medical classification, physiotherapy, massage therapy and doping control. Another reason for this relatively high level of education was that Sport for Disabled organizations are often the recipients of volunteers trying to help those perceived to be less fortunate than themselves. Success either directly or indirectly was often measured in our society by the levels of education attained. It could be hypothesized that the individual who is less educated would not feel the need to assist those perceived to be less fortunate than themselves.

Age: In the present study, the majority of volunteers were between the ages of 10 and 49 (86.9% of valid sample). With respect to the ten year intervals, the largest number of volunteers were between the ages of 20 and 29 years (30.3%) (See Table 2). It was possible that a number of these volunteers were parents, siblings and/or friends of the competitors, who were generally under 30 years of age. A

relatively high level of physical assistance for an athlete (i.e., assisting in washrooms) could have been perceived as necessary to volunteer, which may subsequently have inhibited an older potential volunteer from participating.

Administrative tasks were assumed by only a few volunteers behind the scenes and were less evident. Mitchelson and Slack's (1982) recognition that the number of women volunteers in Alberta declined during the child rearing years did not coincide with the findings of this study. It was possible that many of the women volunteers at the Sport for Disabled events were, in fact, the mothers of the competitors.

Years Experience: Within the present study, it was found that 41.5% of the volunteers were involved for the first time (see Table 3). It was, therefore, important that Sport for Disabled organizations provided leadership and support for the beginning stage of volunteer development. This high percentage of first time volunteers was contradictory to the results from the National Survey by Statistics Canada (1991) which may have been indicative of the era in which this study was conducted or the nature of the events themselves. Disabled sporting events have tended to lend themselves to the first time volunteer, as events were regionally based and occurred in different cities on an annual basis, and large numbers of volunteer were required for one day events only.

In comparison, a smaller number of volunteers were required by the local Sport for Disabled club or team on a

daily basis. As well, it was easier to recruit a large number of volunteers for one specific event than it would have been to retain involvement over an entire year. Volunteers could fulfil personal needs and motives specific to their involvement with a Sport for Disabled organizations over a very short period of time, as opposed to becoming locked into a long term commitment. Students may have also contributed to this large number of first time volunteers as many were possibly looking for avenues to acquire experience in the recreation and health care fields, as well as possibly fulfilling their own altruist tendencies.

The large number of first time volunteers may have also greatly affected scores on the questionnaire. One volunteer in this study noted that "a number of the questions did not apply, since this was their first time" volunteering while another volunteer commented that "the survey was a little hard to fill out as it was my first time and I don't know much about this [Sport for Disabled] organization". These observations were recognized as serious limitations within several of the research hypotheses.

Research Question 1

The Measures of Commitment and Satisfaction and their Respective Sub-Sections

Commitment

Results: The first research question asked if there were significant differences between sub-sections of commitment

and satisfaction to their respective combined scores?

Associated with this research question was the first null and alternate hypothesis:

H₀₁ : There will be no difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of commitment.

H_{a1} : There will be a difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of commitment.

Hypothesis H₀₁ was assessed using a Pearson product moment correlation. This study found the commitment categories of loyalty to the organization (.7033), willingness to exert effort (.8462) and acceptance of organizational goals (.7915) significant at (.05) and (.01) levels of significance (See Table 3). These results suggested that the hypothesis H₀₁ should fail to be rejected as the strength of association to the volunteer's general level of organizational commitment between the three sub-sections of commitment did not reveal significant differences.

Discussion It is not uncommon for volunteer coordinators "to recruit, train, and place volunteers, only to find at the end of the year, that the recruited volunteer staff was no larger than it was at the beginning" (Gidron, 1983, p.55). Volunteer organizations should therefore have focused their attention towards volunteer commitment and how participation could be preserved (Kikulis, 1987).

Research addressing volunteer commitment had utilized field studies aimed at correlating measures of commitment

(usually a questionnaire) with hypothesized antecedents or consequences of commitment (Balfour, 1991). As noted in the review of literature, earlier studies (Grunsky, 1966; Sheldon, 1971) defined commitment as identification - the extent to which the employee internalized the goals and values of the organization. This definition of commitment was measured with either responses to general questions about the individual values with those of the organization, or by generating questions aimed at a specific employee-organization relationship.

Organizational commitment had been explored in a wide variety of settings although the majority of research had been in profit-based organizations. Commitment, both behavioural and attitudinal, may nevertheless have been even more important to voluntary organizations.

Results from the present study revealed that willingness to exert effort (.8462) had the highest internal significance to the general scores of commitment (although all three subsections were significant (.05) to the measure of commitment using the Pearson Product Moment correlation). This relationship, however, may not be at the expense of a long-term commitment as one volunteer noted "I would be more involved with this organization if I had more time".

Acceptance of organizational goals, was the second most statistically important sub-section of commitment (.7915) yet received few comments in the qualitative section of the questionnaire. It was possible, however, that the majority of volunteers may simply have assumed that they agreed with

organizational goals and values, or that they simply did not know what these goals and values were. As a large number of the volunteers were involved for the first time (41.5%), they could have been unaware of the Sport for Disabled Ontario's goals and values. The volunteers themselves could possibly have assumed that the mission of the organization was similar to their own values and beliefs and therefore judged them to be satisfactory.

Loyalty to the organization, which was the volunteer's desire to maintain membership, is important to a non-profit organization as the loss of active participants was one of the most discouraging problems that plagued volunteer programs. Loyalty however was the least statistically significant of the three sub-sections when compared to the general levels of commitment (.7033). Similar to difficulties related to paid staff turnover, a high rate of volunteer turnover has a damaging impact on the viability of the volunteer programs themselves. A certain amount of volunteer turnover, however, is unavoidable and should even be anticipated. Many volunteers discontinue their participation for reasons quite compatible with contemporary lifestyles while other factors that cause volunteers to discontinue their participation reflect feelings of dissatisfaction. These unfortunate results may have been prevented or reduced through the skillful efforts of constructive supervisors who understood human behaviour, motivation and commitment forces (Levin, 1973).

It was recognized that committed volunteers were

beneficial to the organization as they were much less prone to turnover and were, therefore, more likely to make decisions and undertake extra efforts that benefited the organization (Simon, 1976; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Reichers, 1985; O'Reilly & Chapman, 1986). Few studies however, have undertaken the need to examine the interdependencies of the three sub-sections of the measurement of commitment. Reiterating the importance for this understanding, is the extent of the volunteers' commitment varying directly proportional to the corresponding motives and expectations.

Difficulties in recruiting and motivating volunteers are persistent topics in the non-profit sector as, "leaving a volunteer job does not involve loss of pay, and positions are readily available, resulting in a high potential mobility in the volunteer labour pool" (Jenner, 1984, p.91). As the effectiveness of a non-profit organization is contingent on the numerous competing decisions of the individual volunteer to join, stay, or leave, a greater understanding of the commitment process is necessary.

Satisfaction

Results: The first research question also asked whether there was a significant difference in the contributions to a volunteer's general level of satisfaction between its sub-sections. Associated with the second half of this research question was the second null and alternate hypotheses:

Ho2 : There will be no difference between the contributions of the volunteer's general level of satisfaction and the sub-sections of satisfaction.

Ha2 : There will be a difference between the contributions of the volunteer's general level of satisfaction and the sub-sections of satisfaction.

Statistical relationships between the general scores of satisfaction and the four sub-sections of this measure, were recorded using a Pearson product moment correlation. Within the general score of satisfaction, the sub-sections of volunteer role (.5472), supervision (.8520), co-workers (.8028) and opportunity for rewards(.3950) were all significant to the total score of satisfaction at the (.05) and (.01) levels (See Table 3). The hypothesis Ho2 should therefore fail to be rejected as there were no significant differences in the strength of association to the volunteer's general level of satisfaction between the four sub-sections of satisfaction.

Discussion: The concise perception of volunteer satisfaction and the motives that need to be satisfied have never been more relevant than in the realm of athletics, recreation and leisure. It was established that "volunteering in these fields donated 5.3 billion dollars worth of services annually, ranking fourth behind religion, health and education" (Coutant & Tedrick,1986,p.69).

Motivating these volunteers was important because "motives were significant instigators of goal seeking or purposive behaviour, which included virtually all behaviour

since no action was random or without purpose" (Birrell & Donnelly, 1983, p.15). Motives, however, generally had a two-fold function: "they directed behaviour toward or away from some goal and they also served to activate the organisms, which became aroused the greater the strength of the motive" (Gleitman, 1986, p.85).

To better understand how to more effectively motivate volunteers, it had been customary to study volunteer attitudes concerned with satisfaction, because of the "assumed relationship to the volunteer's desire or willingness to arrive at the organization and to perform their volunteer function" (Porter & Lawler, 1969, p.7).

An apparent truth within the voluntary sector is the lack of availability of the reward used so extensively by industry; money. Without money, how do the volunteer / non-profit organizations reward the volunteer? Most for-profit organizations have three types of rewards at their disposal: (1) financial rewards such as salary, incentive bonuses and profit sharing; (2) rewards of the system such as increased responsibility, promotion and training; and (3) intrinsic rewards such as satisfaction, recognition, and challenge.

Volunteer programs have been limited to the third reward system by meeting the needs of the volunteer, for example "thanking them for participating, and providing immediate feedback where possible" (Moore and Anderson, 1977, p.147). Praise and recognition were two of the more powerful forms of motivation as "nothing encouraged volunteers to work harder and produce quality results like having someone notice and

praise their accomplishments" (Sutherland, 1992, p.11).

Volunteers, however, were accustomed to hearing political pronouncements praising voluntarism. "Since public authorities recognize the importance of the voluntary sector, yet volunteers are mystified by the meaning of these political pronouncements. are they purely rhetorical?" (Robichaud, 1986, p.61). Sincerity, and honesty as result, are paramount for the administrators of volunteer programs.

As praise and recognition have been noted to be powerful forms of motivation, volunteer supervision could therefore have had a great effect on the measures of satisfaction. In this study, supervision as a sub-section of the total measure of satisfaction was identified as the strongest correlation to the overall measure of volunteer satisfaction (.8520) (although all four sub-sections of satisfaction had statistically significant correlations using the Pearson product moment correlation) (See Table 3). This realization should have alerted administrators to the importance of their responsibility to the individual volunteer. The only comment made by a volunteer directed towards the Sport for Disabled events was that "more time management and organizational skills were needed and less politics should have been considered". The lack of other comments may, however, have corresponded to the majority of volunteers being unaware of any supervisory problems.

