



## PhD Thesis

---

**Program** : Doctor of Philosophy

**Submission** : A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**Title** : Public Service Motivation and Volunteering

**Submitted by** : Joyce K. Costello

**Supervisors** : Dr. Fabian Homberg  
: Dr. Davide Secchi  
: Dr. Jens Mohrenweiser

**Date** : September 2016

*This copy of the thesis has been supplied on the condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognize that its copyright rests with its author and due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.*

## **ABSTRACT**

This thesis is a collection of essays that addresses the challenge of understanding the relationship between public service motivation and volunteering. Set in the backdrop of increased corporate and public sector social responsibility, I first examine the theoretical rationale behind public service motivation (PSM). I address the debate of how it affects volunteer behavior through the concept of volunteering intensity. As individuals often have preconceived notions as to how their values match with an organization, I integrate the theory of Person- Organization fit (P-O Fit). The model is quantitatively tested in four studies using data sets of individuals who have a history of volunteering in the Southwest region of UK and Italy. In the first study, I confirm that individuals with high levels of PSM report exerting greater volunteering intensity or effort. The second study examines how PSM differs across homogenous and heterogeneous samples of Millennials. In the third study, I find limited support for the presumption that individuals who are coerced into volunteering exert less effort than their non-coerced counterparts. In the final study, I explore if PSM has different outcomes in relation to time, frequency and volunteering intensity. Together, this collection of papers are interwoven around the discussions concerning using PSM as a motivator to volunteer. These studies have implications that can impact policies such as the UK Work Program, mandated volunteering in school and organizational social responsibility programs. The findings also have practical implications for HR managers that are highlighting social responsibility as part of their employer branding process. Additionally, volunteer coordination managers across sectors can benefit from how these studies improve our understanding of PSM and P-O fit in the volunteering context. Finally, from an academic viewpoint, I contribute to debates surrounding the third wave of PSM research.

## Table of Contents



**Bournemouth  
University**

.....	1
<b>PhD Thesis</b>	
.....	1
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	3
<b>List of Figures</b> .....	9
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	10
<b>PREFACE</b> .....	12
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	13
<b>AUTHOR'S DECLARATION</b> .....	14
<b>CHAPTER 1- Introduction</b> .....	15
<b>1.1 Research Background</b> .....	16
<b>1.2 Research Aim, Questions and Objectives</b> .....	20
<b>1.3 Literature Survey: Public Service Motivation</b> .....	21
<b>1.3.1 Antecedents of PSM</b> .....	23
<b>1.3.1.1 Social-Demographic Factors</b> .....	24
<b>1.3.1.2 Social Institutions' Roles</b> .....	25
<b>1.3.1.3 Organizational Antecedents</b> .....	26
<b>1.3.2 Outcomes of PSM</b> .....	28
<b>1.3.2.1 Individual Level</b> .....	28
<b>1.3.2.2 Organizational Level</b> .....	30
<b>1.3.3 PSM as a Moderator/Mediator</b> .....	32
<b>1.3.4 PSM Measurement Disputes</b> .....	33
<b>1.4. Literature Survey: Volunteering</b> .....	39
<b>1.5 Literature Survey: Person-Organization Fit</b> .....	44
<b>1.6 Contributions</b> .....	46
<b>1.7 Structure of the Thesis/ Research Plan</b> .....	48
<b>CHAPTER 2 - Using Public Service Motivation to Analyze Volunteer Behavior: A Review and Research Agenda<sup>1</sup></b> .....	52
<b>2.1 Introduction</b> .....	53
<b>2.2 Theoretical Framework</b> .....	57

2.2.1 PSM.....	57
2.2.2 Volunteering Intensity .....	61
2.2.3 Person-Organization Fit of Volunteers .....	64
2.2.4 PSM Dimensions and Corresponding Volunteer Domain Categories.....	67
2.2.5 The Conceptual Models.....	75
2.3 Conclusion .....	79
<b>CHAPTER 3- Methodology .....</b>	<b>81</b>
3.1 Research Paradigm.....	82
3.2. Research Approach and Strategy.....	84
3.3 Timing.....	85
3.4 Sampling .....	86
3.5 Conclusion .....	86
<b>CHAPTER 4- When Does Public Service Motivation Generate Dedicated Volunteers? <sup>2</sup></b>	<b>88</b>
4.1 Introduction.....	89
4.2 Theoretical Framework.....	92
4.2.1 Volunteering Intensity .....	92
4.2.2 Public Service Motivation .....	93
4.2.3. Person-Organization Fit.....	95
3.2.4 Volunteering Categories .....	97
4.3 Method .....	104
4.3.1 Measurement of Main Variables .....	107
4.3.2 Control Variables.....	109
4.4 Analytical Strategy.....	109
4.4.1. Data Screening .....	110
4.4.2. Factor Analyses .....	111
4.4.3 Estimation Strategy.....	119
4.5 Findings.....	119
4.5.1 Test of Mediation Effects.....	122
4.5.2 Test of Moderation Effects.....	132
4.6. Discussion and Conclusion .....	143
4.6.1. Discussion.....	143
4.6.2 Limitations.....	148
4.6.3 Conclusion .....	149
<b>CHAPTER 5 -Call of Duty: Does Millennials’ Attitudes Towards Public Service Make Them Volunteers That Are More Committed? <sup>3</sup></b>	<b>150</b>

<b>5.1 Introduction</b> .....	151
<b>5.2 Theoretical Framework</b> .....	154
<b>5.2.1 Volunteering Intensity and Millennials</b> .....	154
<b>5.2.2 Public Service Motivation and Millennials</b> .....	155
<b>5.2.3 Person-Organization Fit and Millennials</b> .....	156
<b>5.3 Method</b> .....	164
<b>5.3.1. Measures of Main Variables</b> .....	166
<b>5.3.2. Control Variables</b> .....	167
<b>5.4 Analytical Strategy</b> .....	168
<b>5.4.1. Data Screening</b> .....	168
<b>5.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis</b> .....	170
<b>5.5 Findings</b> .....	175
<b>5.5.1 Test of Mediation Effects</b> .....	178
<b>5.6 Discussion and Conclusion</b> .....	189
<b>5.6.1 Discussion</b> .....	189
<b>5.6.2 Limitations and Future Research</b> .....	193
<b>5.6.3 Conclusion</b> .....	194
<b>CHAPTER 6-Does Coerced Volunteering Undermine the Public Service Motivation of Volunteers? A Moderated Mediation Model<sup>4</sup></b> .....	195
<b>6.1 Introduction</b> .....	196
<b>6.2 Theoretical Framework</b> .....	200
<b>6.2.1 The Coerced Volunteer</b> .....	200
<b>6.2.2 Volunteering intensity</b> .....	200
<b>6.2.3 Public Service Motivation and Coercion</b> .....	202
<b>6.2.4 Person-Organization Fit and Coercion</b> .....	202
<b>6.2.5 Moderating Effects of Coercion</b> .....	203
<b>6.3 Method</b> .....	209
<b>6.3.1 Measures of Main Variables</b> .....	210
<b>6.3.2 Control variables</b> .....	211
<b>6.4 Analytical Strategy</b> .....	211
<b>6.4.1. Data Screening</b> .....	212
<b>6.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis</b> .....	212
<b>6.5 Findings</b> .....	216
<b>6.6 Discussion and Conclusion</b> .....	230
<b>6.6.1 Discussion</b> .....	230
<b>6.6.2 Limitations and Future Research</b> .....	234

6.6.3 Conclusion .....	235
<b>CHAPTER 7- The Public Service Motivated Volunteer: Devoting Time or Effort? ....</b>	<b>237</b>
7.1 Introduction.....	238
7.2 Theoretical Framework.....	242
7.2.1 Public service motivation.....	242
7.2.2 Time and Effort.....	242
7.2.3 Volunteering Intensity and PSM Dimensions.....	245
7.3 Method .....	248
7.3.1 Measures of Main Variables .....	248
7.3.2 Control variables.....	249
7.4 Analytical Strategy.....	249
7.4.1. Data Screening .....	249
7.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis .....	249
7.5 Findings.....	252
7.6 Discussion and Conclusion .....	259
7.6.1 Discussion.....	259
7.6.2 Limitations and Future Research .....	262
7.6.3 Conclusion .....	263
<b>Chapter 8- The Fat Lady Volunteers to Sing: Reflection and the Way Forward .....</b>	<b>264</b>
8.1 Introduction.....	265
8.2 Summary of Thesis' Findings .....	265
8.2.1 Does PSM affect behavior of volunteers? .....	266
8.2.2 When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers? .....	267
8.2.3 Do millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers?.....	273
8.2.4 Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers? .....	273
8.2.5 Time versus energy- does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?.....	275
8.3 Conclusion .....	276
8.3.1 Practical Implications .....	276
8.3.2 Contributions.....	277
8.3.3 Limitations.....	278
8.4 Directions for Future Research .....	280
9.0 References.....	281
<b>10.0 Appendices.....</b>	<b>313</b>
Appendix A-.....	313

<b>Appendix B- Volunteer Intensity Scale</b> .....	317
<b>Appendix C- Public Service Motivation Scale</b> .....	318
<b>Appendix D- Person-Organization Fit Scale</b> .....	321
<b>Appendix E- Volunteering Habits</b> .....	322
<b>Appendix F- Summary of research questions, objectives and hypotheses</b> .....	323



## **List of Figures**

- 2.1 Conceptual Models
- 2.2 Conceptual Models at Dimensional Level
- 4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized)
- 5.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized Estimates- Italian and UK students)
- 5.2 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model ungrouped (standardized)
- 5.3 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model UK (standardized)
- 5.4 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model Italy (standardized)
- 6.1 Conceptual model of Coerced volunteers
- 6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized estimates)
- 6.3 Simple Slopes (PSM)
- 6.4 Simple Slopes (Self-Sacrifice)
- 6.5 Simple Slopes (Compassion)
- 6.6 Simple Slopes (Attraction to Policy Making)
- 6.7 Simple Slopes (Civic Duty)
- 7.1 Conceptual Model (Time vs. Effort)
- 7.2 Conceptual Model at Dimensional Level (Time vs. Effort)
- 7.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized estimates)

## List of Tables

- 1.1 Overview of studies
- 4.1 Dorset CVC Frequency Table
- 4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis
- 4.3 Composite Reliability
- 4.4 Regression model for PSM- Unstandardized Coefficients
- 4.5 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator
- 4.6 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator
- 4.7 Regression model for Compassion and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator
- 4.8 Regression model for Attraction to Policy Making and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator
- 4.9 Regression model for Civic Duty and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator
- 4.10 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator
- 4.11 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator
- 4.12 Regression model for Compassion and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator
- 4.13 Regression model for Commitment to Public Interest and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator
- 4.14 Regression model for Civic Duty and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator
- 5.1 Frequency Table (UK and Italian students)
- 5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (UK and Italian students)
- 5.3 Composite Reliability, Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations
- 5.4 Regression model for PSM (robust standard errors in parentheses)
- 5.5 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model ungrouped (Standardized Effects)
- 5.6 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model UK (Standardized Effects)
- 5.7 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model Italy (Standardized Effects)

- 6.1 Frequency Table (UK volunteers and students)
- 6.2 Composite reliability and Correlations
- 6.3 Regression model for PSM and Coerced as a moderator
- 6.4 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator and obligation as a moderator
- 6.5 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator and mandatory as a moderator
- 6.6 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Coerced as a moderator (Religious and Youth Organizations)
- 6.7 Regression model for Compassion and Coerced as a moderator (Health Organizations)
- 6.8 Regression model for Attraction to Policy Making and Coerced as a moderator (Professional Organizations)
- 6.9 Regression model for Civic Duty and Coerced as a moderator (Civic or Public Safety)
- 7.1 Composite reliability and Correlations
- 7.2 Regression models for PSM and Hours per Month
- 7.3 Logistic Regression models for PSM and Frequency
- 7.4 Regression models for PSM and Volunteering Intensity
- 8.1 Summary of Research Questions

## **PREFACE**

The reason for undertaking this study was due to my 19 year history of being employed in the US Federal Government. As public service motivation is a primary motivator of public service, I wanted to investigate its transferability in other domains that focus on the individuals' predisposition to public service.

I acknowledge that this research was undertaken with support in the form of a Bournemouth University Studentship. This financial support allowed me to focus on my studies. However, this did not lead to any conflicts of interest within my PhD studies.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

In loving memory of Kevin McEntire (1964-2012)

A special note of thanks to the dedication and patience of my supervisory team: Dr. Fabian Homberg, Dr. Davide Secchi and Dr. Jens Mohrenweiser. Words cannot express enough thanks and gratitude to Izabella and the Colonel for understanding why I needed all of those hours in silence. Finally, to my brother and sisters in arms who are no longer with us- your public service motivation is not forgotten.

**AUTHOR’S DECLARATION**

I certify that this thesis has not already been accepted, nor is it currently being submitted for any other degree. This work is a result of my own investigation and all quotations and sources from other authors have been acknowledged.

Some of the content within several of the following chapters are a result of papers for international conferences that were in collaboration with my supervisory team. I was responsible for developing my papers, analyzing my data and writing the paper. My supervisory team provided formative feedback that enabled me edit my papers so that they were successfully accepted to international conferences. The feedback which I received from anonymous reviewers during editorial review was taken into consideration. I have notated on chapters where such feedback was taken into consideration. However, the content is a result of my own learning throughout my PhD journey.

Signed: .....

Joyce K. Costello

Date: .....

## **CHAPTER 1- Introduction**

## **1.1 Research Background**

It is estimated that over 971 million people volunteer globally (Salamon and Sokolowski, 2011). In the European Union alone, it is estimated that 22-23 % of adults over the age of 15 take part in some type of volunteering activity (Mathou 2010). Italy has one of the lowest percentage of volunteers per population (2.23%) with the Ministry of social solidarity estimating 21,021 charities are operating in Italy (Mathou 2010). Whereas in the UK, the Department for Communities and Local Government Citizenship Survey estimates 68% of the adult population in England engage in formal and informal volunteering (Mathou 2010). However, the UK Charity Commission (2012) estimates that only 5.6% of the population volunteers in 162,915 registered UK charities. The commission estimates the volunteering equated to £58 Billion in revenues. The stark contrast between these two countries has been argued as a result of differing welfare states (Musick and Wilson 2007), but could indicate that different rational, normative or affective motives exists. At a societal level, the UK has a history of an emphasis on using volunteering and private initiatives to the benefit of greater society (Themudo 2009, Stride and Higgs 2013) and a service-centered approach (Musick and Wilson 2007), while Italians generally believe non-profits should perform more social and morally responsible work (Ramella 1995).

Across the EU the roles of profit, public and non-profit sector have become increasingly blurred. Today's non-profits are affected by voluntarism, professionalism, civic activism and commercialization (BLC Statistics 2016). Previous public sector functions such as community health programs and job training are outsourced to non-profits. In turn, non-profits have had to become more profit- or results-oriented by being able to demonstrate return on public investment (Desai and Snavely 2012). With the economic recession and ongoing pressure on public budgets, public organizations increasingly rely on non-profit organizations to provide some public services (Smith 2010).



However, private/profit organizations that have corporate social responsibility programs are also meeting this need to contribute to society by providing volunteer opportunities to their workforce. Indeed, it could be argued that, with the emerging importance for corporations to be more vocal about being socially responsible, they are adopting public sector values (Steen 2008). Profit companies are increasing participation through the corporate social responsibility movement (Lee and Wilkins 2011b; Bondy et al. 2012) and progressively needing their workforce to volunteer. Rotolo and Wilson (2006a) found that those who were self-employed had significantly higher probability to volunteer and larger expected mean hours per year than their profit counterparts.

Even public sector organizations have volunteering opportunities for their workforce. In the United Kingdom, Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs (2012) allows employees a minimum of one day off paid volunteer leave which in 2011-12 resulted in over 5,000 days of volunteering. In Italy there are no rules governing the guaranteed time public sector employees may take for volunteering, if they are volunteering for the Italian civil protection system. However, the Decree of Republic President n. 194/2001 now allows for volunteering in emergencies to volunteer 30 consecutive days or 90 days per year (Calcara 2014).

To complicate matters, the dynamics of the volunteer workforce is changing as baby-boomers start retiring and exiting from the mainstream workforce (Rathge et al. 2013). The baby boomers are not settling into a life of golf, playing with the grandkids and volunteering. Rather, many are taking advantage of flexible work arrangements to supplement their retirement funds (Loretto and Vickerstaff 2015). This means the long anticipated influx of volunteers with plenty of spare time are not answering the call to increase their volunteering habits. Whereas, the millennials (Generation Y and Z) are entering the workforce and confronting employers with new set of demands and expectations about work settings such as more flexibility to pursue their hobbies and interests (McGinnis 2011). Not only is this

leading to greater competition for labor pools and workforce planning (Jacobson 2010), it increases competition for volunteers.

This overall increased demand for volunteers amongst organizations supplementing social care has led to the development of volunteer coordinators and managers across sectors. For the private sector volunteer coordinators, they are operating in an environment that was not organized to recognize that employees might have vastly different motivations when volunteering opposed to their job. As a result, volunteer managers and coordinators across sectors are faced with three main challenges: (1) recruiting, (2) motivating to perform and (3) retaining high performing volunteers in different volunteer environments. For those managers operating in non-profits, volunteers remain an integrated necessity. Yet for the private organization that is increasing their corporate volunteering schemes, volunteer coordination managers now have to realize that what motivates their workforce, may not motivate the individual as a volunteer. The public sector is in a different situation in terms of volunteering schemes as they are already relying on the individual's pre-disposition towards providing public oriented service- also known as public service motivation.

Therefore, my PhD research studies the effect of how the public service motivation (PSM) theory can be a useful tool in addressing these challenges for volunteer managers. By examining PSM in volunteers and drawing on their experience, one will be able to understand the motivational drivers of behaviors, specifically volunteering intensity. The answers to these questions are of high relevance to academics and practitioners. Some scholars have questioned whether PSM has an actual performance effect when examining its influence on outcomes such as job performance (Vandenabeele 2009). However, first, by linking PSM to the intensity of volunteering behavior, an in-depth understanding of the consequence of PSM in organizations that rely on volunteers can be developed. Previous studies have linked PSM to volunteering (Houston 2006; Coursey et al. 2011; Lee 2012b), but none to my knowledge

have explored the impact PSM will have on the volunteers actual behavior. Consequently, this series of studies lays the groundwork for the next round of academic debates into how different levels of PSM affect behavior. This leads to the second major contribution and gap in literature that my PhD aims to fulfill.

I add empirical evidence in the academic debate about using an alternative means to capture the overall intensity of volunteering. There is much debate within the volunteering literature about capturing different levels of intensity (Rodell 2013), but it is primarily focused on using time as the main means of measurement. My paper follows ideas grounded in organizational behavior that work effort scales that have been adapted to the volunteer environment may provide better insight than just relying on reported time (Rodell 2013). Thus, this project fills gaps in volunteer research by linking PSM to volunteering performance as reflected in volunteering intensity. Ultimately, I contribute to the nascent line of research linking PSM and volunteering (Houston 2006; Coursey et al. 2011; Lee 2012b) by providing an additional perspective and empirical evidence.

The final gap in literature is how Person-Organization Fit (P-O Fit) complements the overall relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. There is little application of P-O fit to volunteer studies. Rather, there is one conceptual paper (Schlosser and Zinni 2011) and a few empirical studies (Van Vianen et al. 2008; Kim et al. 2009; Lott et al. 2013) about Person-Environment fit (P-E fit) and sporadic studies directly testing P-O fit (Parkes et al. 2001; Kim et al. 2007; van Vuuren et al. 2008; Scherer et al. 2016). This should be an area of interest to volunteer coordination managers as P-O fit has a long history within organizational behavior; however, it is slowly appearing in volunteer studies.

## **1.2 Research Aim, Questions and Objectives**

The overall aim of this thesis is to understanding how certain attitudes influence behavior.

Research has already linked PSM as an antecedent to volunteering (Houston 2006, Clerkin et al. 2009), but how it affects the behavior of the individual while volunteering is unknown.

Accordingly, the main research question is

*Primary Research Question: Does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?*

However, because there are many paths that one can take to answer this question, secondary research questions (SRQ) have been formulated to provide a more in-depth understanding of PSM and volunteers. These SRQ's reflect the main topics in the following chapters.

*SRQ1: When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers who exert greater levels of effort?*

*SRQ2: Does millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed to exerting effort as volunteers?*

*SRQ3: Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers and volunteering intensity?*

*SRQ4: Time versus energy - does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?*

Based on the research questions, my PhD intends to achieve the following objectives.

1. Explore the impact of PSM on volunteer behavior focusing on volunteering intensity.
2. Analyze the different dimensions of PSM attitudes to determine if they are more prevalent in different categories of volunteer organizations.

3. Investigate if different generational cohorts exhibit different PSM motivators when volunteering for similar causes.
4. Analyze if coercion of volunteers results in decreased effort being exerted despite high levels of PSM and good P-O fit.
5. Determine if PSM has different impacts on time, frequency or volunteer intensity.

Each of these objectives are explored in the following chapters, thus building a more bespoke understanding of how different levels of PSM lead to different outcomes under varying conditions in volunteer settings.

### **1.3 Literature Survey: Public Service Motivation**

A general survey of the literature concerning Public Service Motivation (PSM) is explored in order to set the context of what is known as about the theory in general. Later in Chapter 2, an in-depth review will unfold key arguments and debates concerning the areas addressed in my research questions.

PSM research has often espoused that civil service employees are motivated by intrinsic ideals (Perry and Wise 1990; Grant 2008; Houston 2011; Park and Word 2012). Perry and Wise (1990) divided motives into three aspects: rational, norm-based and affective. Rational motives pertain to the individual utility maximization or the aspect one wishes to derive from employment such as income, security, purposeful work and risk. Amongst volunteers, this is similar to when people volunteer in order to increase their resume or engage in an activity that has meaning to them. Norm-based motives typically include loyalty and duty (Brewer and Selden 2000). Volunteers may feel loyal to a cause they believe in or feel gives them a chance to do what they perceive as their duty. Affective motives pertain to commitment as a result of individual genuine concern and identification with the organization

or cause. Affective motives are often viewed as emotionally based or driven. Each of these motives are further broken down into dimensions: attraction to policy making, commitment to public interests, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice and compassion. Perry and Wise (1990) believed that each aspect would motivate individuals differently.

While the three mainstay motives have not changed over time, the focus of PSM has. Over time, various definitions were proposed. Perry and Wise (1990) initially stipulated PSM was “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (1990, p 368). This definition implies that PSM was a prominent factor amongst civil servants and government employees. Many of the PSM studies that followed this definition constituted the first wave of PSM and were focused on the public sector (Montez and Joyce 1996; Brewer and Selden 1998; Naff and Crum 1999; Houston 2000; Vandenberg 2008b). But, Brewer and Selden (1998) felt PSM was a more dynamic behavioral concept and should focus on the person's behaviors as opposed to the actual sector and thus described PSM as “the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service” (p.416). While this definition leaves the individual to define what meaningful service means to them, this paved the way for a closer personal examination of motives. Although, Benz (2005) contended that the motivational force may not always be seen as directly measurable.

Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) then went to the other extreme from individual to larger society to define PSM as: “a general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind” (1999 p.23). By shifting the definition to others oriented, non-public sector view, academics began to start applying the theory outside of the public sector context signaling its possible applicability to other sectors (e.g. Houston 2000; Borzaga and Tortia 2006; Moulton and Feeney 2011; Liu et al. 2012a).

After being unable to replicate PSM in his studies in Belgium, Vandenberghe (2007) redefined PSM. In a broader sense, Vandenberghe felt PSM was “the belief, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate” (2007, p.551). However, this focus on the broader political institution and acting when appropriate does not take into consideration that many individuals may not be politically motivated and may act impulsively. This definition of PSM assumes that individuals are rational, which some scholars claim, it is not the case (Secchi 2011).

This general shift resulted in Vandenberghe and Perry (2009) refocusing their definition of PSM to allow the individual to define what doing good means: “an individual’s orientation to delivering service to people with the purpose of doing good for others and society” (2009 p. 6). This final definition focuses on the individual freedom to define what doing good means, but the inclusion of service implies doing something for others. With the goal that the definition remains true to Perry and Wise’s (1990) premise that individuals would be motivated differently by each dimension, but yet remains broad enough for global research- this project will follow Vandenberghe and Perry’s (2009) definition. Though PSM is used to explain motivations of an individual, this definition does not separate it from the effects of an institutional environment as Moynihan et al. (2013) warned. Thus, I believe this is the most effective globally adaptable definition of PSM to date.

### **1.3.1 Antecedents of PSM**

Understanding the antecedents of PSM gives insight as to why it may be viewed as a good predictor of volunteering. Many PSM studies have examined social-demographic factors (Coursey et al. 2011; Vandenberghe 2011; Ritz and Brewer 2013), social institutions’

roles (Perry 1997; Charbonneau and Van Ryzin 2016), and organizational antecedents (Castaing 2006; Camilleri 2007; Camilleri and van der Heijden 2007).

### **1.3.1.1 Social-Demographic Factors**

Similar to volunteer social-demographic studies (Musick and Wilson 2007), personal attributes such as age, level of education and gender (Coursey et al. 2011; Vandenabeele 2011; Ritz and Brewer 2013), have been found to play a role in developing PSM in individuals. With the increase in age, some studies have shown that there is an increase in PSM (Houston 2000) and commitment to public interest (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006; Camilleri 2007; Anderfuhren-Biget 2012). It could be argued that the older a person is, there is an increase in their tenure with the organization and consequently have a better understanding of how their efforts improve the public or beneficiaries. Higher education is positively associated with PSM (Houston 2000; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Vandenabeele 2011) and dimensions attraction to policy making and commitment to public interest (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006; Camilleri 2007). The variance in age and education have important implications for the changing emphasis on citizenship education for different generations.

How PSM differs amongst genders though is inconsistent. Some studies found men scored higher in PSM (Vandenabeele 2011), attraction to policy making (Anderfuhren-Biget 2012), self-sacrifice (Camilleri 2007; Anderfuhren-Biget 2012) and commitment to public interest (Camilleri 2007). Whereas in other studies, women score higher in PSM (Naff and Crum 1999; Vandenabeele 2011), attraction to policy making (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Johnson 2010) and compassion (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006; Camilleri 2007; Anderfuhren-Biget 2012). Yet, in Anderfuhren-Biget's study (2012) women did not score high in attraction to policy as the author states they were at the bottom of the hierarchy and were leaning to the political left and hence tended to be stronger in



compassion. The issue of conflicting findings of how PSM differs amongst genders, DeHart-Davis et al. (2006) attributes to the fluctuating of stereotypes and societal influence of behaviors. For example, metrosexual males emerged in the late 90's as men who take on female characteristics such as waxing eyebrows and getting manicures, yet remaining heterosexual. The slow shift in traditional roles and behaviors could account for why PSM is different across sexes in different societal settings.

Ritz and Brewer (2013) extended the study of PSM antecedents to include societal culture when they compared Swiss-German and Swiss-French public employees using language as a proxy for culture. Their findings suggests that one's native language can be taken into consideration as a cultural issue.

### **1.3.1.2 Social Institutions' Roles**

Perry (1997) explored social institutions' role through parental relations, religious socialization, professional identification, political ideology, and individual demographic characteristics. Perry (1997) found "parental relations and modelling, *idem*" had a positive impact on PSM, whereas religious institutions had a negative effect. This implies that the interfamily relations where one parent was a warm, positive parent with high levels of altruism is more important in developing PSM opposed to being active in religious institutions that might be capitalizing on developing a sense of self-sacrifice or martyrdom. However, when Perry et al. (2008a) later examined individuals' predisposition to PSM, they found parental modelling and religious institutions both had a positive effect. This was then supported by Charbonneau and Van Ryzin's (2016) study which discovered further support that a family's religiosity positively impacted PSM- in particular compassion and attraction to policy making. This early-on exposures to religious influence on a sense of PSM and its dimensions may be reflected if studying how religious upbringing can influence volunteering.

Support for parental modelling was also revealed in Vandenabeele's (2011) study which supported the role institutions play in developing PSM, particularly if one's family had worked in the public sector. One would assume this is an easy way to have key PSM ideas spillover onto members within one's family. However, Charbonneau and Ryzin (2016) unexpectedly found that having parents who served in the military decreased overall PSM levels along with attraction to policy making, compassion and self-sacrifice. This has negative implications for the military recruiters who target dependents of service members based on the idea that the PSM of the parent will influence the youth.

Family values such as conservative political views negatively impacted PSM (Charbonneau and Van Ryzin 2016) while those who considered themselves social democrats, environmentalists or Christian democrats have higher levels of PSM (Vandenabeele 2011). This infers individuals who are not hardliners or conservative may have a more positive orientation to provide public service. This seems to be a paradox as many hardliners might feel as if they have a greater commitment to public interest. Ultimately, over time as evidence became more apparent as to what construed an antecedent to PSM, Brewer (2008) called upon fellow PSM academics to explore organizational antecedents that could influence the development or impediment of PSM.

### **1.3.1.3 Organizational Antecedents**

Studies about organizational antecedents (e.g. red tape, autonomy and organizational culture) have shown they can play an important role in fostering and sustaining PSM (Camilleri 2007), but can also dampen it (Moynihan and Pandey 2007). Moynihan and Pandey (2007) found that when employees perceive reform as having an empowering effect, that it will positively relate to PSM. They also found that bureaucratic red tape has a negative influence on PSM, yet a hierarchical authority increases PSM. This would seem to infer that as long as

the rules and regulations are regarded as within an adequate standard, then PSM levels would be positively affected. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) also discovered that the longer the individual was with the organization, the more likely their PSM levels would decrease over time except when the individual has high levels of commitment to public interest. This dimension actually increases over time. This was confirmed in Koumenta's (2015) study that explored how unpaid overtime would affect individual's PSM. These findings insinuate that there is a delicate tipping point within organizations where the longer an employee is with the organization- the more likely they are to feel the drain on their motivation. Management would be wise to seek out development of commitment to public interest within its more tenured staff in order to avoid a decrease in PSM.

When Camilleri and Van der Heiden (2007) explored job characteristics such as: skill, task autonomy, task identity, task feedback, friendship opportunities, dealing with others and task significance as organizational antecedents, they found each element positively influenced PSM except for one case. Task identity was not significant to those with high levels of attraction to policy making. Similarly, positive employee-leader relations and the employee perception of the organization were deemed significant organizational antecedents. Schott et al.'s (2015) study affirmed job characteristics through autonomy and competence as significant organizational antecedents. Her study broadened academics' understanding of organizational culture when she linked consultation, training and autonomous teamwork to PSM. With evidence that job characteristics can affect PSM, the fluidity of PSM changing over the course of one's lifetime, could lend credence as to why PSM has been found to damper as employee tenure increases (Moynihan and Pandey 2007). It also explains why social demographic variable were conflicting when tenure was taken into consideration.

Together, these studies suggest that there are key socio-demographic, socialization and organizational antecedents that should be taken into consideration in future PSM studies.

However, as PSM dampers with tenure, it is possible that it is organizational factors and not antecedents that lead to change. Consequently, HR and management need to be ensuring key job characteristics are present in order to further develop an individuals' PSM levels. As Pandey and Stazyk (2008) highlights, PSM is an individual construct, but can also be influenced at the institutional level.

### **1.3.2 Outcomes of PSM**

Aside from studying antecedents of PSM, researchers have extensively studied PSM as an independent variable. PSM is reflected at an individual level through managers' motivational styles (Chen 2012b; Chen 2013), overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and attitudes towards work (Borzaga and Tortia 2006; Castaing 2006; Kim 2011; Cun 2012; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013). PSM is also examined at an organizational level through attraction to career sectors with a large focus on public service (Perry, 1996; Chetkovich, 2003; Carpenter et al., 2012; Rose, 2013). According to Ritz et al.'s (2016) systematic literature review, most studies about the outcomes of PSM involve job satisfaction, employment sector choice, individual performance and organizational commitment.

#### **1.3.2.1 Individual Level**

The majority of PSM studies to date have focused on job satisfaction (e.g. Naff and Crum 1999; Koys 2001; Bright 2007; Taylor 2007b; Bright 2008; Liu et al. 2008; Pan and Zhu 2010; Stazyk 2010; Westover and Taylor 2010; Liu and Tang 2011; Cun 2012; Giaouque et al. 2012; Kim 2012; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013; Behaj 2013; Taylor 2014; Yousaf et al. 2014; Li and Wang 2016; Roh et al. 2016) resulting in similar results that link satisfaction to higher levels of PSM in public employees. While there has been some mixed results (Wright and Pandey 2008), a better job satisfaction has also been linked to greater involvement and

perceived importance about ones job (Wright 2007). In a meta-analysis that assessed PSM's ability to influence job satisfaction, Homberg et al. (2015) provide overwhelming support at the aggregate level that PSM does positively influence job satisfaction amongst the dimensions commitment to public interest and self-sacrifice. Although, PSM's ability to influence satisfaction does perform differently when employment categories are taken into consideration. Taylor (2007b) found that full-time employees exhibited higher levels of job satisfaction than part-time employees which may be an important variable when examining volunteers who are typically part-time.

PSM has also been tested in relation to performance (Taylor 2007b; Grant 2008; Leisink and Steijn 2009; Word and Park 2009; Cho and Lee 2012), commitment (Castaing 2006; Camilleri and van der Heijden 2007; Vecina and Chacon 2013) and values (Briggs et al. 2010; Andersen et al. 2013; Ballart and Riba 2015). These elements are all important to organization regardless of sector or employment status. Satisfaction and commitment are of particular importance for organizations relying on volunteers due to the cost of training and high turnover rates. Castaing (2006) found that PSM was an antecedent of effective commitment when he examined if was an antecedent to organizational commitment in the French civil service. This findings were also replicated amongst Spanish civil servants (Riba and Ballart 2016). In terms of volunteers, it is important that PSM is already proven empirically to support increasing performance, satisfaction and commitment. Shared values are also important given volunteers may be attracted to organizations that they believe reflect their own values.

However, when looking at PSM from an individual standpoint, Cerase and Farinella (2009) chose to analyze if PSM was an individual, stable personality trait or something that could be changed. Their hypothesis that the positive perception of change would strengthen existing PSM levels was not supported. However, they did reveal that those who had high

levels of PSM were more open to change within the workplace and that there was some support for PSM evolving according to changes in their working environment. This openness to change implies that the set individual levels when high is more prone to outside influences and therefore more susceptible to organizational influences. Cerase and Farinella (2009) concluded that the possibility of PSM being a changeable trait has not been answered and suggest further research in a longitudinal study. Georgellis and Tabvuma (2010) found evidence of peaks of change of PSM amongst employee's transitioning between different sectors. While it increased for both gender when going from private to public sector, it also increased for men leaving the public sector for private. However, when Vogel and Kroll (2016) examined if PSM was stable across time, they found that the PSM-related values were consistent, but factors such as age and tenure might affect social and political involvement and caring for others. Although the evidence is inconclusive, it is still evident that for those who are employed in one sector and volunteer in another that PSM's may change over time.

### **1.3.2.2 Organizational Level**

Many researchers posit that higher levels of PSM lead to a choice of career in the public sector (e.g. Chetkovich 2003; Lee and Wilkins 2011a; Clerkin and Cogburn 2012; Park and Rainey 2012; Pedersen 2013; Rose 2013). When comparing individual sector preferences with PSM levels, Pedersen (2013) discovered that individuals with high levels of commitment to public interest preferred the public over private sector. Though, Alonso and Lewis (2001) argued that if people with higher levels of PSM were attracted to work for the public sector, then the US government shouldn't have such a difficult time in recruiting quality employees willing to work for 25% less than the same job in the private sector! PSM has also been shown to increase the individual perception of P-O fit (Bright 2013; Ng and Gossett 2013) and organizational attractiveness (Carpenter et al. 2012; Giauque et al. 2012)

which is important to organizations wanting to attract volunteers. One could reason that since volunteering is an act based on free choice (Cnaan et al. 1996), an individual with higher levels of PSM would self-select to volunteer in similar organizations reflecting their attitudes as measured by PSM.

Much of the initial PSM research found a link between PSM and preference for public sector (Perry 1997; Houston 2000; Houston 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Kim and Vandenberg 2010; Coursey et al. 2011). Recently, more efforts have been made to investigate PSM in non-profit sector employees and volunteers pointing toward differences in motivation between the latter and public sector employees (Steen 2006a, 2008; Lee and Wilkins 2011b; Chen 2012b; Chen and Bozeman 2013; Ertas 2013b; Ertas 2014). Initial evidence shows that non-profit employees tend to volunteer more frequently. As this is one of the core themes in this thesis, an in-depth discussion of the literature surrounding PSM and volunteering takes place in Chapter 2.

At an organizational level, findings have varied globally. In the USA, Word and Park (2009) found that the organizational characteristics and structures “appear to have a relationship with the level of job involvement for managers in the public and nonprofit sectors” (p. 124). Whereas, in the rest of the world, employees as a whole were studied in greater depth (e.g. Borzaga and Tortia 2006; Andersen 2009; Lui 2009; Ritz and Petrovsky 2011; Vandenberg 2011; Cun 2012; Stride and Higgs 2014). This is an important distinction because it provides management a more thorough explanation of how PSM affects their workforce.

### **1.3.3 PSM as a Moderator/Mediator**

Some scholars have used PSM as a mediator or moderator. Quratulain and Khan (2015a) found PSM has a mediating effect between person-job fit and job satisfaction. They based the root of their argument on organizational factors playing a large role in shaping the employees PSM levels. This was unlike other models (Kim 2012) which argued that PSM leads to an increase in P-O fit, thus leading to increased job satisfaction. Kim (2012) stipulated that, as PSM is an individual trait formed prior to being employed that it would have a casual effect on P-O fit. Whereas, Liu et al. (2013) used P-O fit as a moderator between PSM and job satisfaction when explaining why when P-O fit and needs-supplies fit are poor that high levels of PSM will still lead to an increase in job satisfaction. However, both Kim (2012) and Liu et al. (2013) studies treat PSM as being individually driven compared to being shaped by organizational factors or social institutions.

Several academics have used the rational of organizational leadership and its influence on PSM when studying leadership (Wright et al. 2012; Caillier 2015b; Potipiroon and Faerman 2016). Wright et al. (2012) stated that “transformational leaders alter employee perceptions of goal importance and clarity” (p. 207) which would then have a positive effect on an individuals’ PSM. PSM did mediate the relation between transformational leadership and mission valence, but scholars warned it does not give management free reign to treat PSM as ‘Silly Putty’<sup>1</sup> (Wright et al. 2012). Caillier’s (2015b) study on transformational leadership provided supporting evidence that it had a positive effect on PSM which in turn increased organizational commitment. Finally, Potipiroon and Faerman’s (2016) study found that PSM moderated the relation between ethical leadership and interpersonal justice perceptions. Based on the premise that leadership can instill certain values in subordinates, Stazyk and Davis (2015) examined if PSM mediated the relation between public value and

---

<sup>1</sup> Silly Putty is the endless delightful pink mass that children in the 70’s played with. It doesn’t stick to skin, but can transfer ink from newsprint to white dining room chairs by children of all ages. In the context of the Wright et al. (2012) article-, it refers to the ability to take unwanted imprints and transfer it on to other items.



ethical standards they termed as high-road. They found evidence that this was mediated, but not in the case of the ‘more’ or ‘less’ professionalized employee. In summary, there is evidence that even though PSM is often influencing work outcomes, organizational factors can increase PSM.

#### **1.3.4 PSM Measurement Disputes**

Perry (1996) initially suggested measuring PSM by using six dimension: attraction to policy making, self-sacrifice, commitment to public interest, compassion, civic duty and social justice. However, when validating his model using public servants, Perry incorporated elements of civic duty and social justice into the commitment to public interest dimension. Nevertheless, researchers in various countries have experienced challenges when trying to use Perry’s 1996 measures (Braender and Anderson 2013, Castaing 2006, Houston 2013). Frequently, certain PSM dimensions are excluded from the analysis.

In particular, measuring the dimension attraction to policy making seems to be difficult. Perry’s (1996, p. 8) attraction to policy questions:

1. “Politics is a dirty word; ethical behavior of public officials is as important as competence”
2. “I don’t care much for politicians”
3. “I respect public officials who can turn good ideas into law”

These items are concentrated on politicians and are not divorced from ability or preference that one might have to impact policy. One does not need to be a politician to change policies within an organization or even at a national level. In both cases, it helps if one engages in politics or, put differently, is politically active. However, engaging in office

politics or being an active member of a union or professional organization does not require the individual to be a politician. Ritz (2011 p.1130) states “Studies on PSM and attraction to policy making, however, generally discuss the motivation of public sector employees, not of politicians” which contributes highly to the problem of measuring attraction to policy making. One possible explanation can be the decline in trust of political systems (Van der Meer 2010) which can lead to a negative interpretation of the word "politics" to those taking the survey. Likewise, Kim (2011) stated that the negatively worded items relating to attraction to policy making could fail to capture a positive perception about one’s own individual motives to influence change in policies.

When Ritz (2011) interviewed Swiss local government officials, attraction to policy making was not a dominant motivating factor and indeed the employees were less attracted to politics or policy making than when they initially chose their profession. One would argue that entrant employees into public service would be motivated strongly by attraction to policy making because they would have a greater chance of influencing policy from within but, as Ritz and other researchers have discovered, this has not been the case. When tested in the collectivistic culture of Korea (Kim 2009), attraction to policy making did not appear valid which led Kim to conclude that rational motives might not be related to PSM. Perhaps because Korea's civil service has high levels of job security and periodic promotions, it would seem that any desire or attraction to policy making due to prestige and power were already being met. When attraction to policy making was explored in public sector managers in Taiwan, Chen et al. (2013) did not find a significant effect between trust in colleagues which could indicate that this lack of trust amongst coworkers inhibits the individuals’ belief that they can affect change.

Coursey et al. (2008) and Moynihan (2013) chose not to even measure it (attraction to policy making) at all arguing it wasn’t necessary in the context of volunteers. Consequently,

Coursey et al. (2008) proposed shorten scale absent attraction to policy making. Braender and Andersen's (2013) study about how PSM affects soldiers during wartime missions also chose to exclude attraction to policy making, but they argue that as soldiers were already serving their country and could not impact policy directly there was no need to measure it. Though, when Dreves and Müller (2015) examined attraction to policy making amongst German service members, they found no significant evidence of it. It should be noted that some countries such as the USA do not legally allow active duty service members to hold elected political positions. Castaing (2006) simply asserted that it was not in line with the French public ethos.

With public sector ranging from teachers to policemen, hospitals to various state and federal governments- there is a large gap between those who, in the case of the United States and United Kingdom, actually make policies and those who work for the government executing the missions and laws or providing services to the public. Despite all the arguments against measuring attraction to policy making, numerous studies have found support for the dimension (e.g. Johnson 2010; Anderfuhren-Biget 2012; Hsieh et al. 2012; Jahan and Shahan 2012; Jang 2012; Jacobsen et al. 2014; Ballart and Riba 2015; Koumenta 2015). Nevertheless, attraction to policy making is not the only PSM dimension to be excluded, adapted or changed. Other studies have not included self-sacrifice (Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013).

In addition to the variations of which dimensions are included: size has also been a key argument ranging from singular, reduced, global and extended versions. Lee and Wilkins (2011b) choose to only measure a single item from the PSM scale though they admitted it was not ideal. Wright et al. (2013) confirmed that one of the most commonly used measures of PSM is using a global single-item reward preference or value statement.

Coursey and Pandey (2007) proposed a shortened scale which eliminated the self-sacrifice dimension, and went from 24 items to just 10. While the shortened scale performed well, there were still problems with attraction to policy making. Coursey and Pandey (2007) posit that if one deleted PSM 27 (i.e. "The give and take of public policy-making does not appeal to me") then the dimension of attraction to policy making would fundamentally change. Kim (2009) proposed a revised 14 question version of Perry's PSM model, but attraction to policy making still did not appear valid. Coursey and Pandey (2007) had reversed the negative wording on attraction to policy making and Kim (2011) followed suite in his second revised model, but negative attraction to policy making subsets were modified to a positive connotation to improve the scale. However, the standardized factor loadings still remained too low. Word and Carpenter (2013) decided outright to exclude attraction to policy making when they proposed a nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) model using Coursey and Pandey's (2007) condensed scale. The model, which had a good fit, then tested NPSM and individual employee characteristics, race, attraction to mission, depth of involvement in the sector, and location by state proving significant. The NPSM model restricts itself to nonprofit, but the implications for expansion to other sectors is quite feasible.

Wright, Christensen and Pandey's (2013) call for a global measure of PSM illustrates the importance of developing a PSM model that can be tested across countries without having to eliminate or add an extra dimension. This global scale has been used successful in several studies (Potipiroon and Faerman 2016). PSM researchers in Europe and Asia have maintained that the original scale may be too US-centric and therefore should be adjusted when administered in different countries (Taylor 2007b; Vandenabeele 2008a; Giaouque et al. 2011; Cun 2012). When Giaouque et al. (2011) reworded the scale to be more relevant to Swiss public values, the goodness-of-fit of the model was satisfactory. Whereas, when

Vandenabeele (2008a) modified PSM measures for a study in Belgium, he found that PSM could be a valid measure in Europe as long as the core elements remain the same. Finally, Kim et al. (2013) tested a 4-dimension, 16-item PSM model in 12 countries and discovered it performed similarly.

Contrarily to other researchers shortening the scales, Vandenabeele (2008a) tried to extend the PSM measurement scale. When Vandenabeele (2008a) added client orientation, equality and bureaucratic values to the PSM model his original seven dimension model was not supported. Yet, when he abridged into two other models that added democratic governance, it was supported. Some scholars have suggested adding new dimensions such as ethics should be considered (Kim and Kim 2016).

Despite the numerous pros, cons and discussion around the dimensions and size of the scale, there are arguments for going back to the PSM basics. Looking back at what originally founded the traditional PSM model, Perry's (1996) work initially suggested six instead of four dimensions. As two dimensions, civic duty and social justice, did not appear viable in the public sector context of his original study, they were dropped. However, there are benefits to going back and re-examining if they were better suited than a global measurement. In Perry and Wise's (1990) explanation of rational motives, participation in policy formation was closely associated with what would later be developed into attraction to policy making. Perry added that in order to be an advocate for a special interest, one needed to be embedded within government inferring that in order to influence a change in policy that one must be a member of government. However, advocacy can also be closely related to social justice and can also be filled through volunteering. When Perry and Wise's (1990) examined norm-based motives (besides a desire to serve the public interest) loyalty to duty and social equity tied very much into civic duty. These two dimensions, civic duty and social justice, may be of particular use for volunteer PSM research.

Recently, Moloney and Chu (2016) integrated social justice into their study exploring PSM and the ethical climate amongst Jamaican civil servants. However, similar to Perry's (1996) initial study, social justice was highly correlated with commitment to public interest and compassion. When Vandenberghe, Scheepers and Hondeghem (2006) were exploring PSM between UK and Germany, they discovered that there were other elements of public service motivation that were motivational values (such as equality) that were linked to bureaucratic values. What they defined as equal treatment closely resembles social justice. Not all volunteer opportunities are service oriented. Many organizations conduct advocacy and lobbying activities; therefore, the social justice dimension aligns with non-profits championing causes, standing up for the rights of others and mission statements that focus on doing one's part in society. Most non-profits are in the business of social justice in one form or another (Tomlinson and Schwabenland 2010).

Guo et al. (2013) explored how religion can predict volunteering for a social change cause. They discovered Catholics and Protestants were more likely to volunteer which aligns with Perry's (1997) exploration of religious socialization effect on predicting PSM. Haddad (2006) examined the patterns of why different types of voluntary organizations were more successful in the different countries (USA and Japan) based on attitudes towards civic duty. Civic duty also falls in line with the doctrine that is being taught in the educational systems. Citizen Education has seen an unprecedented growth in the UK (Carnegie 2008) with increased importance placed on encouraging youth participation within their community.

The main arguments for using the initial PSM scale focus on the inclusion of social justice and civic duty. While other studies have included six or even five of the original dimensions, the full scale has not been tested amongst volunteers to date. Due to the arguments and support in the literature above, it is the authors' belief that by re-examining the initial six-dimension PSM model in the volunteering context will enhance our

understanding of the relation of PSM and volunteering. However, this infers that a confirmatory factor analysis should be performed prior to running regressions.

#### **1.4. Literature Survey: Volunteering**

A general survey of the literature concerning volunteering is first explored in order to set the context of the issues leading up to volunteering intensity. Later in Chapter 2, an in-depth review will unfold key arguments and debates concerning the areas addressed in my research questions.

Defining volunteering has been a challenge for researchers. Hustinx et al. (2010a) identified over 200 variations of the definition of a volunteer. Based on their analysis of 300 articles, Cnaan et al. (1996) found four key dimensions contributing to what is a volunteer that range within from purist to more relaxed categories. Cnaan et al. (1996) states [sic.] that volunteering should be voluntary in nature or resulting from free choice, but accepts volunteering due to feelings of obligation may exist. This often raises a debate whether court ordered community service or mandated programs in schools are actually voluntary. From the purist view, volunteering is unpaid (Stebbins 2013). Whereas, scholars with a relaxed view accept those who receive a stipend less than the value of service as volunteers (Mesch et al. 1998; McBride and Sherraden 2007; Ward 2012). Secondly, the reward or remuneration is less than the value of service provided. Again, this leads to the controversy in accepting stipend volunteers such as AmeriCorps as being non-professionals in nature. Third, Scholars debate if volunteering can be informally conducted or should be organized (Wilson and Musick 1997a). Lastly, volunteers provide a service that can benefit others that are known or unknown to them. This last point expands the volunteering criteria to include formal or informal elements. While Cnaan et al.'s (1996) definition does not allow researchers to categorize where the individual is within the purist or relaxed end of the spectrum, it does

allow for clarification about who is considered a volunteer. This is of particular importance with the evolution of mandatory volunteering by the UK government for those wanting to retain their job seekers allowance and social changes where community service in school is used to install pro-social citizenship behaviors (Fulford 2013).

Therefore, taking all of the elements debated above, this thesis follows Ellis's (2005, p.4) definition of volunteering "to choose to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility without concern for monetary profit, going beyond one's basic obligation." It is best suited to this thesis because it connects one's motivation (need) to the recognition of the greater good that matches a particular social environment ('social responsibility') and where one behaves altruistically ('beyond basic obligations'). These three elements bring together the main factors of this study: PSM, P-O fit and intensity. Finally, volunteering goes beyond the basic obligations humans have towards one another.

As a result of the plethora of definitions, a large assortment of motivation theories have been utilized to study volunteer motivation. Volunteer motivation studies typically use the term 'pro-social' if they originate in psychology and 'altruism' if they are rooted in economics (Hustinx et al. 2010b). Volunteer motivation studies often examine what type of person was thought to be most likely to be a volunteer (Cnaan et al. 1996; Wilson and Musick 1997b; Wu et al. 2005; Kendall 2006). Cnaan et al. (1996) ascertained that the perceived net cost of volunteering affected who was thought about choosing to volunteer such as an adults in programs like 'Big Brothers Big Sisters'<sup>2</sup>. The cost of volunteering was considered the highest when the adult offered their time to a program that only takes those acting on free choice, with no remuneration. And is part of a formal program where the adults did not know

---

<sup>2</sup> Big Brothers, Big Sisters is a mentoring program that originated in New York as a means to help high risk boys see a positive role model outside of their family to help them negotiate staying out of trouble. A concurrent program for girls emerged similarly. In the late 1970's they combined and gradually became an international charity for mentoring youth.



the beneficiaries prior to volunteering. In contrast, someone who was given court order community service was ranked the lowest cost for volunteering. Contrary to other studies that state volunteers are part of an elite social group (Kendall 2006), Cnaan et al. (1996) argue that according to their findings the elite (doctors and celebrities) were perceived less likely to volunteer than teens.

Many other volunteer motivation studies have relied on common demographic variables such as age, gender and income (very similar to those in PSM studies). Wilson and Musick (1997) found that those with higher education, those who regularly attend church service, and those who believe helping is important are the most likely to volunteer. The same study finds that adults with children have a higher propensity to volunteer. When studying pro-social attitudes of volunteers, Briggs et al. (2010) found age to have a positive effect on volunteer behavior. As age increased, career motivation, referred to as 'me-oriented' reasoning, decreased meaning that older individuals were no longer focused inwards on themselves and advancing their careers. However, identifying distinguishable characteristics between volunteers and non-volunteers (Wu et al. 2005) does not explain how motivational forces influence individual behavior.

Other studies examined if personality or altruism motivated people to volunteer (Mowen and Sujana 2005; Carpenter and Myers 2010). Combining a functional motive approach with a trait-based approach using the meta-theoretic model of motivation and personality, Mowen and Sujana (2005) sought to show how a four-level hierarchy of traits (elemental, compound, situational, surface) explained how personality traits in different situations will impact one's attitudes and actions. Following Clary et al. (1998), they applied functional motivational theory which defines six volunteer values: (a) express important values; (b) better understand the world and its people; (c) positive self-enhancement; (d) protective effects against guilt, self-doubt, and other negative feelings; (e) fit into one's social

reference groups; and (f) obtain career skills and opportunities. During their discussion, they admitted findings were mixed and recommended further studies on “altruism residing at an elemental level” (Mowen and Sujun 2005, p.180). Failure to directly measure altruism can make it difficult to get to understand the intrinsic aspects of volunteering.

Carpenter and Myers (2010) found altruism to be a key motivator in volunteer firefighters joining the fire service in Vermont, USA. Carpenter and Myers (2010) utilized Benabou and Tirole’s (2006) model of pro-social behavior to discover that those who responded to the opportunity to attend training were more likely to do so than responding to an emergency call. Rather, image was more positively correlated with pro-social behavior. Image and being seen by others can lead to individuals concerned about their image to engage in glam or one-off volunteering. Although, placing importance on image does seem as far as possible from altruism.

Although volunteering as altruism is often regarded as intrinsic in nature (Steen 2006a), Grant’s (2008) research shows pro-social motivation is often accompanied by intrinsic motivation. His studies follow Gagne’ and Deci’s (2005) self-determination theory (SDT) which defines a continuum between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation with intrinsic motivation being the most autonomous form of motivation. Grant (2008, p.49) defines pro-social motivation as “the desire to expend effort to benefit other people”. Whereas, intrinsic motivation is the desire to expend effort for the enjoyment of work itself. This differentiation is divided by for whom effort is expended: prosocial being others-oriented and intrinsic motivation looking inwards.

Grant also studied firefighters, but they were municipal public sector employees (as compared to the volunteer firefighters mentioned earlier). This may infer that those employed are not risking their lives for image (unless they opt to take part in the annual nude-firemen

calendars that are often all the rage during Christmas time). Grant found that intrinsic and pro-social motivation independently did not predict productivity (behavior) but, when combined together, their interaction was a significant predictor of performance and productivity. Grant's research findings allude to pro-social and intrinsic motivation being in tandem with PSM.

With well over one million volunteer studies on Web of Science, this dissertation is not arguing that PSM is the only or best theory to study volunteers. Rather the key discussion in voluntary research that this dissertation addresses is improving our knowledge and understanding of volunteering intensity. Key arguments concerning this issue follow in Chapter 2. However, a general overview of how Rodell (2013) sought to measure the intensity of the volunteering when she studied how volunteering affects work due to little focus on the quality of the actual volunteering behavior in previous studies is discussed here.

Rodell (2013) pointed towards two schools of thought when employed people volunteered. First, they were trying to compensate for the lack of a meaningful job which was coined by Gross (1958) as compensation theory. Second, those who had meaningful jobs were inspired to volunteer as a result. Rodell's (2013) scale measured volunteering intensity and sought to overcome purported problems in volunteer research with self-reporting that typically measure the amount of hours one volunteers as a proxy for behavior. Rodell explains that just because one may self-report a large number of hours that does not measure if those hours were spent intensely working or socializing with other volunteers. When Rodell examined if employees volunteer to make up for elements missing from their job such as meaningfulness or if a meaningful job lead to a desire to volunteer, it was discovered that when one had a meaningful job that the person tended to desire to recreate the experience in the form of intense volunteering. Consequently, this dissertation focuses on how PSM leads to individual behavior in terms of volunteering intensity.

### **1.5 Literature Survey: Person-Organization Fit**

In line with the general survey of the literature discussed in the previous two constructs, this section addressed the context of the issues leading up to person-organization fit. Later in Chapter 2, a comprehensive review of person-organization fit and how it related to volunteering will be addressed.

In literature, the broader concept of Person-Organization fit (P-E) encompasses the fit between an individual and an environment. Dimensions within the P-E fit umbrella include: person-organization (P-O fit), job/task (P-J fit) and group or person (supervisor) (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005). Kristof (1996) defines Person-Organization fit as “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both” (p. 4–5). P-O fit stipulates a relation exists between the individual’s personality characteristics and the operating organizational climate (Kristof 1996). Supplementary fit exists when the individual and organization share similar goals and value. Whereas, complementary fit occurs when needs-supplies between the two are met (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005).

P-O fit has been used to show how people are attracted to certain organizations based on the value congruence that individuals perceive exist within different organizations (Yu 2014). A key element in Perry and Wise’s (1990) seminal paper was the individuals’ identifications with the mission of the organization. This identification implies that the individual perceives that their own values match with the organizations purpose or mission. Commonly it has been used prior to employment such as recruiting, applicant attraction, and post-employment to examine performance and tenure (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005). Often P-O fit is studied in a mediating or moderating role (Boon et al. 2011) which implies that it can enhance the relation between attitudes and behavior.

Existing literature suggests that those who have higher levels of PSM have been shown to be more compatible with their organizations (Bright 2013). This is especially important for organizations relying on individuals who are not paid and have the freedom to come and go. Studies in which PSM is mediated by P-O fit have shown mixed results. Kim (2012) found PSM was mediated by P-O fit when examining job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Whereas, Bright (2008) did not find a significant relationship between PSM and job satisfaction and turnover intentions when mediated by P-O fit. However, Wright and Pandey (2008) found that the value congruence did not mediate the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction. Bright (2008) concluded that the mediating effect of P-O fit only explained a small variance and that it was possible that one's satisfaction with their job might actually influence their perception of P-O fit. Conversely, Taylor (2007) found that full-time employees exhibited higher levels of job satisfaction than part-time employees which may be an important variable when examining volunteers who are typically part-time or one-off. While the aforementioned examined the indirect effect on attitude, they did not examine actual behavior. One could argue that an employee's attitude will be reflected on one's performance; nevertheless, it is not the same as actually measuring effort.

With such an expansive history (Verquer et al. 2003), it is not understood why P-O fit has not been investigated in many volunteering studies. Collectively, there is still much to understand in terms of how P-O fit plays a role between volunteers and the organization. It is unknown if the proverbial round peg in a square hole could be a result of a poor P-O fit. Indeed, understanding P-O fit from the volunteers' viewpoint can lend greater opportunities and insight for volunteer coordination managers. By focusing on the narrower dimension of fit, researchers can begin to isolate different variables to see how to improve performance or

in the case of this dissertation- volunteering intensity. Chapter 2 will continue the expansion of P-O fit amongst volunteers.

### **1.6 Contributions**

This research aims to fill three main gaps in literature with both theoretical elucidations and empirical confirmation that can then be used by practitioners and policy makers. First, I seek to improve academic understanding of PSM and how it affects behavior of volunteers. While PSM studies have already shown it is a determinant of volunteering (Clerkin et al., 2009; D. Coursey et al., 2011; Ertas, 2014), it is unclear how PSM is associated to intensity when volunteering. A key debate amongst PSM scholars is understanding how PSM impacts behavior (Perry 2014). This is first addressed theoretically and is then supported with evidence from four studies. By understanding how the individuals' motivation leads to them expending effort and intensity when volunteering, I can contribute towards building empirical evidence that PSM can affect behavior of volunteers.

Second, this thesis attempts to contribute to the debate of finding alternative means to measuring volunteer intensity. Although volunteering has been studied extensively as a social, physical and cognitive activity (Anderson et al. 2014), few scholars have concentrated on the intensity that a volunteer exerts (Bidee et al. 2013). Academics and practitioners alike do not ask volunteers how much effort they are exerting. Rather, they rely on the amount of time that one donates as a means of gauging effort. Given the changing landscape of the volunteering in the case of episodic and online volunteering, this takes the theoretical discussion away from time and supplicates for evidence pointing towards effort.

Understanding the amount of intensity one exerts is important because it gives a clearer picture of the effort one exerts. Therefore, I contend that it is imperative to use an approach that allows the individual to report their perception of the intensity they exerted physically,

mentally and emotionally (Rodell 2013). Studying volunteer intensity in this manner allows practitioners to have a greater understanding of which volunteers should be recruited and retained.

Finally, I seek to expand academic understanding of how P-O fit relates to volunteers, their motivations and behaviors. People have a desire to take part in activities in which they have a natural predisposition through either engrained attitudes or previous experience. Understanding how P-O fit can be leveraged amongst volunteers is of theoretical intrigue and has an impact on UK policies. Specifically, by providing evidence of how P-O fit enhances our academic understanding of motivational drivers, it can be applied by UK policy makers who are vested in the successful adoption of the work placement program for unemployed job seekers who must now volunteer or risk losing benefits.

From a practitioner's view of relevance, i.e. the view of volunteer coordination managers across sectors, it is important to understand how to match motivations with opportunities in a manner that will maximize output. For example, a private sector volunteer coordinator needs to understand how to align corporate volunteer opportunities with the natural PSM predisposition. By understanding how different dimensions of PSM can influence an individual's preference for different types of volunteering activities, the coordinator can better choose programs that more individuals are willing to support- thus making volunteer recruitment easier.

Other practitioner implications include the emphasis on employer branding and engagement, organizations are increasingly trying to appear more socially responsible. As contributing to one's local community in the guise of CSR and volunteering, organizations can capitalize on providing opportunities such as volunteering. Therefore, understanding the

preferences of the workforce for serving others can assist organizations in tailoring social initiatives.

