

Exploring the Impact of Volunteer Support on Volunteer Motivation to Improve Volunteer Re- tention in the Bavarian Red Cross

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Abstract

Results from previous studies have indicated that volunteering is a complex phenomenon involving contradictory findings. There is a gap in current literature regarding the effect of support from organisations on volunteer motivation and retention. Hence, the purpose of this study was to explore and identify key motivating factors and the impact of volunteer support on volunteer motivation.

While previous studies primarily used either a quantitative or qualitative approach, this study applied a mixed-method research methodology to the collection of data through an online survey of 995 volunteers of the Bavarian Red Cross and semi-structured interviews of 15 volunteer managers of the Bavarian Red Cross, which is the largest secular aid organisation in Bavaria managed by a board of volunteers. The study builds on multiple theories such as Development Ecology Theory, Expectancy Theory, Volunteer Personality Model, Role-Identity Model, and assessing motivation considering functional and self-determination theories. The study regards these different dimensions to develop a holistic approach to tackling the complexity of volunteerism.

While a high level of complexity of motivation factors in the field of study is fully supported, the results suggest that – based on a multi-theory approach of person-centred theories such as Functional Motivation Theory, Expectancy Theory and Self-Determination Theory – organisations can foster volunteer retention by primarily supporting intrinsic motivation, that they should emphasise community, socialise the context of volunteering and collaborative aid, and seek to convert egoistic motives into humanitarian priorities. The study concludes by presenting a manageable model for volunteer organisations to effectively improve volunteer retention. This study can contribute to better understand volunteerism and inform governance and leadership of aid organisations on types of support to enhance long-term volunteer retention. Aid organisations and volunteer managers should administer the proposed Volunteer Retention Model to maximise volunteer retention within their organisation.

Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

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Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author works for the Bavarian Red Cross, whose members partially participated in this study. In order to manage any potential bias, the author did not participate directly in the survey and did not personally select individual survey participants.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Declaration	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables und Figures	x
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Research Background	1
1.1.1 Volunteerism – a Definition	2
1.1.2 Volunteerism in Germany	5
1.1.3 Volunteerism in Bavaria	6
1.1.4 Volunteerism at the Bavarian Red Cross	10
1.1.5 Summary of the Current Situation and Challenges of Volunteerism	11
1.1.6 Brief Summary of Discussions in the Volunteer Literature	14
1.1.7 Summary	15
1.2 Problem Statement	16
1.3 Research Question	17
1.3.1 Research Question 1	17
1.3.2 Research Question 2	17
1.3.3 Research Question 3	18
1.3.4 Research Question 4	18
1.4 Research Aim	18
1.5 Research Objectives	18
1.6 Significance of the Study	19
1.7 Thesis Structure	20
2 Literature Review	22
2.1 Introduction	22
2.2 Search Strategy: Description and Rationale	23
2.3 Definitions from Various Perspectives	25
2.3.1 Volunteerism	25
2.3.2 Episodic Volunteering	26
2.3.3 Retention	28
2.3.4 Support	28
2.3.5 Motivation	29
2.4 Classifications of Major Approaches to Volunteer Motivation	29
2.4.1 Ontological and Epistemological Assumptions	29

2.4.2 Altruistic-Egoistic Duality Approach	31
2.4.3 Variable-centred and Person-Centred Approaches.....	32
2.4.4 Functional Approach	32
2.5 Major Theoretical Frameworks and Models	33
2.5.1 Antecedent Theories	33
2.5.2 The Volunteer Personality Model.....	37
2.5.3 The Role-Identity Model	38
2.5.4 Theories of Motivation.....	39
2.6 Literature Review Concerning Volunteer Retention.....	50
2.6.1 Employee versus Volunteer Retention.....	50
2.6.2 Literature Review	54
2.7 Discussion	55
2.7.1 The Link Between Personality Traits and Volunteerism	55
2.7.2 Volunteer Motivation.....	55
2.7.3 Volunteer Retention.....	56
2.8 Conclusions.....	57
3 Methodology	59
3.1 Introduction.....	59
3.2 The Research Process	60
3.2.1 Selecting the Research Area	60
3.2.2 Formulating a Research Aim and Objectives.....	60
3.2.3 Conducting the Literature Review	61
3.2.4 Selecting Methods of Data Collection.....	62
3.2.5 Advantages and Disadvantages of Primary Data Collection Methods	62
3.2.6 Overview of the Study	64
3.3 Research Philosophy.....	64
3.3.1 Research Paradigm	64
3.3.2 Positivism.....	65
3.3.3 Interpretivism	66
3.3.4 Discussion	66
3.4 Research Approach	68
3.4.1 Deductive and Inductive Reasoning	68
3.4.2 Discussion	70
3.5 Research Design	70
3.5.1 Purpose in Research Design.....	70
3.5.2 Types of Research Design	71
3.5.3 Discussion	73

3.6	Methods of Data Collection.....	73
3.6.1	Methods of Primary Data Collection	74
3.6.2	Qualitative Data Collection Methods	78
3.6.3	Research Choice	80
3.6.4	Questionnaire Design.....	81
3.6.5	Interview Design	81
3.6.6	Summary	82
3.7	Sampling Issues and Missing Data	83
3.8	Methods of Data Analysis	86
3.9	Reliability and Validity	88
3.10	Ethical Considerations	89
3.10.1	Voluntary Participation of Adult Respondents	89
3.10.2	Offensive Language in Surveys.....	90
3.10.3	Privacy of Respondents.....	90
3.10.4	Acknowledgement of Works of Other Authors.....	90
3.10.5	Objectivity.....	90
3.11	Data Collection Choices	91
3.11.1	Characteristics of the Research Sample	91
3.11.2	Sample Size	92
3.11.3	Questionnaires – Quantitative Approach	93
3.11.4	Questionnaires – Qualitative Approach	97
3.11.5	Questionnaires – Mode of Questioning	97
3.11.6	Interviews	98
3.12	Analysing Software.....	101
3.13	Conclusions	102
4	Findings – Factors of Motivation Amongst Bavarian Volunteers.....	105
4.1	Introduction.....	105
4.2	Key Demographic Attributes of the Questionnaire Sample.....	108
4.2.1	Gender.....	109
4.2.2	Age and Marital Status	111
4.2.3	Education, Employment, and Income.....	114
4.2.4	Membership, Retention, Frequency, and Time Volunteering.....	116
4.2.5	Summary	119
4.3	Volunteer Function Inventory	120
4.3.1	Volunteering as a Response to Personal Emotional Needs.....	123
4.3.2	Dedication to the Cause.....	126
4.3.3	Peer Pressure	128

4.3.4 Career.....	132
4.4. Helping Attitude Scale.....	135
4.5 Open Questions on Motivating Factors.....	140
4.5.1 Coding	140
4.5.2 Top Motivating Factors for Volunteers	144
4.5.3 Top Motivating Factors from a Third-Person Perspective	147
4.5.4 Top Demotivating Factors for Volunteers.....	149
4.5.5 Top Demotivating Factors from a Third-Person Perspective.....	151
4.6 Summary.....	154
5 Findings – Implementing Effective Organisational Support in the BRC	
Context	156
5.1 Introduction.....	156
5.2 Expected Support.....	156
5.2.1 Intangible Support.....	157
5.2.2 Tangible Support.....	160
5.2.3 Supporting Extrinsic or Intrinsic Motivation.....	162
5.2.4 Open Questions on Support.....	166
5.2.5 Summary	171
5.3 Received Support.....	173
5.4 The Relationship Between Expected and Established Support.....	176
5.5 The Relationship Between Support, Motivation, and Retention.....	177
5.5.1 The Impact of Support on Motivation.....	178
5.5.2 The Impact of Support on Retention.....	185
5.5.3 The Impact of Motivation on Retention.....	195
5.6 Summary	198
6 Discussion	201
6.1 Introduction.....	201
6.2 Conceptual Foundations.....	201
6.2.1 Internal Dimension	202
6.2.2 External Dimension.....	207
6.2.3 Summary	214
6.3 Motives for Volunteering	214
6.3.1 Altruism and Egoism	215
6.3.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivators	222
6.3.3 Demotivation.....	224
6.3.4 Summary	227
6.4 Support.....	228

6.4.1 Intangible Support.....	228
6.4.2 Tangible Support.....	229
6.4.3 The Architecture of Support.....	232
6.4.4 The Role of Support in Terms of Motivation.....	236
6.4.5 Summary	237
6.5 Retention, Motivation, and Support.....	237
6.6 Bias in the Context of the Findings	239
6.6.1 Demographics.....	240
6.6.2 Volunteer Functions Inventory.....	243
6.6.3 Helping Attitude Scale	245
6.6.4 Summary	245
6.7 Volunteer Retention Model.....	246
6.8 Summary	248
7 Conclusions.....	250
7.1 Introduction.....	250
7.2 New Knowledge.....	251
7.3 Contribution to Theory	257
7.4 Contribution to Methodology	258
7.5 Contribution to Practice and Recommendations	258
7.6 Limitations in the Research Approach.....	260
7.6.1 Sample Size.....	260
7.6.2 Questionnaire Design.....	261
7.6.3 Measuring Retention	261
7.6.4 Non-Member Volunteers	262
7.7 Future Work and Additional Research.....	262
7.8 Final Conclusions	264
Appendix 1 Systematic Literature Review.....	265
Appendix 2 Questionnaire	277
Appendix 3 Graphical Analysis Results	287
Appendix 4 Statistical Analysis Results	299
Appendix 5 Interview Questions	306
References	310

List of Tables und Figures

Table 1 Expectations of Bavarian volunteers (2009)	7
Table 2: Volunteer expectations Bavaria 2014	7
Table 3 Desires of Bavarian volunteers (1999–2014).....	8
Table 4: Literature Review – Employee Retention.....	51
Table 5: Literature Review by Lock et al. – Retention of volunteers	52
Table 6: Literature Review by Gilbert et al. – Volunteer Commitment.....	53
Table 7: Differences between positivism and interpretivism	66
Table 8 Summary of the deductive process	69
Table 9: Sample Size.....	93
Table 10: Structure of Chapters 4 and 5	106
Table 11: VFI (descriptive statistics).....	121
Table 12: ‘By volunteering I feel less lonely’ (descriptive statistics, Question 12)	124
Table 13: ‘Volunteering makes me feel needed’ (descriptive statistics, Question 22)	124
Table 14: ‘Volunteering is a way to make new friends’ (descriptive statistics, Question 23)	125
Table 15: ‘I feel compassion towards people in need’ (descriptive statistics, Question 14)	126
Table 16: ‘I can do something for a cause that is important to me’ (descriptive statistics, Question 15)	127
Table 17: ‘I can learn about the cause for which I am working’ (descriptive statistics, Question 20)	127
Table 18: ‘My friends volunteer’ (descriptive statistics, Question 18).....	129
Table 19: ‘People I’m close to want me to volunteer’ (descriptive statistics, Question 19)	129
Table 20: Crosstabs age × peer pressure	131
Table 21: ‘I can make new contacts that might help my business or career’ (descriptive statistics, Question 16)	132
Table 22: ‘Voluntary experience will look good on my resume’ (descriptive statistics, Question 17)	133
Table 23: ‘I can learn how to deal with a variety of people’ (descriptive statistics, Question 21)	133
Table 24: HAS (descriptive statistics).....	136

Table 25: 'When giving the opportunity, I enjoy helping people in need'	
(descriptive statistic, Question 24)	137
Table 26: 'I donate time or money to charity every month'	
(descriptive statistics, questions 30)	139
Table 28: Combination search results	141
Table 28: Code definitions	142
Table 29: Results of coded answers	143
Table 30: Frequencies Question 38	145
Table 31: Frequencies Question 39	148
Table 32: Frequencies Question 40	150
Table 33: Frequencies Question 41	153
Table 34: 'Someone listens to me when I have something to say'	
(Descriptive Statistics, Question 43)	157
Table 35: Length of stay × Importance that someone listens	
(Question 43, crosstab)	158
Table 36: 'I can express concern and dissent'	
(descriptive statistics, Question 42)	158
Table 37: 'I get honours for my volunteer work'	
(descriptive statistics, Question 44)	159
Table 38: 'I am insured when volunteering'	
(descriptive statistics, Question 48)	160
Table 39: 'I get a reimbursement for the time volunteering'	
(descriptive statistics, Question 51)	161
Table 40: Intrinsic motivation median × Importance of reimbursement	163
Table 41: Importance of reimbursement × income	165
Table 42: 'More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer'	
(Question 57).....	178
Table 43: More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer	
(Question 58).....	179
Table 44: Descriptive statistics for Questions 57 and 58	179
Table 45: Crosstabulation of Question 57 and 58 (absolute [relative] frequency) ..	180
Table 46: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 57	182
Table 47: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 58	183
Table 48: 'More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation'	
(Question 59).....	185
Table 49: 'More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation'	
(Question 60).....	186

Table 50: Descriptive statistics for Questions 59 and 60	189
Table 51: Crosstabulation for Questions 59 and 60 (absolute [relative] frequencies).....	190
Table 52: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 59	191
Table 53: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 60	192
Table 54: Crosstabulation of Questions 9 × 59 and 60 (row [column] percentages)	193
Table 55: 'The more I'm motivated, the more I stay with the organisation' (Question 61).....	195
Table 56: Pearson's r correlation for Questions 57 and 59 and 58 and 60	197
Table 57: Trait-Based volunteer characteristics.....	206
Figure 1 Expectations of German volunteers (2014).....	9
Figure 2 Time spent on voluntary activity.....	13
Figure 3 Model of relationship (related to (Daniels et al., 2014)).....	17
Figure 4: Exemplary process from a volunteer's perspective	19
Figure 5: Mixed Research Designs, Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2008)	72
Figure 6: Gender	109
Figure 7: Age.....	111
Figure 8: Marital status	112
Figure 9: Level of education	114
Figure 10: Status of employment.....	114
Figure 11: Employment at the BRC.....	115
Figure 12: Income.....	115
Figure 13: Where are you a member?	116
Figure 14: Retention	118
Figure 15: Frequency of volunteering	118
Figure 16: Time volunteering	119
Figure 17: Crosstab VFI × Membership	123
Figure 18: Crosstab HAS × membership	140
Figure 19: Priority 1–3 motivating factors.....	145
Figure 20: Priority 1–3 motivating factors of others	148
Figure 21: Priority 1–3 demotivating factors.....	150
Figure 22: Something is lacking × support	151
Figure 23: Priority 1-3 demotivating factors of others.....	152

Figure 24: Matrix of motivation support.....	157
Figure 25: Frequency of different kind of support mentioned in interviews	161
Figure 26: Intrinsic motivation median	163
Figure 27: 'I expect more support in the following areas' (Question 53)	166
Figure 28: 'There is no need for support in those areas' (Question 54)	167
Figure 29: 'I expect more support from lawmakers' (Question 55)	168
Figure 30: Matrix of motivation support II	172
Figure 31: 'What kind of support are you in fact receiving?' (Question 56)	173
Figure 32: Word cloud Interviews.....	174
Figure 33: Code frequency within interviews.....	174
Figure 34: Received versus expected support	176
Figure 35: Combinations of Questions 57 and 58	181
Figure 36: Combinations for Questions 59 and 60	190
Figure 37: Length × Questions 59 and 60 ('Very Important' and 'Important' (cum%))	194
Figure 38: Volunteer Retention Model.....	248

1 Introduction

Chapter One presents the research outline. The chapter provides a brief explanation of the research background, explaining the rationale for the selection of the research area. Additionally, the study's aims and objectives are explained in the context of the research question. Finally, the chapter outlines the structure of the dissertation.

1.1 Research Background

Many scholars derive uniquely positive connotations from their study of volunteers. Musick and Wilson (2008) argue “although volunteers are widely admired because they give their time freely to help others, their work is devalued precisely because it is given away.” (p. 3) and “In a highly materialistic society devoted to the pursuit of economic gain, working for nothing is devalued, even stigmatized” (p. 86). A materialistic perspective has led scholars to develop the net-cost theory of volunteers, which is the total cost minus total benefits to the volunteer (Handy & Mook, 2010). Musick and Wilson (2008) explain it this way: “Purity of motivation becomes the template against which individual acts are compared and volunteer status is denied to those motivated primarily out of self-interest.” (p. 17).

However, many are still willing to spend their time volunteering. It is widely accepted that volunteers play a significant role in society. Various organisations around the world provide volunteer services. Some of them are run entirely by volunteers; others have implemented an organisation in which paid staff and volunteers work together to achieve the organisation's mission.

This organisational diversity is one of the reasons why it is difficult to determine exact numbers of volunteers. In order to quantify the importance of volunteering, a Eurobarometer survey conducted in 2006 revealed that 3 out of 10 Europeans claim to volunteer in some way (European Commission, 2007). Considering the European (EU) population of around 500 million (Eurostat), around 166 million volunteers are therefore estimated to be active in Europe. However, a closer look reveals considerable differences among European countries. While – in a later study – Denmark, Finland, and Sweden reported an average volunteering rate of 45%, the average rate in Greece, Malta, Portugal, and Spain ranges between 10% and 15% (McCloughan, Batt, Costine, & Scully, 2011).

These numbers could be interpreted to reveal a lower rate of persons willing to volunteer in southern parts of Europe, while residents in Scandinavian countries are more

engaged in volunteering. This interpretation could even support stereotypes of southerners simply being less motivated than Scandinavians. However, this explanation seems too simple. Many other factors, such as cultural acceptance and expectations of volunteering in different countries, could explain the different rates of volunteering. Another possible reason could be whether there is a clear understanding of what volunteering means. As the different numbers mentioned above show, this seems particularly important in different contexts. Butcher (2010b) notes that “There is a variation in the meaning of volunteering in different contexts, and ... many individuals that could, in essence, be considered volunteers ... do not consider themselves as such” (p. 92). Hence, there is a need to define what makes a volunteer.

1.1.1 Volunteerism – a Definition

1.1.1.1 A Word Interpretation

The term volunteer originates from the Latin word ‘voluntarius’, which means ‘of one’s free will’. Classically, Latin words give space for numerous interpretations. ‘Voluntarius’ could also mean ‘independent’ or even ‘unauthorised’. This meaning could imply a person acting independently. The word itself, however, does not imply that a person acts to serve others or to serve some larger cause, nor that this cause must be a ‘good’ cause. Hence, in strict accordance with the word’s interpretation, an activist aiming to disrupt social structures acts independently as a ‘voluntarius’ as well. Even a suicide bomber could be considered a ‘volunteer’ acting on his free will for a ‘higher’ cause.

In order to avoid these kinds of misconceptions, most authors have, therefore, delimited volunteering and activism. Volunteering is mostly associated with promoting social cohesion by seeking orderly solutions to social problems (Ganesh & McAllum, 2009). However, these boundaries seem fragmented. While on the one hand, distinguishing activists who consider their higher cause as superior to even human life from volunteers aiding children doing their schoolwork seems easy, it seems much harder to differentiate between, for example, a Greenpeace activist from a volunteer advocating measures to decrease levels of carbon dioxide in the air.

One needs to note that the question remains of who is competent to determine what ‘social cohesion’ (Ganesh & McAllum, 2009) should look like. For example, Hustinx’s (2004) study of 652 Flemish Red Cross volunteers examined volunteer dissent with

respect to organisational mandates. It seems inappropriate to call dissenting volunteers activists. Dissenters, “almost by definition, destabilise meanings to disrupt the flow of organizing” (Zoller & Fairhurst, 2007, p. 1353), and the difference between volunteers and activists might therefore become blurry. However, only a fundamental and systematic challenge to the core ideas of a mission should be a reason to consider someone to be an activist rather than a volunteer.

The interpretation of the word yields at least the definition of a volunteer acting independently, that is, of their free will.

1.1.1.2 Free Will

According to the word’s interpretation, volunteers act independently. On the contrary: the question remains of whether somebody who acts involuntarily is not a volunteer. There are ways of volunteering which initially seem to be philanthropic from the perspective of a non-involved third-person but at the same time could be regarded as involuntary. Examples of such compelled volunteerism might be court-ordered community service to reduce a penalty or donating time for a volunteer’s own children’s school. Some organisations, for example, require their members to volunteer for a certain amount of time, with the organisation cancelling the membership in cases of non-compliance. Furthermore, it is common for students to be expected to serve as volunteers as part of their education.

Hence, it seems complicated to classify someone to be a volunteer if others determine place, time, and the beneficiary or if there is a penalty for non-compliance.

The critical question here is whether it is sufficient that a volunteer’s free will is provided only at the point in time when the volunteer agrees to accept a volunteer job (independent decision of self-obligation), or whether free will must continuously persist, too.

When a volunteer decides independently (and without any social pressure) to accept a volunteer job, including all its given conditions and obligations, they still act independently. The fact that they oblige themselves to the job’s conditions does not lead to a dependency which would contradict volunteering.

However, in the examples mentioned above of compelled or mandatory volunteerism, it is questionable whether other informing elements of volunteering are addressed. Furthermore, research has shown that such forms of compelled volunteering tend to increase extrinsic motivation: the more volunteering is expected, the more there is a

danger of an adverse change in attitudes towards volunteering (Beehr, LeGro, Porter, Bowling, & Swader, 2010; Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999).

1.1.1.3 Altruism

While David H. Smith (1981) has sketched the ethical, philosophical, and theoretical perspectives involved underpinning the contribution of services, goods, or money to help accomplish some desired end without substantial coercion or direct remuneration (p. 33), Penner's (2002, p. 448) definition of volunteerism includes "long-term, planned, prosocial behaviours that benefit strangers and occur within in organizational setting" (see also Haski-Leventhal (2009)) introducing a "prosocial personality" which needs to be explored holistically. This definition implies that volunteering must benefit strangers. It excludes, for example, people helping others within the same household or even helping disabled family members. Tilly and Tilly (1992), in contrast, seem to exclude everyone whom the volunteer owes "contractual, familial, or friendship obligations." because any obligation contradicted altruistic behaviour.

These definitions are arguable. The altruistic component of volunteering does not depend on the recipient of the service but refers to the service benefitting others from an objective point of view. Altruistic behaviour is a selfless behaviour and can hardly be determined to look at legal, factual, or moral obligations but instead is a matter of motivation that manifests in one's behaviour: someone might feel an obligation to help a friend and therefore act to fulfil this obligation. Still, this help benefits the friend and is therefore altruistic. Someone might believe that he is socially or religiously obliged to take part in a programme helping the homeless. However, despite this felt obligation, one would hardly assume that this person not to be a volunteer.

The key point, therefore, is not the recipient of a volunteer's service or some presumed obligation of the volunteer, but the volunteer's motivation, giving rise to the question of whether someone whose motives are – partially, predominantly, or entirely – selfish can be a volunteer (i.e., an altruistically acting person).

From an objective point of view, insinuating an obligatory selfish behaviour when helping friends or family members and therefore concluding that the support service is not altruistic seems hardly generalisable. Rather, this judgement will depend on the situation.

In more recent literature, there seems to have been a shift in opinions. Musick and Wilson (2008) suggest that someone is a volunteer who "makes a sacrifice to help another person or organisation" (Musick & Wilson, 2008, p. 14). According to this

definition, altruistic behaviour is not considered to imply a complete absence of selfish motives. A sacrifice suffices for altruistic behaviour, breaking the utilitarian behaviour of doing something only for equivalent compensation (Musick & Wilson, 2008).

Duguid et al. (2013) still emphasise volunteering as being acting without obligation; however, the authors do not refer to the lack of reward as a requirement for volunteerism.

Hence, at this point, there seems to be broad consent that volunteerism at least involves altruistic behaviour.

1.1.1.4 Remuneration and Awards

Still, proceeding from the common understanding that volunteerism is an altruistic behaviour performed for the benefits of others (Wilson & Musick, 1997), by definition, any reward or remuneration generally seems contradictory from the start, at least if it serves as a compensation for volunteer work.

However, particularly in recent literature, scholars have acknowledged that people engage in volunteering for various reasons other than pure altruism. Altruistic reasons do not erode entirely; however, apparently selfish reasons such as learning new skills, forming new relationships, promoting a potential career, or increasing one's social status (Jorgensen, 2013) do play an increasing role.

1.1.2 Volunteerism in Germany

In Germany, as in all countries, volunteerism is not merely related to providing aid for people in need but also to the 'production of goods and services' which are not included in official statistics: a phenomenon that makes volunteerism a 'hidden contribution' to well-being at the national level (OECD, 2015). The number of volunteers in Germany is estimated at between 23 million (AlumniPortal, 2017) and 30.9 million (FreiwilligensurveyBayern2014, 2016; Simonson, Ziegelmann, Vogel, & Tesch-Römer, 2017). Most participate in voluntary schemes related to sports, health, and education (AlumniPortal, 2017).

In Germany, different types of volunteerism can be identified: 'honorary work' focuses on the provision of services in a formal organisation; 'voluntary involvement' denotes work in non-formal organisations and institutions, such as those institutions related to art and culture and recreational activities (GHK, 2010b); finally, there exists volunteerism focusing on 'civic activities' and that focusing on 'volunteering services in the form of one-year programmes' (GHK, 2010b). It needs to be noted that, in Germany,

‘volunteering’ is often used interchangeably with ‘honorary work’. This involves a marginal shift in the concept of civic engagement in relation to the understanding of ‘volunteering’ in other countries: while civil engagement in Germany is, by definition, voluntary – not focused on material profit and oriented to the common good (Angermann, 2010) – positions such as lay judges are also considered to be ‘honorary work’, including a legal compensation claim. Therefore, in Germany related to other countries, the basic understanding that volunteering must, by all means, lack compensation is somewhat weakened.

The performance of volunteerism in Germany is periodically observed by a nationwide survey: the ‘German Survey on volunteering’ (DZA, 2014). There are two principal motives of volunteers in Germany: the desire to contribute to the common good and the need to increase existing skills (AlumniPortal, 2017). The funding of voluntary schemes in Germany is based mostly on membership fees while the contribution of volunteerism to the country's economy reaches 1–2% (GHK, 2010a). This statistic implies that volunteerism is an essential aspect of Germany's social and economic life. Thus, the enhancement of volunteerism in Germany would help the country to achieve substantial social and economic benefits but also to improve the performance of its social policies.

1.1.3 Volunteerism in Bavaria

Bavaria is the largest state in Germany (ranking third by number of residents). Most recent data collected by Bavaria's Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is from 2014 (FreiwilligensurveyBayern2014, 2016). At least until 2014, the number of volunteers in Bavaria had increased (47% in 2014 compared to 36.27% in 2009 and 36.99% in 2004), in line with national quotas of 43.6% for 2014 (FreiwilligensurveyBayern2014, 2016; GHK, 2010b; Simonson et al., 2017; ZZE, 2009). This increasing potential supports supportive measures to increase levels of volunteer retention.

However, the Bavarian volunteer survey also reveals that a considerable number of volunteers participate in sports (19%) and only to a lesser extent in social activities (10%) (FreiwilligensurveyBayern2014, 2016) disclosing a possible lack of support in this area.

In the survey of 2009 (ZZE, 2009) Bavarian volunteers were further asked what kind of expectations they had when volunteering (counting ‘extremely important’ and ‘very important’; multiple selections possible).

Expectation	2009
Having fun	84%
Getting together with likeable people	75%
Helping others	74%
Supporting common welfare	73%
Introducing own skills and experience	62%
Getting together with other generations	61%
Improving own skills	58%
Freedom of own choices	54%
Gaining recognition	37%
Representing own interests	32%

Table 1 Expectations of Bavarian volunteers (2009)

This seemed to have shifted slightly in the survey of 2014 (FreiwilligensurveyBayern2014, 2016):

Having fun	93%
Shaping society	82%
Getting together with others	81%
Getting together with other generations	80%
Acquiring skills	52%
Reputation and Influence	32%
Occupational advancement	23%
Earning something extra	7%

Table 2: Volunteer expectations Bavaria 2014

According to this data, there is an apparent preference for fun and solidarity compared to egoistic expectations which support the national expectations. The surveys also reveal the desires of volunteers towards organisations:

Desire	Survey 2014	Survey 2009	Survey 2004	Survey 1999
Increasing financial resources for specific projects	-	59%	64%	61%
Provision of premises and facilities	48%	42%	44%	47%
Non-bureaucratic refund of expenses	38%	36%	35%	34%
Training opportunities	43%	32%	36%	36%
Professional support	43%	31%	35%	37%
Increased recognition by professionals	35%	29%	31%	32%
Financial compensation	21%	23%	22%	25%

Table 3 Desires of Bavarian volunteers (1999–2014)

While there was an overall decrease in volunteer demands towards organisations until 2009, the survey of 2014 reveals an increasing demand for organisational support.

Compared to data collected before 2011, one critical factor may need to be considered: after 2011, the German government decided to suspend the former mandatory national service for young men. A considerable number of those men chose not to serve the military, but to do social work instead which was a legal option to fulfil

national service. As most statistics included the national service as ‘volunteer’ work, the suspension of national service may have influenced volunteer statistics.

Concerning volunteer’s expectations, national data of 2014 (DZA, 2014) seems to generally confirm the data and trends shown by the Bavarian surveys. It seems therefore likely that the trends are – at least until 2014 – continuous.

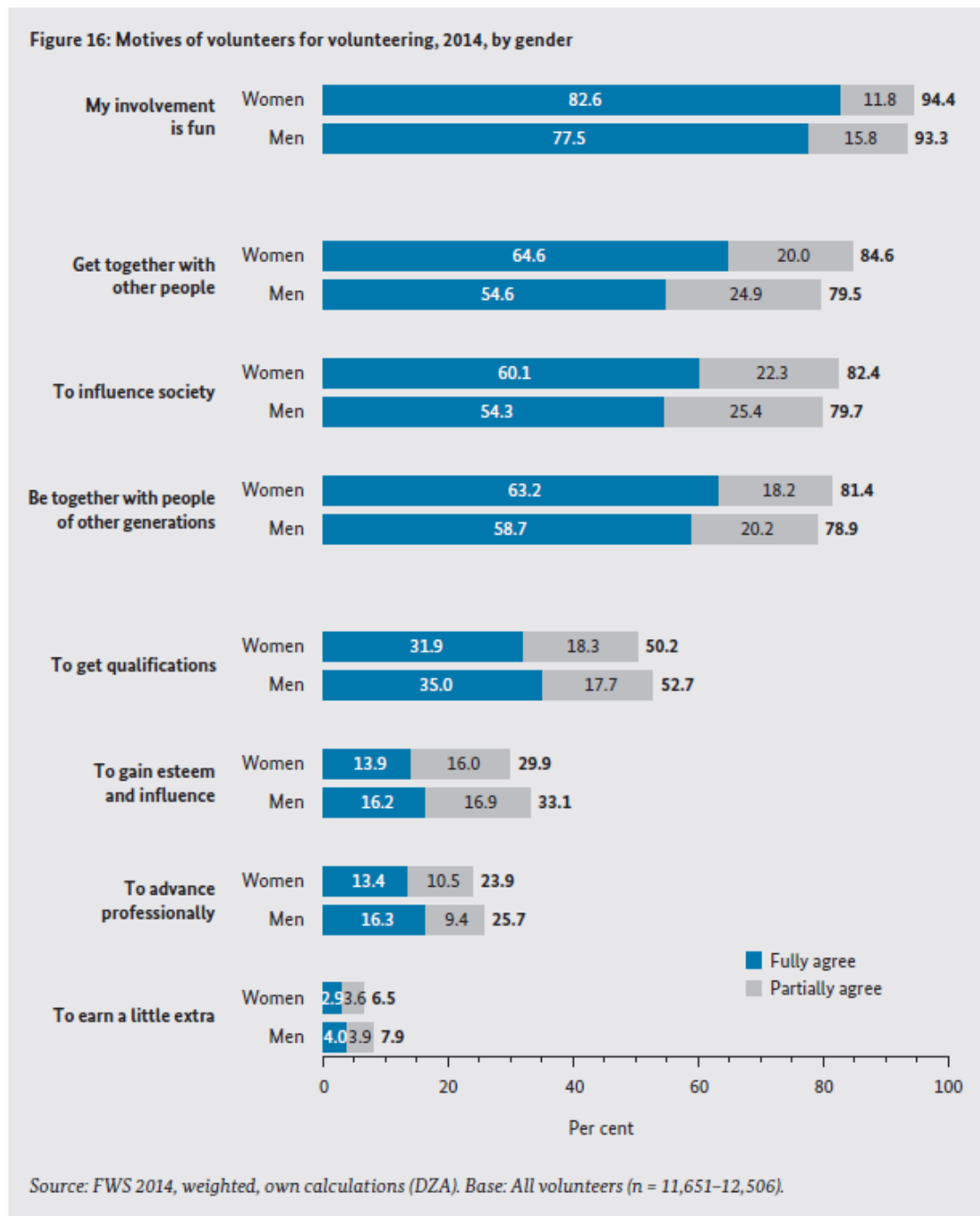


Figure 1 Expectations of German volunteers (2014)

While it needs to be noted that the surveys seem not to differentiate between 'motives', 'desires', and 'expectations' of volunteers to a sufficient degree, in general, Bavarian and Germany volunteers share similar traits for volunteering. However, it is surprising that while overall numbers of volunteers are increasing, demand for support is also increasing too. That said, it is interesting that 7% of volunteers explicitly expect to earn extra money, a phenomenon – and a new category in the 2014 survey – which seems to be evolving, as this has not explicitly been mentioned before. It could, therefore, be concluded that volunteers in both Germany and Bavaria have generally become more demanding. Hence, it is vital that existing funding and staff are allocated efficiently to meet these demands in aiming to retain volunteers.

1.1.4 Volunteerism at the Bavarian Red Cross

Volunteerism, as an activity, is planned and monitored either by the state or by institutions in the private sector, sometimes called the third or non-profit sector. These institutions are known as 'aid organisations' and focus on the design, implementation, and control of voluntary schemes that aim to address public interests such as health, safety, housing, and privacy (Smillie, Helmich, Randel, & German, 2013). Worldwide international organisations, such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and UNICEF, an Organisation of United Nations (Smillie et al., 2013) also develop volunteerism on a broader scale. The activities of these organisations are regulated by laws, at local and international levels. However, in this context, the performance of volunteerism in each country can be differentiated, even if the same organisation manages the relevant schemes. For example, Gossett (2015) describes that volunteer involvement within the Turkish Red Crescent was considerably different from the goals of the American Red Cross: The ratio of volunteers to employees in America was 17:1, while the ratio reported by the Red Crescent Society of Turkey was 1:1 (Gossett, 2015).

The Bavarian Red Cross (BRC) is one of 19 regional Red Cross Associations in Germany with 180,000 volunteer members organised in 5 volunteer units: Youth Units, Emergency Response Units, Mountain Rescue Units, Water Rescue Units, and Social Service Units. Board members and other volunteer leaders are being elected by BRC members every four years. While, according to internal BRC regulations, board members must be volunteers, there are exceptions, for example, to account for the situation that veteran employees are being elected to serve as a board member. These volunteer leaders serve different paid roles within the organisation besides their volunteer leadership positions. For example, an accountant of a BRC chapter

could serve as a district head of the emergency response units in her spare time. However, because this study focuses on volunteers, there will be no further discussion regarding this dual agency.

In 2013, the BRC and a local public radio station launched an initiative called 'Team-Bavaria', asking volunteers to register online for future missions. This project mainly aimed to attract and register volunteers who would not want to become formal members of the BRC, referred to in volunteer research as an episodic volunteer. Until 2017, 5,500 volunteers have registered on the 'Team Bavaria' webpage.

Collecting primary data from both formal BRC members and episodic volunteers of 'TeamBavaria' would yield interesting insights into the motivations of volunteers associated with the BRC.

1.1.5 Summary of the Current Situation and Challenges of Volunteerism

Despite the lack of obligation, as an entry term in a voluntary activity, volunteerism is based on a series of rules regulating different aspects of each voluntary scheme, such as the role of each volunteer and the ethics that would apply to in each phase of the voluntary system (Bartels, 2014). This means that each volunteer programme requires the alignment of volunteers' actions to the terms and rules of the system an organisation has established. In the context of this system, volunteers can take initiatives without violating the organisation's mission. A lack of adequate resources, especially of monetary funds, is also a critical issue in volunteerism (Duguid et al., 2013). Organisations are dependent on the willingness of people to support their missions as volunteers, a fact that increases the exposure of these missions to financial risks (Duguid et al., 2013). Furthermore, without a stable source of funding, voluntary schemes are likely to face issues of staff or funding shortage in any of their phases (Duguid et al., 2013).

In parallel, volunteerism emphasises the ability of volunteers to communicate and cooperate. However, not all individuals perform adequately regarding communication and cooperation, meaning that not all people can support the growth of volunteerism as an approach for enhancing growth in different economic and social sectors (Cnaan & Milofsky, 2010). Moreover, volunteerism is not equally valued in all countries; social and cultural rules and ethics often set barriers to the development of volunteerism worldwide (Atkinson & Wade, 2014).

Volunteers, who start with considerable enthusiasm, tend to gradually lose interest in volunteering (Cuskelly, Hoyer, & Auld, 2006; Flood, Gardner, & Yarrell, 2005; Goldblatt

& Matheson, 2009). The reason behind this might be decreasing levels of motivation (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004). The systematic empirical study of volunteers is a rather new area of research, but some research has been performed on volunteer motivation, attempting to develop recommendations to promote retention of volunteers. However, most of this research has examined differences between volunteers and their motivations (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; Musick & Wilson, 2008). There is still no generalisable solution (Hager & Brudney, 2015; Sozanská, Tošner, & Frič, 2004), although research has contributed considerably to the understanding of the specific problems of volunteers. Clary & Snyder (1992) suggest that people are motivated to volunteer to meet their goals and needs. Scholars have discovered several personal motives (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), and Musick and Wilson (2008) review a number of these approaches.

Unfortunately, the found solutions do not apply to all of the many contexts volunteers are involved in (Bussell & Forbes, 2006; Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoyer, & Darcy, 2006). According to Hustinx et al. (2010, p. 2), “the organisational and institutional context of volunteering remains ill understood”.

According to reports of the author’s colleagues working for the Red Cross in Germany, the matching of the needs of the organisations, on the one hand, and desires of volunteers, on the other hand, is still suboptimal.

A Canadian study (Sladowski-Speevak, 2011) outlines these dualistic needs as follows:

Many people are looking for group activities BUT few organizations can offer them.

Many people come with professional skills BUT many professionals look for volunteer tasks that differ from their work.

Organizations are expected to define the roles of volunteers BUT many volunteers want the flexibility to create their own opportunities and schedules.

Many organizations want long-term commitment BUT many more volunteers are looking for short-term opportunities.

Many organizations focus on what they need BUT many volunteers come with their own goals to be met. (p. 41).

Although these dualistic needs do not include the client’s perspective, proceeding from the apparently impaired combination of needs, it is not surprising that other studies reported that a high percentage of approximately 35-40% of volunteers (Chacon,

Vecina, & Davila, 2007) stop volunteering because of poor management (Masaoka, 2011). Moreover, statistics show that there is a continuous decline in volunteering (Sozanská et al., 2004). In a longitudinal study, Finkelstein (2008a), for example, emphasises the problems of organisations trying to retain volunteers and lists several factors that could be the reason for the declining number of volunteers. However, no generalisable solution yet exists regarding how to mitigate this decline (Liao-Troth, 2008).

However, while according to Sozanská et al. (2004) there seems to be a decline in volunteering in Eastern Central Europe, particularly in Slovakia, data from Germany does not support these findings. European data (GHK, 2010a) reveals considerable differences within the EU: Slovakia is an example of decreasing volunteerism while in most other EU member states, volunteering is increasing.

However, despite the benefits of increasing volunteerism in Germany and Bavaria, the phenomenon of a decline in volunteering time remains.

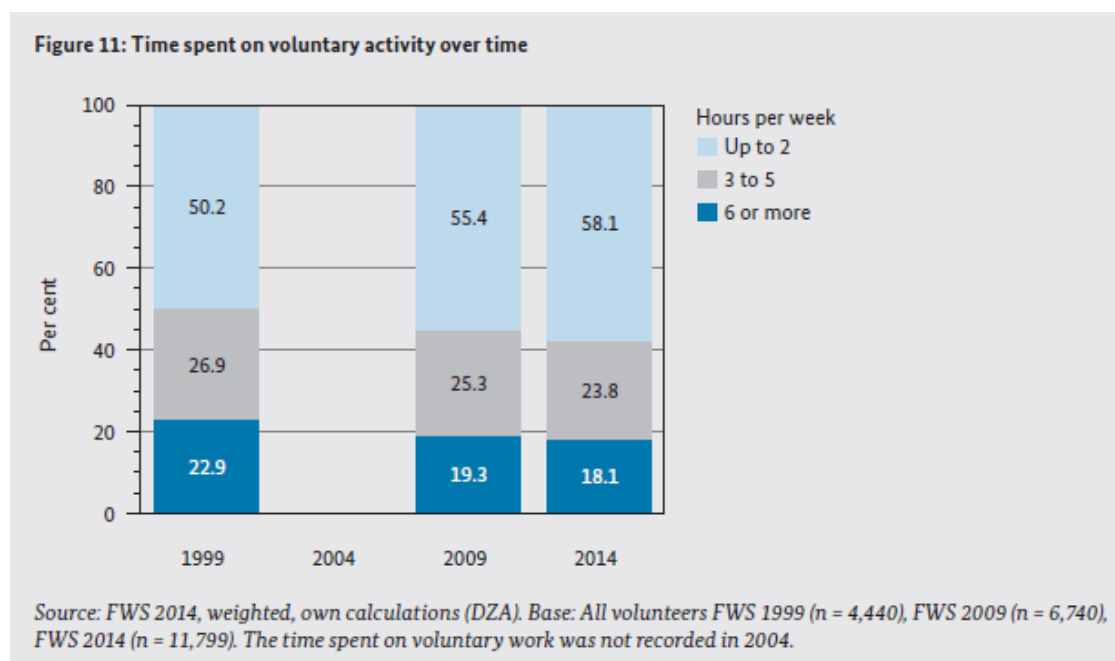


Figure 2 Time spent on voluntary activity

Figure 2 shows that in Germany between 1999 and 2014, the time spent on voluntary activity decreased significantly in favour of short activities of under 2 hours per week.

The challenge, therefore, relates less to the decline in volunteering as such than to the changes in the various forms of volunteering as well as a possible mismatch of needs of volunteers on the one hand and organisations on the other (GHK, 2010a).

Therefore, the challenge is to implement a system that mitigates the likelihood of volunteers quitting or further decreasing their time spent on voluntary activity. This could be achieved by promoting volunteer motivation to enhance levels of volunteer retention.

Volunteer managers who achieve more accurate matching of these apparent dualistic needs make volunteering more effective for both the organisation and the volunteers.

This study attempts to fill this gap by focusing on how various supportive measures impact volunteer motivation and how this relates to levels of retention.

1.1.6 Brief Summary of Discussions in the Volunteer Literature

Scholars studying motives of volunteers suggest that the needs and goals of volunteers (Clary et al., 1992) and a set of personal motives (Clary & Orenstein, 1991; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) play a significant role in explaining why a person volunteers. In their review, Musick and Wilson (2008) conclude that volunteers engage in philanthropic work because for them it serves as a psychological function. The volunteer functions inventory (VFI), for example, suggests six of these functions (values, enhancement of self/skills, social acceptance/belongingness, career-related benefit, protection of inner self, social ego-enhancement/personal growth). Using the mentioned and modified function inventories, scholars investigated the use of these motives in recruiting volunteers (Clary et al., 1998) and found that matching the needs of volunteers would motivate volunteers to participate in volunteer programmes. Literature has also identified organisational factors in organisations which would promote continued motivation (Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003). Other common topics of volunteer research are rewards (Cnaan & Amroffell, 1994), volunteer retention and turnover (Blake, 1992; Cnaan & Cascio, 1998), effectiveness (Golden, 1991; Kerka, 2003; Shin & Kleiner, 2003), satisfaction (Field & Johnson, 1993), and expectations of volunteers (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). In general, research suggests that volunteering positively influences volunteers. However, research also exists addressing adverse effects such as burnouts and lack of work-life balance (Clukey, 2010; MacDonald, Phipps, & Lethbridge, 2005).

Some scholars (Bussell & Forbes, 2002) are starting to recognise that volunteers, unlike employees for example, work under much more diverse circumstances (Salamon & Sokolowski, 2001). For example, Brudney and Meijs (2014) emphasise that there are generally two categories of volunteers: generalists and specialists. Specialists are useful particularly in health care professions such as emergency response services

while generalists are useful in situations like disaster relief. There are different concerns considered in specific areas such as health (Handy & Srinivasan, 2004), sports (Cuskelly, Hoye, et al., 2006), or charity and education (Hager, 2004): therefore, it is hard to establish a comprehensive and generalisable model of support measures and volunteer motivations.

Because of these complex situations and relationships, scholars suggest focusing on different stages and levels of analysis without attempting to find a single universal solution (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010).

Thus, the relationship between volunteer support relating to motivation and the impact on volunteer retention (Omoto & Snyder, 1995) could be considered to be an essential variable that needs to be studied further. A study focusing on the effects of different means of supporting volunteers has the potential to contribute to the volunteering literature, leading to the following problem statement.

1.1.7 Summary

Volunteerism, as a concept, is complex. The explanations provided in the literature for the motives of volunteerism seem to be differentiated based on different criteria and theoretical approaches. Still, there seems to be an overall correlation between motivation and volunteer retention (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Davis et al., 2003; Wilson, 2012). However, the interaction between motivation and human behaviour might have several dimensions. This means that the influence of motivation on human behaviour is not standardised. Under these terms, the following question arises: could strategies and plans focusing on motivation secure the improvement and enhancement of volunteer retention? This study addresses this issue. Germany and the State of Bavaria perform comparatively high regarding volunteerism. In this context, Bavaria could provide the evidence necessary for supporting the analysis of this study's themes. Two issues should be considered when developing this study: first, the involvement of motivation in human behaviour can be explained using several theoretical approaches. This study would choose with higher accuracy the approaches that would reflect the relationship between motivation and volunteerism. Second, volunteers in Bavaria are likely to be influenced by local culture and social ethics as external factors influencing motivation. Thus, various theoretical approaches could be used to explain the interaction between volunteer support and motivation and the impact of motivation on volunteerism compared to studies performed in other countries.

Accordingly, volunteerism is related to a series of challenges. It is possible, for this reason, that the development of volunteerism in Bavaria is not continuous. Moreover, the growth of volunteerism may be different in the future; a fact that may result from the various practices used by local governments and institutions to support volunteerism. In any case, research on the background of the study's subject has verified the interaction between motivation and volunteer retention. This study aims to explain whether the management practices – in the form of supportive measures for enhancing motivation – can affect volunteer retention and at what level, if so. The background presented above has suggested a link between supportive measures and motivation. However, it is not yet clear what kind of support influences motivation in which way and how this affects volunteer retention levels.

1.2 Problem Statement

This research aims to fill a gap in the literature. There is a lack of knowledge regarding how volunteer support affects motivation, which itself influences levels of volunteer retention. Literature suggests that there is a relationship between support and motivation (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Stukey, 2016) and between motivation and levels of retention (Tuohy, 2015), but many factors seem to remain unaddressed (McCurley & Lynch, 2007). Models of promoting retention have been developed, for example, by Cuskelly et al. (2006) but only for the sports sector and without examining the implication of support in particular. Others such as Sakaduski (2013) and Kolar (2016) have highlighted factors of retention of volunteers such as Career, Social, Values, Understanding, Protective, or Love of Sport, but have not developed an empirical model which could be tested to support their argument.

The relationship between volunteer support and levels of retention has hardly been subject to detailed study (Stukey, 2016), and if so, using a quantitative research approach. This leaves a gap in knowledge for organisations dependent on a stable volunteer workforce. Moreover, scholars have studied the fundamentals of volunteering and suggested that support could increase motivation, leading to higher levels of retention. However, volunteering is diverse (McBride & Lee, 2012). There is insufficient empirical research to test these assumptions, and more research is required (Walker, Accadia, & Costa, 2016).

Thus, the question that emerges is whether a lack of support or a lack of appropriate support of volunteers has contributed to the decline of volunteer retention. If this is the case, the next question arises, that of whether the decline of volunteering could be

reduced by choosing and implementing efficient supportive measures to improve volunteer motivation.

1.3 Research Question

Assuming that support has a direct impact on retention (Claxton-Oldfield & Claxton-Oldfield, 2012; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Sellon, 2014; Wilson, 2012), the goal of this research is to identify supportive measures leading to higher levels of motivation and therefore improving retention in the BRC.

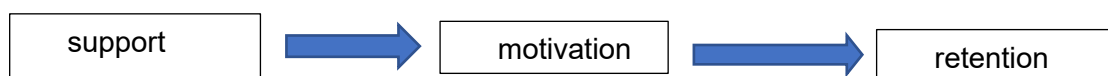


Figure 3 Model of relationship (related to (Daniels et al., 2014))

The research question, therefore, states the following:

What impact do the level and various approaches to volunteer support have on volunteer motivation to increase levels of volunteer retention in the Bavarian Red Cross?

This research question can be decomposed into more detailed questions.

1.3.1 Research Question 1

Improving levels of volunteer retention or even keeping them stable is a common problem in aid organisations working with volunteers. A possible reason could be that organisations have implemented ineffective volunteer support. Statistical data and other literature suggest that there seems to be a mismatch between the needs of volunteers and the needs of organisations they support. If so, it is necessary first to identify which factors motivate volunteers. Hence, the first question is what factors influence volunteer motivation?

1.3.2 Research Question 2

Considering the first research question in the context of literature suggesting a correlation between motivation and levels of volunteer retention, a second question needs to be addressed: what factors of support should be taken into consideration to cause

an increase in volunteer motivation to influence volunteer retention in aid organisations relating to the significance of factors from Question 1?

1.3.3 Research Question 3

Questions 1 and 2 address the theoretical basis of whether aid organisations in Bavaria have chosen suitable volunteer support. The next step is to explore the factors of support which aid organisations in Bavaria are using. This leads to the third question: what factors have been implemented to support volunteers in aid organisations?

1.3.4 Research Question 4

In the literature suggesting a link between motivation and effective volunteer retention on the one hand and support and motivation, on the other hand, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the relationship between support and levels of volunteer retention (Al Mutawa, 2015; Usadolo, 2016). If it is possible to develop a model linking support with volunteer retention using the variable of motivation – which might further influence the relationship – then aid organisations could benefit from this model in better understanding how to effectively implement support to increase levels of volunteer retention and finally, better matching the needs of volunteers and the organisation alike. Thus, proceeding from Questions 1–3, the fourth question concludes: what factors effectively support volunteers to remain with aid organisations?

These four questions will enable the discovery of the influence of support on motivation on the one hand and retention on the other hand. This leads to the research aim and objectives.

1.4 Research Aim

The goal of this study is to assess volunteer motivation and how different types of supportive measures affect volunteer motivation and its influence (if any) on levels of volunteer retention.

1.5 Research Objectives

The following research objectives are derived from the research questions mentioned above and the research aim:

- a) Identify the factors involved in volunteer motivation. In order to identify these factors, information is required on why volunteers engage in volunteering: this could be acquired using the VFI.

- b) Identify supportive measures that *should* facilitate the motivation of volunteers in aid organisations: What supportive measures should be implemented to facilitate volunteers engaging in and retaining volunteering? For example, such factors may include emotional support (expression of concern, demonstration of trust, and listening), appraisal support (affirmation, feedback, and social comparison), informational support (giving advice, offering suggestions, and training), instrumental support (aid in money, labour, and time) (Kedrowicz, 2013).
- c) Identify the supportive factors that are already in place to increase motivation and thus retention levels in aid organisations.
- d) Identify the relationship between expectations of volunteers and the support they encounter: How do volunteer expectations of supportive factors relate to already implemented volunteer support in aid organisations?
- e) Investigate supportive measures that have a direct impact on volunteer motivation and thus on volunteer retention levels: which supportive measures positively correlate with motivation and levels of volunteer retention?
- f) Finally, recommend supportive measures that aid organisations can implement to improve volunteer retention levels: are higher levels of particular support more positively correlated with levels of retention than others?

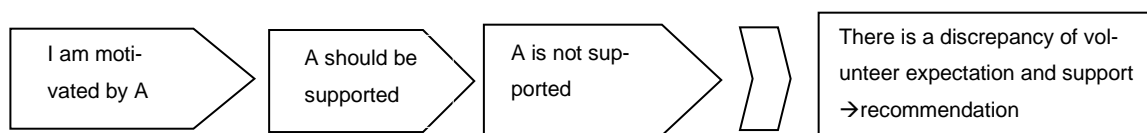


Figure 4: Exemplary process from a volunteer's perspective

1.6 Significance of the Study

Due to the significant levels of volunteering in European societies, scholars have embraced this topic from different perspectives. However, studies do not yet provide a consistent understanding as studies have yielded different findings. As Locke et al. (2003) report in a meta-study, some studies even resulted in contradictory findings. This study aims to contribute to this knowledge related to volunteer support, volunteer motivation and volunteer and retention. The findings of this study could achieve the following:

- (a) Help aid organisations and policymakers to adopt adequate support for volunteers.
- (b) Enhance volunteer motivation through the implementation of a better choice of supporting programmes.
- (c) Increase the likelihood of continuous volunteer engagement.
- (d) Provide new ideas for further research.
- (e) Contribute to the academic discourse to better understand how volunteers are motivated.

This study, therefore, aims to contribute to knowledge by providing further insight into the understanding of the relationship between volunteer support and levels of retention, motivation being an influencing factor. This would enhance knowledge of how to effectively retain volunteers by implementing effective support programmes, which has not been dealt with sufficiently in the literature.

1.7 Thesis Structure

The study includes seven chapters, each one of which is divided into sections so that the analysis of the study's themes is made clear. The structure of the study is as follows: Chapter One is the Introduction section and provides information on the study's background, aims and objectives, research question, and the study's structure. The background section of the Introduction chapter has been divided into sub-sections, which refer to the main elements of the research subject.

Chapter Two is the Literature Review section and provides explanations of the research approach used for retrieving secondary data and definitions of the study's key concepts. Most importantly, this chapter includes analytical discussion on the theoretical concepts and the secondary data that have been employed to answer the research questions. The contradictions revealed through the research are presented in this chapter, aiming to verify the challenges related to this research project and to establish the terms for further research in this field.

Chapter Three presents and critically discusses the research process and provides justifications for the study's research philosophy. At the same time, this chapter provides rational explanations for the various elements of the research process, such as the research design, the data collection methods, the sampling approach, and the data analysis methods (Tripodi & Potocky-Tripodi, 2007). The chapter also addresses issues related to the study's credibility and validity as a research project. In this

context, this study discusses the issues of reliability, validity, and ethics, as related to the various phases of the research process.

Chapter Four and Five present the findings of the different research methods employed in the study. More specifically, the chapter refers to qualitative data, gathered through interviews and observation, and quantitative data gathered through questionnaires. Graphs are used, as appropriate, to highlight the patterns and the changing trends in data. Additionally, this chapter provides explanations regarding the methods chosen for presenting data of different types.

Chapter Six includes the analysis and discussion of the study's findings. Primarily, the data analysis methods chosen for analysing the study's qualitative and quantitative data are presented and justified. Then, the findings – qualitative and quantitative – are critically examined and compared, focusing on the research question.

Finally, Chapter Seven includes the study's conclusions, contributions to theory, methodology, and practice, followed by recommendations. In this chapter, the findings of the study are summarised and discussed, focusing on the research question. Moreover, this chapter includes a reflections section in which the challenges and opportunities related to this study – as a research project – are explained. This section also describes the study's limitations, aiming to set the basis for further research regarding the study's subject.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter performs a literature review. The chapter serves to reveal models and theoretical frameworks that have been previously introduced to the research area. Viewpoints of other authors regarding the research area are presented. The study has been conducted as a systematic literature review, and subsequently turns to a narrative review that examines the literature filtered from the systematic review. The key terms directly related to the research area have been defined from various perspectives. This review discusses the concept of volunteer motivation in order to assess the impact of volunteer support.

As mentioned in the Introduction, volunteer support enhances the success of aid organisations. The level of volunteer contribution is a function of various factors affecting the volunteers' motivation and commitment. Goldblatt and Matheson (2009) assert that volunteers often start very enthusiastically but gradually lose interest because of a lack of motivation. Leaders thus need to understand the factors determining volunteer retention levels when designing an active volunteer-supporting environment. Low levels of retention may indicate a lack of volunteer motivation (Tuohy, 2015). Supportive measures are likely to influence a person's motivation to volunteer, and therefore it is crucial to explore the impact of such measures on volunteer motivation and levels of volunteer retention (Tuohy, 2015).

Liao-Troth (2008) asserts that researchers have made few attempts to seek solutions to this challenge. He explains this gap as being associated with the complexity of the task because volunteers are a highly diverse group. Hence, solving this problem will significantly benefit the organisations that require volunteers, the volunteers themselves, and the people the volunteers serve.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the advantages and limitations of both systematic and narrative types of reviews to explain the decision to employ a mixed literature review that involves the use of both these approaches (Al Mutawa, 2015). This is followed by definitions of the main terms related to this research from different perspectives, namely volunteerism, episodic volunteer, motivation, retention, and support. Classification of the main approaches to various aspects of the research area is provided followed by a detailed presentation and discussion of the main theoretical frameworks and models. The rationale is to improve the quality of discussions and analyses of research findings in this study. Finally, the aim in the discussion section of

this literature review, is to objectively present and discuss the viewpoints of various authors regarding debates and contradictions related to the research area.

2.2 Search Strategy: Description and Rationale

Literature reviews have long been an essential part of the research tradition. They have several purposes. Researchers often seek to collate existing knowledge not only to find a starting point for specific topics but also to understand the assumptions being made in their proposed studies (P. Cronin, Ryan, & Coughlan, 2008). Often, literature reviews have been used to examine old theories, identify grey areas, and either propose new theories or suggest modifications and extensions to existing theories. This is achieved through the identification of the relevant studies before comparing them and synthesising the findings to establish in which direction the evidence swings (P. Cronin et al., 2008; Grant & Booth, 2009). Researchers often face the problem of arriving at different conclusions even though they are considering the same questions and using similar data or information. A literature review can be useful in exposing the reasons for such anomalies. The traditional method of review is known as narrative review. A more recent development in methods of the literature review is known as systematic review (P. Cronin et al., 2008).

Narrative review provides useful background knowledge but differs from systematic review, which follows a defined protocol in the search for existing knowledge. A systematic literature review is led by a peer-reviewed protocol, giving researchers the potential to replicate the search strategy (Rother, 2007). In contrast, narrative study does not provide details about the search strategy and uses informal and subjective methods to identify studies to be included in the review (Rother, 2007). Nonetheless, the narrative study does have some usefulness. It is useful for identifying research gaps and providing critiques and overviews of current knowledge on the subject (Rother, 2007). Researchers also often use narrative literature review as a basis for developing a rationale for further research. However, the traditional narrative method has been criticised as not always being sufficiently rigorous (P. Cronin et al., 2008; Grant & Booth, 2009). It is argued that researchers may begin a narrative literature review in an objective manner, but it is possible as the study progresses for the researcher to be influenced by initial readings and to develop personal beliefs that may bias his judgement, hence adversely affecting the validity of the findings or result in overstatement about the value of their findings (P. Cronin et al., 2008). Indeed, in many cases, literature reviews are often undertaken to test the reliability of findings

and the veracity of the opinions and theories of experts. In such a case, it is crucial to ascertain how the studies were selected and collated.

Many researchers are beginning to see the value of using a systematic literature review method. First, the method makes it easier to identify the scope of the review in advance by using search terms, often referred to as keywords. The keywords are codes that are carefully chosen to capture the essence of the review question in an online search, thereby providing the ability to identify relevant studies from across groups and subgroups in the study. The use of systematic literature reviews also has the advantage that established standards of appraisal can be used in evaluating the criteria of the studies being considered (Gough, 2007). Furthermore, such reviews provide the ability to extract and synthesise the findings (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009). In the case of quantitative studies, systematic reviews offer researchers the capability to pool data with the aid of meta-analytical methods and obtain a better chance of detecting real issues that single studies often fail to identify (P. Cronin et al., 2008; Grant & Booth, 2009). Similarly, such reviews can facilitate the collection of better information in qualitative studies that are concerned with the effects of phenomena across diverse settings (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009; J. Thomas & Harden, 2008).

However, systematic reviews have limitations: the method requires some level of expertise in defining the review questions, and narrowly defined problems may lead to missing a significant number of relevant studies. If the problems are too broadly defined, then a variety of issues may appear that will obscure the focus of the research. Hence, it may be necessary to develop methods to cope with the diversity of results. There are three methods available to achieve this. The first method is to prescribe a clear conceptual framework to be used in the study. This will help in differentiating among the many results returned. The second method is to embark on a two-staged review, with the first stage mapping out the broad descriptions and the second stage filtering the result accordingly. The third method is to conduct a mixed-methods review that involves starting with broad questions in a systematic review and then following up with a narrative literature review (J. Thomas & Harden, 2008). This study will use a systematic literature review to initially filter results, subsequently employing a narrative literature review to consider the literature filtered in the systematic review. High-quality systematic studies are those which can identify all relevant studies, select the appropriate ones for inclusion, assess the quality of the relevant works included in the review, and integrate the results in an objective manner (P. Cronin et al., 2008; Grant & Booth, 2009).

In this study, the broad search terms used were 'volunteerism', 'motivation', 'volunteer motivation', 'volunteer retention,' and 'volunteer support'. A pool of 7,443 online results was obtained in searches conducted across several major online libraries using the Mendeley Desktop package, which primarily uses ScienceDirect and includes papers of users in the specific field of research. Collected literature was then filtered according to various secondary terms related to each area of study, such as episodic volunteering, functional approach to volunteering, altruistic-egoistic approach to volunteerism, Maslow's theory, and volunteer retention levels. The remaining literature was then filtered according to the date of publication. All literature published between 2007 and 2017 was included while that published before 2007 was excluded from obtaining a pool of 486 items. These were then manually inspected for contribution to the study topic by reading the papers' abstracts. The number of those included was reduced to 273. Finally, the credentials of the authors were assessed manually by referring to the number of citations on each paper. Those with fewer citations than 10 were excluded while those with 10 or more were included. A final pool of 187 papers was obtained. The literature texts used in this review were selected from this final pool.

A separate search was performed using the search term 'volunteer retention' only. This seemed reasonable because, besides a vast number of pieces of literature concerning volunteer motivation, there was a need to focus on the relationship to retention discussed in this study. A separate (second) and more narrow literature search using only the search term 'volunteer retention' seemed to better filter the relevant literature. Doing so, the search yielded 1,377 results, with 57 pieces of literature filtered to be relevant for this study (see Chapter 2.6, p. 50).

2.3 Definitions from Various Perspectives

2.3.1 Volunteerism

The concept of volunteerism can be approached from several perspectives. Hence, its definition can vary accordingly. Musick and Wilson (2008) define a volunteer from an organisational point of view as a person who "makes a sacrifice to help another person or organisation" (p.14). Snyder and Omoto (2008) provide more details in their definition of volunteering as activities that consist of "freely chosen and deliberate helping activities that extend over time, are engaged in without expectation of reward or other compensation and often through formal organizations, and ... are performed on behalf of causes or individuals who desire assistance" (p. 3). In this approach, a

volunteer can be described as an individual who is not compensated but who engages in a well-planned, non-obligatory activity to mediate in situations that are likely to result in benefits to people unknown to the individual (Musick & Wilson, 2008).