The sub-section co-workers was the second highest correlation to the overall scores of satisfaction (.8028) using a Pearson product moment correlation (See Table 3). The

need to meet new people was noted as an important reason to volunteer. One volunteer commented that "I find volunteering very self satisfying and I enjoy meeting all types of people". These results were consistent with Stinson & Stam (1976) (in Murnighan, Kim & Metzger, 1993) that people volunteered to "stimulate social interactions that may develop into friendships" (Murnighan, Kim & Metzger, 1993, p. 518).

As many volunteers were hypothetically either relatives or close friends of the athletes, these events may have provided a medium for them to discuss similar interests and experiences. It was possible that these Games also acted as group therapy sessions both for the athletes with disabilities themselves and, potentially more important, the family members and friends of the athletes.

As "nothing can melt human and social problems faster than the willingness of one individual to involve him(her)self voluntarily in helping another individual overcome his problems," (Wilson, 1976) it was expected that the majority of volunteers would be satisfied with their "volunteer role" in Sport for Disabled organizations. "I enjoyed this [Burlington Junior Games] very much, it [helping as a volunteer] was a great experience" and "I received an overall feeling of accomplishment in helping others" were some of the comments relayed by the local volunteers. These qualitative results correlated with the quantitative results as volunteer role had the third most significant correlation to volunteer satisfaction (.5427) (See Table 3).

These results were consistent with the findings that a sense of purpose was an important motivator for a volunteer (Wright & Bonett, 1991), (Kikulis, 1987). Sense of purpose or "a feeling of being of service" were also consistently agreed as the preeminent motives to volunteer (Blumeberg and Arsenian, 1950).

Through qualitative feedback, volunteers appeared pleasantly surprised at the focus of the event from one of providing a recreational outlet for disabled people, to one of showcasing the skills of some of Canada's best athletes with a disability. It was as a result of this volunteer experience that the volunteers were able to realize this difference, which may have had an immediate effect on their perceived levels of their volunteer role.

The sub-section, opportunity for rewards, was the least significant correlation to the general score of satisfaction of the four sub-sections measured in the Job Description Index (.3950) using a Person product moment correlation (See Table 3). Unfortunately, many volunteers appeared confused when answering the questions within this particular section. One volunteer noted that they "could not respond to the above section (opportunity for rewards) as they could not relate their volunteering [experiences] to any kind of of tangible or measurable reward". This volunteer viewed that there was "no connection between the two" (volunteering and rewards) while another volunteer noted that they were not "sure of what opportunity for rewards referred to. If it was a feeling of satisfaction with a job well done it rated satisfactory".

It may have been necessary to have further clarified this particular section of the questionnaire.

Many volunteers commented that the rewards they received were not tangible in nature. One individual noted that "volunteering was rewarding for me in that it gave me a sense of accomplishment and usefulness". This volunteer may have represented true charity as defined by Emanuel Swedenborg as "the desire to be useful to others without thought to recompense" (Ancas, 1992, p.43). Another volunteer noted that the "rewards [of volunteering] came through the accomplishments of her athletes". This particular volunteer was unaware of any other rewards and obviously felt that "It is more blessed to give than to receive" (Acts 20:35). Finally, one volunteer commented that they "didn't volunteer to receive an award but only to help". This volunteer may have been reflecting George Eliot's theory that the love we give away was the only love we kept (Ancas, 1992).

In contrast, one volunteer noted that the organizing committee and/or athletes "should have done something to show appreciation towards the volunteer". This volunteer represented the sentiments of those "looking out for their own good". One New York City newspaper columnist observed that this was a time when it was everyone for themselves, and illustrated this with an example of municipal workers being willing to let New York City go bankrupt rather than take minimum wage cuts or give up fringe benefits (Wilson, 1976). Volunteer requirements for rewards differed as "...some individuals may have volunteered for practical and overt

reasons, while others may have hoped on the lines of good King Wencelas that they would in Heaven find blessing" (Wilson, 1976, p. 190).

It has been suggested that people occasionally exercised power through acts of altruism on behalf of other people (Wilson, 1976) with the assumption that rewards are unnecessary. According to this interpretation, altruistic acts are in fact self-serving as they provided a person with an opportunity to exercise power for the reward that came from the exercise itself. As most current theories seemed to recognize, altruistic acts appeared no longer in the person's immediate self-interest (Kanfer, 1979). The uncertainty of motivation or antecedents for satisfaction was consistent with Kikulis (1987), Locke (1976) and Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) noting that the processes that contributed to satisfaction remained open to various interpretations. As well, within the review of literature pertaining to the motivation of volunteers, it was noted that multiple motives were the norm rather than the exception.

A practical implication from the relative significant unimportance of opportunities for rewards was that volunteer administrators who complained that their volunteer workers were not highly motivated, "might have done well to consider the possibility that they had installed reward systems which were creating behaviours other than those that the volunteers were seeking" (Ulrich & Parkhouse, 1979, p.119). The role of the volunteer organization therefore, "should have been to develop a reward system that channelled personal efforts into

desired directions and provided satisfying experiences and opportunities that resulted in commitment to both the individual and the company" (Hinrichs, 1974, p.56).

While it is true that the volunteer organization and the services they provided may have been innately attractive to volunteers, their continued membership and commitment to the organization was largely dependent upon the type of work assignment they received, as well as the satisfaction they derived from it (Chelladurai, 1985, p.133).

Although there may have been any number of lists suggesting ways that volunteers were satisfied, it must be remembered that people were not motivated in a vacuum, nor did the volunteer administrators motivate others in a vacuum. As well, the initial impetus may or may not have been what kept new volunteers coming back. Once people got started, they may have found that their deepest rewards were those they did not expect when they first came looking for a volunteer assignment (Henderson, 1981). What the volunteer coordinator can provide, however, are possible need satisfactions that each individual can obtain by volunteering for a specific job and then hope that these satisfactions will take precedence over others in the individual's hierarchy of needs. If people felt that they could receive certain needs satisfied by being a particular kind of volunteer, they would be more motivated to search out these opportunities.

Research Question 2Predicting Commitment and SatisfactionCommitment

Results: The second research question asked if the general scores and sub-sections of commitment and satisfaction predicted each other? Stepwise and forced entry regression analyses were utilized to measure the ability of one variable to predict another (See Tables 4,5 & 6). Pearson product moment correlations were also noted for this research question (See Table 3). Associated with this research problem was the third null and alternate hypothesis:

Ho3 : There will be no significant difference in predicting volunteer commitment and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Ha3 : There will be a difference in predicting volunteer commitment and its sub-sections between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Using a stepwise multiple regression analysis, volunteer role, supervision, opportunity for rewards and co-workers were analyzed for their ability to predict the measures of volunteer commitment. Supervision had the strongest correlation of the four satisfaction sub-sections to the accumulated measure of commitment, although the adjusted R square score of (.05331) was not significant (See Table 4). The multiple regression program completed its analysis

Table 4

Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment
Questionnaire

Forced Entry

Dependent Variable	Variable Entered	Multiple R2	R2	Adjusted R2	Sign. T	Beta
commitment	opportunity	0.32458	0.10535	0.06223	.798	.0356
	volunteer role "	"	"	"	.173	.3763
	co-workers	"	"	"	.261	.2923
	supervision	"	"	"	.318	.2071
loyalty	opportunity	0.20468	0.04189	-0.00428	.692	.0693
	volunteer role "	"	"	"	.916	.0358
	co-workers	"	"	"	.150	.4695
	supervision	"	"	"	.972	.0088
willingness	opportunity	0.32443	0.10525	0.06213	.814	.0437
	volunteer role "	"	"	"	.048	.7323
	co-workers	"	"	"	.964	-.015
	supervision	"	"	"	.193	.3611
acceptance	opportunity	0.28884	0.08343	0.03926	.974	.0060
	volunteer role "	"	"	"	.321	.3608
	co-workers	"	"	"	.218	.4229
	supervision	"	"	"	.359	.2511

Stepwise

Dependent Variable	Variable Entered	Multiple R2	R2	Adjusted R2	Sign. T	Beta
commitment	supervision	0.25336	0.06419	0.05331	.0712	.4128
loyalty	-	-	-	-	-	-
willingness	vol. role	0.27897	0.07782	0.0671	.0085	.9213
acceptance	co-workers	0.23674	0.05605	0.04507	.0264	.6632

Table 5

Regression Analysis for
JDI and OCQ

Variables	Analysis Format	Deg Free	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F	Sign. F
Commitment ABCD	regression	4	8.40827	2.10207	2.44341	0.0529
	residual	83	71.40486	0.86030		
Willingness ABCD	regression	4	4.88623	1.22156	0.90729	0.4637
	residual	83	111.74968	1.34638		
Loyalty ABCD	regression	4	14.98094	3.74523	2.44088	0.0531
	residual	83	127.35361	1.53438		
Vol. Role EFG	regression	3	1.36001	0.45334	2.25375	0.0868
	residual	100	20.11480	0.20115		
Supervision EFG	regression	3	2.19873	0.73291	1.8526	0.1434
	residual	89	35.20954	0.39561		
Opp. Rew. EFG	regression	3	2.07647	0.69216	1.14025	0.3371
	residual	92	55.84624	0.60702		
Satis. G	regression	1	1.32417	1.32417	4.45461	0.0300
	residual	102	30.32043	0.29726		
Vol. Role G	regression	1	1.31875	1.31875	6.67353	0.0112
	residual	102	20.15607	0.19761		
Supervision G	regression	1	1.69227	1.69227	4.31169	0.0407
	residual	91	35.71600	0.39248		
Commitment D	regression	1	5.12331	5.12331	5.89913	0.0172
	residual	86	74.68982	0.86849		
Willingness B	regression	1	11.07683	1.07683	7.25754	0.0085
	residual	86	131.25771	1.52625		
Acceptance C	regression	1	7.59925	7.59925	5.10631	0.0264
	residual	86	127.98575	1.48821		
Co-Workers EFG	regression	3	1.45757	0.48586	1.78716	0.1549
	residual	94	25.55478	0.27186		