### **1.7 Structure of the Thesis/ Research Plan**

In chapter 2, I delve into a deeper theoretical exploration of PSM, volunteering intensity and P-O fit. I conclude it with proposals and the initial proposed models. Chapter 3 discusses the overall methodology. Chapter 4 empirically tests the model and is designed to answer objective one (explore the impact of PSM on volunteer behavior focusing on volunteering intensity) and two (Analyze the different dimensions of PSM attitudes to determine if they are more prevalent in different categories of volunteer organizations) by investigating if PSM (and its dimensions) leads to volunteer intensity. Initial findings suggest that high levels of PSM leads to increased volunteering intensity and some dimensions show promising results. However, in chapter 5, I seek to answer objective three (investigate if different generational cohorts exhibit different PSM motivators when volunteering for similar causes) by exploring if when focusing on one cohort (millennial) findings will differ. This study takes into consideration a homogenous sample from southern Italy in comparison to a heterogeneous sample from southern England. The overall findings at the PSM level mirror the findings in chapter 4, but the PSM dimensions proved to be different from the first empirical study. In an effort to further develop and answer objective four (analyze if coercion of volunteers results in decreased effort being exerted despite high levels of PSM and good P-O fit), I then proceed in chapter 6 to assess if coerced individuals are impacted in terms of PSM, P-O fit and volunteering intensity. There is a larger trend growing towards mandated volunteering and this further exploration into the moderated mediated model allows for a deeper understanding of how volunteers' attitudes influences their behavior. Findings were contrary to what was expected with coerced individuals with low levels of PSM performing better than their non-coerced counterparts with similar low PSM levels. Finally, having argued that PSM



leads to increased volunteer intensity, chapter 7 ensures that the model was tested against time and frequency as the crux of my argument for volunteer intensity lay around it, explaining more in a better manner with the divergence from traditional volunteering. Initial findings, though supportive of volunteer intensity, lent support to PSM and its relation to the frequency of volunteering. The thesis concludes with an overall discussion of the findings, limitations, and implications and recommendations for practitioners and researchers.

To answer the research question and to achieve the objectives above, I carry out a number of studies focusing on the outcomes of public service motivation in a volunteer setting that will be presented in the different chapters of the thesis. A summary of the studies are displayed in Table 1.1 For practitioners, this proposed series of studies will provide insight in how to improve volunteer recruitment, motivation to perform and retention. For academics, these studies will contribute to the debate about PSM's ability to influence behavior and if volunteering intensity is better measured when exploring effort more than just time.

Table 1.1 Overview of studies

Title	Main Question	Method used	Findings
Chapter 2: Using Public Service Motivation to analyze volunteer behavior: A Review and Research Agenda	How to use PSM as an analytical lens to investigate volunteering across sectors.	Conceptual / literature review paper that draws from literature the rationale for the proposed models.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- PSM could be an effective means of measuring motivation in volunteers.</li> <li>- Volunteering intensity is a more robust means of studying effort exerted</li> <li>- Exploring the individual dimensions of PSM may provide a more robust understanding of PSM.</li> <li>- Adding PO fit can increase the unexplained area between PSM and volunteering intensity.</li> </ul>
Chapter 4: When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Does PSM have the ability to influence behavior such as volunteering intensity?</li> <li>2. Does P-O fit (measured directly between individual and volunteering organization) have an ability to act as a mediator or moderator between PSM and volunteering intensity?</li> </ol>	<p>Sample 314            IV = PSM            DV = VI            M = P-O Fit*            Controls = Gender, Baby Boomers, Married, Children, frequency            OLS, mediation and moderation (PROCESS)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- PSM positively affects volunteering intensity</li> <li>- PO-fit mediated the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization mediates the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in a health organization mediates the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations mediates the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations mediates the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity</li> </ul>
Chapter 5: Call of Duty: Do millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers? An investigation of PSM, P-O Fit and volunteering intensity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Does PSM have the ability to influence behavior such as volunteering intensity?</li> <li>2. Does P-O fit (measured by sector as a proxy) have an ability to act as a mediator or moderator between PSM and volunteering intensity?</li> </ol>	<p>Sample 550            IV = PSM            DV = VI            M = P-O Fit (by proxy)            Controls = Course level, Gender, Generation Z            SEM</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- PSM positively affects volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization fully mediates the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Volunteering in an advocacy group partially mediates the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity</li> <li>- Millennials in a heterogenous society when volunteering for advocacy mediated the relation between social justice and volunteering intensity. (UK sample)</li> <li>- Millennials in a homogenous society when volunteering for religious will mediate the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity. (Italy sample)</li> </ul>

Chapter 6: Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?	1. Does PSM of employed people have the ability to influence behavior such as volunteering intensity? 2. Does P-O fit (measured directly between individual and job) have an ability to act as a mediator or moderator between PSM and volunteering intensity?	Sample 416 IV = PSM DV = VI M = P-O Fit M= Coerced, Mandatory, Obligation Controls = Gender, Married, Children, Employed, Generation Y PROCESS	- PSM positively affects volunteering intensity - P-O fit mediates the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity - Coercion weakens the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a religious or youth organization (partial evidence) - Coercion weakens the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity (partial evidence)
<b>Title</b>	<b>Main Question</b>	<b>Method used</b>	<b>Findings</b>
Chapter 7: Time versus energy- does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?	1. Do different generations have different stronger PSM dimensions? 2. Does this affect the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity? 3. Does P-O fit of those employed influence the relation differently than those who are not?	Sample 416 DV= Time, Frequency, Volunteering Intensity IV= PSM Controls = Gender, Married, Children, Employed, Generation Y OLS	- PSM positively affects volunteering intensity - PSM positively affects volunteer intensity when measured by time - PSM positively affects volunteer intensity when measured by frequency - Volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice (a) or compassion (b) will volunteer for more hours, with greater frequency and with superior levels of volunteering intensity - Volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice (a) or compassion (b) will volunteer for more hours, with greater frequency and with superior levels of volunteering intensity - Civic duty (c) is positively related to volunteering intensity

\* Notes: VI = volunteering intensity; PSM = public service motivation, P-O fit = Person- Organization fit.

## **CHAPTER 2 - Using Public Service Motivation to Analyze Volunteer Behavior: A Review and Research Agenda<sup>1</sup>**

---

<sup>1</sup> Parts of this chapter are based on Costello, J., Homberg, D. and Secchi, D., 2016. Using Public Service Motivation to Analyse Volunteer Behaviour: A Review and Research Agenda. *Voluntary Sector Review* (status: revision submitted)

An earlier version was presented at:

Costello, J., Homberg, D. and Secchi, D., 2014. Put the pedal to the metal: Using Public Service Motivation to analyze volunteer behavior. *European Academy of Management 2014 Conference*. Vallencia, Spain 5 June 2014.

This chapter critically analyzes how public service motivation (PSM) can be used to determine volunteers' motivations and underlying attitudes. In the first section I argue that volunteer motivation studies traditionally examine volunteers predominantly in the non-profit sector. However, this leads to research ignoring those who volunteer in the public and private sector volunteering through their organizations' internal programs. As such, because PSM is adaptable to volunteers across sectors, I propose using it to measure motivations. I then contend using measures not reliant on time will be a more effective means of measuring a volunteers' intensity or effort. Afterwards, I incorporate person-organization fit (P-O fit) and discuss its role as a potential mediator or moderator. Finally, I propose a model that could be used to analyze the intensity of a volunteers' behavior based on their public service motivation and person-organization (volunteer) fit. Consequently, this chapter contributes to volunteering research by highlighting the potential benefits of using PSM as an analytical frame to predict volunteer behavior outcomes.

## **2.1 Introduction**

Changes in contemporary volunteering in terms of where and how individuals volunteer suggests the impending changes in the volunteer research landscape. In the past volunteers were predominantly found in non-profit organizations, but are increasingly more common in the public and private sector as part of government volunteer schemes and corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs (Basil et al. 2009). However, because most studies up until the 1990's only examined volunteers in the non-profit sector, this has led to the development of multiple theoretical and conceptual models that only look at one sector (Clary et al. 1996; Cnaan et al. 1996; Steen 2006a; Ertas 2013b). Additionally, the manner in how individuals are volunteering is also fluctuating. There is an increase in different forms of volunteering such as episodic and micro volunteering (Young and McChesney 2013; Dunn et al. 2015) and

online (cyber) volunteering (Kim and Khang 2014). These emerging trends warrant investigating literature to propose a conceptual model that could assist researchers in incorporating the changing nature of volunteering. This change in the nature of volunteering diverges from traditional volunteering reliant on time and the need to call upon the individual to volunteer continually. Nowadays, all sectors need to be prepared to gauge the efficiency of volunteering.

While many private corporations still partner with non-profits, it does not portend that individuals associate volunteering for a charity partner or as part of a community network — i.e. Community Network (EitCN) or Business in the Community (BITC) programs — when they are representing their company. For example, when corporations put together teams to help at marathons, the employees are wearing shirts with their company's logo and therefore may not relate nor consider volunteering with the partner non-profit organizations. Furthermore, there is an increase of organizations that are actively developing their own volunteer programs (Hirsch and Horowitz 2006). However, the private sector is not organized to recognize that employees may have vastly different motivations when volunteering. Supervising volunteers is different from managing paid employees because their motivation is not based on wages (Jenkinson 2011). This poses a challenge to volunteer coordinators or managers as employer-led volunteer initiatives requires managers to use tools other than remuneration to motivate employees to support the program.

Public sector employees are often embedded in government volunteer schemes such as US federal employees adopting an area and picking up trash (OPM 2012). Soldiers in the US and UK will often find themselves visiting schools or orphanages and donating items and time as direct representatives of the government. A soldier handing out humanitarian toothbrush kits may not know nor identify with the organization that has provided the items. They may akin their actions as related to the military's hearts and minds campaigns or

representing their military in disadvantaged areas. Unlike the private sector, the public sector generally appeals to individuals that have a strong connection with engaging in public service to others (Perry 1996). Thus, volunteer managers in this sector may already understand how to leverage the public service motivation of their workforce, they still need to be able to understand how to maximize volunteers' effort exerted.

Another issue is that there has been a large upsurge of the general American (Brudney and Kellough 2000) and British populace in volunteering with government organizations. The UK is in the midst of a 'Big Society' revival- which calls on citizens to engage in improving their local area via employing (Evans 2011)- there is a stronger pressure for citizens to volunteer especially when it comes to improving health programs (South et al. 2014). This gradual shift from non-profit into public and private means the potential volunteer pool decreases for non-profits as competition increases. Though non-profits are accustomed to managing volunteers, they are increasingly finding themselves being told by governments that they will need to accept mandated volunteers as part of work force programs. Reluctant or even unwilling individuals may show up to just 'do their time' meaning non-profits need to get the most effort out of the individual as they can. In this case, non-profits may argue that that they are treating these mandated volunteers as forced labor or workforce.

In terms of how individuals volunteer (episodic, one-off, micro volunteering, online volunteering), this no longer requires a volunteer to donate a large amount of time. Some scholars have argued that focusing on the amount of time one volunteers does not reflect accurately the amount of effort exerted volunteering (Rodell 2013; Rodell et al. 2016). Accordingly, the purpose of this chapter is to provide practitioners and academics a conceptual model that uses an integrated theory motivated (regardless of operating sector)

(Handy et al. 2010a) in a manner that will predict effort or intensity exerted (Rodell et al. 2016).

As anticipated in previous chapters, this chapter proposes using Perry and Wise's (1990) Public Service Motivation (PSM) theory as a means to understand the motivation of volunteers. By measuring individual attitudes, PSM shows how they will perceive the impact of their actions (Stritch and Christensen 2014). When PSM is combined with behavioral variables, it further improves our understanding of volunteering. Scholars have argued that measuring the intensity that volunteers have exerted in a manner other than the physical amount of time donated or frequency (Hall 2001; Rodell 2013) is important because it provides a better measurement of effort. As such, I extend the analysis by including Rodell's (2013) non-time measurement of intensity as the scale allows one to measure the physical, emotional, and mental effort the volunteer perceives they have exerted. It is an advantageous scale for practitioners as well because it emphasizes the importance of effort exerted opposed to time which increasingly becomes important with online volunteering that might literally only take a few seconds. Finally, I argue individual PSM levels can be used to predict volunteer intensity better when moderated or mediated by person- organization fit (P-O fit) based on different categories of volunteer services (Rotolo and Wilson 2006a). While only a limited amount of studies have examined P-O fit between volunteers and the organizations they volunteer with (e.g. Kim et al. 2007; van Vuuren et al. 2008; Scherer et al. 2016), it has set the groundwork that P-O fit is applicable in volunteer studies.

Combined, this approach makes three theoretical contributions to the literature. First, I contribute to building a more consistent theoretical understanding of the role that PSM plays in volunteering across sectors. I suggest that different PSM dimensions may be more dominant in different volunteer settings which will allow volunteer coordination managers to improve their recruitment of individuals who will have a natural predisposition to a specific



type of volunteering opportunity. Second, I contribute to the academic debate in suggesting the use of a more effective means of capturing volunteers effort exerted when volunteering by incorporating Rodell's (2013) measurement tool that captures volunteering intensity. By not having to rely on the amount of time contributed, volunteer managers will be able to incorporate trends of micro and online volunteering while having a clearer understanding of the how an individual's maximizes effort according to their own abilities. Third, I draw upon the findings of empirical studies of P-O fit to further arguments for the necessity of including it as a variable in future studies. This final variable is often overlooked in volunteer studies, yet has a strong precedence of importance in private and public sector studies. The overall theoretical framework I propose is built around propositions and accordingly paves the way for future empirical studies to test it.

## **2.2 Theoretical Framework**

In the sections below, the focus is on the various arguments and discussion about PSM and volunteering that were not addressed in the literature surveys in Chapter 1. Then propositions are developed around PSM and its dimensions and volunteering intensity. Furthermore, literature is expanded on P-O fit in relation to volunteers. Finally, this chapter conclude with a conceptual model.

### **2.2.1 PSM**

PSM (as discussed in chapter 1) is "an individual's orientation to delivering service to people with the purpose of doing good for others and society" (Hondeghem and Perry 2009, p. 6). This definition focuses on public service and has a strong component of a pro-social or 'others-orientation' with the individual deciding what good is. As such, PSM is a construct

that merges intrinsic and pro-social aspects of volunteering while recognizing that both altruistic (concern for others) and instrumental motivations (self-interest) can propel volunteers to step forward in the first place (Mesch et al. 1998).

PSM motives are divided into three aspects: rational, norm-based, and affective (Perry and Wise 1990) and initially consisted of six dimensions (Perry 1996): attraction to policy making, self-sacrifice, commitment to public interest, compassion, civic duty and social justice. While some scholars might argue that using more recent version of the PSM scale would be appropriate for studies outside of the western context (Kim 2009), as I argued in Chapter 1 the deletion of social justice and civic duty was due to the early focus on PSM in the public sector and was before scholars began to explore PSM amongst other avenues. Social justice, in particular, was perceived as being discouraged for public servants (Perry and Wise 1990), but is a prominent part of many volunteer opportunities.

#### **2.2.1.1 PSM and Sector Differences**

The crux of the argument for using PSM to examine volunteers' motivations is that PSM has proven it has the ability to measure individual motivation across sectors and is an individual concept and not sector specific (Brewer and Sheldon 1998). In fact, PSM has triggered a plethora of research comparing public and private sector employees' motivations (e.g. Perry 1997; Houston 2000; Houston 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Kim and Vandenabeele 2010; Coursey et al. 2011). Houston's (2000) research found public sector employees have higher PSM levels than their private sector colleagues do. Yet, when Andersen and Serritzlew (2010) studied PSM in the private sector in Denmark, they found private physiotherapists scored high on the PSM dimension commitment to public interest and thus exhibited higher levels of pro-social behavior. In the non-profit sector, PSM has been used to gauge job involvement of non-profit managers through their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Word

and Park 2009), motivational styles (Chen 2013) and job satisfaction (Benz 2005). Numerous scholars investigated how PSM leads towards better performance (e.g. Camilleri and van der Heijden 2007; Anderfuhren-Biget 2012; Andersen and Serritzlew 2012; Belle 2013; van Loon 2016). Collectively, these PSM studies imply that employed individuals will perform better if they have higher levels of PSM. As this application has been applied to employed individuals, it is important to understand how it has been applied to volunteers.

### **2.2.1.2 PSM and Volunteering**

Recently, more efforts have been geared towards investigating PSM in non-profit sector employees and volunteers pointing toward differences in motivation between the latter and public sector employees (e.g. Borzaga and Tortia 2006; Lee and Wilkins 2011b; Chen 2012b). Several studies have concluded that volunteering is a behavioral consequence of PSM (Lee 2012, Lee and Jeong 2015) and that PSM leads to an increased time spent volunteering (Houston 2006, Clerkin et al. 2009). Other scholars explored how PSM relates to different volunteering domains (Coursey et al. 2011) and available opportunities to volunteer (Ertas 2014).

When Houston (2006) compared PSM between private, public and non-profit sector employees in terms of donating blood and charitable donations, he found that while non-profits employees contributed the most hours, there was little difference between the other two sectors. Indeed, at an individual level, there was no difference between public and private sector employees volunteering habits. However, it should be noted that Houston's (2006) study did not ask if the individual was volunteering in the sector that they were employed with. While this study linked PSM as a viable predictor of the decision to volunteer and provide charitable donations from employees across sectors, Clerkin et al. (2009) followed this line of research to see if students with high levels of PSM would perform differently.

They found that students with higher PSM would engage in both activities. However, there was evidence that different dimensions of PSM (compassion and civic duty) resulted in great significance; whereas, attraction to policy making was negatively related to an individual's willingness to volunteer. Clerkin et al. (2009) attributes the differences in how people react to rational, affective and norm motives in different manners.

This tendency for individuals with high PSM to volunteer more hours was supported with Coursey et al. (2011) study that used a dataset of "elite" volunteers- recipients of the Daily Point of Light Award (an annual volunteer recognition ceremony where the US President formally recognizes America's top volunteers). This study found that PSM affected volunteering in different domains. Those with high PSM were prone to volunteering in religious organizations compared to schools or human services. Coursey et al. (2011) posited that the PSM theory rests on the attraction-selection paradigm, which if applied to volunteer opportunities could be found in for-profit or public sector volunteer schemes. This suggests that the different PSM dimensions are prevalent in different types of volunteering organizations.

Some scholars' debate that if one is unable to fulfill their intrinsic needs at their job that consequently they will turn to volunteering (Kemp 2011). This could explain why individuals with high PSM levels still elect to work in the private sector because their corporate volunteering programs still gives them the opportunity to fulfill their intrinsic needs through volunteer outlets. Contrarily, Ertas (2013b) asserts that public sector employees may already meet their intrinsic needs through their job, but volunteer because they have more opportunities to do so through public volunteering schemes. It could be that public sectors missions, though similar to many non-profits, provide more direct access between the individuals and the opportunity to volunteer.

When Lee (2012b) compared public and non-profit managers' propensity to volunteer, she found volunteering is a behavioral consequence of PSM. This was supported again in a later study by Lee and Jeong (2015) that examined volunteering amongst Korean public servants. Unlike Clerkin et al. (2009) and Houston's (2006) studies, attraction to policy making was the only PSM variable that on its own related to ones propensity to volunteer. This implies that at across the public sector and amongst students, the PSM dimensions do perform differently when predicting volunteering.

Consequently, scholars are still exploring if those volunteering in the private and public sector do so to fulfill unmet intrinsic needs. While all of these studies provided evidence between PSM and volunteering and there was evidence that elite type volunteers donate more hours, exploring PSM amongst the full spectrum of volunteers from the episodic, micro or online volunteer deems further exploration. This would allow researchers to explore if PSM can lead to volunteering behavior beyond hours reported.

### **2.2.2 Volunteering Intensity**

Chapter 1 highlighted that many theories explore explaining volunteer motivation and introduced the debate about how far less attention has been spent determining the intensity level in which volunteers exert effort. In this chapter, the focus turns to the various deliberations surrounding measuring volunteers' effort.

Many studies such as Panel Study of Income Dynamics Philanthropy Module, Current Population Survey and Independent Sector's rely on the rate of volunteering (Nesbit 2011). When it comes to determining intensity of volunteer's behavior, many researchers use the time one spends volunteering, such as the amount of hours or days one volunteered, in order to determine effort (Wollebaek and Selle 2002; Handy et al. 2010a). Asking how much time

one volunteers requires the subject to be able to recall exactly how long they volunteered and is often an estimation or “guesstimate” of time. This results in measurements being rough estimates (Hall 2001) and requiring researchers to ask prompts. Rooney et al. (2004) found the larger the amount of prompts needed, the more volunteering activities respondents recalled participating in. However, when Bekkers and Wiepking (2011) compared actual donations and recorded donations, they found that self-reported measures were significantly higher than the actual. The challenge of self-reported measures goes beyond volunteering, but Bekkers and Weipking’s (2011) main focus is that in order to get an exact measure, one would need to use time logs. These records are typically used and maintained only if someone must sign a roster for community service hours/credit or for something such as a Girl Guide or Boy Scout volunteering project to earn a badge. But, even using logs to record time can be very subjective. For example, if a family is engaging in leisure volunteering teaching English in Guatemala for a week, then they might report volunteering  $24 \times 7 = 168$  hours per week and thus overinflating their sense of time.

Other large scale volunteers surveys such as Donor Pulse, focuses on the frequency at which one volunteers (Cnaan et al. 2011). Even though this is not a reliant on recalling time, frequency does give researchers a general idea of how often one volunteers. However, an increased frequency does not measure the effort exerted. Someone posting a video on social media doing a challenge to raise awareness of a cause may require more effort exerted than someone who volunteers monthly at their local churches potluck suppers.

Alternatively, intensity has been measured as passive or active participation (Wollebaek and Selle 2002; Holmes and Slater 2012). This resulted in high intensity being associated with active engagement and low as passive participants (Wollebæk and Strømsnes 2008). This began to set the outer limits of a volunteering effort continuum. Holmes and Slater (2012) divided the intensity into types of participation: core (active- committee

members), peripheral (active, but occasionally take on roles), substitutes (unable to volunteer due to other commitments or lack of geographical proximity to the site and show their support in other ways), and pay and play volunteers (passive). Pay and play volunteers are those that donate funds, but do not actively contribute by donating time (Holmes and Slater 2012). While classifying the type of volunteer participants has its merits, it still does not capture the amount of vigorous effort one may exert. Just as one may show up to a job and not exert effort beyond the bare minimum that is required, so too can volunteers act. Therefore, having a clearer means in which to measure the intensity of volunteering behavior is critical.

Consequently, Rodell (2013) proposed and tested an alternative scale to measure volunteering intensity. Rodell's (2013) research examined the relationship between employee's volunteering and their performance at work. This research resulted in a validated intensity scale that takes the volunteer's effort away from being focused on just time donated and towards a more measurable scale based off the participants' perceived effort. Rodell's (2013) scale measured the physical, mental, and emotional level exerted by the volunteer. Additionally, Rodell (2013) discovered that volunteering intensity is a behavioral outcome based on the individuals' prosocial identity.

However, in order to better understand an individuals' motivation to volunteer, one must go beyond one's identity and directly measure pro-social attitudes. As PSM reflects these types of attitudes through the three motives and six dimensions, it is argue that an increase in pro-social attitudes will lead to an increase in behavior that is oriented towards helping the greater public. Because these attitudes lend itself towards a propensity for public service, those with higher levels of PSM are expected to exert more effort. Andersen and Serritzlew (2012) and Belle (2013) studies linked higher levels of PSM leading to increases job performance. This implies that more effort is needed in order to perform at a higher level.

Belle (2013) attributed the increased performance of Italian Nurses with high PSM as having beneficiary contact. Volunteering activities often lead to interaction through beneficiaries and the volunteer, thus are presumed to have a similar outcome to Belle's (2013) study. Even though volunteering is not a job, PSM's effect on performance is expected to be similar. These arguments suggest the following:

*Proposition 1: PSM positively affects volunteer intensity.*

### **2.2.3 Person-Organization Fit of Volunteers**

As mentioned in chapter 1, the discussion concerning fit is found primarily in work studies.

While PSM has proven it can explain attraction to different sectors and volunteering (Houston 2006; Coursey et al. 2011), if P-O fit influences that relation has yet to be investigated. Coursey et al. (2011) asserts if fit matters to individuals in a workplace environment that it is not dissimilar to expect an individual to consider how they perceive they will fit with a volunteering opportunity.

Relatively few volunteer studies have taken advantage of the unique explanation between a person and P-E fit or P-O fit (Kim et al. 2007; Van Vianen et al. 2008; Kim et al. 2009). Kim et al. (2007) reasoned that volunteers would be challenged to separate the job they did from the organization, but later argued that the overall fit between a person and an environment encompasses all aspects of fit (Kim et al. 2009) and thus should be used. Van Vianen et al. (2008) measured P-E fit through a combination of personality and culture fit deviating from traditional means of measuring it. Kim et al.'s (2009) study did provide empirical evidence that P-E fit (measured as a combination of organization and task) could lead to volunteers intention to continue when mediated by empowerment. While the study



implied a sense of empowerment was important, it showed that P-O fit could be applied to volunteers.

When delineating between P-E, P-J and P-O fit, in the case of volunteers it is a fluid situation between high turnover rates and tasks and supervisors (if any) changing given the need of the organization. Volunteers could be working on fund-raising one day and setting up chairs for an event on another. Because there is rarely a set job description, P-O fit is reasoned to be more applicable to volunteers as its focus on individual and organizational values. It is with this rationale that the following studies explore P-O fit amongst volunteers instead of the broader P-E fit.

To date (and to my knowledge), the only other volunteer study that has directly tested P-O fit (separate from P-E fit) is Scherer et al.'s (2016) study. They found that poor P-O fit when mediated by burnout was significantly related to intention to quit. However, if the volunteer was not suffering from burnout, then there was little evidence that a poor P-O fit would cause volunteers to quit. The findings from this study suggests that burnout is a larger threat than poor P-O fit when it comes to an individual quitting. Scherer et al. (2016) contends practitioners need to have a better way of identifying the match between volunteers and organizations. This link may be vital when academics are arguing against forcing individuals to volunteer (in the case of the UK Community Work Placement program).

Some P-O fit studies (as discussed in Chapter 1) have shown there is some evidence that PSM causes P-O fit to increase or decrease. Hence, PSM could be viewed as causing an effect on P-O fit. Taking into consideration the arguments above and that P-O fit will then impact intensity, this leads to the following proposition:

*Proposition 2a: Person-Organization fit positively mediates the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity.*

On the contrary, a good P-O fit could strengthen or moderate the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. Liu et al. (2013) found evidence that high levels of P-O fit strengthened the relationship between those with high PSM and job satisfaction. Park and Kim's (2015) study found further support for P-O fit moderating the relationship between PSM affective and norm based motives and accountability. Thus, these studies of moderation between P-O fit and PSM imply that when an individual has high PSM levels, a good perceived P-O fit will strengthen the relation and increase positive behavioral consequences.

Kim et al. (2007) found a direct relation between P-O fit and intention to continue volunteering which implies P-O fit is present amongst volunteers. Indeed, van Vuuren et al. (2008) discovered that volunteers reported higher levels of P-O fit than their paid- non-profit employee counterparts. The greater the P-O fit, the higher the affective and normative commitment existed for volunteers (van Vuuren et al. 2008). This further supports P-O fit being applicable in a volunteering setting. Taken together, P-O fit has the ability to strengthen the relation between PSM and behavioral outcomes and has been shown to be applicable to volunteers. Thus, these arguments suggest the following:

*Proposition 2b: Person-Organization fit strengthens the positive relation between PSM and volunteer intensity.*

A key theoretical challenge is to understand whether P-O fit will moderate or mediate the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. Because PSM studies that examined either a moderating or mediating effect of PSM were inconclusive and the theoretical arguments equally valid, propositions supporting each area are proposed.

#### **2.2.4 PSM Dimensions and Corresponding Volunteer Domain Categories**

Though much research has shown that PSM may lead to individuals having a preference for employment, Christensen and Wright (2011) suggest sector choice and not PSM can serve as a proxy for P-O fit. Although, it could be argued that in the case of volunteering, individuals will select organizations in whose values they perceive will match theirs. Therefore, one should examine how different types of volunteering organizations may be a proxy for fit. Scholars conducting volunteer studies have complained that often studies only look at volunteer service industry opposed to different categories (Rotolo and Wilson 2006a). Employing volunteer sub-sets may help to overcome this limitation as Rotolo and Wilson (2006a) divide volunteering into the following categorizations: religious, youth development, social and community service, culture, arts, and education, health, sports and hobbies, civic and public safety, advocacy and work/professional.

Further adding to our understanding of how PSM influences volunteering intensity, I explore the six dimensions of PSM itself. Coursey et al.'s (2011) study linked PSM to different volunteering domains and increasingly other scholars studying PSM have begun to examine the individual PSM dimensions and their ability to influence different outcomes (Jacobsen et al. 2014). Perry's (1996) dimensions: civic duty, social justice, attraction to policy making, self-sacrifice, commitment to public interest, and compassion, measure very specific attitudes held by individuals. Volunteer literature suggests that individuals with certain attitudes are more prone to volunteer in different settings. Therefore, using literature to predict how to pair PSM dimensions with specific volunteer categories subsets allows one to formulate a model that can be used to predict how volunteers' attitudes influence how one self-selects into volunteer programs. I argue that the specific volunteer categories that an individual has actively volunteered with can act as a proxy for P-O fit. By adding this variable as a mediator and/or moderator in my model, P-O fit either strengthens or mediates

the relation between the PSM dimensions and the outcome of volunteering intensity. If there were an ensuing good person-volunteer organization fit, volunteer intensity would be positively affected. Using volunteer literature, I examine which PSM dimensions are expected to be mediated and/or moderated by specific volunteering categories.

### *Self-Sacrifice*

Self-sacrifice is a constant term that is prevalent in volunteering studies. Cnaan et al. (1996) felt that self-sacrifice was exhibited when adults donate their time and energy to mentor at-risk youth in a program such as 'Big Brothers Big Sisters'. Whereas, Houston (2006) says the charitable act of donating blood exemplifies self-sacrifice. Therefore, self-sacrifice is best illustrated when a person perceives they are giving up something extremely important to them to benefit another. Some scholars would argue that self-sacrifice could be loosely applied to any type volunteering situation (Wright et al. 2016). Self-sacrifice in PSM is measured along the lines of personal lose and placing the needs of society in front of their own.

The theme of personal lost is prominent in many religions. Some religious conviction, such as Christianity, are formed around the concept of self- sacrifice (Freeman and Houston 2010). Guo et al. (2013) explored how religion can predict volunteering for a social change cause and discovered Catholics and Protestants were more likely to volunteer than individuals practicing other religions. This finding aligns with Perry's (1997) exploration of religious socialization in a western context and how it has an effect on predicting PSM. Freeman and Houston (2010) followed a theoretical link between PSM and religious conviction and found public servants are more active in their religious communities.

In addition to the sense of self-sacrificing being dominant in religious organizations, Liu (2009) was able to link strong levels of self-sacrifice to social workers' job satisfaction. As these types of jobs typically centered on protecting and assisting youth, it can also be

viewed as thankless given the history of negative and hostile attitudes amongst beneficiaries. Conversely, Coursey et al. (2011) found the PSM dimension compassion as more prevalent amongst volunteers in school or human services if the individual was highly religious. Whereas, the self-sacrifice dimension was related to volunteering in schools/educational, human services and others (such as arts). As this value is more prominent in organizations of a religious nature and youth organizations, I argue that self-sacrifice will be more prevalent. Together, these arguments suggest the following.

*Proposition 3a: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization mediates the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 3b: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization strengthens the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.*

### *Compassion*

Compassion is defined as having a general love for people (Word and Carpenter 2013) and forces on helping those in need (Lee and Brudney 2015). Compassion has been closely linked to volunteers in the health industry (Claxton-Oldfield et al. 2013) because working at a hospice requires volunteers to be compassionate, sensitive and caring to those in their final days and their surviving families. Claxton-Oldfield et al. (2013) attributes this to the high degree of social and emotional support being provided by volunteers. Compassion is an affective motive according to Perry (1996).

PSM studies looking at nurses in Denmark found they had higher levels of compassion which lead to increased job satisfaction (Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013). Liu et al. (2014) also found evidence that high levels of compassion increased job satisfaction though amongst Chinese social workers. However, Roh et al. (2016) found evidence that social workers in health care organizations who have higher levels of PSM tend to have higher job satisfaction and less burnout. This evidence of a higher sense of compassion influencing satisfaction could have implications for decreasing turnover. Dehart-Davis et al. (2006) also found gender to be a significant predictor of reported compassion levels with it being higher in women. With a larger percentage of female volunteers in health organizations, one would expect an individual with high PSM dimensions of compassion to volunteer for a health organization. Therefore, these ideas are summarized in the following proposition:

*Proposition 4a: Volunteering in a health organization mediates the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 4b: Volunteering in a health organization strengthens the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity.*

#### *Commitment to public interest*

Commitment to public interest is seen as a norm-based motive (Kim 2012) which though a collective common interest, is generally understood as an interest in public welfare (Vandenabeele et al. 2006). This emphasis on being society driven means it can be interpreted differently across cultures and countries. While typically seen as a national focus, it is

associated with local focuses (Vandenabeele et al. 2006) which relate to volunteer organizations that work at community level.

Commitment to public interest is evident in a time where funding for arts programs in schools are being cut and schools are increasingly relying on philanthropic help from outside organizations (Constantino 2003). It takes a commitment from volunteers interested in preservation of societal history to ensure the general populace is still exposed to the culture and arts that built their society. This commitment to public interest is reflected in the importance the UK education system places on schools visiting museums in order to build and preserve national heritage. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Proposition 5a: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations mediates the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 5b: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations strengthens the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.*

#### *Attraction to Policy Making*

Attraction to Policy Making is a rational motive (Perry 1996) and, as discussed in section 1.3.4, tends to be one of the more controversial PSM dimensions. However, Anderfuhren-Biget's (2012) study found initial evidence that individuals with high levels of attraction to

policy making tend to engage in more political activities to include volunteering. This was further supported in Lee and Jeong's (2015) study that also discovered evidence that attraction to policy making levels were highest amongst Korean public sector volunteers.

If one looks at how attraction to policy making is closely aligned with those organizations that do lobbying activities or work-related professional organizations, then the connection is clearer. Historically in the UK, non-profits had an impact in influencing policy change such as child poverty and support for the disabled or elderly (Bode 2010). Progressively more non-profits are lobbying governments for change in policies and resources (Cairns et al. 2010). US Veterans of Foreign War is a professional and work non-profit organization that not only attracts members wanting to effect change, but also actively conducts lobbying activities for very specific causes (Netzer 2008) such as retirement, education funds, health care, etc. Unions are work organizations that also have volunteers that lobby for change (Kerrissey and Schofer 2013). While lobbying is a western concept that exists in democracies, it also exists at an international level with non-profit organizations such as the International Chamber of Commerce and the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, which are lobbying the United Nations or regional governing bodies. Together, these arguments suggest the following.

*Proposition 6a: Volunteering in an organization that conducts political or work activities mediates the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 6b: Volunteering in an organization that conducts political or work activities strengthens the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.*



## *Civic Duty*

Civic duty is a norm-based motive that, like commitment to public interest, is influenced by which the society or community one belongs to (Perry 1996). In different countries, national differences may play a large role. Haddad (2006) examined the patterns of why different types of voluntary organizations were more successful in two different countries (USA and Japan) based on attitudes towards civic duty. She found that, when it came to public safety and protection, Japanese volunteered in larger amounts than their US counterparts. Haddad attributes this sense of civic duty being interwoven with embedded public sector organizations focusing on public safety. When Vandenberg et al. (2006) were looking at the difference in PSM between the US, UK, and Germany; they discovered that civic duty was an important aspect of public service to US public employees.

Certainly civic duty also falls in line with the doctrine that is being taught in the educational systems. Citizen education has seen an unprecedented growth in the UK (Strickland 2010) with increased importance placed on encouraging youth participation within their community. In the early 90's, American politicians pushed congress to renew an emphasis on volunteering to the general populace and schools were encouraged to provide citizenship training as a means of encouraging future volunteers (Janoski et al. 1998). Volunteering as a means of learning about citizenship is not limited to schoolchildren. Indeed, immigrants in the UK can fast track their citizenship by volunteering (Strickland 2010). Civic duty is not a passive state of citizenship, but requires the individual to do things within their community (Janoski et al. 1998). However, as in Haddad (2006) study, civic duty could be represented by volunteering in public safety organizations such as volunteer firefighters, civil protection, etc. These ideas are summarized in the following proposition.

*Proposition 7a: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations mediates the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 7b: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations strengthens the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.*

### *Social Justice*

Perry defined social justice as “activities intended to enhance the well-being of minorities who lack political and economic resources” (1996, p.3). However, other scholars see the key role of social justice being to help those in society that are seen as underserved (Word and Carpenter 2013). A sense of advocacy is increasing as campaigns for change at community levels are increasingly prevalent (Cairns et al. 2010). Social justice oriented non-profits can aim at raising awareness within the general population on public policy through advocacy programs. Examples of social justice oriented non-profits are Amnesty International, Greenpeace, Unlock Democracy, Human Appeal and Voice 4 Change. Yet, as private organizations want to increase their social responsibility programs, they are increasingly rally employees behind programs that advocate for the environment such as Pearson Planet<sup>3</sup>. Even the UK government utilize volunteers for the Citizens Advice Bureau that gives voice to those not normally heard. The PSM dimension of social justice aligns with volunteer programs championing causes, standing up for the rights of others, and CSR mission statements that focus on doing one’s part in society. Most non-profits are in the business of social justice in one form or another (Tomlinson and Schwabenland 2010). However, social

---

<sup>3</sup> Pearson Planet is an initiative started by Pearson PLC Group in 2008. Staff eco and green teams actively participated in education and change causes in order to improve the environment. This initiative was a result of SEE.

justice manifests as corporate activism, which according to King and Weber (2014) is becoming more prolific in leading grassroots movements than non-profits. Companies such as Ben and Jerry's have strong grassroots initiatives that focus on social change (Dennis et al. 1998). In Vandenberg et al.'s (2006) international comparison of PSM, their study of equality can be linked to social justice. Therefore, these arguments suggest the following.

*Proposition 8a: Volunteering in an advocacy group mediates the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.*

*Proposition 8b: Volunteering in an advocacy group strengthens the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.*

### **2.2.5 The Conceptual Models**

The conceptual models summarizing the overall concept are depicted in Figure 1.1. Based on the above conflicting evidence in the literature review about mediator or moderation, I propose two alternative models in relation to PSM and volunteer intensity in two models where P-O fit mediates (model 1) and moderates (model 2). A further breakdown from the aggregate PSM to the specific PSM dimension propositions outlined above is depicted in Figure 1.2. Volunteer P-O fit categories each mediate (model 3) and moderate (model 4) the effect of a specific dimension of PSM on volunteering intensity.

The advantage of using models that do not mix moderation and mediation is that it allows for a truer representation of the literature in the two different contexts. Furthermore, by proposing the models at a dimensional level, it depicts a more plausible effect per each

dimensions of PSM and categories of volunteering.

*Figure 1.1: Conceptual Models with PSM as Aggregate*

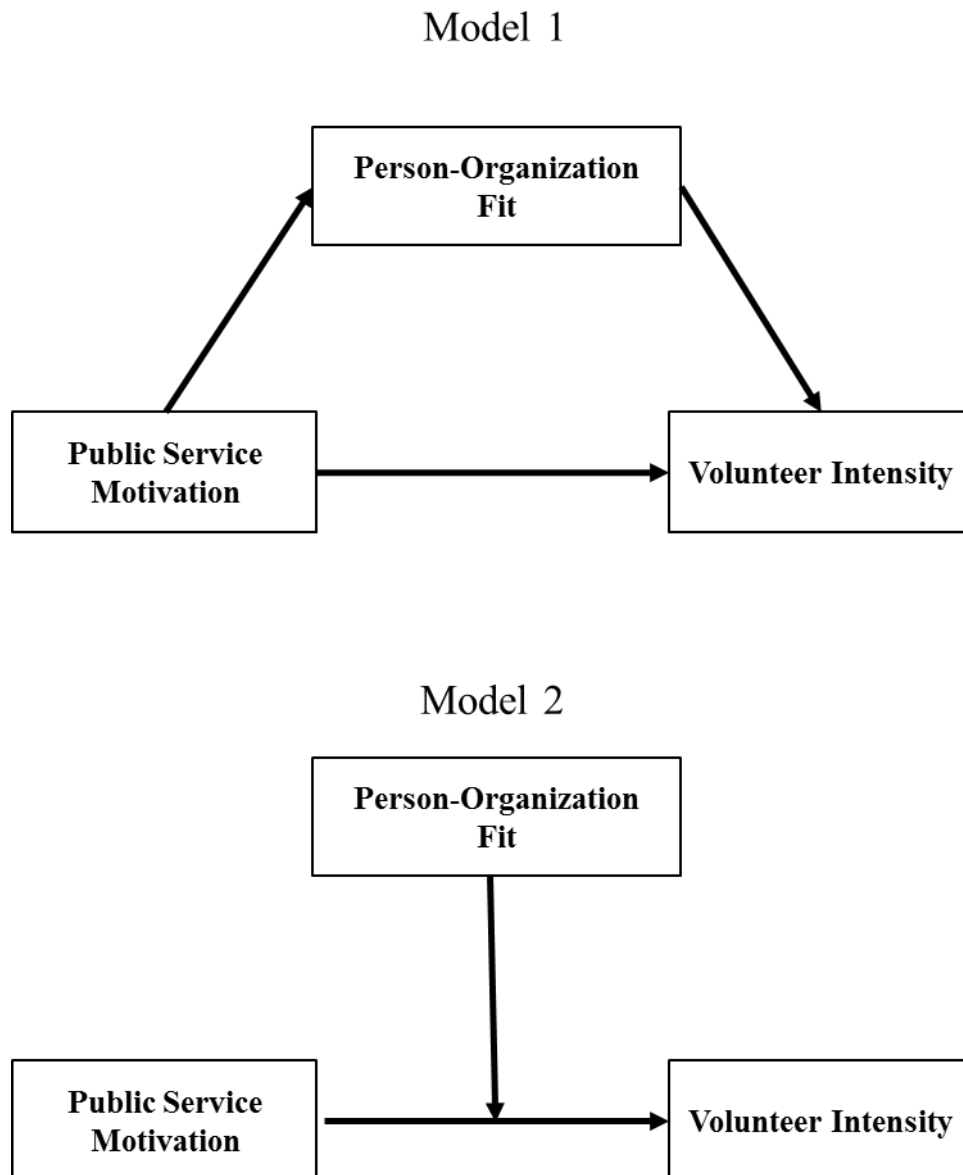
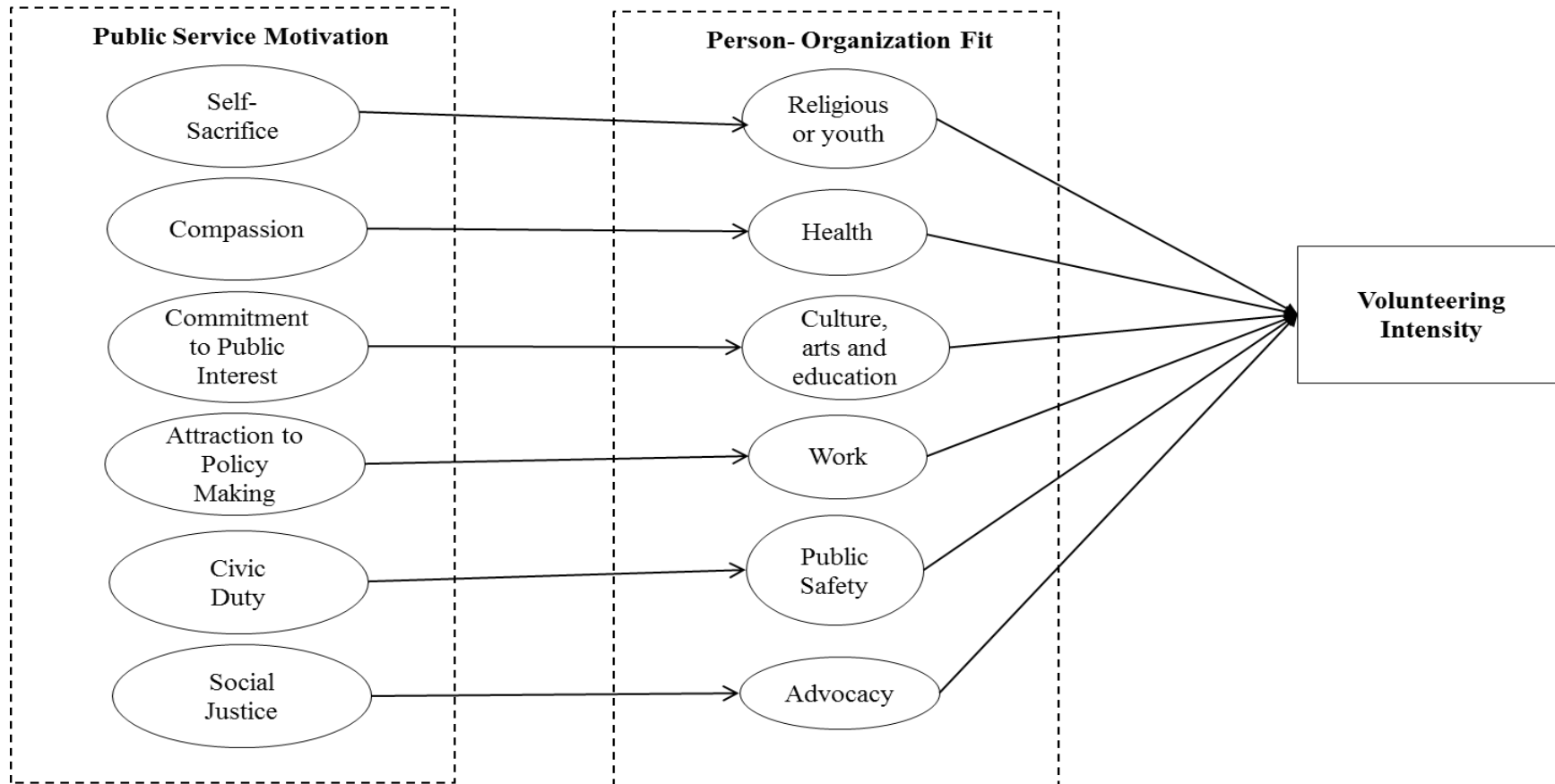
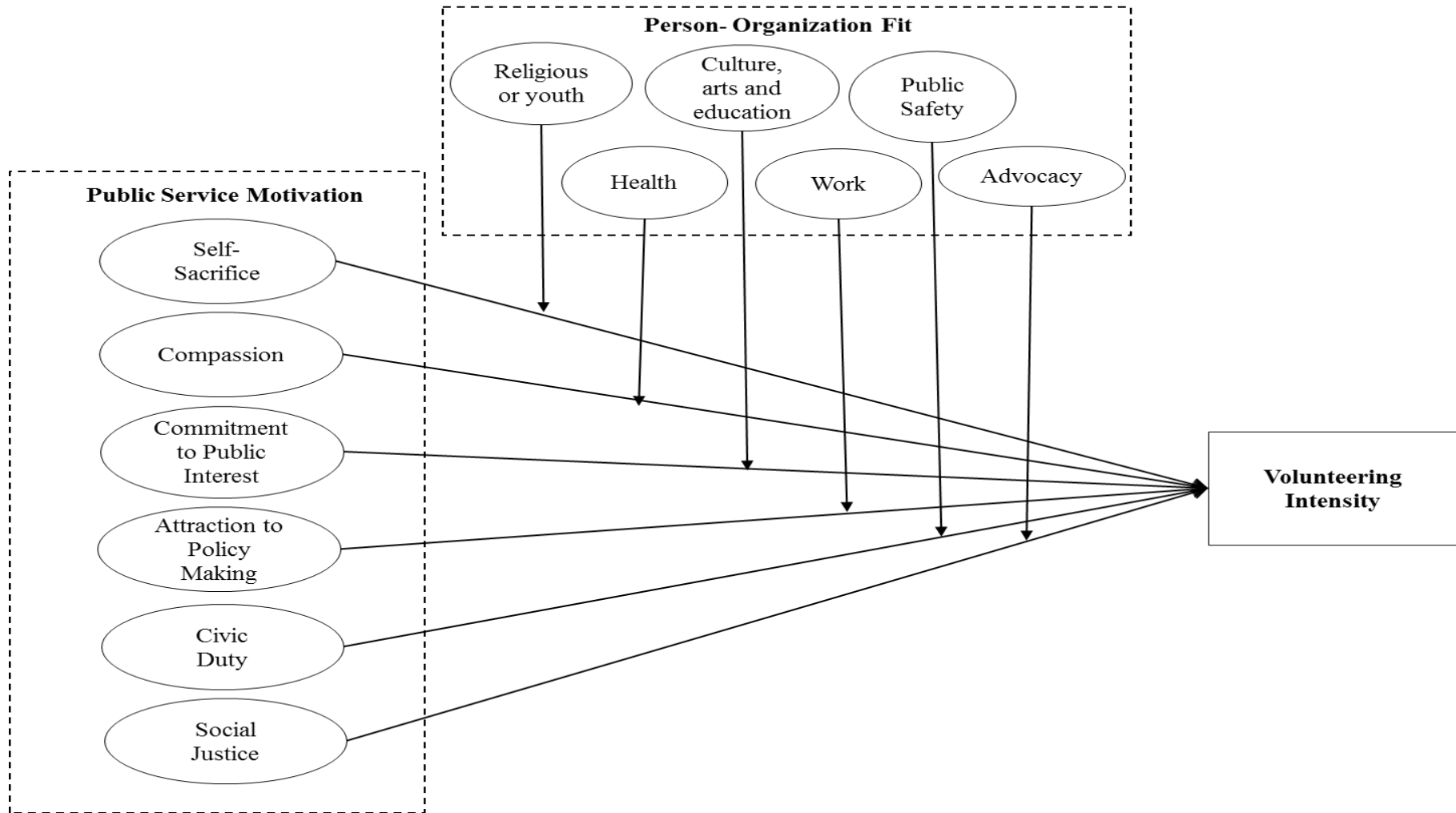


Figure 1.2: Conceptual Models at Dimensional Level

Model 3



Model 4



### **2.3 Conclusion**

PSM studies have been exploring what drives one to volunteer, but the link between volunteer motivation and how it affects behavior directly has not been explored. PSM has slowly emerged as a determinant of volunteering. The propositions presented in this chapter combine PSM's dimensions to the various sub-sets of volunteer domains in order to offer important implications for research. Furthermore, it is useful to shed light on which aspects of motivation lead to intense volunteer behavior. There are several implications of this work. First, the next step is to test the model empirically (this is done in chapters 4-7). It is suggested that a survey testing the propositions is sent to individuals who have a history volunteering either through their place of employment or independently. This will allow researchers to compare if PSM measure of volunteers across sectors have comparable estimated marginal means. This would also allow researchers to observe if PSM and volunteer intensity fluctuates across sectors amongst individuals who volunteer. Additionally, it allows the opportunity to provide empirical evidence on the PSM / P-O fit / volunteering intensity relationship.

Second, once empirically established, the model could be used by volunteer coordination managers to see if the PSM levels and volunteer intensity of their current volunteers are strengthened by P-O fit to the type of volunteer opportunity they provide. For example, if a volunteer has a high PSM level in attraction to policy making, but an organization needs volunteers with high levels of compassion, a potential mismatch through person-organization fit can be identified in advance. Additionally, if a manager or coordinator of a volunteer program wants to predict with how much effort corporate volunteers will participate in a commitment to public interest program, a survey using the proposed model could show if the individuals wanting to take part have the required motivational levels. Even the UK government could use this tool to effectively match job

seekers wishing to retain their benefits with volunteer opportunities that are best suited to their individual attitudes.

Third, this model will assist academics to examine the differences between what some call the two different types of intrinsic motivation (Lindenberg 2001; Inauen et al. 2010): enjoyment-based and obligation-based. By adding these two factors, one could test if those that feel obligated or pressured to volunteer experience a crowding-out effect on their motivation to continue volunteering. It could also test if the volunteers who experience obligation-based motivation felt subjected or were aware of intra-organizational bandwagon mentality (Secchi and Bardone 2013). Testing this model empirically may also reveal that there are relationships between the construct which the propositions do not address.

Overall, volunteering is an opportunity to make a positive difference in someone else's life. Understanding how an individual's motivation to volunteer can influence what sub-domain they will volunteer in and at what type of level, will contribute to the academic volunteer motivation discussion and further our understanding of volunteering. The following chapter discusses the methodology and then chapter's 4-7 tests these models empirically and discuss initial implications of the studies and the way forward.



## **CHAPTER 3- Methodology**

This chapter outlines the underlying methodology that guided the following studies in Chapter 4-7. A further discussion about specific data collection methods, research sampling and data analysis techniques are explained in-depth in the corresponding chapters. This section explores the underpinning philosophy, research design, timing and sampling.

### **3.1 Research Paradigm**

Before justifying the research design and the sampling technique used, understanding the researchers' ontological and epistemological rational is an important first step in determining how the philosophy will influence the research (Bryman and Bell 2015). Huff (2009) states that "Ontology considers what exists. Epistemology focuses on what human beings know about what exists" (p. 108). For researchers, identifying how they perceive labels such as artificial and relative (nomalist) or existing independent of labels (realist) can give insight into their concept of ontology (Huff 2009). This is important especially with researchers who seek to not be stonewalled with labels. Much like the characters in Milan Kundera's *Unbearable Lightness of Being*, with the attitude that we all live only once and thus should not be strangled by labels, the authors' ontology leans towards realism.

The two streams of literature which this dissertation examines (PSM and volunteers), operate at opposite ends of philosophical extremes. Much of the literature in volunteering is qualitative and follows a social constructionist epistemology. A social constructionist believes people are the products of historical events, social forces and ideology (Hacking 1999). This means they take into account that the nature of being is determined by its social properties (Diaz-Leon 2015). For example, the very concept of civic duty (i.e. one dimension of PSM) is not an inevitable state that arises when ones country is under terror attack or threat by outside forces. Rather, there is a certain criticism that goes against the status quo of the social constructionist that arises when looking at how the social process has influenced one's

life (Hacking 1999). While a philosophy of this manner tends to lean towards exploring and describing (Huff 2009), the very nature of this socially influenced philosophy would generally lend itself towards case studies or action research.

However, when examining the literature revolving around PSM, the majority is quantitative in nature and stems from a critical realist philosophy. A critical realist believes that reality is independent of what we perceive exists, and that our knowledge of social institutions is transitive (Frauley and Pearce 2007). Critical realism focuses on ontology, which Bhaskar (1998) says must be understood first before trying to answer our knowledge about the world. Critical realists argue that the worldview is constantly changing and there are different layers of reality (Frauley and Pearce 2007). The first stratum is real which cannot be observed as we limit ourselves. For example, we can observe the results of gravity, but not the actual force. This observation is demonstrated by the second layer: actual. This refers to events that are caused by real level such as toast falling butter side down due to gravity. The final layer is empirical- in which one can make sense of the actual observation and then speculating. For example, while we know that the gravitational force pulls the bread down, we might speculate that unseen magical forces are responsible to causing the bread to land on the buttered side. In terms of critical realism and social sciences, Sayer (2000) states: “For realists, social science is neither nomothetic (that is, law-seeking) nor idiographic (concerned with documenting the unique)” (p. 3). A benefit of having a critical realist philosophy is that not only can it help contribute to theory building (as does social constructionism), but it can contribute to theory refinement and seeks causal explanation (Sayer 2000). However, one criticism of critical realism is that while it is good at explaining the past or current, it is not predictive as Bhaskar (1998) says society is constantly changing and evolving. However, this philosophy lends itself to quantitative and qualitative alike, thus bridging the differences in the literature concerning volunteers and PSM.

Scholars are increasingly recognizing that philosophical pluralism is naïve and that elective affinity can result in bias (Knox 2004). Consequently, as a researcher I am guided by a critical realist philosophy. Therefore, using a highly structured design can help circumvent issues escalating from researcher bias and thus keep the research project on an objectivist driven path.

### **3.2. Research Approach and Strategy**

The overall research approach through each of the studies follows a deductive pathway. By scrutinizing the literature, one is able to formulate hypotheses which can then be tested and explained (Anderson 2013). The advantage to using deductive reasoning is that it can be reliable due to its replicability (Bryman and Bell 2015). Despite, PSM being in its third wave- there are many areas left unanswered that will benefit by returning to the literature (Perry 2014a). The advantage to follow in this path is that one is able apply theoretical concepts into new context (Bryman and Bell 2015).

The research strategy for all of the studies adopted a deductive approach and follows a quantitative survey strategy. Although quantitative based research could be viewed as description based and generalization (Daymon and Holloway 2011), the decision to do multiple surveys stems from the critical realist philosophy as a means to attain insight from a multiple of accounts in order to discover consistency amongst volunteers (Huff 2009). The advantages to using qualitative surveys included being able to be objective, neutral and verifiable (Huff 2009). Questionnaires allow the research to standardize their data collection, thus limiting errors (Bryman and Bell 2015). Because there are relationships between different factors that have not been explored, a quantitative approach is the most ideal means to see how others understand their attitudes and how it influences their effort (Anderson 2013). However, self-completed questionnaires are not without critiques. Bryman and Bell

claims (2015) there is no opportunity to prompt, probe or expand upon answers. However, using a survey with verified scales is faster than conducting interviews and collect more data with lower administration costs (Bryman and Bell 2015). One challenge of note: because the questionnaires involve latent constructs measuring attitudes, there is the risk of social desirability bias (de Jong et al. 2010). Methods used to avert social desirability bias are discussed in each of the empirical studies' methods sections.

### **3.3 Timing**

The following empirical studies (Chapter 4-7) are based on cross-sectional timing. The decision to use cross-sectional studies was that it allows the researcher to determine prevalence even though it is not ideal for differentiating cause and effect (Mann 2003). While there are many strong arguments for longitudinal data and calls within PSM circles (Moynihan et al. 2013) along with the possibility of following previous PSM scholars' examples of using large data sets such as the federal employee surveys which measure aspects of PSM over time, the focus was to take PSM into a different stream of literature-volunteering. Additionally, with the focus on PSM and its dimensions and volunteering intensity, neither scales are available in the same large existing longitudinal datasets. As discussed previously, the overarching impact that PSM can have on volunteers needs to be explained in a large number, cross-sectional data study in order to provide the greatest initial impact on academic investigations. Therefore, before delving into a longitudinal study, the variables needed to be examined in the present. While one can learn from the past, a baseline needs to be established first between PSM and volunteering intensity.

### **3.4 Sampling**

This dissertation focuses on individuals who have a history of volunteering through community volunteer centers and universities in the Southwest region of England and a university in Southern Italy<sup>4</sup>. The corresponding studies all focus on the southern region of UK because according to the UK government (2008) Place Survey, the southwest region of England has the largest percentage of people (27.9%) who have “over the last 12 months have given unpaid help to any groups, clubs or organizations.” Therefore, one would expect to find a larger percentage of the population who has experience in volunteering. Additionally, this area has a large percentage of retirees and students. Volunteer studies claim the massive baby boom exit from the workforce is an excellent opportunity to increase volunteers. A good access to a student population is equally important as HR departments are using CSR initiatives in their employer branding in attempts to be seen as the employer of choice by millennials.

### **3.5 Conclusion**

In conclusion, the southwest region of the UK allows for a heterogeneous sampling due to the diverse population influenced by retirement, service work and a large concentration of universities and language schools. The decision to sample the southwest region of Italy was due to a convenience sampling of a homogenous set of students. Different samples were taken and discussed in further details in Chapters 4-7. However, following a critical realist philosophy, multiple collections were taken to ensure casual findings were more than tendencies (Sayer 2000). This philosophy remains an integral part of how the research aim

---

<sup>4</sup> Depending on the where one is in Italy, constitutes where central Italy ends and where southern Italy begins. From a Tuscan view point, anything south of Florence is in the South. Hence, Rome is the beginning of Southern Italy. Whereas, someone from Calabria may view Rome as being the Central Italy as the Roman Empire emanated from its center. The author maintains that Rome is in the Southern region, because there are 11 out of 20 regions to the north of Lazio, bot including Elba and Sardinia.

influenced of the research design and assumptions about what counts as useful knowledge to practitioners and scholars, the types of data available and other stakeholders.

## CHAPTER 4- When Does Public Service Motivation Generate Dedicated Volunteers? <sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>2</sup> Parts of this chapter are based on Costello, J., Homberg, D. and Secchi, D., 2015. I have got a new attitude: When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers? *Academy of Management 2015 Conference*. Vancouver, Canada 8 August 2015.



This chapter presents the empirical findings of the first study based off the conceptual models proposed in Chapter 2. It examines the extent to which PSM of potential volunteers affects the intensity of their volunteering efforts. It falls in line with the main research question “How does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?” I do this by exploring objectives 1 (explore the impact of PSM on volunteer behavior focusing on volunteering intensity) and 2 (analyze the different dimensions of PSM attitudes to determine if they are more prevalent in different categories of volunteer organizations). Individuals may choose to volunteer for a specific cause because they identify with it, but it does not guarantee they will have a positive experience. As shown in the preceding chapter, there are arguments justifying treatment of PSM as both a mediator and moderator. Hence, this chapter will examine both options in order to make an assessment of what role the data supports. To study these relations, I examine 314 individuals’ volunteering habits in Southwest England. I found evidence that the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity when mediated by P-O fit results in a significantly increased intensity of behavior by the volunteer. However, P-O fit fails to moderate the relation. On a dimensional level, there is greater evidence supporting a direct effect of PSM on P-O fit and the ability for P-O fit to mediate the subsequent relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. These findings are important because they examine the underlying attitudes of PSM and their effect on behavior in the form of volunteering intensity.