The International Labour Organisation notes that there is no consensus on the elements of volunteerism; instead, the elements are perceived to vary across social contexts (Butcher & Einolf, 2017). One way of approaching the concept of volunteerism is to assume that it is of both practical and theoretical importance and therefore seek to understand the importance of volunteerism to people. This approach leads to the realms of social psychology, in which volunteerism is seen as a functional tool that provides some pertinent social and psychological needs to an individual (Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005; Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; J. Kim, 2013; Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012). Volunteer activities, from a socio-psychological perspective, would therefore be seen as activities that can facilitate, among other things, career development, social recognition, self-esteem, values, and self-actualisation (A. Cohen, 2009; Wilson, 2012). Volunteerism can also be approached from a purely sociological perspective from which origins of motives are found in social structures and emphasis is placed on individual socio-demographic characteristics and ecological factors including gender, race, community characteristics, and social networks (Wilson, 2012). Research indicates a shift from the traditional concept of volunteering to a new type known as episodic volunteering (Gazley & Dignam, 2008; Ong, Lockstone-Binney, King, & Smith, 2014).

2.3.2 Episodic Volunteering

It is important to make a distinction between traditional volunteering and episodic volunteering: the latter type appears to be the new trend internationally (Ong et al., 2014; Whittaker, McLennan, & Handmer, 2015). Episodic volunteering could be defined as short-term or discrete, task-specific volunteering with clearly defined boundaries (Rehberg, 2005). Researchers have observed that volunteers are becoming increasingly selective with respect to the type of activities they engage in and are demanding flexible approaches in line with the shift in the broader society to more flexible work patterns (Duguid et al., 2013; Gazley & Dignam, 2008). An episodic volunteer can, therefore, be described as one who engages in a volunteer activity in a prescribed manner tailored to meet the specific characteristics and interests of the individual (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; J. Kim, 2013; Ong et al., 2014; Rogers, 2013).

With the emergence of this type of volunteering, Figure 2 (p. 13) suggests that aid organisations have experienced a decline in the average number of hours that

volunteers are willing to contribute (Ferreira, Proença, & Proença, 2015). At the same time, there has been an increase in proposals for short-term flexible engagements (Dunn, Chambers, & Hyde, 2016; Hyde, Dunn, Bax, & Chambers, 2016; Hyde, Dunn, Scuffham, & Chambers, 2014). The consequence of this shift in approach to volunteerism is a decreasing supply of volunteers, increasing turnover rates, and higher costs for aid organisations (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014). The problem is exacerbated in times of emergency or disaster, when it is necessary to recruit large numbers of volunteers to help in alleviating the plight of large numbers of individuals and communities (Hustinx, Haski-Leventhal, & Handy, 2008). Hence, understanding how to support the cause and what kind of support motivates the episodic volunteer is crucial for aid organisations (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014; Wilson, 2012).

According to Hyde, Dunn, Bax, and Chambers (2016), current knowledge on episodic volunteering is limited to explaining motives and satisfaction, and very little is known about episodic volunteer retention (Beder & Fast, 2008; Hustinx et al., 2008; K. A. Smith et al., 2010). The model proposed by Snyder and Omoto (2008), known as the volunteer process model (VPM) and based on traditional volunteering, is said to be a useful available source of knowledge on the topic (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016; Kyneswood, 2017). VPM is a conceptual framework for understanding the basic features of the volunteering process (Gazley & Dignam, 2008; Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014; Omoto, Snyder, & Hackett, 2010; Stuke, 2016; Wilson, 2012). The framework consists of three linked stages: antecedents, experiences, and consequences (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Snyder & Omoto, 2008). All individual, organisational, and societal systems are captured in these three stages. The framework addresses the behaviour arising from psychological processes at the individual level and views motivation, social norms, and expectation of other individuals in the society as antecedent variables (Hyde & Knowles, 2013). Experience variables at the individual level include satisfaction and commitment to the organisation, while consequences variables include retention (Hyde & Knowles, 2013; Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

While VPM identifies pertinent variables at each system level, it has been criticised as being unable to explain when one particular variable may be more critical than others within each system level. For instance, it does not indicate whether a commitment to the organisation has a stronger influence on volunteer retention after an initial period of 6 months or one year (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016). Episodic volunteers are essential human resources for volunteer activities. However, very little is known

about the theory of episodic volunteering. More research is required to fully understand the determinants of episodic volunteering (Chatzisarantis, Hagger, & Brickell, 2008; Hyde et al., 2016). Aid organisations now operate in a continuously changing environment, resulting in pressures to recruit and retain episodic volunteers. Therefore, it is necessary to clearly define the concepts of retention and support.

2.3.3 Retention

Retention is an indicator of volunteers remaining active in an organisation after initial engagement (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2014; Stukas, Clary, & Snyder, 2014). In recent years, with the emergence of the episodic volunteer, retention has become an important outcome to consider in aid organisations (Bell et al., 2008; Cuskelly, Taylor, et al., 2006). Research into volunteer-based activities still has much to uncover, and as such, no standard approach has yet been developed in the various disciplines involved, such as the biological and social sciences (Beirne & Lambin, 2013). In the biogeographical sciences, for instance, the approach is mainly concerned with how well volunteers fit into project methodologies and how best to optimise the numbers that are required for the projects (Devictor, Whittaker, & Beltrame, 2010; Dickinson, Zuckerberg, & Bonter, 2010; Kadoya, Ishii, Kikuchi, Suda, & Washitani, 2009). In contrast, the socio-psychological approach predominates in the social sciences. This approach is mainly concerned with the determinants of volunteering, the benefits realised from engaging in the activity, and how well the activity aligns with the motives for volunteering (Asah & Blahna, 2012; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Hobbs & White, 2012).

2.3.4 Support

Support refers to the regulative supportive environment or system established by law (e.g. tax exemptions) or by organisational provisions (e.g. volunteer training). In the case of organisational provisions, support for volunteers can be approached in three stages, namely the foundational level, assignments, and environments (Ducharme, 2012). The foundational level is concerned with the preparation of the organisation to receive volunteers, while the next stage involves designing and matching assignments with volunteers. The third stage features the development of an atmosphere in which the volunteer can have a sense of belonging and recognition (Ducharme, 2012; Rehnborg, Bailey, Moore, & Sinatra, 2009). Retention and support can be successful if volunteers are motivated. Hence, the concept of volunteer motivation occupies a central position in the theory of volunteerism (Wilson, 2012).

2.3.5 Motivation

The term 'motivation', in everyday language, refers to the act of causing an individual to act in a certain way. It is a concept that is concerned with initiating action (Mackay, 2010). Motivation denotes the intention of an initiator to direct an individual towards a particular activity. This particular definition implies the need to achieve a target set by the initiator of the scheme (Mackay, 2010). However, motivation can be defined from other perspectives: for instance by emphasising other elements of motivation such as belonging to a group (Fiske, 2008). From this point of view, the definition of motivation focuses on the influence on the beliefs and perceptions of individuals by external and internal initiators. Hence motivation is perceived to be characterised by the factors that influence human behaviour in particular contexts (Jex & Britt, 2014).

According to Jex and Britt (2014), motivation can be considered as a multilevel concept that describes how the behaviour of individuals is likely to be simultaneously influenced by several factors. Two trends have appeared in this area of thinking. In the first trend, motivation is perceived as being primarily affected by internal psychological factors (Vellnagel, 2011). This is known as intrinsic motivation. In the second trend, motivation is assumed to be primarily influenced by external factors such as rewards and coercion. Motivation, in this context, is known as 'extrinsic motivation' and is seen in cases in which behaviour is initiated under pressure to achieve a particular goal (Vellnagel, 2011).

2.4 Classifications of Major Approaches to Volunteer Motivation

2.4.1 Ontological and Epistemological Assumptions

Several ontological and epistemological assumptions can be made in a research study, including the study of volunteer motivation. The assumptions made ultimately determine the kind of conclusion drawn (Malmberg, 2016). However, the assumptions are generally classified into two groups. These represent diametrically opposing positions that have emerged in the course of the development of research traditions. Hence, research studies are generally either quantitative or qualitative, although sometimes it may be beneficial to undertake a mixed study approach (Creswell, 2013). Quantitative studies commonly take the positivist position that adopts foundationalism as an ontological base. Foundationalism holds that the justification for knowledge rests on the fundamental beliefs, which can be regarded as the foundations of the knowledge (Ifeyinwa, 2014). The quantitative approach has its roots in the empiricist tradition in natural science in which empirical evidence is demanded as

justification for knowledge (Dieronitou, 2014; Ifeyinwa, 2014). The quantitative approach, when applied to social sciences, holds that it is possible to understand phenomena objectively without placing the observer in the scene (Dieronitou, 2014). Thus, the aim of quantitative research is often to generate hypotheses which are tested by objective observations of phenomena, make statements about causality, and establish general laws relating to the phenomena (Ifeyinwa, 2014). Quantitative research approaches, therefore, assume that phenomena are predictable, replicable, and measurable (Dieronitou, 2014). Researchers adopting a quantitative research approach are more inclined to use deductive reasoning to arrive at a conclusion. They tend to start from the general and progress towards the specific in a process known as a top-down approach (Creswell, 2013; Dieronitou, 2014; Malmberg, 2016). This approach in social sciences has been criticised for excessive reliance on objectivity because it does not account for beliefs, moral judgements, opinions, and values (Dieronitou, 2014).

The qualitative research approach, on the other hand, generally adopts the social constructivist paradigm, which postulates that reality is socially constructed and that there is a subject-object relationship in every research study (McKinley, 2015). Constructionism is the view that all human knowledge – and by implication, all reality – is dependent on the interaction between humans and the environment in which they exist. It holds that knowledge is borne of human practices and that meaning is constructed socially and is not in the world, waiting to be discovered (McKinley, 2015). This implies that research is associated with values: therefore, qualitative research assumes that understanding human behaviour and experience can only occur through the lenses of social constructivism (Creswell, 2013). Researchers engaged in qualitative study place more emphasis on inductive reasoning. They often propose a theory or search for a pattern that may be inherent in the data observed. In contrast to quantitative studies, the approach, in this case, is to move from the specific to the general using what is known as a bottom-up approach (Creswell, 2013; Dieronitou, 2014; Malmberg, 2016). However, both approaches can feature in the same study (Creswell, 2013).

Thus, it is possible to approach the study of volunteer motivation from either a quantitative or qualitative perspective or combine both. In a literature review, which is a qualitative study, there are several ways in which theories of volunteering can be classified depending on the discipline in they are being studied and the purpose of classification. The altruistic-egoistic duality approach and the functional approach are

the two major approaches that are common in the literature (Duguid et al., 2013; Shye, 2010).

2.4.2 Altruistic-Egoistic Duality Approach

Theories of volunteering have emerged in several fields of study including sociology, psycho-sociology, and political science (Debra J. Mesch, Tschirhart, Perry, & Lee, 1998; Stukas, Hoye, Nicholson, Brown, & Aisbett, 2016). One way of viewing the discourse of volunteering is to recognise the shift in perception over the years and dichotomise it into old and new forms of volunteering (Duguid et al., 2013). In the past, volunteering was generally considered to be a long-term commitment that was characterised by ideology and was more inclined to be selfless and altruistic (Duguid et al., 2013). The classic volunteer would place the mission of the aid organisation as paramount with unconditional loyalty (Duguid et al., 2013). However, research studies have identified a shift in perception that has resulted in an increased prevalence of episodic volunteering (Duguid et al., 2013). Empirical evidence (see Figure 2, p. 13) suggests that the contemporary volunteer is more pragmatic and will more readily engage in a cost-benefit analysis before volunteering. This is associated with the broader shift in society from long-term employment to more contingent employment that involves increased mobility across career paths and a lesser commitment to paid work (Duguid et al., 2013). Thus, the contemporary volunteer is more inclined to set conditions that may result in non-traditional ways of engagement in the process of volunteering.

Theories about motivation to volunteer emerged from the practical concern for understanding the reasons for volunteering (Shye, 2010). Following the narrative above, one may accept the assumption that altruism and the belief in the goodness of selfless service to others and the community are the reasons for volunteering. In parallel, one may assume that the main reason why individuals volunteer is to promote their subjective interests (Shye, 2010). If that was the case, it would be questionable what these interests are. Thus, theories can therefore be classified into three groups: those that are based on the concept of altruism and selfless service, those that are based on promoting self-interest, and those that are based on the conceptual altruistic-egoistic duality principle that both positions can hold in the same individual (Shye, 2010).

2.4.3 Variable-centred and Person-Centred Approaches

According to Van Til (1988), people volunteer for not only one but multiple reasons, a state of affairs he labelled 'motivational multiplicity'. Among others (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010), this notion seems to be supported by both a study by Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989) using an open-ended questioning approach and a study by Okun (1994) using a 3-point scale: both studies found that a majority of a sample of elderly participants selected at least two (or more) motives why they volunteer. This suggests the importance of different perspectives: a variable-centred approach emphasises a set of volunteer motives, while a person-centred approach allows investigating the combinations of motives that are associated with a person volunteering (Geiser, Okun, & Grano, 2014).

2.4.4 Functional Approach

Volunteer motivation theories can also be classified by applying the functionalist theory developed by Clary, Snyder, Ridge, and Copeland et al. (1998), who applied functionalist theory in a set of six studies using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on diverse samples that yielded factor solutions consistent with functionalist theorising. This approach rationalises that human behaviour is motivated by specific goals or needs (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Penner, 2002; Snyder, 1993). The theory holds that there are six functional psychological needs in human beings that volunteerism has the potential to address. They include self-enhancement, protection, career advancement, social-adjustment, understanding, and value expression. Using this theoretical approach, Hustinx, Handy, and Cnaan (2010) identified three perspectives for the study of volunteer motivation. The three perspectives include the career enhancement approach, the value-driven and altruistic approach, and the social and ego-defensive approach (Taysir, Pazarcik, & Taysir, 2013).

The career enhancement approach views volunteerism as a means to advance or further one's career (Finkelstein, 2008b; Shye, 2010). For instance, students may volunteer because they are looking for experiences that may be valuable in their search for employment (Shye, 2010). The second approach views volunteerism from values and altruism and is often about concern for the welfare of others and how a society ought to be; while the social and egoistic perspective focuses on the personal interests of individuals (Shye, 2010; Taysir et al., 2013).

2.5 Major Theoretical Frameworks and Models

Volunteerism is a subject with several questions that cut across several disciplines and perspectives (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010). For instance, economists are often interested in costs and benefits associated with volunteering, sociologists and political scientists perceive volunteerism as built upon fundamental cultural values and societal principles, and psychologists view volunteering regarding pro-social personality (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; Musick & Wilson, 2008). Several established models currently guide the literature on volunteering, including the volunteer personality model, the role-identity model, the values and attitudes model, and the volunteer motivations model (Andronic, 2014, p. 477). However, in recent years, a broad consensus has been achieved in psycho-sociology on the idea that emotions are social and that they are fundamentally based on social relations (Andronic, 2014). Consequently, the theories of pro-social behaviour are increasingly being accepted as relevant and valid in the analysis of sympathy, and by implication, of volunteerism (Andronic, 2014). Musick and Wilson (2008), for instance, have incorporated some of these ideas in their integrated theory of volunteering. This section presents the major theoretical frameworks including theories of pro-social behaviour.

2.5.1 Antecedent Theories

2.5.1.1 Bronfenbrenner's Development Ecology Theory

Antecedent theories can be described as attempts to understand the causes of volunteerism (Wilson, 2012). The fact that volunteering is primarily a social phenomenon means that it can be situated in the broader socio-cultural perception of society. Thus, prediction of responses to calls for volunteer activities can be explained, at least in part, by the impact of environmental variables across the micro and macro systems in the environment as well as the effects of the mutual interactions of personality traits of the individual and the ecosystem (Wilson, 2012). The microsystem, in this case, includes the family and other individuals in the volunteer system, while the macro-system can be described as the system that encompasses societal institutions, social norms and values, and cultural practices (Kulik, 2007a, 2007b).

The ecological systems model developed by Urie Bronfenbrenner in 1979 (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) is a seminal work that explains human behaviour regarding interactions between humans and the environment in which they live (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010). It is a theoretical, methodological model including the analysis of previous studies. Bronfenbrenner's development ecology theory asserts that there are

five concentric environment systems in the life of an individual, namely the microsystem, meso-system, exo-system, macro-system, and chrono-system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), although some authors neglect the latter (J. Christensen, 2010).

Most of the social interactions that an individual experiences occur in the microsystem. According to the theory, the individual in the microsystem plays an active part in the construction of the social settings in which interactions with social agents such as parents, siblings, teachers, and peers occur (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). The mesosystem can be described as the system of relationships between the systems found in the microsystem. An example of such a relationship would be the connection between being rejected by the family and the development of positive relationships with peers (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). The exosystem refers to the system of relationships between the social context in which the individual is active and the settings in which the individual is not active but is within the immediate environment of the individual. For instance, the experiences of the individual at home may be affected by the experiences of the wife at work (J. Christensen, 2010). The macro-system consists of cultural and societal contexts such as poverty, socio-economic status, immigration laws, and ethnicity (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Bronfenbrenner's development ecology theory holds that proximal processes are influenced by historical time, context, and the individual's characteristics (Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield, & Karnik, 2009). Therefore, volunteerism could be expected to be influenced by the same factors.

However, it needs to be noted that the development ecology theory relates to individual child development and lacks an interactive perspective (J. Christensen, 2016). As group interaction seems to be a vital part of volunteering, the practicability of the theory may be questioned in the context of volunteering. On the other hand, although an in-depth understanding is still lacking, the macro-structural perspective of the Development Ecology Theory could be worth regarding, particularly reflecting on the complexity of volunteering research (Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; Salamon & Sokolowski, 2001). In the context of volunteering, however, further perspectives should be considered, as the theoretical model seems not complete missing further perspectives of the literature review such as faith, or benefits and rewards (see Table 4, p. 51, Table 5, p. 52) (Hustinx, Cnaan, et al., 2010).

2.5.1.2 Macro-Structural Theory of Volunteering

According to Hustinx, Handy, and Cnaan (2010), there has been a recent upsurge in research studies on volunteerism from the macro-level perspective. Several studies have attempted to explain how the macro-level dimension affects the level of

volunteering in a country over and above individual factors such as traits and demography (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010). The macro-structural approach focuses on the opportunities and social conditions existing in the country that either encourage or discourage volunteering from a societal and political environment point of view (Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; Musick & Wilson, 2008). It is assumed in this approach that differences in the types, levels, and efficacy of volunteering activities in each country can be explained by referring to the three macro-variables, namely cultural values, including religion; political stability; and economic development (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010). Kulik (2007a, 2007b), for example, applied Bronfenbrenner's (1979) multi-layered approach attempting to understand macro-structures of volunteering across different service organisations in Israel (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010). Furthermore, the macro-structural approach acknowledges that the three types of capitals available to individuals in the society – namely, human, social, and cultural capital – also influence volunteerism at the macro-level (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; Musick & Wilson, 2008).

At the base of the macro-structural theory of volunteering lies social origins theory (SOT) (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010; Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; Salamon, Anheier, List, Toepler, & Sokolowski, 1999; Salamon, Sokolowski, & Anheier, 2000). Using an historic approach, the SOT holds that the evolution and characteristics of the non-profit sector in a society is a result of the power structure in the social space, which includes social institutions and social classes (Anheier, 2010). SOT categorises four different power structures according to the level of social welfare spending by the government (Anheier, 2010; Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; Kala, 2008; Salamon et al., 2000; Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010). The theory associates the largest non-profit sectors with liberal regimes that have low social welfare public expenditure. The structure of liberal regimes encourages high levels of service provisions in the non-profit sector of the economy (Anheier, 2010; Kala, 2008; Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010).

At the lowest end of the spectrum of power structures, arranged according to the resulting size of the non-profit sector, lies the social-democratic regime. This type of regime is characterised by high public expenditure on social welfare with the result that the non-profit sector plays a minimal role in service provision but a significant role in political and social activism (Kala, 2008; Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010). The corporatist and statist regimes lie in between the liberal and social-democratic ends of the continuum with the state playing a more significant role in the partnership with the non-profit sector in social welfare (Anheier, 2010). Thus, using the ideas in SOT, the

macro-structural theory of volunteering holds that by influencing the size and structure of the non-profit sector, the power structure determines the structure and level of volunteering in the society (Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010).

Nonetheless, the macro-structural perspective fails to consider intrinsic factors such as the joy derived from helping others and neglects how these factors relate to the macro-structure. Hence, as a theory of volunteering, it is incomplete. In a comparative study of western countries, Einolf (2015) could only find modest empirical support of SOT. Therefore, while the basic history approach seems interesting, it should be discarded to further build on a practical model of volunteering.

2.5.1.3 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory is an antecedent theory as far as volunteerism is concerned. It provides a framework for understanding the cognitive processes that precede volunteering and the relationship between these processes (Lunenburg, 2011; Vroom, 1964). The theory, which was originally developed to assess employee performance, is concerned with the beliefs of people about the essence of the relationship between input effort, performance output, and rewards associated with work (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Bloisi, Cook, & Hunsaker, 2007; Lunenburg, 2011). The theory holds that individuals will be motivated if they believe that increasing their effort will lead to better performance, which consequently will result in the type and magnitude of reward they are expecting (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Bloisi et al., 2007; Lunenburg, 2011). Furthermore, the theory recognises the possibility of differences between an individual's interest and those of the organisation but asserts that the differences can be eliminated or minimised (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Bloisi et al., 2007; Lunenburg, 2011). According to Armstrong (2014), expectancy theory focuses on the process of motivating workers, which includes communication processes, work evaluation processes, and reward systems in the organisation.

Lunenburg (2011) states that the expectancy theory makes four assumptions. The first assumption is that individuals who engage in work have prior expectations about their needs and what motivates them. The second assumption is that the prospective worker's behaviour arises from making conscious choices based on an expectancy function. The third assumption is that the expectancy function differs across individuals: that is, people demand different things. The fourth is that individuals make rational choices to maximise their expected outcomes (G. Lowe, 2011). Parijat and Bagga (2014) observe that there are four variables in expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964): "1. individual effort; 2. individual performance; 3. organisational rewards/work

outcomes; 4. personal goals" (Parijat & Bagga, 2014, p. 2). Expectancy is therefore defined as the relationship between performance and effort, while the relationship between rewards and performance is known as instrumentality (Lunenburg, 2011). Thus, individuals will seek to maximise expectancy by increasing effort, but they need to be assured that the instrumentality is high enough to be motivated (Lunenburg, 2011; Parijat & Bagga, 2014). In other words, expectancy theory postulates that individuals are motivated to action if (i) they are made aware of the benefits associated with the action and the benefits are perceived to be commensurate with their expectations and (ii) there is a high probability that the actions will be completed successfully (Petri & Govern, 2012).

In comparison to the macro-structural perspective, expectancy theory emphasises human attitudes. While, at first glance, applicability for volunteering seems limited because expectancy theory presumes a positive correlation between benefits and motivation, which could be questioned in the context of intrinsic motivation of volunteers, it could help to better understand how organisations could better support volunteers enhancing volunteer retention. While expectancy theory was originally developed in the context of employee performance, Zboja (2020) tested the theory in a survey of 210 midwestern US citizens indicating that regular volunteering could enhance more positive attitudes towards charitable organisations and helping in general. Hence, regarding volunteering, expectancy theory underpins perceived individual benefit that could manifest itself in an intangible or tangible form.

2.5.2 The Volunteer Personality Model

Several research studies have associated personality traits with volunteerism, and the most noticeable traits in the relationship are extraversion and agreeableness (Okun, Pugliese, & Rook, 2007; Omoto et al., 2010). For example, in their quantitative study with 888 participants, Okun et al. (2007) tested the hypothesis that the relation between extraversion and volunteering by older adults is fully mediated by social capital (participation in clubs and organisations, church attendance and contact with friends) and their findings suggest that social capital provides a viable explanation for the association between extraversion and volunteering.

Although research studies have demonstrated this strong relationship, no explanation has yet been offered for the reason for this type of association (Okun et al., 2007). However, it has been suggested that because extroverts are more likely to join social organisations and participate in social activities, it is plausible that they are more likely to be members of voluntary associations and therefore are more likely to volunteer

than introverts (Okun et al., 2007; Omoto et al., 2010). Furthermore, individuals who are socially skilled and who score high on emotion regulation are perceived to be more likely to engage in volunteer activities (Wilson, 2012). A research study using a sample of Americans indicate that this may indeed be the case (Handy & Cnaan, 2007). Findings in other studies have also suggested that individuals with negative self-perception including low self-esteem are less likely to participate in volunteer activities, while empathetic individuals are more likely to make themselves available for volunteer work (Alamian, 2010; Christopher J. Einolf, 2008). However, findings in more recent studies have suggested that the adoption of the moral principle of care for others and a feeling of obligation mediates volunteer motivation further (Wilhelm & Bekkers, 2010).

Other types of feelings, such as solidarity, have also been held to have a strong influence on volunteer motivation especially in disaster settings and political activism (Bekkers, 2010; Beyerlein & Sikkink, 2008). Some studies have held the view that volunteering implies the existence of a community for which the individual expresses solidarity (Butcher, 2010a). It has also been claimed that the level of solidarity is associated with the size and structure of the community involved (Ward & Mckillop, 2011).

This seems, however, to be only one building block of volunteering neglecting other influencing factors why people volunteer, such as culture and group interaction. However, personality traits should be considered in the volunteering context because previous studies suggest that a better understanding of volunteer traits could inform volunteer motivation. The underlying dualism between egoistic and altruistic traits could serve as an interesting source for this study.

2.5.3 The Role-Identity Model

The role-identity model holds that a positive experience of an individual in volunteer activity can result in the growth of a volunteer role identity, which in turn can motivate the person to volunteer for future work (Andronic, 2014, p. 477). The desire to develop and express a feeling of personal identity is evident in most people, and for some, the role of a helper is crucial and desirable (Matsuba, Hart, & Atkins, 2007). This desire automatically leads to involvement in volunteer activities (Matsuba et al., 2007). Findings in a longitudinal study of 158 volunteers by Marta and Pozzi (2008) suggest that people who have a strong volunteer role identity are more likely to volunteer for future volunteer activities (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). In another study, Chacón, Vecina, and Davila (2007) found that volunteer role identity can be used to predict volunteer retention.

However, critics of this model argue that there is no evidence of a definitive volunteer role identity given the diversity in the different types of volunteer activities (Grönlund, 2011). Therefore, the model may not be applicable in all cases. In her qualitative study Grönlund (2011) interviewed 24 young adults suggesting that there is a variety and a range of values, which can be associated with volunteering, but besides this volunteer role identities can be classified according to the beliefs and objectives of the individual. Using this approach, one can identify at least five different identities: the value-driven individual who is morally bound to improve the world around them; the benevolent helper who is compassionate and seeks to bring comfort to others; the faith-based person who is bound by the doctrines of a religion; the individual who seeks to develop solidarity in the community; and the egocentric individual who is interested in developing a career (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010; Grönlund, 2011). Furthermore, people who have identity problems such as older adults, unemployed people, and those stigmatised along cultural lines, may find volunteering to be a way to improve on their identity (Baines & Hardill, 2008; Fuller, Kershaw, & Pulkingham, 2008; Warburton & Winterton, 2010). Others, such as recently widowed individuals, may use volunteering as a means of mitigating depression or other psychological problems (Donnelly & Hinterlong, 2009). Again, whereas this theory merely addresses a single aspect of volunteering, findings of previous studies suggest further important aspects of volunteering such as a classification of different role identities in the literature.

However, the argument still holds, that as to the above-mentioned theories, none could provide a generalisable uniform theory of volunteering. Hence, volunteering might be better theoretically interpreted in the context of an underlying motivation to volunteer.

2.5.4 Theories of Motivation

Motivation is a psychological process in which an activity is in the first instance directed towards a goal. The process also involves sustaining the activity to achieve the goal (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2012). Many theories and perspectives have been used by psychologists to understand volunteering better. They include expectancy theory, self-efficacy theory, and self-determination theory (Evans, 2015). The most popular of these theories is known as functional motivation theory (Wilson, 2012).

2.5.4.1 Functional Motivation Theory

Functional motivation theory combines concepts derived from theories that focus on attitudes and persuasion (Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012). It is an examination of personal and social factors and processes that impel individuals to volunteer, as well as the factors that sustain volunteer actions (Clary & Snyder, 1991, 1995, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Omoto, Snyder, & Berghuis, 1993; Snyder, 1993; Snyder, Clary, & Stukas, 2000; Snyder & Omoto, 1992). The theory holds that individuals base decisions about volunteering primarily on how well volunteering fulfils essential psychological functions (Mannino, Snyder, & Omoto, 2011). The theory is concerned with not only the goals but also the factors that determine volunteer motivation.

The decision to volunteer is therefore conceptualised by recourse to personal motivations (Houle et al., 2005; Mannino et al., 2011; Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012). However, other critical assumptions of functional motivation theory have a significant influence on the results of an inquiry into volunteer motivation. One such core assumption is that the same actions can satisfy different functions. Thus, an individual may have multiple motives for performing the same volunteering activity. Another assumption is that the maintenance of activity over some time is dependent on how well the individual matches their interests with the situations arising from the decision to engage in the activity. Therefore, according to this approach, further knowledge of these motives allows the tailoring of strategies to meet volunteer's needs, enhancing retention (Snyder et al., 2000; Stukas et al., 2016). However, Stukas et al. (2016) suggest that not all factors of motivation have an equal impact on volunteer engagement, which needs to be further examined, and it may be questioned whether a set of predefined factors could map the vast scope of motivations to volunteer.

Nonetheless, Clary et al. (1998) applied the concepts in the functional motivation theory to develop the volunteer function inventory (VFI) by studying how different people can use volunteerism to satisfy different needs, based on a fixed set of factors. The VFI identifies six key functions that can be served in individuals by the act of engaging in volunteer activities. They include personal enhancement, protective functions, social relationships, career, understanding, and value expression (Mannino et al., 2011). Several studies have indicated that VFI is useful for understanding volunteer motivation (Finkelstein, 2008a, 2010; Handy et al., 2010; Wilson, 2012) and because of its quality and ease of use, some authors consider the VFI to be the most frequently used self-report instrument (Rokach & Wanklyn, 2009; Widjaja, 2010). Hence, the VFI could be useful for this study comparing findings with those in the literature.

Indeed, several authors have applied the VFI to assess volunteer motivation. These are – besides the basic studies of Clary et al. (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Stukas et al., 2016) and Penner (2002) around the turn of the millennium – for example (Asghar, 2015; Widjaja, 2010):

- Allison et al. (2002) examined 129 episodic volunteers;
- Greenslade & White (2005) examined 141 volunteers from a welfare organisation;
- Okun et al. (1998) surveyed two samples (372 and 409) of older adults (over 50 years old);
- Okun & Schultz (2003) completed a survey of 523 volunteers from two affiliates of the International Habitat for Humanity;
- Omoto & Snyder (1995) studied 116 AIDS volunteers;
- Phillips & Phillips (2010) examined 328 volunteers from a non-profit organisation (NPO);
- Trogdon (2005) assessed the motivational functions of 291 members from parks and recreational boards;
- Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan (2005) investigated the relationship between specific tasks and motivation of 112 students;
- Vocino & Polonsky (2011) surveyed 314 users of online panels;
- Walker et al. (2016) analysed 721 Australian volunteers from diverse organisations; and
- Wu et al. (2009) questioned 279 Chinese students.

Although the studies cited above and further studies using the VFI (Davis et al., 2003; Kerka, 2003; MacDonald et al., 2005; Shin & Kleiner, 2003) seem to be somewhat outdated, the VFI has been used in more recent studies (Erasmus & Morey, 2016; Walker et al., 2016). Some of the researchers have, however, departed slightly from the original VFI (Widjaja, 2010).

There is a general trend in the literature that the most prominent motivators are values and understanding (Allison et al., 2002; Clary et al., 1998; Planalp & Trost, 2009a; Widjaja, 2010). In a middle-aged sample, Clary (1998) found volunteers favouring values, followed by understanding and esteem, a result replicated by Allison et al. (2002). The studies of Omoto and Snyder (1995) and Okun and Schultz (2003) also seem to support these results. On the other hand, in general, the protective

function seems to be the most unimportant factor (Allison et al., 2002; Rokach & Wanklyn, 2009; Widjaja, 2010).

It needs to be noted, however, that while the VFI is considered to be a useful tool in the literature (Chacón, Gutiérrez, Sauto, Vecina, & Pérez, 2017; Gage III & Thapa, 2012), it is not flawless. The use of Likert scales limits volunteer responses (Widjaja, 2010). In order to mitigate these flaws, some authors (Allison et al., 2002; Rokach & Wanklyn, 2009) have used open-ended questions or interviews. In these studies, findings reveal additional motivations such as 'fun and joy' (Rokach & Wanklyn, 2009).

Therefore, the literature suggests that researchers should add open-ended questions or interviews when assessing the entire range of volunteer motivation (Widjaja, 2010).

2.5.4.2 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a needs-based approach to motivation in which inner psychological resources of humans are assumed to underpin the development of personality and behaviour of individuals (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Demir, 2011). The theory associates different types of motivation with different types of actions (Evans, 2015; Leal, Miranda, & Carmo, 2013; Riley, 2016). SDT is considered to be a meta-theory because it integrates concepts to provide a frame for several smaller theories (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). The theory is based on the idea of organismic dialectic – which is well established in other theories in psychology and is concerned with the psychological well-being of individuals (Evans, 2015; Ng et al., 2012). Organismic dialectic is the concept of an innate inclination that exists in humans towards psychological well-being while at the same time seeking to develop an appropriate identity and sense of self (Evans, 2015). SDT incorporates theories that seek to understand the level of motivation required to initiate an action with those that focus on the quality and orientation of the motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). SDT applies the knowledge from such theories to explain the extent to which a behaviour is related to the sense of self. Empirical research in several fields of study have accumulated a wealth of evidence to support the assertions of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2008; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008; Ng et al., 2012; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Richard M. Ryan, Patrick, Deci, & Williams, 2008; Standage, Gillison, Ntoumanis, & Treasure, 2012). In essence, SDT proposes that there are two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which could serve as starting points for a better understanding of volunteering.

2.5.4.3 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) – as further investigated by Greenslade and White (2005) and Hyde et al. (2016) – suggests that behavioural outcomes are shaped by individual attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Ajzen (1991, 2011) argues that these factors are proximal determinants of intention.

However, this theory fails to explain whether people are acting out of volition and according to their true self or out of compulsion and a sense of obligation (Armitage & Conner, 2001). SDT (Richard M. Ryan & Deci, 2000; Richard M Ryan & Deci, 2017) could close this gap by further explaining the origins of motivation (Andersen, Chen, & Carter, 2000; Luqman, Masood, & Ali, 2018).

As mentioned above, SDT posits motivation as a bi-dimensional construct that varies in level and orientation. The orientation of motivation can be described as the type and quality of motivation. According to the meta-analytic approach of Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 2008), the orientation of motivation is concerned with the attitudes and expectations that result in a specific behaviour. There are several types of motivation, but SDT essentially distinguishes between the types according to the reasons or goals associated with an action.

Hence, SDT assumes motivation to be of two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. Likewise, factors of the VFI could also be labelled intrinsic and extrinsic (Finkelstein, 2009). Researchers often study motivation by contrasting intrinsic with extrinsic motivation (Brown, 2007; Lai, 2011).

Intrinsic motivation can be described as the type of motivation that is exhibited in individuals who act out of interest or desire, personal enjoyment, or the pleasure derived from the activity (Lai, 2011; Lei, 2010). Deci and Ryan (2008) also note that intrinsic motivation is the type of motivation that exists in an individual who performs an activity solely for the innate satisfaction of engaging in that activity and not because the person expects external consequences. People with intrinsic motivation act freely out of their own will without tying their actions to external pressures or rewards such as materials, social recognition, or any other benefits accumulating from external schemes.

Instead, intrinsic motivation moves an individual to seek internal rewards and reinforcers. Internal rewards include a sense of achievement and enjoyment, while internal reinforcers include a sense of duty and a guilty conscience (Demir, 2011). Intrinsically motivated individuals will choose to act freely and with self-determination (Deci, 1971,

1975; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Gagné, 2014). Self-determination arises out of positive feelings attached to the performance of the activity (Brown, 2007; Deci, 1975; Gagné, 2014). Hence, intrinsic motivation can be associated with the innate psychological needs of the individual. This being the case, several studies have suggested that the social environment can make a significant impact on intrinsic motivation either by facilitating or forestalling the psychological needs of people (Deci, 1971, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Demir, 2011; Gagné, 2014; Gagné & Deci, 2005). In fact, studies have established strong relationships between intrinsic motivation and the fulfilment of the three basic psychological needs, namely competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Schmahl & Walper, 2012; Steimel, 2018). Thus, SDT holds that individuals will be motivated intrinsically in activities that have intrinsic worth, the appeal of novelty, aesthetic value, and are challenging (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Finkelstein, 2009; Gagné, 2014).

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation is not derived from the activity itself but from an external instrument such as material rewards or extrinsic consequences of the activity (Leal et al., 2013). Thus, in the application of SDT which uses a meta-analytic approach, a researcher would have to make a distinction between why the activity is being undertaken and what is the rationale for acting in a particular manner (Leal et al., 2013). SDT also holds that there are various types of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Leal et al., 2013). SDT focuses on understanding the differences between the types of extrinsic motivation and what fosters the various types of motivation. For instance, an individual can engage in an extrinsically motivated activity with either resentment or willingness. Using this idea, a self-determination continuum, with motivation varying qualitatively, can be constructed with demotivation on one end, intrinsic motivation on the other, and four states of extrinsic motivation in between (Fiske, 2008; Leal et al., 2013). The continuum is also known as the perceived locus of causality (Fiske, 2008; R. M. Ryan & Connell, 1989). In this approach, the quality of motivation is perceived in terms of the internalisation of the external regulatory instrument that influences the decision to act (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Evans, 2015; Lai, 2011; Leal et al., 2013; Riley, 2016). Hence, an individual can be classified into one of three groups: demotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. In the first group, those who are demotivated place no value on engaging in an activity and do not have perceived personal control (Leal et al., 2013). For those in the second group, Leal et al. (2013) in their study of 259 Brazilian accounting students, list four states of extrinsic motivation of the quality of motivation as follows:

external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

The external regulation type is characterised by the presence of rewards and punishment and is the least autonomous regarding motivation. The individual is perceived as having a highly controlled type of motivation. The introjected type can be described as performance-based, egoistic, and involving self-esteem. The individual engages in introspection and uses subjective valuation to act. The decision to act is based on internal pressures such as guilty conscience. This type of regulation is regarded as a moderately controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The third type, identified regulation, is a moderate type of autonomous motivation that is characterised by the awareness of the importance of the regulations, values, and goals involved in the act. This group of individuals already have some measure of internalisation, although their reason for acting is still based on external factors (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Leal et al., 2013). The fourth type of regulation is perceived to be the highest in terms of quality. Volunteers regulated by this type, integrated regulation, exhibit coherence between regulations, values, and goals but still base their decision on external reinforcers (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Evans, 2015; Lai, 2011; Leal et al., 2013; Riley, 2016). However, many researchers have noted that motivation also varies along cultural lines, be it intrinsic or extrinsic (Brockelman, 2009; Kaplan, Karabenick, & De Groot, 2009; Rothstein-Fisch & Trumbull, 2008; Trumbull & Rothstein-Fisch, 2011). The argument is that self-determination is highly influenced by culture and values associated with extrinsic motivators. For instance, values attached to material things and societal recognition are culturally based (Deci, 1975; Gagné, 2014; Rothstein-Fisch & Trumbull, 2008; Trumbull & Rothstein-Fisch, 2011). Thus, it could be noted that in the perceived locus of causality, the distinction is between controlled motivation and autonomous motivation, rather than intrinsic or extrinsic.

Autonomous motivation is found in both intrinsic motivations and some types of extrinsic motivation. In such cases, the individuals will have identified with the values involved in the action and internalised the values. Autonomous motivation involves experiencing volition and endorsement of the action. Controlled motivation, in contrast, consists of external regulations and introjected regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The external regulation forces behaviour of the individual through the functions of contingencies such as rewards and punishments, while introjected regulation arises from within the self with the result that behaviour is controlled by internalised factors (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Therefore, both controlled and autonomous motivation has

direct impacts on behaviour as opposed to motivation which represents a state of lack of intention (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Concerning intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the literature seems ambiguous: while some authors, such as Grano & Lucidi (2008), have found evidence in older adults that both intrinsic and extrinsic measures of motivations to volunteer are positively correlated. The meta-analysis of Cameron and Banko (2001) suggest that, in general, rewards are not harmful to motivation. Contrary to these findings, Deci et al. (1999, p. 659) reviewing 128 experiments, conclude “that tangible rewards tend to have a substantially negative effect on intrinsic motivation”. Other authors (Frey & Goette, 1999; Sprenger, 2014) posit that supporting extrinsic motivation has a destructive effect on intrinsic motivation, which is criticised for being valid uniquely for young-aged samples (Bernard, 2007).

Therefore, this destructive effect needs to be further examined in this study.

In a nutshell, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are essential aspects of the different sub-theories of SDT. This apparent dualism could be particularly interesting as a theoretical basis to better understand how organisations could enhance the volunteering experience.

2.5.4.4 Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985) is another sub-theory within SDT that seeks to understand the effects of external events on intrinsic motivation in particular (Fang, Gerhart, & Ledford Jr, 2013; Reeve, 2012) using a theoretical approach. It has been used successfully to explain why some external impulses foster competence, autonomy, and intrinsic motivation while others are perceived as negative intrusion and hence interfere with the process of motivation (J. Kim, 2013; Lin, 2016; Reeve, 2012; Richard M. Ryan, 2009). For example, Vallerand & Reid (1984) studied 115 male undergraduate students and found that positive feedback increased intrinsic motivation while negative feedback decreased intrinsic motivation. CET holds that rewards prevent intrinsic motivation in the sense that rewarding becomes counterproductive when directed at someone who may have engaged in the required act without rewards. It is asserted that rewards hurt the creativity and quality that may have resulted from the performance of an intrinsically motivated individual (J. Kim, 2013; Lin, 2016; Reeve, 2012; Richard M. Ryan, 2009). However, CET makes a distinction between the types of reward and suggests that a reward that is informational and which fosters or supports the feeling of competence in the person may generate positive feelings in the individual that may lead to the

enhancement or the sustenance of intrinsic motivation (J. Kim, 2013; Lin, 2016; Reeve, 2012; Richard M. Ryan, 2009).

CET holds that an external event that affects the psychological needs that are associated with inherent satisfaction – namely competence, autonomy, and relatedness – are those that play vital roles in developing and sustaining intrinsic motivation. The theory asserts that external events can affect psychological needs in two ways, namely by having a controlling effect and by having an informational effect. It is the gearing of the controlling effort in relation to the informational aspect that determines whether the effect is positive or negative (Reeve, 2012). An autonomous person does not want to be controlled, while informational events reinforce belief in one's competence, thereby increasing intrinsic motivation. Therefore, controlling events reduce intrinsic motivation while informational events increase intrinsic motivation because they provide feedback to improve competence and autonomy (Reeve, 2012). These are interesting aspects for further examination how intrinsic motivation could be enhanced to improve retention.

2.5.4.5 Basic Psychological Needs Theory

One of the further building blocks of SDT is basic psychological needs theory, which identifies three basic innate psychological needs in humans, namely competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Evans, 2015). The three needs can be satisfied through social interactions but are considered to be constituted fundamentally within the human psyche. Hence, they can be assumed to be universal (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Evans, 2015; Hendricks, 2014). That is, all other human psychological needs are held as related to these and can be explained by them (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Evans, 2015).

2.5.4.5.1 *Competence*

The idea of the need for competence originates from the concept of organismic dialectic. Several studies have observed that humans have an innate desire to improve skills and abilities that can be effective in mitigating their physical and social environments (Elliot, McGregor, & Thrash, 2002). This need has developed in humans during evolution and is believed to have provided the adaptive advantage for early humans to survive and transcend from the state of nature to modern life (Elliot et al., 2002; Evans, 2015). According to Evans (2015), the need for competence arises from what is termed 'effectance motivation' and has been observed in infants as they effect changes in their environments (Elliot & Dweck, 2013; Elliot et al., 2002). Researchers

have held that a sense of competence is a key ingredient in the development of intrinsic motivation. At the same time, any negative intrusion during the development of intrinsic motivation – such as control from others or criticism – may jeopardise the development of intrinsic motivation (Evans, 2015; Riley, 2016).

2.5.4.5.2 Relatedness

Relatedness is the psychological need of people to develop and maintain close relationships with others in a social network. Individuals have different levels of need for connectedness, ranging from close connections to the maintenance of distance from others (Lin, 2016; M. M. Mason, 2012; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Relatedness does not provide a motive for action, but the feeling of belonging and connectedness in a social network fosters the development of interest in activities related to the essence of the social group. For instance, children who perceive that they have a good relationship with teachers and peers in schools have been observed to be highly motivated with self-direction to perform school activities (Aasen, 2010; Vallerand, Pelletier, & Koestner, 2008). Researchers have used the three attachment styles postulated in attachment theory to improve their understanding of relatedness. Attachment theory identifies the three styles as 'secure', 'avoidant', and 'anxious'. Attachment style indicates the level of relatedness.

Attachment theory was developed by John Bowlby in the mid-20th century (Bowlby, 1969; Bowlby & Ainsworth, 2013) and it has proved useful in several scientific domains including social psychology, evolutionary biology, and neuroscience (Gillath et al., 2005; Levy, Johnson, Clouthier, Scala, & Temes, 2015). The theory asserts that the attachment style develops in early childhood during interactions with caregivers (Lin, 2016). Attachment theory asserts that individuals will concern themselves with other people's problems only after they develop a sense of personal security for themselves (Riggs et al., 2007). Self-confidence and self-assurance are key factors in individuals' empathy for others. Attachment avoidance indicates the level of distrust of other peoples' intentions and represents the disposition of the person to remain independent and avoid associating with others (Fonagy, Luyten, & Strathearn, 2011). The insecurity of attachment has been associated with distress and other personality disorders such as attachment anxiety, which in turn leads to negative affect and distancing behaviour (Levy, Beeney, & Temes, 2011). As far as volunteering is concerned, attachment avoidance is significantly associated with lower participation in volunteer activities (Erez, Mikulincer, van Ijzendoorn, & Kroonenberg, 2008; Usadolo, 2016).

2.5.4.5.3 *Autonomy*

Autonomy, as conceived in SDT, comprises the concepts of self-control, freedom, and independence that an individual believes they have. Autonomy is associated with – and is assumed to be the cause of – a behaviour that is influenced by the sense of self and which attracts a feeling of volition and freedom to act (Evans, 2015; Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010). A supportive environment in a social network is a key factor in the development of autonomy in individuals (Jang et al., 2010). Autonomy develops when an individual perceives that they have freedom of choice and is given an opportunity for self-direction. However, autonomy decreases when the individual perceives that they are being controlled or offered rewards and incentives (Jang et al., 2010; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009).

It appears that the literature presented regarding basic psychological needs is not always linked to volunteer research. For example, Evans (2015) discusses the theory in the context of motivation in music education rather than volunteering. Additionally, literature in the context of SDT focuses on a meta-analysis approach rather than collecting primary data.

However, the literature review illustrates fundamental psychological characteristics of motivation which build a critical foundation for understanding how volunteers are motivated.

2.5.4.6 Maslow's Theory of Self-Actualisation

Maslow's theory of needs is essentially about self-actualisation and transcendence. It was proposed by Abraham Maslow (1943) and has been used for explaining how individuals can reach their full potential. The theory focuses on how individuals can apply their innate strengths and qualities to achieve self-actualisation and self-transcendence (J. Kim, 2013). 'Self-actualisation' in Maslow's theory refers to the innate tendency of human beings towards the realisation of their full potential. Self-transcendence goes beyond self-actualisation to include self-fulfilment and transcendence into higher states of being. Before the introduction of this theory, behaviourists had viewed human behaviour simply as a response to stimuli and the effects of events (Cole, 2015). Maslow's theory introduced a new perspective in which positive qualities such as creativity, lovingness, spontaneity, dignity, and freedom are seen as playing key roles in human behaviour (Hablemitoglu, Özkan, & Purutçuoglu, 2010; Zhang, 2010).

Maslow introduced a hierarchy of needs that can be classified into five levels, namely “physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs” (Huang, 2013, p. 13). Physiological needs are the most basic needs, while self-actualisation needs are the highest needs of an individual. Self-actualisation makes the individual aware of the real self-regarding potential, talents, and uniqueness (Huang, 2013). Maslow proposed that the lower needs in the hierarchy must be satisfied before the individual can progress to the next level in a process referred to as ‘self-actualisation’ (Cole, 2015). Such needs range from food, security, love, and esteem to the achievement of success in life (Cole, 2015; J. Kim, 2013; Romney, 2016; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009; Sheptak Jr, 2013; A. Smith, 2013). Thus, Maslow’s theory is a needs-based perspective for understanding volunteer motivation.

Although volunteerism is a complex construct, the theory suggests that the motive for volunteering may be viewed as being associated with the desire of people to achieve self-actualisation and self-transcendence (Cole, 2015; Richter, Raban, & Rafaeli, 2015; Romney, 2016; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). However, Maslow’s hierarchy seems to miss the aspect of social connection provided through an individual’s trusting relationships, organisational structures, social validation, social identity, safety within a social group (Rutledge, 2011), and cultural needs (Hofstede, 1984). Additionally, evidence of practical applicability seems scarce (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976), too simplistic (Gambrel & Cianci, 2003), or dependent on other factors (Tay & Diener, 2011).

Hence, while in the field of volunteer research, the Theory of Self-Actualisation seems hardly relevant, the aspect of self-actualisation in terms of doing something meaningful may be a point of view that could be advanced in this study.

In summary, while theories of motivation provide important clues for the research process of volunteer retention, they are a reflection of the vast complexity of human traits and behaviour.

2.6 Literature Review Concerning Volunteer Retention

2.6.1 Employee versus Volunteer Retention

In the literature, studies of retention primarily refer to the retention of employees. In a literature review, Das and Baruah (2013) depicted the most relevant factors for employee retention (see Table 4: Literature Review – Employee Retention):

Factors	Authors	Research Papers	Year
Compensation	C.O. Trevor, B. Gerhart, J.W. Boudreau.	Voluntary turnover and job performance: curvilinear and the moderating influences of salary growth and promotions.	1997
	D.Davies, R. Taylor, C. Savery.	The role of appraisal, remuneration and training in improving staff relations in the Western Australian accommodation industry: A comparative study.	2001
	DG Gardner, L Van Dyne, J.L Pierce.	The effects of pay level on organization-based self-esteem and performance: a field study.	2004
	GM Milkovich, JM Newman.	Compensation (8 th ed.).	2004
	E Moncraz.,J.Zhao, and C.Kay.	An exploratory study on US lodging properties, organizational practices and employee turnover and retention.	2009
Reward and Recognition	N.C. Agarwal	Reward Systems: Emerging Trends and Issues.	1998
	J.W. Walker	"Perspectives" Human resource planning	2001
	L.T. Silbert	The effect of Tangible Rewards on Perceived Organizational Support.	2005
Promotion and opportunity for Growth	M. R. Pergamit, and J. R.Veum.	"What is a promotion?"	1999
	Meyer, John, Laryssa Topolnytsky, Henryk Krajewski and Ian Gellatly.	Best Practices: Employee Retention	2003
	B.J. Prince.	Career-focused employee transfer processes.	2005
	L. Eyster, R Johnson and E. Toder .	Current strategies to employ & retain older workers.	2008
Participation in Decision Making	P.Hewitt	High Performance Workplaces: The Role of Employee Involvement in a Modern Economy	2002
	Y. Noah	A Study of Worker Participation in Management Decision Making Within Selected Establishments in Lagos, Nigeria.	2008
Work-Life balance	J. Hyman and J. Summers	"Lacking balance? Work-life employment practices in the modern economy"	2004
Work environment	N. Miller, A. Erickson & B. Yust.	Sense of place in the workplace: The relationship between personal objects and job satisfaction and motivation.	2001
	M.Wells & L. Thelen.	What does your workspace say about you? The influence of personality, status and workspace on personalization.	2002
	S. Ramlall	Managing Employee Retention as a Strategy for Increasing Organizational Competitiveness.	2003
Training and development	M. Messmer	Orientations programs can be key to employee retention.	2000
	A. Tomlinson	High Technology workers want Respect.	2002
	P. Garg & R. Rastongi	New model of job design motivation employees Performance.	2006
	L.W. Handy	The importance of the work environment variables on the transfer of training.	2008
Leadership	R.Eisenberger, P. Fasolo, , & V. Davis-LaMastro	Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation.	1990
	McNeese- D.Smith	Job Satisfaction, Productivity, and Organizational Commitment.	1995
	Y. Brunetto, R .Farr-Wharton	Using social identity theory to explain the job satisfaction of public sector employees.	2002
	Chung-Hsiung Fang, Sue-Ting Chang, Guan-Li Chen	Applying Structural Equation Model to Study of the Relationship Model among leadership style, satisfaction, Organization commitment and Performance in hospital industry.	2009
Job-Security	J.C.Abeggen	The Japanese Factory. Aspects of Its Social Organization	1958
	S. Ashford, C .Lee, & P. Bobko	Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test.	1989
	J. Davy, A. Kinicki, C. Scheck	Developing and testing a model of survivor responses to layoffs.	1991
	Z. Rosenblatt, A. Ruvio	A test of a multidimensional model of job insecurity. The case of Israeli teachers.	1996

Table 4: Literature Review – Employee Retention

It is questionable whether these factors are also relevant for volunteer retention (hence, for this study, the literature displayed in Table 4 has not been added to the References). In addition, Lock et al. (2003) performed a literature review reviewing 200 abstracts and 80 articles focusing on volunteer retention in particular. Their findings are summarised in Table 5, below:

Category	Factors	Brief description	Literature
Personal factors and life events	Withdrawal Factors	Changes in personal life, e.g. job, family, moving, studying	(Wardell, Lishman, & Whalley, 1997) (Lynn & Smith, 1993) (Iveson, 1999) (Blake, 1992) (Davis Smith, 1998) (Alexander, 2000) (Gaston & Alexander, 2001)

			(Merrell, 2000)
	Continuation Factors	Stability factors, e.g. marriage, children, being 'settled', higher education	(Alexander, 2000) (Gaston & Alexander, 2001) (Hiatt, Michalek, Younge, Miyoshi, & Fryer, 2000) (Wilson & Musick, 1999) (Gidron, 1985)
	Ambiguous Factors	Personality and attitude, faith	(Wilson & Musick, 1999) (Drihem, 1999) (Hiatt et al., 2000) (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) (Nathanson & Eggleton, 1992) (Lukka & Locke, 2000)
	Demographic Factors	Age and length of volunteering	(Nathanson & Eggleton, 1992) (Hiatt et al., 2000) (Omoto & Snyder, 1993) (Alexander, 2000) (Gaston & Alexander, 2001)
	Background Factors	Social groups	(Debra J. Mesch et al., 1998) (Bebbington & Gatter, 1994) (Wilson, 2000) (Wilson & Musick, 1999) (Lammers, 1991) (Kovacs & Black, 2000)
Organisations and contexts	Withdrawal Factors	Negative experiences, overburdened, undervalued, public policy	(Davis Smith, 1998) (Bebbington & Gatter, 1994) (Alexander, 2000) (Gaston & Alexander, 2001) (Knapp, Koutsogeorgopoulou, & Smith, 1995) (Omoto & Snyder, 1993) (Russell, Scott, & Crowley, 1997)
	Continuation Factors	Encouraging organisation, explicit management, thanking and appreciation, positive evaluation, social support, sense of responsibility, policy environment, congruence of organisational and volunteer's goals	(Farmer & Fedor, 1999) (Clary et al., 1996) (Sokolowski, 1996) (Widmer, 1985) (DeWitt Watts & Edwards, 1983) (Forster, 1997) (Jirovec & Hyduk, 1999) (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003) (Nathanson & Eggleton, 1992) (Knapp et al., 1995) (Niyazi, 1996) (Burden, 2000) (Gidron, 1983) (McCuddin, 2000) (Harrington, Cuskelly, & Auld, 2000) (Stebbins, 1996) (Locke, Sampson, & Shepherd, 2000) (Blake, 1992) (Wardell et al., 1997) (Puffer, 1991)
	Ambiguous Factors	Organisational commitment, motivation, experience, satisfaction	(Cuskelly, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998) (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) (Debra J. Mesch et al., 1998) (Omoto & Snyder, 1993) (Wardell et al., 1997) (Gidron, 1983)

Table 5: Literature Review by Lock et al. – Retention of volunteers

While the literature review in Table 5 is somewhat outdated, it is still necessary to assess the same period comparing the factors in Table 4 and Table 5. It is interesting to observe that factors for employee retention seem to primarily focus on the working environment and organisational factors, rather than the personal factors of employees. In contrast, authors examining the retention of volunteers seem to focus much more on personal factors. This is comprehensible because compensation and social security are likely to be major factors for employees which cease to apply to

volunteers. This difference is unlikely to change as it is a persistent difference between employees and volunteers.

There are, however, similarities: recognition, appreciation, a supportive leadership, a comfortable working or volunteering environment, and development opportunities seem to be important factors for employees and volunteers alike.

Hence, in these areas, the literature concerning employee retention could similarly be relevant for volunteer retention.

In their literature review, Gilbert, Holdsworth, and Kyle (2017) reviewed the literature up to 2017, presenting an overview of what influences volunteer commitment levels (Table 6 slightly modified from it is original):

Conceptual framework category	Drivers of volunteer commitment	Reference
Emotional, 'I want to volunteer' – the heart	Values of the benefactor	(Clary et al., 1998)
	Volunteer personality	(Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006)
	Internal drivers (functional analysis)	(Clary et al., 1998)
	Expressing values	(Clary & Orenstein, 1991)
	Emotional investment in a cause	(Danson, 2003)
	Role identity (and its reflection of core self)	(Reich, 2000)
Project output and outcome; purpose – the head	Skill development	(Clary et al., 1998)
	Social contact	(Grube & Piliavin, 2000) (Finkelstein, 2008b) (Güntert, Neufeind, & Wehner, 2015)
	Excitement about the project	(Güntert et al., 2015)
	Theory of planned behaviour (approval from a significant other)	(Greenslade & White, 2005) (Warburton & Terry, 2000)
	Self-esteem, self-enhancement	(Grube & Piliavin, 2000)
	Investment in the volunteer	(Delaney, 2014)
	Obligation as a result of being associated with a beneficiary of the organisation	(Perloff, 2016)
Contextual commitment – the hands	Job-demand resources model – sufficient resources for the task positively influence connectedness with the project	(Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, & Metzger, 2007) (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) (Huynh, Metzger, & Winefield, 2012)
	Self-determination theory – choice regarding participation	(Gagné & Deci, 2005)
	Volunteer autonomy provided by the supervisor	(Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2012) (Van Schie, Güntert, Oostlander, & Wehner, 2015)
	Motivation potential of task	(Van Schie et al., 2015)
	Value congruence between volunteer and organisation	(Gilbert et al., 2017)
	Psychological contract: coordinator communicating organisational expectations	(Delaney, 2014) (Rousseau, 1995) (Walker et al., 2016)

Table 6: Literature Review by Gilbert et al. – Volunteer Commitment

It needs to be noted, however, that short-term volunteer commitment differs from volunteer retention as retention is a long-term engagement. Compared to Table 5, the review of Gilbert et al. (2017) reveals the vast complexity of factors determining why

volunteers engage in volunteering. While Gilbert et al. (2017) chose three categories in their conceptual model (project outcome, the organisation, and the beneficiary of work), this categorisation is not a mandatory conclusion. There may be other ways of categories depending on the perspective, theory, and ontology. For example, Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989) found the concepts 'altruistic', 'social', and 'material' to encompass a more convincing categorisation, while McBride (2012) distinguishes between institutional and individual factors.

Due to the complexity of factors, no general standardised typology exists in the literature. The categorisations chosen by the authors seem comprehensible but are arbitrary to a certain degree (Dwiggins-Beeler, Spitzberg, & Roesch, 2011).

As Gilbert et al. (2017) did not place constraints on the dates in their literature review and their search terms did not include 'retention' but rather 'organisation', 'commitment', 'volunteer' and 'project', it is worthwhile to perform another separate literature review to assess the latest developments in literature focusing on what motivates volunteers to stay with one organisation.

2.6.2 Literature Review

As mentioned above in Chapter 2.2, p. 23, only peer-reviewed literature from 2007–2017 is considered for this literature review. There were 1,377 results using the search term 'volunteer retention' in the University's Library Resources. The search system was set to sort results by relevance. One third (459) of the most relevant results were carefully assessed using titles and abstracts. As the system was set to filter by relevance, the relevance decreased considerably counting down from the top relevant results, the first 459 search results were considered as the most relevant list. This further filtering yielded 57 results. For this literature review, to find the most relevant pieces of literature on the subject, only results with more than 20 citations were considered, yielding a total of 33 pieces of literature for in-depth assessment. Peer-reviewed research papers with fewer than 20 citations mostly examined niche areas, which were less likely to be relevant for this study. Hence, these papers were not further considered for an in-depth review.

Before continuing with a discussion, the table in Appendix 1 provides a structured review of the literature on volunteer retention.

2.7 Discussion

2.7.1 The Link Between Personality Traits and Volunteerism

Several studies have associated volunteerism with personality traits. In particular, extraversion has been highlighted as probably the most important trait (Omoto et al., 2010). Some authors, including Okun, Pugliese, and Rook (2007), in their quantitative study of 888 elderly adults, have suggested that extroverts are more likely to join a variety of social organisations, many of which would be voluntary organisations. Being members of voluntary organisations makes it more likely for an individual to be recruited to participate in voluntary activities. Handy and Cnaan (2007) and Einolf (2008) tested the assumption of association of volunteerism with personality traits and obtained results that are consistent with earlier studies confirming an association between volunteerism, self-esteem, and self-perception.

However, later studies – including that of Wilhelm and Bekkers (2010) who used the same data from the General Social Survey from a sample of adult population in the United States like in the study by Einolf (2008) – appear to contradict these findings. The conclusion drawn by Wilson (2012) is that emotion alone, for instance, is not sufficient to influence volunteer motivation. Wilson (2012) notes that the feeling of solidarity has been minimally investigated in research and suggests that the feeling plays a key role in volunteer activities that are responses to political or social crisis. In such a case, personality traits may be relegated to the background, while feelings of solidarity become more pronounced (Butcher, 2010a; Ward & Mckillop, 2011). Therefore, further research is needed to establish whether personality traits affect volunteerism in either a direct or indirect manner.