Legend

A = Opp for Rewards
D = Supervision
G = Willingness

B = Volunteer Role
E = Acceptance

C = Co - Workers
F = Loyalty

Table 5 continued

Dep. Var.	Independent Variable	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
Cam.	opp. for rew.	0.03568	0.139385	0.028874	0.256	0.7986
	volunteer role	0.37635	0.274223	0.152189	1.372	0.1736
	co-workers	0.29238	0.258579	0.136012	1.131	0.2614
	supervision	0.20710	0.206565	0.127145	1.003	0.3188
	constant	2.82450	0.757192	-	3.730	0.0003
Wil.	opp. for rew.	0.043759	0.186148	0.026513	0.235	0.8147
	volunteer role	0.732358	0.366223	0.221755	2.000	0.0488
	co-workers	-0.01530	0.345331	-0.005332	-0.04	0.9648
	supervision	0.361525	0.275867	0.166147	1.311	0.0136
	constant	2.550800	1.011260	-	2.522	0.0000
Acc.	opp. for rew.	-0.00600	0.183883	-0.003727	-0.03	0.9740
	volunteer role	0.360871	0.361766	0.111957	0.998	0.3214
	co-workers	0.422901	0.341129	0.150944	1.240	0.2186
	supervision	0.251124	0.272510	0.118247	0.922	0.3590
	constant	2.512522	0.99892	-	2.515	0.0138
Sat.	acceptance	0.056911	0.053699	0.126174	1.06	0.2917
	loyalty	-0.02435	0.050915	-0.051381	-0.47	0.6335
	willingness	0.066530	0.054736	0.153647	1.215	0.2700
	constant	1.634223	0.290235	-	5.631	0.0000
Vol.	acceptance	0.065263	0.0652	0.127384	1.001	0.3196
	loyalty	0.025887	0.062374	0.046668	0.415	0.6791
	willingness	0.059832	0.065445	0.120230	0.914	0.3631
	constant	1.258360	0.350492	-	3.590	0.0005
Co-W.	acceptance	0.073641	0.053171	0.173901	1.385	0.1693
	loyalty	0.077222	0.051467	0.165565	1.5	0.1369
	willingness	-0.03668	0.053851	-0.08848	-0.68	0.4974
	constant	2.063187	0.284650	-	7.248	0.0000
Opp.	acceptance	0.011552	0.077453	0.018461	0.149	0.8818
	loyalty	0.082769	0.074128	0.123883	1.117	0.2671
	willingness	0.057139	0.089000	0.091718	0.706	0.4818
	constant	1.192388	0.435639	-	2.737	0.0074
Sup.	acceptance	0.06526	0.065200	0.127384	1.001	.3196
	loyalty	0.02588	0.062374	0.046668	0.415	.6791
	willingness	0.05943	0.065445	0.120230	0.914	.3631
	constant	1.25836	0.35049	-	3.590	.0005

without entering the other three variables. A forced entry regression analysis, recorded an R^2 score of (.06) (ie. 6% of the variability of commitment is explained by opportunity, volunteer role, co-workers, and supervision) (See Table 4). As an acceptable R^2 score is at least (.75), the score of (.06) therefore did not reveal a significant level of predictability (Levin, 1983).

The second statistical analysis of the research question Ho3 used a forced entry regression analysis, none of the four variables revealed significant scores with adjusted R^2 scores; loyalty (-.004), willingness to exert effort (.06) and acceptance of organizational goals(.039) (See Table 4). The four variables of satisfaction, therefore, had little predictive qualities on the variability of the sub-sections of commitment and the general score of commitment.

Pearson product moment correlations revealed significant correlations (.05) between satisfaction and commitment (.1951) and the sub-sections willingness to exert effort (.2046) and acceptance of organizational goals (.2006). The satisfaction sub-sections, volunteer role and supervision also revealed significant (.05) correlations to commitment and its sub-sections. Pearson correlation however did not imply predictive qualities (See Table 3).

Although the Pearson product moment correlation revealed significant relationships, both regression analyses suggested extremely low levels of predictability. The hypothesis Ho3, therefore, should fail to be rejected, as there were no significant differences in the contributions of the

volunteer's commitment sub-sections (willingness to remain with the organization, exertion of effort on behalf of the organization, and belief and acceptance of organizational values and goals) between the sub-sections of satisfaction (volunteer role, supervision, opportunity for rewards and co-workers).

Discussion The third research question asked if there was a significant difference in predicting a volunteer's organizational commitment as a total score and as separate sub-sections between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction. The results in the present study were not consistent with Wiche and Isenhoer (1977) who noted that personal satisfaction was the most important motive and antecedent for volunteer commitment. Porter and Steers (1973), Meyer and Allen (1987), Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) and Williams and Hazer (1986) also concluded that satisfaction had a significant relationship to employee commitment.

In a study using a sample of secondary school teachers and registered nurses, commitment was suggested to depend partially on "the perceptions of the ratio of opportunity for rewards received from the organization in relation to the costs incurred to receive them" (Hrebniak & Alutto, 1971, p.555). This research found positive relationships between the general levels of commitment and satisfaction and between commitment and the intention to withdraw from the work environment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Although not statistically significant, the overall score of supervision in the present study correlated the highest to commitment, using a stepwise regression analysis with an adjusted R square of (.05331) (See Table 6). Most individuals would experience at some point in their lifetime a commitment and loyalty to someone or to some group. This universal understanding of commitment worked in two ways. If loyalty or commitment were not returned or demonstrably appreciated, over time it would wither. Second, if loyalty was called on too frequently, it would become exhausted. Supervision therefore should have had an immediate impact on the volunteer's level of commitment.

The stepwise regression analysis completed without entering the other three sub-sections of satisfaction. Using a forced entry multiple regression analysis, all four sub-sections of satisfaction revealed insignificant correlations to predicting levels of commitment. As well, the four sub-sections of satisfaction and the general score of satisfaction did not reveal significant correlations to any of the three sub-sections of commitment (See Table 6). It would therefore appear that the four sub-sections of satisfaction as well as the general score of satisfaction did not have any significant relationships with the general measure and sub-sections of commitment.

Although some predictive correlations were found between satisfaction and commitment in prior studies, it should be noted that all dealt with employee commitment and satisfaction, and therefore may not be appropriate for

comparisons to the present volunteer cohort group. Inconsistencies between previous research and the present study may also have been accounted for, as the measurement of commitment was more stable over time than satisfaction, and as day to day events may have affected a volunteer's level of satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974). Commitment appeared to develop slowly but consistently over time as individuals thought about the relationships between themselves and the many aspects of their organization.

Satisfaction, conversely, has been found to be a less stable measure over time, reflecting a more immediate reaction to specific and tangible aspects of the work environment (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Porter et al., 1974; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Commitment as a construct is more globally reflective of a general response to the organization as a whole, while satisfaction reflects a response either to the job or to certain aspects of the activity. "Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an individual performs his/her duties" (O'Reilly & Chapman, 1986, p.492). If measurements of commitment were taken at varying times following those of satisfaction, there may have been a greater potential for significant relationships between the two measures.

Other than the inconsistency with the volunteer and employee cohort groups, the inability to recognize significant relationships in the present study may in part

have been due to knowledge of the commitment process being somewhat anomalous.

Something about its antecedents are known, yet it has also been revealed that there is a point (or a limited interval) in time, after which the person's emotional reactivity to goal related stimuli was changed from what it was earlier (Davie, 1980).

Posehn (1988) had noticed a renewed interest in studying the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. Although the literature had established a clear relationship between commitment and its outcomes, variables which may have led to the development of commitment has remained unclear. If further research can reveal the causes or antecedents of commitment that the organization could directly influence, then a number of benefits should result: "...the costs associated with misspecified interventions can be reduced, and appropriate interventions may have had their intended results, while finally, the improvements in commitment may have general positive behavioural consequences" (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p.95-112)

It was noted by Bateman and Strasser (1984), that until other antecedents of commitment using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire were more reliably established longitudinally, organizational interventions aimed at increasing commitment and the consequential beneficial employee behaviours may not fully realize their intended effects. Subsequently, if research fails to demonstrate variables such as age and education (Steers, 1977) and the existence of other volunteer alternatives at the time of volunteer choice (O'Reilly & Chapman, 1986), then commitment

can only be influenced through selection techniques. Resulting administrative or organizational interventions may therefore be incapable of increasing commitment levels and will result in wasted resources.

Satisfaction

Results: The second research problem asked if there were significant differences in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections. Associated with this research problem was the fourth null and alternate hypothesis:

H₀₄ : There will be no significant difference in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

H_{a4} : There will be a difference in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

The sub-sections of commitment were measured for their ability to predict the variables associated with satisfaction using a stepwise multiple regression analysis. The commitment sub-section of "willingness to exert effort" scored an adjusted R square of (.03245) with satisfaction, a score of (.05221) with volunteer role, and a score of (.03475) with supervision; none of which were statistically significant at the .05 level (See Table 6). All other combinations of commitment and satisfaction sub-sections were unable to register with the multiple regression analysis program.

Table 6

Regression Analysis for Job Description Index (Satisfaction)

Forced Entry

Dependent Variable	Variable Entered	Multiple	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Sign. T	Beta
satisfaction	acceptance	0.23297	0.05428	0.0259	.291	.0569
	loyalty	"	"	"	.633	-.024
	willingness	"	"	"	.227	.0665
vol. role	acceptance	0.25166	0.06333	0.03523	.732	.0501
	loyalty	"	"	"	.778	.0117
	willingness	"	"	"	.095	.0754
supervision	acceptance	0.24244	0.05878	0.02705	.319	.0652
	loyalty	"	"	"	.679	.0258
	willingness	"	"	"	.363	.0598
co-workers	acceptance	0.23229	0.05396	0.02377	.169	.0736
	loyalty	"	"	"	.136	.0772
	willingness	"	"	"	.497	-.036
opp. rev.	acceptance	0.18934	0.03585	0.00441	.881	.0115
	loyalty	"	"	"	.267	.0827
	willingness	"	"	"	.481	.0571

Stepwise

Dependent Variable	Variable Entered	Multiple	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Sign. T	Beta
satisfaction	Willingness	0.20456	0.04185	0.03245	.0373	.0885
vol. role	Willingness	0.24781	0.06141	0.05221	.0112	.0883
supervision	Willingness	0.21269	0.04524	0.03475	.0407	.1058
co-workers	-	-	-	-	-	-
opp. for rev.	-	-	-	-	-	-

A forced entry multiple regression analysis also measured the predictability of the three sub-sections of commitment and the general scores of satisfaction and its four sub-sections. The adjusted R square value for satisfaction being predicted by acceptance, loyalty and willingness to exert effort was (.02590). Volunteer role recorded (.03523), supervision (.02705), co-workers (.02377) and opportunity for rewards (.00441) (See Table 3). All four adjusted R Square scores were not significant as an $R^2 = (.02705)$, translated into only 2% of the variability of commitment which was explained by supervision. An acceptable R^2 value needed to record at least 75% to be significant (Borg & Gall, 1989).