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Volunteer managers and coordinators across sectors face the challenge of ensuring they recruit and retain volunteers whose motivation matches available volunteer opportunities. Failure to ensure a good fit can lead to disgruntlement and disappointment in the volunteer and does not contribute to the aims of the organization (Egli et al. 2014). At the most

elementary level, managers need to identify volunteers who are more alacritous in committing their time.

Volunteer motivation has been studied using a variety of approaches such as attraction-selection-attrition-paradigm (Stride and Higgs 2014), labor donation theory (Themudo 2009) and behavioral reasoning theory (Briggs et al. 2010). The majority of volunteer motivation studies show respondents rate high altruistic reasons for volunteering (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen 1991). Until recently, most studies examined volunteers in the non-profit sector. This has led to the development of multiple theoretical and conceptual models that only look at one sector (Clary et al. 1996). However, volunteering is prevalent throughout all sectors resulting in a need for an integrated theory (Handy et al. 2010b). In order to understand what motivates one to volunteer, I propose utilizing Perry and Wise's (1990) theory of public service motivation (PSM) which is the predisposition individuals have towards acting on motives that are focused on serving others regardless of sector (Perry and Hondeghem 2008).

This chapter further enhance understanding of the motivational drivers of volunteering by investigating two additional variables. First, person-organization fit (P-O fit) helps explain why an individual who has a good match with an organization will engage in behavior that benefits the organization (Ruiz-Palomino and Martínez-Cañas 2014). By extending the use of P-O fit, this chapter explores how individuals' motivation will influence their perceived match with the volunteer organization. Additionally, because individuals are drawn to certain types of volunteering activities, the potentially mediating and moderating roles of specific volunteering habits in categories such as religious, health, culture and arts, sports, public safety, advocacy and professional organizations (Rotolo and Wilson 2006a) are also explored. As discussed in Chapter 2, the literature provides (a) inconsistent evidence and (b) arguments allowing to justify both.

Second, I focus on volunteering intensity. Though volunteering has been studied extensively as a social, physical and cognitive activity (Anderson et al. 2014), few have concentrated on the intensity that a volunteer exerts (Bidee et al. 2013). While one can observe the physical effort of a volunteer that is present and actively participating, measuring the mental and emotional intensity of volunteers is a greater challenge and is rarely explored. Both external and internal levels of intensity at which one volunteers can have a direct impact on the volunteering organization's service quality. However, many studies only look at intensity based on the amount of time one volunteers (Wollebaek and Selle 2002; Hustinx et al. 2010b). Understanding the amount of intensity one exerts is important because it gives a clearer picture of the effort one exerts. Therefore, I contend that it is imperative to use an approach that allows the individual to report their perception of the intensity they exerted physically, mentally and emotionally (Rodell 2013). Studying volunteer intensity in this manner allows practitioners to have a greater understanding of which volunteers should be recruited and retained.

This study makes two contributions. First, by linking PSM to the intensity of volunteering (understood as an individual performance outcome) this study increases ones understanding of the impact the individuals' PSM level will have on their perception of effort exerted. Second, I add empirical evidence to the academic debate about using an alternative means to capture the overall intensity of volunteers (Rodell 2013). Thus, this study fills gaps in volunteer research by linking PSM to self-perceived effort as reflected in volunteering intensity. Ultimately, this study contributes to the nascent line of research linking PSM and volunteering (Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011; Lee 2012a) by providing a complementary perspective. This study responds to recent calls for “[c]omprehensive surveys of employee motivation in terms of the multiple dimensions of PSM and their volunteer activities [that] may reveal a link between PSM and prosocial behavior.” (Lee 2012a, p.117).

The findings that arise from investigating the primary research question “How does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?” show that those individuals with higher levels of PSM do exert more effort than their lower public service motivated peers. In terms of and secondary research question “When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers?” the empirical findings suggest it occurs when different dimensions are mediated by specific types of volunteering categories. This leads to two recommendations. First, those managing volunteer programs should screen potential volunteers prior to recruiting to ensure the PSM level is at the organizations minimally accepted level. Second, organizations looking to begin offering volunteer schemes through the workplace need to ensure the type of volunteering opportunity they offer are aligned with the volunteers’ PSM dimensions and P-O fit with the volunteering cause.

## **4.2 Theoretical Framework**

In this section, I examine the theoretical underpinnings of volunteering intensity, PSM and P-O fit. The dialogue builds upon the discussion in Chapter 1 and 2. The hypotheses below are directly linked to the propositions developed in the theoretical chapter (2).

### **4.2.1 Volunteering Intensity**

Volunteer intensity is conceived as being the physical, mental or emotional effort exerted by the volunteer (Rodell 2013). Mental effort is indicated by the cognitive skills the volunteer utilizes. Whereas, emotional effort is reflected by the level of empathy one expresses and emotional reaction (Eisenberg and Okun 1996). Physical effort is exhibited by the manual effort materially required. Each of the elements can stand alone or be a combination of each other. For example, a civil protection volunteer for RNLI may need to use physical force to

save a capsized refuge boat and then provide the emotional support for survivors. This concept of volunteering intensity runs counter to the volunteer studies that commonly rely on time or frequency.

In Chapter 2, Rodell's (2013) study was discussed as a more inclusive means to examine intensity. While her study did consider time as a physical aspect, she integrated measures for mental and emotional intensity. Rodell asked if the volunteers "apply their skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group" (2013, p. 1279). Skills can be physical, mental or emotional. For example, a volunteer can exert much physical effort filing sandbags to protect their community during floods. Whereas, if a counselor or psychologist volunteered their professional expertise, then the emotional support they can provide in times of crisis can also be very intense (Levy 2008). Likewise, engineers and architects who find themselves volunteering their skills in planning the rebuilding communities are engaging mental effort to form solutions (Dass-Brailsford et al. 2011).

Hence, in order to predict volunteer intensity, I turn to three constructs. First, public service motivation is used because it is a motivation theory linked to the greater good and altruistic behavior. Secondly, the mediating and/or moderating effect of person-organization fit is explored because volunteering does not happen in a vacuum. While there is evidence that PSM can lead to P-O fit, there is also evidence that P-O fit may strengthen the relation. In fact, the context in which it happens matters and can be considered using P-O fit. Finally, by looking at how volunteering differs amongst different types of volunteering services allows one to see if various aspect of PSM are more prominent in different volunteer organization settings.

#### **4.2.2 Public Service Motivation**

Increasingly PSM has shown to have a positive effect on individuals deciding to volunteer

(Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011; Lee 2012a; Lee and Jeong 2015). Specifically, Clerkin et al. (2009) found affective and normative motives such as compassion and civic duty were strong motivational drivers in Generation Y university students. However, the authors did stipulate that the findings were based on scenarios presented to the students and may not necessarily reflect a stronger preference for norm and affective based motives. Coursey et al. (2011) posit the PSM theory rests on the attraction-selection paradigm which if applied to volunteer opportunities is found in for-profit and public sector volunteer schemes. Similarly, Lee (2012) discovered differences between private sector, government and nonprofit workers and their volunteering habits- which he attributes to PSM dimensions. Nonetheless, PSM dimensions remain unmeasured in Lee (2012) and PSM levels were inferred by sector affiliation. However, in a later study Lee and Jeong (2015) would find that attraction to policy making did predict volunteering amongst South Korean civil servants.

Commonly PSM has been linked to higher performance (Bright 2007), satisfaction (Naff and Crum 1999), commitment (Chen 2012a) and working harder (Andersen and Serritzlew 2012). Those individuals with higher PSM levels are found to be the better performers within an organization (Belle 2013). Andersen and Serritzlew (2012) discovered evidence that doctors with higher levels of PSM worked harder and displayed more pro-social behaviors such as taking on disabled patients that would require more health care than patients that were healthy. This indicates that those with higher levels of PSM will exert more effort. As such, linking PSM to volunteering intensity is a natural progression to understanding its impact on behavior. If individuals with higher PSM levels perform at a higher level by working harder, then volunteers with higher PSM level should also exert a similarly high level of effort. Hence, the following is predicted:

*Hypothesis 1: PSM positively affects volunteering intensity.*

### **4.2.3. Person-Organization Fit**

When examining if there is any underlying mechanism that can account for the relationship between PSM and volunteer intensity, person-organization fit (P-O fit) may provide additional insight. P-O fit represents the match between an individual's goals, skills and values and those of the organization (Bright 2008). It also takes into account if the complementary fit is weighted towards the individual or the organization (Edwards 2008). Because volunteers may be drawn to specific causes of a particular volunteering opportunity or organization, the author argues that P-O fit is a more appropriate measurement than focusing on person-job fit. In particular, while volunteers may be doing a variety of "jobs" during their time volunteering it is the cause of the organization that may result in them performing better.

P-O fit is an important factor between attitudes and behavior in studies using PSM (Bright 2008; Wright and Pandey 2008). Indeed, high PSM levels not only directly influence work attitudes, but also indirectly through P-O fit (Kim et al. 2013b). Whereas, Bright's (2007) study showed PSM did not influence job performance amongst some US public sector employees, but he still made a case for P-O fit explaining higher job performance. While P-O fit has shown to enhance the relation between PSM and job satisfaction (Liu et al. 2013); more often, P-O fit has acted as the mediator between PSM and satisfaction or performance (Naff and Crum 1999; Wright and Pandey 2008). That is because individuals with high PSM levels directly influence their attitudes in selecting an organization in which they will have a strong P-O fit.

Poor P-O fit though may lead to a bad or negative volunteering experience (Wymer 1999). Scherer et al. (2016) have found a low P-O fit will increase the volunteers' intention to quit. However, some might argue those with low PSM levels are rarely going to seek out

employment with an organization or service that relies heavily on altruistic or intrinsic rewards. Rather, individuals who already have high levels of PSM will actively seek out organizations with whose mission and values they already feel there is a match (Caillier 2015a). Therefore, by applying the P-O fit construct in the model as a mediator, it helps explain why volunteering intensity is assumed to be higher amongst individuals with high PSM. As such, the following is predicted:

*Hypothesis 2a: P-O fit mediates the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity.*

While previous studies have examined the mediating effect of P-O fit in order to explain the relationship between the PSM predictor and the outcome variable, there have been conflicting results. It is not clear if P-O fit actually moderates instead the relation between PSM and intensity. Liu et al. (2013) avowed that P-O fit was in fact a moderator between PSM and job satisfaction. Liu et al. (2013) discovered that when PSM, P-O fit and needs-supplies were all low so was job satisfaction and when the three elements were high, that job satisfaction was high. However, this was a joint moderation model so it is hard to tell if P-O fit alone can moderate PSM's effect on intensity. Therefore, because better P-O fit has shown it can lead to increased job satisfaction, it is anticipated that it will lead to increased intensity by the volunteer due to feeling of fulfilment. Therefore, this leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2b: A better P-O fit will strengthen the relationship between PSM and volunteer intensity.*



Based on the above reasoning, I test the relation of the PSM dimensions in two models, one moderated and the other mediated by P-O fit for the outcome of volunteer behavior as summarized in the two conceptual models (figure 2.1).

### **3.2.4 Volunteering Categories**

The final element examines volunteers in specific organizations which Rotolo and Wilson (2006a) have referred to as types of volunteering categories. By understanding which specific PSM dimensions are prevalent in different volunteering categories, scholars can better understand motivational drivers.

#### *Self-sacrifice*

Volunteering in previous studies (Cnaan et al., 1996) has been seen as form of self-sacrifice. For example, Liu et al. (2008) found strong levels of self-sacrifice related to social workers job satisfaction. Social workers primarily work with youth and families; hence need a higher level of self-sacrifice and show a higher commitment to the greater good of society. Social workers low wages, long hours and often-hostile beneficiaries reflect self-sacrifice. Self-sacrifice is evidenced in many religions beliefs, such as Christianity, are formed around the concept and values of self-sacrifice (Freeman and Houston 2010) as a means of salvation and redemption. There is much evidence associated with an individual being religious or having religious affiliations and with increased volunteering (e.g. Wymer 1997; St. John and Fuchs 2002; Beyerlein and Sikkink 2008; Fényes and Pusztai 2012). PSM studies have found that individuals with high levels of self-sacrifice tend to be very religious and volunteering oriented (Anderfuhren-Biget 2012). Wymer (1997) found that individuals having the values of salvation were the greatest predictors of volunteers in religious organization. It could be argued that valuing salvation meant acknowledging one would have to make sacrifices. This is further supported when Wymer (1997) found that volunteering for religious organizations

for a sense of pleasure had a significant negative effect on volunteering. This supports linking salvation to self-sacrifice as the very term of sacrifice insinuates it is self-denial based and that there is not pleasure coupled to it. However, some scholar have found religious beliefs lead to volunteering out of a sense of compassion (Krause 2015) Yet, many religious scriptures<sup>5</sup> call upon followers of their faith to sacrifice what they have for other. Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 3a: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization mediates the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 3b: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization strengthens the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.*

### *Compassion*

Compassion has often been linked to volunteers in the health care field. The images of a compassionate nurse or doctor is a widely used visual amongst non-profit health organizations (i.e. images of Mother Theresa holding an ill person). Indeed, Planalp and Trost (2009) states organizations seeking to recruit hospice volunteers should capitalize on the message of compassion. Volunteers (themselves) on disaster mental health teams during the

---

<sup>5</sup> In Christianity Matthew 19:21- Jesus said to him, "If you wish to be complete, go and sell your possessions and give to the poor, and you will have treasure in heaven; and come, follow Me."; whereas, in Islam "You will not attain true goodness until you give of what you love"(Surah Al 'Imran, 92). However, Mahatma Gandhi would have us believe that "Gentleness, self-sacrifice and generosity are the exclusive possession of no one race or religion."

Katrina Hurricane crisis in emphasized the importance of reflective listening and hence the need to be compassionate (Levy 2008). Whereas, other studies have found that volunteers in hospice care that have suffered lose themselves do so as a means to extend compassion to other suffering (Baugher 2015). Some scholars would argue that because individuals must be able to show extreme amounts of sympathy when dealing with the passing of life, that they will be subjected to compassion burnout. However, Thieleman and Cacciatore (2014) found that volunteer's high levels of compassion and mindfulness were not affected by burnout and compassion fatigue as expected. Thus, it is projected that the PSM attitude of compassion will be most prevalent in individuals seeking to volunteer in health organizations.

*Hypothesis 4a: Volunteering in a health organization mediates the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 4b: Volunteering in a health organization strengthens the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity.*

#### *Commitment to public interest*

Perry and Wise (1990) initially postulated that commitment to a public program was due to a desire to serve a particular program and later declared commitment to the public interest as an individuals' opinion of what is of interests at a societal level (Perry 1996). Therefore, preserving ones societal history, culture and arts reflects ones commitment to their own society. This link between societal norms and the culture in the arts is reflected in educational trips to museums where are used as a means to develop a sense of citizenship amongst the

younger generations (Karwatka 1996). Howlett (2002) found that 13% of museums in the UK are run entirely by volunteers- 58% being female volunteers. On a philosophical level, it is rational to contend that volunteering for a museum is part of preserving and conserving history (Varodi et al. 2015). However, there are some scholars that contend it is a form of serious leisure where the volunteer wants a more in-depth access to items of a historical interest (Orr 2006). Taken together though, this act of volunteering in order to pass down a nation's history to the next generation has been reflected throughout times past storytelling and preserving history of humankind. As such, the PSM dimension of commitment to public interest is anticipated to motivate individuals volunteering to preserve their nation's history.

*Hypothesis 5a: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations mediates the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 5b: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations strengthens the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.*

#### *Attraction to policy making*

The PSM dimension of attraction to policy making has been one of contention amongst PSM scholars as discussed in Chapter 2. However, if one looks at the ability to directly influence policies, legislation or rules- the majority of these activities are enabled when volunteering for trade, professional or career-oriented organizations (Nesbit and Gazley 2012), whose mission it is to directly facilitate change (Hager 2014). Nesbit and Gazley (2012) found that the sector in which the volunteer was employed and the higher level of education directly

impacted volunteering for professional organizations. This was supported by Hager's (2014) study, that found the ability to influence policy (as a public incentive) was significant amongst volunteers in professional organizations (engineering and health care). This implies that those who are rising in their careers understand the need to volunteer with professional organizations as a means of influencing change in policies. However, when attraction to policy making was measured amongst union members, Davis's (2011) found an insignificant relationship between union socialization and attraction to policymaking. However, Davis did note that the measures used focused more on negative aspects of politics and politicians opposed to the ability of the union to impact policy change. Furthermore, public servants with high levels of attraction to policymaking are found to work in jobs that impact policy formation (Anderfuhren-Biget et al. 2014). Consequently, those volunteers with high levels of attraction to policy making are projected to be in organizations that can influence policies such as unions of professional work organizations.

*Hypothesis 6a: Volunteering in an organization that conducts work activities mediates the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 6b: Volunteering in an organization that conducts work activities strengthens the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.*

### *Civic duty*

Perry and Wise's (1990) civic duty dimension arose from the need to emulate the public service ethos depicted by societal norms. The US military specifically capitalizes on the

concept of doing ones civic duty to protect ones country and loved ones when recruiting an all-volunteer force (Griffith 2009). Although, in the UK civic duty is viewed more as public welfare oriented (Vandenabeele et al. 2006). Together, research has shown that the civic duty dimension reflects protecting the welfare and safety of society. Ironically, Taylor et al.'s (2015) and Ngaruiya et al.'s (2014) PSM studies about the US military Special Forces and ROTC cadets failed to investigate the PSM dimension of civic duty despite it being a core Army value<sup>6</sup> (Levy 2010). Moreover, in other cultures, civic duty may be reflected by the requirement to vote (Chakera and Sears 2006). Nevertheless, civic duty is a unique PSM dimension that captures the calling one has to protecting the public. Therefore, it is proposed that those individuals with high levels of civic duty will volunteer in organizations that focus on protection and safety of citizens.

*Hypothesis 7a: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations mediates the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 7b: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations strengthens the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.*

### *Social Justice*

Finally, social justice was originally intended by Perry (1996) as giving either voice to those minorities who lacked the ability or the voice to influence change. However, the paradigm lingers concerning if minority voices were to rise above the majority, would the majority then

---

<sup>6</sup> As part of the Army of One Campaign in the mid 90's, the US Army core values were developed in order to instill a sense of personal responsibility and social values within Soldiers. The acronym for these values is LDRSHIP and stands for: loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honesty, integrity and personal courage.

become the minority. Social justice is consistently seen as evident in advocacy organizations that strive to assist those who are underserved. Neufeind, Jiranek and Wehner (2014) found individuals' social justice dispositions have an impact on volunteering and political participation. This attitude of social justice is not only evident in the mission statements of organizations such as PETA and Greenpeace, but through their actions. Seider et al. (2011) study followed students in a Jesuit university that were part of a community service project with social justice intentions. They found that students had higher levels of PSM when measured post community service. Torres-Harding et al.'s (2014) study found that a significant percentage of students reported being involved in promotion of social justice through activities such as volunteering in social justice-related organizations. While most of the studies mentioned here concerning volunteering and social justice were centered on students, there is initial evidence that those with normative attitudes towards social equity and justice will engage in volunteer activities that advocate for others. Consequently, the PSM dimension of social justice is likely to be dominant amongst volunteers that advocate for those unable to speak for themselves.

*Hypothesis 8a: Volunteering in an advocacy group mediates the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.*

*Hypothesis 8b: Volunteering in an advocacy group strengthens the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.*

Hence, the author uses the conceptual models in Figure 2.1 and 2.2 to emphasize the overall concept between PSM, P-O fit and Volunteer Intensity.

### 4.3 Method

To test the hypotheses, I used a sample of individuals registered to volunteer at two community volunteer centers (CVC) in Dorset County in the southwest region of England. This sample allowed me to examine motivations of those who had a history of volunteering. In November 2014, an email was sent to 433 individuals and 50 volunteer organizations in the area of operation for the first CVC inviting them to take part in a web-based survey from the eastern region of Dorset. *Qualtrics* — an online professional software for survey and experimental design — was used to administer and distribute the questionnaire. However, three volunteer organizations contacted me requesting paper versions of the questionnaire for their older volunteers who stated they did not feel comfortable in using the internet. Consequently, an additional 75 (25 apiece) were sent to the volunteer organizations with a pre-paid large return envelope. A total of 226 usable responses were retained. I did a second wave of data collection in July 2015 to broaden the sample from a local to a regional level. A second email was sent to volunteers from the second CVC in the western region of Dorset. However, because one of the volunteer organizations dealt with eyesight problems, 25 large print paper versions were provided to those organizations in addition to 25 paper copies for the CVC for volunteers that did not like to correspond with them via email. This resulted in a potential sample pool of 550. Due to data protection rules within the UK, the CVC was unable to provide me with the direct list of emails. Instead, I had to rely on the organization sending out the invitation to take part in the survey and one follow-up email. Therefore, it is difficult to know exactly how many volunteers had the opportunity to take part. However, 88 completed surveys (after data screening) out of 126 were retained giving a total of 314 responses. Based on the estimates of emails and registered volunteers, 1,108 potential respondents were reached with a response rate of 28.3%.



The second wave of the survey used a unique code generated by the respondents themselves. This consisted of the first two letters of first name, first two days of birth, first two letters of the mother's first name and last two numbers from year of birth- all unknown or items not wanting to be stated were given a code of XX. However, this unique user generated code was not employed in the first round. Due to the possibility of the two samples overlapping, the surveys were crosschecked to see if any of the respondents had the same age, gender and marital status to ensure the survey was not taken twice. Using those three variables, no overlap was found. Due to the possibility that marital status could quite conceivably change, the surveys were checked again comparing age, gender and children and no overlap was identified. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality was assured. After checking unengaged responses, duplication of surveys and exclusion of those who had never volunteered, there were a total of 314 usable responses consisting of 65.9% female, 42% baby boomers, and 48.1% volunteering weekly with 53.2% without children (table 4.1).

*Table 4.1 Dorset CVC Frequency Table*

Background of Respondents ( <i>n</i> = 314)		
Variables	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Generation</b>		
Gen Y	68	21.7
Gen X	73	23.2
Baby Boomers	132	42
Silent	41	13.1
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	107	34.1
Female	207	65.9
<b>Children</b>		
Yes	147	46.8
No	167	53.2
<b>Marital</b>		
Single	72	22.9
Married	207	65.9
Divorced	23	4.3
Widowed	12	3.8
<b>Volunteer Frequency</b>		
Rarely	41	13.1
Occasionally	84	26.8
Monthly	38	12.1
Weekly	151	48.1

*Note: No answer is excluded.*

#### 4.3.1 Measurement of Main Variables

The dependent variable (DV), volunteer intensity, was measured using Rodell's (2013) scale consisting of five questions asking about physical, mental and emotional components of their volunteering effort (Appendix B). Because the cross-sectional survey consisting of self-reported data collected with the same measurement tool, the author wanted to minimize common method bias (CMB) in the questionnaire design phase. For that reason, items measuring intensity were buffered from the measured independent variables (IVs) with non-related questions about their employment history. (e.g. what sector they were employed in, how long had they been employed at that job, the person-organization fit between them and their work organization, which sector would they prefer to work in). Additionally, intensity was measured using a wider Likert scale than the IV's (i.e. 7-point instead of 5-point scale) with answers in opposite scale rating (i.e. 1 = *strongly agree* and 7 = *strongly disagree*) from the IV's to minimize CMB in the survey design. The choices described in the preceding lines follow the suggestions to reduce common method bias outlined in Podsakoff et al. (2013) in the survey design.

The main IVs were PSM, P-O fit and volunteering habits by categories. PSM was measured using Perry's (1996) 40-item scale using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree* (Appendix C). It should be noted that Perry's (1996) original PSM concept was reduced to four dimensions. However, as discussed earlier, volunteering often capitalizes on individual attitudes towards social justice and civic duty. Additionally, other researchers have used the original PSM questions that measured the six dimensions (Brewer et al. 2000). Typically, scholars have used the aggregate of PSM, but the author posit a deeper understanding of different attitudes can be discovered examining the attitudinal dimensions separately (Clerkin and Cogburn 2012; Jacobsen et al. 2014).

Secondly, respondents were asked to list the last organization that they volunteered with. They were then asked keeping their experience with that specific organization in mind to answer questions concerning their P-O fit. This was measured using Bright's (2008) 4-item scale using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree* (Appendix D). Bright's (2008) scale is a direct and supplementary measurement of the fit between individuals and organization based on the individual's perceived fit.

Finally, using Rotolo and Wilson's (2006) nine categories and informal volunteering, participants answered if they had volunteered with any of these categories within the past 12 months (0 = no, 1 = yes) (Appendix E). Because the participants were asked to write which organization specifically they were volunteering with most recently in order to understand the context of their P-O fit, a new set of dummy variables were created by coding the specific volunteer organizations into one of nine volunteer categories (Rotolo and Wilson 2006a). This allowed sorting of the data by volunteering categories.

Validity of the codes was ensured by having a representative from the Community Volunteer Service independently cipher the volunteer organizations. As the agency is responsible for matching interested volunteers with different organizations, they were deemed the subject matter expert in comprehending how volunteering organizations in their area fell into Rotolo and Wilson's (2006) categorization. Self-reported organizations were then crosschecked with the initial volunteering habits questions to ensure that participants had understood the different categories they were initially asked about. This allowed creation of a dummy variables in order to test each category against specific PSM dimensions where 0 represented not having volunteered with this specific type of volunteering subcategory and 1 = yes, volunteered with the specific volunteering activity.

### **4.3.2 Control Variables**

Controlling for social demographic is important because numerous studies have already shown that these controls play an important role amongst volunteers (Bussell and Forbes 2002). Specifically, age, gender, presence of children and volunteering frequency were controlled. Age was asked for directly. However, it was then made into dummy variables for Generation Y, X, Baby Boomers and Silent Generation (0 = no; 1 = yes). Biological gender was measured directly (0 = male; 1 = female). Across over 300 PSM studies, only one study to date questioned and addressed the mainstream acceptable practice of using biological gender (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006). Dehart-Davis et al. (2006) argues that difference feminism (which stipulates differences between sexes) dominates American academic theorizing and used to construe biological differences between sexes.

Additional controls included the presence of children (0 = no; 1 = yes). Volunteer frequency was measured originally on a scale of 0 to 5 where 0 = never volunteered. However, as this study was only looking a people who had a history of volunteering, all responses that never volunteered were deleted leaving a scale of 0 = rarely, 1 = occasionally, 2 = monthly and 3 = weekly. Due to the categorical variable operating at extremes, it was then made into a dummy variable where “Often” was a combination of weekly and monthly volunteering and “Not Often” was a combination of rarely and occasionally (0 = not often and 1 = often).

### **4.4 Analytical Strategy**

In the section below, I describe the analytical strategy that was deployed prior to analyzing the data.

#### **4.4.1. Data Screening**

In order to have a more complete understanding of the data, respondents that were missing more than 10% of continuous or interval data were automatically deleted. Additionally, cases where the dependent variable (volunteering intensity) was missing were also deleted in order to not have a false relationship with the independent variable (PSM and its dimensions) (Hair 2010). This would also allow me to avoid cases with missing data being listwise deleted during my regression (Lynch Jr and Willett 2003) thus showing an incomplete representation of the data. Missing data mechanism that are observed at random (OAR) were considered “non-ignorable.” PSM dimensions fall within this category. If ignored, then bias could lead to erroneous results (Hair 2010). For surveys that were missing one or two answers from each PSM dimension, I imputed by using replacement values. This entailed using median substitution within the same dimension as recommended by Lynch (2003) for each case. Median was used instead of mean because it does not distort for the missing value (Hair 2010). For example, if there are eight items pertaining to self-sacrifice and one item was not answered, median replacement was chosen because of the Likert data (Lynch 2003).

If someone chose not to answer one dimension, but answered the others, than the dimension answers were imputed through the median replace missing values. This value was taken for the column. Those surveys that were missing complete responses for the DV (volunteering intensity) were automatically deleted.

I then ran box plots to identify any univariate outliers. There were no extreme variations as the Likert 1-5 and 1-7. However, it was an opportunity to check for unengaged responses. This was easy to identify in the case of PSM and P-O fit as there were reversed item questions. For example, if someone answered all “1’s” for P-O fit, it was evident that the respondent was unengaged due to the reverse coded question. Likewise, PSM dimensions

also had questions that were reverse coded appearing sporadically within the section of the survey.

In order to detect any normality issues, I assessed skewness and kurtosis. Ensuring normal distribution is important due to “normality is required to use in the F and t statistics” (Hair 2010, p. 70). Attraction to policy making and social justice had some items that were negatively skewed, but aside from APM5 (3.990) and SJ1 (2.438) were in acceptable range for kurtosis under 2.20. However, SS6 (4.880) suffered from a leptokurtic curve. All three of these items would later be eliminated during the confirmatory factor analysis, which is important as non-normal data can inflate the chi square (Kenny 2015).

#### **4.4.2. Factor Analyses**

Despite Coursey et al. (2008) conducting a psychometric verification of the PSM scales for volunteers, I elected to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood and Promax rotation prior to running a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). There is debate amongst scholars about the exploratory versus confirmatory analysis (Hair 2010). In this case, the EFA was used to explore how the variables were related and grouped prior to the CFA. Byrne (2009) states “EFA is designed for the situation where the links between observed and latent variables are unknown and uncertain” (p. 5).

This was deemed necessary not because I am using a dataset of British opposed to American volunteers, but due to returning to Perry’s (1996) original scales which had not been confirmed with the original six dimensions. As notated in section 1.3.4, there are disputes concerning PSM’s measurements. While some authors may argue that the structure is known (four PSM dimensions), numerous PSM studies have had different dimensions

retained. Additionally, Coursey et al. (2008) were using volunteers deemed elite by their long hours spent volunteering; whereas, my volunteers were more varied.

Due to low reliabilities and items cross loading into different factors during my initial EFA analysis, the PSM dimensions commitment to public interest and social justice were eliminated in the EFA (table 4.2). Additionally, P-O Fit item 2 also exhibited low reliability and was eliminated. This led to a meritorious Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) of .825 which implies the data is well-suited for a factor analysis. There was an acceptable goodness of fit (Chi-Square= 171.455, df= 99) and the total variance explained was 54.74%. Items from the EFA were then carried forth into a CFA.



Table 4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

		Pattern Matrix <sup>a</sup>					
		Factor					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Volunteering Intensity	VOL1	.845					
	VOL2	.827					
	VOL3	.861					
	VOL4	.844					
	VOL5	.890					
P-O Fit	POV1			.771			
	POV3			.749			
	POV4			.863			
Civic Duty	CD1				.882		
	CD2				.603		
	CD5				.731		
Self-Sacrifice	SS1		.535				
	SS2		.827				
	SS3		.837				
	SS4		.467				
Compassion	COMP3					.704	
	COMP6					.646	
	COMP7					.347	
Attraction to policy making	APM3						.546
	APM4						.661
	APM5						.313

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

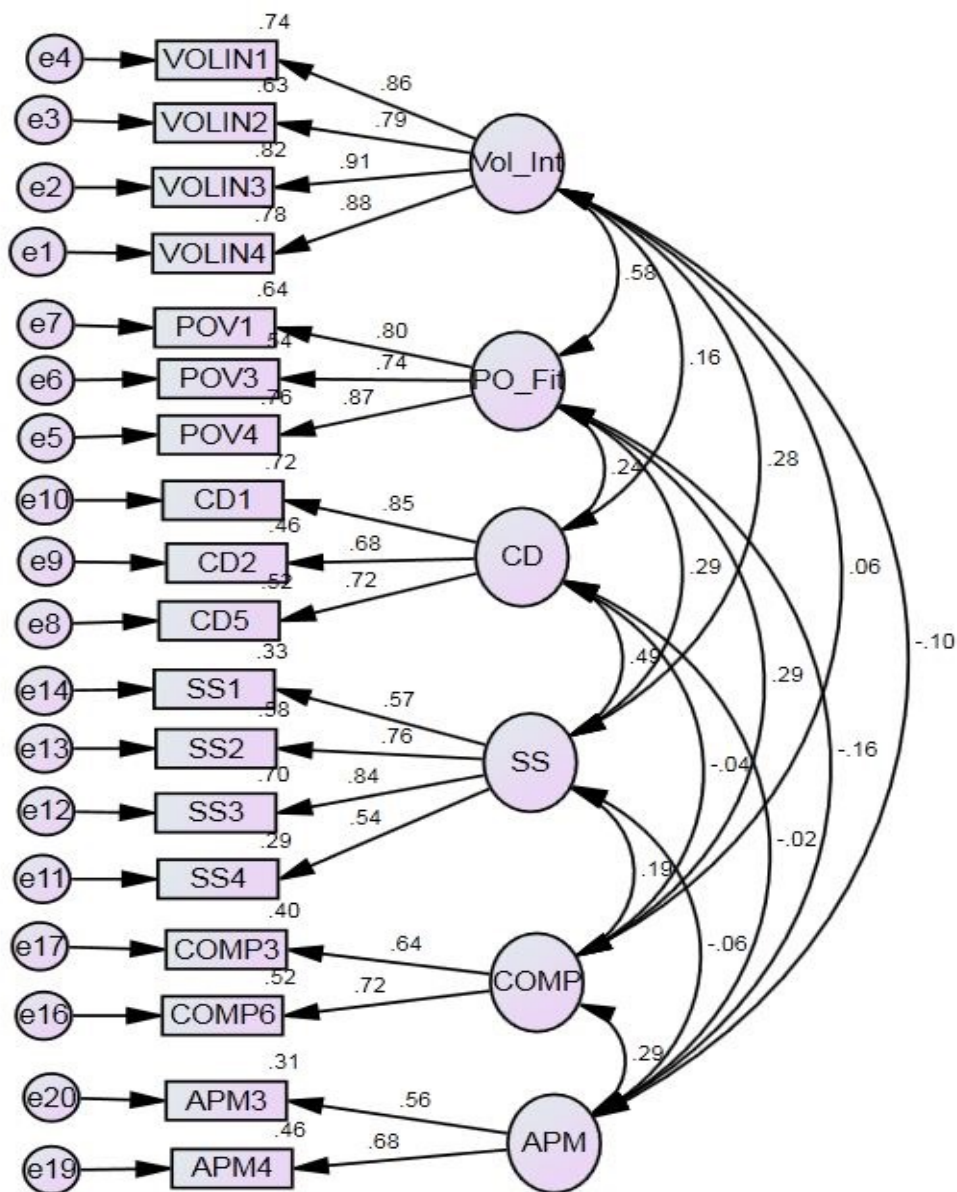
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Note: The EFA was used as a means to prepare the variables for a cleaner CFA. The DV and IV variables were included because the EFA is able to identify problematic variables early on. In this case, one item of P-O fit (POV2) needed to be deleted.

A CFA was then conducted in order to determine “whether the factors of a scale are associated in the manner proposed by the researcher” (Carter 2016, p.732). Additional items in the compassion dimension and attraction to policy making were further deleted due to an attempt to attain an acceptable level of goodness of fit (Chi-square (183.263)/DF (degrees of freedom) (120) = 1.527, CFI (comparative fit index) = .973, RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) = .041, PCLOSE (*p* of Close Fit) = .896) (figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized)



Note: VOL\_INT= Volunteering Intensity, PO\_Fit= Person-Organization Fit, CD= Civic Duty, SS= Self-Sacrifice, COMP= Compassion, APM= Attraction to Policy Making

When Perry (1996) ran his initial CFA on the six dimensions, he dropped social justice and civic duty. Similarly, in this data set social justice was cross loading with self-sacrifice in the EFA and hence social justice was deleted. However, in this data set civic duty was retained. Due to commitment to public interest suffering from low cross loadings in the EFA and not carried forward, I could not test corresponding hypotheses for commitment to

public interest (6A/B) and social justice (8A/B). The exclusion of certain PSM dimensions from the analysis occurs frequently in this area of studies. In particular, measuring the dimension attraction to policymaking seems to be difficult (Ritz 2011), yet in this data set commitment to public interest failed to attain adequate levels of reliability.

For the remaining dimensions carried forward to the analysis, the composite reliability are self-sacrifice = .779, civic duty = .796, compassion = .632, attraction to policy making = .552, volunteer intensity = .919 and P-O fit is .845 (table 4.3). Unlike Cronbach's Alphas, CR takes into account measurement error (Byrne 2010). Some scholars argue that reliability measures under .80 should be considered as insufficient, yet though those in the region of .70 may be fine if dealing with new areas of research (Nunnally 1978). However, Cho and Kim (2015) and Lance et al. (2006) argue that this misconception is often perpetuated by researchers who need to incorporate the purpose of the research. For the purpose of PSM research, low reliability measures are a common issues with PSM dimensions with many retaining dimensions in the .60 range (Taylor 2007; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013; Chen et al. 2013).

Amongst the dimensions, the average variance extracted (AVE) of the PSM dimensions (excluding civic duty) are experiencing convergent validity issues as they do not meet Hair et al.'s (2010) suggested threshold of  $>.50$ . Carter (2016) recommends returning to the EFA to ensure the items did not have high cross loadings. As shown in Table 4.2. - this is not the case. However, because the different dimensions of measuring different motives and attitudes, it was not expected to correlate. This reflects Perry's (1996) study that showed no correlation amongst the three motives. However, when examining discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) is less than AVE and meets Hair et al. (2010) suggested criteria. The maximum reliability (MaxR) (table 3.3) also shows each variable is within acceptable standards.

Table 4.3- Composite Reliability

	Correlations															
	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR (H)	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Intensity	0.919	0.740	0.338	0.935	5.86	.981	<b>(.861)</b>									
2. P-O Fit	0.845	0.646	0.338	0.953	4.07	.659	.523**	<b>(.804)</b>								
3. Compassion	0.632	0.463	0.085	0.639	4.00	.588	.058	.184**	<b>(.598)</b>							
4. Civic Duty	0.796	0.568	0.235	0.961	3.26	.829	.144*	.223**	-.036	<b>(.754)</b>						
5. Self-Sacrifice	0.779	0.477	0.235	0.967	3.20	.649	.246**	.252**	.157**	.416**	<b>(.691)</b>					
6. APM <sup>a</sup>	0.552	0.383	0.082	0.969	3.64	.687	-.076	-.100	.163**	-.012	-.008	<b>(.544)</b>				
7. Gender					.66	.475	.138*	.097	.187**	-.165**	-.060	.000				
8. Baby Boomer					.42	.494	.103	.054	.096	-.049	-.035	.056	.109			
9. Married					.66	.475	.226**	.179**	.153**	.063	.031	.083	-.007	.354**		
10. Children					.53	.500	.149**	.189**	.166**	.179**	.141*	-.018	-.055	.140*	.416**	
11. Frequency (Often)					.60	.490	.329**	.304**	.120*	.098	.165**	-.109	.074	.179**	.102	.189**

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note: Cronbach Alphas are shown in parenthesis

CR= Composite reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, MSV= Maximum Shared Variance, MaxR(H)=Maximum Reliability, S.D. = Standard Deviation, a= Attraction to Policy Making

In order to detect the presence of common method bias (CMB), two tests were employed. First, the Harman's single factor was used. By constraining items to one factor, only 22.99% of variance was explained. Thus, this shows support that CMB is probably not an issue. Secondly, a Common Latent Factor (CLF) method using the zero-constrained test was used. This compares the shared variance across items as being significantly different than zero by doing a chi-square difference test between the unconstrained and constrained model. The minimum was achieved in the unconstrained model: Chi-square (125.862), Degrees of freedom (102),  $p = .055$ . In the constrained model, all the paths from the CLF were constrained to zero and the minimum was achieved: Chi-square (183.263), Degrees of freedom (120),  $p = .000$ . This resulted in the groups being significantly different at the model level ( $p < .001$ ) implying there is a lot of shared variance. Consequently, the CLF was imputed into factor scores.

Before creating composite variables, a configural invariance test was run between men and women. This allows one to check that both groups understood the questions in a similar manner. There was an acceptable level of goodness of fit (Chi-square (329.853)/DF (240) = 1.374, CFI = .962, RMSEA = .035, PCLOSE = .999). Consequently, there is configural invariance.

Finally, in order to detect multicollinearity, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was calculated for the independent variables. Each independent variable was regressed on the others in order to detect VIF. There were no incidents where the VIF was over 5 which would have indicated that multicollinearity is very likely a problem. Rather, the highest VIF was 1.250.

#### **4.4.3 Estimation Strategy**

PSM itself is being treated as an umbrella concept of its various dimensions. PSM had a Cronbach's Alpha of .705. This was calculated in SPSS after the final dimensions (compassion, self-sacrifice, civic duty and attraction to policy making) were carried forward. Within the literature review, evidence arose that the dimensions may be prominent in certain categories of volunteering (e.g. civic duty and public safety, self-sacrifice and religious or youth organizations, compassion and health organizations and attraction to policy making and work activities). The section below firsts tests the direct effect. Secondly, I proceed to mediation analysis of P-O fit. Finally, I continue on to the moderation analysis.

#### **4.5 Findings**

The data analysis uses ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to test hypothesis 1. For hypotheses involving mediation and moderation, Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro package for SPSS was used. Mediation was tested through bootstrap samples with 1000 iterations and 95% confidence levels and variables were mean center for products, heteroscedasticity-consistent standard errors and OLS/ML confidence intervals (Hayes 2013).

Hypothesis 1 expects PSM to positively affect volunteer intensity. PSM proved to be a good predictor of volunteer intensity ( $\beta = .342$   $p < .01$ ) and the model accounted for 18.3% of the variance in volunteer intensity (table 4.4, model 2). Those that volunteered weekly or monthly as measured by 'often' showed a greater impact on volunteering intensity. Being female and married also were significant. While these results provide initial support for my hypothesis that PSM positively affects volunteering intensity, when the dimensions were regressed collectively, but not as PSM (model 7), self-sacrifice was the only dimension that was significantly related to volunteering intensity in the presence of the other PSM dimensions. Whereas, amongst the individual dimensions on their own, civic duty was also

significantly related to volunteering intensity (model 3). This lends support that the variables do perform separately on their own and will be further examined below.



Table 4.4 Regression model for PSM- Unstandardized Coefficients

	Volunteer Intensity													
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	5.062***	.126	3.919***	.421	4.582***	0.241	5.267***	.354	4.112***	.274	5.365***	.303	4.563***	.477
Gender	0.253*	.109	0.273*	.108	0.293**	0.11	0.266*	.111	0.277**	.107	0.253*	.109	0.311**	.110
Baby Boomers	-.075	.113	-.057	.112	-0.057	0.112	-.075	.113	-.047	.110	-.070	.113	-.035	.111
Married	0.415***	.126	0.398***	.124	0.411***	0.125	0.421***	.126	0.420***	.123	0.426***	.126	0.438***	.124
Children	.041	.114	-.009	.115	0.002	0.115	.049	.115	-.008	.113	.036	.115	-.012	.114
Frequency	0.606***	.108	0.570***	.107	0.583***	0.108	0.611***	.108	0.541***	.107	0.592***	.109	0.530***	.108
PSM			0.342**	.121										
Civic Duty					0.148*	0.063							.056	.068
Compassion							-.056	.091					-.085	.092
Self-Sacrifice									0.307***	.079			0.292***	.087
APM <sup>a</sup>											-.083	.075	-.076	.075
R-squared	.161		.183		.176		.162		.200		.164		.209	
Adjusted R-Squared	.148		.167		.160		.146		.185		.148		.185	
Observations	F(5)=11.837, p <.001		F(6)=11.436, p <.001		F(6)=10.911, p <.001		F(6)=9.908, p <.001		F(6)=12.823, p <.001		F(6)=10.076, p <.001		F(9)=8.902, p <.001	
	314		314		314		314		314		314		314	

Note: \*\*\* p <.001, \*\* p <.01, \* p <.05, † p <.10; a = Attraction to Policy Making

#### 4.5.1 Test of Mediation Effects

Multiple regressions were used to test for a potential mediating effect of P-O fit on the relationship between PSM and volunteer intensity. Hypothesis 2a suggests P-O fit mediates the relationship between PSM and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of PSM on intensity, first P-O fit was regressed on PSM ( $\beta = .330, p < .001$ ) and was significant (table 4.5). Second, intensity was regressed on PSM and P-O fit with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .632, p < .001$ ). Lastly, total effect of PSM ( $\beta = .343, p < .01$ ) on intensity was significant and the model accounted for 18.3% of the variance in volunteer intensity. The total effect was derived from the combined direct and mediated effects (Hayes 2013). Consequently, the indirect effect of PSM on volunteering intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .2090, s.e. = .0626$ , Bootstrap Lower Limits for Confidence Intervals (BootLLCI) = .1117, Bootstrap Upper Limits for Confidence Intervals (BootULCI) = .3529). For robustness, it was double-checked with the Sobel test (normal theory test for z score test if  $c - c' = /0$ ) ( $Z = 3.622, s.e. = .058, p < .001$ ) (Baron and Kenny 1986) which supports the conclusion made using the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Table 4.5 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator

Variable	DV: PO-fit		DV: Intensity		Total Effect	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	2.506***	0.284	2.33***	0.472	3.919***	0.421
Gender	.144*	0.073	0.182†	0.099	0.273†	0.108
Baby Boomers	-0.071	0.075	-0.013	0.101	-0.057	0.112
Married	0.172*	0.084	.289*	0.113	.399**	0.124
Children	0.077	0.083	-0.058	0.104	-0.009	0.115
Frequency (often)	.338***	0.077	.356***	0.101	.570***	0.108
PSM	.330***	0.081	0.134	0.112	.343**	0.121
P-O Fit			.632***	0.077		
R-squared	.176		.331		.183	
	F(6)=10.902, p<.001		F(7)=21.664, p<.001		F(6)=11.436, p<.001	
Observations	314		314		314	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5)

Following the same method for deriving indirect effects as the full model, dimensions were tested in sub samples of specific types of volunteer categories. This was done by selecting the specific volunteer category and filtering the data in SPSS so that only volunteers who had a history of volunteering that specific volunteering activity - i.e. with a religious organization - were tested. This resulted in different numbers of observations for each test. This split sample analysis allows one to observe how the different PSM dimensions affected volunteer behavior when they volunteered in different conditions.

Hypothesis 3a expected P-O fit to mediate the relation between self-sacrifice and intensity when volunteering in a religious or youth organization. A dummy variable combining the two types of organizations was created (0= never volunteered with, 1= volunteered with). Using this dummy variable as a filter so that only respondents that had a history of volunteering in either organization were selected, the direct effect of self-sacrifice is the estimated difference in intensity between volunteers with the same level of self-sacrifice, but who differ by one unit in reported P-O fit. P-O fit was regressed on self-sacrifice ( $\beta = .199, p < .01$ ) and was significant (model 1, table 4.6). Second, intensity was regressed on self-sacrifice and P-O fit with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .471, p < .01$ ). Lastly, total effect of self-sacrifice ( $\beta = .262, p < .05$ ) on intensity was significant. The model accounted for 21.3% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The indirect effect of self-sacrifice on volunteer intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .094, s.e. = .051, \text{BootLLCI} = .0208, \text{BootULCI} = .2472$ ). The Sobel test ( $Z = 2.02, s.e. = .047, p < .05$ ) supports the conclusion that Hypothesis 3a is supported.

However, there is also evidence that civic duty is a prominent dimension amongst volunteers in religious or youth-oriented organizations (model 4, table 4.6). While model 4 did not completely support full mediation, the indirect effect of civic duty on volunteer intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .072, s.e. = .042, \text{BootLLCI} = .0109, \text{BootULCI} = .1865$ ). Additionally, the Sobel test ( $Z = 1.816, s.e. = .040, p < .10$ ) provides evidence that civic duty may be mediated by P-O fit in this particular circumstance. While this was not hypothesized or even alluded to in the literature, this will be addressed in the discussion.

Table 4.6 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator (Religious and youth organizations) (robust standard errors in parentheses)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect
Constant	2.885*** (.230)	2.839*** (.557)	4.197*** (.422)	3.794*** (.251)	3.405*** (.665)	5.336*** (.309)	2.839*** (.399)	3.818*** (.714)	5.389*** (.550)	3.029*** (.226)	3.196*** (.599)	4.746*** (.322)
Gender	.142 (.099)	.237 (.174)	.303† (.166)	.128 (.102)	.219 (.169)	.284† (.165)	.071 (.100)	.268 (.184)	.307† (.185)	.170† (.099)	.218 (.164)	.306† (.160)
Baby Boomers	.089 (.110)	.045 (.176)	.087 (.174)	.085 (.115)	.038 (.176)	.081 (.178)	.063 (.108)	.050 (.176)	.085 (.181)	.115 (.108)	.037 (.174)	.096 (.176)
Married	.151 (.120)	.282 † (.166)	.353* (.163)	.183 (.121)	.297 † (.169)	.390* (.167)	.137 (.113)	.306† (.164)	.392* (.165)	.133 (.119)	.283† (.171)	.351* (.169)
Children	.195 (.098)	-.090 (.132)	.002 (.123)	.205* (.097)	-.088 (.137)	.016 (.129)	.171† (.094)	-.054 (.138)	.041 (.130)	.196* (.099)	-.087 (.137)	.013 (.130)
Frequency (often)	.355*** (.104)	.420** (.143)	.587*** (.154)	.384*** (.104)	.433** (.144)	.629*** (.148)	.403*** (.101)	.424** (.146)	.646 (.149)	.394*** (.103)	.442** (.142)	.643*** (.148)
P-O Fit		.471** (.163)			.509*** (.156)			.553*** (.147)			.512*** (.152)	
Self-Sacrifice APM	.199** (.067)	.168 (.125)	.262* (.117)		-.079 (.066)	-.048 (.087)	-.088 (.089)					
Compassion							.189† (.099)	-.207 (.145)	-.102 (.155)			
Civic Duty										.141* (.063)	.009 (.081)	0.081 (.089)
R-squared	0.228	0.291	0.213	0.193	0.28	0.183	0.216	0.293	0.183	0.214	0.278	0.183
F	(6)=9.924 <i>p</i> <.001	(7)=9.289, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=8.021, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=6.753 <i>p</i> <.001	(7)=8.753, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=6.107, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=6.520 <i>p</i> <.001	(7)=9.579, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=6.280, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=9.311 <i>p</i> <.001	(7)=8.708, <i>p</i> <.001	(6)=6.375, <i>p</i> <.001
Observations		167			167			167			167	

Note \*\*\* *p* <.001, \*\* *p* <.01, \* *p* <.05, † *p* <.10; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5)

In hypothesis 4a, individuals with high levels of compassion volunteering in health organizations are expected to lead to higher levels of P-O fit resulting in an increase in intensity. Due to the low number of observations (90), only one control (Frequency) was included). This follows the recommendation by Hair (2010) that small sample sizes can make the statistical test insensitive. P-O fit was regressed on Compassion ( $\beta = .129, p = .426$ ) and not was significant (model 1, table 4.7). Second, intensity was regressed on Compassion and P-O fit with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .606 p < .01$ ). Lastly, total effect of Compassion ( $\beta = -.029, p = .900$ ) on intensity was not significant. The model accounted for 11.6% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The indirect effect of Compassion on volunteering intensity at 95% confidences interval bootstrap is not significant ( $\beta = .078, s.e. = .099, \text{BootLLCI} = -.0937, \text{BootULCI} = .3200$ ) and the Sobel test ( $Z = .7135, s.e. = .109, p = .476$ ) supports the conclusion that Hypothesis 4a is not supported.

Whereas there was no support for compassion in health organizations, there was evidence that P-O fit mediated the relation between other PSM dimensions and volunteering intensity as displayed in model 2-3, table 4.7. The indirect effect of self-sacrifice on volunteering intensity at 95% confidences interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .180, s.e. = .106, \text{BootLLCI} = .0130, \text{BootULCI} = .4386$ ). Additionally, the Sobel test ( $Z = 1.652, s.e. = .109, p < .10$ ) provides evidence that self-sacrifice may be mediated by P-O fit. The indirect effect of civic duty on volunteering intensity at 95% confidences interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .176, s.e. = .192, \text{BootLLCI} = .0311, \text{BootULCI} = .3864$ ). Furthermore, the Sobel test ( $Z = 1.924, s.e. = .092, p < .05$ ) provides evidence that civic duty may be mediated by P-O fit. In both situations, this was not hypothesized, this will be addressed in the discussion.

Table 4.7 Regression model for Compassion and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator (Health Organizations) (robust standard errors in parentheses)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect
Constant	3.149*** (.613)	3.395** (1.264)	5.304*** (.908)	2.612*** (.373)	2.596** (.881)	4.049*** (.602)	2.718*** (.368)	3.050** (1.036)	4.717*** (.618)	4.226*** (.479)	2.976** (1.124)	5.502*** (.544)
Frequency (Often)	.547** (.170)	.468* (.208)	.799** (.265)	.541** (.167)	.483* (.206)	.784** (.262)	.504** (.159)	.8464* (.210)	.773** (.253)	.565*** (.171)	.466* (.204)	.804** (.269)
P-O Fit		.606** (.239)			.557* (.268)			.613** (.232)			.598* (.241)	
Compassion	.129 (.161)	-.107 (.232)	-.029 (.233)									
Self-Sacrifice				.324** (.167)	.169 (.186)	0.349* (.158)						
Civic Duty							.287 ** (.096)	-.034 (.116)	.142 (.149)			
APM										-.160 (.144)	.005 (.129)	-.091 (.165)
R-squared	0.134	0.26	0.116	0.192	0.265	0.152	0.243	0.258	0.129	0.148	0.257	0.12
F	(1)5.740 $p < .01$	(2)3.905, $p < .01$	(1)=4.536, $p < .01$	(1)=11.921, $p < .001$	(2)6.347 $p < .001$	(1)7.4522, $p < .001$	(1)10.571, $p < .001$	(2)4.580, $p < .01$	(1)4.689, $p < .01$	(1)5.764, $p < .01$	(2)3.909, $p < .01$	(1)4.482, $p < .01$
Observations	90			90			90			90		

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5); due to small sample size, controls were not included in order to prevent over specification of the model (over specified models lack degrees of freedom).

In hypothesis 6a, individuals with high levels of attraction to policy making volunteering in work organizations will lead to higher levels of P-O fit resulting in an increase in intensity. Following the arguments presented by Hair (2010) concerning small sample size in the discussion above, it was elected to drop all control variable. P-O fit was regressed on attraction to policy making ( $\beta = -.043, p = .587$ ) and not was significant (model 1, table 4.8). Second, intensity was regressed on attraction to policy making and P-O fit with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .838, p < .001$ ). Lastly, total effect of attraction to policy making ( $\beta = -.063, p = .606$ ) on intensity was not significant. The model accounted for .006% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The indirect effect of attraction to policy making on volunteer intensity at 95% confidences interval bootstrap is not significant ( $\beta = -.036, s.e.= .065, \text{BootLLCI} = -.1857, \text{BootULCI} = .0848$ ). The Sobel test ( $Z = -.5309, s.e.= .067, p = .5955$ ) supports the conclusion that Hypothesis 6a is not supported.



Table 4.8 Regression model for Attraction to Policy Making and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator (work or professional organizations) (robust standard errors in parentheses)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV: P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect
Variable	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff
Constant	4.217*** (.283)	2.654*** (.888)	6.19*** (.581)	3.505*** (.406)	1.842* (.856)	4.674*** (.603)	3.223*** (.589)	2.601** (.799)	5.347*** (.779)	3.746*** (.368)	2.383** (861)	5.5301*** (.580)
P-O Fit		.838*** (.179)			.808*** (.182)			.852*** (.195)			.840*** (.187)	
APM	-.043 (.078)	-.063 (.122)	-.099 (.157)									
Self-Sacrifice				.166 (.122)	.210 (.144)	0.344* (.171)						
Compassion							.211 (.150)	-.059 (.194)	.121 (.205)			
Civic Duty										.095 (.110)	.01 (.151)	0.089 (.168)
R-squared	0.003	0.312	0.006	0.027	0.327	0.05	0.037	0.31	0.005	0.014	0.309	0.005
F	(1)=.2986 $p=.5866$	(2)=11.063, $p<.001$	(1)=.529, $p=.470$	(1)=1.852, $p=.178$	(2)12.656 $p<.001$	(1)4.052, $p<.01$	(1)1.978, $p=.164$	(2)12.1778, $p<.001$	(1).3488, $p=.557$	(1).7449, $p=.391$	(2)10.838, $p<.001$	(1).2814, $p=.598$
Observations	69			69			69			69		

Note \*\*\*  $p <.001$ , \*\*  $p <.01$ , \*  $p <.05$ , †  $p <.10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5); due to small sample size, controls were not included in order to prevent over specification of the model (over specified models lack degrees of freedom).

Finally, hypothesis 7a predicts individuals with high levels of civic duty volunteering in civic or public safety organizations will exert high levels of intensity. Due to the small number of observations ( $n=62$ ), it was decided to drop all control variables for this model. P-O fit was regressed on civic duty ( $\beta = .326, p < .001$ ) and was significant (model 1, table 4.9). Second, intensity was regressed on civic duty and P-O fit with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .568, p < .05$ ). Lastly, total effect of civic duty ( $\beta = .270, p < .10$ ) on intensity was not significant. The model accounted for only 5.5% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The indirect effect of civic duty on volunteer intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .185, s.e. = .090, \text{BootLLCI} = .0279, \text{BootULCI} = .3869$ ). The Sobel test ( $Z = 1.994, s.e. = .093, p < .05$ ) further supports the conclusion that Hypothesis 7a is supported.

However, although not hypothesized, the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity is also mediated by P-O fit amongst volunteers in civic or public safety organizations (model 2, table 4.9). There is a 3% difference between the two models accounting for variance. Although, there is no evidence that the other PSM dimensions are mediated in this particular model.

Table 4.9 Regression model for Civic Duty and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator (Civic or public safety organizations) (robust standard errors in parentheses)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	DV:P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV:P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV:P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect	DV:P-O Fit	DV: Intensity	Total Effect
Constant	2.972*** (.313)	3.195*** (.969)	4.884*** (.421)	3.342*** (.456)	2.393** (.805)	4.180*** (.764)	2.73** (.843)	4.215* (1.810)	6.100*** (1.593)	3.827*** (.542)	3.419* (1.326)	5.8117*** (.826)
P-O Fit		.568* (.240)			.535† (.275)			.689*** (.196)			.625* (.238)	
Civic Duty	.326*** (.081)	0.085 (.116)	0.270† (.121)									
Self-Sacrifice				.236† (.127)	.369 (.233)	0.495* (.205)						
Compassion							.352† (.212)	-.305 (.356)	-.062 (.412)			
APM										.085 (.146)	-.043 (.205)	0.011 (.233)
R-squared	0.21 (1)16.12	0.153 (2) 3.405	0.055 (1)4.089	0.057 (1)3.467,	0.198 (2)10.254	0.085 (1)5.848	0.077 (1)2.747	0.169 (2)8.786	0.001 (1).0229	0.005 (1).3402	0.149 (2)3.861	0 (1).0021
F	6, $p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p = .0675$	$p < .001$	$p < .01$	$p = .103$	$p < .001$	$p = .882$	$p = .562$	$p = .027$	$p = .964$
Observations	62			62			62			62		

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5); due to small sample size, controls were not included in order to prevent over specification of the model (over specified models lack degrees of freedom).

In terms of mediation, there is initial evidence that PSM and a number of its dimension tested do have a direct effect on P-O fit. Consequently, PSM and dimensions civic duty and self-sacrifice can cause an effect on P-O fit. In turn, P-O fit in different volunteering categories is mediating the relation between PSM and its dimensions and volunteering intensity. With strong support for the mediating effect, I now turn towards examining the potential moderating effect.

#### **4.5.2 Test of Moderation Effects**

Variables were mean centered and corrected for heteroscedasticity- consistent standard errors. Bootstraps were calculated with OLS/ML confidence intervals. Conditioning was done through Mean and +/- standard deviation from Mean. Moderation is followed up with simple slopes plotting.

Hypothesis 2b suggests P-O fit strengthens the relationship between PSM and volunteering intensity. The interaction effect (PSM x P-O fit) is not significant ( $\beta = -.071, p = .739$ ). The model, accounted for 33.2% of the variance in volunteering intensity (table 4.10). However, P-O fit is significantly related to volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .635, p < .001$ ). When looking at the conditional effects (or slopes) of PSM on volunteering intensity at the values of P-O fit, there was no significance at low levels ( $\beta = .188, p = .359$ ), average ( $\beta = .142, p = .212$ ) or high levels ( $\beta = .095, p = .530$ ) of PSM. The values for the moderator is the mean and plus/minus one standard deviation from mean (Hayes 2013). Additionally, the moderator value defining the Johnson-Neyman significance region showed there was no statistical significance transition points within the observation. Johnson-Neyman Technique provides the ranges of the moderators at which it has significant effect on X (Hayes 2013). With no

support for P-O fit strengthening the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity,  
Hypothesis 2b is rejected.

Table 4.10 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator

Volunteer Intensity		
	Unstandardized Coefficients	
	coeff	Std. Error
(Constant)	5.375***	0.135
Gender	0.179	0.114
Baby Boomers	-0.009	0.102
Married	.289*	0.114
Children	-0.055	0.102
Frequency (Often)	.353***	0.097
P-O Fit	0.635***	0.114
PSM	0.142	0.113
PSM X P-O Fit	-0.071	0.212

R-squared = .332  
F(8)=11.119,  $p < .001$   
Observations= 314

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5).

At a dimensional level, Hypothesis 3b suggests when volunteering for a religious or youth oriented organization, P-O fit strengthens the relationship between Self-Sacrifice and volunteering intensity. The interaction effect (SS x P-O fit) is not significant ( $\beta = .193$ ,  $p = .284$ ). The model, accounted for 29.9% of the variance in volunteering intensity (model 1, table 4.11). However, there is a significant conditional effect of Self-Sacrifice on volunteering intensity at the high values of P-O fit ( $\beta = .267$ ,  $p < .10$ ). However, the Johnson-Neyman Technique showed no statistical significance transition points.