2.7.2 Volunteer Motivation

Aid organisations are often labour intensive, and volunteer workers provide a considerable portion of the labour. On the part of the aid organisations, there is, therefore, a practical concern as to why people engage in volunteer activities because knowledge of such reasons helps to improve retention (Shye, 2010). Aid organisations must have a deep but specific understanding of volunteer motivation to help them to effectively place prospective volunteers into appropriate positions. Volunteers often have interests other than rewards for engaging in volunteer activities (Narcy, 2011). However, various theories appear to be conflicting at times (Shye, 2010). For instance, theories that adopt sociological approaches assume that individuals with free will act to maximise their self-interest and in particular that such individuals will strive to maximise

the control of resources available to them, including time and skills. This seems to contradict empirical evidence indicating that individuals sometimes sacrifice their personal resources to promote the welfare of other people (Shye, 2010).

The theories presented above in this review indicate that the above scenarios are compatible. Shye (2010) notes that most often, research studies hold both positions in the same paper. The functional and the needs-based approaches to motivation suggest that individuals may engage in volunteer activities as a way of promoting self-interests and also as a means of satisfying psychological needs: hence, the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This leads to questions of what are the needs of individuals and what are the benefits that may accrue from volunteering. Hence, motivation is commonly assessed and will be assessed in this study based on the well-established VFI (Clary et al., 1992; Christopher J. Einolf, 2018). However, some researchers have criticised VFI by arguing that the functions are drawn from various sources with no clear theoretical basis (see Chapter 2.5.4.1, p. 40). Moreover, there is no evidence that the list of functions is exhaustive (Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012). This, therefore, is another critical area that needs to be further investigated.

2.7.3 Volunteer Retention

The corpus of literature concerning volunteer retention still seems to be in the exploration stage. The literature review revealed multiple methodological approaches and both longitudinal and cross-sectional considerations to identify the causal factors behind volunteer retention, reflecting the heterogeneity of volunteering (McBride & Lee, 2012).

From a broad perspective, the depicted pieces of literature can be summarised as follows: whenever volunteers 'feel good', the likelihood of them continuing to volunteer increases. While this causal connection seems to align with common sense, it does not necessarily exist. Episodic volunteers, for example, could be pleased to help in a particular disaster situation but will likely leave when helping the project becomes unnecessary. It is, therefore, crucial to better understand what exactly drives 'feeling good'. If it were a particular project (Wolcott, Ingwersen, Weston, & Tzaros, 2008), one could predict that volunteering will dilute when the project was completed, either because its mission was accomplished or because project funding was discontinued. If it were a self-induced feeling (Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace, 2009; Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde & Knowles, 2013), volunteers could as well self-induce negative feelings and leave. Other authors have emphasised the impacts of support focusing on regulating 'feeling good' from an outside perspective (Darch & Carusi, 2010; Sellon, 2014; Wald,

Longo, & Dobell, 2016) proclaiming the value of efficient organisational structures and support.

This shows that depending on the epistemological and methodological approach, the apparently straight-forward notion that 'a happy volunteer will keep volunteering' is revealed to be a somewhat complex topic due to the vast number of possible influences. It is, therefore, worthwhile to further investigate how organisations could support higher levels of volunteer retention.

2.8 Conclusions

This research study aims to improve understanding of the impact of aid organisation volunteer support on volunteer motivation, with the ultimate goal of improving retention. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, it is important to have background knowledge of the determinants of volunteer motivation and commitment. Several studies have suggested that volunteers, particularly in this present age in which episodic volunteering is increasing, often start with some degree of motivation but soon begin to lose interest (Goldblatt & Matheson, 2009). The question, therefore, is whether this has to do with the support that they are receiving from aid organisations or whether it touches on the fundamental nature of volunteer motivation. The answer to this question may be found by examining the factors that determine volunteer motivation and volunteer retention levels.

This literature review, therefore, started by defining the main terms and in so doing, identifying the assumptions that are inherent in the definitions. While, in the literature, volunteering is being defined in different ways, the opinion prevails that three characteristics need to be fulfilled: free will, altruism, and no compensation. The review showed that there are several ways in which theories of volunteering can be approached depending on the discipline within which they are being studied and the purpose of classification. However, theories based on a functional approach and other needs-based approaches are most commonly applied in attempts to understand volunteer motivation in practice. Several models have developed in this way, and they include mainly, the volunteer personality model, the role-identity model, the values and attitudes model, and the volunteer motivations model (Andronic, 2014, p. 477). This has led to some researchers, such as Musick and Wilson (2008), demanding an integrated theory of volunteering. The review in this thesis also examined theories and methods aimed at improving levels of volunteer retention.

According to Van Til (1988) and Hustinx et al. (2010), volunteering (action) and motivation is complex and involves multiple dimensions. While, in the literature, these dimensions are perceived in different ways, the literature could broadly be categorised into person-centred and variable-centred approaches. The fundamental problem of variable-centred approaches comprising macro-structural theories, and SOT, lies with a deterministic assumption that all (or, at least, most) external factors equally influence individuals. Considering the multiplicity of motivation, theories relying on such a causal assumption could yield unreliable results: for example, Einolf (2015) could only find modest empirical support of SOT. Hence, macro-structural theories should not be further considered in this study.

Therefore, person-centred theories such as expectancy theory and SDT, which embrace the multiplicity of volunteering, seem favourable for further suggestion in this study. However, while the functional approach also “treats motives as an expression of pre-existing needs and dispositions, thus preceding the action instead of being constructed through (inter)action” (Hustinx, Cnaan, et al., 2010), volunteers still reflect personality traits (Clary et al., 1998), and should, hence, be considered as an additional perspective in this study (see chapters 4.3, p. 120, and 4.4, p. 135).

Chapter 2.3 (p. 25) of this dissertation provided definitions of the key terms used in this study from various perspectives. The main terms included ‘volunteerism’, ‘episodic volunteer’, ‘retention’, ‘support’ and ‘volunteer motivation.’ Chapter 2.4 (p. 29) was concerned with classifying the major approaches to the study of volunteer motivation. Chapter 2.5 (p. 33) was dedicated to presenting and discussing the major theoretical frameworks and models currently available in the literature, while Chapter 2.6 (p. 50) focused on the critical aspect of retention. This study as a whole is important because previous studies have concentrated on examining other aspects of volunteer work, and no consolidated or generalised theory exists that can explain volunteer motivation. This literature review will, therefore, prove useful in providing the basic understanding for researching the impact of aid organisation volunteer support on volunteer motivation, with the goal of improving retention.

3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Research can be defined as a process of inquiry in which a search for information and knowledge is undertaken in a systematic way (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; Moule & Goodman, 2009). The process is generally the same in all fields of learning and essentially involves defining an area of interest, assessing the existing knowledge in the area, collecting and analysing data, and extracting information or drawing inferences from the data (Creswell, 2013; Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). In pure sciences, research is often conducted in controlled environments in which the researcher is able to manage confounding factors that might affect the validity of the inquiry. Except for a few issues, such as the use of human tissues or animals, security of human lives, and the physical environment, there are few ethical concerns to contend with in pure science research (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; Moule & Goodman, 2009).

Although the process of research can be presented, in all cases, as sequential and linear with common definitive stages, no single way of conducting research is universally accepted (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). In the social world, for instance, where research is often concerned with lived experiences, a plethora of different methodologies and methods can be applied depending on the context of the environment in which the research is being conducted. In this case, a broad range of paradigms is available to drive diverse approaches to studying the way the real world is perceived by different actors (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; Moule & Goodman, 2009). Furthermore, it must be borne in mind that while the research process can be described as sequential, a researcher may find it necessary to revisit some stages in the process. This is particularly true in qualitative studies, in which researchers often find it inappropriate to finalise the definition of the research question in a precise manner until the data has been collected and analysed (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010).

This chapter explains the research process and addresses issues concerning research philosophy. It contains an explanation of the research design as well as the choice and implementation of data collection methods. The chapter also includes discussions of sampling and ethical considerations.

3.2 The Research Process

3.2.1 Selecting the Research Area

Most research studies begin with an initial idea that may be driven by professional or personal interests. The initial idea often develops from a hunch arising from personal experiences or thoughts. It might also arise from issues identified in the course of professional practice, from expert opinions in the media and published professional works, or discussions among peers (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). Sometimes, a research question may also be derived from proposals of stakeholders, including funding organisations. The wording of the research question must ensure that the answer to the question provides either new knowledge or a new perspective of an existing topic (Farrugia, Petrisor, Farrokhyar, & Bhandari, 2010; Robson & McCartan, 2016).

This study was conceived through the process of reflective thinking by the researcher on recent disaster occurrences around the world such as the migration crisis in Germany – particularly in Bavaria – and severe floods in Bavaria, in which volunteers were much needed. While a substantial crowd of existing volunteers started helping, many people spontaneously came to join them, and the question arose: why are people volunteering and how can we support their retention? This led to the selection of the research area of this study and the research question.

3.2.2 Formulating a Research Aim and Objectives

The next step in addressing a research question is to determine what type of information will answer the question and what kind of methods are appropriate (Haynes, 2012). This will help to refine the question as well as establish what type of study is envisaged (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010).

If the study in question was quantitative, it would be necessary to formulate a hypothesis. A hypothesis is defined as a statement that the researcher sets out to prove or disprove. However, in the case of a qualitative study, a hypothesis is not essential, but the aim and objectives still should be formulated (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; Holliday, 2007).

Traditionally, the aim of the research is a broad general statement of what the researcher hopes to achieve (Lyon, Möllering, & Saunders, 2015). In contrast, an objective is a specific statement about an expected observable outcome (D. R. Thomas & Hodges, 2010). An objective focuses on some key issues that define the research question (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). Quite often, there are

multiple objectives in a study. There is no universally accepted way of developing aims and objectives (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; D. R. Thomas & Hodges, 2010). According to Thomas & Hodges (2010) formulating strong research aims and objectives requires reading around the subject of study and analysing prior studies related to the topic. It is also good practice to examine how aims and objectives have been framed in other studies in the same area. Aims and objectives must be linked directly to the conclusions of the study. Planning the aims and objectives in this study started with the drafting of initial statements that were then revised several times with input from supervisors, colleagues, and experts in the field as recommended by Thomas and Hodges (2010).

In this study, the research aims and objectives were selected by considering how the aim of the research could be reached step-by-step. For example, in the paper of Ramirez and Saraoglu (2011), the research questions were decomposed into four different objectives, leading the way to finally answer the authors' research question.

3.2.3 Conducting the Literature Review

Haynes et al. (2012) note that it is important to establish what is already known about the subject before the research is conducted. A literature review provides the researcher with the opportunity to examine the topic from a wide range of perspectives (Drew, Hardman, & Hosp, 2007). It forms a theoretical foundation for the study, although the research may sometimes consist entirely of a literature review (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010; Saunders & Rojon, 2011). For instance, a systematic literature review is a well-established approach on its own, involving systematic online searches of published works for a synthesis of knowledge or a meta-analysis of data (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010).

Common sources of information in a literature review include academic books and journals, government publications, online publications from reputable authors and organisations, and online databases. Apart from gathering evidence from such reputable sources, the contents obtained must not only be described but critically evaluated (Fisher & Wood, 2007; Hulley, Cummings, Browner, et al., 2007). The literature review can also provide guidance as to the type of methods and instruments that can be used to answer the research question (Fisher & Wood, 2007; Haynes, 2012). A high-quality literature review provides comprehensive coverage of the topic with rigour, clarity, and consistency (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010).

The literature review in this study was conducted to understand the theories that underlie volunteer support and volunteer motivation. Sources of information included common types of academic publications including books and journals. In presenting the literature review, the author chose to first present a general narrative overview while aware that in doing so, some pieces of literature could be missed. To compensate for this limitation, a systematic literature review focused on pieces of literature concerning volunteer retention. This strategy seemed suitable for the consideration of both a wide range of perspectives and comprehensive coverage of the core research question.

3.2.4 Selecting Methods of Data Collection

Methods for collection of primary data commonly in use include surveys and questionnaires, interviews, and observation. Primary data collection needs to be preceded by a high level of preparation, including the design of the questionnaire. There are two important issues to consider when designing a survey: to whom the questions will be directed and how the answers will be obtained. The type of data required determines who will participate in the research, while the issue of how to obtain the answers is concerned with the choice of the mode of delivery and collection of data. The delivery and collection of data can be done manually, through the post or electronic media such as email or social media. The method and mode of data collection may affect outcomes (Bethlehem, 2009). The researcher faces four challenges when designing the survey: accuracy, response burden, timeliness, and cost (Willeboordse, 1997). Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages that the researcher will have to consider when choosing methods.

3.2.5 Advantages and Disadvantages of Primary Data Collection Methods

3.2.5.1 Surveys and Questionnaires

There are several advantages of surveys and questionnaires. The cost of administering surveys and questionnaires is comparatively low when they are targeted at large numbers of potential participants across wide areas. Surveys and questionnaires also minimise bias by evaluators because all participants return answers to the same questions (Daas & Roos, 2011). Many people find it more comfortable to participate in surveys than in interviews. Finally, surveys and questionnaires, particularly closed-ended questionnaires, are easier to tabulate than other methods of primary data collection (Ariel, Giesen, Kerssemakers, & Vis-Visschers, 2008).

However, there are some disadvantages associated with surveys and questionnaires. In the first place, some respondents may not return the forms, while others may not complete the forms as required. Items in the survey may mean different things to different people, and the researcher is unable to explore this in greater detail. This problem arises because of the closed-ended nature of questionnaires and surveys (Ariel et al., 2008; Daas & Roos, 2011). Good survey instruments are relatively more challenging to develop than other methods. Furthermore, cross-sectional survey instruments are unable to account for changes over time (Ariel et al., 2008; Daas & Roos, 2011), which could be an issue in this study considering that retention includes aspects of time.

3.2.5.2 Interviews

The advantage of interviews is that they afford the researcher means to gain further insight into the subject and allow participants to express themselves in the manner they feel best conveys their meaning to investigators. Another advantage is that the researcher can gather quotes for further reference. However, interviews have the disadvantage that they are often prone to interview bias. Additionally, they may appear intrusive to participants. They are also very expensive, difficult to arrange, and time-consuming to conduct.

3.2.5.3 Brief Discussion

Both questionnaires and interviews have advantages and disadvantages. In this study, both methods of primary data collection should be allowed, combining the advantages of a structured assessment of a large number of respondents with an assessment of interviews. Allowing both methods, the disadvantage of possible misunderstandings in questionnaires and interview bias could be mitigated.

In this study, a web-based survey (SurveyMonkey) was used to reduce cost, possible increase response rates, and obtain faster feedback as well.

Regarding web-based surveys, Jansen, Corley, and Jansen (2007), however, note several drawbacks of using web-based surveys. Besides technical issues, the lack of control over the sample could involve potential bias.

Comparing web-based surveys to other forms of surveys, a potentially increased response rate seems to outweigh possible bias. Additionally, web-based surveys such as SurveyMonkey enable the researcher to randomly change the sequence of

questions, mitigating the risk of hindsight bias which will be further discussed later in this chapter.

3.2.6 Overview of the Study

The goal of this study is to improve volunteer retention in aid organisations by gathering primary and secondary data and analysing the data to identify supportive measures that have the potential to increase levels of motivation among volunteers. This study, therefore, is about the values, beliefs, and behaviours of people in Bavaria in Germany. An initial literature review indicated that surveys featuring instruments such as the VFI had been successfully used in similar studies (Musick & Wilson, 2008). Therefore, a decision was taken to use a survey that featured the use of the VFI and other valid and reliable instruments. The target population was chosen as the set of all volunteers that were members of either the BRC or TeamBavaria (TeamBavaria is a platform where volunteers can register for volunteer work without becoming members of an aid organisation). However, it was not practicable to draw a structured sample from the whole population as not all contacts were accessible. The study had to be conducted using a random sampling technique that potentially targeted all volunteers working with the BRC and TeamBavaria in Bavaria, which will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

The qualitative aspect relates to getting information about the thoughts and practical experience of volunteer managers in aid organisations. The author arranged semi-structured interviews with 15 volunteer managers from different kinds of volunteer chapters who were willing to participate in the study.

3.3 Research Philosophy

3.3.1 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm can be defined as “a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts and propositions that orient thinking and research” ((Albon & Mukherji, 2018, p. 69) citing (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 22)). Such a paradigm is concerned with ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological issues that underpin research studies. Ontological issues are those that pertain to the nature of reality and the question of what is ‘knowable’, while epistemological issues in the context of research methodology refer to the basis of knowledge regarding whether it is objective or subjective and whether it is transmissible in its real form (Dieronitou, 2014). Axiological issues pertain to the role of values in the research, while

methodological issues focus on the processes involved in the research (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013). A research paradigm is important because it provides a theoretical framework for the methodological approach adopted in a research study (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013).

Generally speaking, there are two types of research paradigms: quantitative and qualitative (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013). A quantitative paradigm is often described by using other terms such as traditionalist, empiricist, positivist, and experimental after the works of philosophers such as Newton, Locke, Durkheim, Mill, and Comte (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013). A qualitative paradigm, on the other hand, is known as a naturalistic, constructivist, post-positivist, interpretive, or post-modern approach following the philosophical stands of authorities such as Kant, Foucault, and Miles (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013). Merriam (2016) notes that “there is almost no consistency across writers in how [the philosophical] aspect of qualitative research is discussed” (p. 8). However, the choice between the two approaches depends on the research area and the stance of the researcher concerning positivism and phenomenology respectively.

3.3.2 Positivism

Positivism is a philosophical stance that rejects metaphysics in favour of science, which is perceived as the cornerstone of the ideology (Dudovskiy, 2014). One of the central tenets of positivism concerning research methodology is the assertion that it allows for a unitary method of conducting an inquiry in all branches of science. Positivism places emphasis on quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. Collins (2010) states that,

As a philosophy, positivism is in accordance with the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience. It has an atomistic, ontological view of the world as comprising discrete, observable elements and events that interact in an observable, determined and regular manner. (p. 38)

Although positivists have many philosophical principles that bind them, they often adopt different views on numerous issues, hence the emergence of different schools of thought within the positivist community at various points in the historical development of the discourse. Contemporary positivism holds that knowledge can be obtained from three sources, namely experience, expert opinion, and reasoning (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Furthermore, positivists emphasise the detachment

of the researcher from the study to obtain an objective understanding of the phenomenon. In other words, there is no room for subjective interests or values in the study (Crowther & Lancaster, 2012). However, positivism has been criticised for its over-reliance on experience as a source of knowledge and as lacking insights into real-world events, such as behavioural and relational issues, that do not lend themselves to quantification (Dudovskiy, 2014).

3.3.3 Interpretivism

Unlike positivism, in the paradigm of interpretivism, the world is viewed as being socially constructed and subjective. The philosophical stand, in this case, is that science is driven by subjective interests, and therefore the researcher must be placed within the context of research (Bryman, 2016; Dudovskiy, 2014; McKinley, 2015).

Interpretivists are interested in how individuals explain their behaviour; they aim for an 'emphatic understanding' and in-depth data. The differences between positivism and interpretivism are summarised in Table 7 (source: Pizam & Mansfeld (1999)).

Assumptions	Positivism	Interpretivism
Nature of reality	Objective, tangible, single	Socially constructed, multiple
Goal of research	Explanation, strong prediction	Understanding, weak prediction
Focus of interest	What is general, average and representative	What is specific, unique, and deviant
Knowledge generated	Laws Absolute (time, context, and value free)	Meanings Relative (time, context, culture, value bound)
Subject/Researcher relationship	Rigid separation	Interactive, cooperative, participative
Desired information	How many people think and do a specific thing, or have a specific problem	What some people think and do, what kind of problems they are confronted with, and how they deal with them

Table 7: Differences between positivism and interpretivism

3.3.4 Discussion

Both positivism and interpretivism are dualistic research paradigms, they each come with various ramifications, and the philosophical discourse around them is manifold and extends into distant history. A theoretical description of this old but still living discourse is beyond the scope of this study because the different paradigms are hard to reconcile.

For example, this research could be viewed as assessing the impact of the supportive action of aid organisations on volunteer motivation, and hence, it could be concluded to be about a cause and its effect. This causal relationship could be measured using

statistical analysis such as linear regression. To be able to do so, data would be gathered and converted into numbers suitable for statistical analysis, and conclusions could then be drawn. It would be crucial in such research that objectivity be strictly maintained because the presence or behaviour of the researcher could not affect either the decisions of the aid organisations or the perception of the volunteers of how effective the support actions of the organisations are. Hence, this approach would be a positivist study with a prescribed hypothesis for testing. In the field of volunteer studies, several researchers have followed this philosophy (see Appendix 1).

However, within the philosophical discourse, the question would arise of whether knowledge should be gained by implementing mostly deterministic research instruments of the natural sciences on the social sciences. However, this deterministic paradigm has been criticised, for example, by Popper (1976), because quantitative research methods widely used in the natural sciences require data to be determined, meaning that numbers can describe a real and fixed situation. While positivists would argue that it is feasible to determine human behaviour or opinions statistically, ultimately, the crux of this positivist ontology is the determination itself: even the most sophisticated statistical analysis is only as good as its underlying data. If the data could be assessed in a purely objective manner – for example, the velocity of an object in space – the required determination could be accepted without much doubt. However, the more the definition of the phenomenological determination itself is in question, the more quantitative research methods would sacrifice parts of the phenomenon to be explored to mathematical approximations.

Finally, while assessments of opinions can be converted into numbers and measured using quantitative research instruments, opinions are less objective than the above-mentioned velocity of an object in space. Hence, there are generally two possible ways to gain an acceptable level of objectivity: either gaining objectivity from a large sample implementing statistics or dismissing quantitative analysis altogether, favouring other research approaches.

As the literature review revealed a considerable degree of divergence of results in the relevant field of research, it could be concluded that the level of objectivity needed for a purely positivist research approach has not yet been reached. Researchers must, therefore, step back and focus on basic research first before further statistical analysis – such as linear regression – would have a solid objective baseline for defining specific statistical relationships in order to test basic research results.

Therefore, the research in this study will favour an interpretivist approach, distinguishing natural and social entities. Unlike constructivists, who regard the natural sciences as linguistically constituted as well (Gorski, 2013), interpretivists acknowledge an 'apprehendable' natural reality but suggest only the social reality to be linguistically constructed (Geertz, 1973; Gorski, 2013; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Winch, 1990).

This philosophical approach of trying to reconcile positivist and phenomenological paradigms induces a mixed-method research approach.

3.4 Research Approach

This study adopts a mixed approach that features both quantitative and qualitative approaches as a way of compensating for the weaknesses of both approaches. The qualitative approach does not provide for precise measurements, and statistical analysis allows for a generalisation of results using deductive reasoning, while the quantitative approach does not adequately address meanings that individuals attach to volunteering (Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007; Creswell, 2013). The qualitative approach is characterised using inductive reasoning to construct theories and models. According to Creswell (2013), there are marked differences between deductive and inductive approaches to reasoning. Deductive reasoning begins from a position of prior knowledge that is true about something and proceeds by using logical arguments to come to a conclusion (Gray, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

3.4.1 Deductive and Inductive Reasoning

Deductive reasoning moves from universal premises to the specific and is often referred to as a top-down approach (Creswell, 2013; Gray, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The validity of this type of reasoning rests on the validity of at least one of the premises (Gray, 2013). According to Gray (2013), the deductive approach "moves towards hypothesis testing, after which the principle is confirmed, refuted or modified. These hypotheses present an assertion about two or more concepts that attempt to explain the relationship between them" (p. 16). The stages of the deductive process are shown in Table 8 below.

Table 2 Summary of the deductive process	
Stages in the deduction process	Action taken
1 Theory	Select a theory or set of theories most appropriate to the subject under investigation.
2 Hypothesis	Produce a hypothesis (a testable proposition about the relationship between two or more concepts).
3 Operationalize	Specify what the researcher must do to measure a concept.
4 Testing by corroboration or attempted falsification	Compare observable data with the theory. If corroborated, the theory is assumed to have been established.
5 Examine outcomes	Accept or reject the hypothesis from the outcomes.
6 Modify theory (if necessary)	Modify theory if the hypothesis is rejected

Table 8 Summary of the deductive process

Source: Abridged from Gray (2013, p. 17)

Inductive reasoning, often referred to as a bottom-up approach, in contrast, moves from the particular to the general. It begins with the collection of data, then searches for a pattern of meaning in a set of data to develop a theory (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Glaser & Strauss, 2009; Gray, 2013; Guba, 1978). Conclusions drawn using inductive reasoning are based on the likelihood that a statement is valid given what has occurred in the past. Therefore, there is a possibility that there are exceptions to any rule developed (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Gray, 2013).

3.4.2 Discussion

The first two stages within a deductive process – outlined in Table 8, above – again emphasise what has been previously discussed: deductive reasoning requires an existing theory and a *testable* proposition. However, in recognition of the literature review, while there are plenty of theories regarding motivation, it seems harder to distil a generalisable and universal theory of volunteerism which could serve as a baseline for further research. Moreover, when formulating hypotheses in a deductive process, the researcher focuses on assessing a given relationship, prohibiting any exploratory processes of factors other than those present in this relationship. In the absence of an opportunity for exploration, however, it is questionable whether the research question could be answered and thoroughly understood.

It should be noted that, in this study, the research questions do not serve as hypotheses. They primarily lead a structured investigation of factors of motivation and needs, representing topics which require a better understanding. Although inductive reasoning is not without weaknesses (e.g., it is not always logically valid), this is an exploratory process which could best be achieved with inductive reasoning.

However, while this study prefers an inductive approach to answering the research questions, ultimately building a model of volunteer retention, logical reasoning requires a bridge between theory and research. Hence, this research involves some alternation between induction and deduction, interpreting the findings in consideration of the literature and existing theories.

3.5 Research Design

3.5.1 Purpose in Research Design

Research design can be described as the conceptual structure that is employed in the conduct of research (L. B. Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2014). Rwegoshora (2014) notes that a research design is not merely a mode of collecting data; it goes beyond the provision of a work plan to include a collection of logical procedures that provide the researcher with evidence of the validity of the theories arrived at in the course of the study (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Rwegoshora, 2014). The main objective of using a research design is therefore to collect data and information relevant to the study in a valid and efficient manner (Creswell, 2013; Kumar, 2014). The research design is not constrained to any specific method of gathering data, nor does it relate to the type of data garnered. In principle, any particular research design

can be used in either a qualitative or quantitative study because its central role is to maximise the probability of drawing correct inferences (Creswell, 2013; Kumar, 2014).

3.5.2 Types of Research Design

Researchers often ask two fundamental questions: *why* is *what* happening in an event. Hence research design can be divided into two groups, namely exploratory and conclusive, to answer the questions of 'why' and 'what', respectively. Conclusive research can further be divided into descriptive and causal (Creswell, 2013; Kumar, 2014). A descriptive research design is used to describe specific elements or phenomena in the research area. Causal research design, in contrast, aims to study cause-and-effect relationships inherent in events and phenomena (Creswell, 2013; Kumar, 2014).

Exploratory research is generally concerned with conducting investigations into areas of study where very little is known. Exploratory research focuses on discovering new ideas, diagnosing an event, and producing hypotheses after screening several alternatives. An exploratory design is often used to gain insights into the best way to proceed in a research problem in advance of a more detailed investigation (L. B. Christensen et al., 2014; Rwegoshora, 2014). In contrast, descriptive research attempts to understand a phenomenon by observing and providing systematic and detailed descriptions of the event, including characteristics of variables, relationships among variables, and attitudes towards issues that define the essence of the phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013; McKinley, 2015). The descriptive design is often used when it is desired to estimate the proportion of a group who exhibit some peculiar characteristics in a population. According to Creswell (2013), descriptive designs are useful in making predictions about situations or populations, although results obtained are heavily dependent on the instruments used for observation and measurement. Furthermore, research that uses descriptive designs is often not replicable and cannot be used to disprove a theory (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013).

Causal research design has the advantage that the study can be replicated. Causal designs are used to prove causal links between variables. Causal studies are used to understand phenomena that can be thought of as regarding conjoined events *X* and *Y*, where *X* always precedes *Y*. *X* is known as the independent variable and *Y* the dependent variable. Causal designs can be used to study the impact of *X* on *Y* by measuring the specific change in norms and assumptions in *Y* arising from an amount of change in *X* (Burns & Bush, 2013; Creswell, 2013). The aim of using causal

designs is essentially to seek causal explanations that can be derived from tests of hypotheses (Burns & Bush, 2013; Creswell, 2013).

Causal designs can also be used to eliminate other possibilities. Proponents of this type of research design hold that it has high internal validity arising from the stringent sampling procedures in the process (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Karvanen, 2015). Critics, however, argue that not all relationships are causal and that it can be difficult to make causal conclusions because of the possibilities of the existence of confounding and extraneous variables. Thus, causality cannot be proved but can only be inferred (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Karvanen, 2015).

For mixed-method research, there exist a variety of possible research designs, which were summarised by Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2008) as follows:

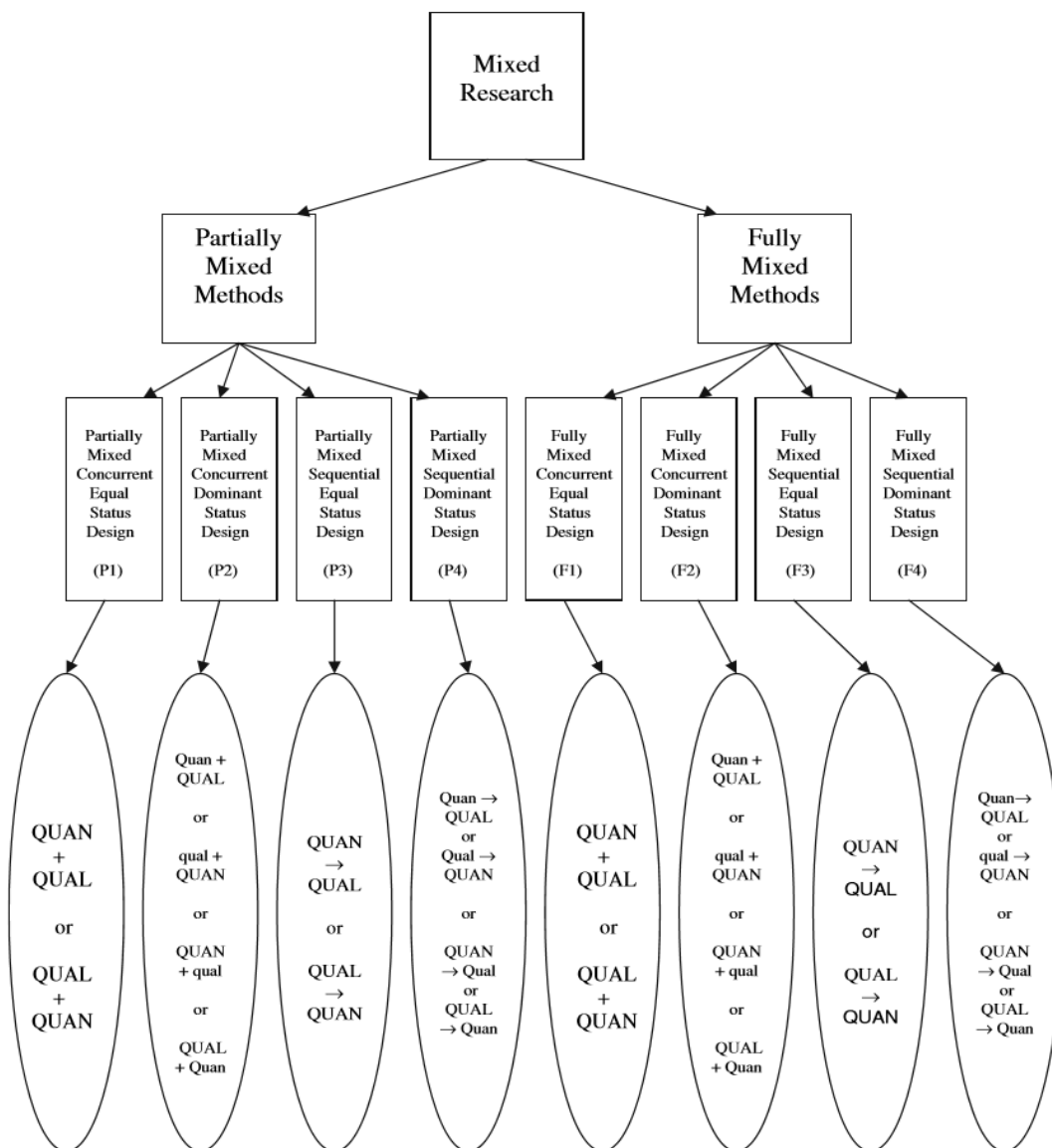


Figure 5: Mixed Research Designs, Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2008)

This study cannot completely be integrated into one of the designs in Figure 5. While the questionnaire will be deployed before conducting the interviews, the questionnaire itself includes open-ended questions and therefore qualitative data. Despite collecting primary data and using the questionnaire to provide a first insight into the data, there will be a concurrent data analysis of both the questionnaire, including quantitative closed-ended questions and qualitative open-ended questions on the one hand and qualitative data from interviews on the other hand. In this respect, qualitative data outweighs quantitative data, although quantitative data will be considered as a starting point in the exploratory process (see Table 10, p. 106).

3.5.3 Discussion

This study could employ a causal design to address the question of whether strategies and plans by aid organisations that focus on motivation result in changes in levels of motivation and volunteer retention (Bekkers, 2007). However, this would require both phenomena: supportive measures by aid organisations and volunteer retention level, and levels of motivation to all be quantifiable and susceptible to statistical analysis. This could be criticised. While, for example, levels of motivation could be assessed within a questionnaire measuring according to a Likert scale, hence ascribing quantitative value to qualitative data, the question remains – even from a positivist perspective – of whether this quantitative data adequately represent the phenomenon (Michell, 1995; Reiss, 2016). Pure statistical analysis seems prone to prescind from empirical work, ignoring the process and reason behind the data itself. The focus of this study is not to collect quantitative data for statistical analysis only; rather, it is to better understand *why* volunteers are motivated and *which* supportive measure could enhance motivation and retention. As the literature in this field of study does not seem to offer a conclusive picture of volunteerism, this study will employ an exploratory design to better understand this phenomenon. This is, for example, supported by Dunn et al. (2016) who conducted an extensive review on volunteer motives concluding that more groundwork is required to identify volunteer motives including both quantitative and qualitative research.

This study will not entirely dismiss statistics, but at the same time, it will not entirely rely on statistics. Consequently, this study will follow a mixed-method approach.

3.6 Methods of Data Collection

There are two types of data: primary data and secondary data (Creswell, 2013; Kothari, 2004). Primary data are those that are original in nature and which have

been collected by observations or experiments. In contrast, secondary data are those which have been gathered in the past, analysed, and documented in the literature by an authority in the field of study. According to Lynch (2013), data collection is a critical aspect of research because without data, there would be no research. That is not to say, however, that research is simply data collection. Instead, research is a theory-driven process that attempts to answer research questions by employing empirical observations to generate data which are then used to validate findings and conclusions (Lynch, 2013). The methods of data collection differ between primary and secondary data because the collection of secondary data consists of compilation, while in the case of primary data, the researcher has to search for original data that emerge as the event or phenomenon unfolds (Creswell, 2013; Kothari, 2004).

3.6.1 Methods of Primary Data Collection

Primary data collection in social and behavioural sciences commonly features surveys and observations (Kumar, 2014). A survey can be described as direct communication with all members or a selected number of members of a population who are capable of providing relevant and valid information about the phenomena under study (Creswell, 2013; Kothari, 2004; Lynch, 2013). Surveys may be conducted through the use of questionnaires or interviews (Creswell, 2013). Methods of primary data collection can be divided into two groups: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data collection methods include closed-ended questionnaires, methods of correlation and regression, the use of measures of central tendency, and observations.

3.6.1.1 Closed-Ended Questionnaire

A closed-ended questionnaire contains questions that give the respondent a list of answers to choose from (Aday & Cornelius, 2006; Burton, 2007). Closed-ended questions may address attitudinal or factual issues. Respondents are given a list that may require a dichotomous answer such as 'yes' or 'no', or they may be asked to select a response from a list containing multiple choices (Fowler Jr, 2013). This may also include selecting multiple responses, such as when respondents are asked to select a list of factors they consider relevant in a given situation (Mathers, Fox, & Hunn, 2007). Closed-ended questionnaires may also contain questions that require the respondents to rank an issue in order of importance or select their responses from instruments provided such as a Likert Rating Scale (Mathers et al., 2007).

An advantage of using closed questions is that it allows for comparison across answers from groups or individuals. However, closed questions are not very useful when

in-depth or spontaneous responses are required. Closed questions can also lead to response bias when respondents are faced with an option they had not thought of in advance (Mathers et al., 2007). The analysis of answers to closed-ended questions with multiple-choice options is usually performed using quantitative methods such as measures of central tendency and regression. In contrast, analysis of answers in qualitative studies that feature open-ended questions is often performed using methods such as critical analysis and content analysis (Aday & Cornelius, 2006; Burton, 2007; Mathers et al., 2007).

3.6.1.2 Methods of Correlation and Regression

Research studies often involve determining whether two variables are related. Methods of correlation and regression are then applied to analyse the extent and nature of relationships between different variables (Pagano, 2012). The existence of a strong relationship between two variables means that one of the variables can be used to predict the other. Moreover, such a relationship indicates that there is a substantial probability that the independent variable could be the cause of the dependent variable. Thus, a correlation test is the first step towards establishing a causal relationship (Pagano, 2012).

Correlation and regression are methods that are related. Regression is similar to correlation in that both methods are used to determine the relationship between multiple variables. However, while correlation is mainly concerned with determining whether a relationship exists and estimating the scale and direction of the relationship, regression is primarily concerned with how the relationship can be used to predict at least one of the variables (Pagano, 2012).

3.6.1.3 Mean, Median, and Mode

Mean, median, and mode are methods used in the organisation and presentation of data. They are also known as measures of central tendency and are popular quantitative research methods used in business, as well as in the social sciences, engineering, and computer sciences. Mean, median, and mode can be used to facilitate data comparisons (e.g. performance) as is often the case in business studies. In behavioural sciences, mean, median, and mode are often used to compare populations. The mean of a population is defined as the sum of all the individual scores divided by the number of individuals (Pagano, 2012). The median can be described as the measurement on the scale below which 50% of the scores lie (Pagano, 2012).

The mode is defined as the score that appears most frequently in the distribution (Pagano, 2012).

3.6.1.4 Measurement Techniques

In quantitative science, it is held that attributes of objects such as length, weight, and temperature have some internal structure that makes them distinct (Nesselroade, 2010). This structure is known as quantity, and specific attributes of quantity are called magnitudes and are assumed to be measurable (Engel & Schutt, 2013; Nesselroade & Molenaar, 2016). Theoretically, measurement can be construed as the estimation of the magnitude of a particular quantifiable characteristic of an object or event by attributing numerals to that characteristic in accordance with some rule which often is a ratio that compares the magnitude with a standard unit of the quantity of the same characteristic (Nesselroade & Molenaar, 2016; Pagano, 2012). For it to be considered as scientific, the rule must invoke a measuring scale that has at least one of the following three mathematical attributes: magnitude, an absolute reference point, or equal intervals between adjacent numerals on the scale (Engel & Schutt, 2013; Pagano, 2012). Researchers in behavioural sciences often use four types of scales: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio (Pagano, 2012). According to Pagano (2012), the main difference in measurement techniques between the four types of scales rests on the number of mathematical attributes that each possesses.

3.6.1.4.1 *Nominal Scales*

The lowest level of measurement using this criterion is the nominal scale. A nominal scale is appropriate when the variable to be measured is qualitative. It has no magnitude or interval as attributes. Measurement using a nominal scale consists only of classification of objects into groups or classes and attaching names to the groups or classes. Thus, measurement, in this case, amounts to identifying to which category the objects belong (Nesselroade & Molenaar, 2016; Pagano, 2012). However, it is important to note that all members of a class in an ordinal scale are equivalent. For instance, all individuals in a group classified as 'sick' on an ordinal scale are equivalent despite differences in types of illness.

3.6.1.4.2 *Ordinal Scales*

An ordinal scale possesses some low-level reference to magnitude. Using this type of measurement, a researcher is only able to rank objects according to which has more or less of the attribute being measured. Thus, an ordinal scale allows for the

determination of whether *A* is greater or less than *B*, where *A* and *B* are objects that possess a particular attribute. Pagano (2012) notes that although the scale allows for comparison of quantities, it does not have the mathematical attribute of equal intervals and cannot give any information about the magnitude of the difference between any two adjacent points on the scale. Furthermore, there is no absolute reference point because the scale emphasises only relative quantities. An example of an ordinal scale is the ranking of the level of motivation of volunteers.

3.6.1.4.3 *Interval Scales*

Interval scales are more sophisticated than ordinal scales because they include the use of equal intervals between adjacent units, and they also have a high level of description of magnitude. However, they do not have an absolute reference point. Pagano (2012) gives the case of the Celsius scale of temperature as an example. The scale represents an equal amount of heat between equal intervals throughout the scale, but 0 degrees on the Celsius scale is not a complete absence of heat.

According to Pagano (2012), measurements in behavioural sciences such as those of motivation, intelligence quotient, depression, and anxiety are really those of interval scales. However, this could be argued against referring to Likert Scales. One could posit that Likert Scales are simply ordinal scales: While the intervals are monotonic, they cannot be precisely defined as to be numerically uniform increments. This may have implications for statistical reliability. Considering that according to the central limit theorem, there is a tendency towards a normal distribution, it could be argued that a certain minimum number of items are required for a statistically reliable measurement. Fewer items could also be compensated for when analysing data at a group level. In this study, volunteers are mostly associated with the Bavarian Red Cross at such a group level. As each aggregate measure is based on many individual responses, the Likert Scale item begins to take on the properties that resemble an interval scale at the aggregate level.

According to Nesselroade and Molenaar (2016), behavioural scientists are more interested in similarities than in dissimilarities in attributes that are associated with behaviour. When using interval or ratio scales, it is important to note the difference between discrete and continuous variables, as the methods of statistical analysis of data are different between the two types of variables.

In this study, Likert scales will be used to assess similarities or dissimilarities in participants' opinions. The implementation of Likert scales in this study is further discussed in chapter 3.11.3 (p. 93).

3.6.2 Qualitative Data Collection Methods

3.6.2.1 Interviews

Qualitative data collection methods that are often used include interviews, open-ended questionnaires and observations. The interview plays a central role in qualitative research as a resource for gathering data (Richards, 2009; Roulston, 2010). Qualitative interviews are a common form of primary data collection in the social sciences. They are conducted either with a single or a group of interviewees (King & Horrocks, 2010; Richards, 2009; Williams & Vogt, 2011). Interviews are categorised as structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (King & Horrocks, 2010; Whiting, 2008). While qualitative studies focus more on semi-structured and unstructured interviews that yield further insight, structured interviews are often used in quantitative research (Baker, Edwards, & Doidge, 2012; Ezzy, 2010; Williams & Vogt, 2011) where the observer is expected to be neutral asking the same questions with little or no room for flexibility (Edwards & Holland, 2013; Whiting, 2008).

All qualitative interviews, according to Edwards & Holland (2013, p. 3; J. Mason, 2018), have the following attributes:

- i. An exchange of dialogue between the researcher and one or more respondents in a face-to-face or similar manner.
- ii. A narrative approach that is topic-centred or thematic and in which the researcher allows for a fluid and flexible development of discussion.
- iii. An assumption that knowledge is situated and contextual with meanings and understandings able to be constructed from the interactions between the researcher and the respondent.

Although it is helpful to differentiate between unstructured and semi-structured, no interview can realistically be considered to be truly unstructured. Differentiation between the two types is arbitrary and is a product of historical developments in diverse traditions and disciplines (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Hoffmann, 2007). For instance, the most popular unstructured interviews originated from ethnographic tradition (Beneito-Montagut, 2011). Contemporary qualitative interviews are increasingly becoming unstructured and more flexible (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Edwards & Holland, 2013).

In an unstructured interview, researchers collect data in recorded field notes through participant observation (Hoffmann, 2007). The researchers observe as they interact with the participants either directly by joining in the activities under study or by

watching without direct participation. In the process, the researcher is able to identify the key participants to be interviewed on a continuous basis during the activities. The key participants are selected on the basis of their role in the activities, their knowledge of relevant issues, and their willingness to cooperate with the researcher. This method of sampling is referred to as snowballing. Through the first participants and while situated within the context of the study, the researcher is able to identify more participants that have the relevant characteristics (Edwards & Holland, 2013).

While the unstructured interview is not scheduled and arises during observations, the semi-structured interview is scheduled in advance, with the questions developed around a set of open-ended questions that are also pre-determined (Hoffmann, 2007). However, because flexibility is allowed, new questions emerge from the conversation between the interviewer and interviewee (Baker et al., 2012). In a typical semi-structured interview, the interviewer's objective is to gain in-depth knowledge of what the participants wish to convey, in content as well as in context, and of the level of understanding of the topic by the participant. This is known as an individual or group in-depth interview, depending on the context (Peek & Fothergill, 2009). Group interviews are often conducted as focus groups, with several participants discussing with the interviewer a topic pre-selected by the interviewer (Adams & Cox, 2008; Peek & Fothergill, 2009).

Developments in technology have made it possible for interviewers and interviewees to be separated in time and space (Hanna, 2012). They may be separated across time zones or may respond to each other through email or social media. They may use resources such as Skype to have video and audio contact across geographical regions (Beneito-Montagut, 2011; Hanna, 2012). Technology is therefore expanding the scope and range of qualitative interview methods. Technology is also reducing costs and increasing access to participants.

3.6.2.2 Open-Ended Questionnaires

Questionnaires with open-ended questions are similar to structured interviews. They ask questions such as 'Why do you volunteer?' and allow the participant to provide qualitative answers in their own words. Answers to open-ended questions require qualitative analysis such as thematic analysis, content analysis, or discourse analysis (Adams & Cox, 2008; Emde, 2014; B. Johnstone, 2008). Open-ended questions are used to uncover the feelings, thoughts, and experiences of participants (Adams & Cox, 2008; Emde, 2014). They can also be used in the development stage of closed-ended questionnaires because they can be used to identify the range of possible

answers. Open-ended questions have the disadvantage of having the potential to promote bias and variability in answers received (Adams & Cox, 2008; Emde, 2014). They are also more time-consuming and more difficult to answer from the perspective of the interviewee, thereby limiting the number of possible participants (Adams & Cox, 2008). Furthermore, narrative, open-ended questions can be very useful when closed-ended questions are inappropriate because there are no suitable options or there are numerous competing options available, making a choice difficult for participants (Emde, 2014).

However, although open-ended questionnaires could plausibly relate to qualitative data, it needs to be noted that – particularly in the case of online surveys –no interviewer can be expected to ensure a complete answer to open-ended questions, and questions could be misinterpreted by participants. Hence, it could be argued that open-ended questionnaires should not be considered in qualitative research for not providing a rich exploration of a phenomenon. However, if embedded within a balanced research approach including both closed-ended, open-ended questions, and interviews alike, open-ended questions could enhance insights gained from closed-ended results.

3.6.3 Research Choice

The mixed-method research design is a pragmatic approach that recognises the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Dellinger & Leech, 2007). As a methodology, it is based on the central premise that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a study provides a better understanding of lived experiences (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008; Morse & Niehaus, 2009). In mixing the approaches, the opportunity to reap the benefits of theory and methodological triangulation becomes available (R. Cameron & Sankaran, 2013; Morse & Niehaus, 2009). Theory triangulation is concerned with the interpretation of findings from several perspectives, while methodological triangulation concerns the use of multiple methods in the research design (R. Cameron & Sankaran, 2013).

Mixed-methods design involves more than merely collecting and analysing both types of data. As the name suggests, the types of data must be mixed so that together they provide a more complete understanding of the phenomenon. Hence pragmatic methods may use both quantitative and qualitative methods concurrently, or they may use the methods sequentially (R. Cameron, 2009; Creswell & Clark, 2007). In this study, the mixed-methods design has been adopted in order to fully understand meanings associated with human feelings, perceptions, and experience, which would not be

comprehensively addressed if either quantitative or qualitative designs were used alone (Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan, & Tanaka, 2010). The study, therefore, uses both types of methods sequentially by employing a design in which quantitative primary data collection is performed through questionnaires (SurveyMonkey) and qualitative data through interviews with volunteer managers.

3.6.4 Questionnaire Design

When designing a questionnaire, a researcher chooses the question types and response format required based on whether the study is quantitative or qualitative (Creswell, 2013; A. Cronin, Alexander, Fielding, Moran-Ellis, & Thomas, 2008). Questions can be classified according to function and content (De Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008; Wong, Ong, & Kuek, 2012). A question may serve as an enticement for the respondent to engage effectively. Such questions are known as opening questions (Couper, 2008; Emde, 2014). Filter questions are designed to determine whether the respondent should skip or answer one or more ensuing questions. The next type, buffer questions, are designed as connectors of two or more topics appearing in the questionnaire. The last type, concluding questions, are used to draw conclusions from the respondent (Biemer, 2010; Couper, 2008; Emde, 2014).

Although answer categories provided are dependent on the purpose of the question, they are designed to be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and easy to understand in instances where closed-ended questions are employed (Groves et al., 2009). The options provided also serve to decode the meaning of the question in addition to pointing in the direction of how to answer the question (Groves et al., 2009). The design in this study includes the use of the VFI (Clary et al., 1998) used by many researchers to assess motivation, as outlined in Chapter 2 (p. 22).

3.6.5 Interview Design

The key objectives of a qualitative interview are to elicit the feelings, perceptions, and experiences of the participant in a discussion (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). However, an interview is not a conversation that features an equal exchange of ideas; it is an exchange largely dominated by the interviewer (Edwards & Holland, 2013; Talmy, 2010). The interviewer uses questions as the main tool to gain essential meaning. To do that, a crucial outcome in designing an interview is empowering the participant to be actively involved in the process of constructing meanings (Edwards & Holland, 2013). According to Edwards & Holland (2013), it is by connecting truths uncovered in the course of the interview that the knowledge of human experience is increased. This

can be achieved by developing a positive relationship rapidly during the interview by allowing free interaction between the researcher and the participant in a friendly, safe, and comfortable environment (Edwards & Holland, 2013; Talmy, 2010; Whiting, 2008). A positive relationship involves respect between those in the relationship and trust that information shared is confidential and will be used for the purpose of the research only (Brinkmann, 2007; Garton & Copland, 2010). The interviewer should give the participants ample opportunity for clarification as well as assistance in the recall of memories and discovery of ideas by prompting the participant (Bartesaghi & Perlmutter Bowen, 2009; Edwards & Holland, 2013).

3.6.6 Summary

As mentioned above, this study will employ mixed-method primary data collection. This aligns with the exploratory approach and inductive research design because this method allows for exploration from multiple perspectives. While it could be argued that a multiplicity of data collection methods is prone to confusion, it is this multiplicity (in contrast to pure quantitative data collection) which provides for a holistic assessment, which is potentially able to reveal most facets of a phenomenon.

Therefore, the questionnaire in this study will include both closed-ended questions and open-ended questions, carefully selected to check and balance each other to improve the reliability of the answers. Within the closed-ended sections, a Likert scale will be used to assess the opinions of the participants. Although a Likert scale could be classified as an ordinal scale, it should be noted that it could be rejected for statistical analysis because unlike, for example, the weight of an object, an opinion (for example 'strongly agree') might itself be biased, which is then reflected in the number that represents it. Nevertheless, many researchers use Likert scales in the social sciences in order to make the resulting data amenable to statistical analysis. It still is important to consider what lies behind this data. While turning opinions into numbers might enhance simplicity, meaningfulness should also be considered. Hence, in this study, open-ended questions serve to complement closed-ended questions to improve validity. This is further improved by interviews, further changing perspectives from volunteers to managers of volunteers.

The data collection choices will be justified in more detail at the end of this chapter.

3.7 Sampling Issues and Missing Data

A target population can be defined as the universal set of things or people that is of interest in a study. In the case of people, the study may be about specific characteristics such as beliefs and attitudes (Rahi, 2017; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). A sample, in contrast, is a subset of the target population that can be used to examine or explore the characteristics of the target population, while sampling is the process of choosing particular members of the target population for study (Rahi, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). Schutt (2019) differentiates the term 'sampling frame' as a list that the researcher uses to select elements of the target population. Frequently, the researcher is unable to reach all members of the population and therefore chooses from a list of readily accessible members. For instance, in a study of the population of a town in which a list of households is available but the list of individuals in the town is not, the researcher may have to sample households and not individuals. Thus, the sampling frame has to be chosen carefully to be as representative of the target population as possible and to make generalisation as precise as possible (Schutt, 2019).

Determining the sample size depends on the type of study. For quantitative studies, the researcher has to apply statistical theories relevant to the method adopted. For instance, the normal distribution theory provides formulae for the calculation of sample size given a prescribed margin of error in the confidence interval method (Greene, 2017; Patton, 2015; Schutt, 2019). Several reviews of qualitative research reports have shown, however, that there is no single well-defined method for determining sample size (Bacchetti, 2010; Berg, 2008; Carlsen & Glenton, 2011; Morse, 2015). Neither is there a consensus on how to achieve this (Bacchetti, 2010; Carlsen & Glenton, 2011). At least, it is well accepted that in qualitative studies, the sample size should be large enough to achieve the aim of the study (Patton, 2015). Malterud, Siersma, and Guassora (2016) suggest that the sample size that can provide sufficient levels of 'information power' depends not only on the aim of the study but also on the theory underlying the study, the strategy adopted for analysis, and the specific characteristics of the target population.

Sampling methods can be categorised as using either probability or non-probability sampling. The probability sampling method is applied in quantitative studies while qualitative studies often use non-probability sampling techniques (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Any sampling method that is based on a random selection process with a known probability of selection of each member of a population is known as probability sampling. Probability sampling involves selecting large numbers of members from a

given population (Teddle & Yu, 2007). The aim of using probability sampling is essentially to obtain a sample that can be regarded as an accurate representation of a population. Probability sampling is based on the theory of statistical distributions such as the normal distribution and the Chi-squared distribution (Teddle & Yu, 2007). According to Teddle and Yu (2007), there are at least four well-known techniques for probability sampling:

- i. Random sampling. In this technique, it is assumed that all members of the population have equal chances of being selected.
- ii. Stratified sampling. The researcher may subdivide the population into mutually exclusive subsets, and each member can belong to only one group. Selection is then methodically performed within each subgroup.
- iii. Cluster sampling. In this case, the researcher is more interested in groups within a population and not individual members.
- iv. Multiple probability sampling. The researcher uses multiple probability techniques in the same study.

Schutt (2019) argues that chance selection does not imply a lack of control over the sampling method. Ensuring that chance is the only factor that influences selection implies proceeding methodically using a controlled procedure. The procedure must be capable of overcoming two particular problems frequently encountered in random sampling: access to the total population and inadequate response rates (Schutt, 2019). A random sample from an incomplete sampling frame cannot be said to be representative of the general population. At the same time, even if the sampling frame is complete, a low response rate introduces an element of systematic bias that could invalidate the findings of the study. Schutt (2019, p. 653) defines systematic bias as “overrepresentation or underrepresentation of some population characteristics in a sample due to the method used to select the sample” and suggests that a response rate less than 30% may invalidate generalisation of results.

Although a perfectly random sample implies the absence of systematic bias, chance introduces what is known as sampling error. Sampling error can be defined as the difference between the statistical characteristics of a population, such as the mean and standard deviation (SD), and those estimated from a sample (Grove, Burns, & Gray, 2012). Sampling error is often measured for a given SD. In general, the larger the sample, the higher the statistical confidence that the sample is a good representation of the population (Grove et al., 2012; Schutt, 2019). In addition, sampling errors are affected by the degree of homogeneity in the population.

In contrast to probability sampling, non-probability sampling involves members of a population being selected in a non-random manner so that the probability of selection is not known for all members. The implication is that not all members have a chance to participate in the research (Gentles, Charles, Ploeg, & McKibbin, 2015). Qualitative researchers view sampling as a series of strategic choices about which members of a population to select for a study (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Such researchers are not primarily driven by the need for generalisation of results (Gentles et al., 2015; Palys, 2008). Rather, they believe that the method of sampling must be tied to their objectives and must reflect the context in which the research is conducted (Palys, 2008; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Hence, they often engage in purposive sampling, which is sampling based on a specific objective rather than on probability (Atchison & Palys, 2008). In purposive sampling, individual members of a population are purposely chosen for the value they add to the study in terms of the information or data they can provide (Maxwell, 2009). Purposive sampling can be broadly classified into sets that are based on purpose—for instance, sampling for representativeness and comparability, sampling for uniqueness, sampling for theory generation, and sampling for convenience. Sampling for convenience involves using participants that are readily available or are willing to take part in the research (Maxwell, 2009; Rahi, 2017; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Rahi (2017) argues that although convenience sampling is often criticised as having a high level of sampling bias, it allows the investigator to obtain responses from surveys and conduct interviews in a cost-effective manner.

While a combination of purposive and convenience sampling will be used to select participating volunteer managers for interviews in this study, a random sample of BRC members and TeamBavaria members participating in the survey was selected. This will further be described later in this chapter (see Chapter 3.11.2, p. 92).

Owing to the use of an electronic survey (see Chapter 3.6.3, p. 80), there is no specific information on the number of volunteers who received the survey but chose not to participate. While 995 volunteers participated in the survey, only 770 provided answers to all questioned asked, so 225 (22.61%) did not fully answer the questionnaire. Generally, there are two ways to address these missing cases: an analysis of all cases in which the variables of interest are present, or only those cases (770) are considered which have completed all questions. While the latter approach has the advantage of providing equally comparable analyses based on the same number of responses, including all present variables keeps as many cases as possible and therefore uses the entire body of collected information for the analysis. As the present study uses an exploratory inductive approach, the focus should be on

including as much data as possible. Therefore, all cases in which variables are present will be considered for analysis. This choice seems even more reasonable if there is a segmented structure of missing data, meaning that where there is missing data, an entire section is missing, further mitigating the risk of a lack of comparability (see for example the rather low variance of *N*-values in Table 11 and Table 24).

A potential flaw which could arise from the sample structure and handling of missing data is the issue of selecting on the dependent variable, meaning that gathering data only from volunteers would exclude a comparison group of non-volunteers. Hence, it is doubtful whether motivations of volunteers are as likely to be present in non-volunteers, thus diluting the assertion of a causal relationship between certain factors of motivation and volunteering. For example, in a Canadian National Survey of Giving volunteers were asked how much they agreed with seven exemplary reasons to volunteer: 95% responded that they helped because they believed in a cause (Hall, McKeown, & Roberts, 2000). However, it remains unknown in what proportion of cases people believe in a cause and do not volunteer. The questionnaire in this study needs to consider this potential problem.

3.8 Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis can be described as the process of identifying meanings, structures, and order in a set of data in a justifiable manner within a theoretical framework. Creswell (2013) defines meaning as the intention that is embedded in the original data by the creator of the data. Data analysis involves the use of both deductive and inductive reasoning (Creswell, 2013). The common feature in all methods of analysis is the search for broad statements about the data collected (Schwandt, 2014). Qualitative and quantitative studies use different methods for analysing data. Data analysis in quantitative studies usually involves the use of statistical methods to interpret and analyse quantitative data generated during the study to present empirical justification for some phenomena (Snider, 2010). This study will use both descriptive and inferential statistical methods to analyse the quantitative primary data generated.

Data analysis in qualitative studies involves searching for key patterns and themes that are not otherwise apparent to the lay observer and relating the themes and patterns to the aims and objectives of the study (Gubrium & Holstein, 2009; Sloane, 2009). Whereas quantitative analysis uses numbers and figures, qualitative methods of analysis use words and symbols to communicate what has been revealed about the essence of the data at hand. In qualitative studies that employ surveys and interviews and observations, the process of qualitative analysis can be described as the

process of constructing meanings and patterns in responses received from participants (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013).

According to Nieuwenhuis (2007a, p. 99), “qualitative data analysis tends to be an ongoing and iterative process, implying that data collection, processing, analysis and reporting are intertwined, and not necessarily a successive process”. The purpose of analysis in qualitative studies is to transform the data in order to provide a better understanding and insight into the essence of the phenomenon (Gibbs, 2008; Sutton & Austin, 2015). According to Suter (2011), in qualitative studies, data collection and analysis are often done concurrently because ongoing findings determine what types of data are required and how the data will be obtained. Hence, there are numerous and diverse methods that can be used to analyse qualitative data (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b). Examples include content analysis, thematic analysis, narrative analysis, ethnography and grounded theory (Berg-Schlosser, De Meur, Rihoux, & Ragin, 2009; Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2013). However, in general, qualitative analysis involves taking notes – known as memos – which are used to support data reduction, data display and the drawing of inferences (Miles et al., 2013). Data reduction involves identifying what constitutes the essence of the data, while data display involves arranging the data to extract meanings (Suter, 2011).

This study, therefore, analyses qualitative data gathered by undertaking the five steps suggested by Chambliss and Schutt (2015):

- i. Documentation of the data and the process of data collection
- ii. Organisation/categorisation of the data into concepts
- iii. Connection of the data to show how one concept may influence another
- iv. Corroboration/legitimation by evaluating alternative explanations, disconfirming evidence, and searching for negative cases
- v. Representing the account (reporting the findings) (p. 325).

Newby (2014) notes that the method of content analysis is widely used in the analysis of qualitative data.

This study will also use content analysis to uncover the deeper meanings inherent in the data collected. This research study also compares all the primary research findings, whether quantitative or qualitative, to those that were uncovered in the literature review as suggested by Chambliss and Schutt (2015).

3.9 Reliability and Validity

The concepts of reliability and validity have their origins in the positivist perspective. The key premises emphasised in reliability are replicability and consistency (Grossoehme, 2014). Reliability can be defined as the extent to which results in a study remain consistent when repeated under similar conditions using the same methods (Leung, 2015). Reliability can also be perceived as the degree to which a study or an experiment can be said to be free from errors of measurements (Silverman, 2013). Unlike in qualitative studies (see chapters 3.11.4, p. 97, and 3.11.6, p. 98), reliability in quantitative studies (see chapter 3.11.3, p. 93) is often expressed regarding statistical measures such as the standard error (Snider, 2010). The standard error is an estimate of the prevalence of errors of given types and sizes (Lynch, 2013). Reliability estimates are based “upon the various sources of measurement error that may be involved in test administration” (Thanasegaran, 2009, p. 35). Reliability is useful in assessments and comparisons and is a key factor that contributes to validity. Silverman (2013) suggested that constant data comparison is essential in establishing reliability. The researcher should verify the accuracy of data as it is extracted from original sources by comparing context and form with known information from other sources using the method of triangulation. Furthermore, the reliability of the instrument being used must be tested and re-tested at different times. However, although validity implies reliability, reliability does not imply validity (Grossoehme, 2014; Leung, 2015).

Validity is defined as the extent to which the research addresses what is intended in the study and whether inferences drawn from data are appropriate (Grossoehme, 2014; Leung, 2015; Silverman, 2013). Positivists emphasise construct validity. Construct validity is concerned with the type of data and the process of gathering the data as they relate to the initial assumption or concept in the study (Miller et al., 2009; Schimmack, 2010). Thus, quantitative researchers are required to validate their inquiry by applying an appropriate test or by using processes that have been proved to be valid (Grossoehme, 2014; Leung, 2015; Silverman, 2013). Positivists are also concerned with content validity. In adopting the paradigm of content validity, quantitative researchers assess the contents to determine whether all relevant issues or domains of the subject are appropriately addressed (Leung, 2015).