The Pearson product moment correlation revealed significant (.05) correlations between commitment and satisfaction (.1951) and the sub-sections volunteer role (.2349) and supervision (.2377) (See Table 3). The commitment sub-sections, willingness to exert effort and acceptance or organizational goals also suggested significant correlations to the general scores of satisfaction and the sub-sections volunteer role and supervision (See Table 3).

Although the Pearson product moment correlation revealed significant relationships, both regression analyses suggested extremely low levels of predictability. The hypothesis H_04 therefore fail to be rejected as there were no significant differences in the contributions to a volunteer's organizational commitment as a total score between the perceived sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Discussion: The second research question asked if commitment predicted satisfaction and addressed if there was a significant difference in predicting the volunteer's satisfaction as a general score and as separate sub-sections between the total score and separate sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

Occasional studies have concluded that satisfaction was not an antecedent to commitment but was instead an outcome (Bateman and Strasser, 1984). In the present study, however, the stepwise regression analysis did not reveal statistically significant predictive correlations between commitment and satisfaction and the respective sub-sections (See Table 6). Willingness to exert effort was the only commitment sub-section able to register any statistical relationship using the stepwise multiple regression analysis (See Table 6).

Although not able to provide long term commitment, the volunteers associated with each event appeared more than willing to provide maximum effort; and it was this effort that may have correlated to the perceived feelings of satisfaction on the Pearson product moment correlation (See Table 6). Herbert Hoover once noted that "words without actions are the assassins of idealism". Former United States President Hoover would be proud of the Sport for Disabled volunteers as they appeared "to practice what they preached". In future psychological studies, end results may not be perceived as important as the volunteer's efforts.

A barrier to measuring volunteer satisfaction was recognized by Pearce(1983), where volunteers seemed to assume

a positive attitude about their volunteer experiences because they often did not know why they volunteered in the first place; they therefore assumed that they were working because they wanted to do good. Conscious and unconscious motives may not be identical, therefore creating difficulties with their measurement.

Research Question 3

Demographic Characteristics and Commitment and Satisfaction

Commitment

Results: The third research problem asked if there were significant differences between the demographic characteristics and total and separate sub-section measures of satisfaction and commitment? Associated with this research problem was the fifth null and alternate hypothesis:

Ho5 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of commitment.

Ha5 : There will be a difference between demographic characteristic and the total score and sub-sections of commitment.

Significance for demographic categories and commitment were measured using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Years of experience with Sport for Disabled organizations had a significant effect at (.05) on the general measure of commitment (.0398) (See Table 7). More specifically, volunteers with more years of experience had stronger

Table 7

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
 Significance of Demographic Variables (Years with the
 Organization, Education, Age) on the Organizational
 Commitment Questionnaire and Job Description Index

Var.	Yrs. Org.		Education		Age	
	P-value	F-value	P-value	F-value	P-value	Fvalue
com.	.0398*	2.892	.6950	.4829	.6858	0.378
loy.	.2394	1.429	.4011	.9908	.4353	0.839
wil.	.0817	2.310	.4610	.2898	.2898	1.254
acc.	.1951	1.599	.6964	.3178	.3176	1.161
sat.	.6859	0.496	.8950	.3328	.3328	1.113
vol.	.9065	0.184	.0381*	.5250	.5250	0.647
sup.	.8549	0.258	.3884	.2975	.2975	1.230
co-w.	.9907	0.036	.8958	.6063	.6063	0.503
opp.	.7706	0.378	.9882	.1573	.1573	1.890

* significant at .05

correlations to measures of commitment. To reveal significant differences between the four condensed groups of years with the organization, a Scheffe post hoc test noted group 0 (1 year) and Group 3 (6+years) as significantly different (.05)(See Table 8). Therefore, those volunteers with six years experience were (.05) significantly more committed than those with only one year experience with a Sport for Disabled organization.

Spearman correlations revealed no significant relationships between the demographic categories age, years experience and education towards the measures of commitment (See Table 9). Two tailed probability t-tests for gender were also not significant towards the measures of volunteer commitment (See Table 10).

Years of experience was the only demographic variable to have a significant effect on measures of commitment. Therefore, the fifth research hypothesis Ho5 was rejected as there were significant differences with demographic distribution characteristics and measures of volunteer commitment.

Discussion The third research question asked if there were significant differences with demographic characteristics and recorded scores of commitment. Years experience with the Sport for Disabled organization was the only demographic variable that registered a significant correlation to the volunteer's perceived levels of commitment (See Table 9). Years experience with the organization also had a significant

Table 8

Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Demographic Characteristics, the
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Job Description
Index

Volunteer Role and Education

	Mean
Group 0 (grade 8)	1.9281
Group 1 (high school)	2.2034
Group 2 (univ. under. and college)	2.3950
Group 3 (univ. grad and doctorate)	2.3758

* no two groups were significantly different

Commitment and Years Experience

	Mean
Group 0 (1 year)	4.7263 *
Group 1 (2 years)	4.9008
Group 2 (3-5 years)	5.0000
Group 3 (6 plus years)	5.6333 *

* significant difference between these two groups

Table 9

Spearman Correlations for Demographic Characteristics,
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Job Description
Index

	com.	loy.	wil.	acc.	sat.	vol.	sup.	co-w.	opp.
age	-0.096	-0.120	-0.112	0.062	-0.124	0.104	-0.073	0.066	-0.243
significance	0.172	0.119	0.136	0.272	0.113	0.154	0.251	0.266	0.011
years exp.	0.216	0.160	0.225	0.158	0.119	0.057	0.073	-0.033	0.099
significance	0.018	0.056	0.015	0.064	0.127	0.292	0.253	0.378	0.18
education	-0.125	-0.176	-0.181	0.082	0.084	0.265	0.066	0.064	-0.009
significance	0.116	0.047	0.042	0.217	0.216	0.006	0.277	0.281	0.465

Key

com. commitment
wil. willingness
vol. volunteer role
co-w. co-workers

loy. loaylty
acc. acceptance
sup. supervision
opp. opportunity for rewards

Table 10

Independent Sample t-tests of Demographic Characteristic
Gender, the Organizational commitment Questionnaire and Job
Description Index

Variable	Grp.	F- Value	Mean	Degree of Freedom	Pooled Variance Estimate 2-Tailed Probability
Commitment	Male	1.75	4.9586	90.20	.798
	Fem.		5.0115		
Loyalty	Male	1.41	5.0865	86.02	.592
	Fem.		4.9552		
Willingness	Male	1.63	4.9081	89.03	.660
	Fem.		5.0276		
Acceptance	Male	1.03	4.8811	75.89	.525
	Fem.		5.0517		
Satis.	Male	1.29	2.0927	67.29	.847
	Fem.		2.1171		
Vol. Role	Male	1.24	2.1944	68.24	.077*
	Fem.		2.364		
Supervision	Male	1.21	2.0067	73.02	.958
	Fem.		2.0144		
Co-Workers	Male	1.10	2.6515	70.21	.718
	Fem.		2.6080		
Opportunity	Male	1.04	1.9479	64.45	.954
	Fem.		1.9581		

* significant at .05

Key

Fem. Female

Vol. Role. Volunteer Role

Satis. Satisfaction

relationship to the commitment sub-section (.10), willingness to exert effort, but did not show significance to the other two sub-sections: loyalty and acceptance of organizational goals (See Table 9). These findings were consistent with Hrebniak and Alutto (1971) where number of years teaching was the most important variable explaining employee commitment.

The findings from the present study, however, were inconsistent with the work of Meyer and Allen (1987) who suggested that commitment would decline during the first year of employment. This study looked at paid employees, and therefore these findings may not be relevant to the volunteer population. Serious questions however have also been raised regarding the hypothesis of Meyer and Allen (1987) with respect to the validity of using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, especially for individuals who had been with the organization for only a short period of time.

Two demographic characteristics: age and seniority, frequently appeared as factors leading to commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Jenner, 1981). Buchanan (1974) investigated the development of commitment over time and found that the creation of a reference group, an intrinsically rewarding first assignment, and compatibility of personal and organizational values were critical during the first year of employment. Following the first year, however, the opportunity to perform and the presence of valued peer relationships were the most influential factors affecting commitment (Jenner, 1981). These changes may also have occurred within volunteers and therefore would have affected

the scores of commitment at various times of the year and within the larger cycles of volunteering.

Recent longitudinal measures (Tetrick & Farkas, 1988), placed importance on the recognition of antecedents of organizational commitment early in the volunteer's developmental process. This timeframe occurred when attitudes were most malleable (Porter et al., 1974) and declining morale and excessive turnover had been found to be most problematic. By recognizing how to sustain volunteer commitment, it may have been beneficial to then concentrate on providing more opportunities to perform.

Bateman and Strasser (1984) studied bus operators using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The demographic variables of gender, education level, marital status and age, all identified antecedents to organizational commitment. Kanfer (1979) suggested that although it was possible to teach people altruistic tendencies, one might be convinced of the need for greater altruism in our society, suggesting that levels of completed education could have corresponded with greater measures of commitment for a non-profit agency (Kanfer, 1979 & Franken, 1982). These findings may have been inconsistent with the present study, as education did not have a significant correlation to scores of commitment.

Balfour (1990), basing much of his research on that of Mowday et. al (1982), combined qualitative and quantitative methods to develop a model of commitment in public organizations. Commitment was found to be a function of the structure and practice of the organization with little or no

relationship to individual characteristics such as tenure and education. This model was invalidated, however, and was subjected to several occupational limitations (Balfour,1990).

Satisfaction

Results: The third research problem also asked if there were significant differences in demographic characteristics between the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction. Associated with this research problem was the sixth null and alternate hypothesis:

Ho6 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction.

Ha6 : There will be a difference between demographic characteristic and the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction.