The remaining PSM dimensions, though not hypothesized, were tested to see if perhaps they were significant when volunteering for a religious or youth organization (model 2-4, table 4.11). Despite there being strong evidence that P-O fit is significantly related to volunteering intensity across there PSM dimension when volunteering for a religious or youth

oriented organization, there were no significant interaction effects. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b is rejected as there is no support for P-O fit strengthening the relation between Self-Sacrifice and volunteering intensity when volunteering for a religious or youth oriented organization.

Table 4.11 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator (Religious and youth organizations)

	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	5.322***	0.195	5.295***	0.204	5.323***	0.193	5.330***	0.199
Gender	0.241	0.176	0.266	0.183	0.213	0.165	0.214	0.169
Baby Boomers	0.018	0.173	0.051	0.177	0.041	0.176	0.042	0.179
Married	0.288†	0.168	0.283	0.175	0.294†	0.169	0.291†	0.172
Children	-0.105	0.137	-0.036	0.147	-0.086	0.138	-0.089	0.138
Frequency (Often)	0.420**	0.143	0.411**	0.157	0.455***	0.139	0.429**	0.147
P-O Fit	0.472**	0.167	0.556***	0.157	0.512***	0.151	0.520***	0.151
Self-Sacrifice (SS)	0.139	0.124						
SS X P-O Fit	0.193	0.18						
Compassion (COMP)			-0.201	0.148				
COMP X P-O Fit			-0.124	0.238				
Civic Duty (CD)					0.013	0.084		
CD X P-O Fit					-0.097	0.149		
APM <sup>a</sup>							-0.050	0.090
APM X P-O Fit							-0.103	0.179
R-squared	0.299		0.296		0.281		0.281	
	F(8)= 10.557, p<.001		F(8)= 11.171, p<.001		F(8)= 8.745, p<.001		F(8)= 10.072, p<.001	
Observations	167		167		167		167	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5).



Hypothesis 4b suggests when volunteering for a health organization, P-O fit strengthens the relationship between Compassion and volunteering intensity. The interaction effect (COMP X P-O fit) is not significant ( $\beta = -.108, p = .728$ ) (model 1, table 4.12). Nor is there any significant conditional effect of Compassion on volunteering intensity at the values of P-O fit at low levels ( $\beta = -.056, p = .836$ ), average ( $\beta = -.137, p = .586$ ) or high levels ( $\beta = -.217, p = .588$ ). The model, accounted for 29.9% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The remaining PSM dimensions were checked and found to have no significant interaction effect or conditional effect (models 2-4, table 4.12). Even the P-O fit variable had limited significant impact on volunteering intensity. Therefore, there is no support for P-O fit strengthening the relation between compassion and volunteering intensity when volunteering for a health organization and Hypothesis 4b is rejected.

Table 4.12 Regression model for Compassion and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator (Health organizations)

	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	4.905***	0.322	4.821***	0.309	4.874***	0.307	4.769***	0.311
Gender	0.476	0.307	0.571	0.373	0.483	0.338	0.572†	0.333
Baby Boomers	0.223	0.22	0.228	0.216	0.228	0.225	0.248	0.226
Married	0.283	0.246	0.315	0.242	0.297	0.249	0.249	0.251
Children	-0.032	0.265	-0.107	0.271	0.006	0.234	0.017	0.253
Frequency (Often)	0.358	0.264	0.394†	0.219	0.423†	0.221	0.454*	0.215
P-O Fit	0.569*	0.261	0.450	0.310	0.401†	0.236	0.383†	0.228
Compassion (COMP)	-0.137	0.250						
COMP X P-O Fit	-0.108	0.308						
Self-Sacrifice (SS)			0.270	0.194				
SS X P-O Fit			0.070	0.307				
Civic Duty (CD)					0.020	0.132		
CD X P-O Fit					-0.218	0.235		
APM <sup>a</sup>							-0.037	0.141
APM X P-O Fit							0.237	0.225
R-squared	0.299		0.355		0.355		0.346	
	F(8)= 4.708, $p < .001$		F(8)= 6.540, $p < .001$		F(8)= 4.973, $p < .001$		F(8)= 4.950, $p < .001$	
Observations	90		90		90		90	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a = Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5).

Hypothesis 6b suggests when volunteering for a work organization, P-O fit strengthens the relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity. The interaction effect (APM x P-O fit) is not significant ( $\beta = -.113, p = .757$ ) as shown in table 3.12. Although, P-O fit was significant amongst volunteers in a work organization ( $\beta = .847, p < .001$ ). The model, accounted for 31.3% of the variance in volunteering intensity (model 1, table 4.13). When looking at the conditional effects (or slopes) of attraction to policy making on volunteering intensity at the values of P-O fit, there was no significance at low levels ( $\beta = .015, p = .966$ ), average ( $\beta = -.062, p = .635$ ) or high levels ( $\beta = -.139, p = .473$ ) of attraction to policy making. Indeed, none of the remaining PSM dimensions were significant when volunteering for a work organization, although P-O fit was significantly related to volunteering intensity (model 2-4, table 4.13). Therefore, there is no support for Hypothesis 6b and it is rejected.

Table 4.13 Regression model for Attraction to Policy Making and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator (work or professional organizations)

	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	5.827***	0.109	5.803***	0.111	5.8445***	0.11	5.825***	0.112
P-O Fit	.847***	0.182	.817***	0.185	.830***	0.187	.833***	0.196
APM <sup>a</sup>	-0.062	0.13						
APM X P-O Fit	-0.113	0.365						
Compassion (COMP)			0.003	0.19				
COMP X P-O Fit			0.334	0.242				
Self-Sacrifice (SS)					0.224	0.172		
SS X P-O Fit					-0.207	0.324		
Civic Duty (CD)							-0.001	0.181
CD X P-O Fit							0.072	0.263
R-squared	0.313		0.332		0.334		0.311	
	F(3)=8.237, $p < .001$		F(3)=9.050, $p < .001$		F(3)=8.445, $p < .001$		F(3)=6.234, $p < .001$	
Observations	69		69		69		69	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5); due to small sample size, controls were not included in order to prevent over specification of the model (over specified models lack degrees of freedom).

Finally, Hypothesis 7b suggests when volunteering for a public safety oriented organization, P-O fit strengthens the relationship between Civic Duty and volunteering intensity. The interaction effect (CD X P-O fit) is significant ( $\beta = -.369, p < .10$ ) albeit with a negative coefficient implying that the P-O fit weakens the relation between civic duty and volunteering intensity. The model, accounted for 19.3% of the variance in volunteering intensity (model 1, table 4.14). When looking at the conditional effects (or slopes) of civic duty on volunteering intensity at the values of P-O fit, it was only significant at low levels ( $\beta = .331, p < .05$ ), but not average ( $\beta = .082, p = .473$ ) or high ( $\beta = -.167, p = .377$ ) of civic duty. The remaining PSM dimensions, though not hypothesized, were tested to see if perhaps they were significant when volunteering in a public safety organization (model 2-4, table 4.14). As reflected in previous tables, P-O fit significantly impacts volunteering intensity. However, amongst volunteers at civic or public safety organizations, self-sacrifice was significantly related to volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .419, p < .05$ ) and furthermore had significant conditional effects at low ( $\beta = .618, s.e. = .301, p < .05$ ) and average ( $\beta = .419, s.e. = .209, p < .05$ ) levels of self-sacrifice. This calls into question if other dimensions that measure different elements may have similar abilities to influence behavior. However, as there is no support for Hypothesis 7b as findings suggest P-O fit weakens the relationship, it is rejected.

Table 4.14 Regression model for Civic Duty and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a moderator (Civic or Public Safety Organizations)

	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	5.958***	0.116	5.887***	0.144	5.882***	0.160	5.855***	0.132
P-O Fit	0.523*	0.228	0.711**	0.281	0.504*	0.255	0.625**	0.248
Civic Duty (CD)	0.082	0.113						
CD X P-O Fit	-0.369†	0.199						
Compassion (COMP)			-0.319	0.436				
COMP X P-O Fit			-0.366	0.611				
Self-Sacrifice (SS)					0.419*	0.209		
SS X P-O Fit					-0.294	0.406		
APM <sup>a</sup>							-0.062	0.242
APM X P-O Fit							-0.169	0.501
R-squared	0.193		0.190		0.208		0.151	
	F(3)=8.622, $p < .001$		F(3)=6.834, $p < .001$		F(3)=6.842, $p < .001$		F(3)=3.407, $p < .001$	
Observations	62		62		62		62	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (4.5); due to small sample size, controls were not included in order to prevent over specification of the model (over specified models lack degrees of freedom).

Overall, there was no support that P-O fit strengthened the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. At the dimensional level, P-O fit (when volunteering in a specific volunteering subcategory) only exhibited the ability to influence the relation between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity. However, it did not strengthen the relationship as hypothesized, but rather weakened it at high levels. Consequently, there was more support for P-O fit acting as a mediator, opposed to a moderator. In the next section, I will discuss my findings and implications of the study.

## **4.6. Discussion and Conclusion**

### **4.6.1. Discussion**

This study examined the connection between PSM and volunteer intensity while taking the mediating and moderating effect of P-O fit into account. The findings suggest PSM is a factor that does positively affect volunteering intensity. This study extends previous work by Clerkin et al. (2009) who also found PSM was a motivational driver to volunteer. However, in contrast to Clerkin et al. (2009) who studied the incidence of volunteering, I go a step further linking PSM and its dimension to the effort the individual perceived they exerted when volunteering.

Furthermore, the findings of intensity mirror the findings of Andersen and Serritzlew's (2012) study of the outcome variable work effort. They found Danish physiotherapist worked harder to provide services to disabled patients because of an increased sense of commitment to public interest. Similarly, I found those volunteers that exhibited a high commitment to delivering services to others did so at a higher level of effort.

The findings provide evidence that the P-O fit one experiences while volunteering plays a crucial role in connecting PSM with volunteer intensity. This is particularly important as there is an increase of mandatory volunteer initiatives in school and even governments.

The UK government now requires jobseekers who have not found a job within a certain amount of time to volunteer or risk losing their unemployment allowance (James 2014). This changing face of volunteering means there will be an increased burden faced by volunteer coordination managers when potential volunteers- who must do so because of mandated programs, but may not necessarily have the drive to exert any effort or intensity- approach them. This is where the findings of PSM dimension in specific volunteering categories can benefit managers.

When dimensions and different volunteering categories were examined, there proved to be much support for what literature implied amongst key dimensions. Self-sacrifice positively influenced volunteering intensity in the presence of P-O fit when one was volunteering in a religious or youth organization. The finding related to self-sacrifice support similar findings from Liu, Ningyu and Xiaomei study of social workers (2008) and worker satisfaction. It could be that the satisfaction is equally reflected in volunteers with a well-developed sense of self-sacrifice and hence more effort is exerted. However, Liu et al. (2008) also found social workers had high levels of commitment to public interest. In this study, it is not known if those who reported their most recent volunteering experience volunteered in youths programs was a result of a personal connection such as having children involved in those programs. Yet, the findings did not suggest that having children was significantly related to the P-O fit. Nor, is it known if the respondents considered themselves religious. However, individuals that volunteered frequently, female and married did support high levels of self-sacrifice, better P-O fit and higher reported volunteering intensity.

When examining the moderation model though, self-sacrifice was not strengthened by P-O fit and only low levels of self-sacrifice were significant as a conditional effect of self-sacrifice on volunteering intensity at the value of P-O fit. This suggests that P-O fit does not strengthen or weaken, but is a direct effect of PSM. Overall, high levels of self-sacrifice and



volunteering intensity provide support to scholars who have found a link between religious affiliations and increased volunteering (Wymer 1997; St. John and Fuchs 2002; Beyerlein and Sikkink 2008; Fényes and Pusztai 2012).

Compassion did not directly influenced P-O fit nor volunteering intensity when the individual was volunteering for a health organization. One possible explanation for the lack of total effect could be attributed to the frequency in which those with a high measurement of compassion volunteer. It is possible that an increase of time spent volunteering leads to a faster burnout (Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres 2010). In my model, the frequency at which respondents volunteered was often (weekly or monthly). Scholars have noted that volunteers in health organizations can frequently face death and dying and thus can be negatively affected (Santos 2010). Consequently, the increased frequency of volunteering for a health organization has the potential for increased burnout amongst volunteers. Though studies are in conflict whether this can lead to compassion fatigue (Slocum-Gori et al. 2013; Thieleman and Cacciatore 2014). Additionally, the findings do not reflect Andersen and Kjeldsen's (2013) study that found nurses have high levels of compassion.

Attraction to policy making failed to be directly related to volunteering intensity in both the mediation and moderation model. Indeed, it appears that the problems that attraction to policy making has had in numerous PSM studies (Kim 2009, Ritz 2011, Chen et al. 2013), has been replicated in this study. Though the literature provides evidence that rational motives motivate individuals to volunteer in work organizations such as unions (Kerrissey and Schofer 2013), no evidence was found. There is evidence that attraction to policy is highest amongst those who are more politically involved (Anderfuhren-Biget 2012). Therefore, the possibility should be explored in the following study.

Civic duty directly influenced P-O fit when the individual was volunteering with a civic or public safety organization. Again, P-O fit mediated the relation. When P-O fit was looked at as a moderation, the interaction effect was negative. This infers that P-O fit weakens the relation between civic duty and volunteering intensity. Specifically, the conditional effect took place at low levels of P-O fit. One explanation could be that this dimension exposes the volunteers to trauma not often experienced in other types of volunteering. In the presence of low P-O fit, this does make sense why the findings are in the opposite direction then hypothesized. Volunteer service members in the US reserves are finding themselves on multiple deployments in harm's way (Griffith 2009) and recent rioting against police in American cities can impact volunteers that focus on civic and public safety. It could also be that the societal shift from recognizing the positive contributions that volunteer firefighters, emergency first responders or search and rescue members provide as essential services in communities (Haski-Leventhal et al. 2011) is quickly shifting to the opposite spectrum. However, in the case of the mediation model (which was fully mediated), high levels of civic duty lead to a direct effect on P-O fit which further led to an increase in volunteering intensity. This supports the idea that civic duty is not a passive state and requires action within one's community (Janoski et al. 1998).

Yet, there were unexpected findings that were not hypothesized that deem further discussion. When examining volunteers at religious or youth organizations, civic duty was mediated by P-O fit. Civic duty, as conversed in 2.2.4, is a norm-based motive that reflects the society or community the individual belongs in. Despite the UK being a secular society, it is apparent that preserving religious beliefs and developing youth might be seen as a norm. This could explain why civic duty was a prevalent PSM dimension amongst volunteers in religious and youth organizations. However, civic duty was also prominent amongst volunteers in health organizations. With the aging population in the UK, one could potentially

argue that volunteering in health organizations will not only become the norm, but also has developed as a norm-based aspect of British society due to the emphasis of becoming a better citizen. Consequently, it is recommended that looking at the millennial generations to see if citizenship education is the cause of a sense of civic duty.

Amongst other non-hypothesized findings, albeit not entirely unexpected, was self-sacrifice being a key PSM dimension in volunteers in health organizations and civic and public safety organizations. Without a doubt, there is always some form of self-sacrifice on the part of the volunteer whether it is their time or energy which could be spent doing something else as highlighted by (Cnaan et al. 1996) in section 2.2.4. As Wright et al. (2016) maintained, self-sacrifice is a common theme amongst volunteers. However, in this case, self-sacrifice was primarily significant in mediation models. This implies that the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity is reliant on P-O fit as a mediator.

Other significant finding in this chapter relate to the effects of frequency, gender and being married when examining PSM and its dimensions across mediated and moderated models. It could be that females feel a stronger sense of societal acceptance and recognition which may be an additional factor influencing the commitment and frequency of the volunteers. This supports findings by DeHart-Davis et al. (2006) who found females had higher levels of compassion and attraction to policy than their male counterparts did. Equally, it could be that there is a greater sense of PSM when one volunteers on a monthly or weekly basis. However, volunteers who commit much of their time are at risk of experiencing the underlying effects of burnout (McBride et al. 2011). One must ask if deeply or highly motivated individuals could pose significant challenges to management if they feel the organization is moving in a direction different then they believe it should be going (O'Leary 2010). In the case of an individual that is volunteering because it is mandated, they can quickly act like the guerilla employee that seeks to undermine the organization below the line

of sight of the leadership (O'Leary 2010). However, in the case of this study- volunteering frequently (weekly or monthly) was often positively associated with increased volunteer intensity. Finally, being married was significantly related to volunteering intensity when looking at PSM overall. This mirrors the findings by Rotolo and Wilson (2006b) that found women can indeed influence husbands when it comes to volunteering. The same finding is replicated in my study which shows when P-O fit mediates the relationship between PSM and volunteering intensity, being a female and married matters!

#### **4.6.2 Limitations**

Despite these findings, there are several limitations concerning the combination of data collection, social desirability bias and potential alternative measure of volunteering intensity. Print and web surveys do not always provide the same results nor attract the same kind of respondents (Huang 2006). As the print surveys were handed out in person by the volunteer organizations, the web survey did not benefit from the same humanizing social interface and may have led to more missing data (Tourangeau et al. 2003). Mix mode surveys also have found that web survey may produce less positive response to scale questions (Dillman et al. 2009).

Second, some researchers would argue that self-reported measures are subject to social desirability bias especially in situations where one is being asked questions directly opposed to filling out a self-administered survey (Tourangeau and Yan 2007). However, research has shown that individualistic cultures are less likely to over-report answers (Kim and Kim 2013). In the case of self-reported PSM measures, Kim and Kim's (2015) study found while there was no evidence of social desirability bias between gender, it does exist for those in their 20's. Regardless, only the individual knows their personal level of exertion and therefore are the only ones who can determine if they applied mental, physical or

emotional effort. Lastly, I did not compare the frequency individuals reported, the time reported and the volunteering intensity within a model. The premise was to move away from the more traditional ways of measuring volunteering intensity as time or frequency. As a result, this is tested in a later chapter (6) in which I compare various means of measuring intensity.

#### **4.6.3 Conclusion**

In conclusion, the purpose of this chapter was to explore the extent to which PSM affects volunteer intensity in order to begin answering the primary research question and secondary research question 1. Specifically, I wanted to understand when public service motivation generates dedicated volunteers. This was done by analyzing the different dimensions of PSM attitudes to determine if they are more prevalent in different categories of volunteer organizations. This research confirms PSM can play an important role in volunteer motivation research. The empirical evidence establishes P-O fit as an important mediator in this relation. When there is a good P-O fit between the volunteer and organization, the intensity of which the volunteer engages in increases. Furthermore, the study has implications for volunteer coordination managers in assisting them when motivating volunteers to choose volunteer opportunities that might provide a better P-O fit between the individuals PSM motivations and the volunteer category. Lastly, by having a better understanding how the different PSM dimension are significant in different volunteer categories, volunteer coordination managers will be able to be pre-screen individuals wishing to volunteer, hence, facilitating a better environment for a good P-O fit. Overall, the findings add another layer to the complex motivational processes at play in volunteering environments.

In the following chapter, I will seek to investigate if different generational cohorts exhibit different PSM motivators when volunteering for similar causes.

**CHAPTER 5 -Call of Duty: Does Millennials' Attitudes Towards Public Service Make Them Volunteers That Are More Committed?<sup>3</sup>**

---

<sup>3</sup> Parts of this chapter are based on Costello, J., 2015. Call of Duty: Does Millennials' Attitudes Towards Public Service Make Them Volunteers That Are More Committed? *European Academy of Management 2015 Conference*. Warsaw, Poland 19 June 2015.

This chapter presents the empirical findings of the second study based off the conceptual models proposed in Chapter 2. It furthers the discussion by addressing whether a specific generation attitudes might make them more committed to exerting greater volunteering intensity. Individuals who are part of different generational cohorts may consider different motivators. Additionally, it takes findings from Chapter 4 one-step further by comparing within the population sampled if differences exists between homogenous and heterogeneous samples. Consequently, this chapter investigates the link between public service motivation (PSM) and volunteering intensity (effort) amongst 550 millennials at two universities in the UK and Italy. This relation is mediated by person-organization (P-O) fit, i.e. the values compatibility between an individual and an organization. Results showed the relation between PSM and its dimensions social justice and self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity are mediated by specific person-organization fit in different types of volunteer organizations. These findings challenge HR academics' assumptions that millennials are motivated to join organizations due to pro-social attractiveness.

## **5.1 Introduction**

Millennials grew up in an educational environment where volunteering was used as citizenship education in order to produce more pro-social oriented individuals. Some scholars have found that due to this increased importance on volunteering while in school, millennials tend to volunteer more often than other generations (McGlone et al. 2011). Yet at the same time, when the first *Call of Duty* video game was released in 2003, the forefront of the millennials (Generation Y, born between 1982 and 1994) were entering the workforce during an unstable period of international conflict in Iraq and Afghanistan. Winograd and Hais (2011) call millennials the civic generation as they enter adulthood in a time of conflict where such events and societal change have greatly influenced this generation's civic ethos. Now

that the tail end of the millennials (Generation Z, born between 1995-2012) are entering the workforce, they are demanding different working conditions from their older predecessors (Twenge 2010). However, millennials collectively (Hershatler and Epstein 2010) express their vocal concern about the well-being of the planet and mankind and seek out jobs that give them freedom to still actively contribute to their communities (Feldmann 2014). In particular, Ng and Gossett (2013) found that millennials specifically seek out work environments conducive to higher ethical standards and social responsibility.

As such, human resource departments are increasingly highlighting their corporate social responsibility programs as a means to recruit millennials (Wozniak 2014). For governments and companies that use volunteer schemes or corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs as a means to entice millennial recruitment, managers need to ensure they are meeting their intrinsic needs if they wish to retain them in the workforce. This has given a completely new spin on recruiting and retaining employees who have a history of actively volunteering, albeit often mandated through school and government programs (Sarre and Tarling 2010; Strickland 2010). Not only do managers need to show their programs produce added value to the organization, but they also have to capitalize on the volunteering experience being one that complements the employees motivation. Therefore, managers need to be able to understand how millennials' volunteer motivation can lead to a volunteer opportunity that will result in the largest amount of intensity or effort exerted. Understanding this intertwined relationship will allow managers to better strategically plan their volunteer schemes as part of recruitment.

Consequently, this chapter continues the exploration and discussion of how PSM affects behavior of individuals and expanding it to include how generational attitudes towards PSM may make them more committed volunteers. It does so by investigating if different generational cohorts (in this case Millennials) exhibit different PSM motivators when



volunteering for similar causes. This chapter contributes to academic discussions linking three key areas: PSM, Person-Organization (P-O) fit and volunteer intensity. First, by isolating the perceived behavior (in this case the individuals' volunteering intensity the last time they volunteered and linking PSM to it) it increases our understanding of how PSM translates into productive, goal-oriented behavior. Secondly, academics debate why individuals engage in volunteering (Rodell 2013). Two competing explanations have been put forward. On the one hand, following compensation theory volunteers may not have their intrinsic needs fulfilled by their job, so they seek it out elsewhere in forms of volunteering (Nesbit and Gazley 2012). On the other hand, some scholars argue that their job may be so rewarding, that the happiness spills over into community involvement or volunteering (Lyubomirsky et al. 2005). This work investigates this problem by focusing on person-organization fit (P-O fit) between the individual and volunteer organization. As shown in chapter 4, there is more evidence supporting P-O fit as mediating the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. Third, volunteer studies have struggled with measuring intensity by means other than reported time spent volunteering (Wymer 1999). Accordingly, while Chapter 4 found evidence that PSM lead to volunteering intensity, I continue to extend the analysis by seeing if it performs similarly when using a generation that is not noted for being others-oriented.

The following sections discuss the theoretical frameworks of volunteer intensity, PSM and P-O fit as how it relates to Millennials, upon which hypotheses are presented. The next section covers the methodology of the study and the underlying data set of 550 students at a southwestern British and Italian university respectively. Finally, I present findings from the empirical study with conclusions about the implications and further research on the debate about PSM as a driver of volunteering behavior.

## **5.2 Theoretical Framework**

The following literatures stems from the discussion in Chapters 1-2 and 4, but focuses only on studies relating to millennials.

### **5.2.1 Volunteering Intensity and Millennials**

If volunteering occurs when individuals recognize an internal drive to satisfy attitudes of social responsibility (Ellis 2005), then volunteering intensity reflects the effort the individual exerts (Rodell 2013). For the Millennial, who spends more time online than any other generation (Nielsen 2015), there is an increased chance of engaging in social micro-volunteering as a volunteer asking friends (often referred to as friendsourcing) to perform a task (Brady et al. 2015). This time spent on micro, crowdsourced or cyber volunteering could literally be minuscule compared to traditional volunteering. Ellis (2012) avers that micro-volunteering is most commonly done using a smartphone- which are also the primary type of phones preferred by millennials (Nielsen 2015). Therefore, relying on time as a measure of effort does not give researchers a clear picture of the amount of effort the millennial volunteer exerted.

Rodell (2013) examined volunteering intensity amongst employees and used age as a control variable (mean= 24.54, s.d. = 7.03 insinuating a large portion of her sample were millennials). She found that age was significantly related to volunteering intensity. Unlike other effort scales such as De Cooman et al.'s (2009) Work Effort Scale (WESC) that assesses general work effort (i.e. decoupled from volunteering) based on three dimensions: direction, intensity and persistence, Rodell (2013) focused only on intensity. Direction and persistence tend to be long ranging behaviors in a work environment; whereas, a volunteering environment can often be transient or one-off experiences. Rather, Rodell's (2013) five-question scale measures the individual's perceived exerted effort when engaging in volunteer activities. The benefit of her approach is that the individuals understand what level of effort

they exerted based on own levels of competence and it can be used in the increasing trend amongst universities to offer 5-minute micro volunteering on campus.

### **5.2.2 Public Service Motivation and Millennials**

PSM (as discussed in earlier chapters) helps explain the individuals need to make a contribution to society through service delivery (Braender and Andersen 2013). Studies have found that the younger an individual is, that they tend to have higher levels of altruism as measured through self-sacrifice and compassion (Camilleri 2007). Previous studies have demonstrated that PSM is well suited to examining volunteer motivations (Mesch et al. 1998; Houston 2006; Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011). In terms of PSM and volunteering, though Mesch et al. (1998) found that PSM levels were not a significant factor amongst stipend AmeriCorps younger volunteers who were motivated to volunteer in order to improve their opportunities for a better career- 1998 would represent the tail end of Generation X. They did find evidence that PSM for older volunteers led to a greater retention. However, Ward's (2014a) longitudinal study that tracked and followed up on the AmeriCorps volunteers in 1999, 2003 and 2007- he found that the longer one volunteered, PSM would increase. This may infer that those younger AmeriCorps volunteers in 1998, may have increased their PSM if they continued volunteering.

In terms of PSM, volunteering and millennials, Clerkin et al. (2009) used a scenario based experiment with undergraduates. They found that those who had higher levels of PSM chose to volunteer opposed to donate or maintain the status quo. While this study implies PSM will lead to increased propensity to volunteer, it also raises the issues of how different dimension affect decision to volunteer as will be discussed later in the chapter. Taylor and Clerkin (2011) later continued their investigation into PSM and students political activity (campaigning, contributing, communal activity and political discourse) which are often volunteer activities. PSM was significantly related to political activity overall and all

dimensions aside from self-sacrifice were significantly related to communal activities (i.e. working with other to deal with community issues, forming a group to solve community issues, etc.). This implies that there is further evidence of millennials PSM influencing their desire to volunteer.

A commonality amongst the studies was that PSM was a determinant of volunteering. While time was used in the studies mentioned above, I maintain that if individuals with high PSM levels are more apt to volunteer, then they would exert more effort than their lower PSM colleagues would. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1: PSM positively affects volunteer intensity amongst millennials.*

### **5.2.3 Person-Organization Fit and Millennials**

An individual may believe that they have high levels of compassion and would therefore enjoy volunteering with a health organization more so than in an organization that focuses lobbying for political change. This perceived congruency is referred to as person-organization (P-O) fit. As discussed in previous chapters, P-O fit stipulates a relation exists between the individual's personality characteristics and the operating organizational climate and their shared values goals and norms (Kristof 1996). While limited studies have explored P-O fit amongst volunteers, other scholars have focused P-O studies on millennials. Firfiray and Mayo's (2016) study revealed that millennials opposed to Generation X were more likely to report a greater sense of P-O fit when searching for jobs. Whereas, Cho et al. (2013) found that millennials perceive a higher P-O fit amongst organizations that use social media in a similar manner as themselves. In terms of volunteering opportunities, organizations could seek to leverage millennials perceived P-O fit.

In the last 20 years, volunteering has increasingly been about the individuals' interest and needs (Anheier and Salamon 1999). Anderfuhren-Biget et al. (2014) argues that PSM can cause individuals to seek out organizations because they feel it will match their own values

system. If P-O fit has not been measured directly, some scholars suggest sector choice can serve as a proxy for organizational fit (Christensen & Wright, 2011). As volunteers come from various sectors and volunteer in a variety of services, sectors could be divided into subsets for a more accurate reflection of P-O fit by sector proxy.

As discussed in chapters 1 and 2 and discovered in Chapter 4, individuals with high levels of PSM tend to volunteer with greater intensity. By incorporating the organization that the volunteer chose to exert their effort with a clearer understanding of how the individual dimensions of PSM may lead millennials into selecting different types of volunteering categories.

In Chapter 4, there was limited evidence of volunteers' PSM being an important element in work and professional organizations. Consequently, this chapter incorporates Perry et al. (2008a) proposed categories of volunteering in religious, school or educational, political, human services, national or local organizations and informal volunteering. This is further extended with Rotolo and Wilson's (2006) additional categories: health oriented organizations, youth development, public safety and cultural organization which either had evidence of PSM or were not tested. As an individual who has a high sense of attraction to policy making is not necessarily going to have a high sense of self-sacrifice (Anderfuhren-Biget et al. 2014), each PSM dimension may influence millennials to choose a volunteer organization based on perceived fit.

### *Self-sacrifice*

Self-sacrifice is best represented by the willingness to forgo tangible reward for the intangible rewards of giving or helping others (Perry 1996). Many religions are deeply rooted in the idea of self-sacrifice (Marvin and Ingle 1996). American youth are increasingly engaging religious mission trips which some scholars say account for an increase in religious-based volunteer

work (Beyerlein et al. 2011). On the other hand, the concept of self-sacrifice is not limited to only religious organizations. Studies have shown that families that engage volunteer tourism report a deepening family relationship as a result of this self- or family sacrifice of their vacation when helping orphanages and schools (Palmer et al. 2007). Lastly, studies have found that often youth that volunteer to help other youth have done so due to their own previous problems (Haski-Leventhal et al. 2008). However, when Clerkin et al. (2009) looked at self-sacrifice amongst students, there was no significance. Yet, other studies have found self-sacrifice to be positively significant to volunteering (Coursey et al. 2011; Lee and Brudney 2015). Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2a: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts religious, school or youth activities mediates the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.*

### *Compassion*

Compassion is displayed when one shows sympathy or empathy to others (Anderfuhren-Biget et al. 2014). When natural disasters strike, young professional medical students are often at the forefront volunteering their talents (Reyes 2010). In addition to supplementing medical treatment to the injured, the volunteers needed to tap into their sense of compassion to assist those needing psychological support (Reyes 2010). Some universities now require that medical and nursing students must undergo compassion training as part of the curriculum of improving medical care (Richards et al. 2009). However, compassion is not limited to those in the health field. Millennials often equate health care and health related issues as key areas in which one should focus on improving sustainability (Hume 2010). Clerkin et al. (2009) found that the compassion dimension was positively related to volunteering amongst students. Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2b: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts health activities mediates the relation between compassion and volunteering intensity.*

### *Commitment to Public Interest*

Public interest, if viewed as an ideal (Schott et al. 2015), are those actions that are seen as expected from governments. Therefore, individuals that have a commitment to public interest are striving towards a higher level than what are the mainstream norms. Studies examining community support organizations show that its commitment to public interest through its influence within the community is what earns it a strong, positive reputation (Knutsen and Chan 2015). Many millennials have partaken in obligatory volunteering in the UK school's curriculum (Tonge et al. 2012). A sense of being a global citizen is emphasized in the UK education system through the Global School Partnership scheme (Lewis 2009). This connects UK schools with schools in developing countries as a means of encouraging youth to be a more "responsible global citizen". Though some scholars have argued if mandating citizen education is even the primary means of influencing future civic participation (Lopes et al. 2009). Ironically, Tonge's study with the Youth Citizenship Commission (2009) study found the majority of the students were unaware that they had even received the compulsory education. Often citizen education includes visits to museums in order to broaden the horizons of young people and the role their country has played in impacting lives (Karwatka 1996). Studies have shown people are motivated to volunteer in cultural or arts organizations because they tend to be more community minded or focused than others (Deery et al. 2011; Holmes and Slater 2012). Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2c: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts culture, arts and education activities mediates the relation between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.*

#### *Attraction to policy making*

Attraction to policy making is characterized by those who want to make a difference through political change (Anderfuhren-Biget et al. 2014). Millennials have a stronger support for government bailouts and more positive perceptions of government than the older generations (Winograd and Hais 2011). Millennials' active use of interactive social media for political action is steadily on the rise (Robinson et al. 2010) as exhibited by their political engagement in President Obama's 2008 elections which used social media as the main means to increase charitable giving and political action (Cogburn and Espinoza-Vasquez 2011). Conversely, while the USA has seen an increase of political participation, Clerkin et al. (2009) found that attraction to policy making was negatively related to students volunteering. However, there is evidence in other studies that attraction to policy making leads to volunteering (Lee and Jeong 2015) and PSM is positively related to volunteering when volunteering for a political organization (Ertas 2014). European countries have seen a decrease in millennials' political interactions (Moeller et al. 2014). However, while Moeller et al.'s (2014) study concluded a decrease in voting amongst Dutch millennials, civic messaging (including reposting political adverts or participating in online political discussion, etc.) was actually higher. Whereas in the UK, Keating et al. (2010) found an increase of youth participating in political activities. Together, these arguments suggest the following hypothesis:



*Hypothesis 2d: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts political activities mediates the relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteer intensity.*

### *Civic Duty*

Civic duty falls in line with citizen education classes that are being taught in the primary and secondary schools in the US, Europe, Russia, Columbia and Australia (Torney-Purta et al. 2001). Armed forces have long used patriotism as a means of recruiting those intrinsically motivated to protect and serve their country (Burk 1984; Padilla and Laner 2002; Ryan 2012). In times of peace, those who volunteer to join the military often do so to answer an occupational calling that comes with its own extrinsic rewards such as free college education, on-the-job training and enlistment bonuses (Griffith 2009). However, during times of war, motivation becomes more intrinsic with patriotism and commitment to protect the public are more prevalent (Ben-Dor et al. 2008). Post 9/11 many Millennials volunteered to join organizations to protect their homeland due to affective motives such as a sense of duty (Griffith 2009). It is millennials' sense of civic duty that influences them to strive to reach the ideal of protecting their community. Indeed, Clerkin et al. (2009) found that the civic duty dimension was also positively related to volunteering amongst students. Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2e: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts public safety mediates the relation between civic duty and volunteering intensity.*

## *Social Justice*

Advocacy for special interests was previously fulfilled by governments (Perry and Wise 1990). However, the roles of private, public and non-profit sector have increasingly blurred which have led to advocacy being performed by more organizations in across sectors (Doherty et al. 2014). Millennials have grown up in a time where service learning projects in schools emphasis the importance of diversity and standing up to inequalities (Cavallero 2013). As a result, they are more likely to engage in social justice issues such as protesting and demonstrating physically and online (Broido 2004). Winograd and Hais (2011) akin millennials to previous civic generations that were embedded in social reform. However, Keating et al.'s (2010) UK government longitudinal study stipulates that there has been a decrease in attitudes towards equality and society. Therefore, the PSM dimension of social justice aligns with volunteer programs championing causes, standing up for the rights of others and mission statements that focus on doing one's part in society. These types of programs are often prevalent in human services organizations. Together, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2f: Millennials volunteering in an organization that conducts advocacy activities mediates the relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.*

## *Groups Differences*

Finally, Anheier and Salamon (1999) stipulates voluntary activities vary across countries with culture and historical differences. More notably, the make-up of society and the manner in which different countries "educate" its youth on becoming a good citizen could lead to societies fostering different social norms. The heterogeneous society is used to greater social

upheaval and diversity (Thornton and Clark 2010). Anderson and Paskeviciute (2006) argue that those in heterogeneous societies are more apt to have stronger interest in politics. They found that linguistic heterogeneity does impact volunteering in less developed countries. However, Thornton and Clark (2010) found that different ethnics in a heterogeneous society may lead to decreased volunteering rates. If in a heterogeneous environment there is an increased desire for social justice, then it is possible that individuals will volunteer in order to protect those who do not have the power to make a difference with either through advocacy or trying to influence change. This highlights rational motives as a means of leading to volunteering. On the other hand, normative motives may increase in heterogeneous societies. As often seen when immigration challenges a society's status quo, an increase of white power group or anti-immigration groups such as UKIP beat the drum to rally others to protect their national identity. This protection of national identity could be interpreted as display of commitment to public interest. Therefore, the following is suggested:

*Hypothesis 3a- In a heterogeneous society when millennials volunteer for advocacy, political activities and/or culture organizations, P-O fit will mediate the relation between social justice, attraction to policy making and commitment to public interest leading to increased volunteering intensity.*

Contrarily, in a homogenous society, affective motives such as self-sacrifice and compassion for their fellow man are expected to be more prominent. Because there is less conflict perceived within a homogenous society (Anderson and Paskeviciute 2006), individuals can indulge themselves in more altruistic forms of expression. In homogenous societies, there is often little deviation in religious identity. This can lead to religious

socialization having a stronger influence in one's view of the world. Volunteering as part of one's civic duty can be seen as a means to protect their society. In the case of Italy, until January 2005 civil service was compulsory for all males over 18 (Bove and Cavatorta 2012). However, since the abolishment of the conscription there has been no shortage in number of individuals volunteering to serve. This stands in contrast to Germany, for example, where the abolishment of service put the Armed Forces under severe pressure to recruit new members. Therefore, the following is suggested:

*Hypothesis 3b- In a homogenous society when millennials volunteering with religious, health and/or public safety organizations, P-O fit will mediate the relation between self-sacrifice, compassion and civic duty leading to increased volunteering intensity.*

### **5.3 Method**

Students at two universities in the Southwest of the United Kingdom and Italy participated in the survey each using the exact same questions in English and Italian respectively. In order to ensure reliability of translation, a native Italian speaker translated the English questions into Italian and then was independently translated by another native Italian speaker back into English. A native English speaker then crosschecked to ensure the English version matched before and after translations (Saunders 2015). Data was collected data via a web-based survey and paper. An email message with the link to the survey was sent to all international students on the UK university's distribution list. This list included under-graduate, graduate and doctoral students. International students were deliberately chosen in order to have a heterogeneous sample. Participation was voluntary and anonymity was assured. The response rate for the emailed surveys was low with only 113 out of 500 completed. This low response rate was anticipated because the surveys was sent out during the final two weeks of school. Therefore, an additional 180 paper surveys were collected at the university library. The UK

surveys were crosschecked to see if any of the respondents had the same age, nationality, gender, course and school to ensure there was no duplication of the survey. This resulted in 293 surveys. However after checking to ensure the respondents had a history of volunteering, only 192 useable surveys remained. A concurrent paper- based survey was collected at an Italian university. After purging the data set of incomplete surveys and of those respondents that were not millennials or had no history of volunteering, the remaining sample consisted of 550 students. Unlike other PSM studies that used student populations, participants were not limited to a single, or small set of schools or fields of study such as law students or business students (Pedersen 2013), rather the students represented a diverse group with studies in engineering, sociology, business, sciences and arts.. However, the sample was still dominated by business students across the two universities (72.2%). Surveys collected from the Italian sample consisted of 98% Italians that made for a very homogenous sample. Whereas, the UK sample represented a nationally diverse set of respondents from 51 countries (British 15.3%, Chinese 3.8% with an overall 23.6% of other nationalities represented). This reflects the diverse and heterogeneous student bodies in the UK. The advantage of having distinctively different universities and nationality compositions, is that it allows me to compare a heterogeneous environment in the UK compared to the homogenous Italian one. This was Anderfuhren-Biget et al. (2014) main criticism that many PSM studies do not take into account that different environments may produce different results in testing PSM. By ensuring that different environments are taken into account, I can glean greater insight. Overall, the sample consisted of 51.1% males, Generation Z represented 54.7% with 84.7% under-graduates (table 5.1.) Italian students dominated the sample (65.1%).

*Table 5.1 Frequency Table (UK and Italian students)*

Background of Respondents ( <i>n</i> = 550)		
	Frequency	Percentage
University		
Italy	358	65.1
UK	192	34.9
Gender		
Male	281	51.1
Female	269	48.9
Generation		
Gen Y (22-37)	249	45.3
Gen Z (21 and under)	301	54.7
School		
Business School	397	72.2
All others	153	27.8
Course Level		
Undergraduate	466	84.7
Graduate	84	15.3

### **5.3.1. Measures of Main Variables**

All variables were measured using previously validated scales. Unless stated otherwise, all items used a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. The dependent variable (DV), volunteer intensity (INT), is measured using Rodell's (2013) five-item scale. Podsakoff et al. (2013) recommend separating dependent variables from independent variables with non-related questions in order to minimize common method bias. As such, intensity was separated from all other measurable independent variables by asking about respondents about their personality- an IV for a joint researcher's study. The survey was combined for two separate studies. Items for the two surveys were dispersed so that

every other question asked items for a different study. This was done in order to reduce common method bias in the survey design.

The main independent variables are PSM and P-O fit by volunteering categories. I measured the six dimensions of Public Service Motivation with 40 items from Perry's (1996) scale. As a theory, PSM was treated as an umbrella concept with additional analysis on each of the dimensions. This is increasingly becoming more prevalent in PSM research, as the dimensions themselves measure different attitudes and are more nuanced at identifying explicit predispositions (Anderfuhren-Biget et al. 2014; Ngaruiya et al. 2014; Taylor et al. 2015)

P-O fit for volunteering was assessed using different types of organizations as a proxy for fit. This was done by using Rotolo and Wilson's (2006a) sub-organizations and Perry et al.'s (2008) volunteer categories. As discussed in the theoretical section, hypotheses are based on previous research and evidence aligned the volunteering categories to specific PSM dimensions. Participants were asked which of the categories they had volunteered for in the past 12 months (0 = no; 1 = yes). A dummy variable was then created for each of the volunteering categories. Volunteering with a religious, school or youth organization was computed into a new, combined dummy variable RelYth (0 = no; 1 = yes).

### **5.3.2. Control Variables**

Lastly, I measured three control variables: age was asked for directly, but only respondents who were 37 or lower in 2014 were retained in order to keep the focus on the millennial generation. There were no respondents under the age of 18. A dummy variable for Generation Z was created (0 = Generation Y, 1 = Generation Z) in order to demarcate amongst the Millennials that have potentially been in the workforce for some time and those who are most likely entering it upon graduation from their university. Biological gender is also controlled for as females have often been shown to volunteer more than males (0 = male; 1 = female).

Finally, course level is controlled for as undergraduates are often targeted by universities to engage in micro-volunteering during their integration into the university (0 = graduates, 1 = undergraduates).

#### **5.4 Analytical Strategy**

The same decisions in Chapter 4 to check for missing data were followed with this data sample.

##### **5.4.1. Data Screening**

Cases were screened to see if data was missing on the rows. Questions to PSM that were missing more than 10% were deleted while the remaining were imputed through the median replace missing values in rows. Those surveys that were missing complete responses for the DV (volunteering intensity) were automatically deleted. Then variables were screened to identify any unengaged responses such as those who had put one answer for the variable without realizing that some of the items were reverse coded. When I assessed skewness and kurtosis, one question from social justice was negatively skewed. This question would later be eliminated during the CFA. All elements were in an acceptable range for kurtosis (under 2.20).

In the previous study (Chapter 4), an EFA was conducted because of the theoretical groundings of PSM and was followed with a CFA. Due to using a dichotomous measure of P-O fit instead of Bright's (2013) scale in Chapter 4, it was decided to do an EFA (table 5.2) using Maximum likelihood estimation and Promax rotation prior to assessing the validity and of the measurement model and reliability of factors using a CFA. Maximum likelihood was chosen as it is the most appropriate for AMOS (Byrne 2010). Due to the decision to use SEM as a means to test all dimensions at once, AMOS was chosen to run the CFA and SEM models. During the EFA (table 5.2), the KMO Statistics was .837 and considered meritorious, while the total variance explained was 49.01%. Due to low reliability and cross loadings,



some items were dropped to include the dimension commitment to public interest. However, unlike the previous chapter, social justice was retained. This provides evidence that the different dimensions may be better suited and interpreted differently amongst data samples. Items from the EFA were then carried forward to be tested in the CFA.

Table 5.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis (UK and Italian students)

		Pattern Matrix <sup>a</sup>					
		Factor					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Volunteering Intensity	INT1	.789					
	INT2	.869					
	INT3	.932					
	INT4	.939					
	INT5	.890					
Social Justice	SJ2						.938
	SJ3						.478
Civic Duty	CD2					.906	
	CD3					.468	
Attraction to Policy Making	APM1				.563		
	APM2				.682		
	APM3				.645		
Self-Sacrifice	SS1		.697				
	SS2		.828				
	SS4		.412				
	SS8		.471				
Compassion	COMP1			.355			
	COMP2			.517			
	COMP3			.608			
	COMP4			.383			
	COMP6			.435			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

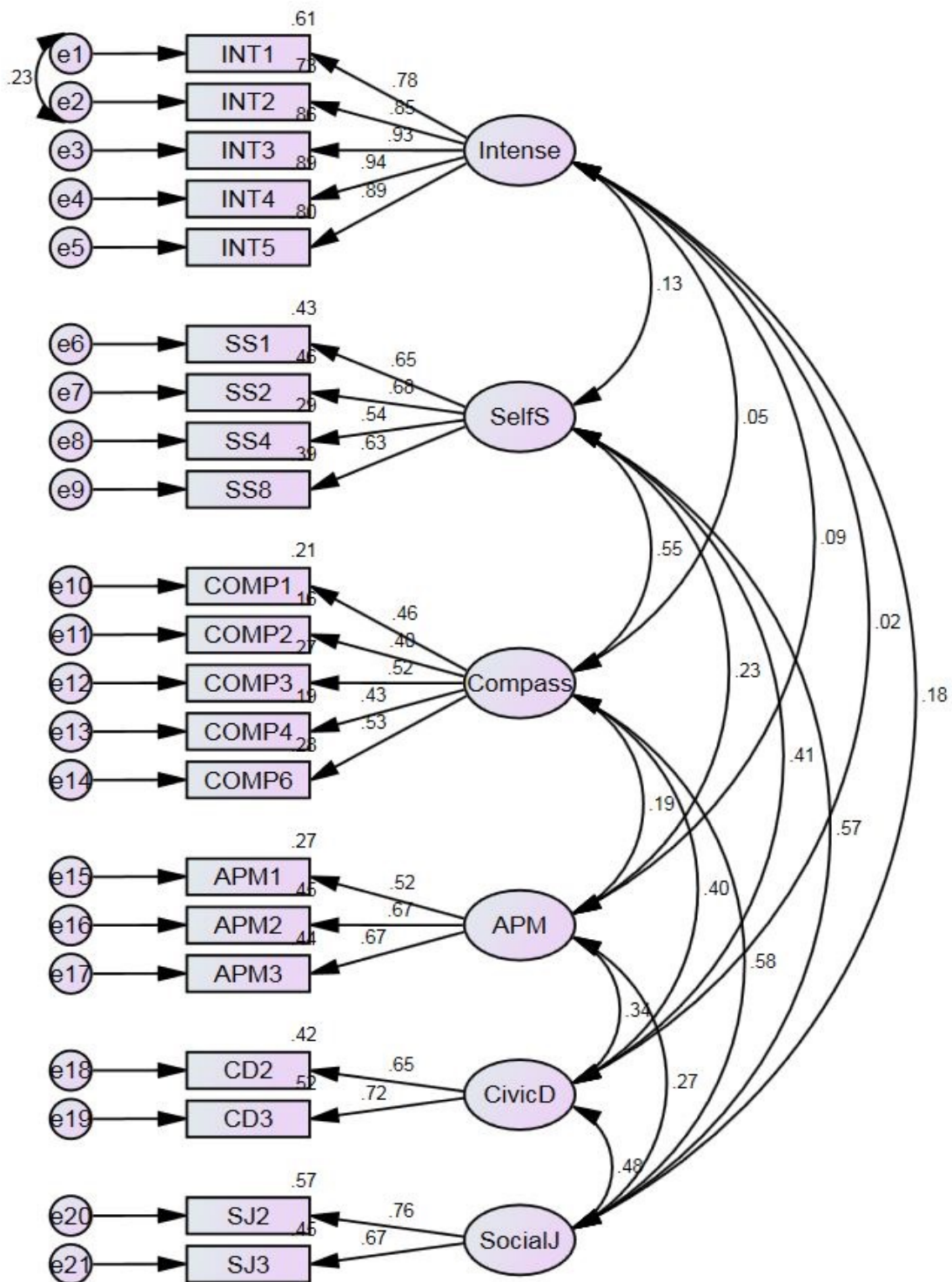
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

*INT= volunteering intensity, SJ= social justice, CD= civic duty, APM= attraction to policy making, SS= self-sacrifice, COMP= compassion*

#### **5.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Prior to running SEM, I conducted a CFA (figure 5.1). I found an acceptable level of goodness of fit (Chi-square (304)/DF (173) = 1.757, CFI= .969, RMSEA= .037, PCLOSE=.999). Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (2006) extrapolate that chi-square/DF less than 3 is good (absolute), CFI greater than .95 is great (relative), RMSEA less than .06 is great (parsimony-adjusted) and PCLOSE should not be significant.

Figure 5.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized Estimates- Italian and UK students)



INT= volunteering intensity, SelfS= self-sacrifice, Compass= compassion, APM= attraction to policy making, CivicD= civic duty, SocialJ= social justice

As I am conducting a multi-group mediation for the structural model, I conducted a configural invariance test based on gender. Gender was chosen for the two groups because of its categorical structure. I obtained an adequate goodness of fit (Chi-square (551.489)/ DF (346) = 1.594, CFI= .953, RMSEA= .037, PCLOSE= 1.000) when analyzing a freely estimated model across the two groups. I observed configural invariance, which showed the two groups are not different. When metric invariance was explored, the loading themselves were roughly equivalent across groups, showing the two groups understood the questions the same way.

However, because PSM studies comparing UK to other European cultures found differences in the meaning of words such as civic duty and compassion (Vandenabeele et al. 2006), I ran a metric invariance test where the university origin was chosen for the two groups. I had a good model fit (Chi-square (551.489)/ DF (346) = 1.591, CFI= .951, RMSEA= .033, PCLOSE= 1.000) and observed configural invariance. I compared the Chi-square and df for the unconstrained and constrained model and found the Italian and UK students were not different at the model level, but still may differ at the path level.

Convergent and discriminant validity was reached after the dimension commitment to public interest and 14 of the 30 PSM items were eliminated (figure 5.1). Consequently, I could not test Hypothesis 2c. The composite reliability (CR) are Volunteering Intensity = .945, PSM = .898, self-sacrifice = .718, compassion = .585, civic duty = 0.640, attraction to policy making = .651 and social justice = .677 (table 5.3). Unlike Cronbach's Alphas, CR takes into account measurement error (Byrne 2010). While the reliability cutoff level is typically accepted at .70 level, low CR is a common issue in PSM studies with many retaining dimensions in the .60 range (Taylor 2007a; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013; Chen et al. 2013) including PSM studies in Italy (Cerase and Farinella 2009). Hence, following Clerkin et al. (2009) and Taylor and Clerkin (2011) example, I considered PSM dimensions'

internal consistency to be at acceptable levels as collectively they resulted in a CR of .898 for PSM and carried all dimensions forward to the analysis.

Table 5.3- Composite Reliability, Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

	Correlations													
	CR	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Intensity	0.945	1.39	.728											
2. PSM	0.898	3.38	.445	.126**										
3. Compassion	0.585	2.44	.335	.063	.856**									
4. Self-Sacrifice	0.718	3.14	.545	.148**	.828**	.702**								
5. Civic Duty	0.640	2.90	.519	.028	.739**	.551**	.542**							
6. Attraction to Policy Making	0.651	2.14	.491	.108*	.640**	.272**	.307**	.446**						
7. Social Justice	0.677	3.53	.589	.208**	.808**	.738**	.702**	.616**	.357**					
8. Gender		.49	.500	.064	-.051	.025	-.085*	.021	-.106*	.026				
9. Generation Z		.55	.498	-.143**	.033	.021	.013	.044	.012	.032	.013			
10. Course level		.85	.360	-.234**	.028	.031	-.025	.060	.004	.004	-.009	.457**		
11. University Origin		.35	.477	.398**	-.215**	-.152**	-.154**	-.261**	-.168**	-.145**	.130**	-.345**	-.569**	

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

CR= Composite reliability, University of origin 0=Italy, 1= UK

Common Method Bias (CMB) was checked using two test. First, Harman's single factor test showed extraction was for one factor only and 19.18% variance was explained which meets acceptable standard of under 50% (Byrne 2010). I did a common method bias test where I compared the unconstrained common method factor model with a fully constrained (0 strength) common method factor model. In the chi-square test, the results were significant (the differences were Chi-square= 61 and df= 21 with a  $p < .001$ ) thus it was not invariant and groups are different at the model level. Due to significant shared variance, therefore I retained the common latent factor (CLF) when imputing factor scores.

Lastly, a multicollinearity test for PSM dimensions showed the mean variance inflation factor (VIF) is less than three and the single highest VIF is 2.836 and therefore acceptable (Hair 2010).

## **5.5 Findings**

I conducted hierarchical ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analyses to test my hypothesis that PSM would positively affect volunteering intensity. All remaining hypotheses were tested using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS 23. SEM allows to combine measurement models for the dimensions of PSM and run simultaneously the latent perception and motivation variables with observable control while accounting for measurement errors (Hair 2010). Additionally, by moving from a global test of model fit, to R-square to the  $p$ -value, I ensure that one can have confidence in the statistical support for the hypotheses.

With respect to my core hypothesis, PSM was highly significant ( $\beta = .224, p < .001$ ) and these results provide support for Hypothesis 1 that PSM positively affects volunteering intensity (Model 2, table 5.4). The model accounted for 7.9% of the variance in volunteering intensity.

Following in line with chapter 4, when the dimensions were regressed collectively, but not as PSM (model 7), all of the dimensions were significantly related to volunteering intensity in the presence of the other PSM dimensions. Only civic duty when regressed on its own was not significantly related to volunteering intensity (model 4, table 5.4). This lends further support that the variables do perform on their own. With Hypothesis 1 supported, I continued my probing to see if P-O fit would mediate the relationship between PSM dimensions and volunteering intensity.



Table 5.4 Regression model for PSM (robust standard errors in parentheses)

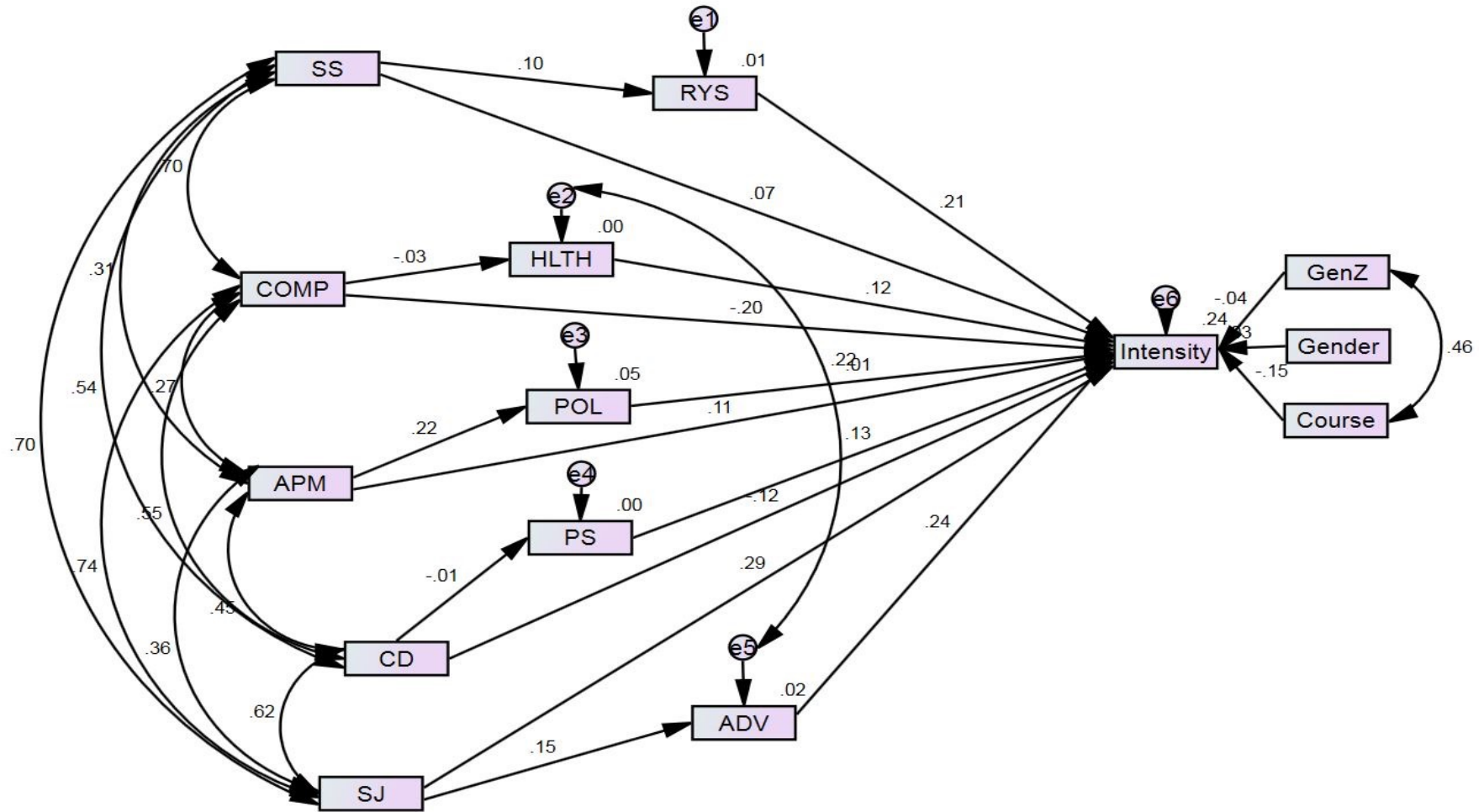
	Volunteering Intensity							
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff	coeff
(Constant)	1.748*** (.083)	0.991*** (.242)	1.100*** (.195)	1.385*** (.233)	1.584*** (.184)	0.840*** (.194)	1.366*** (.158)	1.1752*** (.238)
Gender	0.0916 (.060)	0.102† (.060)	0.110† (.060)	0.089 (.060)	0.090 (.060)	0.084 (.59) (.060)	0.110† (.060)	0.118* (.059)
Gen Z	-0.068 (.068)	-0.074 (.068)	-0.076 (.067)	-0.069 (.068)	-0.070 (.068)	-0.080*** (.067)	-0.071 (.068)	-0.087 (.066)
Course level	-0.430*** (.094)	-0.434*** (.093)	-0.417*** (.093)	-0.434*** (.094)	-0.434*** (.094)	-0.424*** (.092)	-0.429*** (.094)	-0.384*** (.091)
PSM		0.224*** (.067)						
Self-Sacrifice			0.201*** (.055)					0.143† (.083)
Compassion				0.150** (.090)				-0.433** (.141)
Civic Duty					0.058 (.058)			-0.228** (.077)
Social Justice						0.259*** (.050)		0.433*** (.084)
APM <sup>a</sup>							0.175** (.062)	0.129† (.067)
R-squared	0.06	0.079	0.083	0.065	0.062	0.104	0.074	0.139
Adjusted R-Squared	0.055	0.072	0.076	0.058	0.055	0.098	0.067	0.127
	F(3)11.718 p <.001	F(4)11.717 p <.001	F(4)12.313 p <.001	F(4)9.513 p <.001	F(4)15.864 p <.001	F(4)12.313 p <.001	F(4)10.915 p <.001	F(8)=10.942 p <.001
Observations	550	550	550	550	550	550	550	550

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a = Attraction to Policy Making

### **5.5.1 Test of Mediation Effects**

Hypothesis 2a-f and 3a-b were tested for mediation effects through SEM with bootstrap approximation (1,000) obtained by constructing two-sided bias- corrected 95% confidence intervals (Byrne 2010). To arrive at indirect effect I exploited user-defined (AxB) estimands which allowed me to name two parameters in order to get an indirect effect calculated. This needed to be done in this manner because Amos does not normally calculate indirect effects. I did not test hypothesis 2d as the commitment to public interest dimension of PSM was dropped earlier during the CFA. Gender, age and course level are covariates. There was a good model fit (Chi-square (150)/ DF (61) = 2.467, CFI= .949, RMSEA= .052, PCLOSE=.379) and the model accounts for 24.5% of the variance in volunteering intensity. The standardized results of the structural equation modeling analysis for PSM dimensions are shown in Figure 5.2. All findings related to hypothesis 2a-2f can be found in Table 5.5. Although all were run concurrently, each hypothesis will be discussed individually.

Figure 5.2 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model ungrouped (standardized)



\*Intensity= Volunteering Intensity, COMP= Compassion, SS= Self-Sacrifice, CD= Civic Duty, APM= Attraction to Policy Making, SJ= Social Justice, RYS= Religious, Youth, School, HLTH= Health, POL= Political, PS= Public Safety, ADV= Human Services Advocacy

Hypothesis 2a stipulates when volunteering with religious, youth or school organizations the P-O fit will positively mediate the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of Self-Sacrifice on intensity, first P-O fit (Religious/Youth) was regressed on Self-Sacrifice ( $\beta = .105, p < .05$ ) and was significant. Second, intensity was regressed on Self-Sacrifice and P-O fit (Religious/Youth) with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .239, p < .001$ ). Finally, the total effect was derived from the combined indirect effect. The total effect of Self-Sacrifice on volunteering intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .028, s.e. = .012, \text{BootLLCI} = .009, \text{BootULCI} = .056, p < .01$ ). Therefore, Self-Sacrifice is fully mediated and hypothesis 2a is supported.