However, the concepts of reliability and validity are perceived differently in qualitative research, which strongly opposes the positivists' views. Attempts to extend the concept of reliability to qualitative research have focused largely on consistency

(Grossoehme, 2014; Leung, 2015). Qualitative researchers view the question of replicability as inconsequential in qualitative studies (Given, 2015; Leung, 2015). Instead, they hold that precision, transferability, and credibility (see chapter 3.11.6, p. 98, and Appendix 5) are more appropriate in qualitative studies (Berg, 2008). Validity in qualitative research corresponds to the appropriateness of the data and processes, as well as that of the tools employed (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Hammersley, 2012). In qualitative research, the notion of establishing truth through the use of research that is valid and reliable is in effect replaced with the concept of trustworthiness of the researcher and the process used and confidence in results of the study (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Given, 2015; Hammersley, 2012).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Trochim et al. (2016, p. 35) note that since the end of World War II in 1945, there has been an accumulation of consensus in the research community about ethical principles that should guide research. Almost all institutions and organisations involved in research now have review boards that address matters of ethics in research (M. Johnstone, 2009). According to Trochim et al. (2016, p. 40), several principles underlie how research is conducted, and these have become more or less universally accepted, as described below.

3.10.1 Voluntary Participation of Adult Respondents

Informed consent is one of the most important ethical concerns in doing research. The issue surrounds how researchers encourage participants to be involved in research studies. It is held that participants should become involved in research only if they knowingly, intelligently, and voluntarily give their consent (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). This implies that participants must have full information about the procedures and processes as well as the risk involved in the conduct of the research (M. Johnstone, 2009; Tripodi & Potocky-Tripodi, 2007). In addition, researchers should do everything possible to avoid placing participants in a situation where they may be exposed to physical or psychological harm (Trochim et al., 2016, p. 41).

An ethical concern could arise when minors are part of the sample because their legal ability to express formal consent could be questioned. In this study, the questionnaire is explicitly presented to adults.

3.10.2 Offensive Language in Surveys

The use of offensive, discriminatory, or other unacceptable language needs to be avoided in the formulation of the questionnaire, interview, and focus group questions. Each question is designed to engage the participant and encourage the development of a positive relationship between the researcher and participants.

3.10.3 Privacy of Respondents

Trochim (2016) notes that two standards are designed to protect the privacy of individuals participating in research: confidentiality and anonymity (Hood, 2013; Nieswiadomy, 2008). Researchers are required to guarantee confidentiality by assuring participants that information gathered will be used solely for the purpose of the research and no one else will have access to such information (Fouka & Mantzourou, 2011; Trochim et al., 2016). The principle of anonymity places an even stronger responsibility on the researcher. It essentially prohibits the researcher from disclosing the identity of the researcher to third parties (Hood, 2013; M. Johnstone, 2009; Nieswiadomy, 2008).

Privacy and data protection could be infringed if a researcher chose to tape, for example, interviews using this recording for easier transcription. In these cases, it is necessary for the researcher to transparently convey his intent to record an interview beforehand and document the consent of the interviewee. In this study, every interviewee stated his/her consent to record the interview at the beginning of each interview. This consent was recorded for documentation.

3.10.4 Acknowledgement of Works of Other Authors

According to Resnik (2015), standard ethics code stipulates that researchers take credit only for what they have actually performed or to which they have contributed significantly. Researchers are required to respect intellectual property and must not use unpublished works without the consent of the owner of the work. Researchers are also required to acknowledge the works of other authors that appear in any part of their dissertation by using Harvard, APA, Vancouver, or any other internationally recognised referencing system (Resnik, 2015).

3.10.5 Objectivity

Resnik (2015) also states that the standard code of ethics also requires that researchers maintain the highest level of objectivity in discussions and analyses throughout

the research. They should avoid bias or deception in research design, data analysis, and interpretation and in any other part of the research where objectivity is required.

3.11 Data Collection Choices

3.11.1 Characteristics of the Research Sample

One of the key implications arising from the works of Hustinx et al. (2010) and Anheier (2010) was that volunteerism is inseparable from the social context and how this social context is manifested in real life. Thus, before addressing the research questions and objectives regarding data collection, the author should provide a solid foundation for appraising the background of the study participants.

A major criticism is that no suitable complete questionnaire frameworks were found in the studies of other scholars. Instead, the author had to design and add unique questionnaire items.

To address the social context, Questions 1–11 of the questionnaire focused on the demographical characteristics of the respondents, their volunteerism experience, and their affiliation with the BRC or TeamBavaria. This approach builds on the assumption that the existing empirical investigations of volunteerism also frequently rely on similar perspectives. This was highlighted by Davies, Lockstone-Binney & Holmes (2018) who analogously measured the factors related to age, gender, and income to identify the major background predictors of volunteerism. A broader implication was considered by Hillenbrand and Winter (2018), who linked the number of possible volunteers with demographics in a particular country. In contrast, it may be argued that none of these articles focused on organisational support or volunteer retention (Davies et al., 2018; Hillenbrand & Winter, 2018).

While the overall relevance of a demographics-focused questionnaire remains high, it is difficult to accurately discern whether the questions posed by these studies served as accurate indicators of all the significant contextual factors.

Another issue regarding demographic Questions 1–11 is that their value for the academic and practical contribution of the study is admittedly low. None of these items directly focus on the elements of the framework of the study (e.g., volunteer motivation). It is therefore questionable whether generalisations could be made based solely on the fact that, for instance, a specific volunteer is affiliated with a particular Bavarian volunteering organisation.

However, in this research, Questions 1–11 serve to provide an insight into the structure of the Bavarian volunteer population. Regarding the random sample (see chapter 3.7, p. 83), the demographic questions are important to test whether the sample is reliably representing the Bavarian population. This could prove to be important information as, for example, factors of motivation might correlate to different demographic factors.

Particularly, Questions 10 and 11 address the problem of measuring retention. One could argue that measuring retention requires a long-term assessment as retention includes the aspect of development over time. In this study, however, participants were asked about the length and frequency of volunteering at a certain point in time. This provides a subjective retrospective self-assessment of participants, which could potentially include bias and issues of social pressure. Hence, more research should focus on the development of retention levels in the future.

Nevertheless, the sample size could (to some extent) reduce the risk of individual bias: specifically, a larger sample could statistically decrease the significance of individual bias.

3.11.2 Sample Size

From a quantitative point of view, it seems plausible at first glance that the larger the sample size, the more a researcher could be sure that the answers given in a survey truly reflect the population. Hence, if a researcher receives an answer to each question from every member of the researched population, there should be 100% reliable data.

However, statistics show that even with an acceptable level of error, the researcher could acquire answers from considerably fewer participants compared to the total population while still obtaining a somewhat accurate prediction for the entire population (Singh & Masuku, 2014).

Population	Margin of Error			Confidence Level		
	10%	5%	1%	90%	95%	99%
100	50	80	99	74	80	88
500	81	218	476	176	218	286
1,000	88	278	906	215	278	400
10,000	96	370	4,900	264	370	623
100,000	96	383	8,763	270	383	660
1,000,000+	97	384	9,513	271	384	664

Table 9: Sample Size

(Source: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/sample-size/>)

Table 9 displays the sample sizes related to population, the margin of error (sometimes also called ‘confidence interval’), and confidence level, which serve to form a rule of thumb. Presupposing that a margin error of 5% and a confidence level of 95% are acceptable, a sample size of 384 is statistically necessary.

BRC and TeamBavaria have a population of 100,000–200,000 volunteer members.

The questionnaire of this study yielded a total of 995 responses and 770 participants answered all questions. Applying the above-mentioned rule of thumb, the sample size (770) could yield statistically significant results accepting a margin of error of 5% and a confidence level of 99%.

3.11.3 Questionnaires – Quantitative Approach

3.11.3.1 Volunteer Functions Inventory (Questions 12-23)

According to Research Question 1, the study needed to establish the main aspects influencing the overall level of motivation exhibited by the Bavarian volunteers. As highlighted in Chapter 2 (p. 22), the main instrument for this is the VFI (Clary et al., 1998). Admittedly, the VFI itself has not been used frequently in its original form in the most recent analyses of volunteer motivation (see Chapter 2.5.4.1, p. 40); however, although the VFI is not exhaustive of all possible motivations (Shye, 2010), it has been tested in a number of empirical studies. Mousa and Freeland-Graves (2017) and Kim, Fredline, and Cuskelly (2018), for example, recently successfully applied individual elements such as the desire to help others or the impact of social

connections within the volunteering community. Concerning the VFI, therefore, seems to be a reasonable framework in which to gather primary data on volunteer motivation. Gage and Thapa (2012, p. 413) even describe the VFI as "...the standard instrument to assess volunteer motivation".

Originally, Clary et al. (1998) assessed the VFI with closed-ended multiple choice questions using a 7-point Likert scale. The original VFI questionnaire defined six areas of needs, which were each abbreviated in Section 2 of this study's survey to reduce the total number of questions, thereby enhancing the ease of use for the participants:

- protective (escaping from negative feelings, Questions 12 and 13),
- values (express altruistic concerns, Questions 14 and 15),
- career (preparing for a career, Questions 16 and 17),
- social (concerning relationships, Questions 18 and 19),
- understanding (learning experiences and chance to exercise skills, Questions 20 and 21), and
- enhancement (ego's relation to affect, Questions 22 and 23).

The original VFI consisted of 30 questions subdivided into the six categories as mentioned above, providing five questions for each category. From these five questions of each category, two from each category were randomly selected for this study. The random choice seemed most appropriate because, knowing the findings in previous studies using the VFI-scale, any pre-selection of questions could be criticised to include bias to the mode of questioning.

Concerning the possible influence of the outlined techniques on the contribution made by the study, an important area of concern is the fact that VFI relies on Likert scale responses. This issue is more problematic since the original framework relies on 7-point measurements while the approach adopted by the study provides only five response options (Clary et al., 1998) (Appendix 2, Sec. 2, p. 278, Questions 12–23). Moreover, the researcher had to maintain reasonable project feasibility and mitigate the risk of survey fatigue, entailing that only 12 questions out of the original 30 embedded into the VFI paradigm were chosen for the study (Clary et al., 1998), which involved an even reduction of questions from each category to avoid categorical bias. In their quantitative study of volunteers of non-profit organisations, Garner and Garner (2011) also reduced the original VFI scale of 30 questions to 18 questions combined with a 5-point Likert scale. While the reduction from a 7-point Likert scale to a 5-point Likert

scale might limit the degree of detail, the questionnaire should maintain a continuous mode of questioning. Switching between 5-point to 7-point Likert scales would involve the risk of confusion. Therefore, a continuous 5-point Likert scale design was chosen.

The key implications of the above criticisms are that the research design choices made by the researcher ultimately serve as constraints for the explanatory power (Vonglao, 2017). At the same time, the use of a shortened VFI should facilitate the process of data interpretation.

3.11.3.2 Helping Attitude Scale (Questions 24-37)

The above critique also applies to the Helping Attitude Scale (Nickell, 1998) (Appendix 2, Section 3, p. 280), although Nickell (1998) also adopted a 5-point Likert scale. For this study, 14 out of 20 questions have been selected from Nickell's Helping Attitude Scale, deselecting the reverse-scored questions from Nickell's questionnaire for the ease of use of the questionnaire and to mitigate the risk of survey fatigue.

3.11.3.3 Questions on Support (Questions 42–52)

Research Question 2 emphasised that some techniques of organisational support could be more important than others for improving the level of motivation. This was continued in Research Question 3, which aimed to examine what specific aspects of support were implemented by the volunteering institutions existing in Bavaria. Most notably, the author was unable to find any ready-made models applicable to the volunteering setting. Thus, a custom questionnaire based on the theories of Maslow (1943), the CET, and the SDT was created for the study. The questions were further influenced by suggestions in the literature (Kedrowicz, 2013), the 7-year experience of the author from working with the BRC, and two brief pilot interviews. The choice of questions on intangible support is derived from House (1985) categorising support into emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental support.

Section 5 (Questions 42–52) finally consists of 11 self-tailored closed-ended questions with a 5-point Likert scale. This number of questions (11) was chosen to balance the length of the section with the previous sections of the questionnaire.

While Questions 42–46 relate to intangible support, Questions 47–52 focus on tangible support.

The list of items included variables concerning monetary reimbursements, social recognition, the sense of relatedness, and personal development, which were perceived as crucial by Maslow (1943) and Demir (2011). The key assertion at the core

of this decision is that organisations typically align their support activities with the needs of the personnel, thus rationalising the contents of Questions 42–52. The strength of this suggestion was supported in the analysis provided by Akgunduz, Alkan, and Gök (2018) who noted that support in modern companies was primarily based on intrinsic and external motivation, which were both discussed in Chapter 2 (p. 22) (Demir, 2011). On the other hand, the evidence provided by the authors did not focus specifically on the voluntary sector, meaning that questionnaires designed for the study may have omitted valuable factors. For instance, Kim and Park (2018) perceived the absence of gender discrimination as such an attribute.

In general, using questionnaires to evaluate the role of organisational support for volunteers is an established practice among the academics involved in this sector, which was illustrated by Akgunduz, Alkan, and Gök (2018) and Walker et al. (2016). The authors also relied on a 5-scale measurement system and questionnaire items similar to those employed in the current research project (Akgunduz et al., 2018). At the same time, there was a significant risk of bias affecting the validity of the findings for Questions 42–52. This is because perceptions of organisational support are often affected by the individual personalities of volunteers and their supervisors (Xiong & King, 2018). Moreover, the topic of organisational support is sensitive to the volunteers due to its impact on their personal experiences. As a result of this, some participants of the study may have experienced difficulties in accurately and honestly expressing their opinions using the answers included in the questionnaire (Altinoz, Cop, Cakiroglu, & Altinoz, 2016).

Like motivation, support constitutes one of the major units of analysis for the study. The responses for Questions 42–52 could have a direct impact on the contribution made by the study. This is particularly crucial for making practical suggestions for the volunteering institutions in Bavaria as well as providing valuable insight for other researchers investigating topics of volunteerism and its underlying mechanisms (Altinoz et al., 2016).

3.11.3.4 Linking Support and Retention (Questions 57–61)

The questionnaire concludes with Questions 57–61. These items directly encouraged the representatives of the sample to identify a link between support, motivation, and retention. Since each of the questions starting from Question 57 evaluated at least two research variables (e.g., monetary support and overall motivation, in the case of Question 58), these items were not investigated through the linear regression approach (Gupta, 2018). Although Questions 57–61 directly pertained to the

considerations raised by Research Question 4 (which was their key strength), it needs to be acknowledged that retention is highly challenging to appraise based on the evidence provided by the volunteers themselves. This is because the core areas of retention include a course of time and a future prediction.

3.11.4 Questionnaires – Qualitative Approach

As mentioned above, the Likert scale responses could nonetheless limit the complexity of the expressions and perspectives exhibited by the representatives of the sample to predefined answers (Hartley, 2014).

To account for the outlined shortcomings, the study participants were given the opportunity to voice their detailed opinions when presented with Questions 38–41 and 53–56, which were open-ended and were designed to be complementary to the VFI, the helping attitude frameworks, and questions on the possible relationship between support and motivation.

The open questions additionally allow for more space in defining the expected and actual levels of organisational support. However, no secondary evidence was found in support of open-ended questions being successfully used to resolve academic and practical issues in the volunteering context. Consequently, the ultimate level of reliability provided by the open questions remains uncertain, which could negatively influence the total amount of new knowledge provided by the study. However, as mentioned in Chapter 3.6.2.2 (p. 79), open questions allow for the applications of qualitative research methods enhancing insight gained from closed-ended questions.

3.11.5 Questionnaires – Mode of Questioning

The sequence of questioning may involve hindsight bias. This is particularly an issue if questionnaires include control questions focusing on the same topic. In these cases, people tend to be influenced by the answer given before. While hindsight bias cannot be entirely be eliminated (Arkes, Faust, Guilmette, & Hart, 1988), it can be reduced by asking the respondent to take different perspectives. In this study, this problem is addressed by implementing open-ended questions that provide an opportunity for respondents to openly state their opinion on issues asked within the closed-ended section of the questionnaire. Additionally, within the open-ended section, participants are asked to both take different perspectives and – besides ranking motivational factors – they were also to state demotivational factors, also referred to as ‘hygiene factors’ (Herzberg, 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman, 1959), intending to explore whether contextual factors of demotivation are present, not

present, or managed improperly which could negatively influence levels of motivation. Furthermore, SurveyMonkey was programmed to display each section of the questionnaire in a random sequence. This mode of questioning seemed most likely to mitigate the risk of hindsight bias.

3.11.6 Interviews

The main aim of the study summarised the key research questions and raised the issue of whether organisational support, volunteer motivation, and retention could be considered as elements of one holistic system. While the goal is partially addressed by the questionnaire survey, the explanatory power of this instrument of data collection could be insufficient to interpret specific phenomena: particularly, potential reasons why volunteers respond in a certain manner. Thus, semi-structured interviews with volunteer managers were implemented to complement the findings arising from the analysis of the survey evidence. The key strength of the chosen strategy of data collection was that the researcher was able to adjust the questions based on the immediate behaviour of the interviewees and thus clarify the key issues mentioned by the study participants while still maintaining some structure.

This assertion is exemplified by referring to the actual interview transcripts. For instance, one of the interviewees described volunteers who had left an organisation: *'later on they realise what they used to like, what used to be cool, and they'll just come back'*. This sentence is crucial to addressing the main goal of the study, specifically the questions of retention. Consequently, instead of switching themes, the researcher was immediately able to ask a follow-up question: *'Do you have certain structures promoting this coming back?'*. Thus, the research gained in-depth knowledge of the actions and initiatives implemented by the BRC. This insight was beneficial on its own and could also be used to supplement the questionnaire findings, further exemplifying its importance. However, only the broader interview structure allowed analysis and comparison of the opinions expressed by the interviewees.

The question remains of whether semi-structured or unstructured interviews are to be favoured. The literature seems ambiguous. While, for example, Kausel, Culbertson, and Madrid (2016) found that that unstructured interviews could hurt personnel selection decisions, Gibson (1998) – comparing unstructured to semi-structured interview techniques – emphasised a high amount of qualitative insight of unstructured interviews. On closer examination, however, it could be argued that some authors claiming an unstructured interview process did perform semi-structured interviews.

'Semi' is not equal to 50% in this regard. For example, Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace (2009) claimed an unstructured interview process, while still listing pre-set questions, suggesting that the authors' process could be considered semi-structured.

Nevertheless, no studies were found affirming the validity of unstructured interviews for the volunteering context specifically, meaning that the overall value of this paradigm is ambiguous when compared to semi-structured or fully structured interviews.

Thus, in this study, a semi-structured interview technique was used to compromise qualitative insight and flexibility, on the one hand, and maintain comparability and reduce excessive deviation from the subject on the other hand.

One major limitation of interviews as a method of gathering evidence is that the participants of the study may be reluctant to discuss information, which could negatively characterise their missions in the field (Greco, 2016). While semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to detect such topics in advance and focus on less sensitive issues during the dialogue, reticence of participants remains a possible risk to the reliability and validity of the findings (Greco, 2016). Moreover, Galvin (2015) noted that the overall contribution of interviews to the significance of a particular study was dependent on the number of interviews conducted by empirical projects. Nonetheless, the author failed to provide a specific formula for determining an appropriate interview sample size based on the scale of the investigated sector (Galvin, 2015). Other authors found that 16 or fewer interviews were sufficient to identify common themes from sites with relatively homogeneous groups (Evans & Bonneville-Roussy, 2016; Hagaman & Wutich, 2017; Wilson, 2012). Therefore, while a standard number of interviews is unknown, the final interview sample of 15 managers could be considered sufficient for the Bavarian volunteer context.

Additionally, it needs to be considered that unlike in the aforementioned pieces of literature, 15 interviews with volunteer managers at the state level are not the only primary source of primary data in this study. Considering that 770 participants have completely answered all survey questions, it seems reasonable to conclude that 15 interviews could sufficiently complement the data to be analysed.

While the focus of the questionnaire was to collect primary data from as many volunteers of the BRC and TeamBavaria as possible, benefiting from the generalisability of a large number of respondents, the emphasis of the interviews was to gain in-depth insights, being able to compare the results (see overview in Table 10). The combination of both data collection choices in one study seems, to date, *sui generis*. Within the context of the random sample of volunteers (see chapter 3.7, p. 83) and their

anonymity, it was not possible to ask volunteers for further interviews. Additionally, the study was designed to include both perspectives of volunteers and volunteer managers alike. Considering that interviewees served (at least partially) as volunteers, it seemed appropriate to ask volunteer managers of the BRC to participate in interviews.

Six of the interviewees serve as high-ranking volunteer leaders of the BRC and are not employed by the BRC. A further nine interviewees were volunteer district managers whose job is to coordinate volunteer activities with additional employment with the BRC. This choice of interviewees was made to cover a wide range of volunteers at different levels within the BRC hierarchy. Hence, the interviewees represented all of the five BRK volunteer units.

It is quite common in Germany that volunteers are also employed at their organisation if they hold administrative positions. Thus, it seemed necessary to consider this group of individuals in the study; however, no significant differences could be found within these groups. All interviewees have been promised to stay anonymous to mitigate bias due to possible social pressure.

The interview questions were developed from a brief pilot considering the most named topics referring to volunteer motivation, retention, and support. While the theoretical foundation from the literature review was used to refine the questions, the pilot stage outcome further advanced the choice of semi-structured interviews. That said, the pilot stage disclosed that while interviewees tend to choose similar topics, they expand on these topics differently. Hence, the interview questions were designed using seven leading questions and subsequent enquiry themes (see Appendix 5).

The length of the interviews ranged from 45-90 minutes. This considerable difference in length was primarily due to differing rates of speaking and focus. To gain as much insight from the interviews as possible, the author let the interviewees elaborate on a topic warily reminding them to move to the next question when this was appropriate.

All interviews were conducted and recorded in German and then transcribed using a transcription software ("Transcribe" App of DENIVIP). Each interviewee was asked for his/her consent to record the interview before the interview started. All interviewees gave their unconditional consent that has been recorded for documentation. Transcripts were translated by the author of this study from German into the English language, partially with the support of Google Translate to mitigate translating bias. However, it needs to be noted that because of a remaining risk of translating bias, the use of automated text analysing software relying on the use of particular words and

expressions of interviewees did not seem appropriate in this study. Hence, to analyse the interviews, manual coding first identified the following themes, arising from the elements of the framework of the study:

- Developed areas in which the volunteering organisations excel
- The most prominent problems or issues encountered by aid organisations
- Actions taken by the volunteering organisations to motivate their staff
- The factors influencing the overall level of motivation to volunteer
- Retention statistics for the volunteering organisations
- The perceived level of organisational support provided to the personnel
- Fields which require improvement as perceived by managers.

Further manual coding resembled the coding scheme of the qualitative datasets from the questionnaire (see chapter 4.5.1, p. 140, Table 28).

3.12 Analysing Software

To both examine quantitative and qualitative data, the author chose the MAXQDA software. Unlike, for example, NVivo, which focuses on qualitative analysis, and SPSS, which is a tool for in-depth statistical analysis of quantitative data, MAXQDA has the benefit of enabling the author to use both quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

Being able to use both quantitative and qualitative data analysis, MAXQDA has limitations compared to specialised software such as, for example, NVivo and SPSS. For example, NVivo can perform a sentiment analysis of interviews where the software analysis text automatically. Furthermore, it needs to be considered that machine-assisted text-chunk processing could be inaccurate in determining emotions: therefore, sentiment examination is only used as complementary evidence (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018). Furthermore, the researcher was unable to find any examples of NVivo being successfully leveraged in volunteerism research (Wang et al., 2018). The researcher found these specialised tools inappropriate for this study because any automatic (or to some extent non- or semi-automatic) text analysis relies on original text data. Additionally, the interviews were held in German and were translated by the author into English. Although the author attempted to translate the interviews as objectively as possible, some bias may have been introduced, which could exacerbate the possible flaws of automatic text analysis. Therefore, although sophisticated

automated qualitative text analysis has limitations, it could also increase bias. For qualitative data analysis, there is no need for highly advanced software equipped with automatic text analysis functions.

Compared to SPSS, MAXQDA has limitations concerning statistical analysis. However, as discussed previously in Chapter 3 (p. 59), this study uses a mixed-method research approach that does not rely on an in-depth statistical analysis, which is prone to oversimplifying the meaning of responses when ascribing quantitative value to opinions. Within a mixed-method approach, statistical analysis does play a role, albeit embedded within a qualitative analysis.

The main benefit of the mixed-method approach is that this study can rely on the specific aspects relevant to the Research Questions 1 through 4, both quantitative (multiple-choice-questions) and qualitative (open-ended questions) and the explanations of interviewees why specific answers might have been favoured by other participants answering the questions asked in the questionnaire. MAXQDA was able to facilitate mixed-method analysis and was therefore used to present the findings of the study. It was complemented using SPSS when certain functions were not accessible in MAXQDA.

Bar charts and descriptive statistics tables serve as the main instruments of presentation for quantitative evidence. Bar charts are most frequently used for defining the sample characteristics since these factors are distinct. In contrast, motivating factors and organisational support are elements of broader questionnaire systems, placing a higher degree of emphasis on descriptive statistics.

3.13 Conclusions

Briefly, the research process comprised the following stages:

After having selected the research area of volunteering due to professional and personal interest, the research questions, aim, and objectives were formulated and revised. The further research process should be in line with these research questions.

A critical literature review was conducted utilising secondary data sources such as books and journals, including online articles and websites portraying a broad diversity in the field of research.

Regarding the philosophical approach, while at first glance constructivism and realism seem contradictory, it is worth attempting to reconcile the conceptual aspects of these paradigms, accepting that there is both an objective reality determined by the laws of

physics (although even physics does not provide a 'theory of everything') and a subjective world created by the human mind. Proceeding from this ontology and considering the markedly discrepant data in the existing literature, it is reasonable to assume that more basic research is needed to explore volunteerism.

In such an area of research with diverse results, it was concluded that an inductive research approach will be favoured to better understand volunteerism before more specific and useful results can be formulated.

In line with the above-mentioned ontology, a mixed-method research design seems most likely to include primary data gathered from different perspectives considering different data collection methods. After conducting a brief pilot to avoid misunderstandings concerning the questions included in the questionnaire, a survey consisting of a total of 61 questions (50 closed-ended and eight open-ended) was issued to all Bavarian volunteers with ties to the BRC, who were registered with an email address. The questionnaire consists of seven sections:

1. Demographics (closed-ended Questions 1–11),
2. Volunteer inventory function (closed-ended Questions 12–23),
3. Helping Attitude Scale (closed-ended Questions 24–37),
4. Personal favours regarding motivation (open-ended Questions 38–41),
5. Expected vs. received support (closed-ended Questions 42–52),
6. Personal favours regarding support (open-ended Questions 53–56),
7. Support and motivation and motivation and retention (closed-ended Questions 57–61).

A total of 995 volunteers responded by answering the questionnaire while 770 provided answers to all 61 questions.

Subsequently, 15 interviews were conducted with volunteer managers without presenting questionnaire data to interviewees, providing a different perspective.

Regarding the methodology of analysis, it has been suggested in this chapter that in the field of social sciences, statistical analysis is prone to oversimplification: not due to statistics itself but because the process of converting subjective opinions into numbers simulates objectivity where there is in fact little. It is questionable whether it is reasonable to assume that results derived from sophisticated statistical analysis would provide a better understanding than an interpretive analysis of key issues to be discovered. However, statistics may, indeed, be helpful when considered to be one element within a broader scope of analysis exploring the meaning behind a set of data. Hence, in this study, it seems appropriate to employ only basic statistical analysis

embedded in a mixed-method study, balancing quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis of quantitative data from closed-ended sections of the questionnaire, qualitative data from open-ended sections, and 15 interviews.

4 Findings – Factors of Motivation Amongst Bavarian Volunteers

4.1 Introduction

The following Chapters 4 and 5 present the primary data collected through questionnaires (closed and open-ended questions) and interviews.

After presenting demographic and basic variables of the participants, the overall structure of the findings consists of the following main themes, which are derived from three research questions:

1. Motivating factors among Bavarian volunteers,
2. Organisational support in the BRC context,
3. The relationship between support, motivation, and retention.

Table 10 outlines the structure of the findings in more detail (see next page): essentially, Chapter 4 deals with Research Question 1 while Chapter 5 (p. 156) refers to Research Questions 2 and 3.

Research Question/Topic: What impact do the level and various approaches to volunteer support have on volunteer motivation to increase levels of volunteer retention in the Bavarian Red Cross?						
Questions	Question 1 Motivating factors		Question 2 Support Factors		Question 3 Support Implemented	Question 4 Relationships
	topics	perspectives	topics	perspectives	topics	perspectives
Observations from data	Questionnaire & Interviews	Personal needs (from VFI)	Volunteers (VFI) Managers (itw)	synthesis	Expected Intangible support	volunteers managers synth
		Dedication to cause (from VFI)	Volunteers (VFI) Managers (itw)	synthesis	Expected Tangible support	volunteers managers synth
		Peer pressure (from VFI)	Volunteers (VFI) Managers (itw)	synthesis	Expected Favouring intangible or tangible support	volunteers managers synth
		Career (from VFI)	Volunteers (VFI) Managers (itw)	synthesis		
	Questionnaire (closed-ended Qs)	HAS	Volunteers (VFI)	synthesis		
Patterns/ Conclusions	Questionnaire (open-ended Qs) & interviews	Top-motivation	Volunteers Managers (itw)	synthesis	Received support is ... and this related to expected support ...	Relationships are ...
		Top-demotivation	Volunteers Managers (itw)	synthesis		
		Motivating factors are ...		Expected support factors are... and ... are to be favoured		

Table 10: Structure of Chapters 4 and 5

Considering the inductive research approach and the diversity found in the literature, primary data regarding factors of motivation will be presented from multiple perspectives in this Chapter providing a synthesis of the qualitative and quantitative data:

First, volunteer responses to Section 2 of the questionnaire (VFI) will be categorised according to the following primary themes:

- volunteering as a response to personal emotional needs,
- dedication to the cause,
- peer pressure, and
- career.

Within this structure, the answers of volunteers are compared to the opinion of managers (interviews) while assessing possible discrepancies to provide a deeper understanding of motivation factors.

Concerning the literature (Dunn et al., 2016; Planalp & Trost, 2009b), there seems to be a strong emphasis on 'helping' to be a factor for motivation which is not sufficiently addressed by the VFI. Hence, the data of Section 3 (HAS) will be presented to assess the helping attitude of volunteers, which will be used as an indicator of intrinsic motivation.

Finally, to mitigate the risk that volunteers could not freely express their individual favourite factors of motivation within the constraints of a questionnaire, volunteers were to express their opinion in an open-ended setup. To improve reliability, these answers are here back-tested by questions from demotivating factors (hygiene factors). Additionally, to further mitigate the risk of social pressure, volunteers were asked to state their opinion on what other individuals think to be factors of motivation and demotivation. Although seemingly complex, this research design yields a holistic picture of motivating factors of volunteers including the perspective of managers.

These findings should identify, in a relatively objective manner, the most motivating factors for volunteers. Due to the complexity and extent of data and the presentation of demographic attributes, the entirety of Chapter 4 is dedicated to presenting motivating factors.

However, before presenting the findings regarding factors of motivation, the sample demographics are first introduced.

4.2 Key Demographic Attributes of the Questionnaire Sample

Demographics are the statistical characteristics of the sample. It is necessary to first introduce the sample in terms of its demographic attributes because if a sample differs excessively from the general population, issues of limitations for generalisability could arise. Furthermore, demographics and variables of the sample could yield additional important information necessary to answer the research questions.

Demographic data provides the base data necessary to quantify the sample. It could pinpoint the needs of particular groups, enabling projections and decisions based on these needs. It could, as well, provide necessary information about whether – or to what extent – the sample demographics represent the overall Bavarian population. While, according to the research questions, demographic differences (such as gender differences) are not the main matter under consideration in this research, demographic data serves primarily to assess generalisability. If, however, demographic data is likely to yield further insight answering the research questions, it will be used in this study to identify different needs of particular groups. Hence, every research question could yield entirely different answers when subdividing the relevant sample according to demographic attributes where this seems suitable.

The overall sample population was members or affiliated volunteers of the BRC and TeamBavaria.

In this study, six basic demographic variables were collected, namely gender, age, marital status, educational qualification, employment, and income. Additionally, due to potential employee overlap between TeamBavaria and BRC, which could imply bias, participants were asked if they are employed at the BRC. Four more questions referred to the status of the level of volunteering.

Concerning basic demographical characteristics of the sample, pie charts are more useful compared to bar charts because pie charts are superior for displaying parts of a sum.

4.2.1 Gender

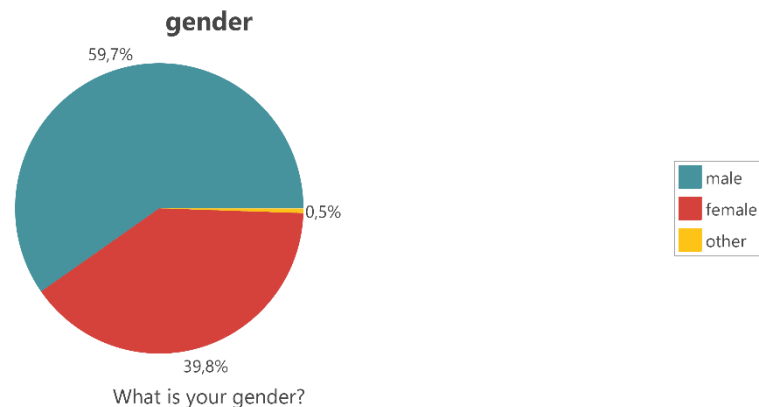


Figure 6: Gender

Figure 6 demonstrates that 59.7% of the sample were male while 39.8% were female. This distribution contradicts statistical data in Germany showing that 52.7% of volunteers are female with a total female population of 50.7% (statista, 2018). The age structure of the sample could indicate a higher tendency among men within the BRC to volunteer in Bavaria, thus raising the importance of the motivating factors that are specific for this gender.

Nonetheless, the strength of this assertion remains uncertain.

When asked about gender-related priorities, one (female) interviewee also mentioned an ongoing presence of elderly male volunteers, indicating that male attitudes tend to be less important in the process of volunteering:

We have a men's table in the retirement home because men do not want to communicate so openly. I also recruited these people from the blood donation events to help me. In the beginning, the men stubbornly played cards. They actually stayed with their group with themselves. But at least they meet – even in a nursing home – and the woman at home does not scold. There, they are men. If I then seek help, for example putting up tables, then the nature of the men changes. It's no longer about playing cards but working with the group, the community. There they can tell stories. Later on, they also mingle with women. It's not a men's table anymore. In the nursing home, that is so cute, they get to know each other, they even fall in love again and have their friends with them. In the meantime, we have a big room. Men get softer when working with us.

A male dominance could also have historic reasons, which appear to be changing gradually towards a balanced gender distribution. At the same time a (male) interviewee pointed out that there is, however, still a robust male dominance among volunteer managers.

My experience is that we have a balance between men and women. Formerly this was different. It used to be very male-dominated, and there was a separation between men and women. I think, however, that volunteer managers are still probably 85% male. This is still an issue that we have to address in the future. We have very strong women, but men still dominate the leadership positions.

Another interviewee confirms the finding that gender distribution among volunteers seems to be somewhat balanced, but males dominate leadership positions.

Equal telling from the number of members. But in management and leadership positions you are almost alone as a woman. It's very drastic. If you look at the statistics, then the ratio is 50:50, but regarding management positions, it is very male dominant.

From the perspective of receiving motivation or passive motivation, gender specifics do not seem to play a significant role. However, volunteer managers are mainly responsible to motivate volunteers actively. When asked if local supervisors are responsible for motivating volunteers an interviewee clearly stated,

Yes indeed. If supervisors don't do a good job, volunteer motivation is lacking. If supervisors are very motivating, this affects volunteer motivation positively.

Hence, as the data and the interviewees' statements show that most of the volunteer managers are male, supporting the motivation of male volunteers could be worthwhile regarding retention. On the other hand, focusing on male motivation would disregard the apparent need to motivate more female volunteers considering that the overall gender distribution in Bavaria is almost equally balanced. While this study is not particularly focused on exploring gender differences, it should still be noted that the sample includes a 10-percentage-points male bias compared to the general German population, indicating limitations for generalisations. However, in further consideration of this deviation from the German population, the graphs in Appendix 3 (p. 287) clarify that male and female survey responses to Questions 12 to 23 are almost equally balanced, not replicating the 10-percentage-point bias. The significant difference between 'other' gender needed to be rejected because only two persons indicated 'other' gender, which is an insufficient value for further assessment.

Hence, it seems unlikely that a lack of correlation between the sample and the general German population could lead to a considerable limitation for generalisations.

4.2.2 Age and Marital Status

Figure 7 portrays the age distribution of the sample. Although national statistical data indicates that a rather high percentage (23.1%) of the German volunteers are over 70 years old (statista, 2018), age groups of the sample population are quite evenly distributed. Notably, elderly volunteers in the sample are represented to a lesser degree (7.8%). The reason for this might be the electronic survey and limited access of seniors to the internet. Hence, the fact that only 7.8% of the participants were over 65 years old does not necessarily mean that there are only a few elderly volunteers within the BRC as technical obstacles might have influenced participation.

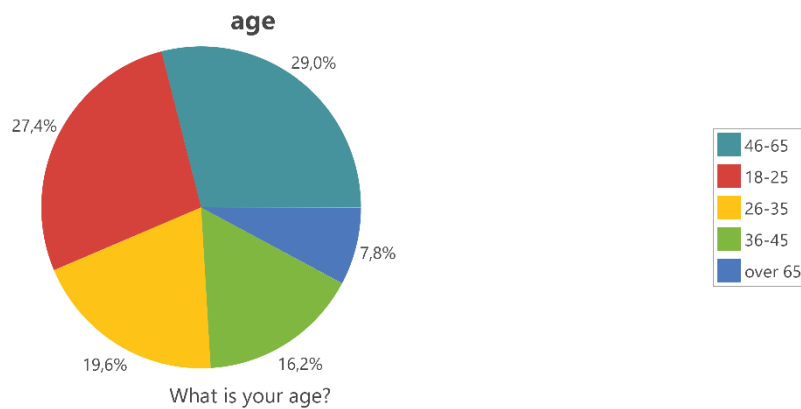


Figure 7: Age

Interesting results were attained for age, as although 48% of the sample were younger than 35 years old, 29% of the respondents selected the answer '46–65'. This raises the possibility that the initial reasons for volunteering are dependent on the amount of free time possessed by an individual or other factors. For participants not older than 65 years, the age groups of 26–35 and 36–45 years old only represented between 16.2% and 19.6% of the total – summing to 35.8% – compared to both the younger (18–25) and the middle-aged (46–65), ranging proportionately higher at 56.4%.

Concerning marital status (Figure 8), the majority of the sample was evenly (47%, respectively, for each of the response options) split between being single or being married.

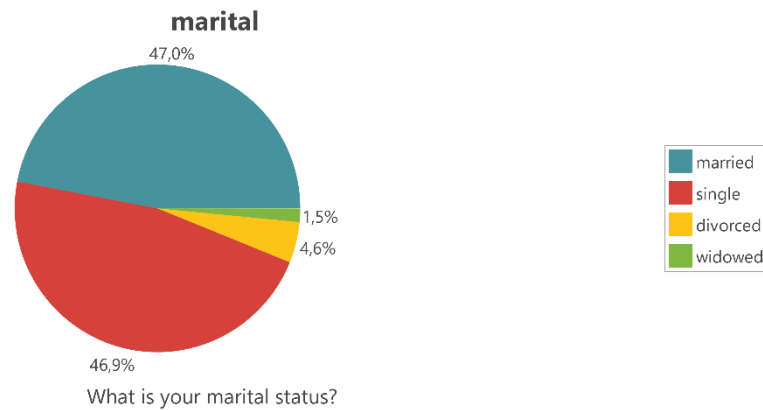


Figure 8: Marital status

It is inferred that volunteerism did not correlate with marital status, potentially lowering the significance of organisational support actions linked to maintaining a work-family balance.

Several interviewees addressed this decrease in volunteering related to the age group of 26–45 years. They pointed out that in this age range, life priorities of volunteers are shifting and volunteering becomes less important.

At the Jugendrotkreuz [youth division of the Red Cross] they come to us at the age of 6 or 8 years. If they were older than 16–18, and they could be turned towards service, there is another focus: girlfriend, boyfriend, education or study, and then suddenly there's no time for volunteering. After all, we can be happy when they find their way back to us at age 30 or 35.

Professional careers and earning money seem to be more important for these age groups than volunteering:

Older people often have sufficient funds. The current pensioners do actually quite well. Younger people are more dependent on money. But with us, there are no allowances. Rather, we then do without these volunteers. For blood donations, we get 2 euros per donor, and we have to get along with that. With these funds, I have to support the team, the donors and our people. In addition, we organise a Christmas party every year.

We also pay partially if someone cannot afford a visit to the theatre for example. But we do not pay for the volunteer work.

This is supported by the data in Appendix 4 regarding answers to Questions 12–23: while most questions were answered similarly, the importance of volunteering for one's CV is more important for younger volunteers, which is supported by Leal et al. (2013).

Another interviewee noted that it is important to keep people motivated so that they at least return after they have settled:

Yes, likewise we are offering, of course, our youth work, education, basic courses, and so on. Of course, we also try to motivate them to volunteer in the water rescue teams, so that they stay with us. That works fine, so a quarter of all our active members are under 27. That's not bad at all. The difficult age is the age between 16 and 18. So most join with ages of 6 or 10 years, then stay with us for about 10 years, they come every week, they are super dedicated, and get to know a lot. Then, you're 16, you have your first boyfriend, you go to college or you get light in the head. It's just the phase of life, and that's the biggest challenge for us to retain people at this age. Once they've turned 18 or 19 or so, and they've settled, retention is not a problem anymore, then they will continue volunteering. Those who come back to us, they usually stay with us until they are old.

On the other hand, one interviewee also emphasised that not only people who are financially settled volunteer but also poor people hoping to obtain food:

I know studies that suggest this. Very poor people, of course, emphasise different aspects of their life as Maslow is portraying. From this point of view, this is all clear: if you have difficulties to earn enough money for food, you don't have much time for self-fulfilment. Maybe this person has different motives than wealthy people. Elder persons may also like volunteering because they get something to eat.

When asked how volunteer managers can address these problems, most interviewees admitted that there are few organisational structures to motivate volunteers who were leaving.

Currently, when you move to another city and want to join the local group, you first have to show what kind of training you've passed. This way, you shed a lot of people. That does not work well. We want to start changing that.

Another interviewee stated,

There is no specific structure to provide for the information, although theoretically there is a very good network within the district associations.

Concerning the motivation of volunteers, it may be concluded that it is particularly difficult to motivate volunteers within the age group of 18–35-year-olds because their priority is shifting towards a professional career.

4.2.3 Education, Employment, and Income

Concerning education (Figure 9), the vast majority of the study participants have either a university degree (33%) or a certificate of secondary education and lower (42%). This finding is supported by national statistics (statista, 2018) also indicating that volunteers seem to have a higher education compared to the general public.

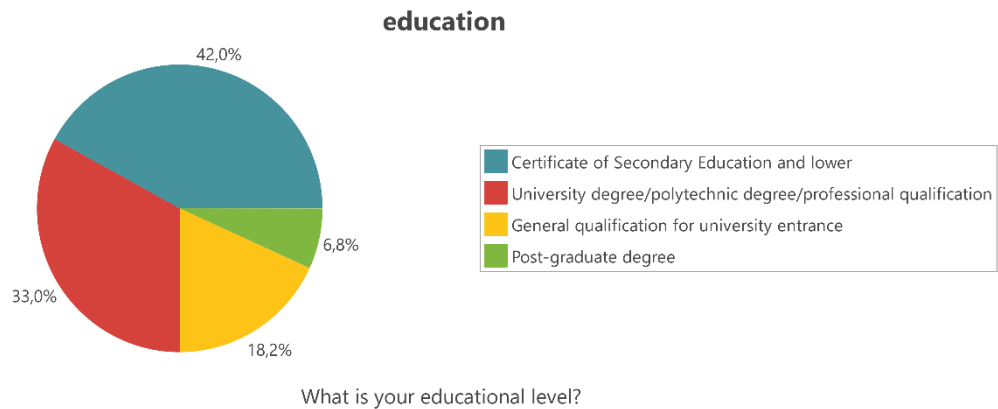


Figure 9: Level of education

A crucial point regarding the conditions affecting the Bavarian volunteers was that 66.8% of the sample reported that they were employed for more than 14 hours a week (Figure 10).

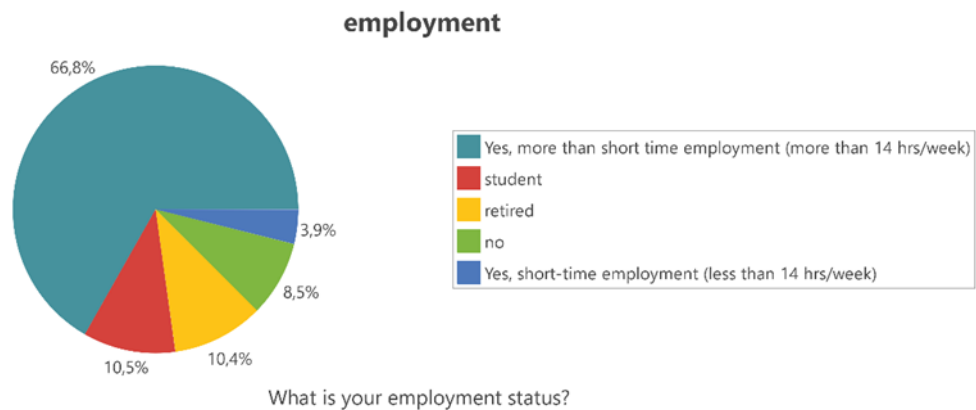


Figure 10: Status of employment

Because the questionnaire addressed volunteers of the BRC, employees may have felt socially pressured not only to work for but also to volunteer for the Red Cross. Hence, they were asked whether they were employed with the Red Cross.

As shown in Figure 11, this was not the case for a majority (83.5%) of the respondents. The BRC did not employ most of the respondents. Hence, participants did not

perceive volunteering as being something they ought to do because they are employed with the Red Cross but engage in volunteering regardless, although 66.8% are fully employed elsewhere.

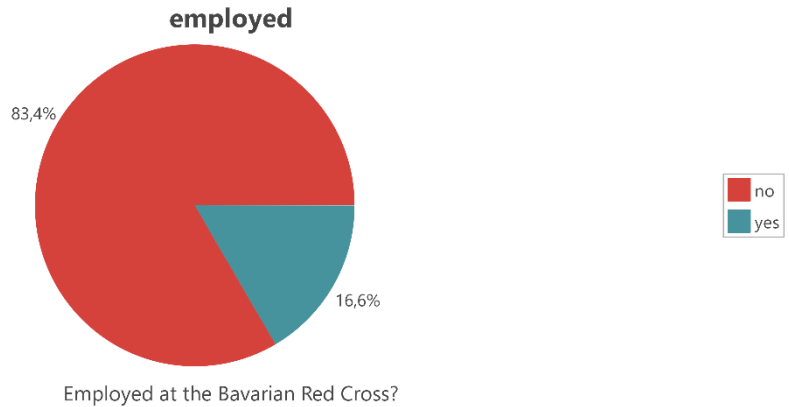


Figure 11: Employment at the BRC

A possible explanation for this result regarding the sample structure is that the surveyed individuals did not perceive volunteering as a means of spending their free time (like retirees or unemployed persons) but were instead motivated by higher-order factors. That said, a stronger link with the existing literature is needed to verify this.

Overall, the sample volunteered despite having a comparatively low quantity of free time available, instead of the opposite being true.

This argument seems to be supported by the individual annual income of the sample. A cumulative total equal to 66.8% of the respondents selected the response option '€20,001–€45,000' or answers indicating higher wages (Figure 12).

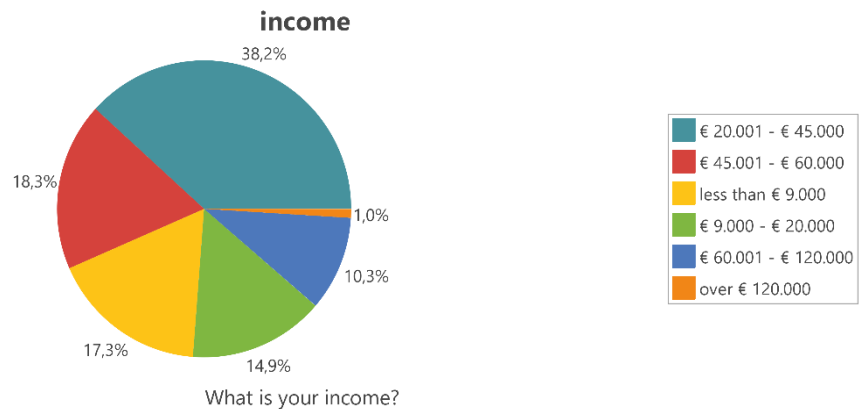


Figure 12: Income

4.2.4 Membership, Retention, Frequency, and Time Volunteering

Regarding membership groups, it needs to be clarified that the examined population and therefore the (random) sample in this study were members of the BRC, however non-members had the opportunity to participate in the study as well. Hence, it is not surprising that most respondents (84.6%) were members of the BRC as demonstrated in Figure 13.

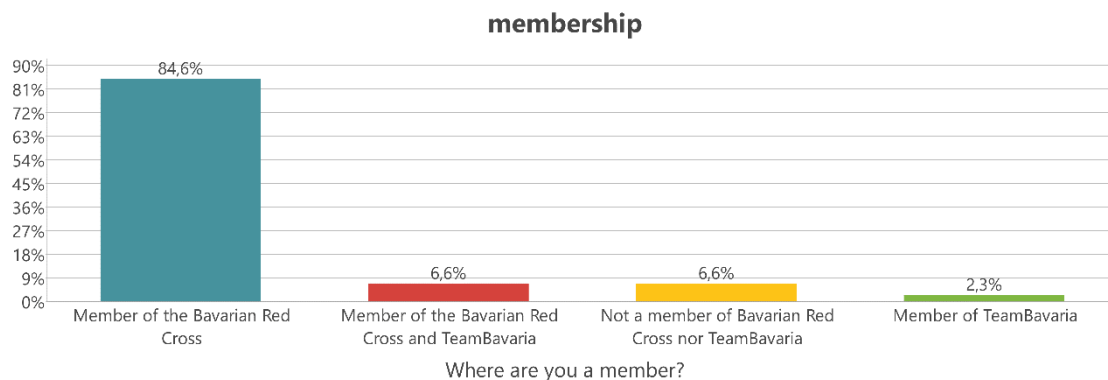


Figure 13: Where are you a member?

The different membership groups could yield interesting analysis results when used as a filter to differentiate motivating factors and demand for support, but organisational support for non-members seems limited.

However, it needs to be noted that 13 of the 15 interviewees confirmed that episodic volunteering would increase in the future, a notion which is also supported in the literature (Brayley et al., 2014; Dunn et al., 2016).

Most of the interviewees reported that the organisation is not well prepared for this development:

We need to realise that there are a lot of episodic unbound volunteers we need to give more importance. It is wrong that we demand significant training before volunteers can start volunteering. We need to recognise all the skills volunteers already have. We must not overstrain volunteers with too much work. We have to recognise the gap between digital volunteers, digital natives, and the elderly like me. We need to introduce smaller specialised groups of volunteers so that they are motivated within the group. We need to grant responsibilities to volunteers and provide opportunities to help, for example, at concerts, maybe with some supervision, to bind them to the organisation. We

haven't succeeded doing all this. We also need IT specialists or lawyers and need to provide volunteering opportunities for everybody.

We need to understand that volunteers who volunteer for 25 years are decreasing. If people volunteer, for example, for 2 years, we need the instruments to deal with this development.

There is a strong argument among volunteer managers that episodic volunteers do not fit into the organisational structures of the Red Cross, requiring a certain level of training before a volunteer can start volunteering.

Yes, this is a problem for us. Our leaders cannot cope with episodic volunteers. In their view, volunteers need to pass basic training before they can volunteer. The episodic volunteers, however, want to start right away without passing training first. This is a problem. Some local chapters, however, have learned quite well how to include episodic volunteers. I think we need to improve here. Episodic volunteers will increase. Like with floods or other catastrophes – they want to help, but other than that we don't want to deal with a membership. They don't care about the Red Cross – it could be any other organisation. Even without any organisation, they'd volunteer and help. Right now, the Red Cross is still strong, but today, volunteers don't care that much about the organisation.

However, TeamBavaria is an example of how episodic volunteers can be organised and can therefore be reached to provide support for these groups of volunteers as well.

TeamBavaria is a good instrument. We support this by developing the new Digital TeamBavaria. This is awesome. We do some kind of basic assessment of people and collect basic data on what skills people have and match these skills to volunteering opportunities. We are very modern and have groups working with drones and many volunteers working with modern technology. This is how we show everybody a fast and easy way how they can volunteer. It is very important that we realise that in the ambulance services volunteers will not be needed soon, because this area is more and more professionalised. The medical qualifications you need working in the ambulance services are constantly increasing, so this is not an area where the 'everybody'-volunteer can start working right away as you cannot immediately start working in a hospital without any qualification.

Although the study emphasised members of the BRC, it is interesting to explore the differences between these groups of volunteers in their responses. However, the considerably low response rate of participants who are only members of TeamBavaria compared to those who are also BRC members would not yield reasonable results.

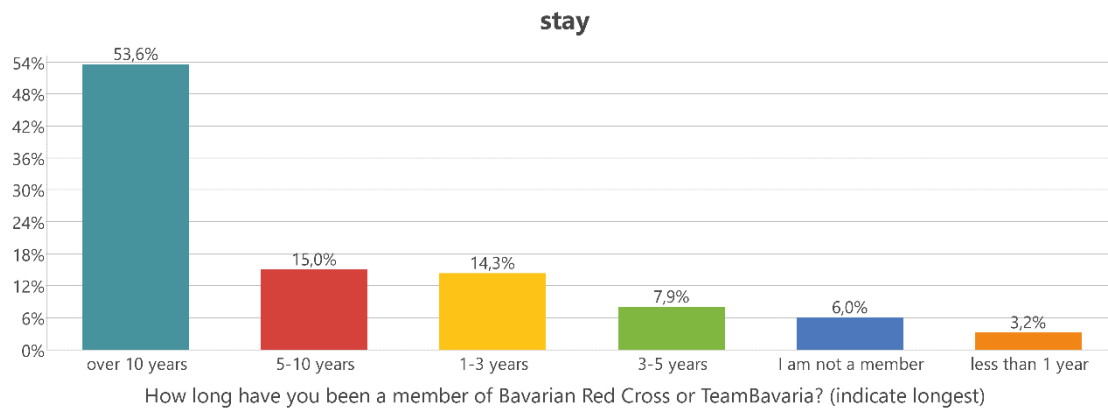


Figure 14: Retention

As shown in Figure 14, 53.6% of the sample reported that the length of their volunteering record was 10 years or more. This positively reflects on the quality of the study's findings as the surveyed individuals are arguably knowledgeable about the organisational support practices implemented by their chosen institutions and sufficiently self-aware regarding their motivation. This point is further reinforced by the fact that the surveyed individuals mostly volunteered weekly (57.6%), which is highlighted in Figure 15.

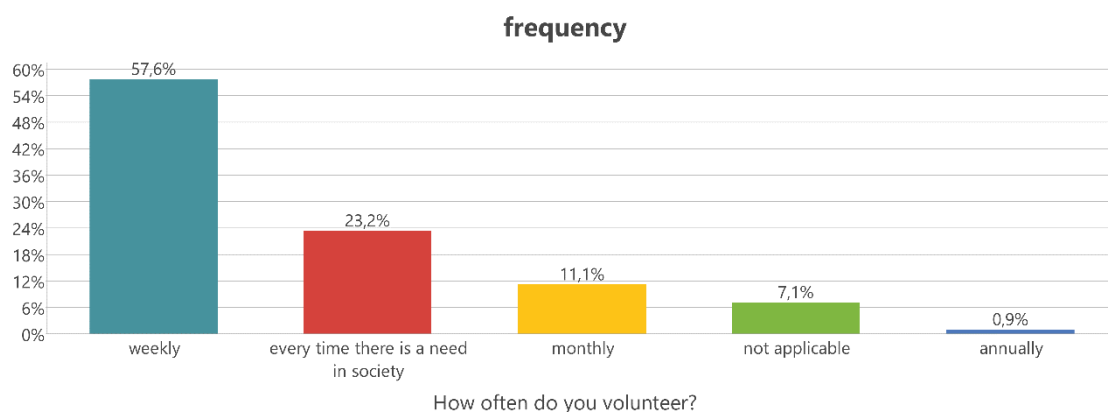


Figure 15: Frequency of volunteering

Although most respondents state that they volunteer weekly, 23.2% of them want to volunteer 'every time there is a need in society'. This supports the notion of the

interviewees that episodic volunteering is increasing, which needs to be addressed when assessing volunteer support, in contrast to the current organisational system of the BRC which does not address episodic volunteering specifically.

While the former demographic questions are being assessed independently, the fact that the responses concerning the frequency of volunteering may differ significantly between the various volunteers also needs to be accounted for. At the same time, the possible negative impact of this shortcoming on the validity of the outcomes is minimised by the fact that 38.9% of the study participants additionally dedicated between 5 and 10 hours per week when volunteering (Figure 16), exemplifying their commitment to the cause and the level of knowledge developed concerning the key phenomena investigated in the study.

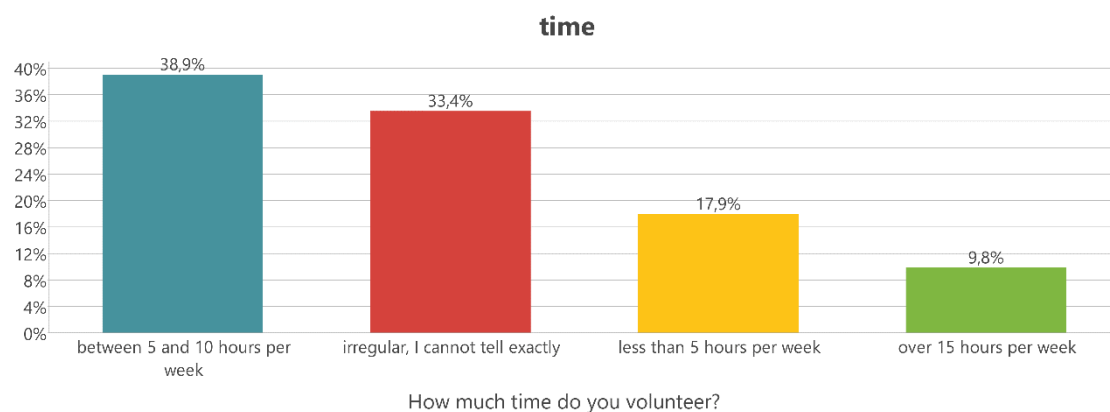


Figure 16: Time volunteering

Nevertheless, it seems ambiguous whether the sample composition is sufficient to address the generalisability problems for a larger population (e.g., all German or Bavarian volunteers) arising from relying on random sampling by primarily asking members of the BRC. However, as this study focuses on the BRC, and a majority of respondents are members of the BRC, this shortcoming is notable but acceptable.

4.2.5 Summary

Compared to the general German population, the sample of this study differs considerably in some respects. Apparently due to the electronic survey, participants over 65 constituted only 7.8% of the sample compared to a quota of 23.1% of volunteers being over 70 years old in Germany. In contrast, regarding gender, marital status, education, income, and employment, the sample of this study resembled the general population. A majority of the sample indicated not being employed with the BRC,

which mitigates a particular bias because of particular duties of good faith towards the employer.

It needs to be noted, however, that most of the participants in this study had volunteered on a regular basis for quite a long time (over 10 years), which could impose a bias on the findings, because previous studies found that factors of motivations could change over time (Deci et al., 1999; Okun, 1994).

It is also noteworthy that due to the strong majority of BRC members compared to low numbers of non-members and 'only TeamBavaria' members of the sample, a reliable comparison between these different groups is not necessarily expected to yield useful results.

The following section evaluates the importance of the established factors of motivation by the questionnaire respondents. Research Question 1 on existing motivating factors could be answered combining findings collected from questionnaire data of Section 2 (VFI – multiple-choice questions), Section 3 (HAS), and Section 4 (open questions), including the interviews. While questionnaire data represents the perspective of volunteers, findings of the interviews of volunteer managers provide a different viewpoint, adding to the quality of the outcomes. Hence, in presenting the findings, a synthesis of qualitative and quantitative data will be provided.

4.3 Volunteer Function Inventory

At first, this section serves to introduce to the collected data from the VFI. As outlined in Chapter 3.11.3.1 (p. 93), a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important) was used to assess the answers.

Variable	N	Mean	SD (samp.)	Variance (samp.)	Median	Missing	Missing (%)
12. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	815	2.84	1.141	1.302	3.00	180	18.09
13. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	817	2.69	1.158	1.342	3.00	178	17.89
14. I feel compassion towards people in need.	818	4.12	0.777	0.604	4.00	177	17.79
15. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	819	4.26	0.743	0.552	4.00	176	17.69
16. I can make new contacts that might	814	2.98	1.197	1.432	3.00	181	18.19

help my business or career.							
17. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	813	2.74	1.267	1.606	3.00	182	18.29
18. My friends volunteer.	822	3.36	1.066	1.137	3.00	173	17.39
19. People I'm close to want me to volunteer	814	2.16	1.072	1.150	2.00	180	18.1
20. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	816	3.21	1.084	1.176	3.00	179	17.99
21. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	817	4.13	0.765	0.585	4.00	178	17.89
22. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	818	3.74	0.951	0.904	4.00	177	17.79
23. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	817	3.68	0.968	0.937	4.00	178	17.89

Table 11: VFI (descriptive statistics)

The opinions provided by the research sample concerning the VFI are displayed in Table 11. For a brief reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to assess the internal consistency of the subscale scores. The internal consistency of the questionnaire is satisfying, with Cronbach's alpha for positive affect equal to 0.825.

Regarding the VFI categories 'protective' (Questions 12 and 13) and 'career' (Questions 16 and 17), a median of 3.00 indicates that participants were undecided whether this is an important factor for motivation, while the mean discloses a slight tendency towards unimportance regarding questions 12 and 13 ('protective').

The VFI categories 'values' (Questions 14 and 15) and 'enhancement' (Questions 22 and 23) seem to be the most motivating factors, with 'values' prevailing as the variance and SD are lower than for 'enhancement' factors.

Social factors (Questions 18 and 19) tend to play the least motivating role as there is only a median of 2.00 (unimportant) relating to Question 19. This seems to represent the lowest rating of all questions in Section 2.