Significant relationships were tested using an ANOVA for the number of years experience and the sub-sections of satisfaction. Although the number of years experience had a significant (.05) effect to "commitment" and a significant effect (at .10) to the commitment sub-section "willingness to exert effort," there were no significant effects with number of years experience on other measures of satisfaction (See Table 7).

The demographic characteristic of education was significant (.05) to the satisfaction sub-section volunteer role (sub-section of satisfaction) with an F-Prob (.0381), revealing that more educated individual volunteers had higher

scores of perceived "volunteer role" (See Table 7). Scheffe post-hoc tests, however, did not distinguish significant differences between the four sub-sections of satisfaction (See Table 8).

Utilizing two tailed t-tests, the satisfaction sub-section volunteer role was significant at (.10) level of significance to measures of volunteer gender (.077) (See Table 10). Gender was not significant at (.05) or (.10) for the remaining variables of commitment and satisfaction. Spearman correlations also revealed non statistically significant correlations between age, years experience and education to satisfaction (See Table 9). Age did not have a significant effect on the variables of satisfaction. The hypothesis Ho6 should therefore have been rejected as the demographic category of education had a significant effect (.05) on the measures volunteer role.

Discussion For the present study, the demographic categories of completed education (.05) and gender (.10) were significant to the satisfaction sub-section volunteer role. Using an ANOVA, the demographic categories of age, years experience, and education were collapsed into groups. Only education was significant to volunteer role (.0391)(See Table 7). Volunteers with greater completed levels of education correlated stronger than those with less education. The biggest difference between groups were college and university graduates compared to those without completed post secondary education (See Table 7).

Volunteer role was the only demographic sub-section to have a significant (.10) correlation with gender. Female volunteers correlated stronger on levels of volunteer role (2.3641) versus males (2.1944) (See Table 10). These findings are in contrast to Chambre (1987) who found little differences between the motives leading to satisfaction and characteristics of men and women who volunteered in 4-H programs. These findings (Chambre, 1987) revealed the need for similar kinds of recruitment, supervision, training, and recognition for all volunteer demographic categories.

When basic motivational theories are applied to volunteerism, gender differences do not become evident in light of important, basic human needs. One major conclusion can be drawn: men and women have similar motivations and volunteer attitudes, even though more women have tended to volunteer more often. By contrast, the present study found that the volunteer's gender and levels of completed education were significant (.10 for gender, .05 for education) demographic factors affecting the general measures of volunteer role as part of the total measure of satisfaction.

Study Design

It is necessary to evaluate the appropriateness of the measurement instruments used in this study. Of the demographic characteristics, occupation was the only section not completed on a significant basis and was therefore not included during data collection and statistical analysis.

Slightly more than half of questionnaires handed out were returned (51.4%) (See Table 1) all of which were usable. A question that arises from this return rate is how would the results have been changed if all of the subjects had returned the questionnaire? If only a small percentage of the subjects failed to respond, this question was not critical. If more than 20 percent were missing, however, it was very likely that most of the findings of the study could have been altered considerably if the non-responding groups had returned the questionnaire and had answered in a markedly different manner than the responding group (Borg & Gall, 1989).

The prejudice from a select group of respondents could be the case if the non-responding group represented a biased sampling; that is, if those people who did not respond to the questionnaire were in some measurable way different from those who did respond. A common sampling bias of persons having a good volunteering experience could have included being more likely to respond than those having a poor experience.

If more than twenty percent of the questionnaires were not returned, which was the case in this study, it was desirable to check a portion of the non-responding group; even though this checking would have involved considerable effort (Borg and Gall, 1989). This option, however, was extremely difficult for the present study as the names of volunteers participating at the Sport for Disabled events were not available from the Games organizers and, secondly,

volunteer anonymity was ensured at the onset. Return rates for the questionnaires delivered through volunteer packages with requests to be returned via the mail in stamped self-addressed envelopes provided (Brockville and St. Catharines) were considerably lower than the average return rate (36% and 23% vs. the average of 51.4%) (See Table 1).

Volunteer groups (in the sense that they volunteer to complete the questionnaire) have been rarely representative of the entire group as a whole, differing at least, in motivational levels from non-volunteers (McMillian & Schumacher, 1989). Motivation was of course an extremely important variable in most educational research and was especially noteworthy within this study. A basic weakness of most questionnaire studies was that the persons responding were essentially volunteers who may have differed greatly from the non-responding subjects. The results of studies using volunteer groups may be safely applied to other volunteer groups nonetheless, but not to the population from which the volunteers were drawn. In many field studies, however, the results may have been applied to volunteers in other situations so that the use of volunteers for research were appropriate (McMillian & Schumacher, 1989).

To combat some of these inadequacies with self reports, Hulin et al. (1973) suggested that multiple measures of satisfaction and commitment should have been utilized for greater reliability (Waters & Roach, 1976). For this study, due to potential constraints of time, resources and volunteer co-operation, multiple measures were not chosen. Once a

measuring instrument capable of delineating specific volunteer levels of commitment and satisfaction has been completed and is universally accepted, the increase in descriptive and correlational information regarding volunteers will be more reliable.

Validity and Reliability

In general, the negatively worded items of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire correlated less highly with the total score of commitment than the positively worded items, although this difference was not significant. These results suggested that the fifteen items of the OCQ were relatively homogeneous with respect to the underlying attitude constructs that they intended to measure (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Cronbach's alpha of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire measuring commitment for the present study was (.81). The three sub-sections of commitment revealed Cronbach's alpha levels of (.42) for loyalty, (.72) for willingness and (.66) for acceptance (See Table 11).

A reliability analysis of the Job Description Index (JDI) in the present study revealed a Cronbach's alpha of (.83). The four variables of satisfaction revealed the following alpha scores: volunteer role (.53), supervision (.83), co-workers (.71) and opportunity for rewards (.75) (See Table 1). These results suggest that both the JDI and OCQ were reliable measures of volunteer satisfaction and

Table 11

Number of Valid Observations, Mean, Standard Deviation and Cronbach's Alpha for Organizational commitment Questionnaire and Job Description Index

Variable	Valid N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cronbach's Alpha
Commitment	107	4.99	0.96	0.8168
Loyalty	107	4.95	1.17	0.4248
Willingness	107	5.04	1.27	0.7288
Acceptance	107	4.98	1.24	0.6679
Satisfaction	105	2.12	0.57	0.8227
Volunteer Role	105	2.30	0.45	0.5301
Supervision	93	2.01	0.64	0.8329
Co-workers	98	2.63	0.53	0.7117
Opportunity	96	1.95	0.78	0.7516

commitment respectively (See Table 11).

Summary

The first four null hypotheses reflected no difference between the measures of satisfaction and commitment.

Research Hypotheses Ho5 and Ho6, however, were rejected at the (.05) level of confidence between demographic variables and measures of satisfaction and commitment.

Psychologists have studied motivation for many years and have developed a number of theories. Sport and recreation non-profit services have just begun to find applications of motivation theories which may be used in their fields. It is doubtful however, that administrators will ever find succinct and simple answers on how to motivate volunteers.

Nevertheless, by understanding the different pathways how volunteers are motivated, the administrators can better help the volunteers enhance their quality of service (Henderson, 1983).

There is still concern with the motivational aspects of volunteering. The persistent question continues to be "why do volunteers volunteer?" Problems of motivation are complex since personality, sub-conscious needs, the nature of the volunteer situation, family, community and job pressures all effected the outcomes. Although far reaching, many motivational characteristics cited were not all encompassing and frequently were cited as contradictory, subsequently constraining the labels of typical attributes.

From this recognition of multiple motives came new techniques for recruiting, training and rewarding volunteers, which are subsequently expanding the available pool of volunteers by removing artificial barriers to participation. "It is one of the most beautiful compensations in life that no person could sincerely try to help another without helping themselves" (Emerson in Allen, 1984, p.18).

A volunteer "was like an astronaut who gains a different perspective on their world. They saw it from a distance and could better appreciate where they lived" (Levin, 1973, p.31). Volunteering has at times been seen as "too good to be true" and has appeared as hypocritical and self righteous. Nevertheless, the fact that volunteering seems to have positively effected so many people at one time; volunteers, athletes and the community at large, makes it an area needing more understanding and academic appreciation.

By recognizing the specific attributes that contributed to satisfaction and noting any correlations to corresponding high levels of commitment, volunteer recruiters and administrators would be able to focus upon the specific attributes and create stronger volunteer programs. Contributions adding to a greater understanding of volunteer satisfaction and commitment from these results and discussions are highlighted in Chapter V.

Table 12

Synopsis of Hypothesis

Ho1 fail to reject

Ho1 : There will be no difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of commitment.

Ho2 fail to reject

Ho2 : There will be no difference between the sub-sections contributions to the volunteer's general level of satisfaction.

Ho3 fail to reject

Ho3 : There will be no difference in predicting volunteer commitment and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer satisfaction.

Ho4 fail to reject

Ho4 : There will be no difference in predicting volunteer satisfaction and its sub-sections, between the total score and sub-sections of volunteer commitment.

Ho5 rejected

Ho5 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of commitment.

Ho6 rejected

Ho6 : There will be no difference between demographic characteristics and the total score and sub-sections of satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

The first four chapters of this study summarized the satisfaction, commitment and demographic characteristics of volunteers in Sport for Disabled organizations. The purposes of this final chapter are to summarize this study, to note theoretical and practical applications thus providing guidance for further academic research and to articulate practical recommendations for sport administrators dealing with non-profit organizations.

Summary

Volunteers in the Sport for Disabled community were demographically similar to volunteers characterized in the 1970's, as opposed to surveys conducted in the 1980's. The similarities to the 1970 studies included the demographic categories of gender and age. In the present study, sixty percent (60.4%) of the volunteers were female while a large majority of volunteers were also between the ages of 20 and 40 years (45.5%) .

Differences between the characteristics of volunteers in Sport for Disabled organizations and other volunteer groups in the 1970's and 1980's included highest level of education completed and years experience. The present study sample was comparatively well educated as 41.3% had completed a

University degree and relatively less experienced than previous volunteer survey results, as 67% of the sample was volunteering for the organization less than two years. Research from the present study also noted that the measurements of satisfaction (JDI) and commitment (OCQ) were significantly related to all sub-sections of their respective general measurement.