Hypothesis 2b claims when volunteering with a health organizations the P-O fit will positively mediate the relation between Compassion and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of Compassion on intensity, first P-O fit (Health) was regressed on Compassion ( $\beta = -.201, p = .493$ ) and was not significant. Second, intensity was regressed on Compassion and P-O fit (Health) with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .212, p < .01$ ). The total effect of Compassion on volunteering intensity was not significant ( $b = -.007, s.e. = .012, \text{BootLLCI} = -.037, \text{BootULCI} = .012, p = .358$ ). Therefore, Compassion is not mediated and hypothesis 2b is rejected.

Hypothesis 2d suggests when volunteering with a political organizations the P-O fit will positively mediate the relation between Attraction to Policy Making and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of Attraction to Policy Making on intensity, first P-O fit (Political) was regressed on Attraction to Policy Making ( $\beta = .107, p < .001$ ) and was significant. Second, intensity was regressed on Attraction to Policy Making and P-O fit (Political) but there was not a significant relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .007, p =$

.862). The total effect of Attraction to Policy Making on volunteering intensity was not significant ( $\beta = .002$ ,  $s.e. = .013$ , BootLLCI=  $-.023$ , BootULCI=  $.028$ ,  $p = .868$ ). Therefore, Attraction to Policy Making is not mediated and hypothesis 2d is rejected.

Hypothesis 2e postulates when volunteering with a public safety organization the P-O fit will positively mediate the relation between Civic Duty and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of Civic Duty on intensity, first P-O fit (Public Safety) was regressed on Civic Duty ( $\beta = -.013$ ,  $p = .760$ ) and was not significant. Second, intensity was regressed on Civic Duty and P-O fit (Public Safety) with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .134$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The total effect of Civic Duty on volunteering intensity was not significant ( $\beta = 1.002$ ,  $s.e. = .008$ , BootLLCI=  $-.022$ , BootULCI=  $.013$ ,  $p = .632$ ). Therefore, Civic Duty is not mediated and hypothesis 2e is rejected.

Hypothesis 2f specifies when volunteering with advocacy organizations the P-O fit will positively mediate the relation between Social Justice and volunteering intensity. In order to establish the total effect of Social Justice on intensity, first P-O fit (Advocacy) was regressed on Social Justice ( $\beta = .151$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and was significant. Second, intensity was regressed on Social Justice and P-O fit (Advocacy) with a positive relationship demonstrated with P-O fit ( $\beta = .239$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, the total effect was derived from the combined indirect effect. The total effect of Social Justice on volunteering intensity at 95% confidence interval bootstrap is significant ( $\beta = .043$ ,  $s.e. = .015$ , BootLLCI=  $.022$ , BootULCI=  $.079$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, Social Justice is partially mediated and hypothesis 2a is somewhat supported.

Table 5.5- Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model ungrouped (Standardized Effects)

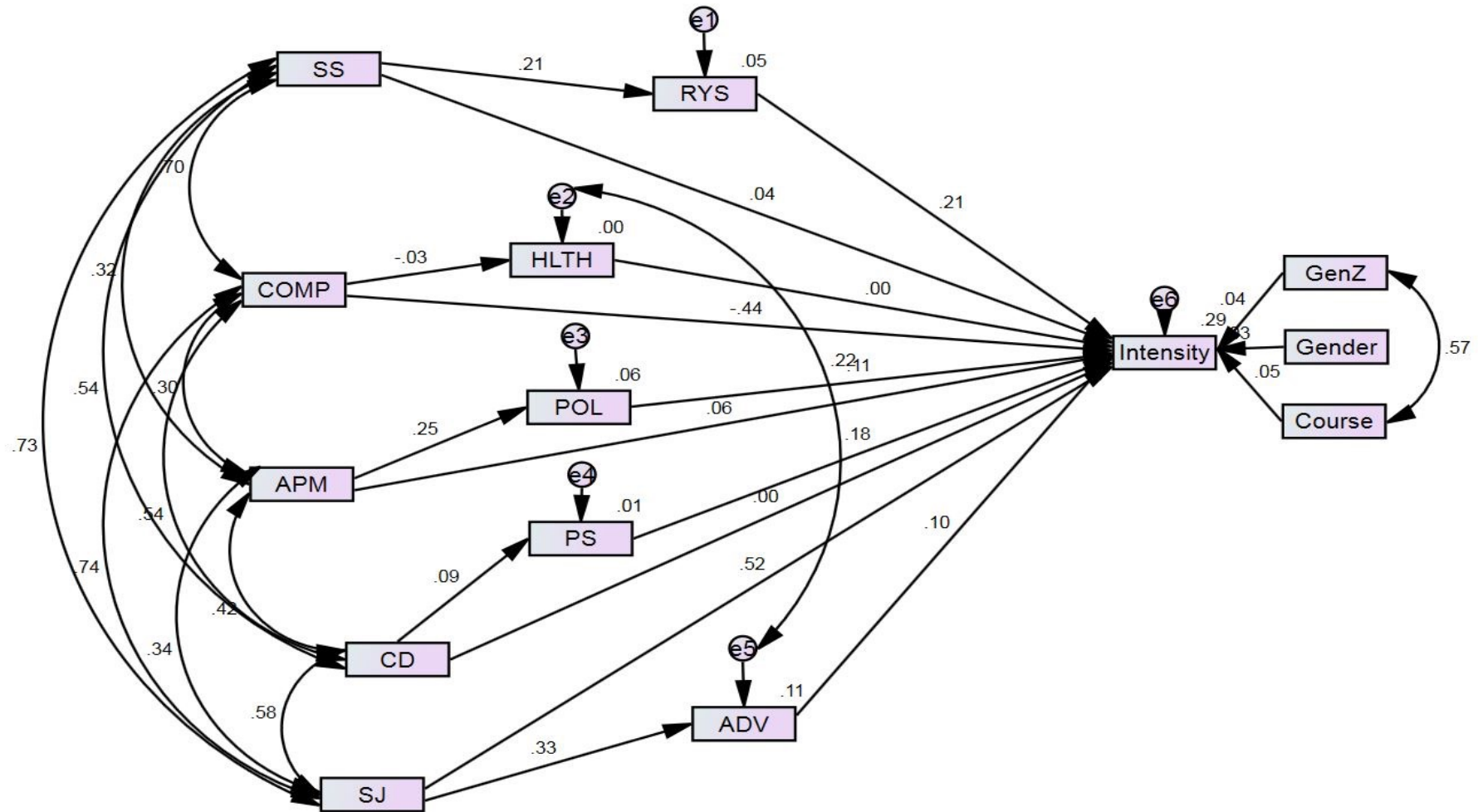
Variable	DV: Intensity		DV: P-O Fit		Total Effect	
	Direct Effect		Indirect Effect-Path A (M)		A X B	
	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.
Social Justice	0.286***	0.075	.151***	0.032	0.043***	0.015
Compassion	-0.201***	0.126	-0.201	0.048	-0.007	0.012
APM <sup>a</sup>	0.107*	0.061	.107***	0.035	0.002	0.013
Civic Duty	-0.12*	0.069	-0.013	0.022	-0.002	0.008
Self-Sacrifice	0.085	0.074	.105*	0.038	0.028**	0.012
Advocacy	0.239***	0.060				
Public Safety	0.134***	0.096				
Political	0.007	0.065				
Health	0.115**	0.070				
Religious	0.209***	0.054				
Gender	0.043	0.052				
GenZ	-0.059	0.059				
Course	-.149***	0.082				
R-squared	0.245					
F test	Chi- Square 150, df= 61 P<.001					
Observations	550					

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (5.4); a= Attraction to Policy Making

For the final Hypotheses 3a-b, I use multi-group analysis. The homogenous group is represented by the Italian university and heterogeneous group is represented by the UK university. The heterogeneous sample was expected when volunteering for advocacy,

political activities and culture will mediate the relation between social justice, attraction to policy making and commitment to public interest leading to increased volunteering intensity. When looking at group differences [heterogeneous sample (UK) vs. homogenous sample (Italy)], there was no significant difference when volunteering for political activities (parameter A (UK) – B (Italy),  $\beta = .232$ , *s.e.* = .184, Lower= -.155, Upper= .562,  $p = .230$ ). However, there was a significant difference between groups when volunteers engaged in advocacy activities (parameter A (UK) – B (Italy),  $\beta = -.278$ , *s.e.* = .143, Lower= -.561, Upper= .009,  $p = .057$ ). As per the negative beta, the direction was actually in favor of the homogenous university (Italy) and not for the heterogeneous sample (UK). Therefore, hypothesis 3a is rejected. However, looking at how the individual PSM dimensions performed when just looking at the UK sample (figure 5.3), the results mirror the findings in the full model. There is partial mediation for Social Justice and full mediation for Self-Sacrifice and no mediation for Compassion, Civic Duty or Attraction to Policy Making (the results described here are displayed in Table 5.6).

Figure 5.3 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model UK (standardized)



\*Intensity= Volunteering Intensity, COMP= Compassion, SS= Self-Sacrifice, CD= Civic Duty, APM= Attraction to Policy Making, SJ= Social Justice, RYS= Religious, Youth, School, HLTH= Health, POL= Political, PS= Public Safety, ADV= Human Services Advocacy



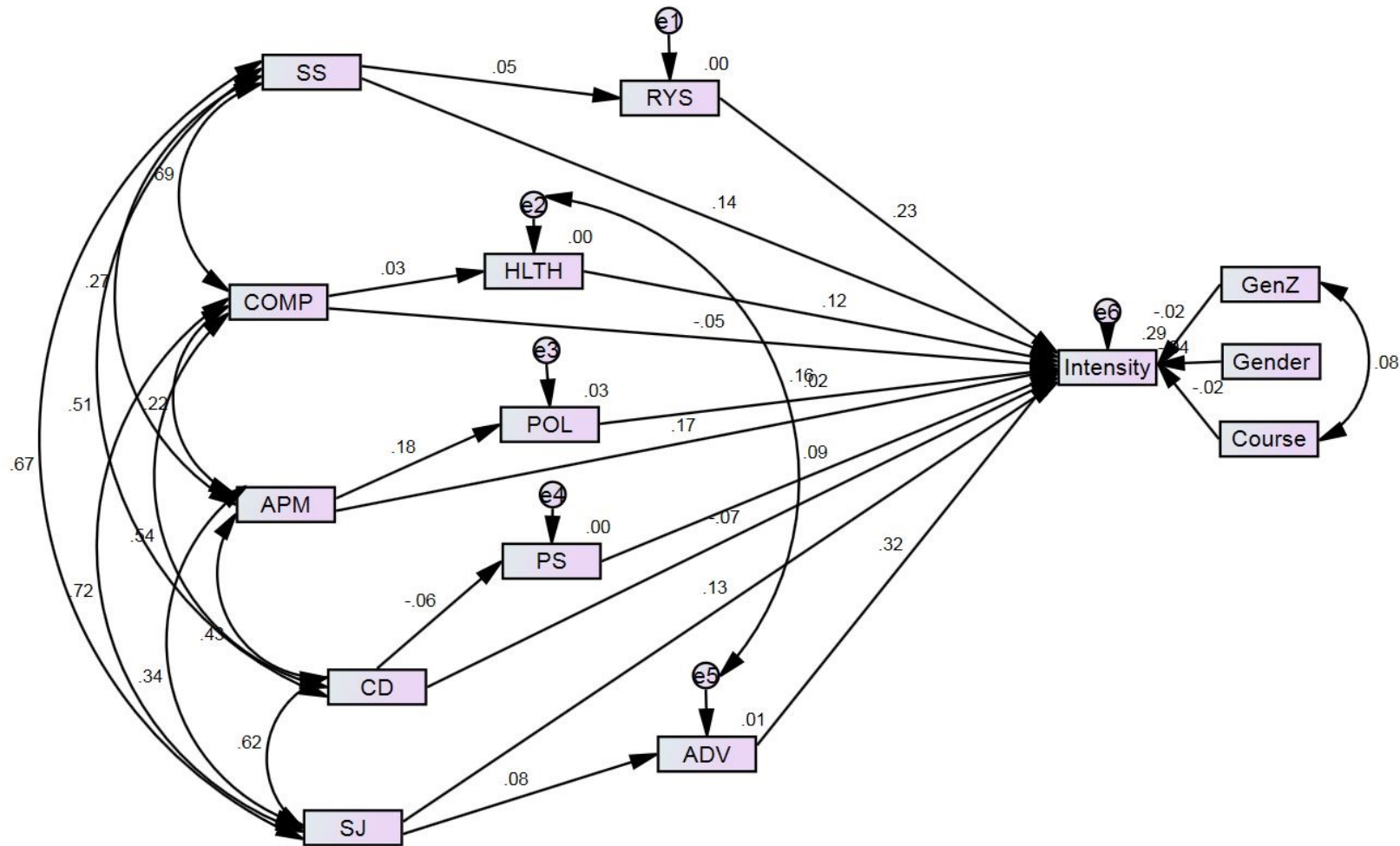
Table 5.6- Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model UK (Standardized Effects)

Variable	DV: Intensity		DV: P-O Fit		Total Effect	
	Direct Effect		Indirect Effect- Path A (M)		A X B	
	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.
Social Justice	.477***	0.134	.164***	0.032	.047**	0.014
Compassion	-.419***	0.228	0.009	0.045	0.002	0.008
APM <sup>a</sup>	0.076	0.103	.255***	0.034	0.01	0.011
Civic Duty	0.013	0.113	-0.01	0.023	-0.002	0.007
Self-Sacrifice	0.038	0.125	.132**	0.038	0.03***	0.012
Advocacy	.220***	0.053				
Public Safety	.112***	0.086				
Political	0.026	0.056				
Health	0.082*	0.065				
Religious	.176***	0.047				
Gender	0.028	0.096				
GenZ	0.037	0.124				
Course	0.054	0.116				
R-squared	0.293					
Ftest	Chi- Square 212, df= 112 P<.001					
Observations	192					

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (5.4); a= Attraction to Policy Making

When looking at group differences [homogenous sample (Italy) vs. heterogeneous sample (UK)] in the homogenous sample, there was no difference when volunteering for religious/youth activities (parameter A (Italy) –B (UK),  $\beta = -.063$ , *s.e.* = .126, Lower= -.324, Upper= .172, *p*= .593). When volunteering for health activities (parameter A (Italy) –B (UK),  $\beta = .220$ , *s.e.* = .162, Lower= -.094, Upper= .548, *p*= .186) there was also no significant difference nor was it significantly different when volunteering for public safety activities (parameter A (Italy) –B (UK),  $\beta = -.263$ , *s.e.*= .224, Lower= -.712, Upper= .177, *p*= .224). Hence, hypothesis 3b is rejected. However, looking at how the individual PSM dimensions performed when just looking at the Italian sample (figure 5.4), the results are similar, but do not completely reflect the findings in the full model. There is partial mediation for Social Justice and Self- Sacrifice and no mediation for Compassion, Civic Duty or Attraction to Policy Making (the results described here are displayed in Table 5.7). In the next section, I will discuss my findings and implications of the study.

Figure 5.4 Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model Italy (standardized)



\*Intensity= Volunteering Intensity, COMP= Compassion, SS= Self-Sacrifice, CD= Civic Duty, APM= Attraction to Policy Making, SJ= Social Justice, RYS= Religious, Youth, School, HLTH= Health, POL= Political, PS= Public Safety, ADV= Human Services Advocacy

Table 5.7- Results of structural equation analyses for PSM dimensions mediation model Italy (Standardized Effects)

Variable	DV: Intensity		DV: P-O Fit		Total Effect	
	Direct Effect		Indirect Effect-Path A (M)		A X B	
	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.	$\beta$	s.e.
Social Justice	.138†	0.077	.052***	0.032	.047**	0.014
Compassion	-0.048	0.127	0.012	0.045	0.002	0.008
APM <sup>a</sup>	.168***	0.063	.180***	0.034	0.01	0.011
Civic Duty	-0.068	0.075	-0.01	0.023	-0.002	0.007
Self-Sacrifice	.135*	0.077	.107**	0.038	0.03***	0.012
Advocacy	.275***	0.053				
Public Safety	.122***	0.086				
Political	0.168	0.056				
Health	.078*	0.065				
Religious	.244***	0.047				
Gender	-0.042	0.052				
GenZ	-0.02	0.055				
Course	-0.02	0.491				
R-squared	0.285					
F test	Chi- Square 212, df= 112 P<.001					
Observations	358					

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (5.4); a= Attraction to Policy Making

## **5.6 Discussion and Conclusion**

### **5.6.1 Discussion**

A key challenge in volunteer motivation research is determining what motivational drivers will affect intensity levels. Although recent PSM research has shown that this altruistic-natured theory is relevant in volunteer motivation studies (Houston, 2006; Lee, 2012), it has not shown how PSM affects a volunteer's behavior. In Chapter 4, I found initial support for PSM affecting volunteering intensity and findings in this chapter lend additional support. By treating PSM as an antecedent to volunteering and testing the mediation effect of P-O fit to influence intensity of volunteering, this chapter has continued the discussion in empirically testing PSM's impact on perceived behavior.

The first challenge was to determine if individuals with high PSM levels would exert a greater intensity when volunteering. My findings showed that they do and support previous PSM studies that show individuals with higher PSM levels tend to volunteer more frequently (Coursey et al. 2011). Additionally, my finding support Andersen and Serritzlew study (2012) that found individuals with high levels of PSM may work harder. It is rationalized that those individuals who are already drawn to engaging in public service will have their needs met when they perceive volunteering as public service. It is possible, though, if volunteering is viewed as compulsorily that it may crowd out the positive effect of PSM. This issue will be addressed in the following chapter.

Second, I examined if volunteering in particular categories (proxy for P-O fit) mediated the relation between PSM dimensions and volunteer intensity. These hypothesis were also tested in the preceding chapter, but it was presumed that different generations would have different levels of PSM as a result of formalized citizenship educational differences amongst generations. As Millennials have undergone more formalized programs (e.g. UK (Keating et al. 2010), Italy (Losito and Annamaria 2003), South Africa (Staeheli and

Hammett 2013), Canada (Pashby et al. 2014), USA (Ruget 2006) and Asia (Morris and Cogan 2001) to make them 'better citizens'.

Studies have shown many youth engage in volunteering for religious organizations (Beyerlein et al. 2011) and my results showed high levels self-sacrifice when fully mediated by volunteering in a religious or youth organization will have a positive impact on volunteering intensity. However, self- sacrifice on its own (in the combined Italy/UK model) did not have a direct impact on volunteering intensity. This result is similar to Clerkin et al.'s (2009) findings. It could be that volunteering with these religious organizations are seen as obligation-based due to pressure of still living at home (Bokhorst-Heng 2008). Alternatively, contrary to literature supporting self-sacrifice as being prominent in religious organizations (Marvin and Ingle 1996), it could be that millennials do not view supporting religious activities as a sacrifice, but as a normal part of their values. When the two samples were split into heterogeneous (UK) and homogenous (Italy), self-sacrifice in the Italian sample had a direct impact on volunteering intensity and was partially mediated by volunteering in a religious/youth organization. It could be that the religious influences in a homogenous society act as a re-enforcers. Marta et al. (2010, p.11) found that youth volunteers in Italy that continued to volunteer 4 years later had developed a "strong identification with the association". The initial introduction to the organization was often through parents, teachers and priest. This further supports research by Bright (2008) who found high levels of PSM improves the perceived P-O Fit. Whereas, in the heterogeneous sample (UK) it could be that only volunteers who were actively involved in their church, synagogue, mosque or temple, etc. were driven to volunteering out of a sense of obligation and not due to motives reflecting a sense of self-sacrifice.

Bright (2007) suggested that some individuals with high PSM may not be compatible with specific organization regardless of P-O fit. This was reflected in my study with

compassion in particular. High levels of compassion actually led to a decrease in volunteering intensity. Even though there was a direct relation between volunteering for a health organization and volunteering intensity- there was no direct relation between compassion and volunteering for a health organization. This is in direct conflict with Camilleri's (2007) study that found younger employees have higher levels of compassion. Ngaruiya et al. (2014), who looked at PSM motivations of Millennials to join the USA Reserve Junior Officer Training Corps (ROTC), found that compassion also decreased their samples likelihood in volunteering to join ROTC. Some naysayers could attribute negative influence of compassion in the millennial generation as them being narcissists. On the flipside, it could be that Millennials equate compassion towards saving "mother earth" and increased sustainability (Hume 2010). Granted, my questionnaire focused only on the health side of compassion. Yet, when comparing the heterogenous versus homogenous sample, there was no direct effect of compassion on volunteering intensity amongst Italian volunteers and it was again negatively related to effort amongst the British volunteers. This area of compassion continues to be in conflict where some studies find evidence for compassion amongst health care workers and volunteers (Coursey et al. 2011; Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013) and not having a significant effect (Clerkin et al. 2009; Lee and Jeong 2015). It is an area that I will continue to explore in the following chapter.

Attraction of Policy Making performed similar to Compassion, except while in the overall model it did lead to an increase in volunteering intensity and it did have a direct effect if one was volunteering in a political organization. But, the element of volunteering for a political organization (P-O fit) did not increase volunteering effort. Attraction to Policy Making is present in volunteers in political organizations is supported by other scholars (Ertas 2014; Lee and Jeong 2015), but it could be that while time spent volunteering increased, effort did not. That could be seen as a positive thing for opponents volunteering in opposing

political campaigns knowing that their competitors may exert a low level of volunteering intensity, but it does not explain why the relation is not mediated. Italy has had over 60 governments since World War II (Crainz 2015) and studies have shown that there is limited trust for politicians, yet in the homogenous sample of Italy- there was significant support for Attraction to Policy Making leading to increased volunteering intensity and volunteering with political organizations though there was no mediation. That attraction to policy making in Italy was significant is inconsistent with other Italian studies which found no evidence of this dimension in the public or private sector (Bellé and Ongaro 2014). Notwithstanding the possible Italian cultural nuance, this was unexpected as millennials, particularly those in a higher educational environment, would be subjected to greater diversity and social cause awareness such as LGBT rights and racism (Torres-Harding et al. 2014). Millennials are the largest vocal group on social media, advocating for social change reflected in the causes they support by putting videos of them doing ice bucket challenges (Bolton et al. 2013) or calling for political reform. It could be that reactions on social media do not translate into action for millennials. Alternatively, millennials are just burnt-out from mandatory volunteering during their early school years (Ghose and Kassam 2014) and now struggle to exert effort for items they associate as previously compulsory. Often schoolchildren are made to run their own mock elections as part of civic awareness. It could be that millennials relate this mandate awareness as deflating towards exerting effort.

The complete lack of a relation between civic duty, volunteering intensity and volunteering with an organization providing public safety could be examined further by seeing if cultural values differed within the data between the Italian and UK students. Studies have shown that ethnical background can impact one's sense of normative motives (Moon et al. 2014). Millennials growing up in Italy have experienced numerous changes of their government and could have drastically different views on social and institutional pressures



opposed to their British brethren that have had a fairly consistent government throughout their life time. Finally, this cultural difference could also be reflected in how the millennials feel about civic duty. While Italy may be the birth place of the philosophy surrounding social justice (Burke 2010), the UK educational system has had a strong emphasis on citizenship education (Tonge et al. 2012). Together, both elements could influence one's sense of civic duty.

Finally, the volunteering in an organization that provides human relation services mediates the relation between ones sense of social justice and volunteering intensity. This sense of social justice reflects the common assumptions about the ethos of the millennials and why Human Resource departments are capitalizing on their corporate social responsibility programs as a recruitment tool.

### **5.6.2 Limitations and Future Research**

Irrespective the varying composition of the sample, cultural differences and attitudes towards volunteering were not explored. Studies have shown Anglo Saxon countries have a higher rate of volunteering due to an emphasis on civic action (Steen 2006b); whereas, only 47.5% of survey participants are Anglo Saxon. As such, the data I presented must be viewed as indicative rather than representative of the student population of Italian and UK millennials. There also remains the issue that respondents were not asked if they were coerced into volunteering. In the discussion section, I begin to question if the reasoning for insignificant or partial findings is a result of mandated volunteering programs in education systems. I do not know if participants were coerced. They could have felt they had to volunteer or face repercussions in the form of not fulfilling school graduation requirements by mandatory volunteering. Similarly, they may have in fact been "voluntold" by their parents or boss. Still some may have been serial or one-off volunteers, which would expose a weakness in P-O fit

by volunteering organization proxy. I will address this issue in the next chapter. Finally, because intensity was measured by the participant's perceived effort, it could be subject to social desirability bias. Therefore, future research might have to compliment the scale with a supervisor's view of how the volunteers had exerted effort. However, it is recommended that I first explore if PSM leads to different levels of output when comparing time, frequency and volunteering intensity. I will address this issue in Chapter 7.

### **5.6.3 Conclusion**

My research confirms millennials' attitudes towards public service when measured by PSM can affect their behavior, thus providing an initial answer to my SRQ2: "*Do millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers?*" There is evidence that linking PSM to the intensity of volunteering behavior can increase our understanding of motivational drivers for volunteering. By linking PSM dimensions to P-O fit by proxy of volunteering organization, the findings presented lead me to conclude that evidence is in favor of P-O fit *mediating* the relationship between PSM and intensity. Finally, by moving away from a time centric means of gauging intensity, I am able to capture the physical, mental or emotional effort the volunteer perceives they exerted applying Rodell's (2013) intensity scale. The primary contribution of this chapter is how it can assist managers to improve their understanding of how millennials' motivation dimensions can best be aligned to specific volunteer opportunities. For HR managers that continue to highlight CSR programs as a means of recruiting millennials, understanding the PSM of potential recruits may provide a better understanding of future volunteering intensity levels.

As per the discussion about some of the findings might be a result of coercion in this study, in the following chapter I will explore if coercion can affect PSM and volunteering intensity.

## **CHAPTER 6-Does Coerced Volunteering Undermine the Public Service Motivation of Volunteers? A Moderated Mediation Model<sup>4</sup>**

---

<sup>5</sup> Parts of this chapter are based on Costello, J., Homberg, F. and Secchi, D., 2016. Does coerced volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers? A moderated mediation model *International Society for Third-Sector Research 2016 Conference*. Stockholm, Sweden 28 June 2016.

In the preceding chapters (4 and 5), I found evidence that PSM and its dimensions do affect volunteering intensity. When P-O fit was measured directly (Chapter 4) and by proxy of volunteering with a specific type of volunteering category (Chapter 5), evidence lent support to the mediation of the relationship between PSM and volunteering intensity. Having examined how PSM performs across generations and amongst homogenous and heterogeneous samples, one of the limitations that was identified in Chapter 5 was whether some unexpected findings and non-support for some hypothesis was a result of volunteers being coerced into volunteering. This is a relevant concern due to the increase within the past 20 years of mandatory volunteering programs within many school systems and in the past year in the UK's Community Work Placement program. Consequently, there is the potential problem for volunteer coordinators who are managing individuals who have been coerced into volunteering. This coercion may undermine the motivation of volunteers and result in decreased performance. This chapter addresses the issue by examining the public service motivation (PSM) of 416 volunteers in southwestern UK. I use a moderated mediation model to test if coerced individuals have a poor person-organization fit (P-O fit) and thus a lower level of effort exerted. I found that those individuals who were coerced, but had low levels of PSM reported greater volunteer intensity than their non-coerced volunteers who also had low PSM levels. However, coercion negatively influenced the direct relation between PSM and intensity level. Consequently, this gives non-profit managers a clearer understanding of how to overcome the challenges coerced volunteers may present.

### **6.1 Introduction**

The 2014 UK Community Work Placement program has resulted in individuals having to undertake mandated volunteering or lose their unemployment benefits. Despite studies showing those who volunteer are more likely to become employed (Spera et al. 2015), over 600 volunteer organizations have joined a boycott campaign Keep Volunteering Voluntary

(Isaac 2015). The assumption that drives such boycotting decisions is that the organizations want to use a purist definition that workfare is not considered voluntary. However, in the same sense, the volunteer organizations are saying mandating volunteering is forcing unemployed people to engage in ‘unpaid work’. One could easily argue, unpaid work is volunteering in fact. It is more logical to understand that a main concern is that socially disadvantaged individuals tend to not volunteer (Stadelmann-Steffen 2011) and by coercing them, they will lack motivation and consequently will not exert effort. Quite reasonably, some studies have shown that mandated volunteering results in decreased engagement later in life (Ghose and Kassam 2014) highlighting the potential for undermining effects when the pro-social and intrinsic nature of volunteering is removed. Yet, some studies show youth support obligation-based community service and view it as wrong to not volunteer (Metzger and Ferris 2013). Thus, one of my secondary questions (SRQ3) explores whether being coerced into volunteering will weaken the individuals’ motivation and consequently influencing the relation between the volunteer and the organization and the effort or intensity they would exert.

In this chapter, I compare the effort and motivation between voluntary and coerced volunteers. I use PSM to garner a better understanding of “an individual’s orientation to delivering service to people with the purpose of doing good for others and society” (Perry and Hondeghem 2008, p.6). I then link PSM to volunteering intensity (Rodell 2013), a proxy for the perceived mental, physical and emotional effort of volunteers. Using this alternative outcome variable has the potential to provide a better understanding of the perceived effort exerted. I then take the potentially mediating effect of person-organization fit (P-O fit) into account because it explains the match between an individual and an organization (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005). Coerced individuals’ motivation may not be affected negatively; especially if they have chosen to volunteer with an organization that they feel there will be a

good match with. I recognize that coercion can operate at different extremes. It can be mild when the individual feels obligated to help others, but feels good about volunteering to help others. This feel good sense when volunteering out of a sense of obligation could strengthen the relation between PSM and P-O fit. In contrast, it can be extreme when the individual feels they have no choice because it has been mandated. Therefore, if they had a choice for picking which organization to volunteer for, PSM could still lead to a positive P-O fit, but because it was mandated I expect the it to weaken the relation between P-O fit and volunteering intensity. Hence, I am interested in how PSM, P-O fit and volunteering intensity differ for coerced individuals that may do so out of a sense of obligation or because it is mandatory.

This chapter continues building the conversation from PSM leading to volunteering intensity, but also begins to contribute to the academic conversation concerning coerced volunteers and volunteer programs (Law and Shek 2009; Gallant et al. 2010) and if P-O fit can override the potentially negative aspect of coercion.

Typically, studies about coerced volunteers focus along the lines of medical trials (Allmark and Mason 2006; Noah 2010). However, rarely are these volunteer studies looking at the coerced volunteers' motivations outside of wanting to survive (Law and Shek 2009). While there are many studies about how mandated or compulsorily community service programs affect youth and university students future intentions to volunteer (Stukas and Snyder 1999; Henderson et al. 2007; Henderson et al. 2014), few look at the actual effort exerted during mandated volunteering. This particular gap in the literature is important to examine because it is possible that the changing trend of volunteering to micro-volunteering or one-off volunteering means volunteers are connected by their social networks and therefore feel a greater obligation to assist. Understanding how volunteering out of a sense obligation could assist non-profits that are increasingly relying on social media movements to bring attention to their causes. Additionally, with mandated programs arising in the UK that

targets adults of working age, research is needed to help volunteer managers get the most out of the mandated volunteers. Instead of studying whether being coerced will affect future volunteering, I argue scholars should instead focus on the effort or intensity exerted during individual volunteering experience.

The first aim of this chapter is to understand how individuals' motivation, when coerced, leads to expending volunteering intensity. I propose that individuals with higher levels of public service motivation will naturally exert greater levels of volunteering intensity because of their natural predisposition to help others. Secondly, volunteers typically self-select into organizations they feel they will have a good match for (Rodell et al. 2016), but when it is mandatory or out of a sense of obligation- the volunteers may not have that freedom. Therefore, if I explore the mediating role of person-organization fit between PSM and volunteering intensity when volunteers are coerced to see if it makes a difference. Third, I aim to understand how coercion moderates the relation between the three proposed variables. I argue that by comparing coerced (obligated and mandated) and non-coerced volunteers I will be able to fill the gaps in the literature and answer my secondary research question, "Does coerced volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?"

I do this by first exploring the theoretical implications of linking volunteer intensity, PSM, person-organization fit and coerced volunteering. I then present a modified version of my initial conceptual model based on a set of hypotheses. Next, research methods and the data collection are discussed. Third, I present the findings using ordinary least squared regression. The chapter concludes with implications of my findings and recommendations for future research.

## **6.2 Theoretical Framework**

This section expands on the volunteering intensity, PSM and P-O fit literature reviewed in the previous chapters 1-5, but in relation to coercion. Consequently, the theoretical focus is mainly on the different types of coercion and how it interplays with the other variables.

### **6.2.1 The Coerced Volunteer**

Dugosh et al. (2010) stipulates that coercion is a result of pressures to avoid repercussions, financial motives and outside pressures. In a later study (Dugosh et al. 2014), they found that social networks and how volunteers felt they were being treated played a large roll in influencing individuals perception of coercion. Consequently, this section explores the two spectrums of coerced volunteers. The first is the obligated volunteer where one feels beholden to volunteer through either outside pressure or consequences to share their time or resources (Brummel and Parker 2015). The second is mandatory or compulsory volunteering that is either directed or implied and where failure to do so may result in individual consequences. The changes in the volunteering landscape from long-term committed volunteers to glam or micro and online volunteering may have increased volunteering out of a sense of obligation to their social networks. Subsequently, coerced volunteers at either end of the spectrum should to be taken into consideration collectively as coerced and differentiated by their perceived circumstance. How the coercion fits into the model will be discussed at the later end of the literature review.

### **6.2.2 Volunteering intensity**

Volunteering intensity consists of the physical, mental or emotional effort that one exerts when “choose[ing] to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility without concern for monetary profit, going beyond one’s basic obligation” (Ellis 2005, p.4). Previous chapters explored how other studies have dealt with physical, mental and emotional effort to give a better understanding to the overall importance of volunteering intensity. When it comes to coerced volunteering- mandatory specifically- the amount of time one must



volunteer is often mandated by the school or program. This means that measuring volunteering intensity based off of time or frequency is not adequate because all “volunteers” would have the same set of hours needed to graduate. Rather, it is necessary for scholars to use alternative ways of measuring volunteering intensity. Using Rodell’s (2013) measurement allows one to address this. However, here it is important to distinguish how the different aspects are influenced by varying degrees of coercion.

Glanville et al. (2011) examined volunteer intensity as measured by the physical amount of time volunteers spent on-site in an area of flooding in Iowa. They found that participants that had been asked to volunteer correlated with a greater likelihood of volunteering. Volunteers who felt obliged to help were most influenced by their social networks exerting pressure, hence making the influence of social networks on volunteer intensity notable. Though, Glanville et al. (2011) did attributed proximity to one’s home as having an additional influence. In other studies, volunteers who were obligated to do manual labor in a community development programs as part of a tourism leisure in Kenya, reported that the obligation was agreeable if they felt it was a pleasant experience (Lepp 2009). Similarly, other scholar’s equated volunteering intensity to being the physical time spent volunteering (Wymer 1999; Hooghe and Botterman 2012).

The second element of volunteering intensity, the cognitive or mental effort that volunteers exert is not as prolific with studies such as those based on physical effort. Rather these studies tend to examine volunteer mental health teams in times of disaster such as the 2008 Hurricane Katrina in the USA (Levy 2008) or the 1995 Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in Japan (Kako and Ikeda 2009). Traumatic events often result in the largest call for cognitive or mental effort by health care volunteers who use their learned skills to help others. Scholars exploring the antecedents of volunteering by health care volunteers (Alias

and Ismail 2015) discovered, again, social networks play an important role in ‘encouraging’ others to volunteer.

Finally, the emotional effort volunteers exert is important to be taken into consideration because “[e]motions, after all, are the threads that hold mental life together” (LeDoux 1999, p.11). Wang (2013) explored the emotional connection that volunteers felt when they had direct interaction with beneficiaries. She found volunteers “equated good care with emotional labor” (2013, p.540). This emotional labor can be the building blocks for obligation. Taken together, directly measuring the mental or emotional effort is difficult though.

### **6.2.3 Public Service Motivation and Coercion**

PSM implies that individuals have a propensity to deliver public service in order to benefit others (Perry and Hondeghem 2008). Although coercion has not been investigated in PSM studies there is evidence from several studies that might facilitate senses of obligation. Belle’s (2013) PSM study exploring behavior of public and non-profit employees found high levels of PSM in nurses lead to increased job performance, especially when the emotional connection of meeting the beneficiary is included. This connection could be leading to a sense of obligation. While Belle (2013) focused on the emotional connection, it is the nature of this connection that could actually lead to a sense of obligation. Whereas, Jensen and Andersen (2015) found that doctors with a higher sense of PSM felt an obligation to society opposed to the individual when it came to prescribing anti-biotics. Alternatively, it could be interpreted that doctors felt coerced by patients to prescribe anti-biotics, but their levels of PSM dictated that the good of society needed to be protected from anti-biotics becoming ineffective.

### **6.2.4 Person-Organization Fit and Coercion**

Individual attitudes may lead one to think there will be a good match between themselves and the organization (Kristof 1996). Because volunteers are not hired and fired, there needs to be

a supplementary fit where the volunteer shares similar goals and values as the organization they are volunteering with, in order for the activity to be beneficial to both parties (Quratulain and Khan 2015b). The previous chapters have addressed the theoretical aspects of P-O fit; however, understanding how different variables influence P-O fit of volunteers is largely unanswered in volunteering literature.

### **6.2.5 Moderating Effects of Coercion**

Coerced volunteering out of obligation or a sense of compulsion could be considered guilt volunteering as a result of implicit ideological psychological contract (Vantilborgh et al. 2014). On the overall continuum of coerced volunteering, there are two extremes: obligated and mandated. This section will define and critically analyze why the two extremes can have a different impact on different paths within the model. While I am not arguing that each case is steadfast in terms of negative or positive experience, rather it is a generalist view. The experience of the P-O fit plays an important part in whether coercion will have an impact on different paths.

When examining the impact of coercion (obligation and mandatory) simultaneously, its overall impact is expected to negatively influence the relation between ones PSM and effort that they will exert. For someone who doesn't want to be involved in volunteering in the first place, initial PSM levels should not matter. By the very nature of being coerced, they are expected to exert less effort. Following the crowding out logic, those with high levels of PSM could experience a dampening of their desire to exert effort due to coercion crowding out the intrinsic aspect of PSM similar to those who had elements that are contradictory to the nature of PSM (Georgellis and Tabvuma 2010). However, some studies have shown that traditional aspects such as pay performance has not crowded out the intrinsic nature of PSM (Stazyk 2013). Some studies have shown that individuals say there were barriers to volunteering such as lack of opportunity or knowing about opportunities to contribute

(Hodgkinson 1995). It is possible that coerced volunteering will provide an opportunity for those who have a natural inclination to help others, but had not had a chance to do so in a formal setting. However, more likely, if one had high PSM levels then they would be volunteering as a result of their internal desire to engage in public service. Rather, feeling as if the choice to volunteer freely versus coerced will weaken the individuals desire to exert a greater effort. Therefore, the following is hypothesized.

*Hypothesis 1: Coercion weakens the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity.*

When breaking down coercion to the extremes (obligated and mandatory), some scholars believe obligated volunteering reflects a commitment and duty (Gallant et al. 2016). Individuals wanting to be identified as ‘good’ may often feel obligated to behave in prosocial manners (Ariely et al. 2009). For example, parents may often feel obligated to volunteer in programs that their children are involved in (Taniguchi 2006). In particular, school and youth sports volunteering may feel like an obligation because they wish to be seen as a good, supportive parent or they fear that if they do not volunteer then junior might not get any playtime in the football game (Day and Devlin 1996; Schlesinger and Nagel 2013). Parents are not alone in this category though. Public sector employees whose organizations run volunteer schemes, private sector employees whose companies are engage in corporate social responsibility programs and even non-profit employees too may feel an unspoken psychological contract that they perceive it implies participation as an obligation.

However, volunteering out of a sense of obligation does not necessarily imply it is negative. Knutsen and Chan (2015) found reoccurring themes amongst non-profit employees volunteering at work due to it matching their internal values. Still, for others that know there may be no legal ramifications if they do not volunteer, they may be highly encouraged by

their organizations leadership, their manager or peer group to take part in a volunteering activity. While the initial cause may be a sense of obligation, a positive experience means they can easily move towards increased volunteering and become serial volunteers. Likewise, a negative experience can propel the volunteer to feel psychologically coerced into volunteering. This could be exacerbated if they perceive a negative repercussion on their job in the event they do not take part. For those individuals who have high PSM levels, the sense of obligation will not impact them as severely because volunteering allows them to fulfill their inherent desire to help others. Despite volunteering out of a sense of obligation, if their true self is reflected by a desire to serve others, then those with high levels of motivation could result in a reflection of their ‘preferred self’ (Shantz et al. 2014) and not negatively influence effort they exert. Thus, these arguments suggest the following:

*Hypothesis 2a: Obligated coercion moderates the relation between an individual’s PSM levels and P-O fit.*

*Hypothesis 2b: The effect will be stronger for those having high PSM rather than low PSM.*

*Hypothesis 2c: P-O fit will mediated the relation between PSM and P-O Fit when moderated by obligation.*

When examining the second type of coerced (or mandated) volunteering, scholars have felt it would inhibit the sustained nature of volunteering (Stukas and Snyder 1999) while others argue that if an action is seen as a punishment that it would undermine or crowd out motivations (Frey and Jegen 2001) . Educational institutions that require a certain number of

volunteering hours or community service in order for the student to achieve a degree or course level fall into this category of mandatory volunteering (Henderson et al. 2014). Clerkin et al. (2009) found that 88% of their volunteer sample were required to volunteer as part of their high school program. Additionally, organizations such as Girl or Boy Scouts- that require members to volunteer in order to earn a badge or to achieve a coveted Eagle Scout award- have made volunteering by the individual mandatory if they wish to take part in that aspect of that program.

Being 'volun-told' (i.e. being told that they need to volunteer) falls within the category of mandatory volunteering. For example, when employees are told that while a program is technically voluntary, they are expected to be onsite during the volunteering event instead of at their desk. This tends to be prevalent in the US military where service members are volun-told to partake in a voluntary action that they have no interest in (McNierney 2015). Therefore, mandatory volunteering is a threat that is stronger than implied obligations as the individual believes there will be negative consequences for not volunteering. If forced to volunteer, the individual is unlikely to exert much effort. Not surprisingly, Azari et al. (2010) found that service members who were not volun-told tend to perform better. This form of mandatory volunteering can also be found in corporate volunteering in organizations that have a climate that does not permit for much individual divergence. However, it can also be prevalent in organizations where employees are constantly being asked to give up their time to support a cause they have no interest in volunteering for (Muthuri et al. 2009). Therefore, if an individual has a high levels of PSM which would lead to a good P-O fit, mandatory volunteering is expected to crowd out that the positive link between P-O fit and volunteering intensity and thus weaken the overall effect. Those with no natural tendency to volunteer will feel the exasperating effect of mandated volunteering more so. Taken together, I hypothesize

the following.

*Hypothesis 3a: Mandatory coercion moderates the relation between P-O fit and volunteer intensity.*

*Hypothesis 3b: The effect will be stronger for those having low PSM rather than high PSM.*

In the previous chapters, there were mixed findings for how the PSM dimensions related to P-O fit and volunteering intensity. In the discussion, it evolved that a possible reason for this could be due to volunteers being coerced. Charbonneau and Ryzin (2016) found that parents who took children to do volunteer week had a significant impact on improving self-sacrifice, though not on PSM levels overall. Based on the same argument presented in the previous chapters for PSM dimensions, P-O fit and volunteering, the same hypothesis will be tested from chapter 3 and 4, but with the caveat of being coerced.

*Hypothesis 4a: Coercion moderates the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a religious or youth organization.*

*Hypothesis 4b: Coercion moderates the relation between compassion and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a health organization.*

*Hypothesis 4c: Coercion moderates the relation between commitment to public interest and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a culture, arts and education organization.*

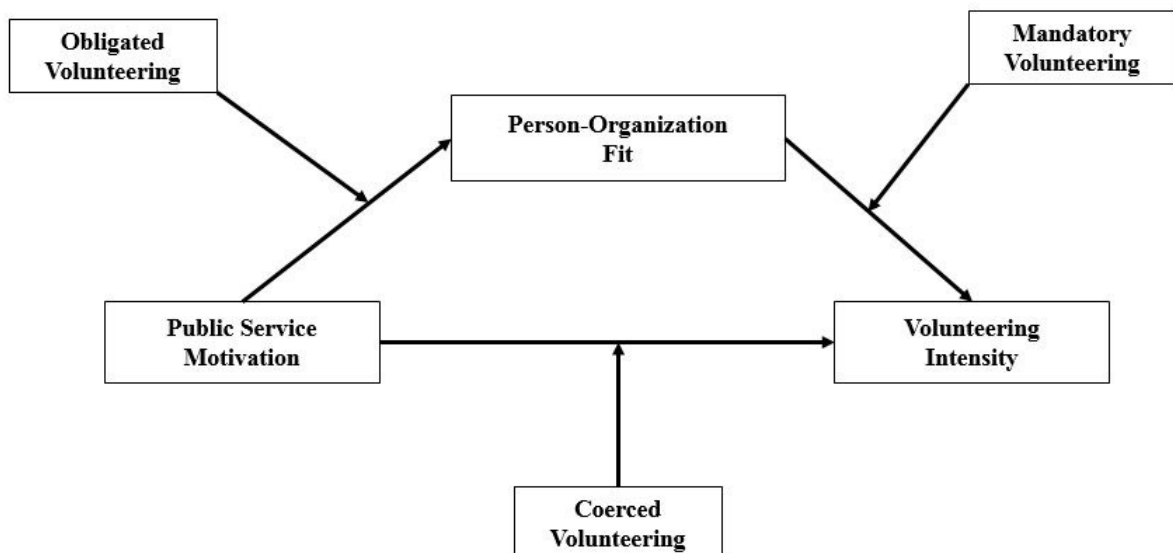
*Hypothesis 4d: Coercion moderates the relation between attraction to policy making and volunteer intensity when volunteering in work organization.*

*Hypothesis 4e: Coercion moderates the relation between civic duty and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a civic or public safety organization.*

*Hypothesis 4f: Coercion moderates the relation between social justice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in an advocacy organization.*

With the addition coercion, obligation and mandatory, the original model proposed in Chapter 2 has been adapted. Consequently, Figure 6.1 depicts the conceptual model as related to the three elements of cohesion.

*Figure 6.1 Conceptual model of Coerced volunteers*





### **6.3 Method**

To test the hypotheses, I took the initial sample from chapter 3 and combined it with a separate sample taken from a student population at a university in the same region. The survey sample from chapter 4 had additionally asked volunteers if there were organizations that they would never consider volunteering with and if they had volunteered out of a sense of obligation or because it was mandatory. The student sample in chapter 5 were not asked if they volunteered because it was mandatory or due to obligation. Therefore, a repeat of the survey from chapter 4 was sent out to university students in southern UK. This was done in order to ensure a potential population of millennials was included in the sample. Due to issues about the possibility of being coerced not addressed in the previous sample, data needed to be collected again. The student population received the same survey as the Dorset volunteers which had asked about volunteering out of a sense of obligation or because it was mandated. In order to ensure the two samples did not overlap, respondents were asked to create a unique user code. This was compared to the current sample used in Chapter 4 to ensure there were no duplication of respondents. Accordingly, there were 416 usable responses (54.3% from Eastern Dorset, 21.2% from Western Dorset and student sample from Central Dorset 24.5%). The final population sample consisted of 65.9% females, without children 59.4% and 51.2% married. Age ranged from 15-90 with the two largest generations represented being Generation Y (35.8%) and Baby Boomers (34.1%). Respondents were predominantly employed (57.7%) with half of the employed volunteers coming from the private sector (118 individuals) (table 6.1).

*Table 6.1 Frequency Table (UK volunteers and students)*

Background of Respondents		
N. 416	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	142	34.1
Female	274	65.9
<b>Generation</b>		
Gen Z (21 and under)	44	10.6
Gen Y (22-39)	149	35.8
Gen X (40-50)	54	13
Baby Boomers (51-70)	142	34.1
Silent (71 and over)	27	6.5
<b>Civil Status</b>		
Single (never married)	168	40.4
Married (living with partner)	213	51.2
Divorced	23	5.5
Widowed	12	2.9
<b>Children</b>		
No	247	59.4
Yes	169	40.6
<b>Employed</b>		
Yes	240	57.7
No	176	42.3

### **6.3.1 Measures of Main Variables**

The dependent variable (DV) volunteer intensity was measured using Rodell's (2013) five item scale and was measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree and 7 = strongly disagree). The independent variables (IV) PSM and P-O-fit were measured on a 5-point

Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree). PSM was measured using Perry's (1996) 40-item scale. P-O fit, was measured by using Bright's (2008) four-item scale. Finally, coerced volunteering was determined by asking respondents "I felt obligated to volunteer" and "It was mandatory that I volunteer" for nine different types of volunteering categories (Rotolo and Wilson 2006a). A dummy variable for obligated and mandatory volunteering was then created for each (0 = no, 1 = yes). For the variable of coerced (overall) volunteering, I created a dummy variable that checked for a history of obligated and/or mandatory volunteering (0 = no, 1 = yes).

### **6.3.2 Control variables**

Socio-demographic variables that were shown in volunteer literature to affect coerced volunteering were chosen as control variables. Biological gender was controlled for (male =0, female =1) because studies have found that women tend to volunteer the most (Taniguchi 2006). Studies have found that volunteering out of a sense of obligation is significantly related to age (Brummel and Parker 2015). Age was asked for and then categorized by generation (breakdown of ages into generations is shown in Table 6.1, where if an individual was a member of a generation it was coded 0= no, 1= yes). Likewise, married people also have a tendency to volunteer more than their single counterparts (Rotolo and Wilson 2006b), especially due to spousal influence (0= not married, 1=married). Parents tend to volunteer more often due to children (0= no, 1= yes) although when the children are at different ages (Taniguchi 2006). Finally, employed was controlled for (0= not employed, 1= employed) in the event individuals were pressured through their work environment (Grant 2012).

### **6.4 Analytical Strategy**

Due to a combination of data from Chapter 4 and new student data described above, the challenges of the data were already known. However, In order to remain consistent, the same data screening decisions in Chapter 4 and 5 were followed in this sample.

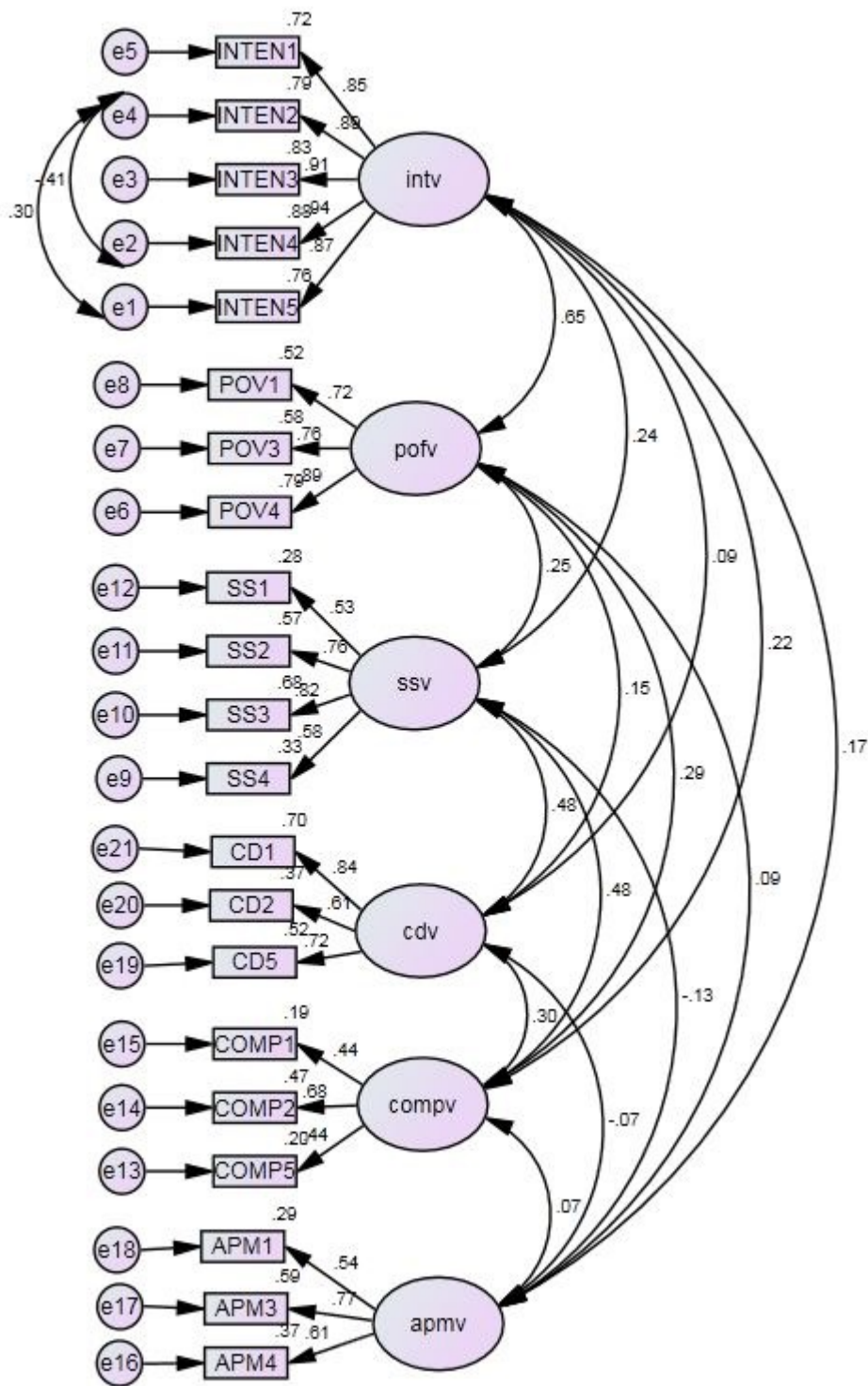
#### **6.4.1. Data Screening**

After the cases where data was missing or had unengaged responses was screened, I assessed skewness and kurtosis. One item from self-sacrifice was negatively skewed and had a kurtosis of 3.288. This question would later be eliminated during the CFA.

#### **6.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Due to low reliability and cross loadings, some items were dropped to include the dimension commitment to public interest and social justice. This falls in line with the EFA in Chapter 4. The CFA had an acceptable level of goodness of fit (Chi-square 283.294/ DF 172 = 1.647, CFI= .973, RMSEA= .039, PCLOSE= .985) (figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized estimates)



\*INTV= Volunteering Intensity, POFV= Person-Organization Fit, CDV= Civic Duty, APMV= Attraction to Policy Making, SSV= Self-Sacrifice, COMPV= Compassion

As a result of commitment to public interest and social justice being dropped, I was unable to test corresponding hypotheses: 4c and 4f. For the remaining dimensions the composite reliability are compassion= .533, self-sacrifice = .772, civic duty= .770, attraction to policy making = .674, volunteering intensity = .951 and P-O fit = .835 (table 6.2). The AVE remains a problem with compassion and attraction to policy making. Following the discussion in 4.4.2. Factor Analyses, the decision remains to retain the items below.

Table 6.2- Composite reliability and Correlations

	CR	AVE	MSV	Max R(H)	Mean	S.D.	Correlations											
							1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
1. Intensity	0.951	0.796	0.424	0.959	5.59	1.163	<b>(.892)</b>											
2. P-O Fit	0.835	0.630	0.424	0.967	3.96	.659	.566**	<b>(.794)</b>										
3. Compassion	0.533	0.285	0.226	0.575	3.60	.597	.156**	.162**	<b>(.534)</b>									
4. Self-Sacrifice	0.772	0.467	0.229	0.971	3.22	.645	.225**	.233**	.330**	<b>(.683)</b>								
5. Civic Duty	0.770	0.531	0.229	0.974	3.32	.787	.082	.173**	.190**	.391**	<b>(.729)</b>							
6. APM <sup>a</sup>	0.674	0.414	0.028	0.976	3.42	.668	.151**	.069	.037	-.077	-.066	<b>(.643)</b>						
7. Gender					.66	.475	.115*	.102*	.142**	-.068	-.109*	-.002						
8. GenY					.36	.480	-.240**	-.208**	-.169**	-.032	.040	-.160**	-.128**					
9. Married					.51	.500	.321**	.264**	.135**	-.007	-.022	.332**	-.003	-.414**				
10. Children					.41	.492	.262**	.266**	.172**	.084	.078	.214**	-.045	-.465**	.553**			
11. Employed					.58	.495	-.200**	-.104*	-.093	.007	.015	-.107*	-.103*	.315**	-.223**	-.173**		

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note \* CR= Composite reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, MSV= Maximum Shared Variance, MaxR(H)=Maximum Reliability, S.D. = Standard Deviation, a= APM= Attraction to Policy Making; Because the control variables are dichotomous, AMOS does not calculate composite reliability.

CMB was checked using Harman's single factor test. It showed extraction was for one factor only and 24.452% variance was explained which meets acceptable standard of under 50% (Byrne 2010). Hence CMB is probably not an issue.

I conducted a configural invariance test based on gender. Gender was chosen for the two groups because of its categorical structure. I obtained an adequate goodness of fit (Chi-square (510.242)/ DF (344) = 1.483, CFI= .960, RMSEA= .034, PCLOSE .999) when analyzing a freely estimated model across the two groups. I observed configural invariance, which showed the two groups are not different. When metric invariance was explored, the loading themselves were roughly equivalent across groups, showing the two groups understood the questions the same way.

Lastly, a multicollinearity test for PSM dimensions showed the mean variance inflation factor (VIF) is less than three and the single highest VIF is 1.283 and therefore acceptable (Hair 2010).

## **6.5 Findings**

Hypothesis 1 expects coercion to moderate the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity. As indicated in Model 3, Table 6.3, there was not a significant interaction between PSM and volunteer intensity (PSM X Coerced  $\beta = -.107, p = .703$ ). However, there were significant conditional effects of PSM on intensity by coerced volunteers in the presence of no coercion level ( $\beta = .583, s.e. = .142, p < .001$ ), and in the presence of coercion ( $\beta = .476, s.e. = .239, p < .05$ ) as depicted in Figure 6.3. Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator. The model accounted for 19.1% of the variance in volunteer intensity. While there is no evidence that coercion weakens or strengthens the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity, the conditional effect suggests those who are coerced into volunteering who naturally have low levels of PSM will report higher levels intensity than their non-coerced



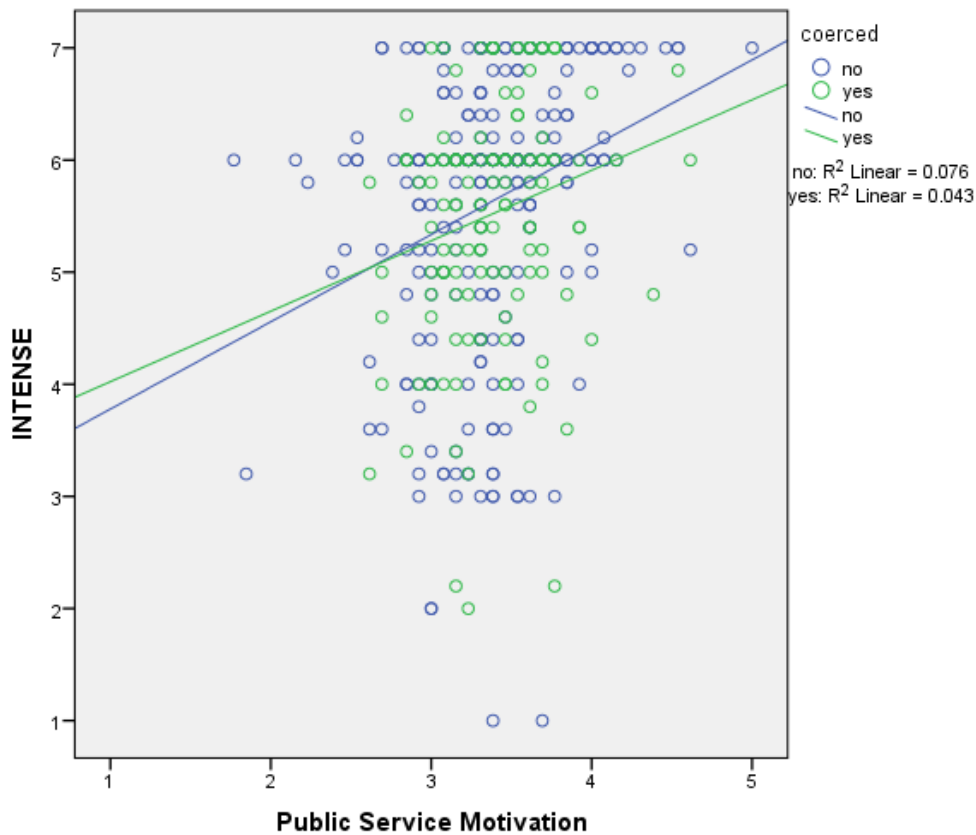
counterparts. Additionally, there is evidence that coercion is significantly related to volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .260, p < .05$ ) implying that there are elements impacting the individuals' perceived level of effort exerted. However, coercion does not moderate the relationship between PSM and volunteering intensity so Hypothesis 1 is rejected.