Deducing from the plain data of the VFI based on the VFI's categories and the median numbers, the ranking is as follows (from most to least important):

1. Values
2. Enhancement
3. Understanding
4. Career
5. Protective
6. Social Factors

In particular, the latter finding regarding social factors could be disputed. Question 19 suggests that people are being encouraged to volunteer by family and friends. This seemingly peer pressure factor could contradict the notion of volunteering being defined by being able to freely decide whether one should engage volunteering or not. Any pressure by friends and family to volunteer seems to oppose the basic idea of volunteering. Hence, before ruling out social factors as critical motivating factors, it is worthwhile assessing whether further findings support the quantitative results of the VFI.

In order to attain further insights into the underlying dynamics of the data, the findings should be interpreted after consideration of demographic attributes.

Appendix 3 graphically displays responses to Questions 11 to 23, sorted by demographic traits.

In summary, there is a high level of consistency within the answers for each trait. Hence, while it needs to be considered that this is not a longitudinal study, the results suggest that demographic traits do not considerably influence the motivation to volunteer. Minor differences in responses within one demographic group seemed consistent with explanations which have been already assessed. For example, young people indicate that volunteering is more important for their CV than for the elderly. The same common sense applies, for example, to the answers of widows or single or divorced persons (compared to people with partners) who wanted to volunteer in order to feel less lonely. Regarding income, the findings in Appendix 3 (p. 293) indicate that poor people had significantly higher levels of motivation throughout the VFI questions than people earning more income. Furthermore, the findings in Appendix 3 confirm that there seems to be a correlation between motivation and frequency of

volunteering. Hence, the findings in Appendix 3 in summary, did not reveal unexpected or contradictory results – at least at first glance.

Regarding the issue of ‘selecting on the dependent variable’ raised in Chapter 3.7 (p. 83), differences need to be analysed in the context of different groups of volunteers.

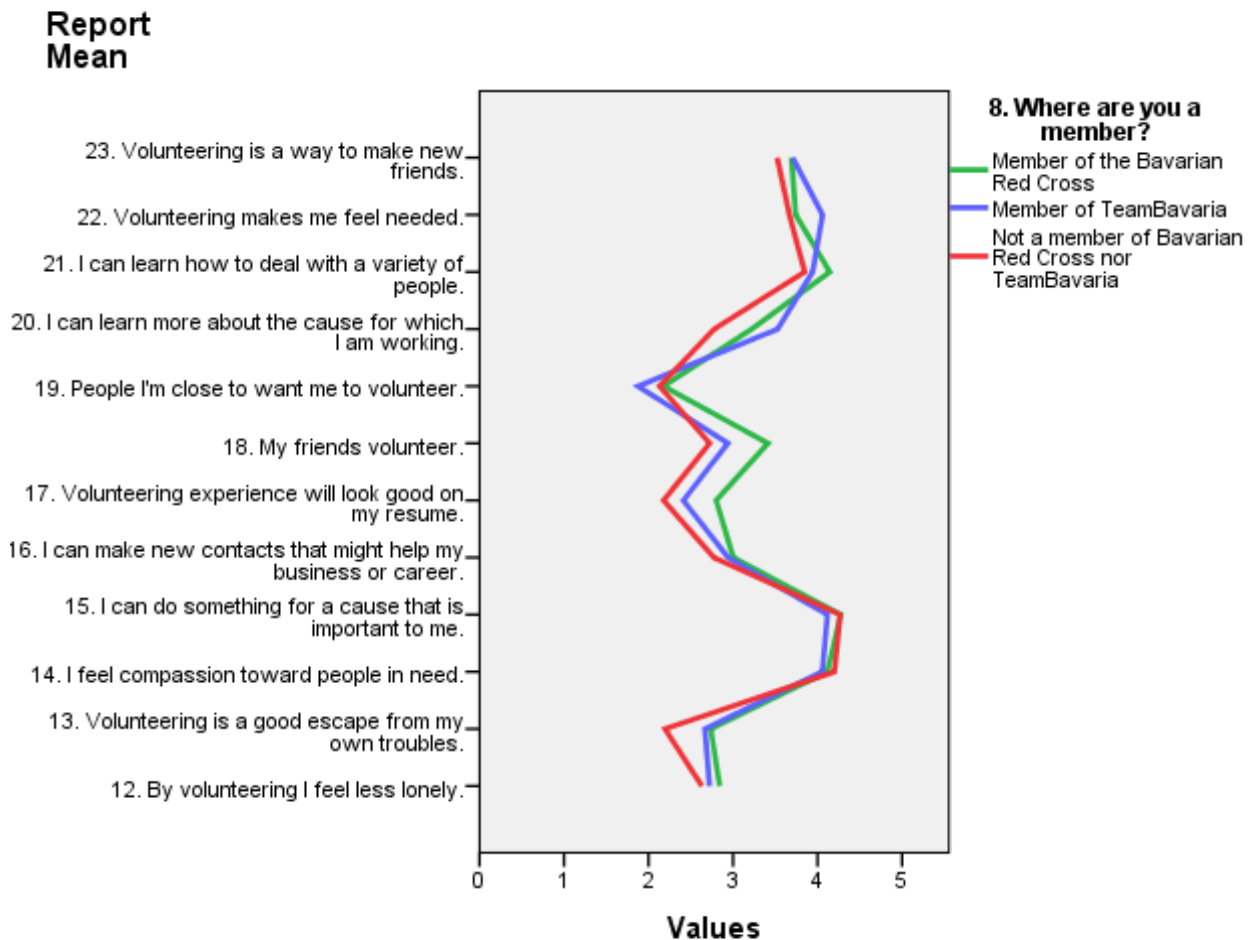


Figure 17: Crosstab VFI × Membership

Figure 17 reflects the strength of motivation according to the VFI relative to (non-) membership groups. As a result, this figure underscores the plausibility that volunteers (in terms of BRC members) are more motivated than non-volunteers (in terms of non-members). Hence, there is ample justification for motivation being plausibly related to volunteering. If BRC members were not motivated, they would likely have scored lower than non-members which is not the case according to Figure 17.

4.3.1 Volunteering as a Response to Personal Emotional Needs

Addressing the choice of the researcher that in this study not all of the questions of the original VFI were selected (see Chapter 3.11.3.1, p. 93), categories of Clary et al.

(1998) were rearranged to the VFI's thematic relations suggested by Gilbert et al. (2017). In this section, the theme of personal emotional needs is addressed, starting with the perspective of volunteers, followed by the perspective of managers, and concluding with a synthesis of both perspectives.

Questions 12, 22, and 23 could be designated as 'volunteering as a response to personal emotional needs'.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	128	12.9	15.7	15.7
	Unimportant	159	16.0	19.5	35.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	301	30.3	36.9	72.1
	Important	166	16.7	20.4	92.5
	Very important	61	6.1	7.5	100.0
	Total	815	81.9	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	180	18.1		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 12: 'By volunteering I feel less lonely' (descriptive statistics, Question 12)

Table 12 shows that volunteering made respondents feel less lonely, but only to a moderate degree, as a rather high percentage of the individuals were undecided (36.9%) as well as only 20.4% of the participants selecting the response option 'Important', and only 7.5% the option 'very important'.

At the same time, the reverse was true when the study participants evaluated whether volunteering made them feel needed or volunteering was a platform for making new friends.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	23	2.3	2.8	2.8
	Unimportant	54	5.4	6.6	9.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	204	20.5	24.9	34.4
	Important	369	37.1	45.1	79.5
	Very important	168	16.9	20.5	100.0
	Total	818	82.2	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	176	17.7		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	177	17.8		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 13: 'Volunteering makes me feel needed' (descriptive statistics, Question 22)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	25	2.5	3.1	3.1
	Unimportant	61	6.1	7.5	10.5
	Neither important nor unimportant	222	22.3	27.2	37.7
	Important	351	35.3	43.0	80.7
	Very important	158	15.9	19.3	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	177	17.8		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 14: 'Volunteering is a way to make new friends' (descriptive statistics, Question 23)

Table 13 and Table 14 demonstrate that a total of 65.6% and 62.3% of the sample chose the answers 'important' or 'very important' when discussing being needed and making new friends. Considering that 'being needed', 'making new friends', and the absence of loneliness are semantically analogous, this presents a notable discrepancy compared to the quantitative findings in Table 12 with only 27.9% participants choosing 'important' and 'very important'. This dichotomy raises the issues of how exactly motivating factors are distinguished cognitively and emotionally by the volunteers and whether there exists a need for new frameworks of human motivation beyond the discussions provided in the literature review. Furthermore, it is implied that other factors such as social motivation could be significant.

With regards to the perspective of managers, this discrepancy is further reinforced by the content analysis of the interview transcript. More specifically, one of the managers noted that

when everyone gets their ID-card, it has always been cool for them to be able to show it: 'Hey, I'm a member.'

This is directly related to the high importance of the socially-driven motivation outlined above. Another interviewee added,

in my experience, it is about the search for friendships. A lot is happening on an emotional level.

Another interviewee remarked,

I believe that the power of friendship within the Red Cross gives us a feeling of togetherness. This is very important because I stay where I feel comfortable and respected. This feeling of being together is a very, very important aspect

within the Red Cross community: that you can count on one another. This is so very important, too, when we encounter extreme situations. This improves our team spirit in extreme situations.

As one manager focused on the adverse effects of bad emotions:

Many volunteers would like to join this Movement but rather encounter a closed society. This gives them a bad feeling, bad emotions. I always ask what kind of feeling do new members have joining a group for the first time.

Synthesising these findings, in contrast to the suggestion of the VFI and its originally applied categories but supported by volunteers and managers alike, addressing social needs seems to be a vital part of volunteering motivation. However, a critical point concerning this assertion is based on the fact that for all related questions, the percentage of the sample which failed to provide a definitive opinion ranged between 24-36%. For example, 27.2% of the study participants answered 'neither important nor unimportant' when evaluating volunteering as a dimension for meeting new friends (Table 14). Thus, the discussion of the findings would need to assess whether the personal considerations or perceptions of the Bavarian volunteers had an impact on the significance of the outlined motivating factors.

4.3.2 Dedication to the Cause

Another common category included in VFI could be designated as 'dedication to the cause'. Before addressing managers' opinions, a presentation of volunteers' perspective is provided. Questions 14, 15, and 20 are attributed to the category 'dedication to the cause', measuring the role of the perceived positive impacts provided by volunteers towards the overall social environment concerning volunteer motivation. The main trends exhibited by the study participants are presented in Table 15, below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	9	0.9	1.1	1.1
	Unimportant	17	1.7	2.1	3.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	99	9.9	12.1	15.3
	Important	435	43.7	53.2	68.5
	Very important	258	25.9	31.5	100.0
	Total	818	82.2	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	177	17.8		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 15: 'I feel compassion towards people in need' (descriptive statistics, Question 14)

Table 15 demonstrates that a total of 84.7% of the questionnaire respondents selected the response options 'important' or 'very important' when asked about the level of compassion experienced towards the people in need. This trend is also continued in the data overviewed in Table 16 as, for instance, a cumulative total of 88.7% of the surveyed individuals highlighted the significance of the opportunity to help the cause.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	6	0.6	0.7	0.7
	Unimportant	13	1.3	1.6	2.3
	Neither important nor unimportant	73	7.3	8.9	11.2
	Important	400	40.2	48.8	60.1
	Very important	327	32.9	39.9	100.0
	Total	819	82.3	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	176	17.7		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 16: 'I can do something for a cause that is important to me' (descriptive statistics, Question 15)

However, only 43.0% responded 'important' and 'very important' to Question 20 (see Table 17), which represents nearly half of the participants compared to the results in Table 15 and Table 16, revealing a significant drop.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	72	7.2	8.8	8.8
	Unimportant	118	11.9	14.5	23.3
	Neither important nor unimportant	275	27.6	33.7	57.0
	Important	272	27.3	33.3	90.3
	Very important	79	7.9	9.7	100.0
	Total	816	82.0	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	178	17.9		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	179	18.0		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 17: 'I can learn about the cause for which I am working' (descriptive statistics, Question 20)

As for the dedication to the cause, participants seem to consider the cause for which they are working as considerably less important than a charitable cause and a cause that matters to them.

Regarding the perspective of managers, the critical assertions mentioned above were supported by sentiments expressed by the interviewees: for example,

the main argument is to help people

and

the motivation is to help and to do something good.

Another interviewee noted, however, a combination of motivating factors:

For the members of the disaster relief teams, motivation comes from the social aspect of helping and, above all, social contacts and camaraderie.

Consequently, the core purpose of volunteerism, which is helping others, was a powerful motivator both for the surveyed individuals and their managers. At the same time, an interesting discrepancy was presented by an interviewee, who mentioned that

the volunteer has to realise that he is doing something meaningful, then he is ready to do more.

While volunteers and managers alike seem to embrace 'a cause' as a factor for motivation, the issue remains of what exactly could be considered meaningful for the Bavarian volunteers. While compassion experienced towards the people in need may be an indicator of this factor, there might also be other subjective opinions and perceptions not covered by the rigid structure of the questionnaire survey. Interviewees remained rather vague on this issue, indicating that helping itself is meaningful. It may therefore be valuable to investigate this issue further by relying on the arguments provided in the literature review. Another notable aspect is that meanings and ideas may often arise not only from the personal emotional and cognitive states of the volunteers but also from peer pressure.

Briefly, 'dedication to the cause' was an essential volunteering factor among the study participants, albeit limited to a philanthropic cause.

In contrast, it may be questionable whether this attribute was more important than 'volunteering as a response to personal emotional needs'.

4.3.3 Peer Pressure

Another notable aspect is that meanings and ideas may often arise not only from the personal emotional and cognitive states of the volunteers but also from peer pressure. Responses of volunteers and managers will be assessed in this section. Based

on the perspective of volunteers, Questions 18 and 19 include this implicit and explicit peer pressure from friends and family.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	53	5.3	6.4	6.4
	Unimportant	102	10.3	12.4	18.9
	Neither important nor Unimportant	271	27.2	33.0	51.8
	Important	285	28.6	34.7	86.5
	Very important	111	11.2	13.5	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	172	17.3		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 18: 'My friends volunteer' (descriptive statistics, Question 18)

Table 18 illustrates that the perspectives exhibited by the representatives of the sample were heterogeneous, meaning that 'peer conformity' (which is considered to be another category of motivational factors) has rather low importance for the participants. Only a total of 48.2% of the sample answered 'important' or 'very important' when evaluating the impact of the fact that their friends also volunteered. Another 33.0% were undecided, which could have indicated that the immediate social group of these respondents did not volunteer or that the surveyed individuals were unaware of how this affected their motivation.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	284	28.5	34.9	34.9
	Unimportant	224	22.5	27.5	62.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	214	21.5	26.3	88.7
	Important	74	7.4	9.1	97.8
	Very important	18	1.8	2.2	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	180	18.1		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 19: 'People I'm close to want me to volunteer' (descriptive statistics, Question 19)

There is a further affirmation to this finding in Table 19, where only 11.3% of the participants assigned high or very high importance to the fact that their friends or family wanted the study participants to engage in volunteering. This contrasts with the

results attained for the issue of 'volunteering as a response to personal needs' and 'dedication to the cause'.

Further ambiguity is introduced by the fact that managers seem to contradict the outlined quantitative findings. During interviews, sentiments related to 'peer conformity' were frequently expressed by the managers of the BRC.

One interviewee stated,

[I] always happened to meet the right people at the right time ... people who challenged me and encouraged and pushed me.

and another reported,

Sometimes there is social pressure or parents push and say: move, do sports, find friends, or something similar.

This gap between the interview and the questionnaire evidence could be indicative of the fact that motivation was significantly dependent on individual perceptions and experiences of the people involved in the volunteering sector. Thus, it may be difficult to generalise trends and patterns in this context.

However, one interviewee had a convincing explanation of how peer pressure might be relevant:

From my own personal experience, it is very rare that someone aged 18 or 19 would, without a special reason, join the Red Cross having never had anything to do with it and be coming alone without peer pressure. If so, then it is usually the case that a group of people decides to join the Red Cross, who, for example, have already been with the fire brigade. Therefore, usually, people who are already engaged in other ways join us.

Peer pressure could be more relevant to young people in terms of 'parental pressure', as several interviewees noted that children join the Youth Chapter of the Red Cross because parents made them take swimming courses:

We have the advantage that parents support the hobby of swimming. If parents go on holiday with their children, then they do not need to worry about the children drowning. That's why we have a lot of children joining us.

This assertion could be further analysed with a crosstab of the age distribution to Questions 18 and 19.

CROSSTABS

2. What is your age? × 18. My friends volunteer. (Row percentages)

2. What is your age?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
18–25	5.0	9.5	20.7	39.2	25.7	100.0
26–35	2.6	7.1	33.8	40.9	15.6	100.0
36–45	4.5	13.5	35.3	35.3	11.3	100.0
46–65	10.5	16.3	41.0	27.6	4.6	100.0
Over 65	6.0	17.9	38.8	32.8	4.5	100.0

Valid cases: 995; Missing cases: 180 (18.1%)

CROSSTABS

2. What is your age? × 19. People I'm close to want me to volunteer. (Row percentages)

2. What is your age?	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
18–25	30.3	22.6	34.4	9.5	3.2	100.0
26–35	33.1	29.9	27.3	9.7	0.0	100.0
36–45	37.3	32.1	18.7	9.0	3.0	100.0
46–65	42.3	26.5	22.6	6.4	2.1	100.0
Over 65	20.3	34.4	28.1	14.1	3.1	100.0

Valid cases: 995; Missing cases: 188 (18.9%)

Table 20: Crosstabs age × peer pressure

As demonstrated in Table 20 concerning Question 18 ('my friends are volunteering'), 64.9% of the age group of 18–25 stated that it is 'important' or 'very important' that friends are volunteering. These numbers decrease steadily with age. Only 32.2% of the age group 46–65 and only 37.3% of the respondents over 65 years old found it important that their friends were volunteering.

On the other hand, Table 20 also shows a very different result relating to Question 19: for every age group, volunteers find it unimportant that people want them to volunteer.

This could indicate that volunteers are motivated within a group of friends but do not like to be pushed to volunteer by others. Hence, volunteers seem less motivated by 'peer pressure' but instead prefer volunteering with friends.

At this point in the research process, it is difficult to state the exact reasons behind such a contrast. While the underlying theories of motivation may have caused the

findings, a comparison with the literature review is needed to translate the study results into a meaningful contribution.

4.3.4 Career

Starting with the perspective of volunteers in this section, Questions 16, 17, and 21 could be combined – in a broader sense – with the topic ‘career’ as a factor for motivation because these questions refer to connections, networking, and the CV supporting one’s professional advancement. The perspective of managers will be presented subsequently.

Table 21 demonstrates that participants of the study had no particular preference answering this Question 16: 31.9% chose ‘neither important nor unimportant’, 33.3% selected ‘very unimportant’, and ‘unimportant’, and almost the same (34.8%) was true for ‘important’ and ‘very important’. Thus, this almost even distribution of answers does not yield any preference.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	116	11.7	14.3	14.3
	Unimportant	155	15.6	19.0	33.3
	Neither important nor unimportant	260	26.1	31.9	65.2
	Important	195	19.6	24.0	89.2
	Very important	88	8.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 21: ‘I can make new contacts that might help my business or career’ (descriptive statistics, Question 16)

These results seem to be supported by the answers to Question 17 (Table 22) with 27.9% being undecided; however, participants selecting ‘very unimportant’ and ‘unimportant’ (43.3%) outweigh 28.8% choosing ‘important’ and ‘very important’. Hence, there seems to be a tendency that career issues are less important to volunteers.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	175	17.6	21.5	21.5
	Unimportant	177	17.8	21.8	43.3
	Neither important nor unimportant	227	22.8	27.9	71.2
	Important	151	15.2	18.6	89.8
	Very important	83	8.3	10.2	100.0
	Total	813	81.7	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	181	18.2		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	182	18.3		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 22: ‘Voluntary experience will look good on my resume’ (descriptive statistics, Question 17)

Interestingly, findings revealed in Table 23 reveal that 85.1% of volunteers think that it is (very) important to learn to deal with a variety of people. This seems surprising considering that Question 21 is related to Question 16 (Table 21): new contacts will eventually lead to dealing with people. However, unlike for Question 16, a majority of the participants (85.1%) selected ‘important’ and ‘very important’.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	8	0.8	1.0	1.0
	Unimportant	16	1.6	2.0	2.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	98	9.8	12.0	14.9
	Important	438	44.0	53.6	68.5
	Very important	257	25.8	31.5	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	176	17.7		
	System	2	0.2		
	Total	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 23: ‘I can learn how to deal with a variety of people’ (descriptive statistics, Question 21)

This could indicate that dealing with different people seems motivating, while meeting people to support one’s career is instead less motivating or, at least, the results relating to egoistic motives are indifferent. This could support the notion that volunteers indeed like to be among people but preferably not for selfish reasons, to promote professional advancement, but rather for the sense of enjoying being together with other – and indeed different kinds of – volunteers.

Although the questionnaire was completely anonymous, there could have been some overall social pressure involved. Participants could have felt socially obliged to minimise egoistic reasons.

If volunteers felt social pressure, the managers' perspective could yield discrepant results.

In fact, one of the interviewees reported,

I think a basic motivation is because you can help others. This is the social aspect. For another group of volunteers, like politicians, helping is not the main reason. For them, their own political career, respect, and appreciation are the main motivating factors. They don't care about the particular person in need but rather need volunteering for their own professional advancement.

This indicates that volunteers are motivated by egoistic reasons such as the advancement of their career. On the other hand, the given example of egoistic reasons of politicians to volunteer does not suggest a large number compared to the larger number of non-politicians in society.

However, another interviewee estimated the importance of egoistic reasons as follows:

50% volunteer because of selfish reasons. This is because volunteerism is positively appreciated more and more in our society.

This estimation seems to contradict the above findings that only about one third of the participants found their career to be an important or very important motivating factor.

However, asking about the importance of volunteering on school reports, an interviewee stated:

There are a lot of such templates also from schools or so, where you volunteer for us or for other organisations as well. We are often asked to sign these kinds of documents. But I cannot confirm that that's the reason why they join us. Well, of course, that's nice to have, as a byproduct: you turn in a paper at school, and that will appear in your school report. But they don't join us only because they need a signature from us. From my point of view, I can say that this is not the case.

Hence, even volunteer managers seem to have different experiences about the importance of selfish reasons to volunteer.

Synthesising these findings, while volunteers seem to underplay the meaning of career advancement in the context of volunteering, managers tend to disagree, suggesting that egoistic motivations are more prevalent among volunteers than they admit.

The following findings (see Chapter 4.5, p. 140) might shed more light on this issue because participants could state their personal motivating factors without the constraints of the closed questions.

4.4. Helping Attitude Scale

As mentioned in the introduction, a considerable proportion of previous studies (Dunn et al., 2016; Planalp & Trost, 2009b) support the significance of ‘helping’ as a strong factor for the motivation of volunteers. While the VFI category ‘dedication to the cause’ includes the trait of ‘helping’, the VFI does not specifically reflect this particular trait. For example, volunteers could strongly dedicate themselves to a cause, be eager to learn about it, compassionate, and willing to do something for a cause, resulting in high levels of ratings in the VFI section, but at the same time, this ‘cause’ could be egocentric; their intrinsic motivation to help could be low. Therefore, the VFI seems insufficient to reflect the importance of ‘helping’ as an important factor for motivation, as suggested in the literature.

To enable a thorough interpretation of ‘helping’, and closing the gap within the VFI, this study implemented the Helping Attitude Scale. It needs to be noted, however, that the helping attitude paradigm overlaps to some extent with the motivational category ‘dedication to the cause’ provided by VFI. Nonetheless, the questions included in the HAS allow for further elaboration concerning the behaviours of the study participants. This justifies presenting its findings as a distinct unit of analysis.

Concerning the findings arising from the adoption of the HAS into the study questionnaire, the quantitative outcomes are illustrated in Table 24.

Variable	N	Mean	SD (samp.)	Variance (samp.)	Median	Missing	Missing (%)
24. When given the opportunity, I enjoy aiding others who are in need.	821	4.24	0.664	0.441	4.00	174	17.49
25. If possible, I would return lost	824	4.36	0.830	0.689	5.00	171	17.19

money to the rightful owner.							
26. Helping friends and family is one of the great joys in life.	825	4.26	0.743	0.552	4.00	170	17.09
27. It feels wonderful to assist others in need.	825	4.04	0.853	0.727	4.00	170	17.09
28. Volunteering to help someone is very rewarding	822	4.15	0.747	0.559	4.00	173	17.39
29. Doing volunteer work makes me feel happy	821	4.01	0.826	0.682	4.00	174	17.49
30. I donate time or money to charities every month.	817	3.77	1.080	1.167	4.00	178	17.89
31. Children should be taught about the importance of helping others.	819	4.71	0.529	0.280	5.00	176	17.69
32. I plan to donate my organs when I die with the hope that they will help someone else live.	794	3.84	1.214	1.473	4.00	201	20.20
33. I try to offer my help with any activities my community or school groups are carrying out.	823	4.12	0.694	0.482	4.00	172	17.29
34. I feel at peace with myself when I have helped others.	817	3.82	0.895	0.801	4.00	178	17.89
35. If the person in front of me in the check-out line at a store was a few cents short, I would pay the difference.	814	3.78	0.976	0.953	4.00	181	18.19
36. I feel proud when I know that my generosity has benefited a needy person.	821	3.54	1.056	1.115	4.00	174	17.49
37. Giving aid to the poor is the right thing to do.	817	3.89	0,781	0,611	4.00	178	17.89

Table 24: HAS (descriptive statistics)

For a brief reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha was again calculated to assess the internal consistency of the subscale for positive effect, which consists of 14 questions. The internal consistency of the questionnaire is high, with Cronbach's alpha for positive affect equal to 0.825.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	3	0.3	0.4	0.4
	Unimportant	6	0.6	0.7	1.1
	Neither important nor unimportant	70	7.0	8.5	9.6
	Important	454	45.6	55.3	64.9
	Very important	288	28.9	35.1	100.0
	Total	821	82.5	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	174	17.5		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 25: 'When giving the opportunity, I enjoy helping people in need' (descriptive statistic, Question 24)

Consistent with the above results for the drivers of motivation related to the 'dedication to the cause', the main trend for the Helping Attitude Scale exemplifies the fact that many of the surveyed individuals were strongly positively affected by the desire to help others.

As illustrated in Table 24, the median of all answers of the HAS is 4 ('important') and higher. Except for questions 30, 32, and 36, the variance was less than 1.0, further supporting a strong trend of this positive effect to help others.

Table 25 demonstrates this finding for Question 24 in more detail: a total of 90.4% of the participants considered the significance of aiding others who are in need as either important or very important. Therefore, the study participants used volunteering to express their commitment to the principles of empathy and compassion. This is further reinforced by a total of 79.3% of the questionnaire respondents feeling that helping others was a positive experience in itself by selecting the answers 'important' or 'very important' when asked about the emotions linked to helping others in need (see Appendix 4, p. 299). At the same time, it is mostly uncertain whether this motivational paradigm had been exhibited by the study participants throughout their life (and thus influenced their initial decision to stay with a volunteering organisation) or only manifested when already volunteering in Bavaria (which would make the assessed motivational factors not entirely intrinsic).

Another major limitation of the above point of view is that it remains to be seen how exactly the BRC could foster such motivations among their personnel, which was particularly notable when coding the interview transcripts for the 'Actions taken by the volunteering organisations to motivate their staff' dimension. The representatives of the interview sample considered 'competition games and courses', 'training courses', 'various workshops', and 'training for volunteers' as valuable techniques. None of the interviewees directly described how these techniques could encourage their staff to display higher levels of 'dedication to the cause' motivation. When asked how these aspects could be put into action, interviewees seem not to have thought of any strategies:

Honestly, this is currently a blind spot, I have to say. That's certainly a good idea since you could try this out. But nothing has been done or planned yet.

On the one hand, since the interviews were semi-structured, this could be a limitation of the study as the researcher may have failed to ask more of the appropriate questions to clarify this issue. Nevertheless, this finding may also be indicative of a broader inability of the BRC to enhance the intrinsic motivation of its personnel. In turn, this would mean that volunteers might be highly motivated intrinsically by default and might, therefore, be less susceptible to extrinsic support, which serves as a notable area for further discussion and evaluation.

Another aspect arises from the findings of the HAS: the importance of the individual intrinsic drivers of motivation may differ although the overall patterns for the helping attitude framework indicate a majority of the response options 'important' and 'very important'. For example, when asked about regular donations to charities, 23.4% of the sample failed to provide a definite answer (see Table 26). This may highlight the fact that many of the sample representatives prioritised their motivational factors beyond the scales offered in Questions 12–37.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	43	4.3	5.3	5.3
	Unimportant	47	4.7	5.8	11.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	191	19.2	23.4	34.4
	Important	307	30.9	37.6	72.0
	Very important	229	23.0	28.0	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	177	17.8		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 26: 'I donate time or money to charity every month' (descriptive statistics, questions 30)

The data from Questions 24 to 35 of the HAS support the findings of the previous chapter (VFI) that members of the BRC seem more motivated than non-members. This is displayed in Figure 18.

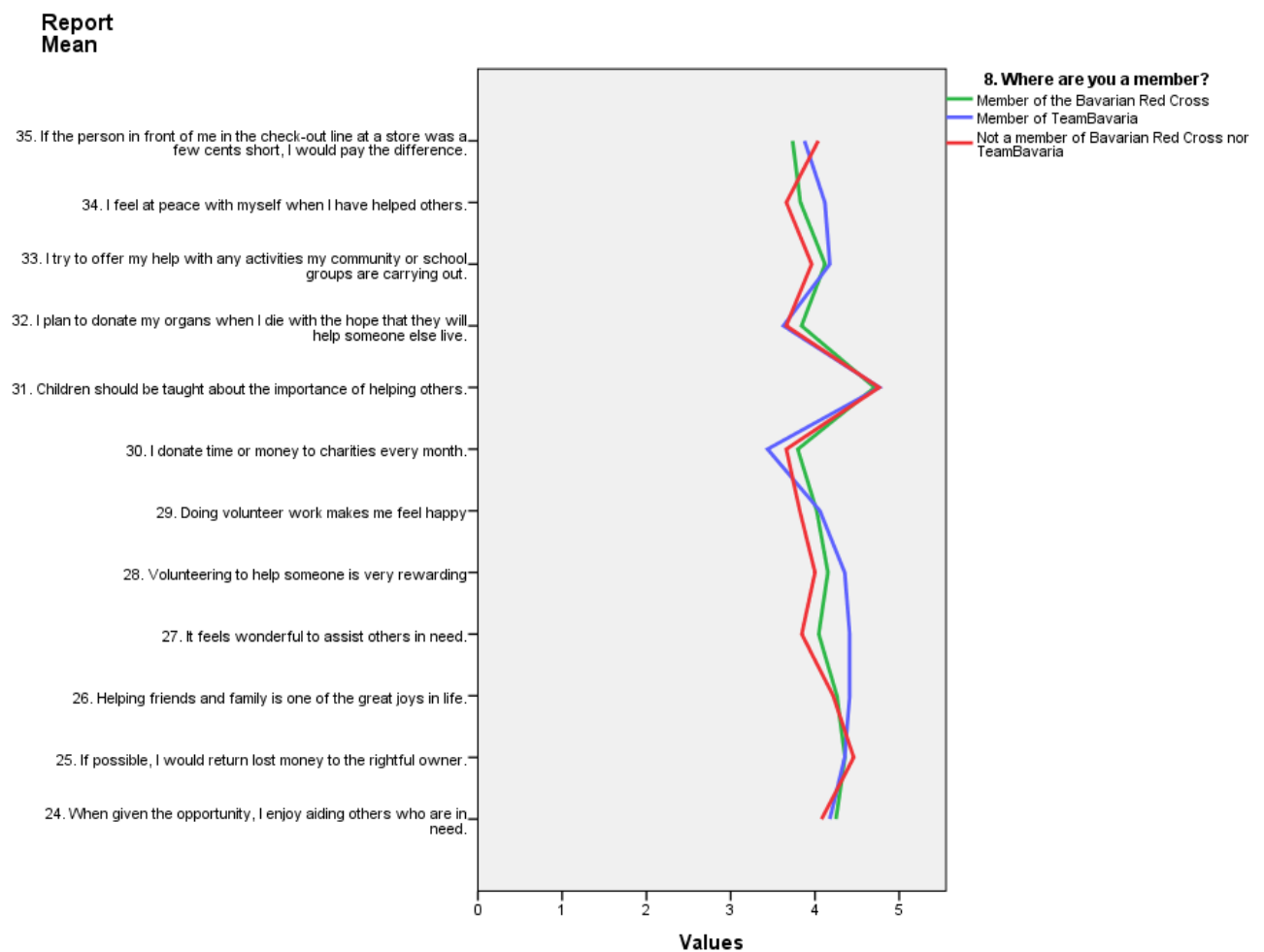


Figure 18: Crosstab HAS x membership

However, this analysis implies that, in contrast to the findings of the VFI, members of TeamBavaria selected higher ratings of importance than BRC members. While this finding should be interpreted in light of the fact that there was only a small number of members of TeamBavaria, it implies that motivation to help, while at a high level in both cases, appears to be more prevalent for episodic volunteers of TeamBavaria compared to BRC members.

4.5 Open Questions on Motivating Factors

In Section 4 of the questionnaire, participants were to openly state their most important motivating factors (Question 38) without the constraints of evaluating a given statement. To mitigate the risk of social pressure when answering, participants were further asked their opinions on what motivates other persons (Question 39). Addressing hygiene factors, opposing questions were implemented about what demotivated volunteers (Question 40) and what volunteers think demotivated their fellow volunteers (Question 41).

After introducing the codes used to analyse the results, this section continues to present both volunteers' and managers' responses assessing aspects of agreement and disagreement.

4.5.1 Coding

First, MAXQDA software was set to filter the most frequent words used to answer Questions 38–41. However, even applying stop lists that omitted pronouns, prepositions, and common filling words, the findings did not yield meaningful results. This could indicate a high level of different answers. Useful results could, however, be found performing a word combination search of three consecutive words.

For Questions 38–41, the top 11 results are displayed in Table 27.

Word combination	Words	Frequency
leave of absence	3	120
be able to	3	119
the red cross	3	84
to be able	3	80
expenditure of time	3	74
lack of appreciation	3	74
able to help	3	68
a lot of	3	59
lack of time	3	56

do something good	3	55
we need to	3	55

Table 27: Combination search results

Interestingly, the frequency of these word combinations still seems unsatisfactory relating to the total number of responses of 995 answers. This, again, supports the argument that the responses were very diverse, and it seems hard to find any common motivating or demotivating factors. These numbers also reveal that any software-driven automatic search algorithms do not seem to yield useful results.

At a minimum, the combination search results of Table 27 could be useful for further coding of answers 38 to 41. Hence, they led to performing a manual coding applying the following categorical code definitions (Table 28):

Code	Memo text
demand	<p>Demand means: Volunteering is demanding and therefore negatively affects motivation because of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - training needs - getting scheduled for volunteering by managers - too much time efforts - overstrain. <p>Other than the code 'time', 'demand' is an extrinsic factor. The code 'time', however, is used when participants speak about their own scheduling of time or the lack of time in total.</p>
self-esteem, self-fulfilment	The code 'self-esteem, self-fulfilment' includes all personal egoistic motivating factors.
communication	The code 'communication' includes information and digital media
time	See memo of code 'demand'
money	The code 'money' includes all answers which relate to monetary benefits, including, e.g. free admission to a concert etc.
leave from work for missions	<p>With this code, a universal demand for volunteers in Germany is being summarised: There are some German laws which order employers to grant leave from work for volunteers who volunteer, for example, for rescue teams like firefighters. The employers have to continue paying wages but can get reimbursement from the government. There is a demand by many volunteers to include more rescue teams to these legal provisions (like, for example, psychological response teams for severe accidents).</p>
meaningful	<p>This code 'meaningful' includes all answers, where participating volunteers responded to be motivated by reasons like</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - contributing to a better world - religious reasons - feeling to be obligated to give something back to society - serving the common good etc.

leisure	The code 'leisure' includes all answers of volunteers who like spending their leisure time volunteering because they would be bored otherwise. Some also feel that volunteering is a good change from every-day-jobs.
bureaucracy	Bureaucracy includes all answers complaining about too rigid and too many rules but also includes documentation and paperwork.
funding	'Funding' (besides 'money') means financial aid towards the organisation, not towards the volunteers directly (the latter would be coded with 'money').
training, skills, experience	'Training, skills, experience' includes everything around learning, teaching, gaining knowledge, passing on knowledge, up to broadening one's mind.
fun	'Fun' includes: - fun - joy - amusement - excitement - like doing something.
appreciation	The code 'appreciation' also includes: - respect - honours - praise - cheers and any other manner of appreciation
dispute, violence	'Dispute and violence' includes fighting, arguing, insulting, both among volunteers and between volunteers and managers as much as volunteers with government offices.
wafflers, ignorant persons	This code was included (besides 'dispute') to reflect that quite a few participants complained about ignorant managers and wafflers. They do not seem to get into an argument but are still demotivated working with this kind of managers.
insurance	'Insurance' includes all kinds of insurance coverage of volunteers
equipment	'Equipment' includes vehicles, boats but also the personal protection equipment during missions (like e.g. for rescue divers).
togetherness	'Togetherness' includes all statements which emphasise groups, teams, company, doing something together, solidarity, colleagues, friends, getting to know each other.
helping	'Helping' summarises all answers where participants responded that they are helpers, like helping, offer to help, and helping as such is their motivation.
support	Support without any further specification of another more specific code
happy as it is	Explicitly happy with the current situation
tax and legal	Tax and legal issues
something is lacking	An indication that something is wrong lacking or missing

Table 28: Code definitions

Applying this manual method, 77.2% of all answers to Questions 38–41 could be categorised with the results displayed in Table 29.

Documents with code

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage (valid)
togetherness	481	48.34	62.63
helping	470	47.24	61.20
training, skills, experience	414	41.61	53.91
appreciation	387	38.89	50.39
something is lacking	361	36.28	47.01
time	346	34.77	45.05
meaningful	314	31.56	40.89
money	285	28.64	37.11
fun	254	25.53	33.07
leave from work for missions	240	24.12	31.25
support	222	22.31	28.91
wafflers, ignorant persons	176	17.69	22.92
demand	175	17.59	22.79
self-esteem, self-fulfilment	172	17.29	22.40
bureaucracy	171	17.19	22.27
leisure	166	16.68	21.61
dispute, violence	142	14.27	18.49
equipment	138	13.87	17.97
tax and legal	125	12.56	16.28
communication	113	11.36	14.71
insurance	99	9.95	12.89
happy as it is	97	9.75	12.63
funding	95	9.55	12.37
Documents with code(s)	768	77.19	100.00
Documents without code(s)	227	22.81	-
Analysed documents	995	100.00	-

Table 29: Results of coded answers

Table 29 is only a general overview of the categorised answers providing a first insight in the (de-)motivating factors and their importance related to 'documents', which here means one document file per respondent.

Interestingly, in 48.34% of the cases, 'togetherness' (please check Table 28 for the meaning) seems to be the most important motivating factor. This is a surprising result because in Section 1 (VFI, see above) the same respondents rated 'social' factors to

be the least important. However, as Table 29 only outlines the most frequent categories, 'togetherness' could also be a demotivating factor.

Hence, a more detailed matrix seems necessary.

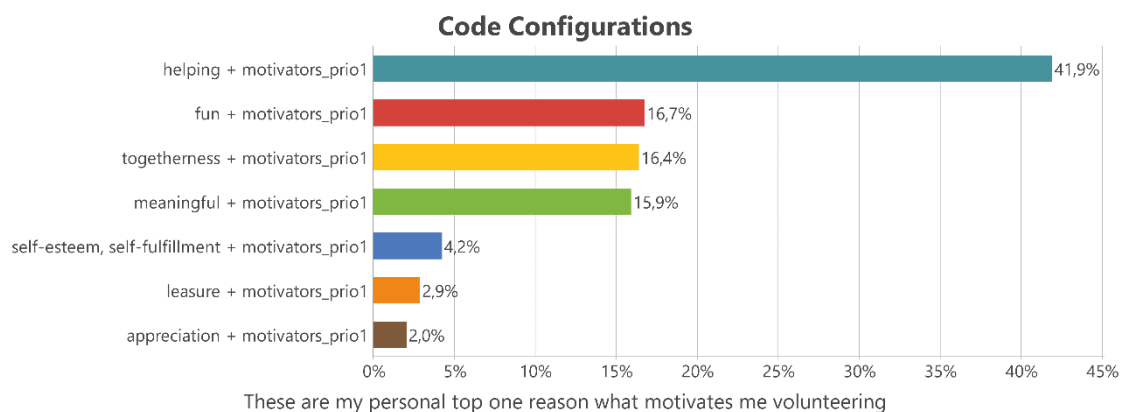
The codes mentioned above were categorised into the following groups:

1. Motivating code factors (helping, leisure, meaningful, fun, appreciation, togetherness, and self-esteem/self-fulfilment),
2. Demotivating code factors (dispute/violence, time, wafflers/ignorant persons, demand, something is lacking, and bureaucracy),
3. Support code factors (communication, equipment, insurance, funding, training/skills/experience, support, money, leave from work for missions, tax and legal).

The codes for support are used later.

4.5.2 Top Motivating Factors for Volunteers

Question 38 asked participants to name the top three motivating factors. Therefore, for analysis, a code configuration was established in MAXQDA that filtered the above-mentioned motivating code factors in combination with the answers given to the three most important motivating factors.



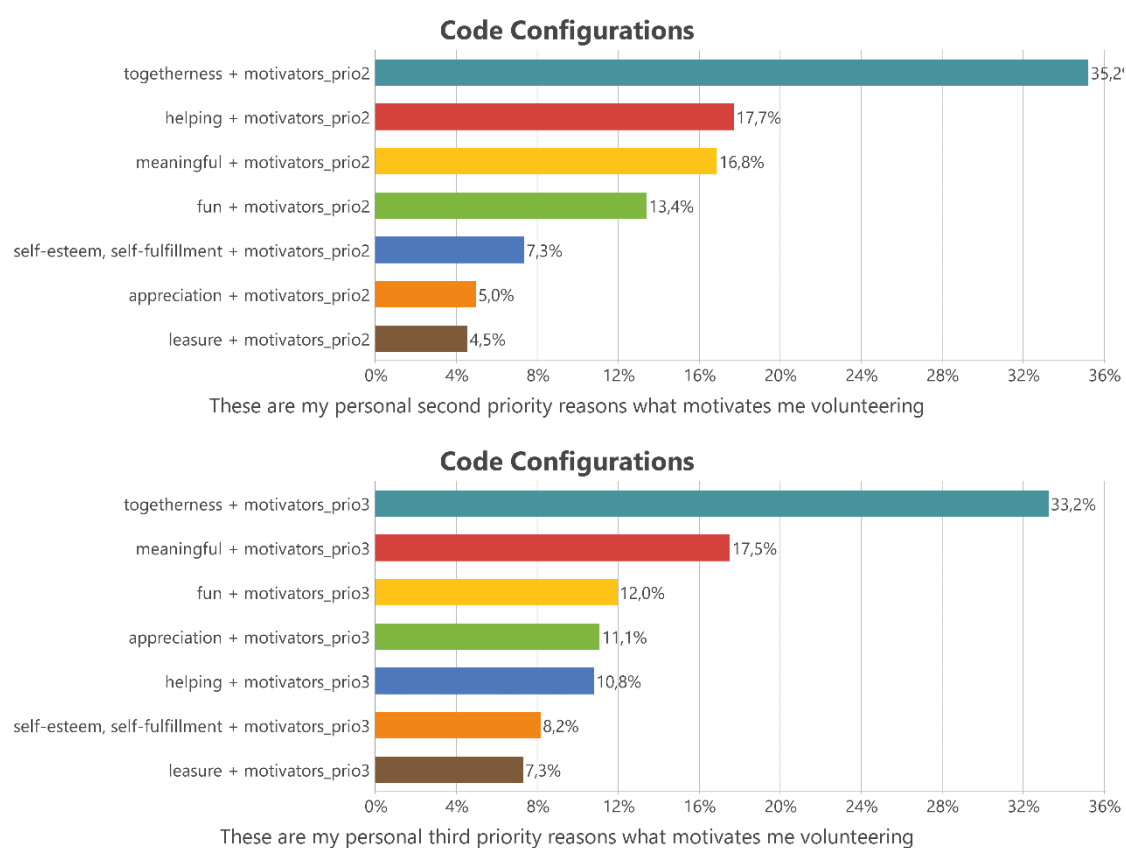


Figure 19: Priority 1–3 motivating factors

Figure 19 demonstrates the top 3 priorities of motivating factors.

However, there is a considerable limitation concerning the participants answering Question 38.

Priority	Frequency	Percent	Percent (valid)	Coded	Percent coded
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 1:	652	66.1	100.0	592	90.8
MISSING (Priority 1):	334	33.9			
TOTAL (Priority 1):	986	100.0			
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 2:	573	57.9	100.0	463	80.8
MISSING (Priority 2):	417	42.1			
TOTAL (Priority 2):	990	100.0			
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 3:	477	48.2	100.0	343	71.9
MISSING (Priority 3):	513	51.8			
TOTAL (Priority 3):	990	100.0			

Table 30: Frequencies Question 38

Table 30 displays the total responses to Question 38. While 652 answers seem to be sufficient for reliable analysis (see 3.11.2), the total number of replies to the second priority of 573 responses and 477 to third-level priorities could have limited reliability for generalisation. This suggests that one third (first level priority) to half (third-level priority) of participants did not know or were not willing to provide an answer to their personal motivating factors. Because this lack of answers increased and because, at the same time, the percentage of responses that could be categorised decreased from 90.8% to 71.9%, this could indicate that participants either have one main individual motivating reason to volunteer rather than multiple purposes or that individual reasons which could not be categorised tend to become more meaningful for each individual. Given that the total number of replies (independent of coding) decreased, it seems more likely that volunteers tend to have one main individual reason to volunteer. Questionnaire fatigue – which could explain the decreasing number of responses – is unlikely due to the electronic survey design randomly changing the order of questionnaire sections presented to the participants.

Nevertheless, for completeness regarding the limitations regarding the total numbers of responses, 41.9% of the coded answers revealed 'helping' to be the most important motivating factor, 35.2% of the coded answers revealed 'togetherness' to be a second-level priority, and 33.2% selected 'togetherness', too, for a third-level priority.

This suggests that the assertion made in Chapter 4.3 (p. 120) that 'social' factors are the least important is not supported by the findings of open Question 38.

The interview responses strongly support the importance of 'social' factors, particularly the factors of 'helping' and 'togetherness': 60% of the interviewees mentioned 'helping' as a significant motivating factor. Volunteer managers emphasised the many volunteering opportunities within the BRC.

Within the Red Cross, volunteers are motivated because they can help others, no matter what kind of help this may be: rescue relief or leadership positions to support volunteers facilitating their volunteering.

Another interviewee adds,

The main argument is to help people. People in urgent need of help, who are in need or who need help for whatever circumstance. That should be the main reason for me.

'Togetherness' was even mentioned by 80% of the interviewees, which was chosen by volunteers to be a second important motivating factor. For the managers, this

seemed to be even more important than helping. One of them summarised this as follows, emphasising the need to be able to rely on each other also in unfortunate situations:

I believe that the power of friendship within the Red Cross gives us a feeling of togetherness. This is very important because I stay where I feel comfortable and respected. This feeling of being together is a very, very important aspect within the Red Cross community; that you can count on one another. This is so very important, too, when we encounter extreme situations. This improves our team spirit in extreme situations. People who had lived through extreme situations together with others and who helped each other are bound together in a special way. People without a team spirit and who cannot work well within a team, are probably leaving very soon.

Most managers consider this sense of being a team as the most important motivating factor which seems a prerequisite of further motivating factors like appreciation and fun:

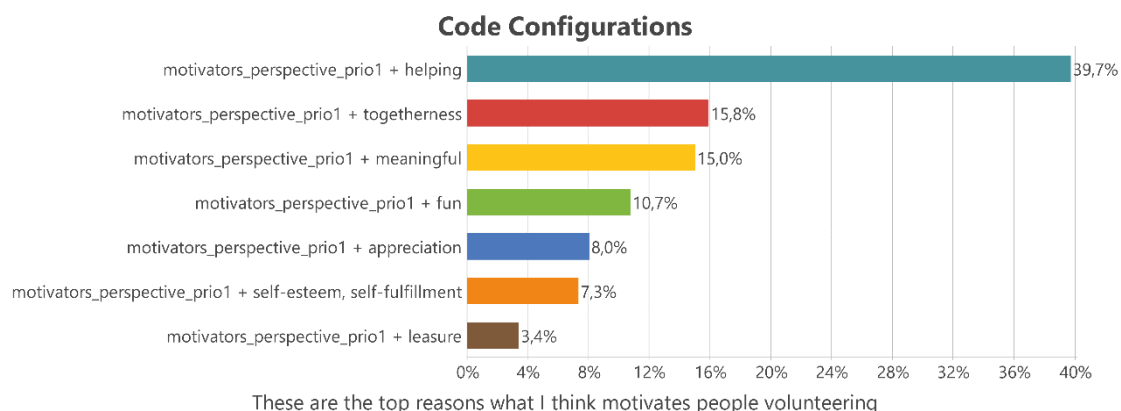
I like the togetherness. It's fun to make a difference with others.

Hence, helping and togetherness could be noted to be strong motivating factors.

Both volunteers and managers agree that helping and togetherness are strong factors of motivation. It is plausible that managers focus on togetherness more than volunteers because it is their job to focus on the volunteer team more than volunteers do.

4.5.3 Top Motivating Factors from a Third-Person Perspective

In Question 39, the participants were asked how others would prioritise motivating factors for volunteering. This questioning technique was applied to minimise social pressure bias.



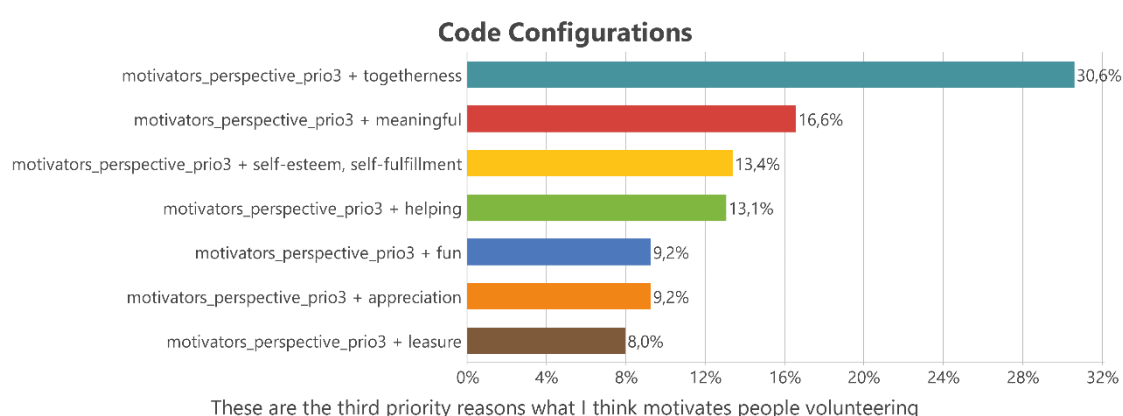
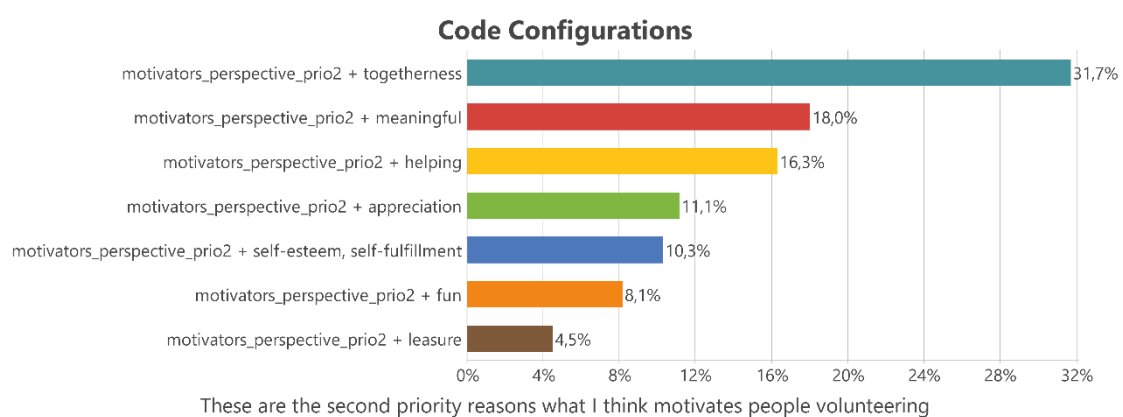


Figure 20: Priority 1–3 motivating factors of others

Here, as well, the findings in Figure 20 have to cope with similar limitations as with Question 38. Table 31 reveals that there are decreasing answers as lower is the priority of motivating factors of others.

Priority	Frequency	Percent	Percent (valid)	Coded	Percent coded
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 1:	620	62.6	100.0	587	94.7
MISSING (Priority 1):	371	37.4			
TOTAL (Priority 1):	991	100.0			
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 2:	541	54.4	100.0	467	86.3
MISSING (Priority 2):	453	45.6			
TOTAL (Priority 2):	994	100.0			
TOTAL (valid) PRIORITY 3:	432	43.6	100.0	314	72.7
MISSING (Priority 3):	558	56.4			
TOTAL (Priority 3):	990	100.0			

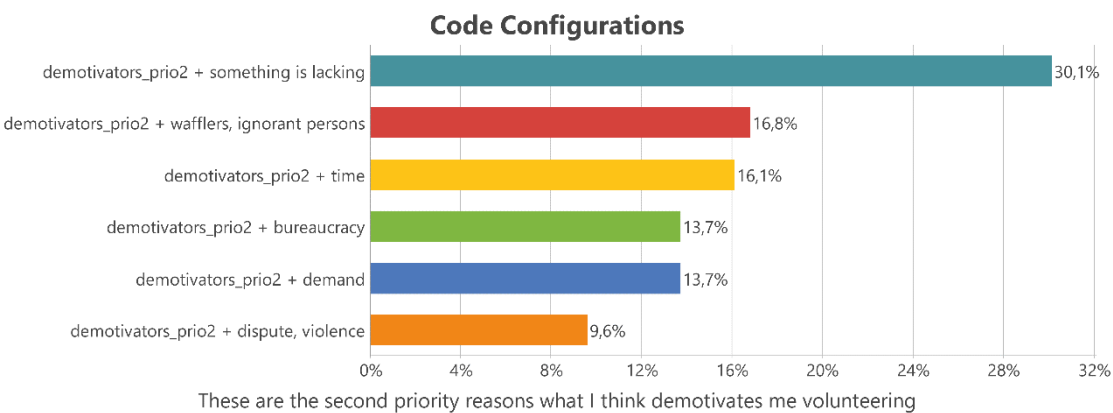
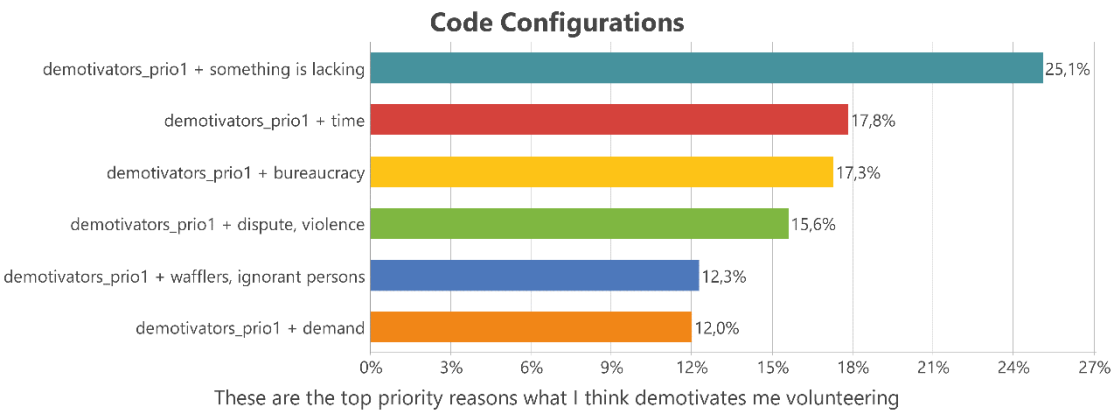
Table 31: Frequencies Question 39

With 39.7% of 587 participants (Figure 20) picked ‘helping’ as their top priority and 31.7% out of 467 and 30.6% out of 314 respondents choosing ‘togetherness’ their second and third priority motivating factors, the results of Question 39 support those of Question 38 to the degree that ‘helping’ is the top priority motivator of volunteers from both their own perspective and the perspective on others.

4.5.4 Top Demotivating Factors for Volunteers

Unlike for the VFI questions of Section 2 of the questionnaire, in Section 4, the author also wanted to investigate hygiene factors –that is, what demotivates volunteers. Again, while Question 40 asked volunteers for their perspective, Question 41 changed the perspective towards others.

Table 32 reveals that the total number of answers and the decrease in the numbers of responses from priority 1 to priority 3 seems to be similar, as was the case for Questions 38 and 39. However, unlike for Questions 38 and 39, only around half of the responses could be categorised. This indicates that there are even more diverse demotivating factors than there are motivating factors.



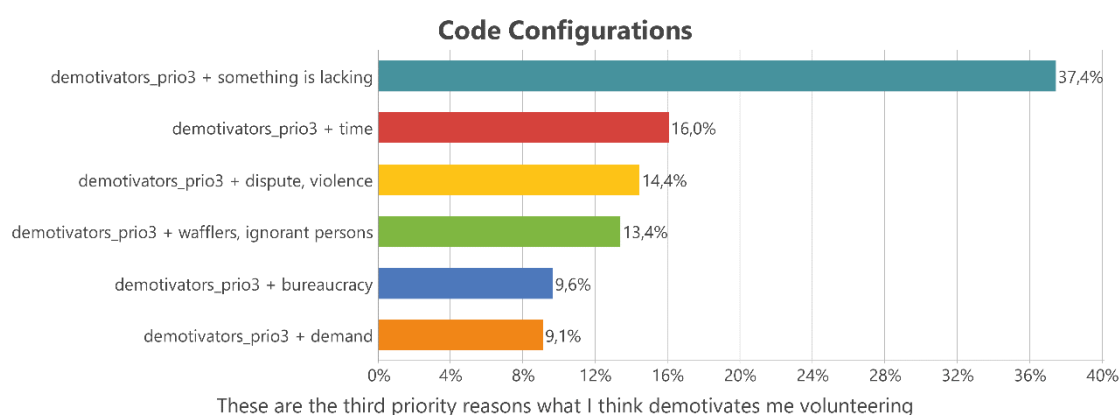


Figure 21: Priority 1–3 demotivating factors

	Frequency	Percent	Percent (valid)	Coded	Percent coded
TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 1	622	63.3	100.0	359	57.7
MISSING (Priority 1):	361	36.7			
TOTAL (Priority 1):	983	100.0			
TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 2:	525	53.1	100.0	292	55.6
MISSING (Priority 2):	463	46.9			
TOTAL (Priority 2):	988	100.0			
TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 3:	386	39.4	100.0	187	50.8
MISSING (Priority 3):	593	60.6			
TOTAL (Priority 3):	979	100.0			

Table 32: Frequencies Question 40

With a growing percentage of 25.1% (top priority) over 30.1% (second priority) to 37.4% (third priority, see Figure 21: Priority 1–3 demotivating factors), this aforementioned diversity increased even further: study participants reported the rather unspecific demotivating factor ‘there is something lacking’ most frequently.

This indicates that there is considerable but diffuse discontent with the organisation. Some support indeed seems to be lacking. From a more optimistic point of view, this is a demotivating factor which a better organisation could, in fact, change, rather than time constraints, which can hardly be influenced and be addressed by the organisation. Relating to support, this is encouraging, as support indeed has the potential to make a difference. In contrast, the more diverse a situation is, the more it seems challenging to promote support.

An interviewee summarised well the perception of managers concerning demotivating factors:

This is very bad news: yes, leadership is getting more difficult. Good news: it works, but we need to adapt to the increased complexity. But life, in general, is getting more complex, too.

Both volunteers and managers seem to identify that there are some demotivating factors; however, they are lacking to name particular demotivating issues. They seem to experience a complexity which itself appear to demotivate volunteers.

In order to better understand this phenomenon, a code configuration of 'something is lacking' and the support code factors (see Chapter 4.5.1, p. 140) was applied.

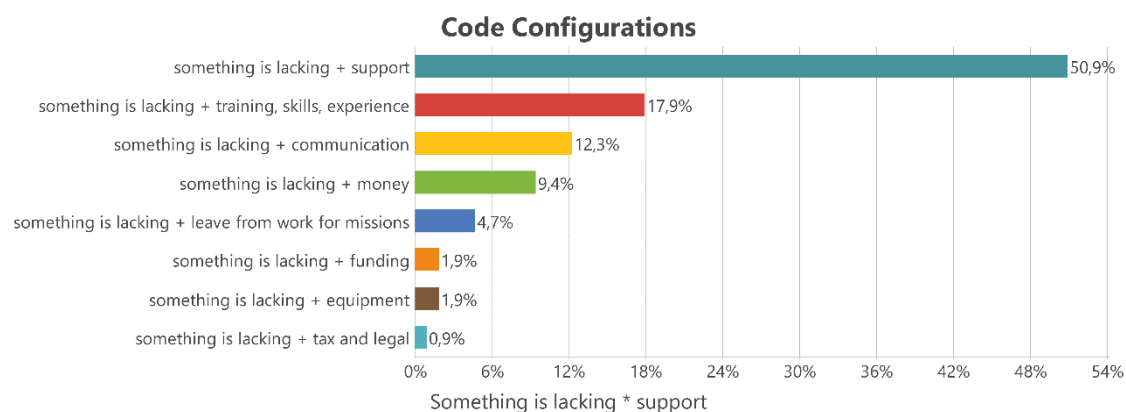
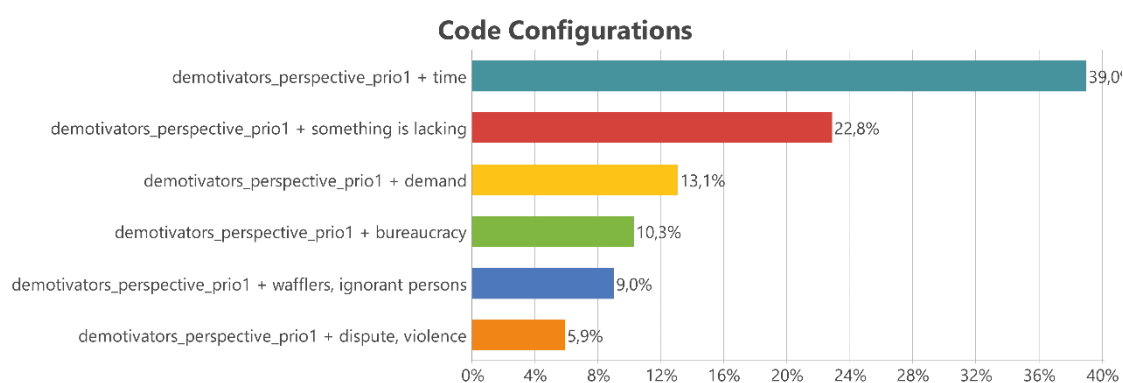


Figure 22: Something is lacking × support

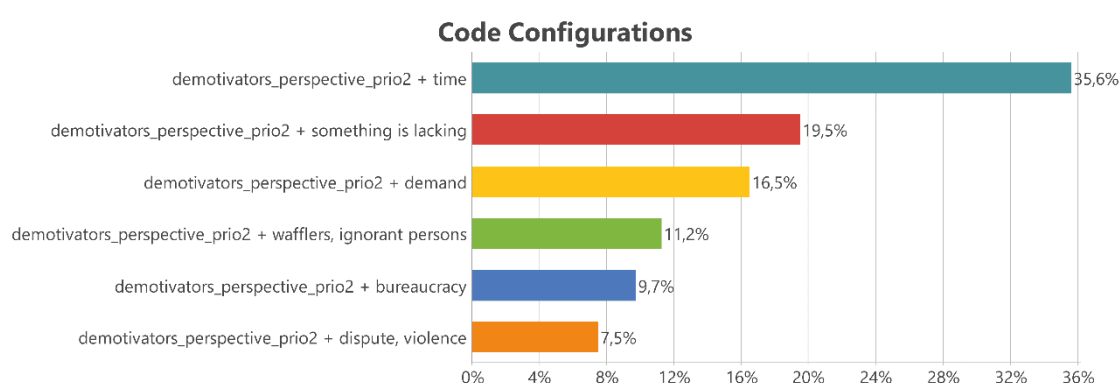
Figure 22 reveals that 50.9% of the participants answered, 'something is lacking' in conjunction with 'support'. Although 'support' is not very precise neither, at least it indicates that if participants find something is lacking, they are most likely looking for more 'support'.