This study identified that the measurements of volunteer satisfaction and volunteer commitment were potentially independent of each other. In Chapter IV, the results and discussion sections explained these findings in light of the proposed hypothesis and previous research (Kikulis, 1987) Minimal statistical correlations between the measures of satisfaction and commitment found in this study however, may have been due to several methodological limitations and delimitations.

Two demographic measurements were significant to recorded scores of satisfaction and commitment. Years experience with the Sport for Disabled organization was statistically significant (.05) when correlated to the total measure of commitment, while years of completed education was statistically significant (.05) to the satisfaction sub-section, volunteer role. Other combinations of the commitment and satisfaction sub-sections and demographic characteristics did not reveal statistically significant (.05) correlations.

Conclusions

Research Question 1

The Measures of Commitment and Satisfaction and their Respective Sub-Sections

Commitment: This study provided evidence for the view that volunteer commitment was not incumbent upon one source. This perception was evidenced as all three sub-sections of commitment recorded significant correlations to the general measures of commitment, although willingness to exert effort had the strongest correlation (.846) to the general score of commitment using a Pearson product moment correlation (See Table 3).

Implications for Sport for Disabled administrators are the needs to increase their awareness of all three sub-sections listed within the OCQ, leading potentially to greater commitment and therefore hopefully improving volunteer loyalty. This improved understanding of the components of volunteer commitment could result in fewer orientations of new volunteers, consequently liberating more available funds for programming.

Satisfaction: The four sub-sections of satisfaction identified statistically significant correlations at (.05) to the general score of satisfaction. Supervision (.8520) and co-workers (.8028) scored higher than volunteer role (.5472) and opportunity for rewards (.3920) using a Pearson product

moment correlation (See Table 3). These results should alert administrators to the needs of focusing their efforts towards all four aspects of supervision with possible special emphasis on supervision and the volunteers' relationship with their co-workers.

Direct relevance to Sport for Disabled organizations is the question of why social programs often fail. Collapse of these programs are often primarily due to a lack of management and organizational skills, and secondly, and specific to the question of volunteer motivation, was "an oversimplified view of people and their motives" (Henderson, 1981, p.208).

Results from the Job Description Index measuring volunteer satisfaction may be biased, however, as opportunity for rewards revealed low correlations with the general levels of satisfaction. The measurement of the sub-section, opportunity for rewards, may have been biased, as this was the final section answered on the questionnaire and volunteers may have become less attentive to providing thoughtful answers.

Research Question 2

Predicting Commitment and Satisfaction

There was little predictability between the scores of volunteer satisfaction and commitment as the two scores and sub-sections of commitment and satisfaction did not have significant correlations to each other. It was previously

hypothesized by Wiche and Isenhoer (1977) that satisfaction was an antecedent to commitment. To foster commitment, non-profit organizations must provide satisfying opportunities. Hence the organization must be seen as enabling a potential to fulfil the specific mode of the volunteers involvement under consideration. It would appear, however, from the present study, that the two scores were relatively independent. The availability of time, family constraints and other outside factors may have played a larger role in creating committed volunteers than the measurement of satisfaction by the Job Description Index.

Deciphering the antecedents to volunteer commitment remained important, as volunteers need to remain with the agency long enough to become effective advocates for the cause. Without this support, when they leave, the uncommitted volunteer can undo the finest public relations efforts possible for the non-profit organization. Ironically, with appropriate support, volunteers become the best public relations device a cause can have (Naylor, 1976). Until the antecedents of commitment using the OCQ are more reliably established longitudinally however, organizational interventions aimed at increasing commitment and the consequential beneficial volunteer behaviours resulting from this understanding may not realize their intended effects.

Research Question 3

Demographic Characteristics and Commitment and Satisfaction

Commitment: Results from the present study suggested

that volunteer commitment and willingness to exert effort would increase as the years of experience with Sport for Disabled organizations increased (See Table 7). The number of years experience with a Sport for the Disabled organization had a significant positive correlation to the volunteer's measured level of commitment and willingness to exert effort (See Table 7). Scheffe post-hoc tests revealed that these differences were most significant between first year volunteers and those who had been involved for six years or more (See Table 8). This result coincided with Becker's (1960) "side bet theory" of motivation where investments of time and energy increased the internal belief that their involvement was worth pursuing (Jenner, 1981).

An issue plaguing volunteer program administrators regarding these results is why some people continue volunteer work, while others stop. A volunteer will remain, only as long as their needs are being met. It is not impossible however for a need to become satiated so that it ceases to exist; in which case the volunteer, to remain motivated in their work, must satisfy other, more dominant needs. After the individual actually becomes a volunteer and commences working, their motives may alter, again making it necessary that the work experience satisfies these new motives. In addition, it would be unreasonable to assert that a volunteer stays or leaves only on the basis of whether or not their needs are being met, as there are many practical reasons which have not been considered here.

Satisfaction: Volunteer satisfaction is affected by the volunteer's gender and levels of completed education. Highly educated volunteers scored significantly stronger (.05) in scores of volunteer role than less educated volunteers. Female volunteers also scored significantly higher (.10) in their perceptions of volunteer role than their male counterparts, although the level of significance (.10) did not satisfy the studies earlier defined statistical parameters (.05).

Recommendations for Future Research

The following section offers some of the recommendations resulting from this study and includes both theoretical and practical suggestions. The following recommendations related to future research obligations involving theoretical and practical concerns in the area of Sport for the Disabled organizations. While a longitudinal study would have been an appropriate follow-up to this present study, the lack of a longitudinal design should not have detracted from the general quality or importance of the results (Kikulis, 1987).

Theoretical

Further research is needed to prepare for the societal changes noted in the introduction of this study. These potential designs could include "the testing of the theoretical framework in terms of the predictability in identifying potential volunteers and appropriate motivational

strategies" (Livingston, 1963, p.45). Since volunteer driven organizations must provide opportunities for individuals with different motives to participate, research utilizing the antecedents to commitment and satisfaction should facilitate and assist the development of recruitment strategies. These strategies would be based upon the unique motives of their potential volunteers, thus hopefully leading to individuals achieving the goals of the Sport for Disabled organization.

More research is also needed to discern the differences between non-profit associations, government agencies, the business sector and sport organizations. By recognizing the differences and commonalities between these groups, research that is focussed on attributes such as commitment and satisfaction will become more usable and allow more useful comparisons. It may also be beneficial to note where research is originating from, therefore recognizing biases and also the time frame from which the research was conducted. Sources of research must be recognized to address the problems of having volunteers subjected to cynical criticism from administrators under specific circumstances and time specific political and social climates.

Additional recommendations for future studies include recognizing the percentages of volunteers who are related biologically to the athletes. These relationships may show significant differences within the levels of the volunteer's measures of satisfaction and commitment. As voluntary action seldom occurs in the absence of some instrumental rewards, is it possible for people to be convinced that altruistic,

voluntary action is proper behaviour (Murnighan, Kim & Metzger, 1993)? "Drawing insight from the notion that altruism is most beneficial when it is directed towards close kin" (Murnighan, Kim & Metzger, 1993, p.536), significant differences for volunteer motivation may exist between relatives and non relatives of the athletes with disabilities.

It may also be important to note the number of people with disabilities volunteering. The base of volunteer participation appears to be spreading as "there are more young people, more men and more older people, as every economic group is involved and there are also more people with a physical disability themselves volunteering" (Ancas, 1992, p.92). The mutual help movement is the fastest growing side of the voluntary sector. "For almost every problem, there are now groups of people who have weathered the storm and are reaching out to help others newly facing the problem" (Ancas, 1992, p.4). Whether these individuals were former athletes, friends of those participating, or simply interested in helping out remained unknown.

Another recommendation regarding the demographic sample of this study would be to differentiate between Sport for Disabled Ontario, the Ontario Special Olympics and Able Bodied Ontario Sport Governing Bodies such as the Ontario Basketball Association. It would be worth considering the differences in volunteer motives between organizations that deal with mental disabilities such as the Special Olympics, physical disabilities such as Sport for the Disabled Ontario

and the able bodied sports environment such as the Ontario Basketball Association. Comparisons between these three organizations could show interesting correlations, as human motivation is an important and baffling mystery and "is as unique to the individual as a fingerprint, but is even much more complicated"(Naylor, 1976, p.98). A final demographic characteristic worth considering includes comparing volunteers from different levels of the organizational hierarchy. The National President and Board of Directors may have drastically different motives to participate when compared to a volunteer equipment manager for a local club.

Human motivation becomes almost overwhelming in scope when the actions of volunteers in unique settings are considered. Continued research towards correctly understanding volunteer motives is important now more than ever, as community involvement is not merely an end in itself, but is a means to an end. By recognizing even the smallest of differences between the cohort groups of choice, administrators will be better able to serve their clients.

A recommendation specific to the instrument chosen for this study included the general sub-section "Opportunity for Rewards" within the Job Description Index which should be made more understandable to the volunteer. This process could have included more descriptive words/phrases as well as a brief introductory description of the general sub-section. A second recommendation when using the Job Description Index was to analyse each word/phrase individually. This analysis would allow potentially greater insight into what

specifically satisfies a volunteer.

Recommendations for improved statistical treatment include replacing the ANOVA with a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA). Because the two measures of satisfaction and commitment were strongly correlated internally, they may have been grouped into two separate sections, thus creating a combined variance. The MANOVA would then further analyse these two groups while freezing the effects of the other variables. In addition, it may have been more appropriate to have conducted a correlational matrix based on eleven separate variables instead of addressing commitment and satisfaction as separate entities and then looking at specific sub-sections.

Practical

Practical recommendations for future studies included measuring a volunteer's level of satisfaction at the event site and then measuring commitment at a later date in a more neutral setting. The majority of volunteer comments were directed towards their perceived levels of immediate satisfaction. Commitment, which was generally more consistent over time than satisfaction, could be measured at a later date. These multiple measurements would allow a greater perspective for the volunteer to better determine their own commitment to the Sport for Disabled organization. In addition, it was evident that active participation by the researcher improved the questionnaire return rate.

One final recommendation was to document the names and

addresses of volunteers receiving the questionnaires. This process would allow the researcher the ability to pursue incomplete questionnaires, providing possible follow up interviews and hopefully an increased return rate.