*Table 6.3 Regression model for PSM and Coerced as a moderator (robust standard errors in parentheses)*

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity
Variable	coeff	coeff	coeff
Constant	5.260*** (.156)	3.336*** (.464)	5.253*** (.160)
Gender	0.250* (.114)	0.265* (.112)	0.287* (.118)
GenY	-0.137 (.133)	-0.132 (.131)	-0.159 (.145)
Married	0.509*** (.131)	0.484*** (.129)	0.551*** (.133)
Children	0.240† (.137)	0.155 (.136)	0.173 (.133)
Employed	-0.247* (.114)	-0.238* (.112)	-0.252* (.108)
Coerced			.260* (.125)
PSM		0.579*** (.132)	0.548*** (.122)
PSM X Coerced			-.107 (.281)
R-squared	0.143	0.182	0.191
F	(5)13.706 p <.001	(6)15.148 p <.001	(8)13.597 p <.001
Observations=	416	416	416

*Note: \*\*\* p <.001, \*\* p <.01, \* p <.05, † p <.10*

Figure 6.3 Simple Slopes (PSM)



Hypothesis 2a expects obligation to moderate the relation between PSM and P-O fit, thus in Hypothesis c affecting volunteer intensity. Results are displayed in Table 6.4. The model accounted for 37.6% of the variance in volunteer intensity. The interaction effect between PSM and P-O fit was significant (PSM X Obligation  $\beta = .287, p < .10$ ). Thus, there is initial support for Hypothesis 2a. There was also significant conditional indirect (CI) effect of PSM on Intensity by obligated volunteers in the presence of no obligation ( $\beta = .256, s.e. = .070, 95\% \text{ LLCI } .1352 \text{ to ULCI } .4161$ ) and with obligation ( $\beta = .498, s.e. = .134, 95\% \text{ LLCI } .2480 \text{ to ULCI } .7648$ ). This suggests that there is support for Hypothesis 2b which expects the levels will be stronger for those having high PSM rather than low PSM. When exploring moderated mediation as suggested by Hypothesis 2c, it is important to note the moderator, obligation is a dichotomous variable. Consequently, “ $\delta$  is set to the difference between the

two values of the moderator coding the two groups, so as to produce an index that is equal to the difference between the two conditional indirect effects” (Hayes 2013b addendum, p.3).

Using Hayes’ (2015) index of moderated mediation<sup>7</sup> ( $\beta = .242$  s.e.= .141, 95% LLCI -.0502 to ULCI .7648), there is no evidence supporting Hypothesis 2c.

*Table 6.4 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator and obligation as a moderator*

Variable	DV: PO-fit		DV: Intensity	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	3.725***	.087	2.135***	0.375
PSM	.384***	.071	.274**	0.105
Obligation	.018	.069		
PSM X Obligation	0.287†	.168		
Gender	.155*	0.065	0.139	0.11
GenY	-.070	.080	-0.073	0.125
Married	0.182*	.088	.330**	0.106
Children	0.168*	.085	0.018	0.106
Employed	-0.017	0.068	-.225*	0.094
P-O Fit			.844***	0.094
R-squared	0.157		0.376	
F	(8)=13.236, p<.001		(7)=28.7294, p<.001	
Observations=	416			

*Note \*\*\* p <.001, \*\* p <.01, \* p <.05, † p <.10; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)*

<sup>7</sup> Hayes (2015) developed an index of moderated mediation which “test a quantification of the association between an indirect effect and a moderator- followed by an inference as to whether this index is different from zero.” (Hayes 2015, p. 2). The mediated effect varies at different levels of the moderator. Hayes (2015) index of moderation reflect two conditional indirect effects that show they are statistically different and hence support evidence of moderated mediation.

Hypothesis 3a expects mandatory volunteering to weaken the relation between P-O fit and volunteer intensity. Table 6.5 displays the results. The model accounted for 37.6% of the variance in volunteer intensity. The interaction effect was not significant between P-O fit and volunteer intensity (P-O fit X Mandatory  $\beta = .070, p = .793$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 3a is not supported. However, there were significant conditional indirect effects of PSM on intensity by mandatory volunteers in the presence of not mandatory ( $\beta = .302, s.e. = .068, 95\% \text{ LLCI } .1804 \text{ to ULCI } .4544$ ) and mandatory ( $\beta = .327, s.e. = .103, 95\% \text{ LLCI } .1613 \text{ to ULCI } .5753$ ). However, the effect size is larger for mandated volunteers so Hypothesis 3b is not supported. The index of moderated mediation ( $\beta = .091, 95\% \text{ LLCI } -.1519 \text{ to ULCI } .2091$ ) was also not significant when bootstrapped. Thus, hypothesis 3c is rejected.

*Table 6.5 Regression model for PSM and Model Coefficients for P-O Fit as a mediator and mandatory as a moderator*

	DV: P-O Fit		DV: Intensity	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	-1.445***	0.244	4.573***	0.384
PSM	.362***	0.071	.268*	0.105
P-O fit			.846***	0.096
Gender	.149*	0.065	0.139	0.111
Gen Y	-0.07	0.079	-0.08	0.131
Married	0.183 †	0.084	.337**	0.108
Children	0.162 †	0.086	0.025	0.109
Employed	-0.015	0.067	-.226*	0.094
Mandatory			0.054	0.153
P-O Fit X Mandatory			0.07	0.265
R-squared	0.152		0.376	
F	(6)=16.628, p<.001		(9)=22.1035, p<.001	
Observations=	416			

*Note \*\*\* p <.001, \*\* p <.01, \* p <.05, † p <.10; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)*

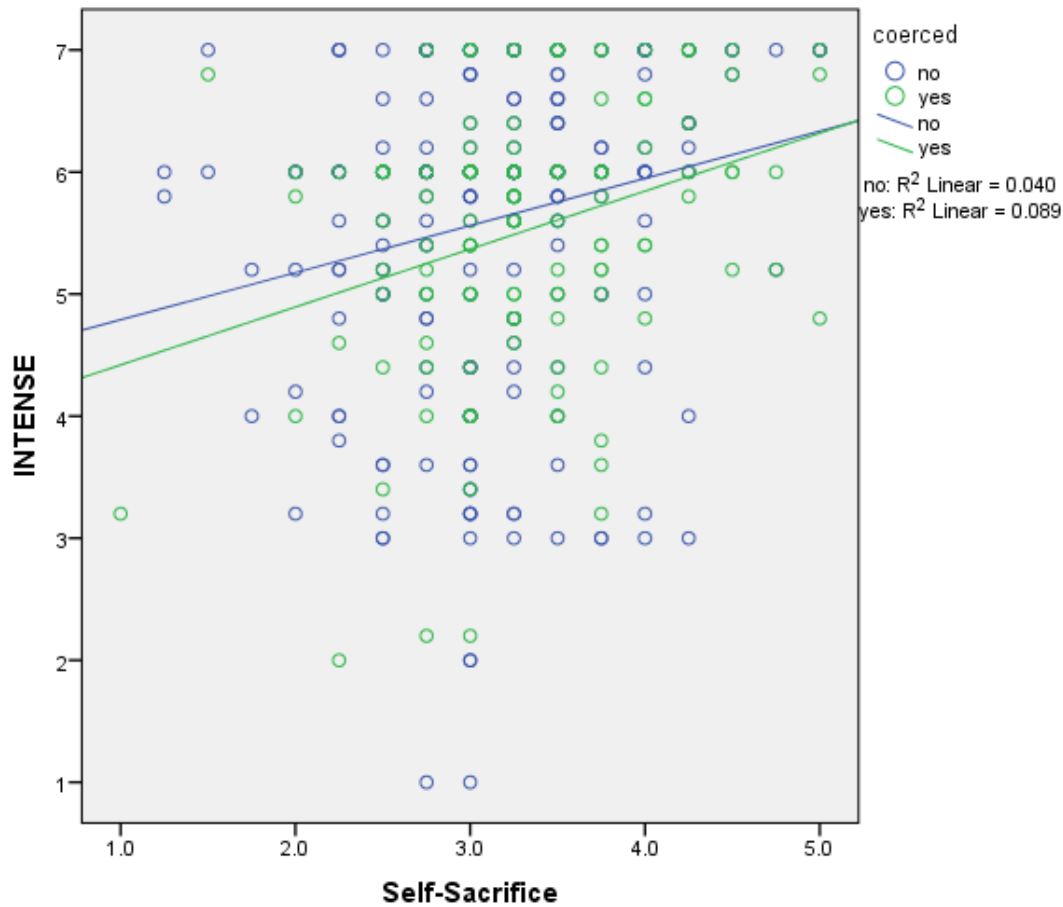
In the previous chapters, there was initial evidence that different PSM dimensions were more evident in certain types of volunteering conditions. However, there were some cases where PSM dimension compassion in both Chapter 4 and 5 was not significantly related to volunteering in health organizations. Attraction to Policy Making and Civic Duty also performed differently than anticipated under the conditions of moderation. Therefore, taking coercion into account Hypothesis 4a expects Coercion to weaken the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a religious or youth organization. This may also provide support as why in Chapter 4 the similar relation was not moderated. As indicated in Model 1, Table 6.6, there was a not significant interaction between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity (SS X Coerced  $\beta = .016, p = .945$ ). The model accounted for 15.8% of the variance in volunteer intensity. However, there were significant conditional effects of self-sacrifice on intensity by coerced volunteers in the presence of no coercion level ( $\beta = .316, p < .10$ ), and in the presence of coercion ( $\beta = .332, p < .05$ ) as depicted in Figure 6.4. Indeed, at low levels of self-sacrifice, individuals who are coerced report less volunteering intensity. However, at high levels of self-sacrifice there appears to be no difference between those who are coerced or not. Therefore, there is limited evidence that coercion weakens the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity. Consequently, hypothesis 4a is rejected.

Table 6.6 Regression model for Self-Sacrifice and Coerced as a moderator (Religious and Youth Organizations)

Variable	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	5.211***	.247	5.191***	.257	5.229***	.256	5.222***	.260
Gender	.358†	0.187	.348†	0.19	.315	0.194	.328†	0.188
GenY	-.155	.203	-.147	.201	-.140	.200	-.199	.202
Married	.431**	.143	.436**	.154	.380*	.154	.383*	.154
Children	.184	.138	.221	.144	.217	.142	.222	.144
Employed	0.04	0.164	0.044	0.169	0.063	0.142	0.035	0.170
Coerced	.000	.179	.037	.181	.021	.177	.027	.184
Self-Sacrifice (SS)	.322**	.124						
SS X Coerced	.016	.236						
Civic Duty (CD)			-.005	.099				
CD X Coerced			-.080	.211				
Compassion (COMP)					.235†	.142		
COMP X Coerced					-.131	.301		
APM <sup>a</sup>							.123	.125
APM X Coerced							-.418	.266
R-squared	0.158		0.119		0.134		0.136	
F	(8)4.3171		(8)3.019		(8)3.972		(8)3.243	
	p<.001		p<.01		p<.001		p<.001	
Observations=	192		192		192		192	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)

Figure 6.4 Simple Slopes (Self-Sacrifice)



Hypothesis 4b expects Coercion to weaken the relation between compassion and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a health organization. This would provide evidence as to why compassion has not previously been significantly related in the preceding chapters. However, as shown in Model 1, Table 6.7, there was a not significant interaction between compassion and volunteer intensity (COMP X Coerced  $\beta = -.131, p = .665$ ) nor were the conditional effects of compassion on intensity by coerced volunteers significant (figure 6.5). Therefore, there is no support and hypothesis 4b is rejected. However, while not hypothesized, there was evidence that the interaction between civic duty and coercion was significant ( $\beta = -.440, p < .10$ ) as shown in Model 3, Table 6.7. The negative interaction

implies that it weakens the relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity. Additionally, while the interaction effect between self-sacrifice was not significant (model 3, table 6.7), there were significant conditional effects in the presence of no coercion level ( $\beta = .748, s.e. = .244, p < .01$ ), and in the presence of coercion ( $\beta = .301, s.e. = .183, p < .10$ ). That self-sacrifice was significant amongst volunteers at health organizations mirrors findings in Chapter 4. However, that the relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity amongst volunteers in health organizations was negatively impacted by coercion will be deliberated later on.

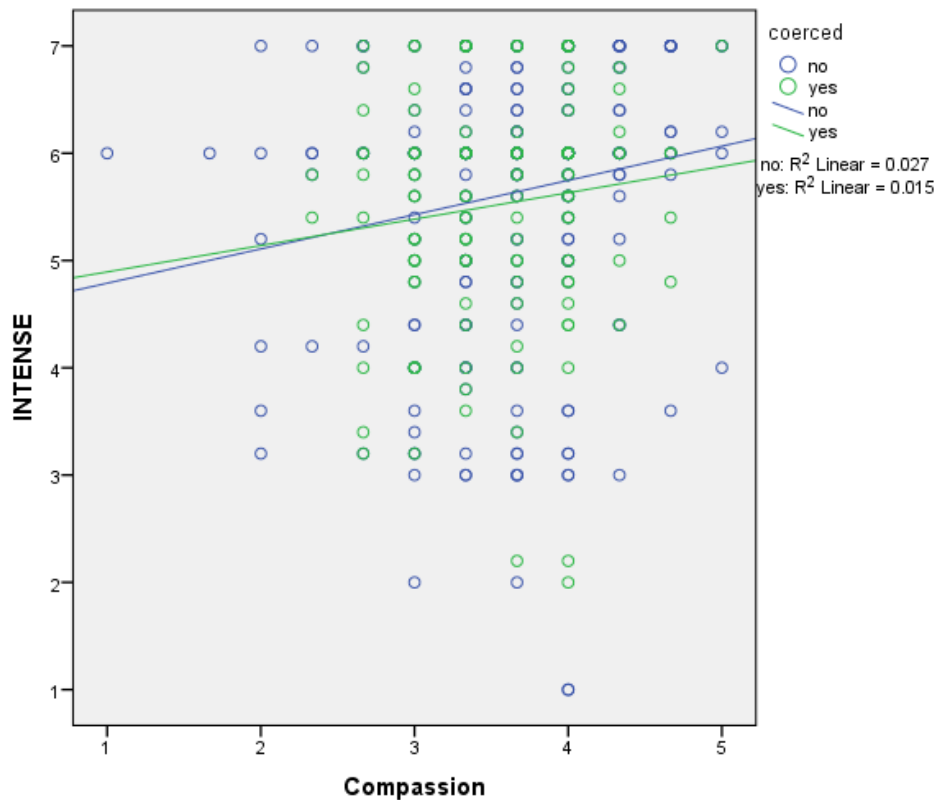


Table 6.7 Regression model for Compassion and Coerced as a moderator (Health Organizations)

Variable	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	4.786***	.404	4.88***	.431	4.712***	.379	4.793***	.412
Gender	.844**	0.317	.868**	0.318	.968**	0.299	.829**	0.318
GenY	.019	.284	-.070	.291	-.043	.263	-.063	.293
Married	.516	.317	.490†	.297	.566†	.297	.545	.360
Children	.071	.289	-.058	.307	-.052	.230	.054	.307
Employed	-0.153	0.237	-0.098	0.215	-0.095	0.223	-0.153	0.245
Coerced	.233	.227	.207	.222	.177	.217	.118	.240
Compassion (COMP)	.074	.171						
COMP X Coerced	-.131	.301						
Civic Duty (CD)			.135	.154				
CD X Coerced			-.440†	.266				
Self-Sacrifice (SS)					.592***	.171		
SS X Coerced					-.447	.305		
APMa							-.192	.242
APM X Coerced							-.214	.436
R-squared	0.174		0.201		0.271		0.182	
F	(8)4.089		(8)4.032		(8)5.785		(8)3.583	
	p<.001		p<.001		p<.001		p<.001	
Observations=	106		106		106		106	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)

Figure 6.5 Simple Slopes (Compassion)



Hypothesis 4d expects Coercion to weaken the relation between attraction to policy making and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a work or professional organization. As shown in Model 1, Table 6.8, there was a not significant interaction between attraction to policy making and volunteer intensity (APM X Coerced  $\beta = -.527, p = .198$ ), nor were the conditional effects of attraction to policy making on intensity by coerced volunteers significant (figure 6.6). Therefore, there is no support and hypothesis 4d is rejected.

Additionally, the interaction effect between civic duty and coercion was significant (model 4, table 6.8) and there were significant conditional effects in the presence of no coercion level ( $\beta = .473, s.e. = .207, p < .05$ ) but not in the presence of coercion ( $\beta = -.177, s.e. = .201, p = .382$ ). That the interaction effect of coercion weakened the relation between civic duty and volunteering intensity amongst volunteers in professional organizations was not expected and will be discussed in the next section.

Table 6.8 Regression model for Attraction to Policy Making and Coerced as a moderator (Professional Organizations)

Variable	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	5.346***	.370	5.365***	.346	5.466***	.351	5.516***	.361
Gender	.430†	0.257	.499†	0.263	.434	0.271	.417	0.265
GenY	-.457	.339	-.397	.305	-.414	.271	-.501	.326
Married	.237	.364	.167	.364	.063	.382	.145	.350
Children	.139	.362	.244	.347	.234	.373	.147	.326
Employed	-0.004	0.282	-0.054	0.259	-0.046	0.276	0.018	0.266
Coerced	-.171	.301	-.279	.276	-.231	.260	-.228	.250
APMa	.106	.196						
APM X Coerced	-.527	.405						
Self-Sacrifice (SS)			0.426**	.167				
SS X Coerced			-.121	.348				
Compassion (COMP)					.422†	.219		
COMP X Coerced					-.052	.455		
Civic Duty (CD)							.206	.144
CD X Coerced							-0.650*	.296
R-squared	0.201		0.236		0.211		0.247	
F	(8)2.2648		(8)3.1234		(8)3.6981		(8)3.980	
	p<.05		p<.01		p<.001		p<.001	
Observations=	78		78		78		78	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)

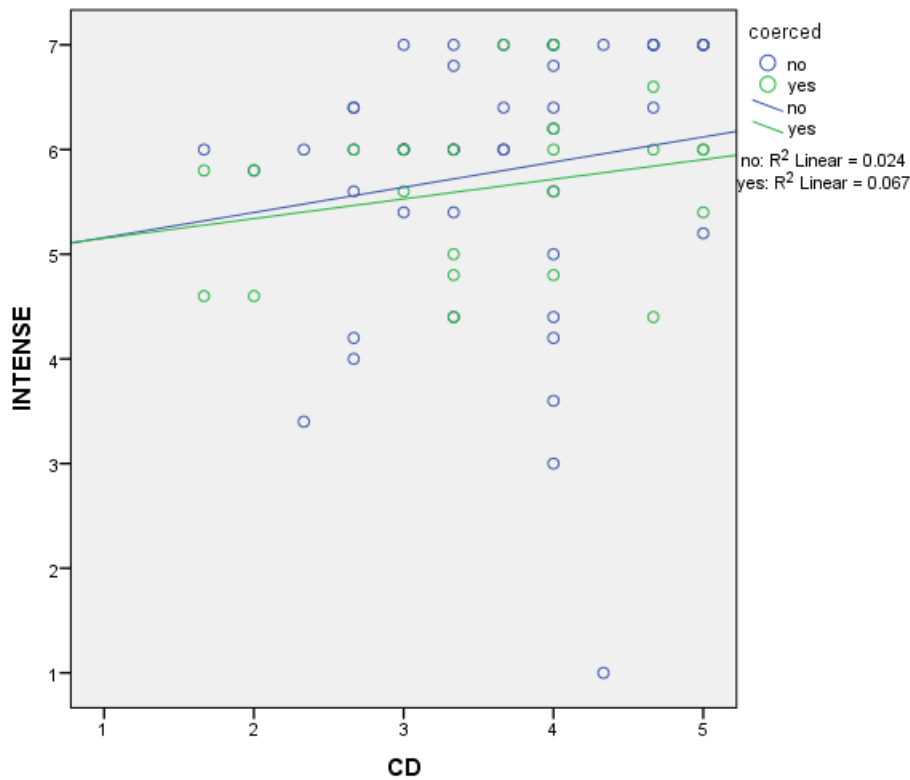


Table 6.9 Regression model for Civic Duty and Coerced as a moderator (Civic or Public Safety)

Variable	Volunteer Intensity							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
Constant	5.306***	.432	5.294***	.387	5.348***	.369	5.449***	.433
Gender	.287	0.288	.194	0.305	.245	0.278	.173	0.312
GenY	-.290	.348	-.282	.317	-.287	.354	-.350	.316
Married	0.723†	.371	.863*	.374	.642†	.358	.694*	.295
Children	-.097	.296	-.148	.288	.014	.276	-.244	.271
Employed	-0.08	0.302	-0.04	0.287	-0.135	0.269	-0.047	0.314
Coerced	.191	.290	.276	.302	.135	.282	.176	.252
Civic Duty (CD)	.172	.166						
CD X Coerced	-.142	.320						
Compassion (COMP)			-.009	.256				
COMP X Coerced			-0.814†	.440				
Self-Sacrifice (SS)					.410*	.210		
SS X Coerced					-.227	.362		
APMa							.420	.299
APM X Coerced							-.531	.443
R-squared	0.141		0.201		0.185		0.173	
F	(8)1.7993		(8)4.032		(8)2.572		(8)2.4907	
	p<.01		p<.001		p<.01		p<.05	
Observations=	69		69		69		69	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; control variables and individual dimensions on their own are shown in the preceding table (6.3)

Figure 6.7 Simple Slopes (Civic Duty)



## 6.6 Discussion and Conclusion

### 6.6.1 Discussion

This chapter contributes to volunteer research through examining how coercion (obligated and mandated) has a limited impact on volunteering intensity. This insight empirically challenges the belief of volunteer organizations that are boycotting the UK Community Work Placement program for fear they will be stuck with unmotivated volunteers. In a dataset that contained individuals who volunteered due to coercion or not, PSM still lead to increased reporting of volunteering intensity and P-O fit. These findings reflect results found in chapter 4 and 5. However, in this case being unemployed was also an important factor. This closely relates to the argument that retirees are viewed as having more free time (Dury et al. 2015) and therefore may actually experience more coercion to volunteers.

When looking at how coercion (regardless of obligation or mandatory nature) would moderate the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity, results were the opposite as hypothesized. In actuality, those with lower levels of PSM, performed better when coerced than others at a comparable level. For individuals who are not naturally inclined to engage in public service, being coerced can actually improve their perceived level of effort. Some volunteer studies suggest that being asked to volunteer may influence a person to do so (Glanville 2011). Consequently, coercion does not have to always be a negative element. For those people in community work placement programs, if they already are not predisposition to attitudes towards community service, mandated programs may lead to increased effort than if they had volunteered of their own volition. However, there was evidence that high levels of PSM reported lower levels of volunteering intensity when coerced. This shows that there is a breaking point where coercion will crowd out the motivation to perform at higher levels. This leads us back to the argument about if those who naturally have attitudes such as high PSM levels can volunteer and still perform better than others. It appears that as long as there is a good relation between high PSM and P-O fit that volunteer intensity is not impacted by being coerced. In the event of low PSM levels, and absence of P-O fit, coerced individuals have a better perception of effort exerted than their non-coerced, low PSM brethren.

When it comes to volunteering out of a sense of obligation, I found evidence that volunteers who felt a sense of obligation to volunteer had the relation between PSM and P-O fit strengthened. But, despite a significant interaction effect and conditional indirect effects, the index of moderated mediation was not significant. In fact, P-O fit continued to mediate the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity regardless of the presence of obligation. There was a significant relation of being married within the model which could fall in line with Rotolo and Wilson's (2006b) and Chen's (2014) studies that both found spouses exert a large amount influence when volunteering. It could be that being married crowds out the

concept of volunteering being an obligation...or as a choice! As I argued earlier, people volunteer through a sense of obligation for their family members, so this finding was expected. I also found that when obligated to volunteer, that being unemployed was significant within the model. This supports the idea that social networks will ask those others with whom there may not be a work-schedule conflict to volunteer their time. Nevertheless, many studies about student volunteering attest- it could be that the volunteering was conducted as it felt obligatory to beef up ones résumé or CV (Tannous and Smith 2012). However, Handy et al. (2010a) found that students that volunteered to in order to build their résumé did not exert a greater level of intensity. The question still remain as to why obligation did not moderate the relation between PSM and P-O fit. It is possible that a different underlying dimension of the strength of social networks (Glanville 2011; Noormi Alias and Ismail 2015) (which was not explored in this study) plays a stronger role in other-oriented individuals who have high PSM levels.

For those volunteers who felt it was mandatory for them to volunteer, I found no evidence that they report lower levels of volunteering intensity compared to other individuals with comparable levels of PSM. Indeed, the conditional indirect effect was significant whether it was mandated or not. Again, the issue of being married and unemployed were significant. It is quite possible that the concept of volun-told should also be applied in the case of marriage. In terms of being unemployed, these results are in direct contrast to Law and Shek's (2009) study that found that children whose parents coerced them into volunteering had a negative association with volunteering in the future. If anything, the failure of mandated volunteering to weaken the relation between P-O fit and volunteering intensity should signal to volunteer managers that having mandated volunteers may not necessarily be a problem. Despite it being mandatory, it could be that the individual has never



had the opportunity to volunteer and is therefore likely to exert effort due to the novelty of the experience.

My final round of discussion relates to the PSM dimensions. For individuals who volunteer with religious or youth activities, those with comparable high levels of self-sacrifice exerted similar volunteering intensity regardless of coercion. It is only at low levels of self-sacrifice that coerced individuals report a lower level of effort. This makes one question if the self-sacrifice dimension itself is crowding out the negative aspects of coercion. Alternatively, self-sacrifice has been found in PSM studies to be closely linked to an increase in volunteering (Lee and Brudney 2015) It could be that self-sacrifice embeddedness in altruism overrides other negative influencers. However, it could be that this reflect Houston's (2008) findings that across sectors, there is a medium level of altruistic values when looking at PSM related attitudes.

Compassion was not found to be a significant factor amongst individuals who volunteer with health organization. Certainly, in the past three studies there has been no evidence that volunteers with a high sense of compassion report an increase in volunteering intensity. This is in direct conflict from other PSM studies that showed those in the medical profession have higher reported levels of compassion (Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013). This brings the possibility that one's job and volunteer habits may feed into different emotional needs.

Similarly, PSM dimension attraction to policy making has failed to significantly impact reported volunteering intensity levels across the past three studies. Even exploring if volunteers were coerced into volunteering for work or professional organizations was not able to answer the lack of evidence. Lacking an explanation as to why people are motivated to volunteer in work organizations, the only thing significant was females tend to exert more

volunteering intensity in this environment. This compliments similar findings in Ertas's (2014) study that found females volunteered at higher rates in political type organizations. It also falls in line with studies that state some people volunteer only to pad their résumés (Guntert et al. 2015) or as an element of ego enhancement (Clary et al. 1998).

Finally, civic duty was not significantly related to volunteering with public safety nor did coercion have an impact. Yet, this is in direct contrast to PSM studies that have found strong links between civic duty and volunteering (Clerkin et al. 2009). When compared amongst the previous studies, the link between civic duty and volunteering intensity is conflicting. However, being married was significant to volunteering intensity when involved in civic protection or public safety organizations. It could be that being part of a family unit encouraged people to volunteer in situations where they could improve public safety.

Overall, my findings compete with the idea that a coerced volunteer will exert a lower level of volunteer intensity. Consequently, this study paves the way for future studies concerning individual motivation, coercion and performance.

### **6.6.2 Limitations and Future Research**

This study is not without limitation though. Measuring whether individuals' volunteered out of a sense of obligation or if it was mandatory was based on the dichotomous values (yes and no). This provides limitations because it does not let academics understand the depth of which the individual felt they were obligated or the severity of the consequences if they choose not to engage in mandatory volunteering. A recently verified scale to measure feelings of obligations was confirmed in 2016 (Gallant et al. 2016). The scale (which was confirmed after my data collection for this study was conducted) measures obligation through commitment (18-items) and duty (14-items). It is recommended that this scale be used in future studies exploring volunteering out of a sense of obligation as it is a more rigorous way of measuring obligation opposed to dichotomous values.

Second, while the control variable for employed was captured- the specific sector was not integrated into the model. The initial decision was made to not include this because of the unequal distribution amongst private, public and non-profit. However, there is evidence that employees from these three sectors have a tendency to have different group memberships in types of volunteering categories (Houston 2008).

Finally, the data population sample looked at the general population of individuals that already had a history of volunteering in the Southwest region of UK. In order to get a more precise understanding of mandatory volunteering, it is recommended to survey a sample of volunteers who have been mandated to volunteer- such as participants of the UK community work placement plan. This would allow the researcher to isolate those who are mandated and explore through in-depth interviews with participants and volunteer organizations how individuals perceive their motivations have been influenced through coercion. Additionally, this would allow researchers to compare the perceived volunteer intensity from two different angles.

### **6.6.3 Conclusion**

In conclusion, the purpose of this chapter was to determine if being coerced into volunteering would undermine the public service motivation of the volunteer. In doing so, I contribute to filling the gaps about coercion and volunteering. While coercion in some cases does affect the relation between motivation and volunteer intensity, its negative effect is overridden in the presence of a positive P-O fit. For practitioners, these findings imply there is a need to ensure pre-screening of individuals mandated to volunteer in order to try to match their individual values with an organization having similar values. For academics, these findings open the debate about the positive aspects of mandatory volunteering. Overall, these findings allow researchers to see another level where the complexity of coercion influences individual

motivation and effort. In the following chapter, I will investigate if the initial arguments for PSM and volunteer intensity differs between time and frequency.

## **CHAPTER 7- The Public Service Motivated Volunteer: Devoting Time or Effort?**

This chapter presents the empirical findings of the final study within this thesis. It addresses whether PSM predicts better time, effort, or intensity. It explores the concept that non-profit organizations, corporate volunteer programs and government workplace schemes are asking volunteers for their time and effort. At the same time, micro-volunteering has grown. Consequently, those managing volunteers need to understand whether they need to focus on whether time or effort is more important to the success of their programs. Using public service motivation to measure volunteer's propensity to engage in volunteering, I compare the outcomes: time spent volunteering, frequency of volunteering and volunteering intensity. Using multiple regression analysis of 416 volunteers in the Southwest of England, I found high levels of PSM are significantly associated with a greater frequency spent volunteering and a higher level of volunteering intensity. This study assists scholars and practitioners in understanding that while time is an important factor, high public service motivation best predicts the frequency and volunteering intensity.

### **7.1 Introduction**

The call to volunteer is no longer limited to the non-profit organizations. The private sector has recognized the benefits of corporate volunteering and how it increases employee engagement and volunteering in other forms of civic engagement (Krasnopolskaya et al. 2015). Therefore, the demand for organizations (albeit private, non-profit or public) to tap into the individual motivation to volunteer by asking volunteers to commit their time and energy for a good cause has been increasing. However, this neglects recent developments in the changing scope of volunteering. Episodic and micro-volunteering are one-off activities and reflect a trend of spending a limited time volunteering and have been steadily increasing (Young and McChesney 2013; Dunn et al. 2015). Additionally, the trend of cyber volunteering or online volunteering through promoting causes and knowledge sharing (Raja-Yusof et al. 2016) has experienced a large growth especially amongst college students (Kim

and Lee 2014; Raja-Yusof et al. 2016). Both of these trends are less reliant on time and could be measured in how long it takes to take a selfie with a camera and upload to social media in order to volunteer towards supporting a cause. This changing focus to short bursts of commitment or short-term activities changes the call to donate time and energy. No longer can time be equated to energy. Rather, the changing scope of volunteering means those recruiting volunteers need to understand whether time, energy or the combination of the two are actually required.

This chapter examines the questions of how volunteers' motivations predict different ways of measuring time and effort. I do this by investigating the individuals' motivations to engage in public service by using Perry and Wise's (1990) public service motivation (PSM) theory. Studies have found that those with higher PSM levels work to improve the lives of those in need (Andersen and Serritzlew 2012), thus mirroring many volunteer activities. As discussed in previous chapters, academics have found strong links between PSM and volunteering (Houston 2006; Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011; Ertas 2013a, 2014; Ward 2014b). Additionally, because PSM is useful in determining motivations in different sector choices (Houston 2000; Carpenter and Myers 2010; Rose 2013), it is well suited for volunteers who are also operating in different sectors. Hence, I use volunteers PSM levels to determine how it associates with the three outcomes of volunteering effort.

Historically, much research relied on time as a proxy for volunteer effort (Wymer 1999; Hooghe and Botterman 2012). Time does have the ability to measure how long a volunteer may have been "onsite" volunteering. Studies have shown that the longer one spends volunteering, the more engaged and committed they are (Shantz et al. 2014). Measuring time requires the volunteer either to recall or at best guesstimate how many hours they contributed. Some may include the amount of time spent in transit to the site and others may have a vague recollection and can end up underestimating or overestimating. Whereas, if

volunteer organization keeps a log of volunteering either so they can recognize them for “X” amount of hours or because it is part of a community service commitment- there could be a clearer understanding of the actual time volunteering. However, this is not very realistic at small level and grassroots volunteer organizations.

Other scholars use frequency in order to override some of the challenges of recalling the exact time (Handy et al. 2010b). Using frequency has the advantage for the volunteer because it is easier to recall in broader terms. Studies using frequency have found that individuals with high levels of intrinsic motivation volunteer at higher frequency rates (Geiser et al. 2014). However, for organizations relying on frequency, they may end up on only calling on those who have a high rate of frequently of volunteering. This puts those volunteers at risk for burnout.

However, time and frequency may not be appropriate measures because they can be prolonged without concrete effort being exerted (Rodell, 2013). Consequently, the effort individuals put into their volunteering activities may be better captured by recognizing its multidimensional nature, for example in the form of the volunteering intensity measure proposed by (Rodell 2013). This is an important insight which has implications for how the empirical knowledge about volunteering is constructed as volunteering intensity might have different associations with volunteer motivation than volunteering time or volunteering frequency. I examine the use of volunteer intensity as a way to measure the physical, mental and emotional effort the individual perceives they have exerted (Rodell 2013). While this is still self-perceived the advantage of this scale is that the individual knows if they could have exerted more effort. It allows for an honest assessment by the individual of what they are actually capable of. Studies using volunteer intensity have found that a pro-social identity directly impact volunteering intensity (Rodell 2013). Nevertheless, for volunteer organizations, this presents challenges for volunteer managers who would need their own



understanding of the volunteers' capabilities to see if the perceived effort of the individual matches with that of the perception of the volunteer manager (if there is even one).

By linking PSM with the three different commonly used volunteering proxies (time, frequency and intensity, see e.g. Wymer, 1999; Geiser et al., 2014; Rodell, 2013), this setup enables me to make four contributions to the literature. First, while PSM studies have already shown it is a determinant of volunteering frequency (Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011; Ertas 2014), my previous chapters (3-5) have lent empirical support to improving our understanding of how PSM is associated to time or intensity when volunteering. Second, by comparing three different proxies for volunteering effort I shed light on whether motivation to volunteer may result in different efforts exerted. Third, this setup allows me to come up with a check of what PSM predicts best. While this discussion primarily takes place in the public and non-profit sector (Caillier 2015a; Cheng 2015; van Loon 2016), there is a clear need by practitioners for academics to expand the conversation into volunteer research. Finally, I answer Perry and Vandenaabeele's (2015, p.695) call to "conduct more researching on the individual dimensions of the public service motivation construct."

This chapter is significant to practitioners because it provides volunteer coordination managers with a better understanding of how to utilize individual motivations to volunteer in a manner that best supports the end goal of the program- volunteer longer or with more intensity.

This chapter is structured as following: it begins by considering the theoretical implications of the three types of volunteering intensity measures. I then discuss the methods in which the dependent variable differ from chapter 5. This study utilizes the same data set as Chapter 5. After analyzing the data, I present findings and discuss the results. I conclude the chapter with implications and further research on time and effort.

## **7.2 Theoretical Framework**

### **7.2.1 Public service motivation**

PSM was been discussed extensively in the previous chapters (1-6). Here, it is important to point out that studies support using PSM to predict volunteering (Houston 2006; Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011) as measured by the amount of time. Limited PSM studies have explored PSM and the frequency of volunteering (Christensen et al. 2015). However, none to my knowledge have used PSM as a motivational driver to volunteer behavior in terms of volunteering intensity. Instead, there is support that high levels of PSM influences positive citizenship behavior outside of the work environment (Pandey et al. 2008) and strong levels of performance or the amount of effort exerted within.

### **7.2.2 Time and Effort**

The previous chapters have argued extensively about the benefits of using volunteer intensity as a more effective means of measuring effort. However, I would be remiss if I did not directly compare time, frequency and volunteering intensity.

#### ***7.2.2.1 Time***

Studying PSM as a motivational driver on volunteering behavior is the main gap in the literature that this chapter addresses. In order to do that, one must understand the unique challenges of measuring volunteering intensity. As iterated in earlier chapters, volunteering intensity is the physical, mental or emotional effort exerted by the volunteer (Anderson et al. 2014). This definition of volunteering intensity challenges the main means of measurement (time) that many volunteer motivation studies have used to define or determine intensity (Wollebaek and Selle 2002; Handy et al. 2010b; Glanville 2011).

The amount of time spent volunteering has been increasing around the world over the course of the past quarter of a century (Salamon 2010). Individuals with higher education, children and religious activities volunteer the most time with an increasing trend towards full-time volunteering (Brown and Martin 2012). Studies have found that those volunteers who

report a higher number of hours are portrayed as contributing at a larger intensity (Shantz et al. 2014). Carlson et al. (2011) found that volunteers would devote more time if the opportunity cost were negative and avoidable, implying that those individuals who associate their time as a cost would volunteer time to satisfy themselves. When integrating PSM as a motivation to exert effort in the form of time, it is clear that one's inclination to providing public service would provide a positive opportunity cost. While time as shown in hours or days at which one volunteers represents the physical aspect of intensity, it may not fully account for all the effort exerted. Despite strong the arguments for not relying on solely time reported volunteering (chapter 2), HR managers prefer to collect the hours one spends away from their workplace. Though, studies have shown that volunteers who are required to account for time, will spend less time volunteering and have less willingness to volunteer (DeVoe and Pfeffer 2010). Given that previous PSM research mentioned in earlier chapters have found evidence for increasing the amount of time spent volunteering, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1: PSM positively affects volunteer effort when measured by time.*

#### **7.2.2.2 Frequency**

Other studies, seeking to override the challenges of recalling time, have used frequency as a means of measuring intensity. Frequency has been measured through patterns of participation (Holmes 2012). Those who report volunteering at a higher frequency, such as weekly, were found to have an increased chance of continuing to volunteer later in life (Sullivan and Ludden 2011). Measuring frequency as a means of intensity has an advantage over asking specific hours, because it is a more general approach. However, some academics may argue

that this might give a sense of how often the volunteer is engaged in the activity (Rodell 2013) and is easier for respondents to recall, it does not measure anything other than the frequency or rate at which one historically volunteers. However, there is still a value to HR managers in understanding the historical frequency, but perhaps less so than specifically measuring intensity levels directly or hours spent volunteering. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 2: PSM positively affects volunteer effort when measured by frequency.*

### **7.2.2.3 Volunteering Intensity**

As mentioned previously, volunteering intensity can consist of more than the physical exertion (Anderson et al. 2014). Rodell (2013) sought to answer the challenge of developing a clear means in which to measure the intensity of behavior by proposing and testing a five-item intensity scale in order to measure the physical, mental and emotional effort a volunteer perceives they exert. While some scholars argue against self-reporting scales, when an individual reports how they perceive their exerted effort, they are the only one who knows exactly what they are capable of achieving. Not everyone has the same skill sets. One person may be more talented, but may not give it their 100% as opposed to someone that really tries hard and does give the 100% that they are capable of doing. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 3: PSM positively affects volunteer effort when measuring the perceived volunteering intensity (physical, mental and emotional effort) of an individual.*

It is quite possible that each of these hypothesis are correct in their own manner, but I want to add to the debate about which is a more effective means when measuring

volunteering intensity. When comparing the three methods of measuring volunteering intensity, I expect the self-reported performance to have a better/stronger model fit than recalling hours spent volunteering or the more vague if the three- frequency. Evidence from Chapter 4-6 supports PSM as positively affecting volunteering intensity. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 4: Volunteer intensity scales will explain a larger percentage of variance than time or frequency.*

### **7.2.3 Volunteering Intensity and PSM Dimensions**

PSM dimensions are hypothesized to result in different impacts. Increasingly more PSM studies are looking at how the different dimensions influence outcomes because of the differences between rational, norm and affective motives (Chen and Hsieh 2015).

Attraction to policy making is a rational based motive that implies the individual desires to influence decisions that have an impact on the public (Andersen and Kjeldsen 2013). Lee and Jeong's (2015) study found a significant relation between volunteers with a high sense of attraction to policy making and volunteering. Furthermore, they found a connection between the increases in hours spent volunteering by South Korean government employees. Taylor and Clerkin's (2011) study found strong support between undergraduates' attraction to policy making and political communal activities, campaigning and contributing. However, their study did not measure how long or frequent the students volunteered. Because change to policies tend to be prolonged over time, volunteers who have high levels of attraction to policy making will have rationally deliberated and will understand and accept that change will require a longer commitment. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 5: Attraction to policy making is positively related to the time spent volunteering.*

Norm based motives, commitment to public interest, social justice and civic duty, are often associated with studies that examine those in the public safety (Braender and Andersen 2013). Studies have found that individuals with higher normative motives result in increased engagement in civic behaviors (Andersen and Serritzlew 2012) which could be represented as increased frequency. However, Christensen et al.'s (2015) study of PSM and student volunteering found that those with a high commitment to public interest had a negative impact on the frequency in which they volunteered. Nevertheless, the authors concluded that public values might not always result in volunteering. Due to the increasing need for public safety those who volunteer would have to exhibit greater levels of volunteering intensity because of health and welfare of the general public could be at risk. Indeed, Glanville's (2011) study about flooding, social networks and volunteer effort, found that in times of crisis volunteers exerted more intensity through their physical responses to the task. Therefore, the following is proposed.

*Hypothesis 6: Commitment to public interest (a), social justice (b) and civic duty (c) are positively related to the volunteering intensity scale.*

Finally, the affective motives consist of self-sacrifice and compassion. Typically, PSM studies have found those in the medical field have higher levels of self-sacrifice and compassion. Studies have found that emotional labors- those who are in constant contact with the public and must control their emotions in extreme circumstances- such as social workers, nurses and doctors- have a higher sense of self-sacrifice (Lui 2009; Roh et al. 2016). However, Roh et al.'s (2016) study found that it puts them at a greater risk for burnout.

Furthermore, as these affective norms are often seen as desirable, it is reasoned that once identified in individuals volunteer coordination managers will call on them more frequently entreating their help. Due to the individuals' sense of compassion and self-sacrifice, they will also volunteer more time. Finally, because of the sacrificing nature of affective motives, they will exhibit greater levels of frequency. I attribute that due to the increased amount of time and effort needed when volunteering for causes or organizations that require this sense.

*Hypothesis 7: Volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice (a) or compassion (b) will volunteer for more hours, with greater frequency and with superior levels of volunteering intensity.*

Figure 7.1 depicts my conceptual model and Figure 7.2 depicts my conceptual model at a dimensional level.

*Figure 7.1 Conceptual Model (Time vs. Effort)*

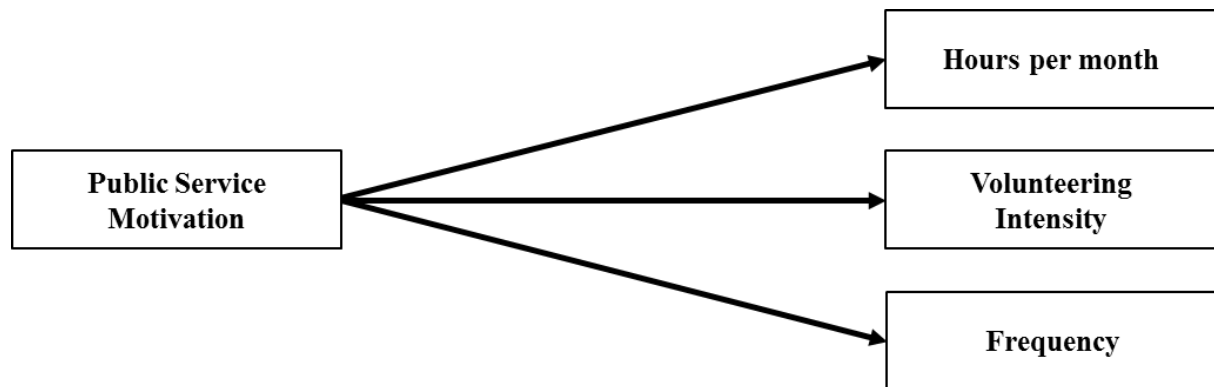
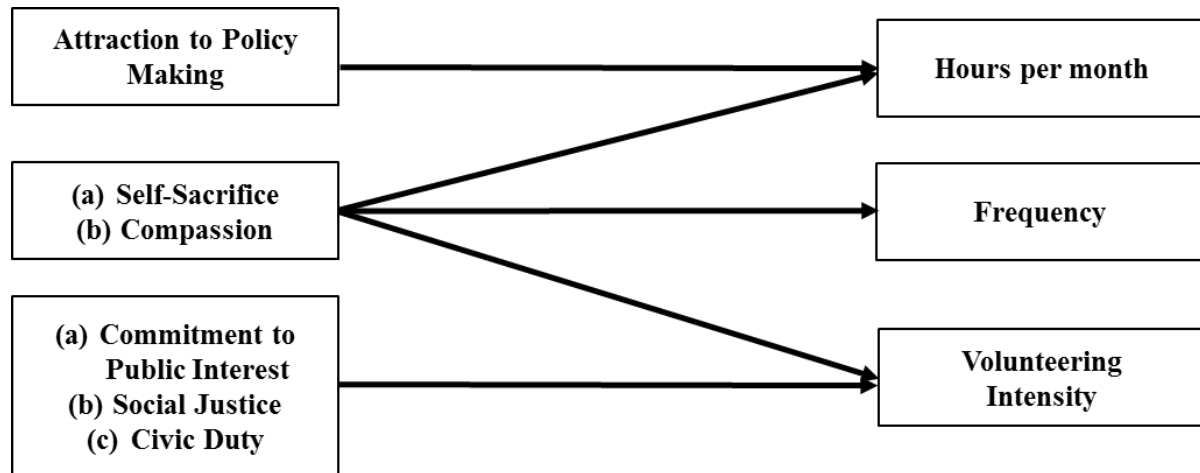


Figure 7.2 Conceptual Model at Dimensional Level (Time vs. Effort)



### 7.3 Method

The same data set from Chapter 6 was used in this chapter. Therefore, the collection and descriptive statistics remains the same as described in 6.3. The primary difference is the dependent variables used.

#### 7.3.1 Measures of Main Variables

In this study there are three dependent variables (DV): time volunteered each month, frequency volunteered and volunteering intensity. Time was measured by asking “how many hours do you typically volunteer per month on average?” and has a mean of 20.64 and median of 6. This is a common question asked in big data volunteering surveys such as the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS) (Taniguchi 2006). Frequency was measured by a variation of Geiser et al.’s scale (2014); however, anyone who reported never volunteering was automatically eliminated leaving 0= rarely, 1= occasionally, 2= monthly and 3 = weekly. From this, a dummy variable was created where 0= rarely and occasionally and 1= monthly and weekly. Respondents primarily volunteer occasionally (37.5%) or weekly (37%). Volunteer intensity was measured using Rodell’s (2013) five-item



scale. In order to measure the independent variable, PSM, I used Perry's (1996) original 40 items using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree.

### **7.3.2 Control variables**

The controls in chapter 5 were carried forward to this study: biological gender (male = 0, female = 1), age (Generation Y, 0 = no, 1 = yes), children (0 = no, 1 = yes), marital status (0 = single, 1 = married) and employed (0 = no, 1 = yes).

## **7.4 Analytical Strategy**

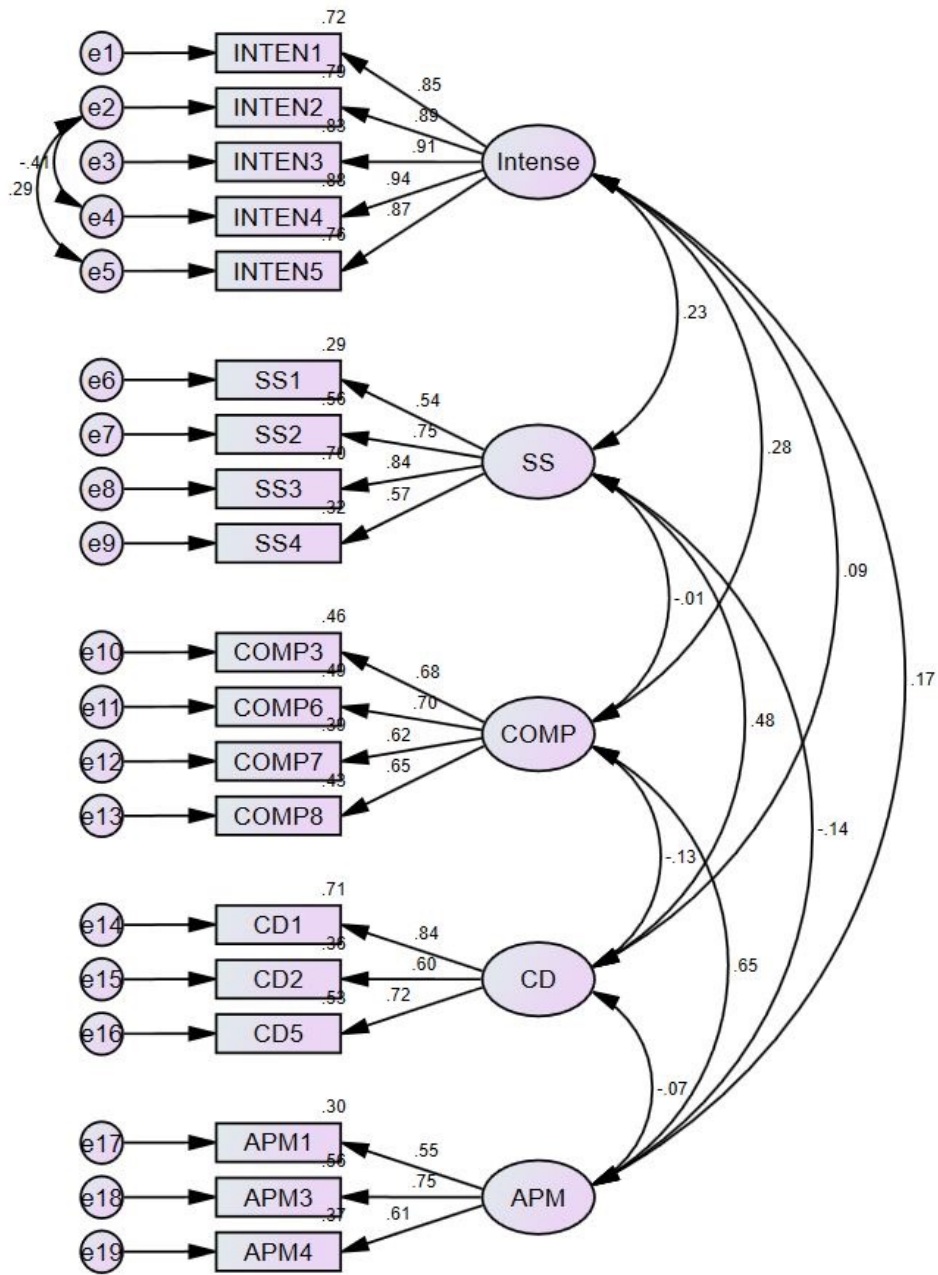
### **7.4.1. Data Screening**

The manner in which data was screened is discussed in 6.4.1. However, because this study is using different DV's (time and frequency) and the variable P-O fit was not included, a new CFA was run.

### **7.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

My model fit was maximized with civic duty, attraction to policy making, compassion and self-sacrifice (figure 7.3). I found an acceptable level of goodness of fit (Chi-square (247.248)/DF (140) = 1.766, CFI= .972, RMSEA= .043, PCLOSE= .906). Composite reliability for the PSM dimensions are as follows: civic duty = .769, attraction to policy making = .673, compassion = .759 and self-sacrifice = .772 and volunteering intensity has a composite reliability of .951 (table 7.1).

Figure 7.3- Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Standardized estimates)



\*Intense= volunteering intensity, CD= civic duty, APM= attraction to policy making, SS= self-sacrifice, Comp= compassion

Table 7.1- Composite reliability and Correlations

	CR	AVE	MSV	Max R (H)	Mean	S.D.	Correlations										
							1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Intensity	0.951	0.797	0.078	0.963	5.59	1.163	<b>(.893)</b>										
2. Compassion	0.759	0.441	0.423	0.971	3.63	.662	.244**	<b>(.664)</b>									
3. Self-Sacrifice	0.772	0.466	0.229	0.968	3.22	.645	.225**	.030	<b>(.683)</b>								
4. Civic Duty	0.769	0.531	0.229	0.804	3.32	.787	.082	-.096	.391**	<b>(.729)</b>							
5. APM <sup>a</sup>	0.673	0.411	0.423	0.973	3.42	.668	.151**	.482**	-.077	-.066	<b>(.641)</b>						
6. Time					20.64	39.78	.254**	.205**	.184**	.097*	.128**						
7. Frequency					.47	.500	.422**	.298**	.115*	.001	.144**	.375**					
8. Gender					.66	.475	.115*	.083	-.068	-.109*	-.002	-.022	.077				
9. Gen Y					.358	.480	-.240**	-.245**	-.032	.040	-.160**	-.191**	-.410**	-.128**			
10. Married					.51	.500	.321**	.363**	-.007	-.022	.332**	.196**	.310**	-.003	-.414**		
11. Children					.41	.492	.262**	.321**	.084	.078	.214**	.218**	.351**	-.045	-.465**	.553**	

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note \* CR= Composite reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, MSV= Maximum Shared Variance, MaxR(H)=Maximum Reliability, S.D. = Standard Deviation, a = Attraction to Policy Making; Because the control variables are dichotomous, AMOS does not calculate composite reliability.

Following the previous chapters' examples, CMB was checked using Harman's single factor test and showed extraction was for one factor only and 23.01% variance was explained. When testing configural invariance test based on gender, I obtained an adequate goodness of fit (Chi-square (385.589)/ DF (280) = 1.377, CFI= .972, RMSEA= .030, PCLOSE .999). I observed configural invariance, which showed the two groups are not different. When metric invariance was explored, the loading themselves were roughly equivalent across groups, showing the two groups understood the questions the same way. The multicollinearity test for PSM dimensions showed the mean variance inflation factor (VIF) is less than three and the single highest VIF is 1.317 and therefore acceptable (Hair 2010).

## **7.5 Findings**

The analysis uses OLS regression and logistic regression analysis. Due to the nature of the quasi metric DV- frequency which is a categorical/dichotomous variable, it was necessary to test the associated hypothesis logistic regression analysis.

Hypothesis 1 anticipates PSM will positively affect time spent volunteering. PSM proved to be a good predictor of how much time one volunteered ( $\beta = .213, p < .001$ ) and the model accounted for 12.9% of the variance in time spent volunteering (model 2, table 7.2). Additionally, being unemployed (the variable "employed" had a negative coefficient) was also significantly related to more time spent volunteering ( $\beta = -.168, p < .001$ ). Therefore, evidence shows support for Hypothesis 1.

Table 7.2 Regression models for PSM and Hours per Month (robust standard errors in parentheses)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
	DV: Time	DV: Time	DV: Time	DV: Time	DV: Time	DV: Time	DV: Time
	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
Gender	-0.042 (4.023)	-0.035 (3.939)	-.042 (4.021)	-0.030 (3.970)	-0.053 (4.010)	-0.033 (4.027)	-0.038 (3.977)
GenY	-0.059 (4.707)	-0.056 (4.607)	-0.058 (4.705)	-0.055 (4.636)	-0.051 (4.680)	-0.065 (4.699)	-0.051 (4.625)
Married	0.067 (4.629)	0.033 (4.572)	0.049 (4.778)	0.080 (4.568)	0.032 (4.852)	0.074 (4.623)	0.043 (4.723)
Children	0.123* (4.841)	0.079 (4.808)	0.120* (4.842)	0.103† (4.788)	0.101† (4.852)	0.109† (4.858)	0.077 (4.830)
Employed	-0.169*** (4.029)	-0.168*** (3.943)	-0.167*** (4.029)	-0.171*** (3.968)	-0.170*** (4.000)	-0.168*** (4.016)	-0.171*** (3.949)
PSM		0.213*** (4.898)					
APM <sup>a</sup>			0.059 (2.977)				0.026 (3.220)
Self-Sacrifice				0.173*** (2.884)			0.155** (3.126)
Compassion					0.135** (3.075)		0.125* (3.359)
Civic Duty						0.055† (2.407)	0.046 (2.578)
R-Squared	0.089	0.129	0.092	0.119	0.104	0.097	0.135
Adjusted R-Squared	0.078	0.117	0.079	0.106	0.091	0.084	0.116
F-test	(5)8.006 p<.001	(6) 10.139 p<.001	(6) 6.910 p<.001	(6) 9.168 p<.001	(6) 7.933 p<.001	(6) 7.736 p<.001	(9) 7.042 p<.001
Observations	416	416	416	416	416	416	416

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a = Attraction to Policy Making; Displayed coefficients are standardized coefficients.

Hypothesis 2 stipulated that PSM would also prove to be a good predictor of how frequently one volunteered. The null hypothesis shows the overall model predictability is 53.1% correct in predicting if those with frequent levels of volunteering exert higher levels of volunteering intensity. All variables except for gender ( $p = .117$ ) are significant predictors individually at  $p < .001$  levels. The omnibus test of model coefficient showed Chi-square (124.623)/ DF (6),  $p < .001$  which means the predictor variables are good for making a prediction about frequency of volunteering. The Nagelkerke  $R^2 = 34.6\%$  in the variance of the outcome shows the extent in which it is being affected by the predictor variables. Further evidence that the model is good is the Hosmer and Lemeshow test Chi-square (7.393)/ DF (8),  $p = .495$ . A p-value greater than .05 indicates a good fit (Hair et al. 2010).

The higher the odds ratio is over one and significant, the predictor variable has a greater the odds of achieving the outcome (Field, 2009) For example, volunteers with high levels of PSM are 2.5 times more likely to volunteer with greater frequency (monthly or weekly) ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 2.499$ ,  $p < .01$ ) (Model 2, table 7.3). Additionally, volunteers with children are twice as likely to volunteer with greater frequency ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.947$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Whereas, an odds ratio smaller than 1 indicates lower odds of success (although the coefficient is still positive). In the case of Generation Y and employment, volunteers who are part of this generation ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .310$ ,  $p < .001$ ) or are employed ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .329$ ,  $p < .001$ ) are less likely volunteer frequently. However, in terms of higher levels PSM leading to in increased frequency, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Table 7.3 Logistic Regression models for PSM and Frequency

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency		DV: Frequency	
	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.	Exp( $\beta$ ) Odds ratio	S.E.
Gender	1.200	.248	1.225	.252	1.197	.249	1.252	.250	1.096	.254	1.205	.250	1.124	.257
GenY	0.312***	.280	0.310***	.285	0.313***	.280	0.309***	.283	0.317***	.286	0.311***	.280	0.320***	.290
Married	1.409	.273	1.255	.281	1.360	.284	1.479	.275	1.124	.287	1.412	.274	1.227	.295
Children	2.232**	.280	1.947*	.287	2.219**	.280	2.110**	.282	1.967*	.288	2.220**	.282	1.900*	.291
Employed	0.335***	.234	0.329***	.237	0.336***	.235	0.326***	.236	0.325***	.240	0.335***	.234	0.313***	.243
PSM			2.499**	.316										
APM <sup>a</sup>					1.089	.183							.851	.204
Self-Sacrifice							1.543*	.184					1.550*	.201
Compassion									2.001***	.203			2.096***	.224
Civic Duty											1.023*	.146	.924	.161
Constant	1.268	0.32	0.063†	1.087	0.967**	.667	0.309†	.679	0.128**	.748	1.175†	.591	0.058**	1.106
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	0.324		0.346		0.325		0.338		0.354		0.325		0.368	
Hosmer-Lemeshow	Chi-square 2.792, df 7, sig. = .904		Chi-square 7.393, df 8, sig. = .495		Chi-square 7.393, df 8, sig. = .496		Chi-square 3.665, df 8, sig. = .886		Chi-square 5.758, df 8, sig. = .674		Chi-square 6.319, df 8, sig. = .612		Chi-square 5.786, df 8, sig. = .671	
Null predicted % correct	53.1		53.1		53.1		53.1		53.1		53.1		53.1	
Predictive capacity of model	71.9		73.1		72.1		73.3		72.4		71.9		72.6	
Observations	416		416		416		416		416		416		416	

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a = Attraction to Policy Making

Finally, Hypothesis 3 expects PSM to lead to increased volunteering intensity. PSM proved a good predictor of volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .229, p < .001$ ) with the model accounting for 19% of the variance (model 2, table 7.4). Additionally, being female, married and unemployed were all significantly related to volunteering intensity. Subsequently, Hypothesis 3 is supported.



Table 7.4 Regression models for PSM and Volunteering Intensity (robust standard errors in parentheses)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity	DV: Intensity
	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
Gender	0.102* (.156)	0.109* (.111)	0.102* (.114)	0.117** (.111)	0.092 * (.114)	0.111 * (.114)	0.100 * (.111)
GenY	-0.056 (.133)	-0.053 (.130)	-0.056 (.134)	-0.125 (.130)	-0.050 (.133)	-0.063 (.133)	-0.047 (.130)
Married	0.219*** (.131)	0.182*** (.129)	0.206*** (.136)	0.237*** (.128)	0.189*** (.134)	0.226*** (.131)	0.205*** (.132)
Children	0.101† (.137)	0.054 (.136)	0.100 † (.137)	0.075 (.134)	0.082 (.138)	0.087 (.138)	0.055 (.135)
Employed	-0.105* (.114)	-0.104* (.111)	-0.104* (.114)	-0.107* (.111)	-0.106* (.114)	-0.104* (.114)	-0.108* (.111)
PSM		0.229*** (.138)					
APM <sup>a</sup>			0.042 (.084)				0.020 (.090)
Self-Sacrifice				0.227*** (.088)			0.217*** (.088)
Compassion					0.118* (.087)		0.107* (.094)
Civic Duty						0.096* (.068)	0.024 (.072)
R-Squared	0.143	0.19	0.145	0.194	0.155	0.152	0.205
Adjusted R-Squared	0.133	0.178	0.132	0.182	0.143	0.14	0.118
F-test	(5)13.706 p<.001	(6)15.995 p<.001	(6)13.552 p<.001	(6)16.412 p<.001	(6)14.505 p<.001	(6)12.242 p<.001	(9)11.659 p<.001
Observations	416	416	416	416	416	416	416

Note \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , †  $p < .10$ ; a= Attraction to Policy Making; Displayed coefficients are standardized coefficients.