4.5.5 Top Demotivating Factors from a Third-Person Perspective

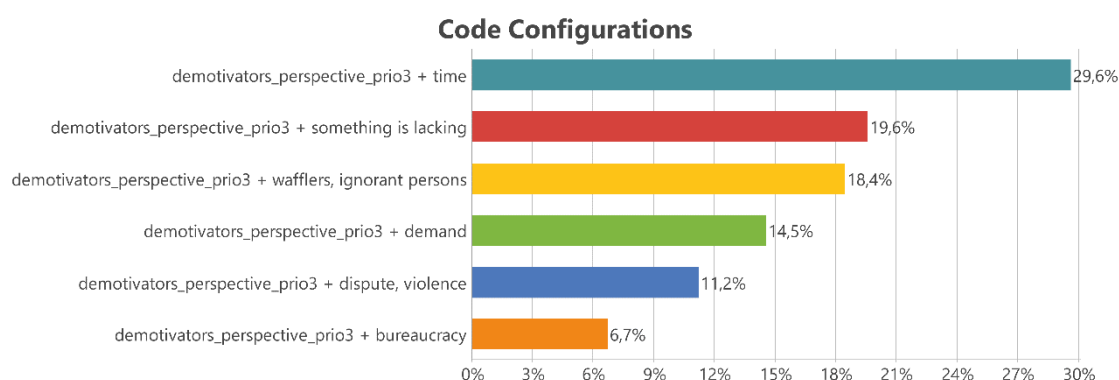
Unlike for the personal priorities of motivating factors and the change of perspective (Questions 38 and 39), there is a shift in priorities concerning demotivating factors of others related to personal demotivating factors: most participants consider time issues being a major demotivating factor for others.



These are the top priority reasons what I think demotivates others volunteering



These are the second priority reasons what I think demotivates others volunteering



These are the third priority reasons what I think demotivates others volunteering

Figure 23: Priority 1-3 demotivating factors of others

	Frequency	Percent	Percent (valid)	Coded	Percent coded
TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 1	600	61.5	100.0	390	65.0
MISSING (Priority 1):	376	38.5			
TOTAL (Priority 1):	976	100.0			
TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 2	528	54.0	100.0	267	50.6
MISSING (Priority 2):	450	46.0			
TOTAL (Priority 2):	978	100.0			

TOTAL (valid): PRIORITY 3	411	41.9	100.0	179	43.6
MISSING (Priority 3):	570	58.1			
TOTAL (Priority 3):	981	100.0			

Table 33: Frequencies Question 41

Table 33 presents, again, similar frequencies for Question 41 were obtained as for the previous questions. Similar to Question 40, the percentage of coded answers is rather low, decreasing from 65.0% (top priority) to only 43.6% for the third-level priority. This again supports the assertion made above that demotivating factors are diffuse among participants and hard to be categorised.

Comparing the results of Figure 22 and Figure 23, the results in Figure 23 reveal that there seems to be a perception among participants of the study that ‘the others’ (or in society ‘the people’) are increasingly stressed and have less time to volunteer. Figure 23 shows that participants selected ‘time’ as being the most important demotivating factors for others.

As mentioned before, it seems rather challenging to relieve stress by volunteer support. However, the factors are interconnected. For example, minimising bureaucratic tasks could result in more spare time which could, therefore, reduce stress. Hence, the demotivating factor for ‘time’ could still be considered when assessing ways of volunteer support to enhance retention.

From a managerial perspective, 4 out of 15 interviewees specifically addressed the problem of overstraining volunteers.

We often require even more work from volunteers and more training. One should not forget that most of the volunteers still have a job. It is getting more and more exhausting for them. Volunteers are expected to spend more and more time volunteering. There, we have to be careful that we do not overstrain our volunteers. We have to make sure that we do not become too perfect and do not automate too much and do not forget about the people.

For another volunteer manager, it was apparent that overstraining volunteer will demotivate them:

On the other hand, we must not overstrain anyone, because then we will achieve the opposite.

Another interviewee emphasised a more personalised approach to different groups of volunteers:

It is the wrong way that we demand many pieces of training before volunteers can start volunteering. We need to recognise all the skills volunteers already have. We must not overstrain volunteers with too much work. We have to recognise the gap between digital volunteers, digital natives, and the elderly like me.

4.6 Summary

Chapter 4 addressed Research Question 1, exploring motivating factors of volunteers of the BRC. Primary data was collected applying a questionnaire of 12 (VFI) and 14 (HAS) closed questions and 4 open questions. Data of 15 complementary interviews was used to explain the questionnaire responses participants of the study further.

While an in-depth discussion of the findings will be the subject of Chapter 6 (p. 201), in brief, the results yielded a diverse picture. The abbreviated VFI applied in Section 2 of the questionnaire suggested that 'value' and 'enhancement' are key motivating factors, while, for example, 'social' seemed to be less important. These results were not supported when categorising VFI questions differently. 'Volunteering as a response to personal emotional needs' and 'dedication to the cause' seemed to be strong motivating factors, while 'peer pressure' and 'career' played a less critical role, revealing that there seems to be a dualism between egoistic and altruistic factors of motivation.

In contrast, further data, particularly findings of the open questions and interviews, contradicted the notion that 'social' was less important. Participants reported 'social' factors such as 'helping' and 'togetherness' to be their most important motivating factors when they could freely state their opinions without the constraint of closed questions. The findings of the HAS supported this: although the HAS offered given questions and the option of a 5-point Likert scale, a vast majority emphasised 'helping' to be a strong motivating factor.

Asked for demotivating factors, participants seemed somewhat reluctant to choose reasons that could easily be categorised. They instead reported very different and diverse individual reasons. Hence, except for 'time' being a rather strong factor for demotivation, there are hardly any common demotivating factors.

Overall, concepts as 'being helpful towards others' and 'togetherness' (as defined in Table 29) were mentioned the most frequently by the representatives of the questionnaire sample. This was consistent with the results of examining the quantitative evidence as the drivers of motivation could be assigned to the previously established categories of 'volunteering as a response to personal needs' and 'dedication to the

cause’.

It could be criticised, however, that these perceptions are highly subjective in terms of their rankings and the number of valid answers decreased considerably with the second and third priorities of motivating and demotivating factors. In other words, Questions 38–41 did not provide any pre-designated criteria for the evaluation of the elements of motivation, meaning that the above findings may have been significantly biased towards personal opinions and experiences.

There is also a notable discrepancy between personal and universal motivators. The questionnaire respondents highlighted reputation more frequently as well as gaining new and valuable contacts. This emphasised the ‘peer conformism’ aspect of volunteerism motivation, which contrasted with the fact that ‘volunteering as a response to personal needs’ and ‘dedication to the cause’ were the most prominent factors for the individually valuable motivational characteristics.

This implicates that while the study participants may not perceive ‘peer conformism’ as important for themselves, they are aware of the significance of this attribute for their colleagues. However, it remains to be seen how this is reflected in terms of organisational support.

Besides the aspect of ‘time’ as a demotivating factor and the limitation due to the reduced number of responses, Questions 40 and 41 revealed another crucial aspect: a decrease in the amount of motivation appears to be directly linked to organisational support. More specifically, a high amount of stress and number of demands, bureaucracy, and workplace conflicts were selected by participants as demotivating. It may be asserted that motivation was lowered because all of these processes or experiences inhibited the ability of the Bavarian volunteers to proceed with their responsibilities linked to ‘volunteering as a response to personal needs’ and exhibiting a more developed degree of ‘dedication to the cause’.

Concerning Research Question 1 (what are the factors influencing volunteer motivation), there could be intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors. As mentioned above in Chapters 2.5.4.3 (p. 43) and 0 (p. 135), it seems worthwhile to explore in more detail the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors: 8 of the 15 interviewees emphasised the importance of intrinsic motivation.

5 Findings – Implementing Effective Organisational Support in the BRC Context

5.1 Introduction

Concerning Research Questions 2 to 4, this chapter will build on the findings of Chapter 4 by assessing the most effective organisational support for volunteers within the BRC in terms of motivation and retention. Support is significant because it can reduce an individual's feelings of uncertainty in helping volunteers, developing a sense of control over circumstances (Albrecht & Adelman, 1984). Organisational support is likely most effective when aimed at the most important factors of motivation. However, a comprehensive inventory of the different measures of support in the context of the BRC is still missing but necessary to further assess the relationships between support, motivation, and retention.

To close this gap, this chapter presents the findings collected from Section 5 (closed-ended questions) and 6 (open-ended questions) of the questionnaire addressing the following themes:

- a) Expected support (subdivided into the sections intangible and tangible support),
- b) Received support,
- c) The relationship between expected and received support, and finally
- d) The relationship between support, motivation, and retention.

Each theme reflects the perspective of volunteers being compared to managers' opinions expressed in the interviews.

5.2 Expected Support

While factors of motivation could be categorised as either extrinsic or intrinsic, support could be tangible (such as reimbursements of travel expenses, training, equipment, etc.), or intangible (such as emotional support or thankfulness).

Support could be successful when supporting intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors found in Chapter 4 and/or when minimising demotivating factors.

This could be modelled with the matrix outlined in Figure 24:

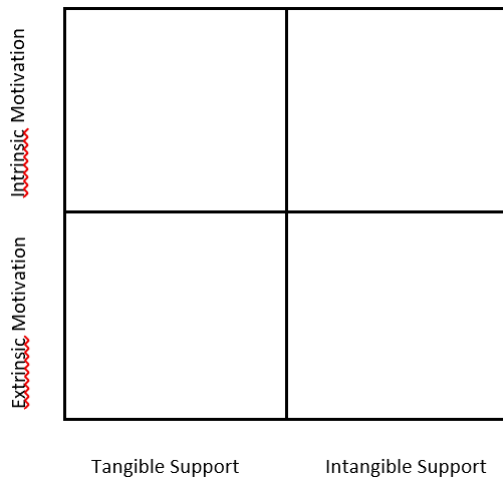


Figure 24: Matrix of motivation support

5.2.1 Intangible Support

This section presents the findings regarding expected intangible support. The following table refers to enabling expression of volunteer voice as a tool of support to outline the main trends and patterns among the questionnaire evidence.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	24	2.4	2.9	2.9
	Unimportant	37	3.7	4.5	7.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	146	14.7	17.8	25.2
	Important	410	41.2	49.9	75.1
	Very important	205	20.6	24.9	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 34: 'Someone listens to me when I have something to say' (Descriptive Statistics, Question 43)

A central finding is that a total of 74.8% of the participants chose the answers 'important' or 'very important' when evaluating the significance of listening to volunteer voice as an instrument of organisational support. First, this confirms that the surveyed Bavarian volunteers had notable expectations of being heard and taken seriously. Secondly, the results regarding this question indicate that the Bavarian volunteering organisations were able to address these perceptions. However, as the question focuses on the perspective of volunteers, the fact that volunteers *want* to be heard does not need to be a compelling argument that the organisation is indeed listening. At the same time, regarding the characteristics of the sample, it needs to be noted that the majority of the participants of the study had substantial volunteer experience and

knowledge. As Table 35 outlines, the longer volunteers are a member, the more they want to be listened to.

9. How long have you been a member of BRC or TeamBavaria? indicate longest	Very unimportant that someone listens	Unimportant that someone listens	Neither important nor unimportant	Important that someone listens	Very important that someone listens	Total
Less than 1 year	1 (3.7)	2 (7.4)	4 (14.8)	13 (48.1)	7 (25.9)	27 (100.0)
1–3 years	6 (5.3)	6 (5.3)	16 (14.2)	59 (52.2)	26 (23.0)	113 (100.0)
3–5 years	4 (6.2)	4 (6.2)	7 (10.8)	36 (55.4)	14 (21.5)	65 (100.0)
5–10 years	3 (2.4)	4 (3.2)	24 (19.4)	53 (42.7)	40 (32.3)	124 (100.0)
Over 10 years	8 (1.8)	16 (3.7)	84 (19.3)	216 (49.7)	111 (25.5)	435 (100.0)
I am not a member	1 (2.2)	4 (8.9)	7 (15.6)	28 (62.2)	5 (11.1)	45 (100.0)
Total	23 (2.8)	36 (4.4)	142 (17.6)	405 (50.1)	203 (25.1)	809 (100.0)

Table 35: Length of stay × Importance that someone listens (Question 43, crosstab)

Consequently, it remains to be further analysed whether TeamBavaria, the BRC or similar stakeholders of the Bavarian volunteering context also listen to the feedback provided by the people with a significantly lower volunteering record.

The investigation of other intangible schemes of support is mainly in line with the results attained for volunteer feedback (Questions 42-46 of the questionnaire, see also Appendix 4). When asked about whether they can freely express concern and dissent (see Table 36) as well as the role played by this factor, a total of 67.3% of the questionnaire respondents selected the response options 'Important' or 'Very Important'. The corresponding percentage for receiving feedback was equal to 76.8%, further rationalising the strength of the above assertions (see question 45, Appendix 4, p. 303).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	33	3.3	4.0	4.0
	Unimportant	67	6.7	8.2	12.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	169	17.0	20.6	32.7
	Important	387	38.9	47.1	79.8
	Very important	166	16.7	20.2	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 36: 'I can express concern and dissent' (descriptive statistics, Question 42)

It can be stated that the Bavarian volunteers placed a high level of significance on the paradigms of organisational support linked to intangible support.

However, on the other hand, this was not the case, most notably, for receiving honours for volunteering work. When inquired about this instrument, 32.9% of the study participants were undecided while another 41.3% of the participants noted either low or very low importance of the outlined technique (see Table 37).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	148	14.9	17.9	17.9
	Unimportant	194	19.5	23.4	41.3
	Neither important nor unimportant	272	27.3	32.9	74.2
	Important	160	16.1	19.3	93.5
	Very important	54	5.4	6.5	100.0
	Total	828	83.2	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	167	16.8		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 37: 'I get honours for my volunteer work' (descriptive statistics, Question 44)

The underlying reasons for the observed phenomena remain uncertain and require further investigation, with links to the literature review conducted within the current research project.

While 3 of the 15 interviewees emphasised the importance of giving honours, one of the interviewees provided a possible explanation of why honouring volunteers could be a sensitive issue:

No one wants it, but if someone doesn't get it, he is offended. I think I don't need to add to this. There are a few who really do not care, but a lot of them say that it is not important. If sometimes a badge comes too late, everyone is offended. The culture of honour must be maintained, and I think it is important. We don't pay for volunteering, but we can grant recognition and respect. We should do that too.

On the other hand, listening to volunteers' ideas has not been mentioned by managers at all.

The findings indicate that there is a disagreement between volunteers and managers regarding listening to concerns of volunteers. While volunteers expect to be heard, managers do not consider this issue to be a problem.

Another discrepancy arises concerning honours for volunteer work. While volunteers seem to humbly downplay the importance of honours, managers emphasise that it is, indeed, an important issue to volunteers indicating that volunteers felt social pressure to not actively expect receiving honours for their volunteering.

5.2.2 Tangible Support

Concerning tangible support factors, these factors are highlighted in the following tables.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	12	1.2	1.5	1.5
	Unimportant	36	3.6	4.4	5.8
	Neither important nor unimportant	50	5.0	6.0	11.9
	Important	233	23.4	28.2	40.0
	Very important	496	49.8	60.0	100.0
	Total	827	83.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	167	16.8		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	168	16.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 38: 'I am insured when volunteering' (descriptive statistics, Question 48)

Regarding insurance protection, notably, a cumulative total of 88.2% of the study participants selected the response options 'important' and 'very important'. This reflects the results assessed previously that financial insurance against risk was widely implemented within the institutions. At this point, however, it needs to be noted that volunteers who are not a member of any institution could not benefit from insurance provided by the organisation.

Moreover, participants seem attentive towards this issue and evaluated insurance as being a vital part concerning their overall volunteering experiences. On the other hand, insurance constitutes a unique mechanism of financial assistance. Volunteers (being a member of an organisation) benefit from an insurance coverage only in case of an insured event. Therefore, the question about the importance of insurance coverage itself seems insufficient to fully rationalise the assertion that financial backing played a compelling role within the Bavarian volunteering setting.

The validity of the above statement is further questioned by the other findings of the questionnaire presented in Appendix 4, regarding direct financial aid, reimbursements for volunteering time, and tax exemptions. For example, when the study participants were asked about the relevance of receiving financial rewards for engaging in

volunteering activities, a total of 52.1% of the sample answered 'unimportant' and 'very unimportant' while another 29.1% were undecided (see Table 39).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	208	20.9	25.6	25.6
	Unimportant	216	21.7	26.5	52.1
	Neither important nor unimportant	237	23.8	29.1	81.2
	Important	105	10.6	12.9	94.1
	Very important	48	4.8	5.9	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 39: 'I get a reimbursement for the time volunteering' (descriptive statistics, Question 51)

These answers could be interpreted that the Bavarian volunteering organisations did not frequently rely on financial aid. Even if the opposite were true, the role of monetary support would be less significant than that of intangible support mechanisms. The encouragement associated with intrinsic motivation generally seems more effective in the Bavarian context. This could, however, relate to the income of the study participants, which is moderate to high.

At first sight, and inconsistent with the results from the presentation of the quantitative data, the codes present within each interview suggest that the managers of Bavarian volunteers primarily focused on the tangible strategies of supporting volunteers.

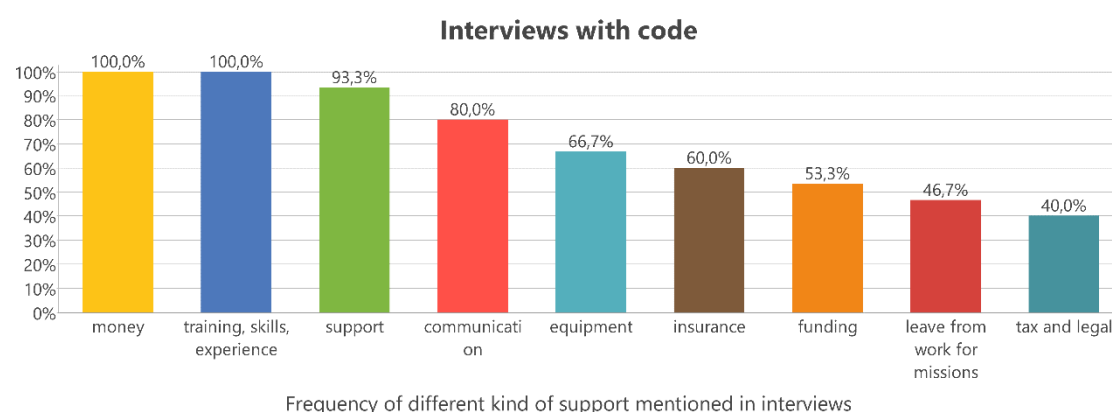


Figure 25: Frequency of different kind of support mentioned in interviews

Most interviewees, however, consider 'money' or 'funding' being a prerequisite to support volunteers:

the opportunities are simply greater if the chapter has more money or wants to make more money available

Another one stated:

Sure, the money is able to empower volunteer support. But the energy I put into supporting volunteers is not measurable in Euros.

Additionally, most interviewees emphasised the importance of intangible support. A majority of 11 interviewees underlined the importance of events. One interviewee summarised that

regular meetings, sometimes barbecues, Christmas parties, carnival parties, excursions

were valued by volunteers. Another supervisor focused on the fact that

we try to be there as much as we can, to be available as a contact person and to ask where there are problems and to be open-minded,

which can be directly linked to feedback, expressing concerns and providing valid advice (Questions 42, 45, and 46). Interestingly, the issue of financial aid was also briefly assessed in the transcripts as it was highlighted that

we have agreed that we have a different 'compensation' scheme dependent of someone's qualification, i.e. 3–5 Euros per shift.

Taking a closer look at what interviewees said about the importance of 'money', the results displayed in Figure 25 do not support the notion derived from the coding frequency indicating that tangible support is more important than intangible support.

Both volunteers and managers agree that tangible support is less important than intangible support.

For subsequent discussions, this raises the question of why resources were spent, considering that volunteers did not significantly and correspondingly value direct financial support. Nevertheless, some interviewees specifically asserted that no direct financial compensation was provided to the volunteers, indicating that this practice may not have been generally implemented.

5.2.3 Supporting Extrinsic or Intrinsic Motivation

Concerning Research Question 2 (what support *should* be implemented), it seems worthwhile to examine whether intrinsic or extrinsic support is to be favoured. If it

were true (or untrue) that extrinsic motivation tends to override intrinsic motivation, this would affect the kind of support which should be implemented.

To assess the status of intrinsic motivation, the HAS in Section 3 of the questionnaire was used to calculate the individual medians of the answers of each participant. This yielded a status of intrinsic motivation of each participant of the study. Figure 26 summarises the frequency of this intrinsic motivation median (IMM) and its descriptive statistics.

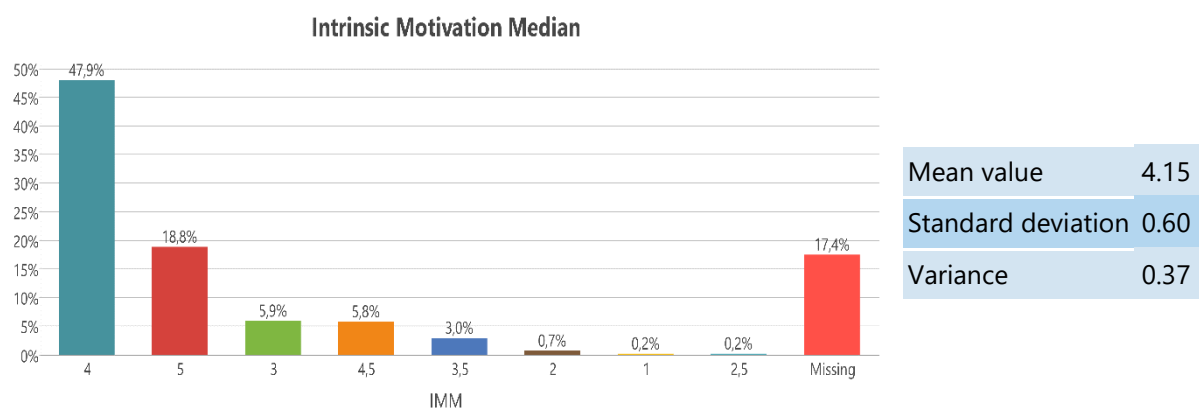


Figure 26: Intrinsic motivation median

Correspondingly, Question 51 assessed the importance of reimbursement for volunteers.

IMM	Reimbursement: very unimportant (N = 208)	Reimbursement: unimportant (N = 216)	Reimbursement: neither important nor unimportant (N = 237)	Reimbursement: important (N = 105)	Reimbursement: very important (N = 48)
1, Number (%)	1 (0.5)	0	0	0	0
2, Number (%)	2 (1.0)	1 (0.5)	2 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	0
2.5, Number (%)	2 (1.0)	0	0	0	0
3, Number (%)	16 (7.7)	12 (5.6)	19 (8.0)	4 (3.8)	3 (6.3)
3.5, Number (%)	10 (4.8)	7 (3.2)	6 (2.5)	4 (3.8)	0
4, Number (%)	98 (47.1)	137 (63.4)	123 (51.9)	70 (66.7)	20 (41.7)
4.5, Number (%)	17 (8.2)	14 (6.5)	16 (6.8)	3 (2.9)	6 (12.5)
5, Number (%)	57 (27.4)	36 (16.7)	52 (21.9)	19 (18.1)	16 (33.3)
N = documents	208 (25.6%)	216 (26.5%)	237 (29.1%)	105 (12.9%)	48 (5.9%)

Table 40: Intrinsic motivation median × Importance of reimbursement

Table 40 reveals that for the majority of participants with a high IMM of more than 4, reimbursement was very unimportant or unimportant. However, it needs to be noted

that among the minority of participants selecting 'important' and 'very important', the percentage of those with a high IMM was also fairly high. This ambiguous result could indicate that there is an ongoing detrimental impact of extrinsic on intrinsic support.

A majority of eight interviewees realised that there is a difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

One of them emphatically stressed that supporting extrinsic motivation has a poisonous effect on intrinsic motivation:

There is a US study where psychologists went to prep-school and asked the children to draw pictures and who liked to draw pictures. The children liked it just because drawing was a nice thing to do. After some time drawing, the psychologists said that the pictures were very nice and gave them a treat. After some more time, they increased the treats and the children went on drawing pictures faster. After even some more time, the psychologists told the children one day that they don't have any treats this time. The children looked at them and told them, that they won't draw pictures in return. What happened? An intrinsic motivation was replaced by an extrinsic motivation and you cannot return this like with Pavlov and the dog.

If we try to extrinsically motivate volunteers, we are disregarding valuable intrinsic motivation.

Like with the children mentioned in the example of the interviewee, intrinsic motivation of some participating volunteers could already have been affected by tangible support.

This is supported by the statement of another interviewee:

Self-critically speaking, I think we somehow promoted this development, because we tried to save money and didn't have money for protective equipment and clothing, which volunteers now need to buy themselves. Or we did not buy new cars for missions or we cut back on training. Volunteers felt not appreciated because of this lack of funding. At this point, the causality originated between materialistic things and appreciation. There have been many fights between volunteers and the organisation because cutting back on funding. Very quickly, some volunteers said: 'ok, if you don't provide a new car, I myself will only volunteer if I get something back.'

However, more data over time would be necessary to verify this suspicion. Another limitation could arise from arguing that the importance of reimbursement could depend on volunteers' income.

Both volunteers and managers seem to broadly agree that extrinsic support could negatively impact existing intrinsic motivation. However, this phenomenon seems to be complex, depending on how extrinsic support is implemented. While one of the interviewees – although rejecting payments for volunteers – would support poor volunteers with some money, the majority of interviewees emphasise the dangers mentioned above even when people are poor.

Reimbursement (Question 51)	Income = over € 120.000 (N = 9)	Income = € 60.001 - € 120.000 (N = 97)	Income = € 45.001 - € 60.000 (N = 172)	Income = € 20.001 - € 45.000 (N = 359)	Income = € 9.000 - € 20.000 (N = 140)	Income = less than € 9.000 (N = 162)
Very important, number (%)	0	5 (5.2)	6 (3.5)	19 (5.3)	4 (2.9)	12 (7.4)
Important, number (%)	0	9 (9.3)	17 (9.9)	46 (12.8)	10 (7.1)	20 (12.3)
Neither important nor unimportant, number (%)	3 (33.3)	12 (12.4)	53 (30.8)	78 (21.7)	38 (27.1)	37 (22.8)
Unimportant, number (%)	2 (22.2)	22 (22.7)	35 (20.3)	83 (23.1)	29 (20.7)	32 (19.8)
Very unimportant, number (%)	2 (22.2)	31 (32.0)	31 (18.0)	75 (20.9)	33 (23.6)	30 (18.5)
N = documents	9 (1.0%)	97 (10.3%)	172 (18.3%)	359 (38.2%)	140 (14.9%)	162 (17.3%)

Table 41: Importance of reimbursement x income

Table 41 shows that the importance of reimbursement among poor participants (income less than €9,000 yearly) is elevated but not significantly higher than other income groups. Therefore, income does not seem to influence the demand for monetary support significantly. However, only 162 participants belong to the group of participants with a yearly income of less than €9,000 limiting the generalisability of this finding.

With these limitations noted, the findings in Table 40 and Table 41 suggest that, indeed, tangible support such as reimbursement and any payment for volunteering could have a detrimental impact on intrinsic motivation. This effect could lead to a vicious cycle because the more this effect spreads, the more tangible support is needed to keep volunteers (extrinsically) motivated, further increasing the detrimental impact on intrinsic motivation, until volunteerism eventually becomes a professional job.

This notion seems to be supported by the findings in Appendix 3 (p. 293) indicating that participants with an income less than €9,000 yearly seems to be more intrinsically motivated to volunteer than richer people.

This needs further discussion in Chapter 6 (p. 201).

5.2.4 Open Questions on Support

To provide further insights regarding expected support, questionnaire respondents were asked to submit their detailed opinions on organisational support without the restraints of given answers. The answers were categorised using the coding scheme described in Chapter 4.5.1 (p. 140).

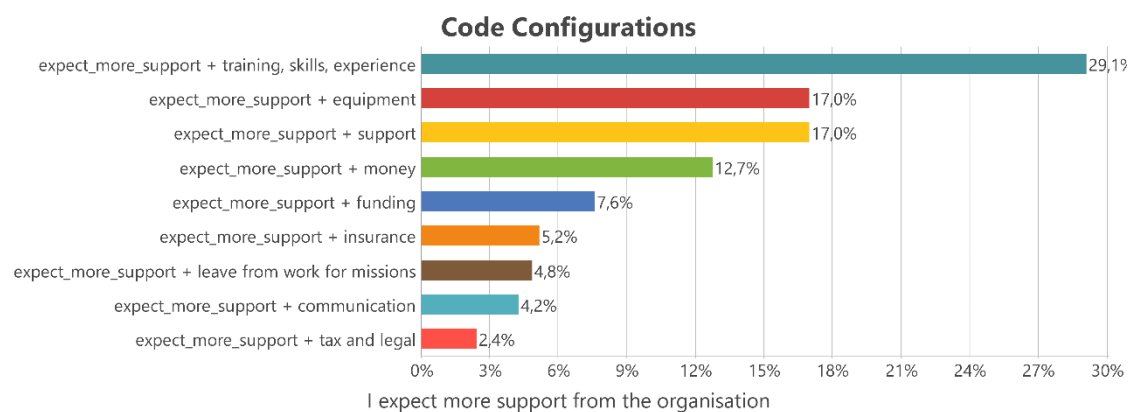


Figure 27: ‘I expect more support in the following areas’ (Question 53)

As shown in Figure 27, the (330 valid) respondents highlighted the majority of the areas (training, equipment, and support), in which organisational support (further evaluated later in Chapter 5.3, p. 173) already seems to be provided. This supports the finding that respondents assess the current level of support as insufficient mainly in the areas of training, equipment, and (undefined) support.

Interestingly, the 4th top code was ‘money’ and the second top code was ‘equipment’, both favouring tangible support. In relation to Chapter 5.2.3 (p. 162), this seems to highlight that there is, indeed, some favour for tangible support among participating volunteers. Unlike in Figure 25, where the frequency of the coding of ‘money’ of the interviews was misleading, participants were asked explicitly about their expectations from the organisation concerning support and ‘equipment’ and ‘money’ totals 29.7% – almost one third – expecting tangible support. This reinforces the danger discussed in Chapter 5.2.3 (p. 162).

On the one hand, surprisingly, respondents also mentioned ‘money’ when asked about the areas where *no* further support was needed (see Figure 28). This could suggest that the mentioned problem of misalignment between managers and volunteers would lack generalisability to all volunteering organisations in Bavaria.

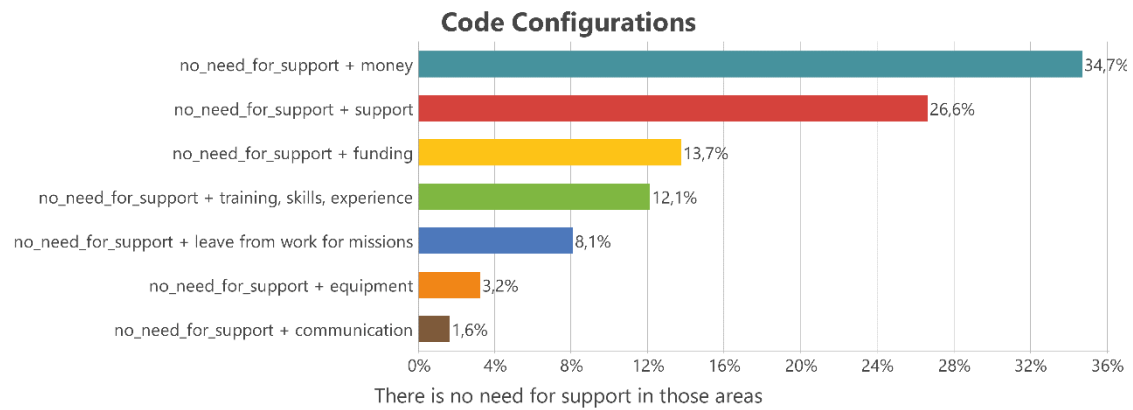


Figure 28: ‘There is no need for support in those areas’ (Question 54)

On the other hand, comparing Figure 27 with Figure 28, the percentage of participants expecting more monetary support (12.7% of 330) is considerably less than those stating (not explicitly asking for their opinion on money) that there is no need for monetary support (34.7% of 124), whereas only 124 participants responded to Question 54. Hence, comparing these results, they again seem consistent with the findings of the closed Questions 42–52 and the findings in Chapter 5.2.3 (p. 162) that a minority of volunteers already seem susceptible for extrinsic support negatively affecting their intrinsic motivation.

Therefore, this does not seem to diminish the value of this finding to the potential academic and practical contribution of the study.

It is also possible that the BRC might not have full control over all possible fields of support, illustrated in the next figure, which shows that 32.5% of a total of 579 respondents demanded a legal right of leave from work for missions.

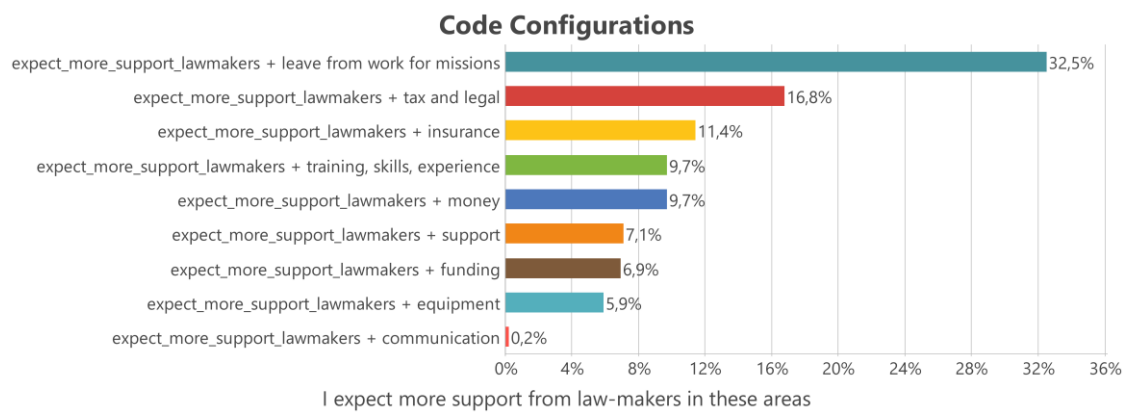


Figure 29: 'I expect more support from lawmakers' (Question 55)

The similarities between the findings for Questions 53–55 support the notion that although the organisation could theoretically exert more support in terms of training and equipment, there are still regulatory and legal constraints preventing further development.

Most of the interviewees agreed with volunteers acknowledging a lack of support in the area of training and experience, with statements such as

quite a lot of volunteers still cannot find their place in the organisation

and

We also offer a lot of training ... but there is always demand for more.

However, one manager has a contrasting opinion on communication, noting that

there is no particular demand for communication.

Consequently, considering that only 4.2% of volunteers expected more support on 'communication' this suggests a general agreement between the perceptions of the supervisors and the opinions of 'regular' volunteers.

Training was mentioned and discussed by all interviewees (see Figure 25). The interviewees provided a broad insight into the reasons why volunteers would expect much more support relating to training.

Most of the interviewees criticised the lack of flexibility:

This is often something where bull-headed old structures prevent people from doing something. And there are people who don't think about the consequences of their decisions and just say, 'we're doing this now.' even if this means that they prevent so many people from continuing volunteering.

Another manager explained:

Today, if young helpers come and want to help, then they have to go through several pieces of training. However, only e.g. some training courses are offered only twice a year. Until a helper has completed all necessary training, a lot of time passes; sometimes even years. Sometimes, helpers cannot attend courses for professional reasons. We sometimes even have helpers who need 3 to 4 years to get all the necessary training. Until then, some helpers simply get frustrated.

Another interviewee added that,

When a new member joins us, he needs one or two years of training and education before he can actually volunteer effectively. When I attend another international aid organisation, I am a full member within 24 hours. With us, this takes much longer. This is a problem.

This lack of flexibility manifests in parallel structures. Training and volunteering tasks do not always match the way they should:

But if you tell volunteers that they cannot volunteer before they have finished the entire education and training without actively integrating him with the team, they lose interest.

[...]

For example, a star cook wanted to cook at one of our care facilities and they didn't let him because he hasn't attended the relevant training as a field cook. Of course, these are our regulations, but in this case, of course, this was non-sense.

Two other quotes are the following:

We need to recognise all the skills volunteers already have.

We provide a lot of training, but it should be tailored to the needs of volunteers.

There is also a demand for modern ways of training, such as e-learning tools:

They demand more e-learning offers. We are too reluctant concerning new technologies like e-learning tools. We must think more volunteer-oriented, but if you demand this thinking you are often being ignored. We very strictly stick to the training requirements without any flexibility. The Red Cross organisation is too slow.

On the other hand, in the opinion of managers, high volunteer demand for various training opportunities could lead to overstraining volunteers:

Some volunteers want to do more, they want more skills. It is our task to recognise these expectations but also assess if this is really what is good for the volunteers as every volunteer needs some time to relax, too.

To at least partially overcome possible overstraining, in the opinion of managers, volunteers ask for better support of the organisation in terms of the recognition of already passed training:

There is also a lack of support from our head office in Munich in terms of the recognition of leadership training within the BRC and outside the BRC. Therefore, volunteers who change their field of volunteering need to pass new training courses again. That demotivates volunteers. It is incomprehensible to me why there are these differences that are not really necessary.

The most common demand, however, is to provide more training, more training instructors who are well trained themselves, and guidelines for volunteers to find the right training opportunities for them:

much training and further education and counselling. Many volunteers are getting lost in the jungle of regulations and we help them get along.

... you also need quite a number of instructors to provide for the training courses.

Thus, supporting training and training opportunities are a manifold task and the majority of eight interviewed managers highlight that there are regulatory and funding constraints:

we partially have public funding ... the amount of funds is not likely to increase ... but the needs will increase.

In other words, the ability of organisations to offer support may ultimately be limited. Nevertheless, it is difficult to specify how exactly the Bavarian government could aid in terms of training. This raises the issue of whether the role of government as a stakeholder in a volunteering system is limited to providing finance such as providing for volunteer equipment. Based on the available qualitative data, more consistent funding would be appreciated:

We've had some times with worse funding like in the year 2001 where our equipment was very outdated. But the situation is much better now. We should

get more consistent funding. There is no use of buying more and more equipment, but we should also better care for the equipment we have.

However, interviewees criticise government decisions acting against volunteerism in some areas, promoting professional paramedics, which replace volunteers:

There are hardly any volunteer paramedics. Then everything will be more expensive. Then the question arises, who pays that.

Another one added,

The medical qualifications you need working in the ambulance services are constantly increasing, so this is not an area where the 'everybody'-volunteer can start working right away as you cannot right away start working in a hospital without any qualification.

Hence, legal requirements of qualification could have a decreasing effect of volunteerism in the medical services area.

While volunteers and managers agree that they should emphasise supporting training and skills, managers revealed different problems implementing support in the field such as potentially overstraining volunteers with mandatory training structures before they can participate in volunteer missions.

5.2.5 Summary

Briefly summarising expected support, which is the subject of Research Question 2, data from the questionnaire supports a strong general demand of around 75% of the participating volunteers for intangible support, which seems to correlate to a high level of intrinsic motivation.

However, the data seems less specific in terms of expected tangible support. Concerning monetary support in terms of reimbursement, in particular, the data suggests that volunteers with a high degree of intrinsic motivation tend to care less for tangible support independent of their income. However, there seems to be a development of tangible support compromising intrinsic motivation. Some volunteers seem to demand tangible extrinsic motivation, which seems to override existing intrinsic motivation.

On the other hand, a majority of volunteers still explicitly reject tangible support.

The demand and critique related to the law-making authorities reveal that the regulatory environment limits organisational support.

Concerning the matrix introduced in Figure 24 above, expected support and its importance for Bavarian volunteers could be graphically outlined like this:

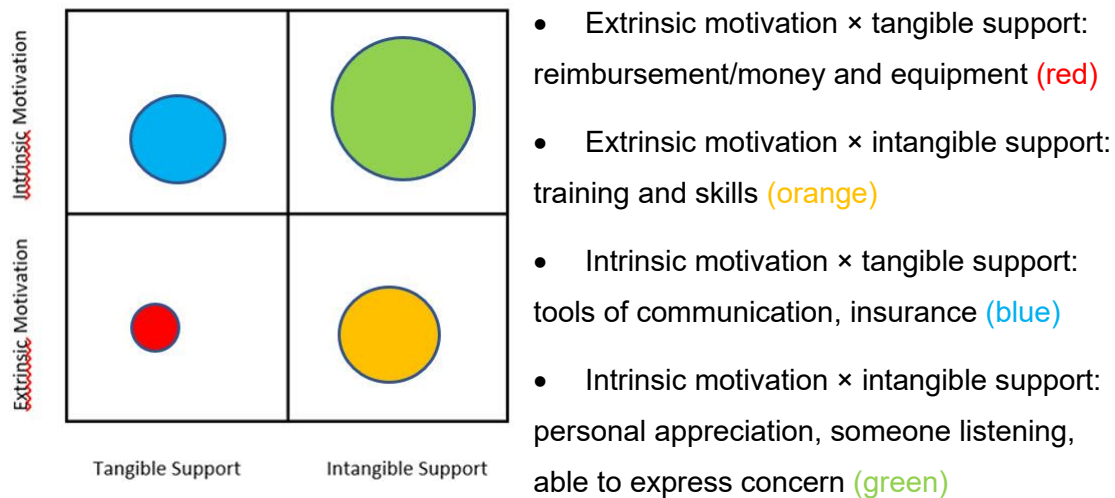


Figure 30: Matrix of motivation support II

There are several limitations regarding Figure 30. It outlines the findings, but it does not display a mathematically exact sizing of the circles. Figure 30 serves to draft different kind of expected support by volunteers participating in the study and combinational logic of the categories lacking evidence. In this study, however, the emphasis of the mixed-methods approach was on exploring and understanding expected support and how it inter-relates to offer suggestions for aid organisations on how to allocate support. To reach this goal and answering Research Question 2, a quantitatively exact mathematical relationship is dispensable and would likely neglect important relationships as seen – for example – regarding reimbursement.

Regarding Research Question 2 (what factors of support should be considered), the relationships drafted in Figure 30 are an essential step towards delimiting and categorising different kinds of support. There is a reasonable suspicion supported by the data that extrinsic motivation seems to override intrinsic motivation. If the organisation chose to motivate volunteers extrinsically, it would eventually destroy intrinsic motivation and create work-for-profit-relationships, which would contradict the meaning of 'volunteering'. Therefore, aid organisations should instead try to support intrinsic motivation (blue and green circles in Figure 30), protecting volunteers, practical tools of communication and – even if this is laborious – support volunteers by appreciating their work, providing opportunities to express concern, and listening to volunteer's needs and problems. Because a considerable portion of the participants reported that they expect more training support (see Figure 27), it should be realised that this

demand is not (only) about providing more training opportunities but also about being more flexible.

The relationship between support and motivation will be further elaborated in Chapter 5.5 (p. 177).

5.3 Received Support

In this section, Research Question 3 is addressed regarding support of the BRC, which is already implemented. Answering this research question will facilitate the assessment of whether the organisation has implemented effective support comparing the findings to those of Chapter 5.2 (p. 156).

The open-ended Question 56 specifically asked participating volunteers what kind of support they receive.

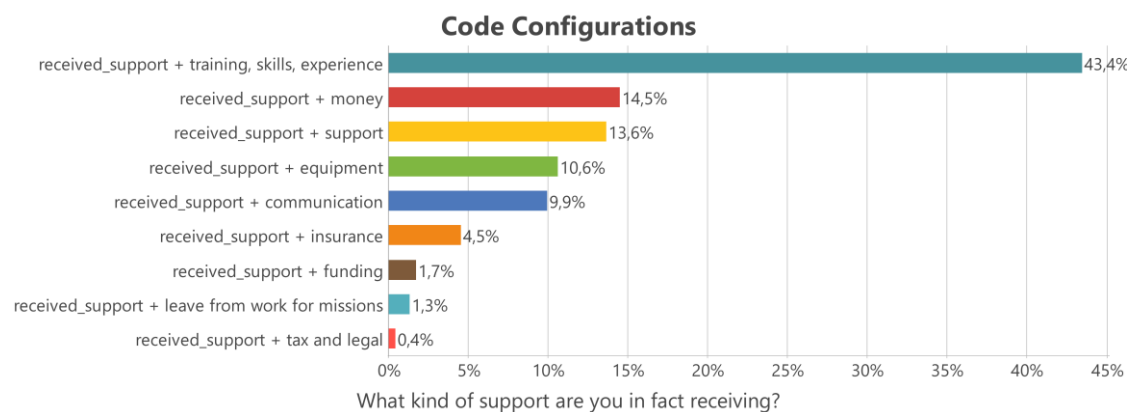


Figure 31: ‘What kind of support are you in fact receiving?’ (Question 56)

Out of 463 valid answers, 43.4% of the respondents stated that they receive the most organisational support concerning ‘training, skills, and experience’. At a rather large distance, this is followed by ‘money’ (14.5%), the more general category of ‘support’ (13.6%), and ‘equipment’ (10.6%).

Unlike in the previous chapters, where qualitative data (interviews) is used primarily to improve quality of the quantitative data, interviews are particularly important concerning Research Question 3 because volunteer managers provided first-hand information about what factors are implemented to support volunteers.

The word cloud in Figure 32, including all interviews, reveals that, concerning support, interviewees only mentioned ‘training’ to be a particular kind of support which could be identified with one commonly used expression. As discussed above, this indicates

that there is a rather high degree of various options, not only among volunteers but also among volunteer managers.



Figure 32: Word cloud Interviews

Figure 25 already displays the coded frequencies of the interviews related to different aspects of support. While Figure 25 refers to the frequency of a coded support factor present within each interview (see definitions in Table 28), Figure 33 reveals the frequency of a coded support factor within each interview.

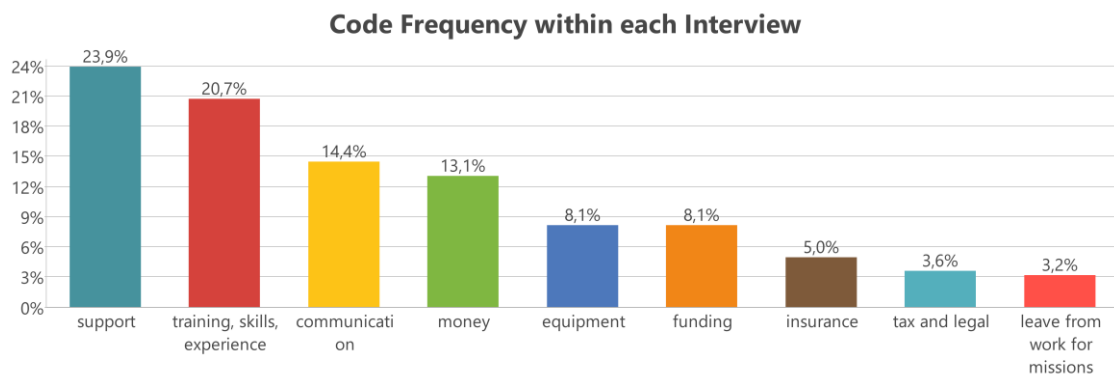


Figure 33: Code frequency within interviews

Consistent with the word cloud in Figure 32, 'training' seems to be one of the most frequently mentioned concern of the interviewees, as 20.7% of the answers of the interviewees relate to training issues. However, an even higher 23.9% of the interviews relate to the topic of 'support', which did not fit into the more precisely defined categories. This again shows considerable variation in answers. To some extent, this could be due to the semi-structured interviews providing more space for interviewees for their ideas compared to structured interviews. However, this approach was deliberately chosen to mitigate possible bias and social pressure arising from the interviewees.

According to Figure 33, although 23.9% of the interview data indicates various measures of support, the majority (76.2%) of the interview data could be coded with a more detailed topic: 'training, skills, and experience' followed by communication issues are the most frequently mentioned organisational support. However, 'money' (13.1%), 'equipment' (8.1%), 'funding' (8.1%), and 'insurance' (5.0%) add to a total of 34.3% of organisational support aiming directly to extrinsic motivation through tangible support.

Comparing the responses to Question 56 and the findings of the interviews, the results are particularly conclusive as far as 'training' is concerned. The assessment of both volunteers (14.5%) and interviewees (13.1%) of 'money' as a way of support seems similar, too. The same applies to insurance and equipment.

Concerning 'communication', the data of the interviews of volunteer managers (14.4%) compared to volunteers (9.9%) suggests that managers tend to overestimate existing support for communication. Funding, as well, tends to be overrated by volunteer managers (8.1% compared to 1.7% of the volunteers).

That said, both volunteer managers and volunteers themselves consider 'training, skills and experience' as the best-implemented factor for organisational support. However, it also needs to be noted that, although at some considerable distance from 'training' (43.4%, Figure 31), 'money' (14.5%, Figure 31) seems to be an important factor for organisational support, too, representing the second most prevalent factor for support in the opinion of the volunteers. This seems particularly concerning according to the findings presented in Chapter 5.2.3. (p. 162), suggesting a detrimental effect of monetary support on intrinsic motivation.

5.4 The Relationship Between Expected and Established Support

Under ideal conditions, expected support by volunteers matches established organisational support, forming an equilibrium. The more expected and established support is driven out of balance, the stronger the need for change towards equilibrium.

Comparing the findings of Question 53 (expected support) and Question 56 (received support), the following graph emerges:

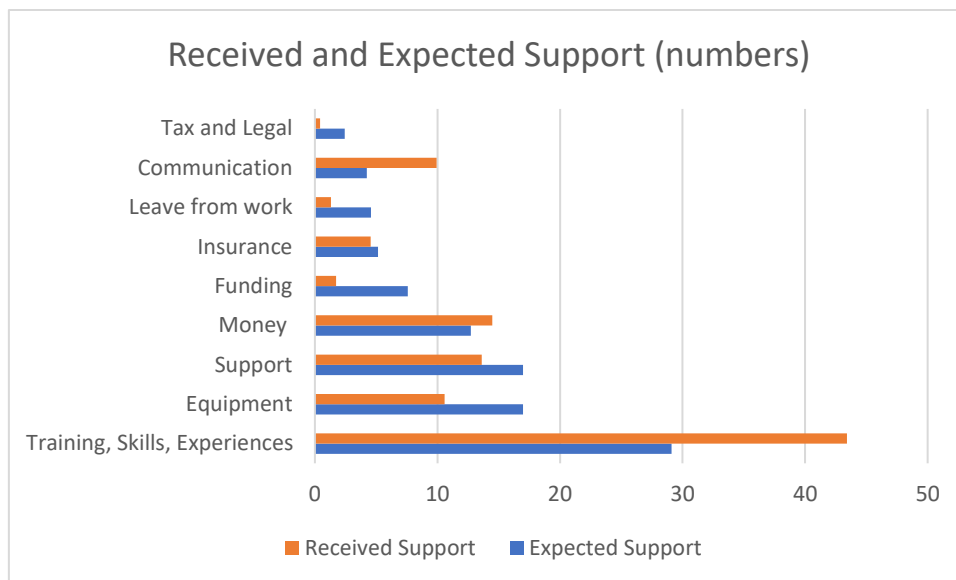


Figure 34: Received versus expected support

Figure 34 reveals two aspects: on the one hand, it again reveals that although there were 330 and 463 valid responses to either Question 53 and Question 56, the number of answers which would be coded is low considering the total of 995 participants in the study. On the other hand, while support concerning the issues of 'insurance' and 'money' expected and received support seems to be quite balanced, it can be summarised that

received support is rated higher than expected support:

1. Training, skills, experiences
2. Communication
3. Money

and

received support is rated lower than expected support.

4. Equipment
5. Support

6. Funding
7. Leave from work
8. Tax and legal
9. Insurance

This suggests that the organisation has already well understood that supporting training is matching the needs of volunteers. On the other hand, besides 'leave from work' – which seems to be an issue where the organisation has limited influence because it is a task for the government to change the legal framework – the organisation should not underestimate the issue of equipment and funding, because, concerning these issues, expectations outweigh established support.

In summary, Research Questions 2 and 3 are interrelated. While Research Question 2 aimed to assess factors of support which should be taken into consideration, Research Question 3 addressed the factors which are implemented.

Regarding expected support, the data suggests that a majority of volunteers favour intangible support over tangible support. Volunteers prefer to be listened to and to be able to express concern, and they particularly expect support related to training, skills, and experience.

The organisation seems to have well understood what kind of support volunteers are expecting. The data shows that volunteers receive more support for communication and training than they are expecting.

In contrast, although this is still a minority of participants, around 14% of the respondents expect support related to money such as reimbursements. Interviewed volunteer managers have noted that this is a somewhat dangerous development because extrinsic tangible support could eventually destroy existing intrinsic motivation (see Chapter 5.2.3, p. 162, and 5.5.1, p. 178). The data seems to support this looming development.

5.5 The Relationship Between Support, Motivation, and Retention

Presenting the findings of the study, this section refers to the types of relationships addressed in Research Question 4, which could be established between support, motivation, and retention, serving as the critical units of analysis for this project.

The following sub-chapters will examine the impact of support on motivation, support and retention and motivation on retention, concluding with an assessment of whether support directly impacts retention or needs the intermediate of motivation.

5.5.1 The Impact of Support on Motivation

The relationship between motivation and support was assessed with data on Questions 57 and 58 in Section 7 of the questionnaire, differing between non-monetary and monetary support. The expressions ‘non-monetary’ and ‘monetary’ were selected because in the pilot, people had difficulties understanding the meaning and in differentiating (in German) between ‘intangible’ and ‘tangible’: therefore, ‘non-monetary’ and ‘monetary’ served as synonyms for ‘intangible’ and ‘tangible’ support. It was made clear in the German survey, that ‘monetary’ means direct payments (such as reimbursement), and ‘non-monetary’ means benefits which do not involve a direct payment (for example, ‘training’ was considered non-monetary).

It is expected by common sense that more support would increase motivation. Thus, the participants were asked how much they agree that more (intangible/tangible) support affects their motivation to volunteer.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	32	3.2	3.9	3.9
	Unimportant	65	6.5	8.0	11.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	192	19.3	23.6	35.6
	Important	325	32.7	40.0	75.6
	Very important	198	19.9	24.4	100.0
	Total	812	81.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	183	18.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 42: ‘More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer’ (Question 57)

Although a notable 23.6% of the participants were undecided, Table 42 presents a majority of 64.4% of the respondents selecting ‘important’ and ‘very important’ supporting the expected relationship. Hence, almost two thirds of the 812 valid answers suggest that intangible support positively affects the motivation to volunteer.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	130	13.1	16.0	16.0
	Unimportant	176	17.7	21.6	37.5
	Neither important nor unimportant	239	24.0	29.3	66.9
	Important	187	18.8	22.9	89.8
	Very important	83	8.3	10.2	100.0
	Total	815	81.9	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	180	18.1		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 43: More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer (Question 58)

Supporting the notion that monetary support could also have an impact on the ability of the Bavarian volunteers to address challenges arising from fulfilling their volunteering, a total of 33.1% of the valid 815 questionnaire respondents evaluated the relationship between financial aid and motivation as either important or very important (see Table 43). On the other hand, another 29.3% of the sample was undecided, with the remaining 37.6% choosing the answers 'very unimportant' and 'unimportant'.

Comparing the answers to Questions 57 and 58, while the number of valid responses is almost equal, Table 44 shows that intangible support better affects motivation than tangible support: the mean of 3.73 and variance of 1.082 related to the answers to Question 57 also seems more consistent than for the answers to Questions 58.

Variable	N	Mean	SD (samp.)	Variance (samp.)	Missing	Missing (%)
57. More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.	812	3.73	1.040	1.082	183	18.39
58. More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.	815	2.90	1.217	1.480	180	18.09

Table 44: Descriptive statistics for Questions 57 and 58

To further explore whether volunteers prefer either tangible or intangible support, a crosstab (Table 45) shows how respondents behaved when answering Questions 57 and 58.

A determined respondent would be expected to answer the opposite to Questions 58 and 57. There could be, however, respondents who find both means of support important or unimportant.

The red numbers highlight the same answers; the green numbers represent the opposite responses; the most common relationship is highlighted in bold blue.

The most frequent combination (blue) is 'important' regarding Question 57 (non-monetary support) while being undecided concerning Question 58 (monetary support). This supports the assertion that, indeed, volunteers favour intangible support. However, Table 45 also reveals that respondents did not reject tangible support impacting on their motivation at all, as there are only a few logically exact responses (e.g. 'unimportant' at Question 57 and 'important' at Question 58).

→ 58. More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
↓ 57. More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.						
Very unimportant	15 (1.9)	7 (0.9)	3 (0.4)	2 (0.2)	5 (0.6)	32 (4.0)
Unimportant	11 (1.4)	33 (4.1)	6 (0.7)	10 (1.2)	5 (0.6)	65 (8.0)
Neither important nor unimportant	28 (3.5)	29 (3.6)	79 (9.8)	41 (5.1)	13 (1.6)	190 (23.5)
Important	43 (5.3)	73 (9.0)	102 (12.6)	85 (10.5)	22 (2.7)	325 (40.2)
Very important	32 (4.0)	32 (4.0)	49 (6.1)	47 (5.8)	37 (4.6)	197 (24.4)
Total	129 (15.9)	174 (21.5)	239 (29.5)	185 (22.9)	82 (10.1)	809 (100.0)

Table 45: Crosstabulation of Question 57 and 58 (absolute [relative] frequency)

Thus, while the findings in Table 45 still support the assertion that intangible support has a higher impact on motivation than tangible support, this higher impact seems to be weak, as graphically outlined in Figure 35.

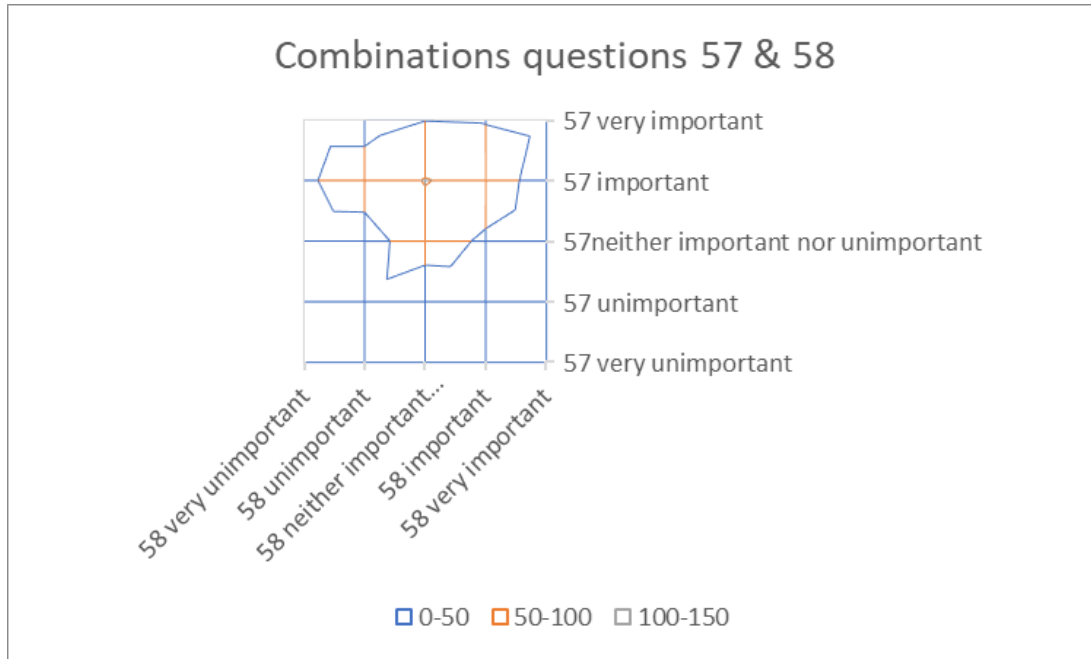


Figure 35: Combinations of Questions 57 and 58

That said, a shift of perspective towards the pattern of answers of participants with a high level of intrinsic motivation related to Questions 57 and 58 could yield for more detailed results.

Pursuing the IMM calculated in Chapter 5.2.3 (p. 162), and asserting that intrinsic motivation is more favourable, it seems interesting to explore the relationship between IMM and the answers to Questions 57 and 58. It is expected that participants with a high IMM should rate intangible support to be particularly motivating.