Recommendations for Sport Administrators

Millions of Canadian volunteers: young people, adults, senior citizens, people with disabilities, workers, students and the unemployed participated in numerous activities and community services (Robichaud, 1986). There was, however, a danger of overestimating and glorifying the non-profit sector. As important as it is, it has tended to receive more credit than it possibly deserved, and the credibility as advocates could be lost. Perspective on this sector and society is also lost when the importance of private philanthropy and voluntary organizations are exaggerated. "An active voluntary sector helped preserve and enhance larger vehicles, but does not transcend them" (Eisenburg, in Sutherland, 1992).

Many social and health service agencies have found it increasingly difficult, however, to find enough volunteers to continue their many programs. Economic pressures, changes in lifestyle and family composition have meant that there are fewer volunteers available from the traditional sources. Governments at the same time are reducing funding to social, health, and recreation services, therefore more and more organizations must rely on increased volunteer assistance.

Individuals in the field of kinesiology, human kinetics, physical and health education, sports and recreation must assist organizations by conveying the implications of empirical and theoretical research to practitioners. The human resources are available, but it was up to the administrators and researchers to convey this responsibility to the individuals with knowledge and ability.

Voluntary behaviour was certainly of interest for Sport for Disabled organizations, since volunteers are fundamental to all service organizations. The successful functioning of volunteer organizations would be enhanced if they capitalized on the fact that people volunteer for more than simple overt reasons.

Implicit in voluntary action is the freedom of choice and control within the constraints of the norms and guidelines of an organization. The persistence of cooperation depended upon the relationship between values and behaviour. Volunteer organizations often required a variety of individuals to serve multiple roles, thus it would be important to search for the proper mix of personalities in the organization. "These are the kinds of questions that are raised as one probes the role of personality and situational dispositions in organizational behaviour" (Kikulis, 1987, p.246).

Maintaining volunteer interests was an ongoing process where the individual understands the focus of the organization and personal responsibilities to the program, and whereby the organization fulfilled its responsibilities

to the individual. It was important therefore that the volunteer administrators "kept their imagination bigger than the volunteer's experience and their vision larger than their view" (anonymous).

One clear practical consideration was that voluntary organizations were contingent upon the decision of an individual to stay, leave, or join. Thus, "the opportunity for self determination, autonomy, and acceptance must be afforded within the context of the organization" (Kikulis, 1987, p.247). As well, volunteer coordinators and administrators should be aware of the conscious and unconscious individual differences with respect to individual motivation. By recognizing the maximum number of potential reasons for volunteering, the impact of each volunteer's energy could be utilized more effectively.

What motivates a volunteer at the commencement of an assignment may not necessarily provide the impetus for continued involvement. Volunteers would expect a return on their investments of time. The non-profit agency's responsibility was to ensure that this experience is mutually profitable. While volunteer organizations should continue to attract volunteers, they must also have focused their attention on why people volunteer. "After all, competitive athletes want to attain victory, serious students seek good grades and employees are paid for their efforts, but why do volunteers volunteer and why do they continue to contribute year after year?" (Bremner, 1988, p.64)

Recognizing that volunteer motives are tenuous, the

objective of sport organizations must also be to minimize the potential conflict for volunteer members once they have initiated the volunteer process. Volunteer satisfaction was a characteristic of an organizational framework that provided privileges and obligations congruent with the expectations and goals of the individual and organization. "The major role of voluntary sport organizations was the delivery of services while also providing a situation where communication and assistance enabled the awareness of personality and situational influences on volunteer satisfaction" (Kikulis, 1987, p.248) and commitment.

It might be in the best interests of Sport for Disabled organizations to promote the sport as opposed to focussing on the disabled aspect of their members. This would not only benefit the athletes themselves, but would possibly promote more involvement from male volunteers affected by sexist stereotypes based on inclusive interest in athletically oriented opportunities. As demographic characteristics of volunteers move further and further away from the "Wife with the children out of the house syndrome" (Turner, 1993), it would be important to provide avenues that attracted the most number of potential available volunteers.

It would be unfortunate, nevertheless, if this process steered away the previous corps of volunteers that have been so important to the development of sports for the disabled. It was more important, however, that feelings of sympathy towards people with disabilities were discarded. After all, everyone has his/her own disability, some are just more

obvious than others.

Volunteering is a natural human urge which could be fostered as one of the last areas of life in which compassion and concern for others could be expressed. As well, it may still hold true that the health of a democratic society could be judged by the quality of services provided by its volunteer citizens (de Tocqueville, 1835). Modern volunteers were a unique breed whose ancestors helped build this country. Their potential was incalculable (Wilson, 1976).

The individual acts of caring and sharing that constitute volunteering has known no historic or generational limits. They always have happened, wherever there are caring people. "Like a garden, volunteering enjoys a timeless quality" (MacDuff, 1991). Volunteering must continue, "if we are to live humanely and peacefully with ourselves and with each other" (Allen, 1984, p.16).

While volunteer work is as old as charity itself, it has become increasingly topical as the escalating interest appears to be attributable to a variety of factors. "If ever there was a subject...on which people consider themselves experts , it is volunteerism" (Mallory Parks, 1983, p.28). A growing interest in volunteerism was in part related to the advocacy of women's groups and others who wished to promote the recognition of the importance, relevance and value of unpaid community work, both in itself and as it related to possible subsequent paid employment. It could also be traced to a recognition that during times of fiscal restraint at all levels of government, the work of volunteers had represented

a great contribution to the community well-being than would otherwise not exist. People are following Henry Ford's advice; "Don't find a fault, find a remedy" (Schindler-Rainman, 1967, p.98).

Current levels of interest in volunteering were also a result of a growing awareness that many of the services provided by volunteer workers and the profound dedication which they brought to their work, could have fully duplicated in the field of social services provided by paid workers. For volunteerism to be a significant force in society, it would require not only people and dollars, but also leadership and devotion. The individual who joined an organization and formed a bond which led to active participation over a period of time was one who could provide effective leadership, raise funds, and recruit new members. "In days of big government and big business, voluntary organizations provided a way for individuals to have an impact on their communities and to interpret those communities to the larger society" (Moyer, 1983, p.1). It was critical, therefore, to understand why people volunteered, and what factors influenced commitment over a prolonged period of time (Jenner, 1981).

If, as Rick Hansen has noted, that sport is the mirror of how society views itself, volunteering in Sport for Disabled organizations would provide a good insight into volunteering within all aspects of society. A Task Force on Disabled Issues in Canada confirmed unequivocally the importance of sport in our society. For example, it learned that "a majority of Canadians (90%) agreed that sport is as

much an element of Canadian Culture as music, films or literature"(Statistics Canada, 1991). Sport was pervasive, as "it was the topic of conversation around the water cooler at work and at times, dominated the airwaves and formed a major portion of our daily newspapers" (Ulrich & Parkhouse, 1979, p.53). The literal pervasiveness of sport is clear.

Benjamin Franklin once stated, that "he[she], who is of the opinion that money will do everything, may well be suspected of doing everything for money" (Abdennur, 1987,p.58). An eternal struggle with man[woman]kind has been to find the right balance between being financially successful, while also being socially responsible and generous. Volunteering has always been a tool in which people have demonstrated that they are truly concerned for others. Volunteers were encouraged to explore, experiment, sustain, and comfort, as all contributed to our collective future in the belief that they had made a difference. "It was truly one of the most beautiful compensations in life that no person could sincerely try to help another without helping him[her]self" (Ralph Waldo Emerson, in Scheier,1977, p.109).

Persons with a disability are not handicapped until the environment presents the barrier. While many environmental handicaps are physical - stairs that can't be climbed, buildings and buses that can't be entered - others are perceptual and attitudinal. As a society, we came to appreciate the very real contributions that persons with a disability could and did make. As well, persons with a disability expected society to treat them with respect and

dignity. Potentially, this process could be made easier as compassionate and understanding volunteers act as advocates, leaders and friends. The obvious importance of volunteers and the fact that volunteerism had been the target of so little research made it a fertile field for exploration.

I noted at the beginning of the inquiry that I was setting out on uncharted seas. If we had known how vast was the ocean on which we were embarking, or how rich and varied the living organisms it contained, we might have been daunted and discouraged. In another metaphor, we said that our description of the voluntary sector must be as still in the constantly moving film of a living growth and development. If I had known the gigantic size of the screen needed to show it, I may have shrunk from this cinematic task (anonymous).

Appendices

Appendix A
 Research Copy
 Consent Form
 Faculty of Human Kinetics, Department of Kinesiology

Volunteers provide an invaluable service to administrators and athletes in sport for the disabled organizations. Nevertheless, for program development to continue, it will be necessary that less resources be spent on the recruiting and training of volunteers. The purpose of this study being conducted by Mr. David Legg and Dr. G. Olafson from the Department of Kinesiology, Faculty of Human Kinetics, at the University of Windsor, is to determine what motivates you as a volunteer with regards to satisfaction and commitment. By recognizing the motives leading to these variables, administrators will be able to focus upon these areas and form a strong volunteer pool.

Participation in this study will involve the completion of a questionnaire that combines a measure of personal satisfaction using an adapted Job Description Index and a second measure regarding your commitment using an adapted Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. This process should take approximately ten minutes and results from this study will be made available through your organizing body.

When you agree to participate in this study, you will understand that :

1. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you are not comfortable with this study, you may withdraw at anytime.
2. Your response to the questionnaires will be held in strictest confidence and will be used for research purposes only. The report of the study will involve a summary of group responses rather than individual answers, thus confidentiality will be ensured.

Your name (print) _____ Date _____

Signature _____

Signature of Researcher _____ Date _____

This study has been reviewed and has received clearance through the Department of Kinesiology, Ethics Committee, University of Windsor. Dr. K. Kenno, Department of Kinesiology, Chair of the Department of Kinesiology Ethics Committee will receive any concerns with regard to this study at 519 253 4232, ext. 2444.