Results for PSM and the three means of measuring volunteering intensity were all supported. Yet, hypothesis 4 predicted that volunteer intensity when measured by Rodell's volunteering intensity scales would explain a larger percentage of variance than time or frequency. I found the volunteering intensity model only explained more than time. Whereas in the frequency model, 34.6% of the variance in frequency was explained by PSM. Across the three models, even controls varied in their significance. The implications of this will be deliberated in the discussion section.

When turning to the different motives and PSM dimensions, hypothesis 5 expects volunteers with high levels of rational motives will volunteer for more hours. Volunteers with high levels of rational motives represented by attraction to policy making did not significantly predict volunteering more hours ( $\beta = .059, p = .239$ , model 3, table 7.2). The model accounted for 9.2% of the variance in time spent volunteering. Although not hypothesized, self-sacrifice, compassion and civic duty were significantly related to volunteering more time (Models 4-6, table 7.2). Still, hypothesis 5 is rejected.

Perry and Wise's (1990) norm based motives consist of commitment to public interest, social justice and civic duty. However, during the CFA only civic duty exhibited a large enough composite reliability to retain. Some social justice questions were cross-loaded with self-sacrifice and commitment to public interest were cross loading on to attraction to policy making. Therefore, the norm-based motives are measured solely by civic duty. Hypothesis 6 expects volunteers with high levels of norm-based motives to volunteer with greater volunteering intensity. Civic duty proved to be a good predictor of volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .096, p < .05$ ) (Model 6, table 7.4). Being a female, married and unemployed was significant and the model accounted for 15.2% of the variance. However, when tested with the other three PSM dimensions (model 7, table 7.4), civic duty ceased to be significantly related to volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .024, p = .620$ ). Additionally, though not hypothesized,

self-sacrifice and compassion were significantly related to volunteering intensity (models 4-6, table 7.4). Thus, hypothesis 6 is supported in terms of civic duty.

The final hypothesis 7 expects affective motives as represented by self-sacrifice and compassion to be significantly related to all three volunteer outcomes. Self-sacrifice proved to be a good predictor of time ( $\beta = .173, p < .001$ ) (model 4, table 7.2) and volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .227, p < .001$ ) (model 4, table 7.4). Furthermore, volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice are 1.5 times more likely to volunteer with greater frequency (monthly or weekly) ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.543, p < .05$ ) (model 4, table 7.3).

Compassion also proved to be a good predictor of time ( $\beta = .135, p < .01$ ) (model 5, table 7.2) and volunteering intensity ( $\beta = .118, p < .05$ ) (model 5, table 7.4). Volunteers with high levels of compassion are twice as likely to volunteer with greater frequency (monthly or weekly) ( $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 2.001, p < .001$ ) (model 5, table 7.3). The frequency model accounted for the largest amount (35.4%) of the variance amongst the three models (model 5, table 7.3). Therefore, there is support that affective motives (hypothesis 7) can lead to an increase in time and effort regardless which measurement of volunteering intensity is used.

## **7.6 Discussion and Conclusion**

### **7.6.1 Discussion**

This chapter aimed to answer the question of how volunteers' motivations measured by PSM are associated with different ways of measuring time and effort. The intent was to further the discussion in the volunteering literature as to ways to improve measuring volunteering intensity. Additionally, it wanted to investigate which type of volunteering performance measure can be predicted best with PSM and its dimensions. This study supported key issues

raised in the literature and has given further insights into how the PSM dimension operate independently in similar contexts.

I found evidence that PSM leads to increased levels of time, frequency and volunteering intensity, thus complementing Koumenta's (2015) study about employees with high levels of PSM engage in more organizational citizenship behaviors such as volunteering to work unpaid. While examining PSM, I discovered that not being employed consistently is linked positively to time and effort. While many volunteer studies stipulate that retirees will volunteer more time and frequently (Dury et al. 2015), there is also evidence that in some countries, such as Australia, older people do not volunteer as frequently despite being retired (Warburton and Crosier 2001). With the increase in age, there was an increase in frequency. This supports studies that show European older volunteers are more committed to conduct volunteer activities (Principi et al. 2012). It also lends support to the discussion about how mandatory community service for high school and university age students may cause them to only engage in volunteering as a one-off event. Gender did not play an important role in this study which was in direct contrast with findings by Clerkin et al. (2009) that found women more likely to volunteer. However, while PSM is significantly related to all three outcomes, the model for time accounted for substantially less ability to explain variance than the other two DV's. Using frequency to measure intensity, explained more and had more controls (age, children, employed) significantly related within the model. An increase in frequency, not reliant on time could be a result of shorter, micro-volunteering trends.

The fact that the PSM dimensions performed differently than PSM as an aggregate lends support to why scholars need to consider the individual components. Although, rational motives such as attraction to policy making were not significantly related to any volunteering outcome, this does falls in line with other PSM-volunteer studies that have identified this dimension as being the least effective in predicting volunteering (Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey

et al. 2011). It could be that satisfaction plays a strong role in the amount of time one spends volunteering. In Homberg et al.'s (2015) meta-analysis of PSM and job satisfaction, there was an overwhelming lack of support for attraction to policy to improve satisfaction amongst the 43 PSM studies. Furthermore, several studies have only found the self-sacrifice dimension to be significant at the dimensional level (Choi 2004). However, the lack of significance for the rational motive could be related to the newer trend of volunteering online. Those individuals who are sharing political content to raise support for their candidates may only spend time volunteering during election season when they feel they can make a difference as reflected by the 2008 Obama campaign (Cogburn and Espinoza-Vasquez 2011). Volunteering for causes online- such as sharing a photo, it is possible that the lack of contact with beneficiaries does not increase PSM as was found in Belle's (2013) experimental study of PSM and performance and beneficiary interaction.

The norm-based motive, civic duty, was found to support volunteering intensity (as hypothesized) in addition to time spent volunteering when measured separately from the other PSM dimensions. In the literature review it was reasoned that due to the abrupt nature of public safety, volunteers with high levels of norm-based motives will not volunteer more frequently. Rather, the volunteering intensity exerted should have reflected the personal feelings of helping society during a time of need such as the post 9/11 volunteering effort (Beyerlein and Sikkink 2008). However, it stands to reason that in time of crisis, such as flooding, that in addition to a larger amount of volunteering intensity, invariably there is an increase time is volunteered due to the nature of the crisis (Glanville 2011)- though specific to the incident.

Finally, affective motives- self-sacrifice and compassion- were associated with all three outcomes. Volunteering recruitment itself is often entered around emotional arousal (Lindenmeier 2008). Moreover, altruism as viewed as self-sacrifice is commonly associated

with volunteering (Steen 2006a). While I maintained that self-sacrifice and compassion were affective motives, PSM studies examining the self-sacrifice dimension similarly showed a strong connection between the dimension and volunteering (Lee and Brudney 2015). What is of particular interest is that the control variables within the model performed differently. This has practical implications for volunteer coordination managers. For example, if needing volunteers with high affective motives and much time donated, unemployed individuals are significantly related across all three outcome variables. However, if volunteers are needed more frequently, then older volunteers with children are desired. Finally, if an organization is just concerned with intensity, then females who are married and unemployed would be ideal. This of course is all in relation to volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice or compassion. However, volunteers with high levels of compassion could be associated with increased burnout. This would be supported by Bakker's (2015) study that found increased demands could lower PSM levels of those who previously were highly motivated. Because compassion could be associated with chronic stress when volunteering in hospice activities or others that take a toll on a volunteer, many studies have shown volunteers who experience emotional exhaustion are at increased risk for burnout (Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres 2010). Together, these insights collectively shed light on existing literature and offer theoretical and practical implications.

### **7.6.2 Limitations and Future Research**

The limitations concerning the data set were discussed in 5.5.1. However, in relation to this study one limitation that became apparent was not capturing in the data collection whether the volunteer was engaged in micro, episodic or online volunteering. This would have allowed me to understand if time was not an issue because this particular type of volunteering isn't reliant on time. This could also explain why those who volunteer more frequently may have felt they did not exert a large level of intensity. Additionally, it could be that those doing online volunteering felt no connection to the organization benefiting from the cause directly.

Therefore, future research recommendations include looking at how time and effort differ in the different context of volunteering- traditional versus online.

### **7.6.3 Conclusion**

In summary, my empirical results suggest that PSM does predict increased time and effort by volunteers. This chapter contributes to our theoretical understanding fourfold. First, through these findings, I am able to provide continued empirical support of how PSM is associated to volunteer behavior and performance through time, frequency and volunteer intensity. Secondly, I establish a clearer connection between effort and volunteers' public service motivation. Third, by linking PSM to volunteer performance, I continue the debate begun in the public and private sector (Caillier 2015a; Cheng 2015; van Loon 2016). Finally, I contribute to the discussion about how each individual dimension of PSM has different impacts (Perry and Vandenabeele 2015).

This study is significant to practitioners because it provides volunteer coordination managers with a better understanding of how to utilize individual motivations to volunteer in a manner that best supports the end goal of the program- volunteer longer or with more intensity. My findings suggest that PSM motives have meaningful implications for organizations that rely on volunteers to exert larger amount of effort. By understanding how motivation may lead to different exertions of time and energy, it changes the way in which volunteers managers should recruit volunteers.

## **Chapter 8- The Fat Lady Volunteers to Sing: Reflection and the Way Forward**



## **8.1 Introduction**

James Perry, the “Father” of Public Motivation Theory, stated that PSM research was entering its third wave<sup>8</sup> and calls for testing the efficacy of PSM on behavior (Perry 2014b). By linking PSM to the effort volunteers perceive they have exerted in the form of volunteering intensity, this thesis addresses that challenge to some extent. Furthermore, this thesis enhances academic researchers understanding of how P-O fit relates to volunteers and how it can be leveraged. And, finally how volunteering intensity allow for developing new insights about effort that can be applied to the changing scope of volunteering.

In this chapter, I summarize the key findings and examine how our knowledge of PSM, P-O fit and volunteering intensity has improved. I then discuss the practical implications which focuses on how my findings lend support to the UK Work Volunteer initiative and how HR can use this as part of their recruitment strategy. After discussing the limitations of the various studies collectively, I will pave the way forward with recommendations for research which focused on the darker side of being highly motivated.

## **8.2 Summary of Thesis’ Findings**

The overall aim of this thesis was to understanding how certain attitudes influence behavior. Specifically, I wanted to understand if PSM affects individuals’ perception of their volunteering intensity exerted. Studies have shown that PSM is a determinant of volunteering frequency (Houston 2006; Houston 2008; Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011). So, there was initial evidence guiding this thesis that PSM should and could be explored outside of the context of public or non-profit sector. The following discussion is organized by research questions amongst the chapters (table 8.1).

### **Table 8.1 Summary of Research Questions**

---

<sup>8</sup> According to Perry (2014b), the first wave was the development of the theory and ran from 1990- 2000 and focused on the definition and measurement of the theory and scale. The second wave focused on PSM and its antecedents and outcomes (2000-2010). Currently, we have entered the third wave where the focus is now robust designs, improving measurements, exploring multiple incentives and focusing on the strategic implementation of knowledge related to PSM.

	Study 1- Chapter 4 (N. 314)	Study 2- Chapter 5 (Millennials, N. 550)	Study 3- Chapter 6 (Coerced, N. 416)	Study 4- Chapter 7 (Time, Frequency, Intensity, N. 416)
<i>PRQ: Does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SRQ1: When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers?	When people have high PSM	When people have high PSM	When people have low PSM	When people have high PSM
SRQ2: Does millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers?		Sometimes		
SRQ3: Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?			No, it does not	
SRQ4: Time versus energy- does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?				Yes, in some cases

### 8.2.1 Does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?

When addressing my overarching research aim, it is clear through the four studies that PSM does have a positive effect on volunteering intensity. This effect is a proxy for behavior as the individuals reported their own perception of the intensity that they exerted. As discussed in earlier chapters, some academics debate the reliability of self-reported measures and social desirability bias (Tourangeau and Yan 2007). However, in the case of effort, only the individuals know if they are working at their full potential or even a proportion of it. Although there are studies that rely on management determining the performance (i.e. performance evaluations), it can be very subjective and biased in determining how much effort the individual is capable of exerting. It is recognized that though an individual may be

exerting their maximum amount of effort in order to become a rocket scientist, the effort might only be suited for master fryer at a fast food restaurant.

In each study, there was resounding evidence that individuals with well-developed PSM levels led to volunteering intensity. This was evident when PSM was ensured collectively and in some cases at the dimensional level. This is important in providing empirical support for PSM leading to behavior outcomes. In the following sections, I will discuss the secondary research questions.

### **8.2.2 When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers?**

When exploring SRQ1, it was evident in chapters 4, 5 and 7 that public service motivation generates dedicated volunteers when individuals report having high levels of PSM. This was expected as PSM literature has been clearly linked greater commitment (Castaing 2006; Camilleri and van der Heijden 2007; Vecina and Chacon 2013). Though dedication as exhibited by effort exerted could be akin to commitment, it is more of a nuanced behavior. However, for the coerced individual (Chapter 6), those volunteering absent 100% free will (i.e. through some form of coercion such as out of a sense of obligation or mandated), those with lower levels of PSM, will exert more volunteering intensity than their free will counterparts at the same low level.

As an aggregate, PSM generates dedicated volunteers directly by volunteering intensity amongst volunteers in the southern region of UK and Italy when they have a history of volunteering. In most cases, social demographic factors, females, being married and unemployed were significant determinants. This is in line with many PSM and volunteer studies. While PSM studies are still inconclusive as to whether which gender has higher levels of PSM (Vandenabeele 2011 found males had higher levels whereas Naff and Crum 1999 and Dehart et al. 2006 both found women scored higher on PSM), my studies consistently lent support to females having higher levels of PSM. Apparently, being married

is also important in determining PSM levels. However, as I did not measure if respondents were married to someone else who took the survey, there is no way to tell if the married males that volunteer were affected by their wives PSM levels. However, in the volunteering literature, this is often the case (Rotolo and Wilson 2006b). Being unemployed was another consistent determinant. However, this may be correlated to volunteering more so than PSM as the latter is typically studied in public and non-profit employees.

Another aspect of when PSM generates dedicated volunteers is related to P-O fit. When tested in chapter 4 and 5, PSM directly influenced P-O fit, which then resulted in P-O fit mediating the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. Whereas, there was no evidence that P-O fit moderated the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity. This is in direct contrast to Liu et al.'s (2013) study which showed P-O fit strengthened the relation between PSM and job satisfaction. This is important, because scholars have conflicting evidence of how PSM interacts with P-O fit (Bright 2008, Pandey 2008). Whereas, in the volunteering study that explored poor P-O Fit (Scherer et al. 2016), the findings are similar to those in Chapter 7. Volunteers in civic or public safety organizations that were coerced had weakened relation between their sense of compassion and volunteering intensity. This coercion can affect P-O fit in some cases. By understanding that PSM can have a direct effect on P-O fit, it provides a means of explaining the variance in modeling PSM and effort.

However, the studies within my thesis also provide evidence for when different PSM dimensions generate dedicated volunteers. Self-sacrifice was the most consistently performing of all the PSM dimensions. It was discovered to increase volunteering intensity across a variety of settings. Self-sacrifice was found in Chapter 4 to directly impact volunteering intensity. When it was mediated by P-O fit with religious or youth organizations, it consistently led to an increase in volunteering intensity. This was applicable across generations (Chapter 4 and 5). Additionally, when exploring if coercion would impact

volunteering intensity (Chapter 6), the simple slopes showed that coerced individuals had a similar slope with non-coerced volunteers. This indicates that individuals with high levels of self-sacrifice are unlikely to be affected by feelings of obligation or mandated to volunteer. Indeed, self-sacrifice was significantly related to volunteering in health, work and professional and civic and public safety organizations regardless of being coerced. Equally, it could be that these volunteers emotionally regulate themselves in order to display emotions and behaviors they perceive as acceptable (Li and Wang 2016). From a religious standpoint, this would tie in well with the concept of self-sacrifice and martyrdom. Self-sacrifice was equally related to time, frequency and volunteering intensity (Chapter 7). For the volunteer organization that needs a combination of time and effort, it could be worth recruiting individuals with high levels of self-sacrifice for religious or youth organizations in particular. However, this knowledge in itself is not new to volunteer studies as numerous studies have already identified the importance of self-sacrifice as an altruistic motivation. What is new is that being coercion into volunteering does not affect volunteers' level as one might assume. This has the potential to assist UK policy makers when addressing the work placement issue. The framing of volunteering around a sacrifice that benefits society collectively may help unearth a heightened sense of self-sacrifice amongst mandated volunteers.

The compassion dimension was a paradox. While there was clear evidence that when volunteering for a health organization, that compassion improved volunteering intensity levels (Chapter 4), it was not significant amongst millennials (Chapter 5). When examining how coercion would affect compassion (Chapter 6), there was evidence that the relation between compassion and volunteering intensity was prominent in religious, youth, work and professional organizations, but not health. In fact, coercion weakened the relation when volunteering in civic or public safety organizations. It is possible that compassion, like self-sacrifice, is closely related to altruism. Vandenabeele et al. (2006) argues, that at least

amongst civil servants, compassion is not expected to be present, but is rather demonstrated by the concept of providing public welfare or benefits. Taking this into consideration with the majority of my data samples coming from the UK, it could be reasonable that compassion in my final study (Chapter 7) was significantly related to time, frequency and volunteering intensity amongst unemployed volunteers. Evidence showed that compassion is more prevalent in volunteering organizations outside of health oriented ones despite an abyss of studies supporting compassion being related to health and hospice volunteers. In the UK, it could be that organization that focus on delivering public welfare programs would benefit most by volunteers with a high sense of compassion. While this is speculation, the understanding of compassion needs further systemic investigation.

The dimension 'commitment to public interest' had low reliability and was eliminated across all studies to maximize model fit in the CFA. This is unusual given that it is one of the most frequently assessed dimensions (Ritz et al. 2016). Consequently, it is unknown if high levels of commitment to public interest will generate dedicated volunteers. It is possible, as noted in Chapter 5, that because the UK student sample was very heterogeneous and represented many nationalities that there may be a conflict of what it means to be committed to public interest from a cultural point of view.

Attraction to policy making is the proverbial “problem child” in PSM studies. Despite general attitudes across sectors that it is important to be active in political organizations (Houston 2008), this dimension struggled to lend support to its interaction with volunteering across my four studies. Attraction to policy making was either cross-loading with civic duty, had low reliability or failed to be significantly related to volunteering. There was only one instance in which I found support for attraction to policy making leading to volunteer intensity and that was in the case of the homogenous sample of Italian millennials (Chapter 5). This does provide evidence that attraction to policy making may be impacted by cultural

origins of the sample. However, amongst millennials from Italy who are females and graduate students, there is general evidence that supports attraction to policy making when volunteering in a political organization to impact perceived levels of volunteering intensity. This compliments Ertas's (2014) study that found evidence that Italians with high levels of PSM volunteer in political organizations.

The dimension civic duty performed similarly to compassion with conflicting results. While there was evidence that it was prominent, in individuals who volunteered in civic or public safety organizations (Chapter 4), but it was not evident amongst millennials (Chapter 5). It could be that as the millennials were predominantly single that there was not a sense of needing to protect family and loved ones. However, there was evidence that the relation between civic duty and volunteering was weakened in the presence of coercion when volunteering for a work or professional organization (Chapter 6). As the final chapter (7) did not compare PSM dimensions in specific types of volunteering opportunities, civic duty in general was found to be significant (separate from other PSM dimensions) of being related to increased time, frequency and volunteering intensity. It is possible that the concept of doing ones duty either in marriage or to country remains an important value in British society. More likely, civic duty's absence amongst British and Italian millennials seems to reflect Vandenaabeele's (2008a) comment about the concept of civic duty being very USA-centric. Yet, only 27.5% of all PSM studies from 1990 to 2014 originated in the USA (Ritz et al. 2016). Finally, when gauged across coerced individuals, it was not significantly related to volunteering intensity. This non-finding is insightful for volunteer coordination managers who need individuals with a strong sense of civic duty that may have felt obligated to volunteer to protect their community in times of natural disaster or civil unrest.

Finally, the investigation surrounding social justice dimension increased our understanding of PSM's effect on volunteering amongst millennials, but did not reveal

insights from the volunteers collectively. In studies that looked at volunteers across generations (Chapters 4, 6 and 7), social justice had low reliability with some items cross loading with self-sacrifice. Ultimately, in these chapters social justice was eliminated from the CFA. I was only able to test social justice once amongst millennials (Chapter 5) to understand the relation between it and volunteering intensity was mediated by volunteering in advocacy organizations. Indeed, it was the only dimension (table 5.5) that significantly related to volunteering intensity when analyzed in the presence of the other PSM dimensions. It was discovered to be partially moderated in the Italian and UK samples. This causes me to question if the increased efforts for citizenship educations focus on equality led more millennials to develop a stronger sense of social justice opposed to commitment to public interest or a sense of civic duty. Winograd and Hais (2011) allude to millennials as being the generation most effected by societal change. It could be that because millennials perceive a world with grave social injustice, that it overrides their sense of civic duty. With this possible unintended outcome of citizenship education programs, HR managers wishing to capitalize on their social responsibility stance may be able to draw upon millennials sense of social justice during recruitment.

In conclusion, PSM generates dedicated volunteers when it is high and mediated by P-O fit. Some PSM dimensions such as self-sacrifice generate dedicated volunteers when volunteering across a variety of volunteer organizations types. Compassion was found to be prevalent in volunteers at religious, youth, civic and public safety organizations (Chapter 4). Civic duty sometimes contributes to dedicated volunteers when volunteering with health organizations and public safety organizations respectfully.



### **8.2.3 Do millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers?**

My study in chapter 5 provided evidence that millennials have different attitudes towards public service compared to older generations (as apparent in chapter 4, 6 and 7) at a dimensional level. Millennials in the UK and Italy with high levels of PSM report having exerted higher levels of volunteering intensity. This finding is generalized to university students in southern UK and southern Italy that tend to be female and graduate students. While PSM as an aggregate mirrored findings in the other chapters, the various dimensions performed differently.

As mentioned in section 8.8.2, social justice was the only dimension when analyzed the other dimensions (absent of P-O fit) that was significantly related to volunteering intensity. Yet, in the presence of P-O fit, the relation between social justice and self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity were mediated by P-O fit. High levels of self-sacrifice and higher levels of volunteering intensity is a finding consistent across all of my studies. However, it is evident that P-O fit is an important element when influencing millennials attitudes when volunteering.

My findings concerning millennials are complemented by Ertas's (2016) recent study that used employment sector as a proxy for PSM and discovered that millennials who are employed in the public sector volunteer the most frequently. The implications for practitioners will be discussed in 8.4.

### **8.2.4 Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?**

When reflecting on why some findings were contrary to what was hypothesized, the possibility that volunteers may have been coerced arose. This is also a very timely issue in the UK with the passing of the 2014 mandated volunteer program for those collecting jobseeker allowances (unemployment benefits). It turns out, that in my sample of UK volunteers that

being coerced does not always have a negative effect on volunteering. In fact, volunteers have significant conditional effects both when feeling obligated to do so and not. However, this often neither strengthens nor weakens the relationship between their PSM levels and P-O fit. One could speculate that high levels of PSM will naturally crowd out any negative impact of obligation. Yet, volunteers that report being coerced into volunteering have significant conditional effects at both levels with those having low levels of PSM actually reporting higher levels of volunteering intensity than their non-coerced PSM level equivalents. While it could be that those with low levels of PSM who are coerced feel they are exerting more effort, it doesn't explain why someone who is not coerced would report lower levels if they are already not predisposed to public service.

Additionally, when exploring if feeling obligated influenced the relation between PSM and P-O fit, obligation strengthened the relationship. There are several lines of thought one could take here. Individuals being asked to help out may feel a sense of obligation, but due to their social network relations this may increase their sense of belongingness. While obligation may improve their relation between PSM and P-O fit, it did not result in an increase level of volunteer intensity. Therefore, if an organization is just needing lots of bodies to show support for a cause or they don't need a large amount of effort, it is suitable to leverage a sense of obligation.

Finally, and the most contentious of the hypothesis that impacts UK policy toward mandated volunteering is that there was no evidence supporting that being mandated to volunteer would impact the relation between P-O fit and volunteering intensity. So in answer to "Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?", I conclude that coercion does not undermine the PSM of volunteers.

### **8.2.5 Time versus energy- does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?**

In the final research question, I challenge the limited literature surrounding volunteering intensity (Rodell 2013, 2015) to see if time and effort makes a difference. It turns out that while there is a difference between time, frequency and volunteering intensity (to include controls), frequency explained a greater percentage of the models variance. Volunteers with high levels of PSM that reported greater frequency in volunteering tend to be part of Generation Y, have children and are unemployed. This could insinuate that having children and not working results in a more frequent amount of volunteering due to obligations surrounding children and having “time” to volunteer. This would feed into the common sense argument that those with more time on their hands are more prone to spending more time volunteering. This would also support the premise behind the UK work placement, that if you don’t have a job then you need to be volunteering in order to gain valuable skills and contribute back to a society that pays taxes so others can collect benefits. In contrast, those volunteers with high levels of PSM and volunteering intensity are often married, part of Generation Y and unemployed. There is no evidence that gender in this model played a significant role.

At the dimensional level, self-sacrifice continued to be a dominate PSM dimension across time, frequency and volunteering intensity. If anything, it is the most consistent of all of the PSM dimensions. There was strong evidence that those with high levels of compassion also volunteered more time, with greater frequency and reported higher levels of volunteering intensity. While the findings in chapter 4 (table 4.4) show similar results for self-sacrifice, compassion was not consistent. It is noted that in chapter 7 which addressed the research question whether time or effort made a difference, P-O was not part of this model (table 6.3).

Consequently, evidence shows that time and effort does make a difference with certain social demographics.

### **8.3 Conclusion**

In this collection of studies, I have attempted to improve our understanding about PSM, P-O fit and volunteering intensity. My review of the literature highlighted the key gaps that existed concerning how PSM affects volunteering. It also addressed the academic debate about time versus effort through volunteering intensity. Finally, this collection of essays has improved our understanding of how P-O fit can enhance the volunteers' effort. By utilizing a quantitative research design of volunteers in the Southwest region of UK and Italy, the findings across the studies provide practical and theoretical implications.

#### **8.3.1 Practical Implications**

The results of my thesis have several implications for volunteer coordination managers, the UK work placement policy and HR managers that are using corporate volunteering opportunities as part of their recruitment and employer branding.

For those managers who are faced with coerced volunteers, the findings within this dissertation can help improve their understanding of how different motives are closely related to different types of volunteering activities. By identifying which types of motives (rational, normative and effective) through the six PSM dimensions (self-sacrifice, social justice, compassion, commitment to public interest, civic duty and attraction to policy making) are more prominent in different types of volunteering, managers can have a better understanding if the individual may have a better P-O fit and ultimately report higher volunteering intensity levels. While the findings are generalized and will not be able to predict in all cases if the individuals' PSM levels will lead to increased effort, the findings do lend support in what types of motives different managers should look for when screening volunteers.

From a policy impact standpoint, the UK government could require the job centers to screen the PSM of mandated volunteers. The center could then provide the mandated volunteer with a list of possible volunteer organizations that is more closely aligned with their

motives. This could lead to a better probability of a good P-O fit. With a better match between volunteers and volunteer opportunities, charities that badly need volunteers but are boycotting the UK governments would receive mandated volunteers that are more suited to that organization.

Finally, HR departments are increasingly highlighting different elements of corporate social responsibility with engaging in employer branding for recruitment. The findings concerning millennials in Chapter 4 highlight the importance of social justice and advocacy causes and self-sacrifice and religious and youth volunteering. For companies that have a strong reputation in these areas could benefit by emphasizing it during their recruitment strategies.

### **8.3.2 Contributions**

This thesis sought to contribute to three main gaps in literature. The first aim was to improve academic understanding of PSM and how it affects volunteers. As shown across the studies, high levels of PSM are significantly related to volunteers reporting greater levels of volunteering intensity. This has taken PSM volunteer research beyond just understanding that it increased the individuals' propensity to volunteer more time or frequently.

Secondly, I sought to contribute to the debate within volunteering literature about alternative means to measuring volunteer effort. In each chapter, there was resounding evidence that PSM affected volunteering intensity. Specifically in Chapter 6, there was evidence that the volunteering intensity model predicted more variance than time. Most often, volunteers are asked to donate more time or volunteer more frequently, but they are rarely asked how much effort they exerted when volunteering. It is almost as if it is a social faux pas to ask volunteers if they exerted any effort or did they just show up to have something to do!

Finally, I strove to expand the academic discussion of person-organization fit amongst volunteers. As there is a dearth of studies examining P-O fit amongst volunteers, this was an opportunity to show how it could complement our understanding of how the relation between motivation and effort could be improved. With resounding support that P-O fit complements in a mediating manner, our understanding of how volunteers feel their motives fit with the organization is elaborated upon.

### **8.3.3 Limitations**

Throughout the conclusions of the previous chapters (4-7), I strove to identify limitations and data handling issues that could be addressed in the following study. In some cases, such as coercion, I was able to answer a limitation that was brought up. Regardless, there are some key limitations that were common across the chapters and are discussed below.

#### ***8.3.3.1 PSM Measurement***

One of the main criticisms that was highlighted in the introduction (1.3.4) involved measurement disputes. PSM scholars are in conflict about which PSM scale should be used (Coursey and Pandey 2007; Vandenabeele 2008a; Kim 2011). Several scholars have called for a larger focus on the PSM measurement scales, either for a shorter, global measurement (Moynihan et al. 2013) that sacrifice the focus on the dimensions or longer scales that take into consideration cultural differences (Kim et al. 2013a). Actually, the discussion concerning measurement disputes is a key premise called for by the father of PSM himself - James L. Perry (2014a; Perry and Vandenabeele 2015).

As I had argued for returning to Perry's (1996) initial six dimensions, I did an exploratory factor analysis before a confirmatory factor analysis. During the various EFA's across the different chapters, commitment to public interest consistently suffered from low reliability and cross loading often with attraction to policy making. The items associated with

this dimension (Appendix C) are primarily centered on the individual and focuses on their interest, unselfish behavior and meaningful service. If it was an issue rising just in the millennial sample (as they have often been accused of being self-centered), then there should not have been the same issue in the samples dominated by Generation Y and Baby boomers. PSM dimension social justice also suffered from low reliability and cross-loading with other dimensions such as self-sacrifice in all studies except for the one focusing on millennials. Items SJ2 and 3 could have been viewed by respondents as having similar tenants to self-sacrifice due to the emphasis on being willing to exert all their energy and potentially be ridiculed as a result of their action. Though this items from the social justice questions were retained in the millennial sample highlighting that this dimension may be affected by the age of the sample.

Finally, there has been strong criticism amongst scholars about the attraction to policy making dimension (Kim 2011; Ritz 2011). Across all four studies, there was no supporting evidence for hypotheses around attraction to policy making. As both Kim (2011) Ritz (2011) have observed, the focus on politicians opposed to the individuals' rational motives to influence policy may be the source of the problems for this dimension.

#### ***8.3.3.2 Cross-sectional data***

Another limitation, is that all of the studies in this thesis were cross-sectional. Many PSM studies are cross-sectional, hence Moynihan et al. (2013) harps the lack of experimental and improved research designs. While there are limited, but exceptional experimental PSM studies (Belle 2013; Esteve et al. 2015; Esteve et al. 2016) and there is the possibility in future research to use the variables in this thesis in an experiment, the studies within the thesis are consistent with the majority (81.3%) of PSM studies (Ritz et al. 2016).

#### **8.4 Directions for Future Research**

As addressed in the various chapters, there have arisen issues that could provide direction for future research. First, in terms of issues concerning our understanding of the PSM dimensions, future research is recommended to first interview those in a position to affect policy (such as upper management, board of directors, union members and lobbyist). Insights and key themes from a qualitative based research could then be used to formulate the basis of a new scale to measure attraction to policy while simultaneously re-testing the other five PSM dimensions.

Secondly, as mentioned in Chapter 6, obligated and mandatory volunteering was measured using dichotomous values. It wasn't until after my data collection that a verified scale for measuring feelings of obligation was developed and confirmed (Gallant et al. 2016). Therefore, it is recommended to incorporate this scale in future research that examines a data sample (such as those in the UK community work placement plan) that are known to be volunteering because of coercion.

Finally, while this thesis examines PSM at an individual level amongst volunteers, it does not explore how PSM amongst team of volunteers can influence each other. This has initially been explored through agent-based modeling simulation (Herath et al. In Press) which shows that PSM is one factor influencing accomplishment of fundraising goals. However, it is recommended that PSM levels are taken within teams and tracked for performance and effort exerted over time thus answering the call for more longitudinal based studies.



## 9.0 References

- Alias, S. N. and Ismail, M., 2015. Antecedents of Philanthropic Behavior of Health Care Volunteers. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 39 (4), 277-297.
- Allmark, P. and Mason, S., 2006. Should desperate volunteers be included in randomised controlled trials? *Journal of Medical Ethics*, 32 (9), 548-553.
- Alonso, P. and Lewis, G. B., 2001. Public Service Motivation and Job Performance: Evidence From the Federal Sector. *American Review of Public Administration*, 31 (4), 363-380.
- Anderfuhren-Biget, S., 2012. Profiles of Public Service-Motivated Civil Servants: Evidence from a Multicultural Country. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 35 (1), 5-18.
- Anderfuhren-Biget, S., Varone, F. and Giauque, D., 2014. Policy Environment and Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration*, 92 (4), 807-825.
- Andersen, L. B., 2009. What determines the behaviour and performance of health professionals? Public service motivation, professional norms and/or economic incentives. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 75 (1), 79-97.
- Andersen, L. B. and Kjeldsen, A. M., 2013. Public Service Motivation, User Orientation, and Job Satisfaction: A Question of Employment Sector? *International Public Management Journal*, 16 (2), 252-274.
- Andersen, L. B., Kristensen, N. and Pedersen, L. H., 2013. Models of Public Service Provision—When Will Knights and Knaves Be Responsive to Pawns and Queens? *International Journal of Public Administration*, 36 (2), 126-136.
- Andersen, L. B. and Serritzlew, S., 2010. Køn, public service motivation og adfærd. (Gender, Public Service Motivation and Behavior). *Politica: Tidsskrift for Politisk Videnskab*, 42 (4), 397-414.
- Andersen, L. B. and Serritzlew, S., 2012. Does Public Service Motivation Affect the Behavior of Professionals? *International Journal of Public Administration*, 35 (1), 19-29.
- Anderson, C. J. and Paskeviciute, A., 2006. How Ethnic and Linguistic Heterogeneity Influence the Prospects for Civil Society: A Comparative Study of Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Politics*, 68 (4), 783-802.
- Anderson, N. D., Damianakis, T., Kröger, E., Wagner, L. M., Dawson, D. R., Binns, M. A., Bernstein, S., Caspi, E. and Cook, S. L., 2014. The benefits associated with volunteering among seniors: A critical review and recommendations for future research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140 (6), 1505-1533.
- Anderson, V. D., 2013. *Research methods in human resource management* [Non-fiction]. London : Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2013.3rd edition.

- Anheier, H. K. and Salamon, L. M., 1999. Volunteering in Cross-National Perspective: Initial Comparisons, 62 (4), 43-65.
- Ariely, D., Bracha, A. and Meier, S., 2009. Doing Good or Doing Well? Image Motivation and Monetary Incentives in Behaving Prosocially. *American Economic Review*, 99 (1), 544-555.
- Azari, J., Dandeker, C. and Greenberg, N., 2010. Cultural Stress: How Interactions With and Among Foreign Populations Affect Military Personnel. *Armed Forces & Society (0095327X)*, 36 (4), 585-603.
- Bakker, A. B., 2015. A Job Demands-Resources Approach to Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 75 (5), 723-732.
- Ballart, X. and Riba, C., 2015. Contextualized measures of public service motivation: the case of Spain. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 1-20.
- Baron, R. M. and Kenny, D. A., 1986. The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51 (6), 1173-1182.
- Basil, D. Z., Runte, M. S., Easwaramoorthy, M. and Barr, C., 2009. Company Support for Employee Volunteering: A National Survey of Companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85, 387-398.
- Baugher, J., 2015. Pathways Through Grief to Hospice Volunteering. *Qualitative Sociology*, 38 (3), 305-326.
- Behaj, S. D., 2013. *A meta-analysis examining the relationship between public service motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (73)*. ProQuest Information & Learning.
- Bekkers, R. and Wiepking, P., 2011. Accuracy of self-reports on donations to charitable organizations. *Quality & Quantity: International Journal of Methodology*, 45 (6), 1369-1383.
- Belle, N., 2013. Experimental Evidence on the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Job Performance. *Public Administration Review*, 73 (1), 143-153.
- Bellé, N. and Ongaro, E., 2014. NPM, administrative reforms and public service motivation: Improving the dialogue between research agendas. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 80 (2), 382-400.
- Ben-Dor, G., Pedahzur, A., Canetti-Nisim, D., Zaidise, E., Perliger, A. and Bermanis, S., 2008. I versus We: Collective and Individual Factors of Reserve Service Motivation during War and Peace. *Armed Forces & Society (0095327X)*, 34 (4), 565-592.
- BÉNabou, R. and Tirole, J., 2006. Incentives and Prosocial Behavior. *American Economic Review*, 96 (5), 1652-1678.

- Benz, M., 2005. Not for the Profit, but for the Satisfaction?– Evidence on Worker Well-Being in Non-Profit Firms. *Kyklos*, 58 (2), 155-176.
- Beyerlein, K. and Sikkink, D., 2008. Sorrow and Solidarity: Why Americans Volunteered for 9/11 Relief Efforts. *Social Problems*, 55 (2), 190-215.
- Beyerlein, K., Trinitapoli, J. and Adler, G., 2011. The Effect of Religious Short-Term Mission Trips on Youth Civic Engagement. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 50 (4), 780-795.
- Bhaskar, R., 1998. *The Possibility of Naturalism : A Philosophical Critique of the Contemporary Human Sciences* [Book]. Vol. 3rd ed. London: Routledge.
- Bidee, J., Vantilborgh, T., Pepermans, R., Huybrechts, G., Willems, J., Jegers, M. and Hofmans, J., 2013. Autonomous Motivation Stimulates Volunteers' Work Effort: A Self-Determination Theory Approach to Volunteerism. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, 24 (1), 32-47.
- Bode, I., 2010. Thinking beyond borderlines: a 'German gaze' on a changing interface between society and the voluntary sector. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 1 (2), 137-159.
- Bokhorst-Heng, W. D., 2008. School-Home Partnerships to Nurture Adolescent Literacy. *Middle School Journal*, 39 (5), 40-49.
- Bolino, M. C. and Grant, A. M., 2016. The Bright Side of Being Prosocial at Work, and the Dark Side, Too: A Review and Agenda for Research on Other-Oriented Motives, Behavior, and Impact in Organizations. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 1-94.
- Bolton, R. N., Parasuraman, A., Hoefnagels, A., Migchels, N., Kabadayi, S., Gruber, T., Loureiro, Y. K. and Solnet, D., 2013. Understanding Generation Y and their use of social media: a review and research agenda. *Journal of Service Management*, 24 (3), 245-267.
- Bondy, K., Moon, J. and Matten, D., 2012. An Institution of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Multi-National Corporations (MNCs): Form and Implications, 111 (2), 281-299.
- Boon, C., Den Hartog, D. N., Boselie, P. and Paauwe, J., 2011. The relationship between perceptions of HR practices and employee outcomes: examining the role of person-organisation and person-job fit. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22 (1), 138-162.
- Borzaga, C. and Tortia, E., 2006. Worker motivations, job satisfaction, and loyalty in public and nonprofit social services. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 35 (2), 225-248.
- Bove, V. and Cavatorta, E., 2012. From Conscription to Volunteers: Budget Shares in NATO Defence Spending. *Defence and Peace Economics*, 23 (3), 273-288.

- Brady, E., Morris, M. R. and Bigham, J. P., 2015. Gauging Receptiveness to Social Microvolunteering (Vol. 2, pp. 1055-1064): Association for Computing Machinery.
- Braender, M. and Andersen, L. B., 2013. Does Deployment to War Affect Public Service Motivation? A Panel Study of Soldiers Before and After Their Service in Afghanistan. *Public Administration Review*, 73 (3), 466-477.
- Brewer, G., 2008. Employee and Organizational Performance. In: Perry, J. L. and Hondeghem, A., eds. *Motivation in Public Management, The Call of Public Service*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 136-156.
- Brewer, G. A. and Selden, S. C., 1998. Whistle Blowers in the Federal Civil Service: New Evidence of the Public Service Ethic. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 8 (3), 413-439.
- Brewer, G. A. and Selden, S. C., 2000. Why Elephants Gallop: Assessing and Predicting Organizational Performance in Federal Agencies. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, (4), 685-711.
- Brewer, G. A., Selden, S. C. and Facer II, R. L., 2000. Individual Conceptions of Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 60 (3), 254-265.
- Briggs, E., Peterson, M. and Gregory, G., 2010. Toward a Better Understanding of Volunteering for Nonprofit Organizations: Explaining Volunteers; Pro-Social Attitudes. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 30 (1), 61-76.
- Bright, L., 2007. Does Person-Organization Fit Mediate the Relationship Between Public Service Motivation and the Job Performance of Public Employees? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 27 (4), 361-379.
- Bright, L., 2008. Does Public Service Motivation Really Make a Difference on the Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions of Public Employees? *American Review of Public Administration*, 38 (2), 149-166.
- Bright, L., 2013. Where Does Public Service Motivation Count the Most in Government Work Environments? A Preliminary Empirical Investigation and Hypotheses. *Public Personnel Management*, 42 (1), 5-26.
- Broido, E. M., 2004. Understanding Diversity in Millennial Students. *New Directions for Student Services*, (106), 73-85.
- Brown, E. and Martin, D., 2012. Individual Giving and Volunteering. In: Salamon, L. M., ed. *The State of Nonprofit America*. 2nd edition. Washington, US: Brookings Institution Press, 495-517.
- Brudney, J. and Kellough, E., 2000. Volunteers in state government: Involvement, management, and benefits. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 29 (1), 111-130.

- Brummel, B. J. and Parker, K. N., 2015. Obligation and Entitlement in Society and the Workplace. *Applied Psychology- An international Review*, 64 (1), 127-160.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E., 2015. *Business research methods* [Non-fiction]. Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2015. 4th edition.
- Burk, J., 1984. Patriotism and the All-Volunteer Force. *Journal of Political & Military Sociology*, 12 (2), 229-241.
- Burke, T. P., 2010. The Origins of Social Justice: Taparelli d'Azeglio. *Modern Age*, 52 (2), 97-106.
- Bussell, H. and Forbes, D., 2002. Understanding the volunteer market: The what, where, who and why of volunteering. *International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 7 (3), 244.
- Byrne, B., 2009. *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: basic concepts, applications and programming by Byrne, Barbara M.* London: Routledge Academic.
- Byrne, B. M., 2010. *Structural equation modeling with AMOS [electronic resource] : basic concepts, applications, and programming.* New York : Routledge, 2nd ed.
- Caillier, J. G., 2015a. Towards A Better Understanding of Public Service Motivation and Mission Valence in Public Agencies. *Public Management Review*, 17 (9), 1217-1236.
- Caillier, J. G., 2015b. Transformational Leadership and Whistle-Blowing Attitudes: Is This Relationship Mediated by Organizational Commitment and Public Service Motivation? *American Review of Public Administration*, 45 (4), 458-475.
- Cairns, B., Hutchison, R. and Aiken, M., 2010. 'It's not what we do, it's how we do it': managing the tension between service delivery and advocacy. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 1 (2), 193-207.
- Calcara, A., 2014. Volunteers in the Italian Civil Protection System. *European Volunteers for Response of Emergencies in the Caribbean, Barbados.* EVRECA. 1-31.
- Camilleri, E., 2007. Antecedents affecting public service motivation. *Personnel Review*, 36 (3), 358-377.
- Camilleri, E. and van der Heijden, B. I. J. M., 2007. Organizational Commitment, Public Service Motivation, and Performance Within the Public Sector. *Public Performance and Management Review*, 31 (2), 241-274.
- Carlson, J., Huppertz, J. W., Bowman, R. A., Lambrinos, J., Strosberg, M. A. and Kutzer, N. A., 2011. Volunteering time decisions: A multi-factor experimental study. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 16 (2), 150-165.
- Carpenter, J., Doverspike, D. and Miguel, R. F., 2012. Public Service Motivation as a Predictor of Attraction to the Public Sector. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80 (2), 509-523.

- Carpenter, J. and Myers, C. K., 2010. Why volunteer? Evidence on the role of altruism, image, and incentives. *Journal of Public Economics*, 94 (11/12), 911-920.
- Carter, S. R., 2016. Using confirmatory factor analysis to manage discriminant validity issues in social pharmacy research. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy*, 38 (3), 731-737.
- Castaing, S., 2006. The Effects of Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Public Service Motivation on Organizational Commitment in the French Civil Service. *Public Policy & Administration*, 21 (1), 84-98.
- Cavallero, J. J., 2013. Engaging Millennial Students in Social Justice from Initial Class Meetings to Service Learning. *New Directions for Teaching & Learning*, 2013 (135), 75-80.
- Cerese, F. and Farinella, D., 2009. Public Service Motivation: how does it relate to management reforms and changes in the working situation of Public organizations? A case study of the Italian Revenue Agency. *Public Policy and Administration*, 24 (3), 281-308.
- Chakera, O. and Sears, A., 2006. Civic Duty: Young People's Conceptions of Voting as a Means of Political Participation. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 29 (2), 521-540.
- Charbonneau, É. and Van Ryzin, G. G., 2016. Exploring the Deep Antecedent of Public Service Motivation. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 1-7.
- Chen, C.-A., 2012. Explaining the Difference of Work Attitudes Between Public and Nonprofit Managers: The Views of Rule Constraints and Motivation Styles. *American Review of Public Administration*, 42 (4), 437-460.
- Chen, C.-A., 2013. Nonprofit Managers' Motivational Styles: A View Beyond the Intrinsic-Extrinsic Dichotomy. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43 (4), 737-758.
- Chen, C.-A. and Hsieh, C.-W., 2015. Knowledge sharing motivation in the public sector: the role of public service motivation. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 81 (4), 812-832.
- Chen, C. A. and Bozeman, B., 2013. Understanding Public and Nonprofit Managers' Motivation Through the Lens of Self-Determination Theory. *Public Management Review*, 15 (4), 584-607.
- Chen, C. A., Hsieh, C. W. and Chen, D. Y., 2014. Fostering public service motivation through workplace trust: Evidence from public managers in Taiwan. *Public Administration*. 92 (4) 954-973.
- Chen, K. Y., 2014. The Relationship Between Serious Leisure Characteristics and Subjective Well-Being of Older Adult Volunteers: The Moderating Effect of Spousal Support. *Social Indicators Research*, 119 (1), 197-210.

- Cheng, K. T., 2015. Public service motivation and job performance in public utilities: An investigation in a Taiwan sample. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 28 (4-5), 352-370.
- Chetkovich, C., 2003. What's in a Sector? The Shifting Career Plans of Public Policy Students. *Public Administration Review*, 63 (6), 660-674.
- Cho, E. and Kim, S., 2015. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha: Well Known but Poorly Understood. *Organizational Research Methods*, 18 (2), 207-230.
- Cho, J., Park, D. J. and Ordonez, Z., 2013. Communication-oriented person-organization fit as a key factor of job-seeking behaviors: Millennials' social media use and attitudes toward organizational social media policies. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 16 (11), 794-799.
- Cho, Y. J. and Lee, J. W., 2012. Performance Management and Trust in Supervisors. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 32 (3), 236-259.
- Choi, D. L., 2004. Public Service Motivation and Ethical Conduct. *International Review of Public Administration*, 8 (2), 99-106.
- Christensen, R. K., Stritch, J. M., Kellough, J. E. and Brewer, G. A., 2015. Identifying Student Traits and Motives to Service-Learn: Public Service Orientation Among New College Freshmen. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement*, 19 (4), 39-62.
- Christensen, R. K. and Wright, B. E., 2011. The Effects of Public Service Motivation on Job Choice Decisions: Disentangling the Contributions of Person-Organization Fit and Person-Job Fit. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 21 (4), 723-743.
- Clary, E. G., Ridge, R. D., Stukas, A. A., Snyder, M., Copeland, J., Haugen, J. and Miene, P., 1998. Understanding and Assessing the Motivations of Volunteers: A Functional Approach. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 74 (6), 1516-1530.
- Clary, E. G., Snyder, M. and Stukas, A. A., 1996. Volunteers' Motivations: Findings from a National Survey. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 25 (4), 485-505.
- Claxton-Oldfield, S., Claxton-Oldfield, J., Paulovic, S. and Wasylikiw, L., 2013. A Study of the Motivations of British Hospice Volunteers. *American Journal of Hospice & Palliative Medicine*, 30 (6), 579-586.
- Clerkin, R. M. and Cogburn, J. D., 2012. The Dimensions of Public Service Motivation and Sector Work Preferences. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 32 (3), 209-235.
- Clerkin, R. M., Paynter, S. R. and Taylor, J. K., 2009. Public Service Motivation in Undergraduate Giving and Volunteering Decisions. *American Review of Public Administration*, 39 (6), 675-698.

- Cnaan, R. A. and Goldberg-Glen, R. S., 1991. Measuring Motivation to Volunteer in Human Services. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 27 (3), 269-284.
- Cnaan, R. A., Handy, F. and Wadsworth, M., 1996. Defining Who Is a Volunteer: Conceptual and Empirical Considerations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 25 (3), 364-383.
- Cnaan, R. A., Jones, K. H., Dickin, A. and Salomon, M., 2011. Estimating Giving and Volunteering: New Ways to Measure the Phenomena. *Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 40 (3), 497-525.
- Cogburn, D. L. and Espinoza-Vasquez, F. K., 2011. From Networked Nominee to Networked Nation: Examining the Impact of Web 2.0 and Social Media on Political Participation and Civic Engagement in the 2008 Obama Campaign. *Journal of Political Marketing*, 10 (1/2), 189-213.
- Constantino, T., 2003. The Impact of Philanthropy on Arts Education Policy. *Arts Education Policy Review*, 105 (1), 25-32.
- Coursey, D., Brudney, J. L., Littlepage, L. and Perry, J. L., 2011. Does Public Service Motivation Matter in Volunteering Domain Choices? A Test of Functional Theory. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 31 (1), 48-66.
- Coursey, D. H. and Pandey, S. K., 2007. Public service motivation measurement - Testing an abridged version of Perry's proposed scale. *Administration & Society*, 39 (5), 547-568.
- Coursey, D. H., Perry, J. L., Brudney, J. L. and Littlepage, L., 2008. Psychometric Verification of Perry's Public Service Motivation Instrument Results for Volunteer Exemplars. *Review Of Public Personnel Administration*, 28 (1), 79-90.
- Crainz, G., 2015. Italy's political system since 1989. *Journal of Modern Italian Studies*, 20 (2), 176-188.
- Cun, X. G., 2012. Public service motivation and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior An empirical study based on the sample of employees in Guangzhou public sectors. *Chinese Management Studies*, 6 (2), 331-341.
- Dass-Brailsford, P., Thomley, R. and de Mendoza, A. H., 2011. Paying it forward: The transformative aspects of volunteering after Hurricane Katrina. *Traumatology*, 17 (1), 29-40.
- Davis, R. S., 2011. Blue-Collar Public Servants: How Union Membership Influences Public Service Motivation. *American Review of Public Administration*, 41 (6), 705-723.
- Day, K. M. and Devlin, R. A., 1996. Volunteerism and crowding out: Canadian econometric evidence. *Canadian Journal of Economics*, 29 (1), 37-54.
- Daymon, C. and Holloway, I., 2011. *Qualitative research methods in public relations and marketing communications*. 2nd edition. New York, NY: Routledge.



- de Jong, M. G., Pieters, R. and Fox, J.-P., 2010. Reducing Social Desirability Bias Through Item Randomized Response: An Application to Measure Underreported Desires. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 47 (1), 14-27.
- Deery, M., Jago, L. and Mair, J., 2011. Volunteering for Museums: The Variation in Motives across Volunteer Age Groups. *Curator*, 54 (3), 313-325.
- DeHart-Davis, L., Marlowe, J. and Pandey, S. K., 2006. Gender Dimensions of Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 66 (6), 873-887.
- Dennis, B. S., Neck, C. P. and Goldsby, M. G., 1998. The scoop on Ben & Jerry's Inc.: An examination of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 13 (5/6), 387-393.
- Desai, U. C. and Snavely, K., 2012. Three Faces of the State and the Nonprofit Sector. *Administration and Society*, 44 (8), 962-984.
- DeVoe, S. E. and Pfeffer, J., 2010. The stingy hour: How accounting for time affects volunteering. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36 (4), 470-483.
- Diaz-Leon, E., 2015. What is social construction? *European Journal of Philosophy*, 23 (4), 1137-1152.
- Dillman, D. A., Messer, B. L., Phelps, G., Tortora, R., Swift, K., Kohrell, J. and Berck, J., 2009. Response rate and measurement differences in mixed-mode surveys using mail, telephone, interactive voice response (IVR) and the Internet. *Social Science Research*, 38 (1), 1-18.
- Doherty, B., Haugh, H. and Lyon, F., 2014. Social Enterprises as Hybrid Organizations: A Review and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 16 (4) 417-436.
- Dreves, F. and Müller, M., 2015. Public Service Motivation as Driver of Social Support to Apply for Safety-Critical Organizations? An Empirical Study in the Context of German Military Service. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 27 (2), 135-154.
- Dugosh, K. L., Festinger, D. S., Croft, J. R. and Marlowe, D. B., 2010. Measuring Coercion to Participate in Research Within a Doubly Vulnerable Population: Initial Development of the Coercion Assessment Scale, 5 (1), 93-102.
- Dugosh, K. L., Festinger, D. S., Marlowe, D. B. and Clements, N. T., 2014. Developing an index to measure the voluntariness of consent to research. *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics*, 9 (4), 60-70.
- Dunn, J., Chambers, S. K. and Hyde, M. K., 2015. Systematic Review of Motives for Episodic Volunteering. *Voluntas*, 1-40.
- Dury, S., De Donder, L., Jacquet, W., Verté, D., De Witte, N. and Buffel, T., 2015. To Volunteer or Not: The Influence of Individual Characteristics, Resources, and Social

- Factors on the Likelihood of Volunteering by Older Adults. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 44 (6), 1107-1128.
- Edwards, J. R., 2008. Person–environment fit in organizations: An assessment of theoretical progress. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2 (1), 167-230.
- Egli, B., Schlesinger, T. and Nagel, S., 2014. Expectation-based types of volunteers in Swiss sports clubs. *Managing Leisure*, 19 (5), 359-375.
- Eisenberg, N. and Okun, M. A., 1996. The relations of dispositional regulation and emotionality to elders' empathy-related responding and affect while volunteering. *Journal of Personality*, 64 (1), 157-183.
- Ellis, S. J., 2005. *By The People: A History of Americans as Volunteers, New Century Edition* [online]. Third edition. Philadelphia, PA: Energize, Inc.
- Ellis, S. J., 2012. New Trends in Volunteering - and How to Tap into Them. *Nonprofit World*, 30 (2), 22-24.
- Ertas, N., 2013. Formal and Informal Social Participation of Public, Non-Profit, and Private Employees. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 36 (8), 578-597.
- Ertas, N., 2014. Public Service Motivation Theory and Voluntary Organizations: Do Government Employees Volunteer More? *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43 (2), 254.
- Esteve, M., Urbig, D., van Witteloostuijn, A. and Boyne, G., 2016. Prosocial Behavior and Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 76 (1), 177-187.
- Esteve, M., van Witteloostuijn, A. and Boyne, G., 2015. The Effects of Public Service Motivation on Collaborative Behavior: Evidence from Three Experimental Games. *International Public Management Journal*, 18 (2), 171-189.
- Evans, K., 2011. 'Big Society' in the UK: A Policy Review. *Children & Society*, 25 (2), 164-171.
- Feldmann, D., 2014. *Inspiring the next generation workforce*.  
[http://cdn.trustedpartner.com/docs/library/AchieveMCON2013/MIR\\_2014.pdf](http://cdn.trustedpartner.com/docs/library/AchieveMCON2013/MIR_2014.pdf):  
 Achieve.
- Field, A. P., 2009. *Discovering statistics using SPSS (and sex and drugs and rock 'n' roll)* [Non-fiction]. Los Angeles, [Calif.] ; London : Sage, c2009.
- Firfiray, S. and Mayo, M., 2016. The Lure of Work-Life Benefits: Perceived Person-Organization Fit As A Mechanism Explaining Job Seeker Attraction To Organizations. *Human Resource Management*, 1-21.
- Frauley, J. and Pearce, F., 2007. *Critical realism and the social sciences: Heterodox elaborations* [Book]. University of Toronto Press.

- Freeman, P. K. and Houston, D. J., 2010. Belonging, Believing, Behaving: The Religious Character of Public Servants. *Administration & Society*, 42 (6), 694-719.
- Frey, B. S. and Jegen, R., 2001. Motivation Crowding Theory. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 15 (5), 589-611.
- Fényes, H. and Pusztai, G., 2012. Volunteering among higher education students. Focusing on the micro-level factors. *Journal of Social Research and Policy*, 3 (1), 73-95.
- Fulford, S. and Thompson, S., 2013. Youth Community Gardening Programming as Community Development: The Youth for EcoAction Program in Winnipeg, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Nonprofit & Social Economy Research / Revue canadienne de recherche sur les OSBL et l'économie sociale*, 4 (2), 56-75.
- Gabris, G. T. and Simo, G., 1995. Public sector motivation as an independent variable affecting career decisions. *Public Personnel Management*, 24 (1), 33-50.
- Gagné, M. and Deci, E. L., 2005. Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26 (4), 331-362.
- Gallant, K., Smale, B. and Arai, S., 2010. Civic Engagement Through Mandatory Community Service: Implications of Serious Leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 42 (2), 181-201.
- Gallant, K., Smale, B. and Arai, S., 2016. Measurement of feelings of obligation to volunteer: the Obligation to Volunteer as Commitment (OVC) and Obligation to Volunteer as Duty (OVD) scales. *Leisure Studies*, 1-14.
- Gamassou, C. E., 2015. What Drives Personnel Out of Public Organizations? *Public Organization Review*, 15 (3), 383-398.
- Geiser, C., Okun, M. A. and Grano, C., 2014. Who is motivated to volunteer? A latent profile analysis linking volunteer motivation to frequency of volunteering. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modeling*, 56 (1), 3-24.
- Georgellis, Y. and Tabvuma, V., 2010. Does Public Service Motivation Adapt? *Kyklos*, 63 (2), 176-191.
- Ghose, T. and Kassam, M., 2014. Motivations to Volunteer Among College Students in India. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, 25 (1), 28-45.
- Giauque, D., Ritz, A., Varone, F. and Anderfuhren-Biget, S., 2012. Resigned But Satisfied: the negative Impact of Public Service Motivation and Red Tape on Work Satisfaction. *Public Administration*, 90 (1), 175-193.

- Giauque, D., Ritz, A., Waldner, C., Varone, F. and Anderfuhren-Biget, S., 2011. Putting public service motivation into context: A balance between universalism and particularism. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 77 (2), 227-253.
- Glanville, J., 2011. Social Networks and Flood Volunteering. *Conference Papers -- American Sociological Association*, 174-174.
- Grant, A. M., 2008. Does intrinsic motivation fuel the prosocial fire? Motivational synergy in predicting persistence, performance, and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93 (1), 48-58.
- Grant, A. M., 2012. Giving time, time after work: Work Design and Sustained Employee Participation in Corporate Volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, 37 (4), 589-615.
- Griffith, J., 2009. After 9/11, What Kind of Reserve Soldier? Considerations Given to Emerging Demands, Organizational Orientation, and Individual Commitment. *Armed Forces And Society*, 35 (2), 214-240.
- Gross, E., 1958. *Work and society*. New York,: Crowell.
- Guntert, S. T., Neufeind, M. and Wehner, T., 2015. Motives for Event Volunteering: Extending the Functional Approach. *Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 44 (4), 686-707.
- Guo, C., Webb, N. J., Abzug, R. and Peck, L. R., 2013. Religious Affiliation, Religious Attendance, and Participation in Social Change Organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 42 (1), 34-58.
- Hacking, I., 1999. *The social construction of what? / Ian Hacking* Cambridge, Mass : Harvard University Press, 1999.
- Haddad, M. A., 2006. Civic responsibility and patterns of voluntary participation around the world. *Comparative Political Studies*, 39 (10), 1220-1242.
- Hager, M. A., 2014. Engagement Motivations in Professional Associations. *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43 (2), 39S-60S.
- Hair, J. F., 2010. *Multivariate data analysis : a global perspective / coseph F. Hair, Jr., ... [et al.]* [Non-fiction]. Upper Saddle River, N.J. ; London : Pearson, 7th ed., Global ed.
- Hall, M. H., 2001. Measurement issues in surveys of giving and volunteering and strategies applied in the design of Canada's National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 30 (3), 515-526.
- Handy, F., Cnaan, R. A., Hustinx, L., Kang, C., Brudney, J. L., Haski-Leventhal, D., Holmes, K., Meijs, L. C. P. M., Pessi, A. B. and Ranade, B., 2010a. A Cross-Cultural Examination of Student Volunteering: Is It All About Resume Building? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 39 (3), 498-523.