Non-mone-tary support affects motiva-tion (Ques-tion 57)	IMM = 1 (N = 2)	IMM = 2 (N = 7)	IMM = 2.5 (N = 2)	IMM = 3 (N = 60)	IMM = 3.5 (N = 30)	IMM = 4 (N = 484)	IMM = 4.5 (N = 59)	IMM = 5 (N = 190)
Very im-portant, number (%)	0	4 (57.1)	0	7 (11.7)	5 (16.7)	193 (39.9)	17 (28.8)	70 (36.8)
Im-portant, number (%)	0	1 (14.3)	1 (50.0)	22 (36.7)	12 (40.0)	126 (26.0)	14 (23.7)	21 (11.1)

Neither im- portant nor un- importa nt, num- ber (%)	0	1 (14.3)	0	17 (28.3)	2 (6.7)	41 (8.5)	13 (22.0)	9 (4.7)
Unim- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	6 (10.0)	4 (13.3)	84 (17.4)	4 (6.8)	73 (38.4)
Very un- importa nt, num- ber (%)	0	1 (14.3)	1 (50.0)	3 (5.0)	3 (10.0)	12 (2.5)	2 (3.4)	8 (4.2)
N = doc- uments	2 (0.2%)	7 (0.8%)	2 (0.2%)	60 (7.2%)	30 (3.6%)	484 (58.0%)	59 (7.1%)	190 (22.8%)

Table 46: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 57

Indeed, Table 46 reveals a trend of two thirds of the participants with an IMM of 4.0 considering intangible support as having substantial effects on motivation. As mentioned above, the number of participants with a low IMM is very low: therefore, the numbers relevant for further discussion are highlighted in green.

However, this rating does not increase with higher IMM. Interestingly, 38.4% of participants with the highest IMM of 5.0 stated that there are unimportant effects of intangible support on motivation. This could indicate that intangible support is indeed important to increase intrinsic motivation, but only until intrinsic motivation becomes so high that any kind of support is irrelevant.

Mone- tary support affects motiva- tion (Ques- tion 58)	IMM = 1 (N = 2)	IMM = 2 (N = 7)	IMM = 2.5 (N = 2)	IMM = 3 (N = 60)	IMM = 3.5 (N = 30)	IMM = 4 (N = 484)	IMM = 4.5 (N = 59)	IMM = 5 (N = 190)
Very im- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	8 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	38 (7.9)	7 (11.9)	25 (13.2)
Im- portant, number (%)	0	2 (28.6)	0	6 (10.0)	7 (23.3)	105 (21.7)	11 (18.6)	46 (24.2)

Neither im- portant nor un- importa nt, number (%)	0	1 (14.3)	0	19 (31.7)	7 (23.3)	146 (30.2)	14 (23.7)	38 (20.0)
Unim- portant, number (%)	0	1 (14.3)	0	13 (21.7)	3 (10.0)	107 (22.1)	11 (18.6)	35 (18.4)
Very unim- portant, number (%)	0	3 (42.9)	2 (100.0)	9 (15.0)	7 (23.3)	61 (12.6)	7 (11.9)	36 (18.9)
N = docu- ments	2 (0.2%)	7 (0.8%)	2 (0.2%)	60 (7.2%)	30 (3.6%)	484 (58.0%)	59 (7.1%)	190 (22.8%)

Table 47: Crosstabulation of IMM x Question 58

Correspondingly, Table 47 (non-monetary support) should display the opposite tendency to Table 46 (monetary support). However, while this seems to be the case for participants of an IMM of 4.0, tangible support becomes more important for participants with the highest intrinsic motivation (IMM of 5.0), with 24.2% selecting 'important' compared to 11.1% in Table 46. On the other hand, only 13.1% saw a very important effect of tangible support on motivation, which is less than half (36.8%) of the percentage preferring intangible support.

The argument mentioned above – that for very highly intrinsically motivated volunteers any form of support seems to become unimportant for their motivation – cannot wholly be upheld. Furthermore, as mentioned above, there appears to be a minority which is prone to tangible support despite a rather high level of intrinsic motivation.

Hence, these findings could imply that intangible support may be more beneficial when influencing intrinsic motivation, which was prominent in the sample. Nonetheless, the fact that the value of monetary reimbursement was highlighted by more than one third of the respondents revealed that individual preferences also play an important role. It would be interesting to compare these findings with the existing frameworks of motivation.

Only 6 out of 15 interviewees actively commented on how support could affect motivation. Others tended to take intrinsic motivation for granted.

If they really want to volunteer, they will remain within the organisation themselves no matter whether there is support.

On the one hand, this could be indicative of the general lack of awareness among the managers of Bavarian volunteers of the links between these concepts. On the other hand, it might be impossible to generalise this trend beyond the supervisors who participated in the study. This interpretation could be argued because volunteering motivation could have been perceived as mostly intrinsic and thus unaffected by support or other external factors. One of the interviewees exhibited this point of view and stated that

If we pay people, nobody volunteers. If we offer payment, there may be some retirees who like to do an easy job and earn some money. But this is not what we want. We need people that are intrinsically motivated to help.

A different interviewee offered a different opinion when asked what would happen to volunteer motivation if there were no support at all:

If we stopped our support, motivation would be much lower.

This opinion that support is vital for volunteer motivation is shared with another interviewee:

It's important to be supported as much as possible, especially in the areas that are new, such as administrative and digital media. It is important that we support there, so administrative tasks do not spoil the volunteer work. The people are motivated to do practical work, they like to spend time there. For everything else, that's rather frustrating sooner or later.

Yet, another interviewee reported that there is sometimes even too much (intrinsic) motivation and that managers have to slow volunteers down:

The typical helper is euphoric in the beginning: so much so that you almost have to slow them down. Otherwise, they are burned out and will not come back any more.

All of the six interviewees who emphasised the relationship between support and motivation mentioned another method of support not noted by a considerable number of volunteers in the questionnaire. The managers argued that actively addressing and individually supporting people is a very important aspect of volunteer motivation:

Word of mouth is very important here. If someone says to his acquaintance: 'Come, come with me, help me organizing the senior afternoon or support me at the clothing store.' Then that is a strong motivation.

This is supported by the following:

Most of them volunteer because they had been asked to do so. Someone personally motivated them to volunteer. From this starting point, people realise that volunteering is interesting to them.

and

I always say, 'I need you, I cannot do it without you'. You have to make people feel that 'You are incredibly important to me'.

On the other hand, the managers realise that this kind of intense individual intangible support implies a considerable amount of work.

This is very time-consuming.

Consequently, it might be the case that most volunteers initially possess strong motivation and that organisational support is only acting either as a tool of reducing the possible losses in motivation or as a trigger to start motivation.

This possibility would need to be linked with the major theories of motivation and behaviour to establish the contribution to knowledge.

5.5.2 The Impact of Support on Retention

As suggested in Research Question 4, how tangible or intangible support influenced retention still needs to be investigated.

In terms of retention, the above findings indicate that the Bavarian volunteers may be primarily attracted to organisations offering intangible methods of volunteer support, realising their volunteering duties, and fulfilling their personal needs.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	30	3.0	3.7	3.7
	Unimportant	75	7.5	9.2	12.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	228	22.9	27.9	40.8
	Important	319	32.1	39.1	79.9
	Very important	164	16.5	20.1	100.0
	Total	816	82.0	100.0	
Missing	-.100	178	17.9		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	179	18.0		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 48: 'More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation' (Question 59)

More specifically, a total of 59.2% of the valid 816 respondents answered 'important' or 'very important' when asked to evaluate the significance of the relationship between intangible support and their desire to remain with their current volunteering organisation. However, it needs to be noted that 27.9% of the study participants remained undecided. This could demonstrate strong external or unpredictable factors affecting retention beyond intangible support.

The impact of tangible support relating to retention is assessed in Table 49.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	148	14.9	18.2	18.2
	Unimportant	177	17.8	21.7	39.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	243	24.4	29.9	69.8
	Important	173	17.4	21.3	91.0
	Very important	73	7.3	9.0	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 49: 'More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation' (Question 60)

The distribution of the answers approximately resembled that of motivation: a total of 30.3% of the sample confirmed that monetary (tangible) support was important or very important in terms of loyalty to their current organisation. Thus, it could be stated that even over time, the core intrinsic motivators of volunteering (e.g. an empathic desire to help others) remained important enough to ensure that volunteers would stay engaged.

However, the qualitative evidence reveals that this is not always the case in the Bavarian context. Specifically, one of the interviewees explained in the context of episodic (non-member) volunteers that

you can hardly motivate these helpers

in the long-term perspective, meaning that towards some groups of volunteers, it was difficult to maintain a high level of motivation regardless of the strategies of organisational support. Nonetheless, a major trend among the interviewed managers confirmed that

the volunteer will always be there, even with breaks ... there are breaks like parental leave.

Some, however, mentioned future changes:

I still think we will have volunteers but in a different form. The all-round volunteer who does everything will be less. We will also get a specialisation in volunteer work. People will be available for a period of time for a specific task but without a commitment to an organisation. People want to be free.

This change is, for example, highlighted by one of the interviewees who opined,

We've had some times with worse funding like in the year 2001 where our equipment was very outdated. But the situation is much better now. We should get more consistent funding.

and thereby highlighted the importance of funding.

Overall, the above findings related to the impact of support on retention were further rationalised in 14 of 15 interviews. For instance, a volunteering manager asserted that

it should not be forgotten that people also have a personal threshold when you ask too much of them,

highlighting the limitations of the relationships between support and retention. In other words, there may be a point of exhaustion beyond which no methods of support could be useful in preventing burnout and reducing turnover.

Another interviewee illustrated a case of abandoning and returning to volunteering, arguing that many volunteers

may have been with the Red Cross before and they are now so far established with family planning and professional life, that they say: 'Okay, I have time for volunteering again'.

This example seems to be independent of intangible support measures. Instead, this is a notable example of individual attributes. The individual need to establish themselves personally and professionally may be affected more strongly by tangible support, which is supported by the findings mentioned above, such as in Table 49, with 39.9% answering that they are being importantly and very importantly motivated by tangible support.

Surprisingly, three interviewees admitted that the BRC does not provide for any structures to directly support retention:

I don't think there are any specific structures of retention. Of course, it would be desirable to implement a structured way of motivating people to stay. But we don't have any concept. There's nothing.

Another one added,

We try that, of course, but it does not always work.

and yet, one interviewee summarised,

Yes, this has big potential to improve, because the volunteer service often doesn't know what they do and what they should do. They could do all the marketing effort to retain volunteers. I have never seen best practice in this area. We need to do a reset here, developing existing structures.

Managers tend to mostly rely on the intrinsic motivation of volunteers independent of any particular support:

If they really want to volunteer, they will remain within the organisation themselves no matter whether there is support.

Hence, while most volunteer managers seem almost quite frustrated or even surprised by the idea of actively supporting retention, one of them already seemed to be able to present a solution, however, concluding that he was not successfully implementing his ideas:

We already have a finished concept. We need to realise that there are a lot of episodic unbound volunteers we need to give more importance to. It is the wrong way that we demand many pieces of training before volunteers can start volunteering. We need to recognise all the skills volunteers already have. We must not overstrain volunteers with too much work. We have to recognise the gap between digital volunteers, digital natives, and the elderly like me. We need to introduce smaller specialised groups of volunteers so that they are motivated within the group. We need to grant responsibilities to volunteers and provide opportunities to help – for example, at concerts, maybe with some supervision – to bind them to the organisation. We haven't succeeded in doing all this.

Further, at least two other interviewees had plans to support retention, too, albeit focused on their special volunteer sections:

The difficult age is the age between 16 and 18. So most join with ages of 6 or 10 years, then stay with us for about 10 years, they come every week, they are super dedicated and learn a lot. Then, you're 16, you have your first boyfriend, you go to college or you get light in the head. It's just the phase of life, and that's the biggest challenge for us to retain people at this age.

This is supported by another, suggesting that

Children, however, usually stay until they are 16 years old and then lose interest. I think it is because they are not getting the support they should get. This is a group which is difficult to retain. They might come back when they are older, but, of course, only a few.

Volunteers and managers agree that while both intrinsic and extrinsic support are relevant factors regarding motivation, intrinsic motivation seems favourable regarding retention.

Briefly, the volunteering sector could be characterised by a high intrinsic degree of retention based on empathic motivation.

On the other hand, like findings of the relationship of support and motivation (Chapter 5.5.1, p. 178) suggest, there is a much more even distribution in Table 49 compared to Table 48: 29.9% were undecided, and 39.9% of volunteers considered tangible support to be either 'unimportant' or 'very unimportant'.

Variable	N	Mean	SD (samp.)	Variance (samp.)	Missing	Missing (%)
59. More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.	816	3.63	1.020	1.040	178	17.9
60. More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.	814	2.81	1.217	1.480	181	18.2

Table 50: Descriptive statistics for Questions 59 and 60

The descriptive statistics (Table 50) support the assertion that intangible support has a stronger impact on retention than tangible support.

However, similar to Chapter 5.5.1 (p. 178), the question arises how participants behaved answering Questions 59 and 60 in terms of opposite responses regarding tangible and intangible support affecting retention.

→ 60. More monetary support affect my retention with the organisation.	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
↓ 59. More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.						
Very unimportant	15 (1.9)	2 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	4 (0.5)	7 (0.9)	30 (3.7)
Unimportant	10 (1.2)	36 (4.4)	10 (1.2)	11 (1.4)	7 (0.9)	74 (9.1)
Neither important nor unimportant	33 (4.1)	37 (4.6)	96 (11.9)	46 (5.7)	14 (1.7)	226 (27.9)
Important	54 (6.7)	76 (9.4)	97 (12.0)	75 (9.3)	16 (2.0)	318 (39.3)
Very important	36 (4.4)	23 (2.8)	38 (4.7)	37 (4.6)	28 (3.5)	162 (20.0)
Total	148 (18.3)	174 (21.5)	243 (30.0)	173 (21.4)	72 (8.9)	810 (100.0)

Table 51: Crosstabulation for Questions 59 and 60 (absolute [relative] frequencies)

The crosstabulation in Table 51 yields insight into respondents' behaviour regarding Questions 59 and 60. Similar to the above-mentioned Table 45, the most frequent combination is 'important' for non-tangible support and 'undecided' for tangible support, meaning that there is indeed a tendency towards stating that intangible support affects retention more than tangible support. However, this tendency seems quite weak, as graphically highlighted in Figure 36.

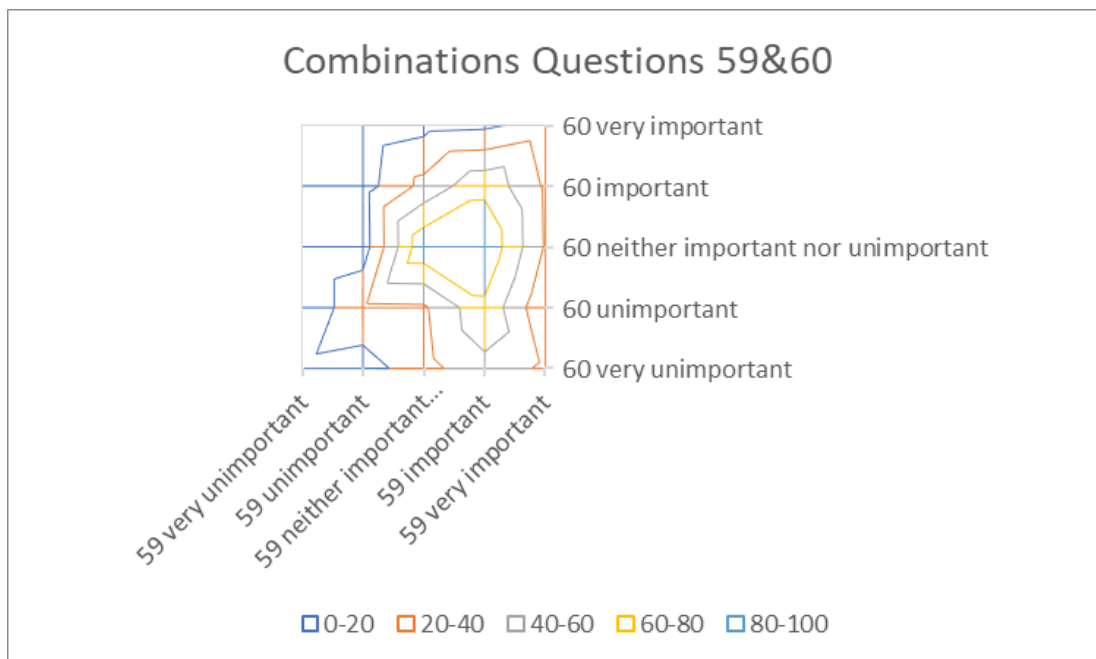


Figure 36: Combinations for Questions 59 and 60

Because more participants favour intangible support, it is worth examining how respondents with an IMM of > 4 answered Questions 59 and 60: mainly, whether participants with a high level of intrinsic motivation considered intangible or tangible support to be more important in regards of retention.

Non-mone- tary support affects reten- tion (Ques- tion 59)	IMM = 1 (N = 2)	IMM = 2 (N = 7)	IMM = 2.5 (N = 2)	IMM = 3 (N = 60)	IMM = 3.5 (N = 30)	IMM = 4 (N = 484)	IMM = 4.5 (N = 59)	IMM = 5 (N = 190)
Very im- portant, number (%)	0	3 (42.9)	0	5 (8.3)	3 (10.0)	63 (13.0)	15 (25.4)	73 (38.4)
Im- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	8 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	102 (21.1)	11 (18.6)	37 (19.5)
Neither im- portant nor un- importa nt, number (%)	0	3 (42.9)	0	16 (26.7)	5 (16.7)	151 (31.2)	11 (18.6)	47 (24.7)
Unim- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	4 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	48 (9.9)	3 (5.1)	14 (7.4)
Very unim- portant, number (%)	0	0	1 (50.0)	5 (8.3)	4 (13.3)	7 (1.4)	4 (6.8)	5 (2.6)
N = docu- ments	2 (0.2%)	7 (0.8%)	2 (0.2%)	60 (7.2%)	30 (3.6%)	484 (58.0%)	59 (7.1%)	190 (22.8%)

Table 52: Crosstabulation of IMM x Question 59

Table 52 supports the assertion mentioned above: a majority of participants with a high intrinsic motivation also found intangible support an important or very important factor for their remaining with the organisation. However, a considerable number of participants were undecided.

Mone- tary support effects reten- tion (Ques- tion 60)	IMM = 1 (N = 2)	IMM = 2 (N = 7)	IMM = 2.5 (N = 2)	IMM = 3 (N = 60)	IMM = 3.5 (N = 30)	IMM = 4 (N = 484)	IMM = 4.5 (N = 59)	IMM = 5 (N = 190)
Very im- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	9 (15.0)	2 (6.7)	28 (5.8)	9 (15.3)	21 (11.1)
Im- portant, number (%)	0	0	0	8 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	102 (21.1)	11 (18.6)	37 (19.5)
Neither im- portant nor un- importa nt, number (%)	0	3 (42.9)	0	16 (26.7)	5 (16.7)	151 (31.2)	11 (18.6)	47 (24.7)
Unim- portant, number (%)	0	2 (28.6)	0	9 (15.0)	6 (20.0)	112 (23.1)	14 (23.7)	28 (14.7)
Very unim- portant, number (%)	0	2 (28.6)	2 (100.0)	12 (20.0)	6 (20.0)	63 (13.0)	7 (11.9)	47 (24.7)
N = docu- ments	2 (0.2%)	7 (0.8%)	2 (0.2%)	60 (7.2%)	30 (3.6%)	484 (58.0%)	59 (7.1%)	190 (22.8%)

Table 53: Crosstabulation of IMM × Question 60

Compared to Table 52 (Question 59), Table 53 depicts indeed a slight tendency of intrinsically motivated volunteers to disfavour tangible support, but it is more difficult to detect a clear trend in Table 53.

Thus, while intrinsically motivated volunteers seem to favour intangible support, this does not mean that they also completely disfavour tangible support regarding their assessment of likely remaining at the organisation.

The presented results could arguably suggest that the longer participants are volunteering at the BRC, the more their preferences of support necessary to retain volunteers change.

→ Non-monetary support to retention (Q 59)	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
↓ Length of stay (Q 9)						
Less than 1 year	8.0 (6.9)	8.0 (2.7)	40.0 (4.5)	24.0 (1.9)	20.0 (3.1)	100.0 (3.1)
1–3 years	2.7 (10.3)	10.7 (16.2)	31.3 (15.7)	36.6 (13.1)	18.8 (12.9)	100.0 (14.0)
3–5 years	1.5 (3.4)	11.8 (10.8)	30.9 (9.4)	36.8 (8.0)	19.1 (8.0)	100.0 (8.5)
5–10 years	0.8 (3.4)	6.8 (10.8)	23.7 (12.6)	39.8 (15.0)	28.8 (20.9)	100.0 (14.7)
Over 10 years	4.2 (62.1)	8.3 (48.6)	26.8 (52.0)	40.9 (56.5)	19.9 (52.8)	100.0 (54.0)
I am not a member	8.7 (13.8)	17.4 (10.8)	28.3 (5.8)	37.0 (5.4)	8.7 (2.5)	100.0 (5.7)
Total (N = 802)	3.6 (100.0)	9.2 (100.0)	27.8 (100.0)	39.0 (100.0)	20.3 (100.0)	100.0 (100.0)
→ Monetary Support to Retention (Q 60)	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
↓ Length of stay (Q 9)						
Less than 1 year	25.0 (4.2)	8.3 (1.1)	29.2 (3.0)	16.7 (2.3)	20.8 (6.8)	100.0 (3.0)
1–3 years	15.0 (11.9)	23.0 (14.8)	31.9 (15.3)	21.2 (13.9)	8.8 (13.7)	100.0 (14.1)
3–5 years	8.8 (4.2)	13.2 (5.1)	33.8 (9.8)	29.4 (11.6)	14.7 (13.7)	100.0 (8.5)
5–10 years	16.9 (14.0)	20.3 (13.6)	28.8 (14.5)	24.6 (16.8)	9.3 (15.1)	100.0 (14.8)
Over 10 years	19.7 (59.4)	23.2 (56.8)	28.3 (51.9)	20.2 (50.3)	8.6 (50.7)	100.0 (53.9)
I am not a member	19.6 (6.3)	32.6 (8.5)	28.3 (5.5)	19.6 (5.2)	0.0 (0.0)	100.0 (5.8)
Total (N = 800)	17.9 (100.0)	22.0 (100.0)	29.4 (100.0)	21.6 (100.0)	9.1 (100.0)	100.0 (100.0)

Table 54: Crosstabulation of Questions 9 × 59 and 60 (row [column] percentages)

Interestingly, regarding new volunteers (those having volunteered for less than 1 year) there is indeed a rather high number of undecided participants. Omitting the undecided, however, for 25.0% alone, tangible support is ‘very unimportant’ to remain,

while for 37.5% tangible support is 'very important' and 'important'. Comparing this to intangible support, only 8.0% of new volunteers (less than 1 year) think that it is 'very unimportant', while 20.0% consider intangible support very important. For long-term volunteers (over 10 years), 28.8% consider monetary support 'important' or 'very important', while 60.8% favour intangible support.

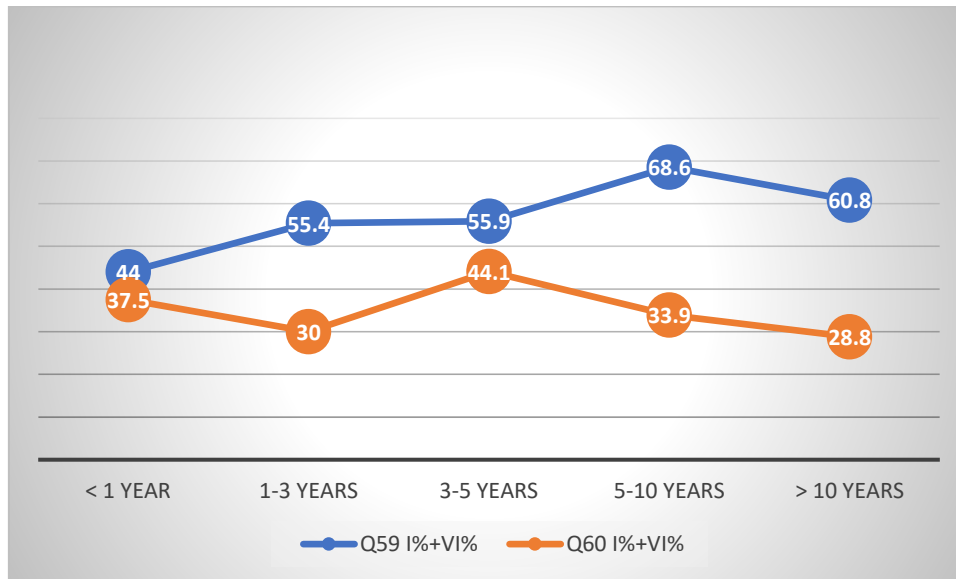


Figure 37: Length x Questions 59 and 60 ('Very Important' and 'Important' (cum%))

Hence, Figure 37 – which charts percentages of 'very important' and 'important' in reference to Table 54 – reveals the following patterns:

1. Intangible support is always more important to keep volunteering at the organisation; and
2. As the length of volunteering increases, the degree to which intangible against tangible support impacts retention tends to increase.

This supports the suggestion mentioned above that preferences of support do seem to change over time. However, a long-term study is needed to verify these results. The change over time displayed in Figure 37 does not assess the change of preferences of the same individual volunteer but is instead based on answers of different volunteers with different lengths of volunteer experience. Therefore, other factors like, for example, change in funding over time could limit the validity of this finding.

Summarising the data concerning the impact of support on retention, there seems to be a higher impact of intangible support on retention. This preference exists, to an

even greater extent for volunteers who have a high level of intrinsic motivation. However, this preference seems weak, because volunteers would remain at the organisation if there were more intangible support, while they would not reject tangible support. Again, these results indicate a considerable level of diversity among Bavarian volunteers.

This conclusion is generally supported by the interviewed managers; however, the interviews revealed that managers struggle to find a good structure to support retention (see also Chapter 5.2.4, p. 166). The managers highlighted practical issues involved in implementing support such as overstrain and missing retention strategies of the BRC. Hence, while there is agreement that intangible support seems favourable and is likely to impact retention, the question remains of how to deliver intangible support in the field.

5.5.3 The Impact of Motivation on Retention

In Question 61 of the questionnaire, the study's participants were asked about the relationship between motivation and retention.

It is expected that the more volunteers are motivated, the longer they keep volunteering with the organisation. Therefore, this question could serve as a proxy measure of retention (Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde & Knowles, 2013), if the relationship between motivation and retention is strongly supported by the participants.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	10	1.0	1.2	1.2
	Unimportant	13	1.3	1.6	2.8
	Neither important nor unimportant	71	7.1	8.7	11.5
	Important	319	32.1	39.2	50.7
	Very important	401	40.3	49.3	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Table 55: 'The more I'm motivated, the more I stay with the organisation' (Question 61)

Table 55 displays that a total of 88.5% of the participants assessed the strength of the relationship between motivation and retention to be 'important' and 'very important'.

The answers for intention to stay could serve as a proxy measure of retention (Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde & Knowles, 2013).

While nominally this would indicate that the volunteering organisations are under significant pressure to maintain motivation, this significance of support might be, again, diminished by the initial level of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, as far as Question 61 is concerned, participants were asked about the impact of motivation on retention without distinguishing whether this motivation was intrinsic or extrinsic and without relating to support. Hence, the responses to Question 61 suggest that a vast majority of participating Bavarian volunteers confirm the assertion that the more they are motivated, the more they volunteer. Therefore, the data indicates that motivation has a significant effect on retention.

Therefore, if the organisation succeeds in supporting motivation, it is likely to increase retention, too. However, another line of reasoning was possible as well: support could not only indirectly promote retention via motivation; support could as well directly impact retention without the influence of motivation, which was suggested in Questions 59 and 60.

Deducing from these two paths of reasoning, the question arises of whether motivation serves as a moderator influencing retention when supporting volunteers, or whether instead motivation is a mediator necessary to promote (and therefore explain) retention. If the latter was true, Questions 59 and 60 (support → retention) would be expected to yield low levels of agreement because without the necessary mediator (motivation), there could not be any significant impact on retention. At least as far as Question 59 is concerned, this is not true, because 59.2% of the participants chose 'important' or 'very important' when asked about the direct relationship between support and retention.

On the other hand, participants could have, as a matter of course, insinuated that support would impact their motivation to remain with the organisation, and this would be the reason for rising levels of retention.

If this argument were true, participants would be expected to answer Questions 59 and 60 (support → retention) the same way as Questions 57 and 58 (support → motivation), because if motivation served as a mediator necessary for the relationship between support and retention, the participants would not make a difference answering to the questions how support affects retention or motivation (to remain), because for them, 'motivation to volunteer' and 'remaining with the organisation' seemed similar. This means that responses to Questions 59 and 57 on the one hand, and to 60 and 58, on the other hand, should correlate.

According to the interpretation by J. Cohen (1988), there is a strong positive correlation if $r > 0.5$ ($r = 0.586$ and $r = 0.785$, both $p < 0.001$, see Table 56).

	57. More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.	59. More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.
57. More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.		0.586 ($p = 0.0000$) $N = 807$
59. More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.	0.586 ($p = 0.0000$) $N = 807$	
	58. More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.	60. More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.
58. More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer.		0.785 ($p = 0.0000$) $N = 809$
60. More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation.	0.785 ($p = 0.0000$) $N = 809$	

Table 56: Pearson's r correlation for Questions 57 and 59 and 58 and 60

These correlations – together with the data on Question 61 depicting a strong relationship between motivation and retention – instead indicate that participants did not consider motivation as a moderator but as a mediator (although this is not statistically proven), explaining the relationship between support and retention.

However, this interpretation could be argued against. While motivation as a mediating variable could explain why individuals continue to volunteer when supported, another perspective on the results in Questions 59 and 60 could also suggest that (intangible/tangible) support affects retention without the mediating need of motivation.

Motivation could as well simply moderate the strength of the existing relationship between support and retention. Hence, the question is whether motivation moderates the strength of the relationship between support and retention or indeed explains why there is such a relationship.

Proceeding from this assertion, it could still be possible that volunteers keep volunteering for other reasons than motivation. This could be particularly true if they seek to receive tangible support.

For example, an interviewee mentioned that

There are poor people as well, and they think that they could volunteer and still earn money at the same time. This is a dangerous development. In my opinion, we shouldn't do this.

However, even if motivation itself could be driven by reasons that are other than purely altruistic, volunteers must have some catalyst to volunteer because even the most robust tangible support would not outweigh payment for a regular professional job. One interviewee noted that she does not think that

volunteers volunteer because they want to earn money, but they volunteer because they believe in the good cause. Otherwise, they could just take a job.

It could be the case, too, that because of a rather high level of intrinsic motivation, support does not necessarily indicate higher motivation, but instead the absence of support serves as a demotivating factor, which fits the mentioned contradictions outlined previously.

Half of the interviewees reported that poor communication will cause volunteers to leave the organisation, like trying to sort out inactive members:

I know local groups who wrote letters to non-active members and named them 'non-active'. The volunteer felt offended to be called like that. They left.

However, even with significant organisational support, there were cases in which the study participants ...

... had to give up volunteering in the rescue services ... it is quite time-consuming.

Briefly, although Questions 59 and 60 suggest that there could be a relationship between support and retention, indicating that motivation would serve as a moderator, evidence from the interviews and the correlated answers (see Table 56) indicates that motivation serves as a necessary mediator suggesting that participants implied that motivation mediated the relationship between support and retention which is supported by Davis et al. (2003).

5.6 Summary

The findings of Chapter 5.5 (p. 177) suggest that while one quarter to one third of the participants seemed undecided throughout Section 7 of the questionnaire and 33.1% found that monetary support positively affects their motivation to volunteer, the analysis revealed that there is a more convincing positive impact of non-monetary support on motivation and retention. Additionally, intangible support seems to positively impact

both motivation and retention more than tangible support. As motivation seems to be a mediating factor for retention and data provide no evidence that supporting retention alone seems more successful than supporting motivation to enhance retention, organisations should focus on intangible support of volunteer motivation.

Further summarising the findings up to this point in a broader sense, the results of this study reveal a considerable diversity among volunteers (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). At various points in the study, results needed to be reassessed and explained, supporting the notion that the mixed-methods approach of the study facilitated a holistic exploration of the different traits involved.

Regarding the findings of the VFI, the data suggested 'values' and 'enhancement' to be the major motivating factors. While 'dedication to the cause' (Questions 14, 15, and 20) seemed to be the strongest category of motivation, this finding needs to consider that learning about the cause might not have an equally strong effect on retention because Question 20 ('I can learn more about the cause for which I am working') turned out to be the least favoured factor in the category of 'dedication to cause'.

Regarding 'peer pressure' (Questions 18, 19), the results revealed that volunteering friends within a group exerting free will seemed to particularly motivate younger individuals, while pressure to volunteer does not seem to serve as a potent factor of motivation. 'Career', on the other hand, seemed to be a relevant factor, but participants of the study stayed undecided.

The HAS questionnaire revealed high levels of the emotional desire to help and therefore served as a measure of intrinsic motivation. This was supported by the open questions: respondents considered helping to be the most important factor for motivation to volunteer, whereas lack of support and time function as demotivators.

Volunteers mostly expected intangible support from the organisation which even seems to become even more important over time. Particularly those volunteers with a high level of intrinsic motivation seemed to oppose monetary support; however, some tangible support such as funding and equipment would impact their motivation as well. Comparing expected support to received support, the data confirmed that the organisation seemed to have well understood the importance of training and communication when supporting volunteers. However, there could be more support concerning equipment and funding by the organisation and better regulations for leave of work by lawmakers.

The data further suggested that motivating factors tend to mediate the relationship between support and retention, as motivation is considered a prerequisite of retention. Together with the fact mentioned in the interviews that volunteer motivation is essential for retention, this supports the need to explore factors of volunteer motivation to finally develop a model to enhance retention efficiently.

6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The empirical study conducted with members of both the time-honoured BRC – one of the oldest and leading volunteer organisations in Bavaria – and the younger Team-Bavaria has yielded interesting, revealing, and potentially significant results regarding the precipitating and sustaining motivators affecting volunteerism. The scope of these results is broad. It ranges from initial triggers and catalysts for seeking opportunities to volunteer to maintaining support and motivators that encourage individuals to volunteer consistently over an extended period. In order to thoroughly and critically analyse these results within the broader context of volunteer support, this chapter begins by extrapolating the findings into their central conceptual elements, such as trait-based volunteer characteristics, constructs of the mission-oriented volunteer, and methods of support.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss quantitative and qualitative findings and how these relate to the literature.

After assessing the conceptual contexts and how they relate to the findings, the discussion continues by considering the thematic patterns elaborated in Chapter 4: egoism and altruism, causal dedication and mission compliance, considerations of professional development, the impact of helping and intrinsic motivation (HAS), and motivating versus demotivating factors.

In view of these considerations and inspired by the research questions, a subsequent chapter discusses intangible and tangible support, the architecture of support, finally thematically merging retention, motivation, and support.

Before this elaboration, this chapter will conclude with a predictive model of volunteer support and enhanced retention, based on a triangulation of primary and secondary research to justify the constructs of this predictive instrument. The chapter also broaches the issue of bias in the context of the findings.

6.2 Conceptual Foundations

The conceptual foundations are based on the theoretical frameworks laid out in Chapter 2.5 (p. 33), which already portray multiple possible approaches to the discussion of volunteer motivation and retention. In this chapter, these theoretical frameworks

are summarised and categorised into a more tangible construct containing both internal and external dimensions (see chapter 2.8, p. 57).

To better understand this tangible construct, the discussion should begin by recognising the 'standard' Bavarian volunteer who participated in the study: an older (over age 36), employed (but only a minority employed directly at the BRC), male, earning not more than €60,000 annually, and having volunteered for more than 5 years (with most having volunteered for more than 10 years).

6.2.1 Internal Dimension

Within the theoretical framework in this study, the 'internal dimension' epistemologically focuses on traits of the volunteer themselves. Within this dimension, it seems most important to understand and distinguish between the concepts of role identity, functional motivation theory, and SDT.

While Grönlund's (2011) role-identity theory of volunteerism suggests that particular goals or objectives are indicative of the traits and values exhibited by individuals that are more likely to volunteer on either an episodic or regular basis, SDT identifies the essential underlying basic needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness; (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Expectancy theory (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Lunenburg, 2011; Vroom, 1964), on the other hand, seems similar but has a slightly different focus, suggesting that individuals exhibit particular behaviours after cognitively rationalising the anticipated benefit or value of a certain action – which may or may not include role identity – when compared with its potential costs or impacts. An expectation of volunteer opportunities, therefore, is a motivational antecedent which must be fulfilled at the organisational level to motivate further behaviours that reflect this motivation. Lunenburg (2011) and Parijat and Bagga (2014) would most likely argue that when individuals are compelled to exert efforts that are too high or inconsistent with the potential benefits to achieving their objective, the gap between expected and realised outcomes will lead to demotivation, followed by a decline in mission commitment.

On the one hand, even within the internal dimension, the literature seems contradictory. Contrary to a culturally comparable Dutch study (van Ingen & Wilson, 2017) suggesting a strong association between age and volunteering, the current study did not confirm a tangible link between social exclusion of the elderly and volunteering. On the other hand, while unemployed persons might be more likely to use volunteering to improve their social identity and role, the findings of this study revealed that

less income seems to be correlated to higher levels of motivation but surprisingly, at the same time, 'money' did not better motivate participants with less income compared to wealthier individuals (see Chapter 5.2.3, p. 162, and Appendix 3, p. 293). This seems to be generally supported by the findings of a Swiss study (Frey & Goette, 1999) in which volunteers even worked less when rewarded.

Additionally, the study discovered changes in motivation as people age and the longer they volunteer (see Chapter 5.2.1, p. 157, and 5.5.2, p. 185). Hence, the ideological, psychological, and sociological affectation of volunteers suggests that there is no single factor but rather more dynamic conditioning factors which is supported by Van Til (1988). This continuously changing 'bouquet of factors' that is likely to not only motivate volunteers but improve volunteer retention over the long term.

Whereas role-identity theory aims towards a future state of being, functional motivation theory (Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012) emphasises a present relationship between the motive to volunteer and particular psychological traits and functions that prescribe or influence behavioural orientation.

Besides considering traits from a role identity or functional perspective, Musick and Wilson (2008) view volunteerism as a form of self-sacrifice. Unlike a person's role in the future or functions impacting one's behaviour, this raises the question of purpose and utility: specifically, whether the utility of the outcome serves to magnify the significance of the contribution itself.

In fact, throughout much of the feedback reviewed during this empirical study, common themes of sacrificing time, service, participation, and humanitarian reasons were identified, confirming a positive cognitive connotation between volunteering and self-sacrifice. However, a closer look at this study's findings could not entirely replicate Musick and Wilson's (2008) notion of self-sacrifice, as Question 41 revealed that time restraints seem to demotivate volunteers. Thus, it could be concluded that while overcoming time restraints is a way of self-sacrifice – because people could do something else than volunteering in their spare time – 'selflessness' and 'altruism' seemed more prevalent than 'self-sacrifice' in this study. Beyond the subjective perception of sacrifice, Snyder and Omoto (2008) propose that volunteering is determined by the nature of free choice or the deliberate aid and assistance offered by an individual without any formal conscription. Considering that the majority of the participants in this study regularly volunteer within the BRC, it may be doubtful to view their participation as completely and continuously free or selfless. However, while in this study volunteers seemed, to some extent, be characterised by a state of affiliation or membership (i.e.

dedication to a cause), they were less motivated by peer pressure. The findings therefore support the results in the above-mentioned literature that free choice is an important aspect in the context of volunteering. Dedication to a cause could be considered not to be an indication of lack of free will but rather the result of free choice – an act of self-determination – while participants rated low on external pressure are clarifying their desire for free will. That has potential implications for any support or motivation efforts that might be pursued.

While from a societal perspective, the primary advantages of volunteerism are based upon external contributions to the broader social agenda. In the field of social psychology, the motives and priorities associated with volunteering are viewed as a form of social and psychological advantage (Houle et al., 2005; Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; J. Kim, 2013). The range of advantages and experiential benefits identified throughout this study have revealed specific achievements relative to both the social and the psychological field. From a social perspective, participants identified friendships, networking, relational fulfilment, and communication development as core advantages that evolve out of the volunteering process. From a psychological perspective, key benefits such as self-confidence, self-actualisation, esteem enhancement, and value validation were all observed throughout the diversified feedback from the participants. These findings confirm prior research conducted by A. Cohen (2009) and Wilson (2012).

Within the general context presented above, the notion that trait-based volunteer characteristics impact volunteerism remains tenable. However, a categorisation of recurrent patterns seems necessary to assess the implications on retention because it became obvious throughout the study that volunteer's motives are highly diverse – a finding that matches those in the literature (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; McBride & Lee, 2012). It is even more challenging decoding such diverse motives associated with the process of volunteer work because individuals are likely to engage in a variety of modalities (e.g. episodic, crisis, career) to enter the volunteering process. While Penner's (2002) definition of volunteerism emphasises behavioural outputs of a specific purpose or broader social benefit, the assumption of altruism appears inconsistent with real-world imperatives and episodic, crisis-based responsibilities (Ong et al., 2014) and organisational influence (Van Schie et al., 2015). Instead, aid organisations are confronted with an unstable population of long-term volunteers committed to the broader mission and sustained by the active participation of highly invested volunteers (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016). The evidence presented by

the questionnaire participants suggests several important traits regarding the conditional motivations of Bavarian volunteers:

- Most volunteers are long-term members of an organisation such as the BRC.
 - Problem: The motivation in long-term memberships is not a constant factor (Finkelstein, 2008a) but is subject to continuous shifting from, for example, external factors such as peer pressure and life situations towards intangible factors depending on life situations.
- Most volunteers believe in the central mission and humanitarian agenda of the organisation for which they work and want to help.
 - Problem: A new population of paid or incentivised 'volunteers' is being recruited to fill gaps in the volunteer population due to both personal and systemic inhibitors diluting formal volunteering processes, which tends to attract less-skilled volunteers (Peterburgsky, 2012).
- Most volunteers would prefer to be placed in roles or positions that are complementary to their unique skills, experience, or personal value systems.
 - Problem: Systemic gaps and inconsistencies create inefficiencies in the routing and scheduling process that can lead under-qualified individuals to be positioned in non-productive roles (e.g. elderly volunteers responsible for computer tasks; (Penrod, 1991).

As for indicators of the potential gaps between the idealistic, altruistic motivations stimulating broader volunteer agendas on the one hand and the systemic, organisational constraints that create difficulties for some populations, on the other hand, these three observations raise questions about the truly voluntary state and characteristic of such aid-oriented endeavours. Musick and Wilson (2008) observe that volunteers engage in charity in order to support and serve a personal psychological need, which has been structured and characterised via the VFI throughout the current study. Motivation to volunteer, therefore, often relies upon the relationship between the motives and priorities of the individual and the commitments and offerings of the

organisation, establishing a condition of psychological fit that encourages harmony (Clary et al., 1998; Davis et al., 2003).

Based on the findings from this study (see categories of VFI in Chapter 4.3, p. 120, and coding in Table 28) and a body of research committed to the definition and characterisation of volunteerism in practice, it is possible to summarise the central concepts of volunteer-related activities as a conditional model of volunteer motivations. This trait-specific framework of volunteering is an important revelation that was synthesised by comparing the prior literature in this field with the findings captured throughout this multi-segment questionnaire.

Table 57 outlines the concepts presented by Van Til (1988), Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989), Clary et al. (1998), Finkelstein (2008b), Hustinx et al. (2010), Shye (2010), Duguid et al. (2013), and Tays et al. (2013) into a four-quadrant representation of volunteer traits (see also Table 5 and Table 6, p. 52, 53).

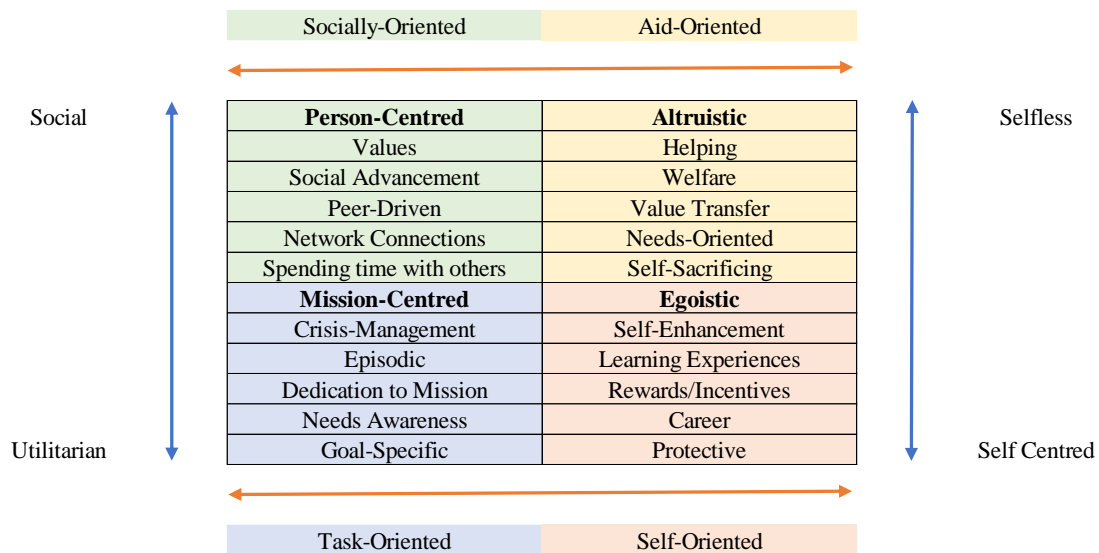


Table 57: Trait-Based volunteer characteristics

Individuals who are motivated by altruistic reasons, for example, are more likely to be selfless in their volunteering behaviours and are likely to be aid-oriented in the rationalisation and execution of their duties. In contrast, individuals with a selfish attitude and the same volunteering motives will be self-centred in their priorities and will likely remain self-oriented in the execution of any volunteering functions. While this is somewhat tautological, the empirical evidence presented in the preceding chapters showed that the values and traits of the volunteers revolved around this four-quadrant model and could therefore be categorised according to this table. Participants expressed satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the range of affective and influential

variables shaping their volunteering experience. Whereas utilitarian motives, for example, involved procedural and task-specific objectives, other participants reflected upon the personal value of social engagement, network connections, or business accommodations.

6.2.2 External Dimension

Besides the internal dimension, one of the central challenges in the nature and character of volunteering is that there is an additional external dimension of social responsibility, extending beyond the normative domain of daily individual practices and activities. The conceptual foundations of free will in the context of volunteering could also be regarded as conditional, grounded on situational, temporal, and environmental pressures that inform and orient the motivations towards volunteerism (Beehr et al., 2010). To analyse such influences in the context of volunteers, the questionnaire asked for consideration of both direct and indirect motivators that were responsible for encouraging volunteer activities. Further, this study used comparative dimensions within the questionnaire to evaluate the tensions between motivation to volunteer and the subsequent motivation to be retained as a volunteer within an organisation such as the BRC. While multiple studies (Dwiggins-Beeler et al., 2011; Gilbert et al., 2017; Locke et al., 2003; McBride & Lee, 2012) have considered the range of factors shaping volunteer retention, the current study has extended these models to consider pragmatic strategies for motivating retention through organisational and leadership support.

One of the important findings within the feedback presented by volunteers and leaders was that there is a robust commitment to altruism and social welfare that underscores the central motives and values of this diversified population of volunteers.

The question remains of what these motives are based on and whether they are influenced by external factors. From a theoretical standpoint, Bronfenbrenner's development ecology theory has proposed a degree of proximal affectation whereby temporal, experiential, and inter-personal forces exert influences upon the individual as they develop their central value systems and self-identification mechanisms (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; J. Christensen, 2010; Tudge et al., 2009). In a broader sense, the SOT (Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010; Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010) predicts that localised social structures and characteristics are likely to inform and influence the emotional, social constructs of volunteers (see Chapter 2.5.1.2, p. 34).

These structures may be organisational or societal.

Regarding the societal perspective, stimuli such as social involvement, participation, and regionalised needs all shape the role of an aid agency in society (Hustinx, Handy, Cnaan, et al., 2010). Based on the feedback in both the grouped, quantitative responses and the qualitative insights presented in this study, social motivators including network forces, peer allegiance, and group engagement are all elements driving and motivating the decision to volunteer.

Hence, several central issues need to be discussed concerning the empirical findings and the broader conceptual underpinnings of this research. First, there is an expectation that any participation in the BRC is voluntary, and by definition, the IFRC (2019) has confirmed that any failure to 'recognise the value of voluntary service is in danger of becoming bureaucratic'. On the one hand, the consequence of such bureaucracy is significant, as it threatens the freely motivated participation that encourages individuals to share their time and resources with the BRC without pressure or difficulty. On the other hand, a chaotic organisation dispensing any regulations (and therefore any executive bureaucratic measures) is likely to attract less-skilled individuals (Peterburgsky, 2012). Hence, by affiliation with formal organisational constructs, volunteerism is informed and shaped by a series of rules and regulations which establish the normative domain, shaping contributory behaviours (Bartels, 2014). This was identified as demotivational in the responses to the questionnaire and overstrain was criticised within the interviews alike; however, as leaders of the BRC are tasked with the execution of the broader organisational mission, it is evident that policies and procedures are an antecedent of effective and predictable commission.

For volunteer programmes to meet their broader objectives, there is a need for compliance and consistency, which was also demanded by interviewees regarding training needs, whereby individual initiative and autonomy is conditioned upon the broader contribution to the mission itself (Bartels, 2014; Duguid et al., 2013). For many volunteers, however, when such procedures restrict access to opportunities or programmes, the demotivational effects can have long-lasting implications.

Throughout the interviews, it was evident that the pathway into the BRC is relatively steep for some volunteers. Volunteers with specific skills or training were sometimes prioritised for missions over others, while some aspiring volunteers were asked to wait for other or later training opportunities or requirements. This limitation is problematic, as systemic bureaucracy in social service seems not to align with volunteerism. This bureaucracy affects the continuity, predictability, and execution of organisational

agendas (Zoller & Fairhurst, 2007) and was rated as demotivational in the questionnaire, however, it was not the most important factor of demotivation (see Figure 21, p. 150 and Figure 23, p. 152).

Whereas functional motivation theory predicts that individuals will volunteer to achieve multiple objectives at the same time, the potential gap between interest and real-world opportunities could lead to disconfirmation effects (Snyder et al., 2000; Stukas et al., 2016). Feedback from the interview participants in this study has suggested that whenever individuals feel that their skills or talents are being used inefficiently, their motivation levels decline. At the same time, when individuals are provided with opportunities to self-actualise and express themselves in ways that are more positively received, they are better motivated to participate within the procedural constructs of the system itself. Such findings confirm the potential weight of extrinsic hygiene forces on individual motivation, particularly as conflicts arise between organisational control and personal expectations or needs (Herzberg, 2008).

One of the core challenges observed within the empirical findings was that the conditional deployment of volunteers within the BRC was determined by the successful completion of training and development programmes. With interviewees acknowledging that the pre-mission training and guidance programmes are mandatory in spite of their general, non-episodic, non-situational considerations, there is a risk that programme participants can be discouraged by the complexity or the duration of the process itself. Structural constraints and procedural expectations can create significant gaps in the overall effectiveness of volunteer contributions, particularly when the heterogeneous skill sets of these multi-dimensional groups are not sufficiently considered (Baillie Smith & Laurie, 2011; Sundeen, Raskoff, & Garcia, 2007). For example, born-digital Millennial and Generation-Z volunteers have specific skills and competencies that could be better integrated into digital campaigns and fundraising programmes than Baby Boomer and Silent Generation populations who could better match their skills in social or caregiving contexts. A demand for matching skills and opportunities of volunteers is evident in both the findings of this study and the literature (Vetter, Hall, & Schmidt, 2009).

Another element of the complex structural framework underscoring the policies and procedures of the BRC is the nature of the onboarding process. Temporary volunteerism is an important and valuable resource, particularly under conditions of crisis such as floods, natural disasters, large-scale attacks or warfare (Ong et al., 2014), or the recent refugee crisis. In this study, as in the literature (Beder & Fast, 2008; Brayley et al., 2014; Dunn et al., 2016; Hustinx et al., 2008; Hyde et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014),

interview participants characterised this kind of volunteerism as 'episodic': these instances of temporary crisis require active and available participants, many of whom will likely be volunteering for the first time. The problem with formal organisations such as the BRC is that the onboarding process is complex, multi-dimensional, and comprehensive, requiring multiple layers of pre-training and education before volunteers can be introduced into the field which was frequently highlighted within the interviews of this study. It could be argued that episodic volunteers may threaten the scope and time exerted by the average volunteer or that they might simply not fit into the traditional structures. This may lead to resistance towards occasional opportunities, which has the potential to create conflicts between the motivation to volunteer and the outcomes of the volunteering process (Dunn et al., 2016). Key considerations such as the primary motives for volunteering or the central objectives of the individual have important implications for the effectiveness and value of the skillsets that are being contributed during episodic participation (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016; Wilson, 2012).

Whereas formality and longstanding history in organisations such as the BRC have allowed for global expansion and multinational representation, the structure and limitations of such programmes have effects upon the relative seamlessness of the volunteer onboarding process. While organisational roots, the feeling of historical obligations, and affiliative motivations may have once driven volunteers towards organisation-centred investment and participation, as alternative organisations such as TeamBavaria are introduced into the environment, the exclusivity of the BRC, for example, is reduced. With digital onboarding processes and IT-supported placement services, members of the TeamBavaria volunteer group can be easily and quickly positioned within the diversified network according to need and qualification, thereby reducing the difficulties associated with volunteering. This observation is an important consideration in a volunteer-driven (rather than organisation-driven) environment where individual motives often exist outside of the encouragement or vision and commitments of the organisation itself (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2014). The rather simplistic concepts of 'help' or 'aid to others' hold limited weight when positioned against procedural restrictions that either approve or deny the aspirational volunteer. This has been noted by some volunteer managers, but not all of them seemed to have identified this issue.

While broader mission objectives establish the framework and guidelines operationalising voluntarist behaviours, other factors such as funding, resources, and network pressures can lead to deficient results (Duguid et al., 2013). Several interview

participants in this study identified resource limitations and funding constraints as critical gaps in the effectiveness and efficiency of the aid organisation's mission.

Interestingly, regarding funding there seemed to be a considerable gap between interviewees (i.e. volunteer managers) and participants of the questionnaire. While volunteer managers emphasised lack of funding multiple times, the questionnaire results did not reflect the same level of importance. While, at the same time, the findings indicated a considerable divergence between expected and received funding, the overall level of importance of funding was rated low. However, an assessment of this aspect and a comparison with results found in the literature – such as in the Australian study of Walker et al. (2016) assessing organisational support – seems difficult due to the lack of information about the current funding level. It seems reasonable that volunteer managers who deal with issues involving funding more than volunteers complain about funding more than its beneficiaries.

In this study, interviewees mentioned the challenges of onboarding support. In this context, expectancy theory (G. Lowe, 2011; Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Vroom, 1964) implies that individuals are more likely to demonstrate a particular form of behaviour if they believe that they are able to exert minimal effort to achieve desirable outcomes. For aid organisations, imposing restrictive onboarding processes or formal and lengthy volunteer training requirements can not only dilute the expected benefits of the programme, but it can also have widespread demotivational effects on individuals who might have been interested in longer-term volunteering otherwise. Although Lunenburg (2011) predicts that higher personal advantages can have positive, motivational effects on commitment agendas, the feedback from the majority of participants suggests that they do not volunteer for tangible or monetary benefits, an observation supported by the study of Walker et al. (2016). As a result, these findings confirm that in order to motivate volunteers in spite of strained onboarding systems, there must be sufficient potential for intrinsic rewards and support (e.g. pride, recognition, satisfaction, transfer of help, and skills applications). This is also supported by a literature review by Sellon (2014).

In contrast, it may be doubtful that untrained and ill-prepared episodic or temporary volunteers are as effective if they are under-skilled or unprepared for the aid mission. Sladowski-Speevak (2011) has acknowledged that although professional skill sets may qualify individuals for particular volunteer tasks, the motives and objectives to volunteer often differ from those which drive career and organisational missions. In fact, Waikayi et al. (2012) have suggested that many volunteers do intentionally participate in formalised volunteer programmes as a means of skill development. They

seek to expand their knowledge through experience and training in the field and are therefore more likely to lose interest after acquiring this knowledge than those who are motivated by the mission itself and would remain at least as long as the project lasts (Wolcott et al., 2008).

Throughout the leadership feedback in the current study, it became evident that awareness of volunteer motives and skill-objective alignment was of particular concern. While some managers became aware that overwhelming volunteers or neglecting their unique set of skills and competencies were both antecedents to demotivation, other volunteer leaders seemed to have the perception that there is a desperate demand for more training among volunteers, which was not supported by the further findings revealing an excessive supply of training well above the level of volunteer expectations. Hence, there is some basis for concluding that there is a danger of overtraining volunteers with excessive training demands based on the misconception of some managers that there would be a high demand for more training opportunities. For organisations like the BRC, where skills and competencies are valued and targeted, the potential loss of volunteer populations is significant. Therefore, there is concern that organisational training objectives overshadow the availability and holistic, self-driven motives of the prospective volunteer.

However, the threat to any aid organisation requiring much training is that it can scarcely allow unskilled or unprepared individuals to engage in volunteer activities because of the nature of the mission. In the case of the BRC rescue services, untrained volunteers would rather pose a threat to patients. Therefore, decreasing training requirements in order to accommodate the concerns mentioned above of overtraining volunteers cannot be a suitable solution. A balance is needed to facilitate training for volunteers on the one hand, without yielding necessary training on the other hand. Participants suggested ways to achieve this by better recognising previous passed training while still appreciating training opportunities as an important factor for motivation.

It is this tension between the idealised and the realised behavioural outcomes in relation to the realisation of mission objectives that stimulates the operational pressures placed upon organisational leaders and supervisors to motivate and inspire high levels of cross-team execution (Cuskelly, Hoyer, et al., 2006; Goldblatt & Matheson, 2009). By developing internal support programmes that can utilise cross-training and shadowing exercises to support skills development, different stages of volunteering competency can be used to develop under-skilled individuals into more productive

members of the team. Such commitments could improve the degree of alignment between personal aspirations and organisational opportunities.

It is likely in many volunteering scenarios that volunteers will begin their endeavour with great passion and conviction, only to have the realities of a difficult or complex goal wear down their altruistic motivation (Flood et al., 2005; Goldblatt & Matheson, 2009). For some individuals, Esmond and Dunlop (2004) have traced this weakening development in active participation to a decline in motivation, a condition that is affected by both intrinsic and extrinsic forces. Other factors that were identified within the feedback to the questionnaire in the current study include the overwhelming nature of volunteer work, a lack of agreement between expected and realised outcomes of the volunteering process, social conflicts, and leader-subordinate conflicts. Extending the expectancy theory to volunteer motivation, Petri and Govern (2012) recognise that if individuals expect particular returns, benefits, or outcomes for their contributions but then fail to achieve such outcomes, their overall motivation and satisfaction with the endeavour will decline. This disconfirmation effect is further magnified when the difficulty of the volunteering process contradicts the genuine and energised motives of the entry-stage individual.

While individual motivators (e.g. pride, desire to help) often attract an individual to volunteer, Hientz et al. (2011) suggest that many organisations fail to fulfil the specific needs or objectives of the individual, leading to a misalignment of organisational support, a notion supported by volunteer managers in this study. Instead, organisations emphasise broader organisational goals and objectives, such as the above-mentioned IFRC principles that may not only contrast with the immediate priorities of the individual volunteer but may also fail to acknowledge the complex series of emotional, psychological, personal, and organisational forces that drive individuals towards high-performing volunteering (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Goldblatt & Matheson, 2009; Sladowski-Speevak, 2011). The feedback presented in the preceding chapter has demonstrated the demotivational impacts of such contrasting perspectives. While leadership's promise to change an aspect of the volunteering experience might calm individuals in the short term, without substantial changes to restructuring programmes, the outcomes are likely to be inconsistent. Whereas initial self-determination and an initial idealistic attitude may have the potential to drive and motivate higher performance and task execution, Brown (2007) and Gagné (2014) advise caution that failing to consider the intrinsic motivational capital driving individuals towards productive volunteering are likely to dilute their volunteering efforts. This theoretical advice is supported by other empirical studies (Walker et al., 2016) and is

consistent with the responses of the volunteers in this study, who confirmed the importance of positive support services and motivational leadership in enhancing desirable and productive volunteering achievements. The study's findings further verify that more intangible support is necessary the longer volunteers are on board.

6.2.3 Summary

This chapter included a discussion of conceptual foundations and challenges regarding volunteerism based on the findings of this study and the relevant literature.

In a fundamental sense, trait-based volunteer characteristics seem to impact motivation in many respects; however, due to the diversity of factors informing and conditioning motivation, analysis and generalisability are challenging to achieve. This challenge is deepened considering factors such as mission orientation which could both support and discourage individual motivation to volunteer. In the discussion, it became obvious that there is a continuous dichotomy of characteristics which might serve as either supportive or discouraging regarding volunteer motivation. This implies a considerable impact on support strategies. For example, a volunteer who is initially eager to get started, help-oriented, and willing to receive the necessary training could still discontinue volunteering at any time merely because of one element of a poor onboarding process. The reasons behind this volunteer quitting are likely to be highly complex and, in most cases, depend on a variety of personal traits, beliefs, and societal factors.

Despite this vast complexity, the findings of this study will contribute to a better understanding of volunteer motivation, enabling effective support. Therefore, the following chapter will discuss the findings regarding the motives for volunteering.

6.3 Motives for Volunteering

In order to assess the factors driving volunteer motivations and encouraging an informed allocation of support of volunteer programmes, the current study adopted the VFI originally developed by Clary et al. (1998) (see Chapter 2.5.4.1, p. 40, for use of VFI in the literature and Chapter 3.11.3.1, p. 93, regarding amendment of the Likert scale to a 5-point scale), data from the HAS, qualitative data from open-ended questions, and further qualitative data from 15 interviews.

This chapter will discuss the results thematically referring to the categorisation in Chapters 2.4 (p. 29) and 4.3 (p. 120).

6.3.1 Altruism and Egoism

The altruistic origins of volunteerism outlined by Smith (1981), Penner (2002), Penner et al. (2005), and Musick and Wilson (2008) emphasise a positive affiliation between the individual's pursuit of a positive social impact and the motivation to participate in volunteering. Questions 14, 15, and 20 in the VFI considered such motivational influences, focusing on the core conditions of compassion (Question 14), causal engagement (Question 15), and experience or learning (Question 20). With the majority of the sample population (84.7%, Question 14) indicating that they felt compassion towards people in need, it could be argued that individuals who volunteer are likely to be motivated by compassion towards other human beings.

This is strongly supported by both the interviews and the HAS questionnaire, where 90.4% of the participants indicated that helping people in need is important or very important to them (Question 24), which was in line with the findings of Dunn (2016) particularly for episodic volunteers and Claxton-Oldfield et al. (2011) for regular volunteers. Differing results, such as those of Wolcott et al. (2008), who emphasised a mission-based motivation of episodic volunteers, can largely be explained by the different aims and subject of each study: for example, the study of Wolcott et al. (2008) dealt with bird monitoring, which clearly diminishes the importance of altruism. In the present study, however, 79.3% of the participants confirmed their altruistic emphasis by stating that it feels wonderful to assist others in need (Question 27).