Appendix B

Part 1. Demographic Categories

Age.	Years with organization.	Highest level of education completed.
10-19 _____	1 _____	Grade 8 _____
20-29 _____	2 _____	High School _____
30-39 _____	3 _____	Community College _____
40-49 _____	4 _____	University, undergraduate _____
50-59 _____	5 _____	University, graduate _____
60-69 _____	6 _____	University, doctoral _____
70-79 _____	7 _____	
80 + _____	8 _____	Gender
	9+ _____	Male _____
Occupation _____		Female _____

Appendix C

Part 2. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

(copyright, 1973, University of California - Irvine)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they are volunteers. With respect to your feelings, please indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling from (1) if you strongly disagree, to (7) if you strongly agree with the statement.

	strongly disagree	strongly agree
1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful	1	7
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to volunteer for.	1	7
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	7
4. I would accept almost any type of assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization.	1	7
5. I find that my values and the organizations value's are very similar.	1	7
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	7
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of volunteer experience was similar.	1	7
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me with respect to volunteer performance.	1	7
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstance to cause me to leave this organization.	1	7
10. I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to volunteer for, over others that I was considering at the time I joined.	1	7
11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	1	7
12. Often, I find it is difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its members.	1	7
13. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	7
14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations to volunteer for.	1	7
15. Deciding to volunteer for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	7

please turn over

Appendix D

Part 3. Job Description Index

(copyright, 1975, 1985, Bowling Green State University)

For all of the following terms, please indicate your agreement by circling one of the options represented in the following scale :

Y for "yes" if you agree with the item.
N for "no" if you disagree with the item.
? if you cannot decide.

How well do the following words describe your volunteer role, supervision, co workers and opportunities for rewards?.

Volunteer Role		Supervision		Co Workers	
Fascinating	Y N ?	Asks my advice	Y N ?	Stimulating	Y N ?
Routine	Y N ?	Praises good work	Y N ?	Helpful	Y N ?
Satisfying	Y N ?	Up to date	Y N ?	Fast	Y N ?
Boring	Y N ?	Stubborn	Y N ?	Lazy	Y N ?
Good	Y N ?	Intelligent	Y N ?	Active	Y N ?
Creative	Y N ?	Hard to please	Y N ?	Stubborn	Y N ?
Uncomfort- able	Y N ?	Tactful	Y N ?	Boring	Y N ?
Pleasant	Y N ?	Has favourites	Y N ?	Stupid	Y N ?
Useful	Y N ?	Knows job well	Y N ?	Intelligent	Y N ?
Tiring	Y N ?	Poor Planner	Y N ?	Unpleasant	Y N ?
Helpful	Y N ?	Tells me where I - stand	Y N ?	Loyal	Y N ?
Challenging	Y N ?	Impolite	Y N ?	Smart	Y N ?
Too much - to do	Y N ?	Influential	Y N ?	Slow	Y N ?
Frustrating	Y N ?	Annoying	Y N ?	Responsible	Y N ?
Simple	Y N ?	Bad	Y N ?	Talks too - much	Y N ?
Repetitive	Y N ?	Lazy	Y N ?	Gossipy	Y N ?
Gives sense- of accomplish- ment	Y N ?	Around when - needed	Y N ?	Narrow - interests	Y N ?
		Doesn't Supervise- enough	Y N ?	Easy to - make enemies	Y N ?
Opportunities for Rewards					
Satisfactory	Y N ?	Limited	Y N ?	Bad	Y N ?
Regular rewards	Y N ?	Less than I deserve	Y N ?	Good	Y N ?
Rewards on Ability	Y N ?	Regular	Y N ?	Infrequent	Y N ?

Additional Comments

Thank you for your assistance

Appendix E

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SANTA BARBARA • SANTA CRUZ

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

IRVINE, CALIFORNIA 92717-3125

April 5, 1994

David Legg
23 Reid Avenue
Ottawa, Ontario
Canada N1Y 1X3

Dear Mr. Legg:

I hereby grant permission for you to use the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire as a research instrument for your Master's thesis regarding volunteer motivation, satisfaction and commitment with Sport for Disabled organizations in Ontario.

Attached is a copy of the Questionnaire. The checked items should be reverse-scored and are omitted for the nine-item version of the measure.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "LWP", with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Lyman W. Porter, Professor

/cjl/ocq_lr.doc

Attachment

Appendix H

Mean, Median and Standard Deviations, Valid and Missing Responses of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

OCQ Question	Mean	Median	Standard Dev.	Valid Resp.	Missing Resp.
1	5.495	6	1.331	105	3
2	5.257	5	1.677	101	7
3	2.495	2	1.825	103	5
4	5.020	5	1.712	102	6
5	5.580	6	1.249	100	8
6	6.170	7	1.123	94	14
7	4.653	5	1.927	98	10
8	5.490	6	1.421	104	4
9	3.000	2	2.077	103	5
10	5.260	5	1.778	96	12
11	2.434	2	1.802	99	9
12	2.832	2	1.872	95	13
13	6.051	6	1.224	99	9
14	4.971	5	1.746	103	5
15	1.212	1	0.773	99	9

Appendix I

Percentages of Scores for the Job Description Index
(Satisfaction)

Co-Workers	Responses		
	yes	no	?
stimulating	87.0	5.4	7.6
helpful	95.7	0.0	4.3
fast	81.1	10.1	8.9
lazy	6.9	92.0	1.1
active	97.9	0.0	2.1
stubborn	7.4	85.3	7.4
boring	1.1	94.7	4.2
stupid	4.3	93.6	2.1
intelligent	88.8	3.1	8.2
unpleasant	1.1	96.8	2.1
loyal	90.6	2.1	7.3
smart	89.1	3.3	7.6
slow	3.2	91.6	5.3
responsible	93.8	2.1	4.2
talks too much	7.4	81.1	11.6
gossips	13.7	75.8	10.5
nar. interests	5.3	78.7	16.0
easy enemies	5.3	78.7	16.0

Opportunity for Rewards

	yes	no	?
satisfactory	85.9	5.4	8.7
reg. (quality)	64.4	17.2	18.4
on ability	52.9	21.8	25.3
limited	27.6	54.0	18.4
less than des.	9.2	71.3	19.5
reg. (timing)	56.5	16.5	27.1
bad	3.8	83.5	12.7
good	81.2	7.1	11.8
infrequent	17.5	48.7	33.7

Appendix I continued

Supervision	Responses		
	yes	no	?
asks advice	62.9	30.3	6.7
praises work	83.5	5.5	11.0
up to date	72.2	8.9	18.9
stubborn	12.3	77.8	9.9
intelligent	86.5	4.5	0.9
hard to please	13.3	82.7	4.0
tactful	73.9	14.8	11.4
has favourites	23.7	60.0	16.2
knows job well	86.2	8.0	5.7
poor planner	15.7	73.5	10.8
tells me	52.9	24.1	23.0
impolite	4.9	85.4	9.8
influential	51.2	23.8	25.0
annoying	8.7	82.5	8.7
bad	1.4	95.9	2.7
lazy	1.5	97.0	1.5
around when	81.6	11.5	6.9
doesn't	6.8	78.1	15.1

Volunteer Role

	yes	no	?
fascinating	76.0	12.5	11.5
routine	34.4	59.1	6.5
satisfying	94.1	2.9	2.9
boring	1.1	88.3	10.6
good	97.1	1.0	2.0
creative	77.6	16.3	6.1
uncomfortable	3.2	94.6	2.2
pleasant	97.1	1.9	1.0
useful	97.1	1.0	1.9
tiring	35.6	58.9	5.6
helpful	96.2	1.0	2.9
challenging	78.4	12.7	8.8
too much to do	3.3	87.9	8.8
frustrating	12.2	80.0	7.8
simple	51.1	36.7	12.2
repetitive	33.3	55.6	11.1
accomplishment	91.2	6.9	2.0

Appendix J

Mean, Median and Standard Deviations Valid and Missing
Responses of Job Description Index

Co-Workers

category	mean	median	standard dev	valid resp.	missing resp.
stimulating	0.207	0	0.565	92	16
helpful	0.087	0	0.410	92	16
fast	0.278	0	0.619	90	18
lazy	0.943	1	0.279	87	21
active	0.042	0	0.287	96	12
stubborn	1.000	1	0.386	95	13
boring	1.032	1	0.228	95	13
stupid	0.979	1	0.253	94	14
intelligent	0.194	0	0.526	98	10
unpleasant	1.011	1	0.179	94	14
loyal	0.167	0	0.536	96	12
smart	0.185	0	0.553	92	16
slow	1.042	1	0.291	95	13
responsible	0.968	0	0.423	96	12
talks too much	1.042	1	0.436	95	13
gossipy	0.968	1	0.464	95	13
narrow int.	1.106	1	0.451	94	14
easy enemies	1.074	1	0.366	94	14

Volunteer Role

category	mean	median	standard dev	valid resp.	missing resp.
fascinating	0.356	0	0.681	104	4
routine	0.720	1	0.578	93	15
satisfying	0.088	0	0.375	102	6
boring	1.096	1	0.330	94	14
good	0.049	0	0.294	102	6
creative	0.286	0	0.574	98	10
uncomfortable	0.989	1	0.233	93	15
pleasant	0.039	0	0.239	103	5
useful	0.049	0	0.293	103	5
tiring	0.700	1	0.570	90	18
helpful	0.067	0	0.349	104	4
challenging	0.304	0	0.626	102	6
too much to do	1.055	1	0.345	91	17
frustrating	0.956	1	0.447	90	18
simple	0.611	0	0.698	90	18
repetitive	0.778	1	0.632	90	18
accomplishment	0.108	0	0.370	102	6

Appendix J continued

Opportunity for Rewards

category	mean	median	standard dev	valid resp.	missing resp.
satisfactory	0.228	0	0.595	92	16
reg. rewards	0.540	0	0.790	87	21
rew. ability	0.724	0	0.845	87	21
limited	0.908	1	0.676	87	21
less deserved	1.103	1	0.529	87	21
regular	0.706	0	0.870	85	23
bad	1.089	1	0.398	79	29
good	0.306	0	0.673	85	23
infrequent	1.162	1	0.702	80	28

Supervision

category	mean	median	standard dev	valid resp.	missing resp.
asks advice	0.438	0	0.621	89	19
praises work	0.275	0	0.651	91	17
up to date	0.467	0	0.796	90	18
stubborn	0.975	1	0.474	81	27
intelligent	0.225	0	0.598	89	19
hard to please	0.907	1	0.408	75	33
tactful	0.375	0	0.683	88	20
has favourites	0.925	1	0.632	80	28
knows job well	0.195	0	0.525	87	21
poor planner	0.952	1	0.516	83	25
where I stand	0.705	0	0.823	87	21
impolite	1.049	1	0.382	82	26
influential	0.738	0	0.838	84	24
annoying	1.000	1	0.421	80	28
bad	1.014	1	0.204	73	35
lazy	1.000	1	0.175	66	42
around needed	0.253	0	0.575	87	21
doesn't enough	1.082	1	0.464	73	35

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