- Handy, F., Cnaan, R. A., Hustinx, L., Kang, C., Brudney, J. L., Haski-Leventhal, D., Holmes, K., Meijs, L. C. P. M., Pessi, A. B., Ranade, B., Yamauchi, N. and Zrinscak, S., 2010b. A Cross-Cultural Examination of Student Volunteering: Is It All About Résumé Building? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 39 (3), 498-523.
- Haski-Leventhal, D., Hustinx, L. and Handy, F., 2011. What Money Cannot Buy: The Distinctive and Multidimensional Impact of Volunteers. *Journal of Community Practice*, 19 (2), 138-158.
- Haski-Leventhal, D., Ronel, N., York, A. S. and Ben-David, B. M., 2008. Youth volunteering for youth: Who are they serving? How are they being served? *Children & Youth Services Review*, 30 (7), 834-846.
- Hayes, A. F., 2013. *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.
- Henderson, A., Brown, S. D., Pancer, S. M. and Ellis-Hale, K., 2007. Mandated Community Service in High School and Subsequent Civic Engagement: The Case of the “Double Cohort” in Ontario, Canada. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, 36 (7), 849-860.
- Henderson, A., Pancer, S. M. and Brown, S. D., 2014. Creating effective civic engagement policy for adolescents: Quantitative and qualitative evaluations of compulsory community service. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 29 (1), 120-154.
- Herath, D, Costello, J, Homberg, F. 2016. Team Problem Solving and Motivation under Disorganization – An agent-based modeling approach. *Team Performance Management*, 22 (7/8). In Press
- Hershatter, A. and Epstein, M., 2010. Millennials and the World of Work: An Organization and Management Perspective. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 25 (2), 211-223.
- Hirsch, P. and Horowitz, P., 2006. The global employee volunteer: A corporate program for giving back. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 27 (3), 50-55.
- HMRC, 2012. Volunteering and charitable donations. *Issue briefing HM Revenue & Customs* [online].
- Hodgkinson, V., 1995. Key Factors Influencing Caring, Involvement, and Community. In: Schervish, P., Hodgkinson, V. and Gates, M., eds. *In Care and Community in Modern Society*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 21-50.
- Holmes, K. and Slater, A., 2012. Patterns of Voluntary Participation in Membership Associations: A Study of UK Heritage Supporter Groups. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 41 (5), 850-869.
- Homberg, F., McCarthy, D. and Tabvuma, V., 2015. A Meta-Analysis of the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction. *Public Administration Review*, 75 (5), 711-722.

- Hondeghem, A. and Perry, J. L., 2009. EGPA symposium on public service motivation and performance: Introduction. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 75 (1), 5-9.
- Hooghe, M. and Botterman, S., 2012. Urbanization, Community Size, and Population Density: Is There a Rural-Urban Divide in Participation in Voluntary Organizations or Social Network Formation? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 41 (1), 120-144.
- Houston, D. J., 2000. Public-Service Motivation: A Multivariate Test. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 10 (4), 713-727.
- Houston, D. J., 2006. "Walking the walk" of public service motivation: Public employees and charitable gifts of time, blood, and money. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 16 (1), 67-86.
- Houston, D. J., 2008. Behavior in the Public Square. In: Hondeghem, A., Perry, J. L. and Waterhouse, J., eds. *Motivation in Public Management: The Call of Public Service*. Washington, USA, 177-199.
- Houston, D. J., 2011. Implications of Occupational Locus and Focus for Public Service Motivation: Attitudes Toward Work Motives across Nations. *Public Administration Review*, 71 (5), 761-771.
- Howlett, S., 2002. Volunteering in Libraries, Museums and Archives. *Cultural Trends*, 12 (46), 39-66.
- Hsieh, C.-W., Yang, K. and Fu, K.-J., 2012. Motivational Bases and Emotional Labor: Assessing the Impact of Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 72 (2), 241-251.
- Huang, H. M., 2006. Do print and Web surveys provide the same results? *Computers In Human Behavior*, 22 (3), 334-350.
- Huff, A. S., 2009. *Designing research for publication* Los Angeles, [Calif.] ; London : SAGE.
- Hume, M., 2010. Compassion without action: Examining the young consumers consumption and attitude to sustainable consumption. *Journal of World Business*, 45 (4), 385-394.
- Hustinx, L., Cnaan, R. A. and Handy, F., 2010a. Navigating Theories of Volunteering: A Hybrid Map for a Complex Phenomenon. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 40 (4), 410-434.
- Hustinx, L., Handy, F., Cnaan, R. A., Brudney, J. L., Pessi, A. B. and Yamauchi, N., 2010b. Social and cultural origins of motivation to volunteer: A comparison of university students in six countries. *International Sociology*, 25 (3), 349-382.

- Inauen, E., Rost, K., Frey, B. S., Homberg, F. and Osterloh, M., 2010. Monastic governance: Forgotten prospects for public institutions. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 40 (6), 631-653.
- Isaac, A., 2015. The charities who are challenging the government's workfare programme. *The Guardian*, March 31, 2015.
- Jacobsen, C. B., Hvitved, J. and Andersen, L. B., 2014. Command and Motivation: How the Perception of External Interventions Relates To Intrinsic Motivation and Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration*, 92 (4), 790-806.
- Jacobson, W. S., 2010. Preparing for Tomorrow: A Case Study of Workforce Planning in North Carolina Municipal Governments. *Public Personnel Management*, 39 (4), 353-377.
- Jahan, F. and Shahan, A. M., 2012. Bureau Bashing and Public Service Motivation: A Case for the Civil Service of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 35 (4), 272-284.
- James, S. B., 2014. Charities boycott placements. *Third Sector*, (801), 5-5.
- Jang, C. L., 2012. The Effect of Personality Traits on Public Service Motivation: Evidence From Taiwan. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 40 (5), 725-733.
- Janoski, T., Musick, M. and Wilson, J., 1998. Being Volunteered? The Impact of Social Participation and Pro-Social Attitudes on Volunteering. *Sociological Forum*, 13 (3), 495-519.
- Jenkinson, H., 2011. An exploration of the importance of supervision practice in the voluntary sector. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 2 (2), 239-246.
- Jensen, U. T. and Andersen, L. B., 2015. Public service motivation, user orientation, and prescription behaviour: Doing good for society or for the individual user? *Public Administration*, 93 (3), 753-768.
- Johnson, B. J., 2010. City Planners and Public Service Motivation. *Planning Practice & Research*, 25 (5), 563-586.
- Kahn, W. A., 1990. Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33 (4), 692-724.
- Kako, M. and Ikeda, S., 2009. Volunteer experiences in community housing during the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, Japan. *Nursing & Health Sciences*, 11 (4), 357-359.
- Karwatka, D., 1996. How British teachers use their technical museums. *Technology Teacher*, 56, 34-37.
- Keating, A., Kerr, D., Benton, T., Mundy, E. and Lopes, J., 2010. *Citizenship Education in England 2001-2010: Young People's Practices and Prospects for the Future*. UK Government. (DFE-RR059).

- Kemp, S., 2011. Corporate governance and corporate social responsibility: lessons from the land of OZ. *Journal of Management & Governance*, 15 (4), 539-556.
- Kendall, D., 2006. Class in the United States: Not only alive but reproducing. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 24 (1), 89-104.
- Kerrissey, J. and Schofer, E., 2013. Union Membership and Political Participation in the United States. *Social Forces*, 91 (3), 895-928.
- Kim, M., Chelladurai, P. and Trail, G. T., 2007. A Model of Volunteer Retention in Youth Sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21 (2), 151.
- Kim, M., Trail, G. T., Lim, J. and Kim, Y. K., 2009. The Role of Psychological Contract in Intention to Continue Volunteering. *Journal Of Sport Management*, 23 (5), 549-573.
- Kim, S., 2009. Revising Perry's Measurement Scale of Public Service Motivation. *American Review of Public Administration*, 39 (2), 149-163.
- Kim, S., 2011. Testing a Revised Measure of Public Service Motivation: Reflective versus Formative Specification. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 21 (3), 521-546.
- Kim, S., 2012. Does Person-Organization Fit Matter in the Public Sector? Testing the Mediating Effect of Person-Organization Fit in the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Work Attitudes. *Public Administration Review*, 72 (6), 830-840.
- Kim, S. and Kim, S., 2015. Social Desirability Bias in Measuring Public Service Motivation. *International Public Management Journal*, 1-25.
- Kim, S. and Vandenabeele, W., 2010. A Strategy for Building Public Service Motivation Research Internationally. *Public Administration Review*, 70 (5), 701-709.
- Kim, S., Vandenabeele, W., Wright, B. E., Andersen, L. B., Cerase, F. P., Christensen, R. K., Desmarais, C., Koumenta, M., Leisink, P., Liu, B. C., Palidauskaite, J., Pedersen, L. H., Perry, J. L., Ritz, A., Taylor, J. and De Vivo, P., 2013a. Investigating the Structure and Meaning of Public Service Motivation across Populations: Developing an International Instrument and Addressing Issues of Measurement Invariance. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 23 (1), 79-102.
- Kim, S. H. and Kim, S., 2013. National Culture and Social Desirability Bias in Measuring Public Service Motivation. *Administration & Society*, 1-33.
- Kim, T.-Y., Aryee, S., Loi, R. and Kim, S.-P., 2013b. Person–organization fit and employee outcomes: test of a social exchange model. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24 (19), 3719-3737.



- Kim, Y. and Lee, W.-N., 2014. Networking for philanthropy: increasing volunteer behavior via social networking sites. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior And Social Networking*, 17 (3), 160-165.
- Kim, Y. J. and Kim, E. S., 2016. Exploring the interrelationship between public service motivation and corruption theories. *Evidence-based HRM: a Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 4 (2), 181-186.
- Kim, Y. y. c. u. e. and Khang, H. k. a. u. e., 2014. Revisiting civic voluntarism predictors of college students' political participation in the context of social media. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 36, 114-121.
- King, B. and Weber, A. U. K., 2014. Corporate Activism Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow. *Kellogg Insight*.
- Knox, K., 2004. A Researcher's Dilemma- Philosophical and Methodological Pluralism. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 2 (2), 119-127.
- Knutsen, W. and Chan, Y., 2015. The Phenomenon of Staff Volunteering: How Far Can You Stretch the Psychological Contract in a Nonprofit Organization? *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, 26 (3), 962-983.
- Koumenta, M., 2015. Public service motivation and organizational citizenship. *Public Money and Management*, 35 (5), 341-348.
- Koys, D. J., 2001. The Effects of Employee Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Turnover on Organizational Effectiveness: A Unit-Level, Longitudinal Study. *Personnel Psychology*, 54 (1), 101-114.
- Krasnopolskaya, I., Roza, L. and Meijs, L. C. P. M., 2015. The Relationship Between Corporate Volunteering and Employee Civic Engagement Outside the Workplace in Russia. *Voluntas*, 27 (2), 640-672.
- Krause, N., 2015. Assessing the religious roots of volunteer work in middle and late life. *Research on Aging*, 37 (5), 439-463.
- Kristof, A. L., 1996. Person-Organization Fit: An Integrative Review of its Conceptualizations, Measurement and Implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49 (1), 1-49.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D. and Johnson, E. C., 2005. Consequences of individual's fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58 (2), 281-342.
- Lance, C. E., Butts, M. M. and Michels, L. C., 2006. The sources of four commonly reported cutoff criteria - What did they really say? *Organizational Research Methods*, 9 (2), 202-220.
- Law, B. M. F. and Shek, D. T. L., 2009. Family influence on volunteering intention and behavior among Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong. *Adolescence*, 44 (175), 665-683.

- LeDoux, J. E., 1999. *The emotional brain : the mysterious underpinnings of emotional life* [Book]. London : Phoenix, 1999.
- Lee, Y.-j., 2012. Behavioral Implications of Public Service Motivation: Volunteering by Public and Nonprofit Employees. *American Review of Public Administration*, 42 (1), 104-121.
- Lee, Y.-J. and Jeong, J.-W., 2015. The Link Between Public Service Motivation and Volunteering: The Case of South Korean Civil Servants. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 38 (5), 355-363.
- Lee, Y.-j. and Wilkins, V. M., 2011. More Similarities or More Differences? Comparing Public and Nonprofit Managers' Job Motivations. *Public Administration Review*, 71 (1), 45-56.
- Lee, Y. J. and Brudney, J. L., 2015. Work-to-Society Spillover?: Volunteering by Employees of Nonprofit Organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 26 (1), 105-119.
- Leisink, P. and Steijn, B., 2009. Public service motivation and job performance of public sector employees in the Netherlands. *International Review Of Administrative Sciences*, 75 (1), 35-52.
- Lepp, A., 2009. Leisure and obligation: An investigation of volunteer tourists' experience at Kenya's Taita Discovery Center. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 41 (2), 253-260.
- Levy, M. S., 2008. The Impact of Katrina: Shedding Light on Things Forgotten. *Professional Psychology: Research & Practice*, 39 (1), 31-36.
- Levy, Y., 2010. The Essence of the "Market Army". *Public Administration Review*, 70 (3), 378-389.
- Lewis, I., 2009. Preparing young people for global citizenship. *Education Review*, 21 (2), 23-26.
- Li, M. and Wang, Z., 2016. Emotional labour strategies as mediators of the relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction in Chinese teachers. *International Journal of Psychology*, 51 (3), 177-184.
- Lindenberg, S., 2001. Intrinsic Motivation in a New Light. *Kyklos*, 54 (2/3), 317-342.
- Lindenmeier, J., 2008. Promoting Volunteerism: Effects of Self-Efficacy, Advertisement-Induced Emotional Arousal, Perceived Costs of Volunteering, and Message Framing. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, 19 (1), 43-65.
- Liu, B., Lanying, D. U., Hao, W. E. N. and Bo, F. A. N., 2012. Public Service Motivation of Public Versus Private-Sector Employees in a Chinese Context. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 40 (9), 1409-1418.

- Liu, B., Liu, J. and Hu, J., 2010. Person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and turnover intention: An empirical study in the Chinese public sector. *Social Behavior & Personality*, 38 (5), 615-625.
- Liu, B., Ningyu, T. and Xiaomei, Z., 2008. Public service motivation and job satisfaction in China. *International Journal of Manpower*, 29 (8), 684-699.
- Liu, B., Tang, T. L.-P. and Yang, K., 2013. When does Public Service Motivation Fuel the Job Satisfaction Fire? The Joint Moderation of Person- Organization Fit and Needs-Supplies Fit. *Public Management Review*. 876-900.
- Liu, B., Xiaoyi, Z. and Xiaojun L, V., 2014. Compassion as the Affective Dimension of Public Service Motivation in a Chinese Context. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 42 (2), 245-251.
- Liu, B.-C. and Tang, T. L.-P., 2011. Does the Love of Money Moderate the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction? The Case of Chinese Professionals in the Public Sector. *Public Administration Review*, 71 (5), 718-727.
- Lopes, J., Benton, T. and Cleaver, E., 2009. Young people's intended civic and political participation: does education matter? *Journal of Youth Studies*, 12 (1), 1-20.
- Loretto, W. and Vickerstaff, S., 2015. Gender, age and flexible working in later life. *Work, Employment & Society*, 29 (2), 233-249.
- Losito, B. and Annamaria, D. A., 2003. Democracy, Citizenship, Participation. The Results of the Second IEA Civic Education Study in Italy. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 39 (6), 609-620.
- Lott II, J. L., Hernandez, J., King, J. P., Brown, T. and Fajardo, I., 2013. Public Versus Private Colleges: Political Participation of College Graduates. *Research in Higher Education*, 54 (8), 895-929.
- Lui, B., 2009. Evidence of public service motivation of social workers in China. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 75 (2), 349-366.
- Lynch Jr, R. S. and Willett, P. K., 2003. Bayesian classification results using data containing missing class labels (Vol. 5, pp. 2105-2111).
- Lyubomirsky, S., King, L. and Diener, E., 2005. The Benefits of Frequent Positive Affect: Does Happiness Lead to Success? *Psychological Bulletin*, 131 (6), 803-855.
- Mann, C. J., 2003. Observational research methods. Research design II: cohort, cross sectional, and case-control studies. *Emergency Medicine Journal: EMJ*, 20 (1), 54-60.
- Marta, E., Pozzi, M. and Marzana, D., 2010. Volunteers and ex-volunteers: Paths to civic engagement through volunteerism. *Psykhé: Revista de la Escuela de Psicología*, 19 (2), 5-17.

- Marvin, C. and Ingle, D. W., 1996. Blood Sacrifice and the Nation: Revisiting Civil Religion. *American Academy of Religion*, 64 (4), 767-780.
- Mathou, C., 2010. *Volunteering in the European Union*. Brussels, Belgium: Educational, Audiovisual and Cultural Executive Agency.
- McBride, A. M., Gonzales, E., Morrow-Howell, N. and McCrary, S., 2011. Stipends in Volunteer Civic Service: Inclusion, Retention, and Volunteer Benefits. *Public Administration Review*, 71 (6), 850-858.
- McBride, A. M. and Sherraden, M. W., 2007. *Civic service worldwide. [electronic resource] : impacts and inquiry* Armonk, N.Y. ; London : M.E. Sharpe.
- McGinnis, J., 2011. The Young And Restless: Generation Y In The Nonprofit Workforce. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 35 (3), 342-362.
- McGlone, T., Spain, J. W. and McGlone, V., 2011. Corporate Social Responsibility and the Millennials. *Journal of Education for Business*, 86 (4), 195-200.
- McNierney, B., 2015. Female Engagement Teams: An Evaluation of the Female Engagement Team Program in Afghanistan. *Women, Peace and Security*, Newport, Rhode Island, USA. US Naval War College. 81-84.
- Mesch, D. J., Tschirhart, M., Perry, J. L. and Lee, G., 1998. Altruists or Egoists? Retention in Stipended Service. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 9 (1), 3-22.
- Metzger, A. A. M. m. w. e. and Ferris, K., 2013. Adolescents' domain-specific judgments about different forms of civic involvement: Variations by age and gender. *Journal of Adolescence*, 36 (3), 529-538.
- Moeller, J., de Vreese, C., Esser, F. and Kunz, R., 2014. Pathway to Political Participation: The Influence of Online and Offline News Media on Internal Efficacy and Turnout of First-Time Voters. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 58 (5), 689-700.
- Moloney, K. and Chu, H.-Y., 2016. Linking Jamaica's public service motivations and ethical climate. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 46 (4), 436-458.
- Monteze, M. S. and Joyce, O., 1996. Public and private organizations in Latin America: a comparison of reward preferences. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 9 (2), 15-27.
- Moon, S. G., Seo, M. and Kim, K. W., 2014. Effects of Motivation on Charitable Giving Practices: The Case of Korean American Immigrants. *Voluntas*, 26 (6), 2645-2670.
- Moreno-Jiménez, M. P. and Villodres, M. C. H., 2010. Prediction of burnout in volunteers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40 (7), 1798-1818.
- Morris, P. and Cogan, J., 2001. Chapter 8: A comparative overview: civic education across six societies. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 35, 109-123.

- Mostafa, A. M. S. and Gould-Williams, J. S., 2014. Testing the mediation effect of person–organization fit on the relationship between high performance HR practices and employee outcomes in the Egyptian public sector. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25 (1/2), 276-292.
- Moulton, S. and Feeney, M. K., 2011. Public Service in the Private Sector: Private Loan Originator Participation in a Public Mortgage Program. *Journal Of Public Administration Research And Theory*, 21 (3), 547-572.
- Mowen, J. C. and Sujan, H., 2005. Volunteer Behavior: A Hierarchical Model Approach for Investigating Its Trait and Functional Motive Antecedents. *Journal of Consumer Psychology (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates)*, 15 (2), 170-182.
- Moynihan, D. P. and Pandey, S. K., 2007. The Role of Organizations in Fostering Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 40-53.
- Moynihan, D. P. and Pandey, S. K., 2008. The Ties that Bind: Social Networks, Person-Organization Value Fit, and Turnover Intention. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 18 (2), 205-227.
- Moynihan, D. P., Vandenabeele, W. and Blom-Hansen, J., 2013. Debate: Advancing public service motivation research. *Public Money & Management*, 33 (4), 288-289.
- Musick, M. A. and Wilson, J., 2007. *Volunteers : A Social Profile*. Bloomington, IN, USA: Indiana University Press.
- Muthuri, J. N., Matten, D. and Moon, J., 2009. Employee Volunteering and Social Capital: Contributions to Corporate Social Responsibility. *British Journal of Management*, 20 (1), 75-89.
- Naff, K. C. and Crum, J., 1999. Working for America: Does public service motivation make a difference? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 19 (4), 5-16.
- Nesbit, R. and Gazley, B., 2012. Patterns of Volunteer Activity in Professional Associations and Societies. *Voluntas*, 23 (3), 558-583.
- Nesbit, R. A., 2011. A discussion of the differences in volunteering rates in the panel study of income dynamics, the current population survey, and independent sector volunteering studies. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 21 (4), 417-432.
- Netzer, J., 2008. VFW's National Legislative Service: Crafting Legislation on Capitol Hill. *VFW*, 96 (1), 26-30.
- Neufeind, M., Jiranek, P. and Wehner, T., 2014. Beyond skills and structure: Justice dispositions as antecedents of young citizens' volunteering and political participation. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 24 (4), 278-295.
- Ng, E. S. W. and Gossett, C. W., 2013. Career Choice in Canadian Public Service: An Exploration of Fit With the Millennial Generation. *Public Personnel Management*, 42 (3), 337-358.

- Ngaruiya, K. M., Knox Velez, A.-L., Clerkin, R. M. and Taylor, J. K., 2014. Public Service Motivation and Institutional-Occupational Motivations Among Undergraduate Students and ROTC Cadets. *Public Personnel Management*, 43 (4), 442-458.
- Nielsen, 2015. *Nielsen Global Digital Landscape Survey* [online]. Nielsen. Available from: <http://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/corporate/us/en/reports-downloads/2015-reports/nielsen-global-digital-landscape-report-march-2015.pdf> [Accessed 04-04].
- Noah, L., 2010. Coerced Participation in Clinical Trials: Conscripting Human Research Subjects. *Administrative Law Review*, 62 (2), 329-366.
- Nunnally, J. C., 1978. *Psychometric theory* [Non-fiction]. 2nd ed. edition. New York ; London (etc.): McGraw-Hill.
- O'Leary, R., 2010. Guerrilla Employees: Should Managers Nurture, Tolerate, or Terminate Them? *Public Administration Review*, 70 (1), 8-19.
- OPM, 2012. Fact Sheet: Guidance on Scheduling Work and Granting Time Off to Permit Federal Employees to Participate in Volunteer Activities.
- Orr, N., 2006. Museum Volunteering: Heritage as 'Serious Leisure'. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 12 (2), 194-210.
- Padilla, P. A. and Laner, M. R., 2002. Trends In Military Influences On Army Recruitment Themes: 1954-1990. *Journal of Political & Military Sociology*, 30 (1), 113-133.
- Palmer, A. A., Freeman, P. A. and Zabriskie, R. B., 2007. Family deepening: A qualitative inquiry into the experience of families who participate in service expeditions. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 39 (3), 438-458.
- Pan, N. and Zhu, L. Y., 2010. Does public service motivation really make a difference on the job satisfaction and turnover intention of U.S. federal senior professional employees? Management Science and Engineering (ICMSE), 2010 International Conference (pp. 1748-1756).
- Pandey, S. and Stazyk, E., 2008. Antecedents and Correlates of Public Service Motivation. In: Perry, J. and Hondegham, A., eds. *Motivation in Public Management: the call of public service*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University, 101-117.
- Pandey, S. K., Wright, B. E. and Moynihan, D. P., 2008. Public Service Motivation and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior in Public Organizations: Testing a Preliminary Model. *International Public Management Journal*, 11 (1), 89-108.
- Park, S. M. and Kim, M. Y., 2015. Accountability and public service motivation in Korean government agencies. *Public Money & Management*, 35 (5), 357-364.
- Park, S. M. and Rainey, H. G., 2012. Work motivation and social communication among public managers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23 (13), 2630-2660.

- Park, S. M. and Word, J., 2012. Driven to Service: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation for Public and Nonprofit Managers. *Public Personnel Management*, 41 (4), 705-734.
- Parkes, L. P., Bochner, S. and Schneider, S. K., 2001. Person-Organisation Fit Across Cultures: An Empirical Investigation of Individualism and Collectivism. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50 (1), 81-108.
- Pashby, K., Ingram, L.-A. and Joshee, R., 2014. Discovering, Recovering, and Covering-up Canada: Tracing Historical Citizenship Discourses in K-12 and Adult Immigrant Citizenship Education. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 37 (2) 1-22.
- Pedersen, M. J., 2013. Public Service Motivation and Attraction to Public Versus Private Sector Employment: Academic Field of Study as Moderator? *International Public Management Journal*, 16 (3), 357-385.
- Perry, J. L., 1996. Measuring Public Service Motivation: An Assessment of Construct Reliability and Validity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 6 (1), 5-22.
- Perry, J. L., 1997. Antecedents of Public Service Motivation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 7 (2), 181-197.
- Perry, J. L., 2014. The motivational bases of public service: foundations for a third wave of research. *Asia Pacific Journal of Public Administration*, 36 (1), 34-47.
- Perry, J. L., Brudney, J. L., Coursey, D. and Littlepage, L., 2008. What drives morally committed citizens? A study of the antecedents of public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 68 (3), 445-458.
- Perry, J. L. and Hondeghem, A., 2008. Building Theory and Empirical Evidence about Public Service Motivation. *International Public Management Journal*, 11 (1), 3-12.
- Perry, J. L. and Vandenabeele, W., 2015. Public Service Motivation Research: Achievements, Challenges, and Future Directions. *Public Administration Review*, 75 (5), 692-699.
- Perry, J. L. and Wise, L. R., 1990. The Motivational Bases of Public Service. *Public Administration Review*, 50 (3), 367-373.
- Planalp, S. and Trost, M., 2009. Motivations of Hospice Volunteers. *American Journal Of Hospice & Palliative Medicine*, 26 (3), 188-192.
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Welsh, D. T. and Mai, K. M., 2013. Surveying for "artifacts": the susceptibility of the OCB-performance evaluation relationship to common rater, item, and measurement context effects. *The Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 98 (5), 863-874.
- Potipiroon, W. and Faerman, S., 2016. What Difference Do Ethical Leaders Make? Exploring the Mediating Role of Interpersonal Justice and the Moderating Role of Public Service Motivation. *International Public Management Journal*, 19 (2), 171-207.

- Principi, A., Chiatti, C. and Lamura, G., 2012. Motivations of older volunteers in three European countries. *International Journal of Manpower*, 33 (6), 704-722.
- Quratulain, S. and Khan, A. K., 2015a. How Does Employees' Public Service Motivation Get Affected? A Conditional Process Analysis of the Effects of Person–Job Fit and Work Pressure. *Public Personnel Management*, 44 (2), 266-289.
- Quratulain, S. and Khan, A. K., 2015b. Red Tape, Resigned Satisfaction, Public Service Motivation, and Negative Employee Attitudes and Behaviors: Testing a Model of Moderated Mediation. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 35 (4), 307-332.
- Rainey, H. G. and Steinbauer, P., 1999. Galloping Elephants: Developing Elements of a Theory of Effective Government Organizations, *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 9(1), 1-32.
- Raja-Yusof, R. J., Norman, A. A., Abdul-Rahman, S. S., Nazri, N. and Mohd-Yusoff, Z., 2016. Cyber-volunteering: Social media affordances in fulfilling NGO social missions. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 57, 388-397.
- Ramella, F., 1995. Mobililitazione pubblica e società civile meridionale, *Circuiti Culturali* 121-155.
- Rathge, R., Garosi, J. and Olson, k., 2013. Baby Boomers' Impact on Work Force and Tax Issues in the Great Plains. In: Glasgow, N. and Berry, E., eds. *Rural Aging in the 21st Century America*. 1 edition. Netherlands: Springer, 77-96.
- Reyes, H., 2010. Students' response to disaster: a lesson for health care professional schools. *Annals Of Internal Medicine*, 153 (10), 658-660.
- Riba, C. and Ballart, X., 2016. La motivación para el servicio público de los altos funcionarios españoles: medida y efectos. *Public Service Motivation of Spanish High Civil Servants. Measurement and Effects.*, (154), 65-82.
- Richards, E. A., Novak, J. C. and Davis, L. V., 2009. Disaster response after Hurricane Katrina: a model for an academic-community partnership in Mississippi. *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, 26 (3), 114-120.
- Ritz, A., 2011. Attraction to Public Policy-Making: A Qualitative Inquiry into Improvements in PSM Measurement. *Public Administration*, 89 (3), 1128-1147.
- Ritz, A. and Brewer, G. A., 2013. Does Societal Culture Affect Public Service Motivation? Evidence of Sub-national Differences in Switzerland. *International Public Management Journal*, 16 (2), 224-251.
- Ritz, A., Brewer, G. A. and Neumann, O., 2016. Public Service Motivation: A Systematic Literature Review and Outlook. *Public Administration Review*, 1-13.



- Ritz, A. and Petrovsky, N., 2011. *Do High Public Service Motivation and High Salaries Go Hand-in-Hand? Exploring the Motivational Pattern and Remuneration of Swiss Local Government Officials*. CNKI Conference, China.
- Robinson, K., Keith, M. E. and Bush, V. D., 2010. Summary Brief: An Investigation of Social and Traditional Media Interaction on Generation Y Political Intentions and Behavior. *Society for Marketing Advances Proceedings*, 23-24.
- Rodell, J. B., 2013. Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, 56 (5), 1274-1294.
- Rodell, J. B., Breitsohl, H., Schröder, M. and Keating, D. J., 2016. Employee Volunteering: A Review and Framework for Future Research. *Journal of Management*, 42 (1), 55-84.
- Roh, C.-Y., Moon, M. J., Yang, S.-B. and Jung, K., 2016. Linking Emotional Labor, Public Service Motivation, and Job Satisfaction: Social Workers in Health Care Settings. *Social Work in Public Health*, 31 (2), 43-57.
- Rooney, P., Steinberg, K. and Schervish, P. G., 2004. Methodology is destiny: The effect of survey prompts on reported levels of giving and volunteering. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33 (4), 628-654.
- Rose, R. P., 2013. Preferences for Careers in Public Work: Examining the Government–Nonprofit Divide Among Undergraduates Through Public Service Motivation. *American Review of Public Administration*, 43 (4), 416-437.
- Rotolo, T. and Wilson, J., 2006a. Employment sector and volunteering: The contribution of nonprofit and public sector workers to the volunteer labor force. *Sociological Quarterly*, 47 (1), 21-40.
- Rotolo, T. and Wilson, J., 2006b. Substitute or Complement? Spousal Influence on Volunteering. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 68 (2), 305-319.
- Ruget, V., 2006. The renewal of civic education in France and in America: Comparative perspectives. *The Social Science Journal*, 43, 19-34.
- Ruiz-Palomino, P. and Martínez-Cañas, R., 2014. Ethical Culture, Ethical Intent, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Moderating and Mediating Role of Person-Organization Fit. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 120 (1), 95-108.
- Ryan, K. M., 2012. ‘Don't miss your great opportunity’: patriotism and propaganda in Second World War recruitment. *Visual Studies*, 27 (3), 248-261.
- Salamon, L. M., 2010. Putting the Civil Society Sector on the Economic Map of the World. *Annals of Public & Cooperative Economics*, 81 (2), 167-210.
- Santos, D., 2010. Motivations of hospice volunteers. *American Journal of Hospice & Palliative Medicine*, 26 (3), 188-192.

- Sarre, S. and Tarling, R., 2010. The volunteering activities of children aged 8–15. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 1 (3), 293-307.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A., 2015. *Research methods for business students* [Non-fiction]. New York : Pearson Education, 2015. Seventh edition.
- Sayer, R. A., 2000. *Realism and social science*. [electronic resource] London ; Thousand Oaks, CA : Sage, 2000.
- Scherer, L., Allen, J. and Harp, E., 2016. Grin and bear it: An examination of volunteers' fit with their organization, burnout and spirituality. *Burnout Research*, 3 (1), 1-10.
- Schlesinger, T. and Nagel, S., 2013. Who will volunteer? Analysing individual and structural factors of volunteering in Swiss sports clubs. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 13 (6), 707-715.
- Schlosser, F. K. and Zinni, D. M., 2011. Transitioning ageing workers from paid to unpaid work in non-profits. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21 (2), 156-170.
- Schoeneborn, D. and Homberg, F., 2016. Goffman's return to Las Vegas: Studying corruption as social interaction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-18.
- Schott, C., van Kleef, D. D. and Steen, T., 2015. What Does It Mean and Imply to be Public Service Motivated? *American Review of Public Administration*, 45 (6), 689-707.
- Secchi, D., 2011. *Extendable rationality*. [electronic resource] : understanding decision making in organizations [Bibliographies Non-fiction Electronic document]. New York : Springer, c2011
- Secchi, D. and Bardone, E., 2013. Socially Distributed Cognition and Intra-Organizational Bandwagon: Theoretical Framework, Model and Simulation. *International Journal of Organization Theory & Behavior (PrAcademics Press)*, 16 (4), 521-572.
- Seider, S. C., Rabinowicz, S. A. and Gillmor, S. C., 2011. The Impact of Philosophy and Theology Service-Learning Experiences upon the Public Service Motivation of Participating College Students. *Journal of Higher Education*, 82 (5), 597-628.
- Shantz, A., Saksida, T. and Alfes, K., 2014. Dedicating time to volunteering: Values, engagement, and commitment to beneficiaries. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 63 (4), 671-697.
- Slocum-Gori, S., Hemsworth, D., Chan, W. W., Carson, A. and Kazanjian, A., 2013. Understanding Compassion Satisfaction, Compassion Fatigue and Burnout: A survey of the hospice palliative care workforce. *Palliative Medicine*, 27 (2), 172-178.
- Smith, S. R., 2010. Nonprofits and Public Administration Reconciling Performance Management and Citizen Engagement. *American Review of Public Administration*, 40 (2), 129-152.

- South, J., Purcell, M. E., Branney, P., Gamsu, M. and White, J., 2014. Rewarding altruism: Addressing the issue of payments for volunteers in public health initiatives. *Social Science & Medicine*, 104, 80-87.
- Spera, C., Ghertner, R., Nerino, A. and DiTommaso, A., 2015. Out of work? Volunteers Have Higher Odds of Getting Back to Work. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 44 (5), 886-907.
- St. John, C. and Fuchs, J., 2002. The Heartland Responds to Terror: Volunteering After the Bombing of the Murrah Federal Building, 397.
- Stadelmann-Steffen, I., 2011. Social Volunteering in Welfare States: Where Crowding Out Should Occur. *Political Studies*, 59 (1), 135-155.
- Staeheli, L. A. and Hammett, D., 2013. 'For the future of the nation': Citizenship, nation, and education in South Africa. *Political Geography*, 32, 32-41.
- Statistics, B. o. L., 2016. *Volunteering in the United States 2015*. (USD-16-0363).
- Stazyk, E. C., 2010. Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction: The Role of Fit and Mission Valence. *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings*, 1-6.
- Stazyk, E. C., 2013. Crowding Out Public Service Motivation? Comparing Theoretical Expectations with Empirical Findings on the Influence of Performance-Related Pay. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 33 (3), 252-274.
- Stazyk, E. C. and Davis, R. S., 2015. Taking the 'High Road': Does Public Service Motivation Alter Ethical Decision Making processes? *Public Administration*, 93 (3), 627-645.
- Stebbins, R., 2013. Unpaid work of love: defining the work-leisure axis of volunteering. *Leisure Studies*, 32 (3), 339-345.
- Steen, T., 2006. Public Sector Motivation: Is There Something to Learn From the Study of Volunteerism? *Public Policy & Administration*, 21 (1), 49-62.
- Steen, T., 2008. Not a Government Monopoly: The Private, Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector. In: Hondeghem, A. and Perry, J. L., eds. *Motivation in Public Management : The Call of Public Service*. Oxford: OUP Oxford, 203-223.
- Strickland, A., 2010. Recent developments in volunteering and citizenship. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 1 (2), 253-258.
- Stride, H. and Higgs, M., 2014. An Investigation Into the Relationship Between Values and Commitment: A Study of Staff in the U.K. Charity Sector. *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43 (3), 455-479.
- Stritch, J. M. and Christensen, R. K., 2014. Looking At A Job's Social Impact Through Psm-Tinted Lenses: Probing The Motivation-Perception Relationship. *Public Administration*, 92 (4), 826-842.

- Stukas, A. A. and Snyder, M., 1999. The effects of 'mandatory volunteerism' on intentions to volunteer. *Psychological Science (Wiley-Blackwell)*, 10 (1), 59-64.
- Sullivan, S. and Ludden, A., 2011. Student voluntarism at a Catholic liberal arts college: The role of institutional mission. *Conference Papers -- American Sociological Association*, 1677.
- Taniguchi, H., 2006. Men's and Women's Volunteering: Gender Differences in the Effects of Employment and Family Characteristics. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 35 (1), 83-101.
- Tannous, W. K. and Smith, M., 2012. Volunteering As A Strategy To Fill Gaps In My Resume! Findings From A Study On Jobless Individuals In Four States In Australia. *International Employment Relations Review*, 18 (2), 25-39.
- Taylor, J., 2007a. The Impact of Public Service Motives on Work Outcomes in Australia: A Comparative Multidimensional Analysis. *Public Administration*, 85 (4), 931-959.
- Taylor, J., 2014. Public Service Motivation, Relational Job Design and Job Satisfaction in Local Government. *Public Administration*, 92 (4), 902-918.
- Taylor, J. K. and Clerkin, R. M., 2011. Public Service Motivation and Political Action in College Undergraduates. *Politics & Policy*, 39 (5), 715-740.
- Taylor, J. K., Clerkin, R. M., Ngaruiya, K. M. and Velez, A.-L. K., 2015. An Exploratory Study of Public Service Motivation and the Institutional–Occupational Model of the Military. *Armed Forces & Society (0095327X)*, 41 (1), 142-162.
- Themudo, N. S., 2009. Gender and the Nonprofit Sector. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38 (4), 663-683.
- Thieleman, K. and Cacciatore, J., 2014. Witness to Suffering: Mindfulness and Compassion Fatigue among Traumatic Bereavement Volunteers and Professionals. *Social Work*, 59 (1), 34-41.
- Thornton, S. and Clark, J., 2010. Does higher social diversity lower people's contributions to public goods? The case of volunteering in New Zealand. *New Zealand Economic Papers*, 44 (1), 27-59.
- Tomlinson, F. and Schwabenland, C., 2010. Reconciling Competing Discourses of Diversity? The UK Non-Profit Sector Between Social Justice and the Business Case. *Organization*, 17 (1), 101-121.
- Tonge, J., 2009. *Making the Connection: Building Youth Citizenship in the UK*. Youth Citizenship Commission: Youth Citizenship Commission.
- Tonge, J., Mycock, A. and Jeffery, B., 2012. Does Citizenship Education Make Young People Better-Engaged Citizens? *Political Studies*, 60 (3), 578-602.

- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H. and Schulz, W., 2001. Citizenship and Education in Twenty-Eight Countries: Civic Knowledge and Engagement at Age Fourteen. 1-236.
- Torres-Harding, S. R., Steele, C., Schulz, E., Taha, F. and Pico, C., 2014. Student perceptions of social justice and social justice activities. *Education, Citizenship & Social Justice*, 9 (1), 55-66.
- Tourangeau, R., Couper, M. P. and Steiger, D. M., 2003. Humanizing self-administered surveys: experiments on social presence in web and IVR surveys. *Computers In Human Behavior*, 19 (1), 1-24.
- Tourangeau, R. and Yan, T., 2007. Sensitive questions in surveys. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133 (5), 859-883.
- Twenge, J., 2010. A Review of the Empirical Evidence on Generational Differences in Work Attitudes. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 25 (2), 201-210.
- van Loon, N. M., 2016. Is Public Service Motivation Related to Overall and Dimensional Work-Unit Performance as Indicated by Supervisors? *International Public Management Journal*, 19 (1), 78-110.
- Van Vianen, A. E. M., Nijstad, B. A. and Voskuil, O. F., 2008. A Person-Environment Fit Approach to Volunteerism: Volunteer Personality Fit and Culture Fit as Predictors of Affective Outcomes. *Basic & Applied Social Psychology*, 30 (2), 153-166.
- van Vuuren, M., de Jong, M. D. T. and Seydel, E. R., 2008. Commitment with or without a stick of paid work: Comparison of paid and unpaid workers in a nonprofit organization. *European Journal Of Work And Organizational Psychology*, 17 (3), 315-326.
- Vandenabeele, W., 2007. Toward a public administration theory of public service motivation. *Public Management Review*, 9 (4), 545-556.
- Vandenabeele, W., 2008a. Development of a Public Service Motivation Measurement Scale: Corroborating and Extending Perry's Measurement Instrument. *International Public Management Journal*, 11 (1), 143-167.
- Vandenabeele, W., 2008b. Government Calling: Public Service Motivation As An Element In Selecting Government As An Employer Of Choice. *Public Administration*, 86 (4), 1089-1105.
- Vandenabeele, W., 2009. The mediating effect of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on self-reported performance: more robust evidence of the PSM-performance relationship. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 75 (1), 11-34.
- Vandenabeele, W., 2011. Who Wants to Deliver Public Service? Do Institutional Antecedents of Public Service Motivation Provide an Answer? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 31 (1), 87-107.

- Vandenabeele, W., Scheepers, S. and Hondeghem, A., 2006. Public Service Motivation in an International Comparative Perspective: The UK and Germany. *Public Policy & Administration*, 21 (1), 13-31.
- Vantilborgh, T., Bidee, J., Pepermans, R., Willems, J., Huybrechts, G. and Jegers, M., 2014. Effects of ideological and relational psychological contract breach and fulfilment on volunteers' work effort. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23 (2), 217-230.
- Varodi, A. M., Pop, D. M., BabiȚA, L. L. and Timar, M. C., 2015. Volunteering For Cultural Heritage Conservation - Two Case Studies. *Pro Ligno*, 11 (4), 537-544.
- Vecina, M. L. and Chacon, F., 2013. Is engagement different from satisfaction and organizational commitment? Relations with intention to remain, psychological well-being and perceived physical health in volunteers. *Anales De Psicologia*, 29 (1), 225-232.
- Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A. and Wagner, S. H., 2003. A meta-analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63, 473-489.
- Vogel, D. and Kroll, A., 2016. The Stability and Change of PSM-Related Values Across Time: Testing Theoretical Expectations Against Panel Data. *International Public Management Journal*, 19 (1), 53-77.
- Wang, L. K., 2013. Unequal Logics of Care: Gender, Globalization, and Volunteer Work of Expatriate Wives in China. *Gender & Society*, 27 (4), 538-560.
- Warburton, J. and Crosier, T., 2001. Are We Too Busy to Volunteer? The Relationship Between Time and Volunteering Using the 1997 ABS Time Use Data. *Australian Journal of Social Issues (Australian Council of Social Service)*, 36 (4), 295-314.
- Ward, K. D., 2012. *Predicting and cultivating public service motivation: A longitudinal study measuring the effect of participation in AmeriCorps programs* [<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psych&AN=2012-99090-335&site=eds-live&scope=site>]. (72). ProQuest Information & Learning.
- Ward, K. D., 2014a. Cultivating Public Service Motivation through AmeriCorps Service: A Longitudinal Study. *Public Administration Review*, 74 (1), 114-136.
- Ward, K. D. w. s. e., 2014b. Tapping the Americorps Pipeline: Using Secondary Data to Test the Public Service Motivation Construct. *Public Personnel Management*, 43 (2), 240-258.
- Westover, J. H. and Taylor, J., 2010. International differences in job satisfaction: The effects of public service motivation, rewards and work relations. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 59 (8), 811-828.

- Wilson, J. and Musick, M., 1997a. Who cares? Toward an integrated theory of volunteer work. *American Sociological Review*, 62, 694-713.
- Wilson, J. and Musick, M. A., 1997b. Work and Volunteering: The Long Arm of the Job. *Social Forces*, 76 (1), 251-272.
- Winograd, M. and Hais, M. D., 2011. *Millennial momentum [electronic resource] : how a new generation is remaking America* New Brunswick, NJ : Rutgers University Press.
- Wollebaek, D. and Selle, P., 2002. Does participation in voluntary associations contribute to social capital? The impact of intensity, scope, and type. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 31 (1), 32-61.
- Wollebæk, D. and Strømsnes, K., 2008. Voluntary Associations, Trust, and Civic Engagement: A Multilevel Approach. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 37 (2), 249-263.
- Word, J. and Carpenter, H., 2013. The new public service? Applying the public service motivation model to nonprofit employees. *Public Personnel Management*, 42 (3), 315-336.
- Word, J. and Park, S. M., 2009. Working Across the Divide Job Involvement in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 29 (2), 103-133.
- Wozniak, J., 2014. On sponsoring and CSR involvement. Two theories explaining their effects on a company's attractiveness for candidates. *Romanian Journal of Communication & Public Relations*, 16 (2), 57-72.
- Wright, B. E., 2007. Public Service and Motivation: Does Mission Matter? *Public Administration Review*, 67 (1), 54-64.
- Wright, B. E., Christensen, R. K. and Pandey, S. K., 2013. Measuring Public Service Motivation: Exploring the Equivalence of Existing Global Measures. *International Public Management Journal*, 16 (2), 197-223.
- Wright, B. E., Hassan, S. and Park, J., 2016. Does a public service ethic encourage ethical behaviour? Public service motivation, ethical leadership and the willingness to report ethical problems. *Public Administration*. 94 (3), 647-663.
- Wright, B. E., Moynihan, D. P. and Pandey, S. K., 2012. Pulling the Levers: Transformational Leadership, Public Service Motivation, and Mission Valence. *Public Administration Review*, 72 (2), 206-215.
- Wright, B. E. and Pandey, S. K., 2008. Public Service Motivation and the Assumption of Person-Organization Fit Testing the Mediating Effect of Value Congruence. *Administration & Society*, 40 (5), 502-521.
- Wu, A. M., Tang, C. S. and Yan, E. C., 2005. Post-retirement voluntary work and psychological functioning among older Chinese in Hong Kong. *Journal of cross-cultural gerontology*, 20 (1), 27-45.

- Wymer, W. W., 1997. A Religious Motivation to Volunteer? Exploring the Linkage Between Volunteering and Religious Values. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 5 (3), 3-22.
- Wymer, W. W., 1999. Hospital Volunteers as Customers: Understanding Their Motives, How They Differ from Other Volunteers, and Correlates of Volunteer Intensity. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 6 (2/3), 51-68.
- Young, M. J. and McChesney, J. O. N., 2013. Contemporary Trends in Recreation Volunteerism. *JOPERD: The Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 84 (6), 25-28.
- Yousaf, M., Zafar, S. and Ellahi, A. A., 2014. Do public service motivation, red tape and resigned work satisfaction triangulate together? *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 63 (7), 923-945.
- Yu, K. Y. T., 2014. Person–organization fit effects on organizational attraction: A test of an expectations-based model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 124 (1), 75-94.



10.0 Appendices  
Appendix A-



# Research Ethics Checklist

<b>Reference Id</b>	5746
<b>Status</b>	Approved
<b>Date Approved</b>	07/11/2014

## Researcher Details

<b>Name</b>	Joyce Costello
<b>School</b>	Business School
<b>Status</b>	Postgraduate Research (MRes, MPhil, PhD, DProf, DEng)
<b>Course</b>	Postgraduate Research
<b>Have you received external funding to support this research project?</b>	No
<b>Please list any persons or institutions that you will be conducting joint research with, both internal to BU as well as external collaborators.</b>	Fabian Homberg

## Project Details

<b>Title</b>	The Marriage of Figaro: making a case for a better marriage of motivation in volunteer categories through public service motivation
<b>Proposed Start Date of Data Collection</b>	13/11/2014
<b>Proposed End Date of Project</b>	13/04/2015
<b>Supervisor</b>	Fabian Homberg

**Summary - no more than 500 words (including detail on background methodology, sample, outcomes, etc.)**

The Marriage of Figaro: making a case for a better marriage of motivation in volunteer categories through public service motivation

Volunteer coordination managers across sectors face the challenge of ensuring they recruit and retain volunteers whose motivation and commitment match the available volunteer opportunities (Kleiner 2003). Failure to ensure a good fit, leads to disgruntlement and chaos (Eglin 2014) as such in Mozart's classic opera The Marriage of Figaro. In order to better align volunteers' motivation to different volunteer organizations, we utilize Perry and Wise's (1990) theory of public service motivation (PSM) and Rotolo and Wilson's (2006) volunteering subsets. Public Service Motivation's core elements are the individual, altruistic nature and contribution to society through service delivery (Braender and Andersen 2013) which are also potential drivers of volunteering (Coursey et al. 2011). Historically PSM has triggered a plethora of research comparing public and private sector employees (Houston 2000; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Vandenberg 2011; Ritz and Brewer 2013), but recently more efforts have been made to investigate PSM in non-profit sector employees and volunteers, pointing toward differences in motivation between the latter and public sector employees (Houston 2006; Steen 2006; Coursey et al. 2011; Lee 2012). We argue that PSM's six dimensions: attraction to policy making, self-sacrifice, commitment to public interest, compassion, civic duty and social justice (Perry 1996), allow us to identify the main types of motivations that compel one to volunteer. Additionally, scholars conducting volunteer studies have complained that often studies only look at volunteer service industry as opposed to different categories (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006). This study exploits the volunteer sub-sets developed by Rotolo and Wilson (2006): religion; youth development; social and community service; culture, arts and education; health; sports and hobbies; civic and public safety; advocacy; and work. It has been suggested that sector choice can serve as a proxy for organizational fit (Christensen and Wright 2011). When a volunteer perceives they have a good person-organizational (P-O) fit, their potential to turnover decreases (Jung and Yoon 2013). In our model, PSM is an antecedent to the volunteering subsets. We propose that the six dimensions of PSM are more dominant in the different volunteer categories. For example, volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice will prefer to (?) volunteer in an organization that conducts religious activities. Pairing PSM dimensions with volunteer subsets allows researchers to formulate a model to predict how volunteers will self-select into programs which will ultimately have a good person-volunteer program fit. Lastly, linking motivation to behaviour will further develop the academic conversations in PSM and volunteer motivation studies. This paper uses a mixed method weighted towards quantitative. In winter 2014, an electronic survey will be sent to volunteers who are registered through Community First New Forest and other CVS in the Southwest region of the UK. After data has been collected and analysed, the quantitative semi-structured interviews will be conducted with volunteer coordination managers that fall under CVS in Spring 2015.

## External Ethics Review

<b>Does your research require external review through the NHS National Research Ethics Service (NRES) or through another external Ethics Committee?</b>	No
---	----

## Research Literature

<b>Is your research solely literature based?</b>	No
--	----

## Human Participants

<b>Will your research project involve interaction with human participants as primary sources of data (e.g. interview, observation, original survey)?</b>	Yes
<b>Does your research specifically involve participants who are considered vulnerable (i.e. children, those with cognitive impairment, those in unequal relationships—such as your own students, prison inmates,</b>	No

etc.)?	
Does the study involve participants age 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent (i.e. people with learning disabilities)? NOTE: All research that falls under the auspices of the Mental Capacity Act 2005 must be reviewed by NHS NRES.	No
Will the study require the co-operation of a gatekeeper for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited? (i.e. students at school, members of self-help group, residents of Nursing home?)	No
Will it be necessary for participants to take part in your study without their knowledge and consent at the time (i.e. covert observation of people in non-public places)?	No
Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics (i.e. sexual activity, drug use, criminal activity)?	No

Are drugs, placebos or other substances (i.e. food substances, vitamins) to be administered to the study participants or will the study involve invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind?	No
--	----

Will tissue samples (including blood) be obtained from participants? Note: If the answer to this question is 'yes' you will need to be aware of obligations under the Human Tissue Act 2004.	No
--	----

Could your research induce psychological stress or anxiety, cause harm or have negative consequences for the participant or researcher (beyond the risks encountered in normal life)?	No
Will your research involve prolonged or repetitive testing?	No
Will the research involve the collection of audio materials?	No
Will your research involve the collection of photographic or video materials?	No
Will financial or other inducements (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants?	No

<p>Please give a summary of the ethical issues and any action that will be taken to address these. Explain how you will obtain informed consent (and from whom) and how you will inform the participant about the research project (i.e. participant information sheet).</p>
<p>The survey cover page includes the information normally included in the participation sheet. As per university guidance, informed consent on web based surveys is given by the individual when they submit their answers.</p>

## Final Review

Will you have access to personal data that allows you to identify individuals OR access to confidential	No
---	----

<b>corporate or company data (that is not covered by confidentiality terms within an agreement or by a separate confidentiality agreement)?</b>	
<b>Will your research involve experimentation on any of the following: animals, animal tissue, genetically modified organisms?</b>	No
<b>Will your research take place outside the UK (including any and all stages of research: collection, storage, analysis, etc.)?</b>	No

<b>Please use the below text box to highlight any other ethical concerns or risks that may arise during your research that have not been covered in this form.</b>
There are no identified ethical concerns or risks relating to this survey.

## **Appendix B- Volunteer Intensity Scale**

1. I give my time to help a volunteer group
2. I apply my skills in ways that benefit a volunteer group
3. I devote my energy toward a volunteer group
4. I engage in activities to support a volunteer group
5. I employ my talent to aid a volunteer group

## **Appendix C- Public Service Motivation Scale**

Perry (1996) PSM scale.

### **Social Justice**

- SJ1 I believe that there are many public causes worth championing.
- SJ2 I am willing to use every ounce of my energy to make the world a more just place.
- SJ3 I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed.
- SJ4 I do not believe that government can do much to make society fairer. (reversed)
- SJ5 If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off.

### **Civic Duty**

- CD1 I am willing to go great lengths to fulfill my obligations to my country.
- CD2 Public service is one of the highest forms of citizenships.
- CD3 I believe everyone has a moral commitment to civic affairs no matter how busy they are.
- CD4 I have an obligation to look after those less well off.
- CD5 To me, the phrase "duty, honor, and country" stirs deeply felt emotions.
- CD6 It is my responsibility to help solve problems arising from interdependencies among people.
- CD7 When public officials take an oath of office, I believe they accept obligations not expected of other citizens.

### **Attraction to Policy Making**

APM1 The give and take of public policy making doesn't appeal to me (reversed).

APM2 Ethical behavior of government officials is as important as competence.

APM3 I don't care much for politicians (reversed).

APM4 Politics is a dirty word (reversed).

APM5 I respect government officials who can turn a good idea into law

### **Commitment to Public Interest**

CPI1 People may talk about the public interest, but they are really concerned only about their self-interest. (reversed)

CPI2 It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.  
(reverse)

CPI3 I unselfishly contribute to my community.

CPI4 I consider volunteering my civic duty.

CPI5 Meaningful volunteering is very important to me.

CPI6 I would prefer seeing elected officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests.

CPI7 An elected officials obligation to the public should always come before loyalty to superiors.

### **Self-sacrifice**

SS1 I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else.

SS2 Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.

SS3 I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.

SS4 I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it.

SS5 Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds.

(reverse)

SS6 Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.

SS7 Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.

SS8 I believe in putting duty before self.

### **Compassion**

COMP1 It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.

COMP2 I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.

COMP3 I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally.

(reversed).

COMP4 To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.

COMP5 Most social programs are too vital to do without.

COMP6 I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (reversed).

COMP7 I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves (reversed).

COMP8 There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support (reversed).



## **Appendix D- Person-Organization Fit Scale**

Adapted from Bright 2008. Job and work was replaced with volunteer.

1. My values and goals are very similar to the values and goals of the organization I volunteer with.
2. I am not very comfortable within the culture of my volunteer organization (Reversed).
3. I feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my volunteer organization.
4. What this volunteer organization stands for is important to me.

## **Appendix E- Volunteering Habits**

1. I have volunteered in the past 12 months at the following types of volunteer organizations...
2. In the past, I have volunteered because I felt obligated
3. In the past, I have volunteered because it was mandatory
4. I would not consider volunteering for

Rotolo and Wilson's (2006) list of volunteer subcategories:

- Religious
- Youth development
- Social and community service
- Culture, arts, and education
- Health
- Sports and hobbies
- Civic and public safety
- Advocacy
- Work/professional.

**Appendix F- Summary of research questions, objectives and hypotheses**

	Study 1- Chapter 4 (N. 314)	Study 2- Chapter 5 (Millennials, N. 550)	Study 3- Chapter 6 (Coerced, N.416)	Study 4- Chapter 7 (Time, Freq, VI, N. 416)
<i>PRQ: Does PSM affect behavior of volunteers?</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SRQ1: When does public service motivation generate dedicated volunteers?	when people have high PSM	when people have high PSM	when people have low PSM	when people have high PSM
SRQ2: Does millennial attitudes towards public service make them more committed volunteers?		sometimes		
SRQ3: Does mandatory and obligation based volunteering undermine the public service motivation of volunteers?			No, it does not	
SRQ4: Time versus energy- does it make a difference for public service motivated volunteers?				in some cases
Hypothesis 1: PSM positively affects volunteering intensity.	Yes	Yes 1	Yes	Yes
PSM positively affects volunteer intensity when measured by time.				Yes
PSM positively affects volunteer intensity when measured by frequency.				Yes
Volunteer intensity when measured by Rodell's intensity scales will explain a larger percentage of variance than time or frequency.				Some Evidence
Hypothesis 2a: P-O fit mediates the relation between PSM and volunteering intensity.	Yes		Yes	

Hypothesis 2b: A better P-O fit will strengthen the relationship between PSM and volunteer intensity.	No			
Hypothesis 3a: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization mediates the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity.	Yes	Yes - full mediation		
Hypothesis 3b: Volunteering in a religious organization or youth development organization strengthens the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and volunteering intensity	No			
Hypothesis: Coercion weakens the relation between self-sacrifice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a religious or youth organization.			Some Evidence	
Hypothesis 7: Volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice (a) or compassion (b) will volunteer for more hours, with greater frequency and with superior levels of volunteering intensity.				Yes
Hypothesis 4a: Volunteering in a health organization mediates the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity	Yes	No		
Hypothesis 4b: Volunteering in a health organization strengthens the positive relationship between compassion and volunteering intensity	No			
Hypothesis : Coercion weakens the relation between compassion and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a health organization.			Not Tested	
Hypothesis 7: Volunteers with high levels of self-sacrifice (a) or compassion (b) will volunteer for more hours, with greater frequency and with superior levels of volunteering intensity.				Yes

Hypothesis 5a: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations mediates the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity.	Yes	Not Tested		
Hypothesis 5b: Volunteering in a culture, arts and education organizations strengthens the positive relationship between commitment to public interest and volunteering intensity	Some Evidence			
Hypothesis 4c: Coercion weakens the relation between commitment to public interest and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a culture, arts and education organization.			Not Tested	
Commitment to public interest (a) is positively related to volunteering intensity.				Not Tested
Hypothesis 6a: Volunteering in an organization that conducts work activities mediates the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.	Not Tested			
Hypothesis : Volunteering in an organization that conducts <b>political activities</b> strengthens the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.		No		
Hypothesis 6b: Volunteering in an organization that conducts work activities strengthens the positive relationship between attraction to policy making and volunteering intensity.	Not Tested			
Hypothesis 4d: Coercion weakens the relation between attraction to policy making and volunteer intensity when volunteering in work organization.			No	
Attraction to policy making is positively related to the time spent volunteering.				No

Hypothesis 7a: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations mediates the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.	Yes	No		
Hypothesis 7b: Volunteering in civic or public safety organizations strengthens the positive relationship between civic duty and volunteering intensity.	No			
Hypothesis 4e: Coercion weakens the relation between civic duty and volunteer intensity when volunteering in a civic or public safety organization.			No	
Civic duty (c) is positively related to volunteering intensity.				Yes
Hypothesis 8a: Volunteering in an advocacy group mediates the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.	Not Tested	Yes - partial mediation		
Hypothesis 8b: Volunteering in an advocacy group strengthens the positive relation between social justice and volunteering intensity.	Not Tested			
Hypothesis 4f: Coercion weakens the relation between social justice and volunteer intensity when volunteering in an advocacy organization.			Not Tested	
Social justice (b) is positively related to volunteering intensity.				Not Tested
Hypothesis 3a- Millennials in a heterogenous society when volunteering for advocacy, political activities and culture will mediate the relation between social justice, attraction to policy making and commitment to public interest leading to increased volunteering intensity. (UK sample)		Some Evidence SJ= partial, SS= full		
Hypothesis 3b- Millennials in a homogenous society when volunteering for religious, health and public safety will mediate the relation between self-sacrifice, compassion and civic duty leading to increased volunteering intensity. (Italy sample)		Some Evidence SJ, SS= partial		

Hypothesis 3a: Obligated coercion strengthens the relation between an individual's PSM levels and P-O fit. The effect will be stronger for those having high PSM rather than low PSM.			No	
Hypothesis 3b: Mandatory coercion weakens the relation between P-O fit and volunteer intensity. The effect will be stronger for those having low PSM rather than high PSM.			No	
Hypothesis 3c: Coercion weakens the relation between PSM and volunteer intensity.			Some Evidence	
<b>CONTROLS</b>	Gender, Baby Boomers, Married, Children, Frequency (often)	Gender, GenZ, course level	Gender, GenY, Married, Children, Employed	Gender, GenY, Married, Children, Employed
Objectives:				
1. Explore the impact of PSM on volunteer behavior focusing on volunteering intensity.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Analyze the different dimensions of PSM attitudes to determine if they are more prevalent in different categories of volunteer organizations.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
3. Investigate if different generational cohorts exhibit different PSM motivators when volunteering for similar causes.		Yes	Control For Geny	Control For Geny
4. Analyze if when volunteers are coerced if it results in decreased effort being exerted despite high levels of of PSM and good P-O fit			Yes	
5. Determine if PSM results in increased time, frequency or volunteer intensity	Intensity (Freq Control)	Intensity	Intensity	All Three