The problem with this argument, as demonstrated by a US study by Mikulincer and Shaver (2005) and a UK study of charity shop volunteering by Flores (2014) is that compassion is not incidental to volunteerism and neither is it reciprocal; instead, compassion is merely a trigger that has been behaviourally linked to an outcome of awareness, not necessarily a motivation to volunteer. In fact, Gillath, Shaver, Mikulincer, and Nitzberg et al. (2005), in a multinational study placing volunteering in an attachment theoretical framework, have attributed altruistic motivations to multiple levels of attachment that are further explored as follows:

- Attachment avoidance: A higher likelihood to avoid altruistic activities and selfless behaviours to protect and preserve the normative status quo. These individuals will be less likely to volunteer and more likely to encounter considerable distress when they meet other individuals suffering or when they encounter difficulties.
- Attachment anxiety: A tendency towards self-soothing and self-promotion reasons for volunteering. These individuals will likely participate in

volunteering to be socially accepted and appreciated or to increase their sense of self-worth.

- Altruistic attachment: A commitment to self-sacrifice and external considerations that emphasises possible contributions and solution-finding. These individuals will be open to volunteering opportunities and will participate for selfless and idealistic reasons.

Hence, an altruistic trait requires a catalyst to become a motivation to volunteer.

Therefore, while altruism is a desirable trait shared and expressed by many volunteers (Duguid et al., 2013), including the participants of this study, egoistic motivations that are both self-serving and self-sustaining have also been identified in the literature as potential determinants of motivational factors (Shye, 2010). 'Egoistic', as it is used in this discussion, does not connote exploitation of other (societal considerations) but rather personal needs. However, the findings suggest that there is a difference between direct and indirect egoistic reasons. While, as used in this study, 'intro-egoistic' traits aim to benefit the individual economically (e.g. personal career), 'extro-egoistic' traits focus on one's psychological well-being, requiring a feedback of others (e.g. feeling needed).

Within the questionnaire, two prompts related to motivations and commitment considered the extro-egoistic-oriented advantages of volunteering, including making the volunteer feel needed (Question 22) and allowing the volunteer to make new friends (Question 23), resulting in a categorically weighted mean of 3.71, SD = 0.96. Each of these dimensions was viewed as important by the participants, and although only peripherally relating to more robust egoistic motivations (e.g. money, status, achievement), they indicated an elevated level of importance placed upon self-centred, socially-valuable outcomes that not only serve as motivational catalysts but have the potential to sustain and encourage motivation over the tenure of the volunteering process.

While such social factors including friends volunteering (Question 18) and peers encouraging an individual to volunteer (Question 19) received the lowest scores within the VFI, the structure and phrasing of these questions (derived from the original VFI) were problematic because it suggests that pressures, whether indirect or direct, serve as catalysts for volunteer-related behaviours that possibly conflict with the paradigm of free will. It needs to be noted that while the notion that social factors of the VFI ranked low remains tenable, participants selected 'important' and 'very important' – decreasingly with age – four times higher when answering Question 18 compared to

Question 19, suggesting a differentiation between joining friends (exerting free will) or being pressured by peers (suppressing free will). The insights from the qualitative responses further indicate that personal agendas and not social or societal pressures were the driving force behind the motivation to volunteer. The VFI may have failed to sufficiently diagnose these motivational considerations. The volunteer personality traits observed within the qualitative responses, instead, confirm predictions by Okun et al. (2007) and Omoto et al. (2002; 2010) about particular characteristics (e.g. extraversion, social engagement, community investment, altruism) that have a positive influence on the likelihood of volunteering.

This is also supported by the qualitative (open-ended) Questions 38 and 39: while an overall declining percentage of respondents identified a second and third important motivator, which might have been attributed to survey fatigue, only 'helping' was selected by 41.9% of the participants to be their most important motivator, which is altruistic. Further motivators, such as 'fun' (16.7%), 'togetherness' (16.4%), and 'meaningful' (15.9%) indicated rather egoistic reasons to volunteer.

When this question was extended beyond the individual and towards a third-person perspective (Question 39), the primary theme identified was also helping. Thus, the respondents aligned their opinion with the expectations of the behaviour of their peers. However, 'fun' ranked on the fourth level: hence, participants consider their peers not to be as motivated by 'fun' as they are themselves.

Interestingly, while 'togetherness' was stated most frequently in total, the top 1 ranking factor for motivation was not 'togetherness' but 'helping'.

These findings again reflect a considerable degree of diversity. Despite this indecisiveness, it can be concluded that most people will be motivated to volunteer because of the potential advantages associated with helping others and volunteering together. Akgunduz et al. (2018) have proposed that by developing meaning, employees in organisational employment settings are motivated towards specific outcomes and objectives that can drive and shape their motivation. Applying this finding to volunteers, a closer look to the sense of 'helpfulness' and 'togetherness' reveals both a psychological and a sociological aspect, allowing individuals to translate their intrinsically informed behaviours into tangible, productive social outcomes (Kwok, Chui, & Wong, 2013). Incidental to the nature of organisational volunteering with the BRC or TeamBavaria, being able to help and being together with other volunteers create the bonds needed to enhance the intrinsic benefits of the volunteering experience, contributing to stronger motivation and more satisfying experiences (Carr, Kail, Matz-

Costa, & Shavit, 2017; Pajo & Lee, 2011) which will be further elaborated in the following chapter.

While participants in this study named both altruistic and egoistic motivators, the concept and significance of personal needs were further explored within the VFI as a means of explaining the underlying forces motivating the decision to volunteer. Questions 12, 22, and 23 considered factors related to psychological ambitions and towards personal fulfilment in some way. While the evidence of this study suggested that only a limited number of participants indicated that they volunteer to mitigate loneliness and in the open-ended section of the questionnaire 16.4% named 'togetherness' to be their most important motivator, the findings of prior empirical research conducted by Mellor, Stokes, Firth, Hayashi, and Cummins (2008) appear to contradict these results, as they suggest that there is a positive relationship, however, referring to the relationship between group membership and the reduction of loneliness, which cannot – at least not clearly – be replicated in this study. The latter findings have been confirmed by Carr, Kail, Matz-Costa, and Shavit (2017) and van Ingen and Wilson (2017), who also demonstrated a positive (but weak) relationship between volunteering opportunities and the reduction of loneliness among older adults. This contradiction is difficult to resolve, even considering the data presentation in Appendix 3, p. 288, which yields insight into the answer pattern particularly relating to age.

While young volunteers in this study emphasised avoiding loneliness most – which, again, considerably contrasts with the study of Mellor et al. (2008) – this level decreases with age before suddenly increasing at the age of retirement (65+). It needs to be noted, however, that most participants were undecided on whether mitigating loneliness is an important factor for motivation. Since the majority of participants of the study claimed to be strongly motivated by being together with their peers, this factor for 'togetherness' seems to be not entirely deducible from a reverse conclusion of the prompts referring to loneliness, indicating that participants sense a strong existing social network, which might be weak at a younger age, increase with age, and destabilise when people retire but does not seem to negatively correlate to loneliness. Unlike in the Australian study by Mellon et al. (2008), there does not seem to be a strong feeling of loneliness, defined by Perlman (2004) as a discrepancy between desired and existing social relationships.

Whether loneliness itself is a sufficient motivator to volunteer or whether the participants would even want to report such a personal concern in an open questionnaire, there was further – and more convincing – evidence that the participants perceived

parts of the volunteering process as emotionally and socially rewarding. For example, 65.6% of the participants believe that the sense of need and belonging (Question 22) caused by volunteering is a very important or important factor shaping their decisions to engage in such activities. Lowe and Fothergill (2003) and Kwok, Chui, and Wong (2013) have highlighted similar results in relation to crisis conditions or specific events (e.g. floods and fires) that stimulate the underlying motive to volunteer. While some individuals may demonstrate an intrinsic sense of needs awareness or a recognition of the potential benefits of self-sacrifice and humanitarian aid, the variable nature of inciting motivation is often conditioned by an overarching sense of need that compels and influences the shift towards role-seeking (Kwok et al., 2013).

While 'need' within a social setting is an influential motivating factor, the divisive nature of modern society could also be responsible for driving potential volunteers towards a more active pursuit of socially-significant membership opportunities (Kerwin, Warner, Walker, & Stevens, 2015). As an effective motivator for encouraging volunteerism, 'belonging' was identified within the interview results: individuals suggested that identification cards or social affiliation inspired pride and a sense of achievement. Further, the combined thematic insights obtained by a comparative review of the open-ended responses indicated that group affiliation and membership in the form of togetherness and unity played a critical role in motivating individuals to volunteer for organisations such as the BRC which will further be elaborated in Chapter 6.3.2 (p. 222). As a foundation for the IFRC (2019) mission statement, the central value systems that determine and shape the core principles and aid strategies adopted by the organisation serve as a potential foundation for unifying and including the diversified value systems held by potential volunteers.

As socialisation was found to be relevant to the participants in this study, it seemed necessary to determine whether social support and structural strategies could potentially be used to motivate these volunteers in the future. For example, while 62.3% of the participants agreed that making new friends through volunteering (Question 23) was important or very important, just 8.6% suggested that it is simply not an important outcome of the volunteering process. Extending these observations, the interview findings indicated that peer-related characteristics such as togetherness, bonding, and affiliation are potent influencers that support a bridge between individuality and socialisation. Such results confirm the evidence presented by Kerwin et al. (2015), who highlighted a strong connection between opportunities for building relationships through volunteering and the motives exhibited by volunteers to continue to engage in such selfless contributions.

Despite this rationalisation of the effects of belonging and group membership on the motivation to volunteer, there was contradicting evidence within the VFI, suggesting that social relationships are not the primary source of motivation and programme engagement. While there was a modest approval of 65.6% (Question 22) and 62.3% (Question 23), around a third of the participants did not identify friendship or a sense of need as important influencers, which raises questions about different underlying motivators and triggers that advanced their decisions to volunteer. This adds to the above-mentioned argument that there are multiple and diverse factors of motivation involved. Given the high degree of variability between 'important' and the perception of 'neither important nor unimportant' in these answers, it needs to be considered that personal, social expectations, and demotivating factors might play a role in shaping the motivations of volunteers (which will be further discussed below), alongside intro-egoistic reasons.

Within the VFI, Questions 16, 17, and 21 represented intro-egoistic career or professional development considerations that have the potential to motivate, influence, or orient volunteering objectives. For example, Question 16 asked the participants to consider whether it was important that they make new contacts that could help their business or career. While 34.8% of the participants indicated that this outcome was 'important' or 'very important' to them, a further 33.3% rejected the relative importance of such advantages. This indecisiveness was also discovered by Puffer (1991), who suggested that career professional engaging in volunteer community work should be welcomed depending on whether the aim is to improve attitude or performance.

On the other hand, supporting prior empirical findings by Garner and Garner (2011) for volunteers in non-profit organisations and Do Paco and Nave (2013) for corporate volunteering, 43.3% of the volunteers in the current study rejected the CV-based advantages of volunteering, with just 28.8% supporting the importance of such a proposition, most of them of a younger age. At this point, the contrast between egoistic and altruistic motives highlighting the decision to volunteer appears to be a complex dynamic, which seems vulnerable to social affectation, peer pressure, and self-indemnification. Selfish reasons to volunteer tend to support short-term volunteering because as soon as individuals reach their selfish goals, they leave. In contrast, the perceived advantages of a structured and predictable volunteer climate were identified by Nencini et al. (2016) as motivational and encouraging to volunteers. In parallel, the lack of holistic, self-motivating priorities has been demonstrated by Do Paco and Nave (2013) to conflict with the broader altruistic, selfless priorities of the volunteering culture. As the majority of the participants in the current study have spent

significant time within the BRC, the lack of correlation between career-oriented motivations and organisational investment seems predictable.

The pressure to detach one's motives from more opportunistic or self-serving outcomes of the volunteer process is depending upon an individual's affiliative agenda and the weight of achievement-based influences in shaping the motivational factors to volunteer. Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015), in a corporate volunteering setup, for example, have demonstrated how organisational support of employee volunteering (e.g. public relations, reputation-building) have impacts upon the affiliative perspectives of the employees themselves. In organisational contexts, therefore, the altruistic, utilitarian, or opportunistic motives behind encouraging volunteer activities are capable of either enhancing volunteer motivation and engagement or diluting perceptions of organisational legitimacy and altruism (Garner & Garner, 2011; Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015; Pajo & Lee, 2011). From a motivational perspective, there seems to be a direct and positive relationship between altruistic behaviour and generous organisational support for employee volunteering. Pajo and Lee (2011) have observed this relationship as a form of pro-social rationalisation and affiliative sense-making.

Regarding Question 17 in the VFI ('looks good on my CV'), while there could be a variety of potential career advantages to active volunteering and service-oriented engagement, the acknowledgement of such advantages would require the individual to dissociate themselves from the broader, selfless objectives and characteristics associated with the broader definition of volunteerism itself. Motivation, therefore, outside of the concept of service or the purposive contribution of personal resources (e.g. time, physical abilities, knowledge) to a broader social objective, requires that individuals subordinate the relative altruism of the service mission and instead target personal and selfish objectives such as reputation, status, and career advancement (Van Der Voort, Glac, & Meijs, 2009). It is based on this affective inconsistency between motive and outcome that the participants in the current study were unwilling or unable to associate volunteering with career achievements and why interview participants view – unlike Puffer (1991) – politically motivated volunteering as egoistic and incompatible with the humanitarian and altruistic objectives of organisations like the BRC.

One potential stimulus for both intro-egoistic and extro-egoistic reasons to volunteer might depend on the weight of what is considered 'normal' in society from a macro-structural perspective. For example, one of the interview participants suggested that in Bavarian society, volunteering is appreciated; therefore, to align personal values

and behaviours with societal expectations, individuals are more likely to seek out volunteering opportunities (S. Lowe & Fothergill, 2003). In fact, unlike findings in some pieces of literature (Brayley et al., 2014), a high level of importance (85.1%) was placed upon the opportunity to learn to deal with a variety of people (Question 21), suggesting that interactions and engagement within a broader social sphere are both motivational and compelling for individuals considering volunteering within both intro-egoistic and extro-egoistic mindsets. This notion is supported by Flores (2014), who views such personal investment in the context of more general social problems and crises as a form of compassion motivation, whereby individuals can avoid many of the dissatisfying pressures of their own lives by engaging in outside activities that are pro-social and network-sustained.

For organisations such as the IFRC (2019), the localisation of individual branches and the communication of the localised group mission are means of promoting or communicating volunteering opportunities. Opportunity, in some cases, could be associated with the drive to volunteer, as organisations such as the BRC have regionalised awareness through field-based campaigning and enrolment. One interviewee, for example, suggested that 'templates' or specific strategies are used to encourage students at university to participate in a culture of volunteering as organisations encourage employees to engage in social activism and support to fulfil a broader mission of citizenship and investment. These findings confirm the evidence presented by Cnaan et al. (2010) that attributes the increase in student volunteering to an elevation of opportunity awareness and network affiliations. Where individuals can be targeted within closed environments such as schools or corporations, the likelihood of increasing the number of volunteer recruits increases as the normative social perception is shifted towards a more positive orientation (Cnaan & Milofsky, 2010; Snyder & Omoto, 2009).

Besides the complex structure of altruistic, intro-egoistic, and extro-egoistic traits, Boezeman and Ellemers (2014) have suggested that regardless of modality (e.g. friendship, experience, role execution, achievement), it is the fulfilment of intrinsic needs that ultimately drives volunteers to continue to engage in volunteering opportunities. It is this under-defined framework of intrinsic motivation that will be further discussed over the remainder of this chapter.

6.3.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivators

Given the affective role of group value systems and mission alignment on the fulfilment of the intrinsic motivations of the volunteer population, it was important to

assess how much weight these participants placed on the training and knowledge dimensions of the volunteering process. When discussed within the context of Question 20, which focused on the underlying importance of learning about the cause for which the individual is volunteering, a paradox emerged. In Question 15, a large majority (88.7%) of the participants indicated that it was important to *engage* in a cause that was important to them; however, in Question 20, just 43% of the participants indicated that it was important or very important to *learn* about the cause that they were volunteering for (see Chapter 6.6.2, p. 243, regarding limitations of VFI). The question raised by this discrepancy is how a cause can be personally important if the individual does not have the knowledge and understanding of what represents the mission and objectives underscoring that cause. The open-ended feedback from the participants which described general objectives such as ‘doing something good’ confirmed that there was an assumption of importance, and as a result of such behaviour, it is likely that participants will learn how or why such behaviours are good in themselves. Further, this seeming discrepancy could also indicate that BRC volunteers already possess strong knowledge about the Red Cross mission and, therefore, that they indicated that learning about the cause is less important for this reason.

Potentially, the issue identified between Question 15 and Question 20 was not about the relationship between the importance of engaging in a cause and knowledge of that cause but instead was about the nature of motivation itself and its effects on both the decision to volunteer and the volunteering behaviours.

As an explanation for the tension between knowledge and actual engagement manifested within these findings, SDT (see Chapter 2.5.4.3, p. 43) could explain why individuals with a self-driven emphasis on volunteering outcomes might place less weight on formal training and mission learning exercises and more weight on actionable volunteer opportunities. Participants revealed the range of such personal motivations when they highlighted contributions or meaning, ranking one of the most important reasons to volunteer in the open-ended questionnaire section in relation to their role within volunteering. Compassion (Question 14), for example, is a compelling and effective emotion that was identified by many of the participants as a motivating factor for volunteerism. At the same time, compassion is unlikely to be the universal driving force behind all decisions to volunteer, a possibility supported in a multinational student survey by K. A. Smith et al. (2010). As a result, other dimensions, emotions, and motivators must also be considered, again supporting the previous supposition that complex factors of motivation are involved. Other factors such as a desire to serve, a commitment to the community, and a work-sponsored event were

all indicative of varying motivational factors that were likely to have even more varying influences on the shape and orientation of mission knowledge and perceived importance.

Beyond more obvious extrinsic motivators such as peer or career pressures, which were discussed in the previous chapter, consideration was also given to the affective influence of a cause or mission-specific values on volunteer motivations. Cause-specific insights were explored concerning the open-ended responses (see Chapter 4.5, p. 140), with emphasis placed on the need for help and the active fulfilment of such needs via volunteering activities. Shantz, Saksida, and Alfes (2014), who have studied the relationship between social values and time spent volunteering in the UK, have confirmed that the belief in a cause is an important mediating variable that shapes the amount of time that individuals are willing to commit to a particular cause. Engagement in assistance-related, help-oriented behaviours was not only a compelling reason for individuals to volunteer for the BRC, but it reportedly seems to have a direct influence on the retention of these volunteers over time as strong peer relationships and affiliations are developed. It is this sense of team working and collective problem solving that was viewed by the leaders in this study as the primary mode of encouragement and motivation, enhancing the sense of togetherness via task execution and enjoyment of the philanthropic work.

Most importantly, the HAS revealed that there seems to be a strong, positive relationship between individual investment in caregiving and helping that contrasted with a negative relationship between volunteering and extrinsic variables such as expenses, reimbursement, and tax exemptions. The weight and perceived value of such intangible returns reflect what Meier and Stutzer (2008) have described as an affirmational outcome of pro-social activities that enhance the psychological welfare of the volunteer. The evidence from this study suggests that happiness in volunteering is intrinsic; for this reason, the motivations to volunteer should be evaluated regarding various intrinsic measures of support.

6.3.3 Demotivation

Concerning Herzberg's hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1971; Herzberg et al., 1959), to assess the variables that could induce demotivational effects, the thematic elements were condensed into their core categories, providing insights regarding particular weighted themes and highlighting the leading demotivational factors related to volunteer motivations. Exploring the significance of each of the associated five code

configurations, it is worth distilling the individual codes into their conceptual and theoretical constructs (ranking by 1st important motivator):

- Something is lacking (1st: 25.1%, 2nd: 30.1%, 3rd: 37.4%): A gap in the structure, delivery, or solutions associated with the volunteering experience can be severely demotivational (Leal et al., 2013; Riley, 2016).
- Time (1st: 17.8%, 2nd: 16.1%, 3rd: 16.0%): The difficulty of finding time to volunteer or the inability to volunteer due to gaps between the organisational needs and the time available (Roxburgh, 2004).
- Bureaucracy (1st: 17.3%, 2nd: 13.7%, 3rd: 9.6%): The effects of bureaucracy on imposing rules and restrictions on the volunteering process or making onboarding and retention difficult (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).
- Wafflers/ignorance (1st: 12.3%, 2nd: 16.8%, 3rd: 13.4%): The exposure to individuals who have volunteered for the wrong reasons or who are not committed to the overall mission of the organisation (Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011).
- Disputes/violence (1st: 15.6%, 2nd: 9.6%, 3rd: 14.4%): Individual and group vulnerability to real-world threats of violence and conflict (Duffield, 2012).

The problem with the variable weight of this list was semantic and linguistic, as the most frequently represented factor, 'something is lacking', was not sufficiently explained or defined to identify the specific features, expectations, or concerns regarding this perspective. Whether 'something was lacking' in the organisational structure of the arrangement, the meaningfulness of the volunteer work or the personal motives of the volunteers themselves, the indiscriminate nature of this aspect suggested that this gap could not be sufficiently defined due to the complexity of reasons why something is lacking or the lack of provision of a reason. Trying to explain this phenomenon, one interviewee suggested that leadership and the team working process needed to '*adapt to the increased complexity*' of the volunteering environment, a situational consideration that distils the need to first better understand the complexity before trying to eliminate specific demotivating factors.

One solution found to meet the problem of the seemingly indiscriminate nature of the demotivational forces was to apply the range of support code factors (support, training, communication, money, leave, funding, equipment, legal) to the indicator

‘something is lacking’. The output revealed that 50.9% of the responses that considered that ‘something is lacking’ referenced ‘support’ as the primary support dimension (of this list) that was creating the deficiency. The secondary factor, ‘training/skills’ was only revealed in 17.9% of the responses for these individuals, creating two potentially valuable areas for intervention targeting and support-oriented improvements. While it was initially assumed that when identifying factors associated with other potential volunteers, the questionnaire respondents would reflect their own experiences upon their responses, this was not found to be consistent. Instead, the following code configurations for each level of the demotivational effects from a third person’s perspective were discovered:

- Time (1st: 39.0, 2nd: 35.6, 3rd: 29.6%)
- Something is lacking (1st: 22.8%, 2nd: 19.5%, 3rd: 19.6%)
- Demand (1st: 13.1%, 2nd: 16.5%, 3rd: 14.5%)
- Bureaucracy (1st: 10.3%, 2nd: 9.7%, 3rd: 6.7%)

Following up the discussion regarding demotivating factors in Chapter 6.2.2 (p. 207), these findings indicated inconsistencies in the weighted demotivational levels that extended from the first to the third code configuration levels, suggesting that the range of responses were weighted according to either personal or experiential perceptions. Further, because of the coding process, issues such as ‘time’ also involved other psychological influencers such as ‘stress’ or ‘exhaustion’ that are only incidental, although still related to the concept of insufficient time. Similarly, the concept of ‘demand’ was expressed in other ways – such as ‘strain’ or ‘pressure’ – that also have temporal relationships but that exist irrespective of the pressures or time constraints placed upon the individual. In order to synthesise these findings into a more manageable and actionable foundation for designing support solutions, environmental, structural, and procedural conditions that increase the difficulty of volunteering or reduce the intrinsic benefits of the volunteering process are likely to have demotivational effects over time (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

In comparison with Ludwick et al. (2014) and Hyde and Knowles (2013), whose results are consistent with the present study in that ‘time’ is a crucial demotivating factor, demotivating health issues presented in some pieces of literature (McBride & Lee, 2012; van Dongen, Abraham, Ruiter, & Veldhuizen, 2013; Wolcott et al., 2008) could scarcely be detected in this study.

When combined, the range of demotivators revealed a systemic deficiency at organisations such as the BRC, whereby structural limitations and expectations impose constraints upon individuals, resulting in potentially negative outcomes. For example, a decline in motivation to volunteer under specific time constraints (e.g. 5 hours required per day) is likely to increase in conjunction with other life pressures such as higher workplace involvement or increased family responsibilities. While elements such as bureaucracy increase the structured and systematic nature of the volunteering process (see Chapter 6.2.2, p. 207), it could also be suggested that individuals will be less likely to invest in volunteer-related activities when they need to fulfil multiple administrative tasks as from their perspective, they are considered being stressors or time-related pressures.

While the findings did not include a differentiation between TeamBavaria and BRC-members, because of the small number of TeamBavaria respondents, the findings (Chapter 4.5.4, p. 149, and 4.5.5., p. 151) and previous studies identify time constraints as major demotivating factors to the volunteering endeavour. However, the organisation cannot entirely control time constraints and stress, which are independent of support. Claxton-Oldfield et al. (2008) and McLennan (2009), for example, identified family commitments to explain why volunteers are dropping out, which are personal reasons out of the control of the organisation.

However, it was interesting that interviewees in this study were aware of time acting as a demotivation factor for volunteers. Despite the awareness of time constraints, they reported that the BRC lacks any effort to mitigate demotivation. For example, the BRC could reduce bureaucratic obstacles facilitating the transfer of training certificates or easy access to BRC-units of a new city when a family is moving.

While the awareness of demotivation factors as such is an important step to a holistic picture of volunteering and volunteer retention in particular, any support of the organisation to reduce demotivating factors can increase retention.

6.3.4 Summary

This chapter has made it clear that volunteer motivation is considerably complex and therefore requires reflection and scrutiny. This chapter illuminated the findings from the VFI – both quantitative (closed-ended questions) and qualitative (open-ended questions) – HAS, and interviews in further recognition of the literature.

Particularly regarding personal needs, the study results suggest that, inconsistent with previous studies, mitigating loneliness has less impact on the levels of motivation

compared to the need for group membership. While this notion remains tenable at a smaller scale, these findings were inconsistent with the category of social factors being the least important category of the VFI compared to other categories of motivation factors. This strengthens the argument of motivational complexity.

6.4 Support

That said, the central aim of this study involved identifying solutions that could provide improved support to volunteers in order to motivate their organisational contributions and retention. The feedback from the participants has illuminated several opportunities for improving support on the one hand, and several critical gaps that threaten the efficacy of such practices on the other hand, as the organisation evolves towards a more productive and inclusive standard of leadership. The following sections will discuss the differences between tangible and intangible support and outline potential improvements to sustain and enhance volunteer motivation.

6.4.1 Intangible Support

Although it is difficult to define intangible support because of subjective individual definitions and values, the study identified intangible support considerations which were related to a variety of themes and characteristic influences. For example, 74.8% of the sample participants indicated that it is important to them that someone listens when they have something to say (Question 43). The study's findings also suggest that the longer participants keep volunteering, the more they want to be heard (see Table 35). There seems to be an underlying expected desire of volunteers to participate and being able to be heard. This could imply an increasing wish – particularly of long-term volunteers – to not only help others but also to help improve the organisation itself. While this could suggest that long-term volunteers would increasingly take leadership positions, the analysis of the interviews does not support this assumption, particularly not for female volunteers. Still, besides leadership positions, opportunities for participation seem to have particular relevance for long-term volunteers and therefore indicate a strategic value for retaining volunteers. In their quantitative studies Dwiggins et al. (2011), Waters and Bortree (2012), and Stukey (2016) identified active participation and open organisational communication as productive support mechanisms that have the potential to not only increase volunteer motivation but also to increase retention. Importantly, a plausible correlation between the length of experience in volunteering – which could serve as a proxy measure for retention – and the importance of someone listening (to feedback) was observed in the current study,

suggesting (while not necessarily statistically proving) that for longer-term volunteers, there is a need for more active engagement and participation in the delivery and execution of volunteering-related participation and communication solutions and strategies. This finding is likely a reflection of the weight of experiential influences on expectations and priorities during the volunteering process. Hence, the findings of earlier studies appear to be in general agreement with the findings in the present study.

The ability to communicate openly and freely with organisational leadership being a central dimension of intrinsic motivation was expressed by 67.1% of the participants, who indicated that it is 'important' or 'very important' that they are able to 'express concern and dissent' (Question 42), with just 12.2% opining that such abilities are unimportant. This finding complements the importance of open organisational communication (Question 43) and elevates the general consideration that Bavarian volunteers are interested in actively participating in the planning, governance, and implementation of the organisation's mission. Garner and Garner (2011) have shown that communication is a critical resource in developing and sustaining volunteer satisfaction, being an outcome of the experiential triggers and influences associated with the volunteering process. If intra-organisational problems arise, the openness of communication has the potential to motivate greater satisfaction as participation can improve the seamlessness of the outcomes (Garner & Garner, 2011). However, closed communication and difficulties in expressing concerns or problems can create demotivational conditions, whereby satisfaction with the volunteering process is reduced and volunteer fluctuation is increased (Garner & Garner, 2011).

Given the preceding context, it is important to consider a possible bias of socially desirable responses. While Garner and Garner (2011), Waters and Bortree (2012), and Stukey (2016) did not raise this question, Dwiggins et al. (2011) discussed the implications of socially motivated volunteers, albeit without relating it to the study's limitations. In this study, the bias of socially desirable answers was mitigated by anonymity and the questionnaire design, which included a change of perspectives (Questions 39, 41, see Chapter 3.11.5, p. 97).

6.4.2 Tangible Support

Tangibility, in relation to volunteer support, involves a variety of explanations and resources ranging from monetary incentives to career advancement to recognition or awards (Jang et al., 2010; J. Kim, 2013; Richter et al., 2015; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009; Wells & Lynch, 2014). With just 25.8% of the participants confirming that it was

‘important’ or ‘very important’ for them to receive honours for their volunteer work (Question 44), at first glance, there was a relatively weak association between this layer of tangible support and volunteer motivation. Within the interview feedback, however, the managers posited that while volunteers are unlikely to look explicitly for acknowledgement or honour during/after the volunteer process, there is a central ‘*culture of honour*’ that is respected and valued: ‘*No one wants it, but if someone doesn’t get it, he is offended*’, expressed an apparent modesty among Bavarian volunteers, which likely biased the responses to Question 44. At the same time, the managers considered awards in the form of recognition or medals as tangible acknowledgements of service that are highly valued by some volunteers and, in most cases, expected representations of achievement (Gagné, 2014).

From a threat or vulnerability perspective, 88.2% of the participants in this study acknowledged that insurance was an important antecedent to the volunteering process (Question 48). Although potentially related to a financial dimension of the volunteering process, the concept of insurance itself remains incidental to the nature of organised volunteering. Duffield (2012), for example, has argued that in situations where aid workers are threatened, protection strategies in the form of physical security and threat mitigation support (extrinsic) and psychological self-care and protection (intrinsic) are important to improving volunteer resilience. The organisation can prepare volunteers for challenging environments and scenarios in which threats may manifest through enhanced training and development, preparation, and awareness exercises (Duffield, 2012). While the evidence presented by Duffield (2012) places more emphasis on intrinsic self-care, volunteers in this study regarded establishing protections in the form of insurance to be equally important.

Despite the general definition of volunteering as rejecting the need for financial compensation, in order to increase the number of volunteers, some organisations have offered direct and indirect (e.g. merit-oriented) financial incentives to motivate volunteering (Alam & Oliveras, 2014; Wells & Lynch, 2014). However, in this study, only 18.8% of the participants believed that such a financial incentive is important (Question 51), confirming the relative insignificance of financial incentives or returns among the Bavarian participants. Contradicting evidence from the qualitative findings suggests that participants considered money as an important antecedent to volunteering. However, it is important to note that this perspective did not reflect personal gain. Instead, the group consensus among interviewees was that if a volunteer organisation such as the BRC has sufficient funding, the organisation will be able to perform its tasks and achieve its mission objectives more effectively. While money may serve to

generally '*empower volunteer support*', the underlying catalyst for volunteering is not financial; instead, it is a combination of various intangible motives such as psychological affection, altruism, or a desire to contribute to society.

However, a few interviewees stated that they would monetarily support volunteers. If volunteer activities are consistent with the general understanding that volunteering means unpaid or limited compensation for actions given freely to support others, then the findings that some managers are using an hourly payment to compensate volunteers would be inconsistent with the primary mission of the organisation. While the nature of compensation was variable throughout the participant's feedback; the evidence suggests that some managers may view financial rewards as a means of motivation, which is supported by Alam (2014). This affectation, however, was not confirmed by the non-managerial participants of the study and has been demonstrated by Wells and Lynch (2014) to be an unsustainable model of volunteer recruiting and support. In fact, monetary incentives are likely to inspire episodic or temporary volunteering, while reducing the broader psychological investment and engagement necessary to sustain the organisation-volunteer relationship over the long term (Sprenger, 2014).

One question arising from the open-ended feedback during this survey was whether financial or other reward-based incentives might increase the likelihood of volunteering and high-performing participation. For those participants with a high level of intrinsic motivation, the evidence in this study has suggested that they will have a low level of need for extrinsic motivation. At the same time, there is a paradox associated with this form of tangible incentivisation: because volunteering is supposed to be a form of altruistic behaviour without direct benefits for the individual, the logic of financial incentivisation as a means of compensation for work does not seem to fit. Wells and Lynch (2014) have demonstrated that merit-based incentives and potential benefits can be used as a means of attracting larger populations to the volunteering process (e.g. financial aid credits). Additionally, in the meta-study of Deci et al. (1999), it was argued that rewards do not diminish intrinsic motivation as long as rewards are not associated with exerting control and therefore decrease self-determination.

However, even if implementing a smart reward scheme would not decrease intrinsic motivation, this would not mean that it would increase or foster intrinsic motivation. Hence, these award-attracted individuals are unlikely to be invested in the broader mission and long-term agenda of the organisation. Hence, Sprenger (2014) has argued that monetary incentives are prone to ultimately diluting intrinsic motivation, and in supporting this notion, Carpenter and Myers (2010) identified this effect as being

centred on image concerns. Consequently, the IFRC (2019) has explicitly stated that the organisational mission is supported by volunteers, a population of selfless individuals who are expected to remain uncompensated during the process.

While financial compensation might be avoided or restricted by the programme policies, particular resources are still needed in order for volunteers to effectively perform their duties; therefore, there could be a level of reimbursement that is naturally expected when individuals are performing a task involving financial investment or personal out-of-pocket expenses (Callow, 2004). The feedback from the participants suggests that when funding is reduced, the likelihood of a motive-capability conflict is magnified, potentially decreasing the number of individuals who are willing to not only invest their time in the volunteer activities but also their financial or personal resources. Whereas the evidence in this study has suggested that there is no correlation between the importance of reimbursement and the volunteer income, the distinction between means and reward is not adequately defined. The importance of compensation to the individual's financial welfare, therefore, is a relative construct of the individual's economic means and status and their expected role concerning the volunteering process (Carpenter & Myers, 2010).

6.4.3 The Architecture of Support

Regarding possible means of support, the quantitative elements of this study were designed to evaluate the grouped perceptions of support and its role in motivating and sustaining the volunteering experience. The range of responses encouraged a more in-depth assessment of personal perspectives and experiences within the volunteering process. By encouraging the participants to identify areas where they expect additional support in the future, a range of variables was identified that could thematically generalise an idealised blueprint of support. The following code configuration and assessment strategies were developed to evaluate these perceptions:

- Training, skills, and experience (29.19%): To improve investment in the missions, values, and procedures of the organisation, a framework of continuous training and development is needed that can improve volunteer alignment (Kedrowicz, 2013).
- Equipment (17.0%): It is critical to provide volunteers with the essential resources needed to execute their responsibilities; any gaps can be demotivational and can lead to dissatisfaction (Duguid et al., 2013).

- Support (17.0%): Active and continuous support via leadership and organisational commitments and awareness are essential to the recognition of volunteer needs and motives (Hager & Brudney, 2015; Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2010).
- Money (12.7%): Although identified within the feedback as a central theme, the concept of money was expressed as a negative reflection of opportunistic volunteering, and therefore as an incentivising support solution, it is only beneficial as remuneration or expense recuperation (Callow, 2004).

6.4.3.1 Training

It was evident throughout the participant feedback that training and development are both important antecedents to effective volunteering outcomes and challenging expectations that can lead to procedural difficulties. Although the BRC is known for its robust emphasis on training and preparation-oriented volunteer development, participants demanded additional developmental solutions to improve role definition and skills awareness in the future. Structural constraints within the mission system were not only identified as constrictive but also as behaviourally inhibiting. For example, new volunteers are required to attend a formal training course before they are allowed into the field; but due to restrictions, such training is only held at certain times of the year, creating challenges for incoming and existing volunteers.

Nencini et al. (2016) identified the productivity and efficiency of the organisational climate as core prerequisites for volunteer satisfaction. By creating systems that enable volunteers to participate and remain flexible in their commitments, organisations satisfy intrinsic needs, providing the training and guidance within the programme itself to support longer-term investment (Nencini et al., 2016). Newton, Becker, and Bell (2014) found learning and development opportunities to be enhancing factors for volunteer retention. Hence, there is substantial support in the literature for the idea that training is positively affiliated to retention, supporting the finding that training opportunities are expected to be the most important supportive measure.

However, frictions arise when implementing training opportunities: in contrast to more complex and formalised training programmes of the BRC, one of the interviewees in this study revealed that volunteers can participate in other organisations' training programmes within just 24 hours of signing up. This disparity is critical to the pursuit of a more consistent and sustainable volunteer base, particularly because organisations

such as the BRC compete for human resources with other aid organisations. Whereas the digital business model of TeamBavaria is conducive to rapid onboarding and episodic volunteering, membership and participation requirements of the BRC may actually inhibit more informal and short-term volunteering when individuals feel that there are challenges during the application and enrolment processes.

6.4.3.2 Leadership Engagement and Support

The concept of support within the open-ended questionnaire was based upon the comparison of both field-based, direct support and broader, mission-level considerations. For example, when participants suggested that there were issues with training and development, they were referencing the policies and standards imposed by a central Munich-based organisational leadership. At the same time, when discussing field interactions, resources, and communication, they were discussing their role with the local leadership team. This could imply a demarcation dispute within the organisation. One mechanism used to assess the nature of support in relation to the participant feedback and disclosing possible differences was to compare the expected support themes with the received support themes. In terms of alignment, while there was a high degree of expected support about training, there was a considerably higher level of received training, suggesting that training opportunities are meeting but broadly exceeding volunteer expectations. Similarly, a higher level of support was received in terms of communication than expected, suggesting that the level of communication is sufficiently high to meet the existing expectations of the participants.

In the context of the above-mentioned demarcation dispute, these findings could, however, be interpreted differently: a higher-than-expected level of received support regarding training might reveal an inefficiency. Volunteers might feel overwhelmed by excessive communication regarding training. They would expect fewer but more goal-oriented communication and training opportunities matching their needs. This issue was mentioned in the interviews and traced back to intra-organisational disputes. As volunteer managers further emphasise a potential demotivating effect, it could affect retention.

In spite of lacking particular skills or knowledge in one or more areas, volunteers often seek opportunities that are interest-complementary, placing some responsibilities outside of the scope of their common abilities (Callow, 2004; Dhebar & Stokes, 2008). The participants identified a gap in educational resources and services to be one of the central resource limitations. Without sufficient, effective, and available trainers to

meet the demand for volunteers, the ability to onboard new volunteers and to develop new team orientations seems to be restricted. In spite of the perceived high-performing support in areas such as training and communication, there were several areas in which the received support was lower than the expected level including equipment, support, and funding. Most importantly, the level of assistance associated with tangible considerations was found to be smaller than the level of support related to intangible factors.

To further evaluate whether the central foundations of support were expected to originate from within the organisation itself, consideration was also given to the role of outside lawmakers in influencing levels of support needed to enhance volunteering experiences (Question 55). The code configurations can be further defined as follows (see Figure 29):

- Leave of absence for missions (32.5%)
- Taxation and legal support (16.8%)
- Insurance (11.4%)

While government departments have provided a robust foundation for sustaining the efforts of agencies such as the BRC and TeamBavaria, broader systemic deficiencies were highlighted by the participants concerning potential gaps in the system itself. From a lack of 'volunteer paramedics' to complex qualifications in 'ambulance services', the participants suggested that legal requirements were preventing sufficient staffing in key sectors. Bartels (2014) argues that, depending upon the field or industry of service, there are likely to be particular legal restrictions and conditions that determine the appropriateness and viability of volunteering opportunities. Whereas the BRC is responsible for ambulance services and emergency volunteer paramedic staffing, placement in these responsibilities is qualification-contingent; and therefore, not everyone can volunteer for such opportunities. It is therefore not surprising that volunteers expected legal improvements of 'leave of absence for missions'. The more qualification requirements rise, and the fewer volunteers would take the burden of acquiring the necessary qualification, the fewer the volunteers are available for missions. As noted in the interviews, this problem exists, and volunteers seem to resolve this by demanding more time for fewer remaining volunteers demanding less rigid regulations on leave of absence for missions.

6.4.4 The Role of Support in Terms of Motivation

In order to assess whether the organisation could employ tactical changes in the support proposition to strategically improve volunteer motivation, the thematic layers of the open-ended responses were compared. From an impact perspective, 64.4% of participants believed that an increase in non-monetary support will have an impact on their motivation to volunteer (Question 57). Non-monetary support has the power to shape and drive intrinsic motivation, encouraging individuals to seek internal motives and values that can be translated into productive contributions (Deci & Ryan, 2008). In contrast to the effect of non-monetary support, 33.1% of the participants indicated that an increase in monetary support would improve their motivation to volunteer (Question 58). The problem with this assertion is that while money was identified thematically within the qualitative findings; it was indicative of multiple overlapping characteristics, including the overall budget of the initiative, compensation for out-of-pocket expenses, and remuneration.

Intrinsic support was found to generally represent a more positive motivational resource than a tangible one. The findings suggest that the importance of extrinsic support was reduced over time when compared with high intrinsic motivated participants. A cross-tabular comparison of the results revealed that individuals that are high in intrinsic motivation demand intrinsic support; in contrast, the importance of extrinsic support is waning over time (see Table 54, p. 193). Regarding extrinsic support, such findings highlight the value of individuals with high levels of self-determination and self-actualisation motivations in volunteering settings, as they self-sustain and drive their efforts towards more productive outcomes (Brown, 2007; Carpenter & Myers, 2010; Gagné, 2014) with less organisational pressure for expensive extrinsic support.

Additionally, these findings support the mediating effect of motivation (see Chapter 5.5.3, p. 195) within the relationship between support and retention: if motivation were to solely moderate this relationship, as hypothesised by Harp et al. (2017), for example, one would expect volunteers with a high level of intrinsic motivation to demand less support because their intrinsic motivation would already sufficiently inform retention. However, this was not supported by the findings, which showed that particularly participants with high levels of intrinsic motivation demanded high levels of intrinsic support.

There were two primary strategies for support identified by the managers in this study which seem in line with the concepts of Carpenter and Myers (2010) in their study of firefighters: the utilitarian, role-related support function and the psychological, intrinsic

support function. From a utilitarian perspective, the managers interviewed in this study regarded knowledge, training, and resources to be core antecedents to motivated and productive volunteers, driving more positive behaviours towards desirable and sustainable volunteer outcomes. From a psychological perspective, there is a need to engage in open communication, to support a sense of belonging, to remind and illuminate the goals and priorities associated with the decision to volunteer and to recognise the importance of each individual's effort in supporting the broader objectives of the humanitarian mission. At the same time, when considering the potential consequences of ending such support for the volunteers, the findings suggested that stopping support or reducing support levels would lead to a decline in motivation.

6.4.5 Summary

In this section, the state of dynamic interactions between intangible and tangible support was discussed. The concept of intrinsic means of support is linked to the underlying organisational mission of the IFRC of uncompensated volunteering. However, the findings revealed that a few managers are tempted to increase volunteering by implementing compensation schemes. Data from this study, however, suggests that while tangible support such as funding of training seems to positively impact volunteer motivation, direct monetary compensation is detrimental to at least long-term volunteering. Hence, given that funds of aid organisations are limited, supporting intrinsic volunteer motivation seems to be beneficial to improving volunteer motivation.

6.5 Retention, Motivation, and Support

Considering that the multiple layers of evidence concerning volunteer motivation suggest a need for intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation, it seems consistent that the majority of the respondents (59.2%) would acknowledge that non-monetary support functions would be a core antecedent to their retention (Question 59). More importantly, just 12.9% of the participants suggested that non-monetary support was unimportant to their retention, a finding that indicates a direct, positive association between some form of non-monetary support and retention over time (although it needs to be acknowledged that the study only assessed a particular point in time, providing limited evidence of developments over time). Support measures such as achievement, work enjoyment, and personal development allow individuals to self-improve while also participating in volunteering activities that are personally rewarding (Demir, 2011; Gagné, 2014).

In contrast to the perceived, weighted benefits of non-monetary support, a population of 30.3% of the sample indicated the importance of some form of monetary support to increasing retention within the organisation (Question 60). With 39.9% of the participants rejecting this claim, the relationship between monetary support and retention was not significant; however, the elevated importance of more monetary support to some of these participants raises questions about the defining motives and values of the affected volunteers. Leal et al. (2013) have argued that in order to determine where such motives arise, it is crucial to contrast the activity itself with the motivations for participation, identifying what driving forces are shaping the decision to volunteer. While the scope of this study was too narrow to illuminate such dynamics, it was evident from the open-ended feedback that considerations such as job-based volunteering and career or education-oriented achievements were affecting the motives of some participants, elevating the importance of tangible support.

Additionally, the majority of the participants in the current study reported that they had volunteered for an extended period of time: the feedback within the open-ended questions suggested that multiple factors determine the nature and consistency of volunteering activities. For example, volunteers identified the time pressures associated with family management and career commitments as robust, inhibitory factors that reduced the amount of time that individuals could commit to volunteering. In contrast to the burden of time, among older participants, it seemed evident that volunteering is rekindled as an opportunity or solution to newly discovered temporal opportunities as other commitments such as family or career responsibilities are again reduced throughout their lives (Roxburgh, 2004).

The open-ended portions of the questionnaire also revealed an opportunity regarding younger volunteers: with many of the volunteer participants in the BRC starting at a young age, many of them will likely participate in volunteering for much of their youth and teenage years. However, the bridge between their participation in volunteer activities and the accommodation of more complex lifestyle responsibilities has yet to be resolved. For this reason, there could be a decline in volunteers who are ready to accept long-term volunteer leadership positions. Any targeted retention strategies should consider the need for transitional support between teenage and university years that can not only establish volunteer work as a lifetime commitment but also encourage these individuals to utilise organisational resources and solutions to ensure that volunteering fits with their schedules and their lifestyles (Wells & Lynch, 2014).

An important finding of this study is that there is a direct, positive relationship between volunteer motivation and retention (Gazley, 2013; Hoye, Cuskelly, Taylor, & Darcy,

2008): 88.5% of the participants confirmed that the more motivated they are, the more likely they are to continue volunteering (Question 60). This result seemed to be in line with the findings in the literature: prior research has thoroughly investigated the psychological bridge between motivation and retention (Das & Baruah, 2013; Hyman & Summers, 2004; Miller et al., 2009) regarding human resources, employee motivation, and organisational retention strategies (see also literature review in Chapter 2.7.3, p. 56). The feedback from the participants in this questionnaire suggests that for volunteers, there seems to be a similar bridge between retention-based motivators and long-term volunteer participation. Leaders who are aware of motivational factors can increase the retention of volunteers by ensuring that they are sufficiently and consistently motivated.

Organisational strategies for retention can have desirable impacts on volunteers, and many factors could motivate and engage the participants in more productive, long-term contributions. Locke et al. (2003) acknowledge that stability, support, appreciation, encouragement, and valuation all serve as intrinsic motivators that translate into positive, motivational outcomes. Further, cause-based motivation and volunteering are essential to the achievement of a longstanding volunteer population (Garner & Garner, 2011; Meier & Stutzer, 2008). Other strategies, however, such as monetary support, can lead to opportunism and misplaced motivations by individuals who are volunteering for the wrong reasons (Nencini et al., 2016; Wells & Lynch, 2014) and have the potential to reduce intrinsic motivation (Sprenger, 2014). By focusing on the intrinsic bridge between personal values and the organisational mission, leaders are able to invest in the priorities associated with volunteer work itself, limiting the need for extrinsic motivators and compensation.

6.6 Bias in the Context of the Findings

While structural limitations of the study will be further discussed in Chapter 7.6 (p. 260), several areas of possible bias with regards to contents should be discussed in further detail in this chapter to address the potential effects on the generalisation, reliability, and validity of the empirical findings before concluding this chapter by sketching a volunteer retention model.

6.6.1 Demographics

6.6.1.1 Gender

The gender distribution of the sample does not completely match the gender distribution in the German population. There is a 10-percentage-point male bias regarding the sample of the study. While this quantitative bias is mainly indicative of the random sampling approach used to capture evidence from a sufficiently robust, non-probabilistic sample, the affectation of gender on volunteer traits and motivations could be an important revelation. While insights from the sample population regarding the questionnaire suggest that the overall gender distribution is equitable with only a slight deviation from the German population (see Appendix 3), the interview responses indicate that the male-female dynamic in volunteer settings is inherently biased, creating distinctions that may affect the perceived value of motivators.

The distinction between genders concerning volunteerism, charitability, and motivation is complementary to prior empirical research conducted by Mesch, Rooney, Steinberg, and Denton (2006), Einolf (2011), and Waters and Bortree (2012). These very different studies have confirmed statistically significant variations in gender behaviours. The implications of gender variations are significant when considering the role-specific dynamics of motivational support, particularly in settings where gender variations are likely to affect personal satisfaction variables and perceptions of value or significance regarding the process of volunteerism.

However, in this study, gender differences relating to other responses were not examined in detail, and only two respondents indicated 'other' gender which seems insufficient for further comparisons. Asking participants about their gender was instead used to compare the sample to the general Bavarian population, allowing for an assessment of generalisability. As 59.7% of the participants were male and 39.8% were female, there was some bias compared to the almost equal gender distribution in Bavaria, limiting generalisability.

6.6.1.2 Age and Career Orientation

While the empirical evidence indicated only a slight age bias (decreased representation of older respondents in the sample related to the overall population), which was likely due to the electronic survey, it seemed evident from the findings that volunteerism is likely to be reduced around younger or older participants (Oesterle, Johnson, & Mortimer, 2004; Wilson, 2012). However, a study exploring volunteering with the American Red Cross (Gillespie & King, 2015) and a Dutch study (Suanet, van

Groenou, & Braam, 2009) concludes that age alone is an insufficient indicator if not placed in the context of a specific generation.

Assumptions about the potentially inhibiting factors that dilute volunteer motivations during their career years of life (e.g. career needs, time limitations, investment in other areas) were supported by the participant's feedback, suggesting that resources and means to give something back were of some motivational significance to the participants. Cnaan et al. (2010) have further confirmed the relationship between time-based pressures and occasional or episodic volunteering behaviours, suggesting that for career and education-restricted individuals, alternative scheduling and opportunities are needed. Hyde and Knowls (2013) also support the idea that constraints such as time decrease the intention to volunteer, and more specifically, J. Claxton-Oldfield and S. Claxton-Oldfield (2012), in their qualitative study, found that family commitments reduced levels of retention. While 'time' has also seemed to have a demotivating effect on volunteering for the participants in this study, 'family commitments' did not seem to play a major role. There was instead some correlation between age and mobility, as the volunteer managers in this study suggested in their interviews that moving to a new city or searching for a new network of friends can drive individuals to explore new opportunities such as volunteer work but, at the same time, would disconnect them from their fellow volunteers at home. Therefore, hygiene factors need to be considered when developing a retention strategy.

Whereas the findings reveal that young volunteers like to volunteer together with their friends – hence, the group of friends serve as a catalyst for volunteering – this factor for motivation seems to reduce its impact over time. Musick and Wilson (2008), supported by Vecina et al. (2012), also identified this factor for young volunteers, while advancing the notion that elderly persons, in particular, like to be asked to volunteer, which was supported by the interviews of the present study.

6.6.1.3 Education and Employment

While, according to the findings, education does not seem to generally bias generalisation, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) have investigated the narrative differences in experience, value systems, and social priorities concerning their influence on volunteer behaviours. A review of the demographic findings suggests that the typical Bavarian volunteer is more likely to be highly educated, with just 42% of the total population not having attended some form of university study. From an employment perspective, the majority of the participants (66.8%) indicated that they are employed more than 14 hours per week, while only 16.6% are employed directly with the BRC.

This distinction is important when considering the motivational effects associated with the decision to volunteer and the potential pressures facing these individuals in relation to their work commitments. While researchers such as Pajo and Lee (2011) have proposed work-sponsored volunteering solutions to increase the opportunities for career-constrained individuals to engage in volunteer activities, this was not directly demanded by either participating volunteers or volunteer managers. However, the participants did ask lawmakers to facilitate regulations on leave of absence, enabling them to pursue their volunteer mission in cases of disasters and accidents. This, again, is a hygiene factor to be considered as a retention strategy.

6.6.1.4 Organisational Affiliation

As an antecedent to volunteer activities, values and intrinsic altruistic traits were important factors informing and supporting volunteerism (Claxton-Oldfield et al., 2011; Dunn et al., 2016; Hoyer et al., 2008; Ludwick et al., 2014; Nencini et al., 2016; Peachey, Lyras, Cohen, Bruening, & Cunningham, 2014; Wolcott et al., 2008). The majority of the study's participants (84.6%) indicated an affiliation with the BRC, while just 2.3% were solely members of TeamBavaria, and 6.6% were members of both the BRC and TeamBavaria (the latter small percentages were due to low response rates). TeamBavaria has opened its online scheduling system to include a large population of episodic volunteers; however, the BRC remains closer in its policies and practices, creating challenges for the casual or temporary volunteer. For the BRC to support episodic volunteering in the future, the participants have reported that there is a need for short-term solutions and on-demand position assignments capable of accommodating whatever services are being offered. While there is an acknowledgement that various local chapters have developed strategies for resolving and accommodating episodic volunteerism, a long-term solution to addressing volunteer shortages or encouraging episodic commitments has yet to be developed. TeamBavaria has achieved the most seamless episodic solution by employing its digital matching software to connect volunteers according to skill sets or interests regardless of formal qualifications and capabilities. However, only a few participants were only members of TeamBavaria or not members of either TeamBavaria or the BRC: hence, a detailed comparison of these different groups of volunteers would have involved unacceptable levels of bias and issues of reliability, as a large group would have been compared to a very small population. Therefore, a comparison of motivation and support for episodic volunteers with members of the BRC was not further pursued.

6.6.1.5 Implications on Retention

There was a significant empirical bias towards participants in this study with a higher level of experience and long-term membership that likely influenced the general orientation of the results. Specifically, the majority (53.6%) of the sample participants indicated having more than 10 years of volunteering experience, a finding that is indicative of long-term volunteering and active membership within the BRC. In prior studies, empirical research conducted by Brants (2014) revealed for the American Red Cross that the average length of volunteerism was greater than 12 years, with most of the participants represented by older, experienced individuals who had actively invested in the formal Red Cross programme across multiple events and activities. While TeamBavaria may encourage a higher level of episodic volunteerism, a large majority of the participants (84.6%) were only members of the BRC: 57.6% of the sample volunteered weekly, but this result is mainly conditioned by BRC members. This level of regularity, coupled with the long term of retention, is indicative of a desirable outcome of any volunteering system: individuals who are both active and longstanding within a single organisation. Although weekly frequency may indicate a higher level of regularity, 38.9% of the participants reported volunteering just 5–10 hours weekly, and only 9.8% suggested that they commit more than 15 hours per week. These findings suggest that regularity is likely conditioned by other considerations such as time availability, role-specific needs, and programme demands.

6.6.2 Volunteer Functions Inventory

One of the limitations of the VFI that was demonstrated during this study can also be seen in the generalisations observed in Gillath et al. (2005), who posit that the structural design of the questions assumes duality (e.g. important or unimportant, right or wrong). For this reason, while 88.7% of the participants acknowledged that they believe that through volunteerism they can contribute to a cause that is important to them, the finding is complicated by the ambiguous phrasing and structure of the question itself. To draw an assumption that the behaviour associated with volunteerism and the cause itself is mutually exclusive or inclusive would result in a gross generalisation of the motives, agendas, and priorities underscoring the individual. For example, the statement 'I can do something for a cause that is important to me' (Question 15) is a substantially motivational consideration that implies that the individual is participating in a cause regardless of its societal importance or nature. As this study was not longitudinal, it is possible that the answers would change over time. At the same time, to complete Question 14 ('I feel compassion towards people in need')

with 'important' extends the implication of the volunteering behaviour to suggest that regardless of the context or impact of the cause itself, it is the importance that shapes the behaviour.

Despite efforts to refocus the questions within the VFI, it was evident that the structure and biases of these prompts may have a negative impact on the objectivity and openness of the participant feedback. In order to assess quantitative reliability, Cronbach's alpha was satisfied with an internal consistency reported at 0.825. This, however, was measured against positivity (e.g. individuals positive in one dimension are likely to be positive in another), failing to address the range of dimensions that are incidental or societal in the participants' constructs, such as 'my friends volunteer' (Question 18) or 'I can learn how to deal with a variety of people' (Question 20). It can be argued that because of the inconsistencies intrinsic to the Clary et al. (1998) VFI itself (e.g. the distinction between values and career is not sufficiently transparent), the consistency observed within these responses may not be sufficiently reliable to translate these findings beyond this discrete sample.

In other segments of the VFI, it seemed evident that reliability was structurally deficient, potentially calling the results into question as the participants were compartmentalised and grouped by scales that were misleading or influential. For example, the structural and semantic conflict between Question 15 and Question 20 in the VFI implies a deficiency in quantitative reliability that is likely the result of phrasing or emphasis related to the multipart characteristics of these prompts. Importance, for example, could be naturally included within the general commitment to a cause itself; at the same time, knowledge about a cause that one is working for is intrinsic to the behaviour itself. To participate within the volunteering process involves learning about the cause itself; however, the traits and characteristics of the cause associated with such learning do not have to, by default, be important to the individual.

On the other hand, it needs to be noted that despite these limitations, the VFI was used in a number of studies (see Chapter 2.5.4.1, p. 40), either in its original setup or revised, and it is still used as a basic assessment scheme for volunteer motivation in the context of retention (Dunn et al., 2016; Dwiggin-Beeler et al., 2011; Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013; Garner & Garner, 2011; Gazley, 2013; Hoyer et al., 2008; Peachey et al., 2014). Thus, there is consistent use of the VFI in the literature. While this does not exclude it from due reflection and scrutiny, a frequently used scale in the field of study should not be excluded. Furthermore, in this study, the VFI questions were adopted from the original VFI questionnaire by Clary et al. (1998) and not revised to maintain consistency. However, to reduce potential survey fatigue,

questions of each category were reduced (in an equally balanced manner). Hence, the above-mentioned limitations were inherent to the original VFI questionnaire.

6.6.3 Helping Attitude Scale

The HAS was employed as a structured means of assessing volunteering-related motivators to assess the degree to which the participants engage in helping attitudes during their daily lives. For the responses to the HAS, Cronbach's alpha was satisfied with an internal consistency of the 14 questions reported at 0.825, mirroring the reliability of the VFI and indicating a consistent representation of positive versus negative effects in both scales. With a high degree of importance placed on each of these help-oriented prompts, a general interpretation of the findings could imply that individuals who are motivated to volunteer are also motivated to help others in a variety of social settings. In fact, Meier and Stutzer (2008) argue that the most desirable outcome of a highly effective and supportive volunteer environment is an intrinsic reward which satisfies the participants and validates the importance of their participation in broader social impact terms.

6.6.4 Summary

In the context of the findings, the data needed to be interpreted considering bias regarding the demographic structure of the sample population, which tends to favour long-term and experienced volunteers. While the complexity of volunteering observed throughout this study is reflected in the findings, demographic bias seems to be within acceptable limits: the evidence presented in Appendix 3 does not reveal considerable inconsistencies among answers within a set of demographic traits.

Regarding the VFI itself, it remained questionable how contextual bias such as social pressure might have affected questionnaire responses. This potential bias was partially mitigated by implementing the HAS section of the questionnaire regarding 'helping' attitudes and further by comparing the VFI findings with interview results, yielding a more profound insight into the reasons behind possible contextual bias. Hence, while the results of this study should be interpreted after consideration of the above-mentioned contextual bias, the study's results allow for the development of a volunteer retention model.

6.7 Volunteer Retention Model

A central goal of this empirical investigation was to develop a model of volunteer support that could be used to improve motivation reliably, and as a result, increase retention over the long term. The model builds on a person-centred multiple theory approach of:

- SDT (theoretical basis see chapters 2.5.4.2 (p. 42) to 2.5.4.5 (p. 49); data collection see chapters 4.5 (p. 140), 5.4 (p. 176), and 5.5 (p. 177) including different perspectives see chapter 4.5 (p. 140),
- Expectancy Theory (theoretical basis see chapter 2.5.1.3 (p. 36); data collection see chapters 5.2 (p. 156) and 5.3 (p. 173)), and
- Functional Motivation Theory (theoretical basis see chapter 2.5.4.1 (p. 40); data collection see chapters 4.3 (p. 120) and 4.4 (p. 135)),

each supported by semi-structured interviews (see Table 10, p. 106).

Besides altruistic and egoistic traits, the findings have revealed a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators which can be moderated by several intermediary solutions as leaders engage and interact with the volunteer population to improve effective outcomes.

Figure 38 visualises a retention model of support that is designed to enhance the full scope of volunteer motivation by improving the overall volunteering experience. The model should be considered as a working model rather than a definitive statement. Models serve to simplify complex structures. This is particularly true as the study revealed highly complex structures. Hence, simplification is a challenging task and needs to consider focusing on the most relevant themes while omitting less important aspects. The model, therefore, focuses on those themes which have emerged in this study as most relevant for volunteer retention. It should, however, not be considered as a holistic model of how volunteers are motivated (which needed to be explored in this study as a prerequisite for answering further research questions) but rather as a guideline and tool for organisations to better understand how to retain volunteers.

In this regard, while intrinsic motivators are essential to crafting and supporting self-driven motivation and programme commitment, hygienic factors and demotivational influencers must be addressed within the context of the programme itself to ensure that the bridge between motivation and hygiene is sustainable (Herzberg, 2008). This model builds upon the weighted feedback of the survey and interview participants, confirming the effects of specific variables in shaping positive intermediary outcomes

related to training and development, leader-volunteer relationships, and volunteering opportunities. Leaders should fulfil this model in three ways:

First, the left side (green boxes) distils intrinsic motivators consisting of both altruistic and intro-egoistic (see Chapter 6.3.1, p. 215) traits. Leaders should follow the left side and ensure that there are systems in place to improve those factors that motivate volunteers on an intrinsic level.

Secondly, leaders are to focus on the central characteristics of the volunteering process itself and develop support that specifically targets and enhances intrinsic motivation. The model includes three basic support strategies which have emerged from the findings.

Thirdly, leaders should develop solutions to mitigate the potential for demotivational influences which have been found in the study.

Finally, the three circles of the model represent interconnectivity of intrinsic motivation, hygiene factors, and support measures which needs to be well balanced to achieve effective volunteer retention. While the study's findings yielded important insights into factors of motivation and ways of volunteer support, leaders should be aware of this complexity and the simplifications of the working model. However, within these complex phenomena, the model could guide leaders and organisations to allocate their limited funds according to the model to foster volunteer retention effectively.

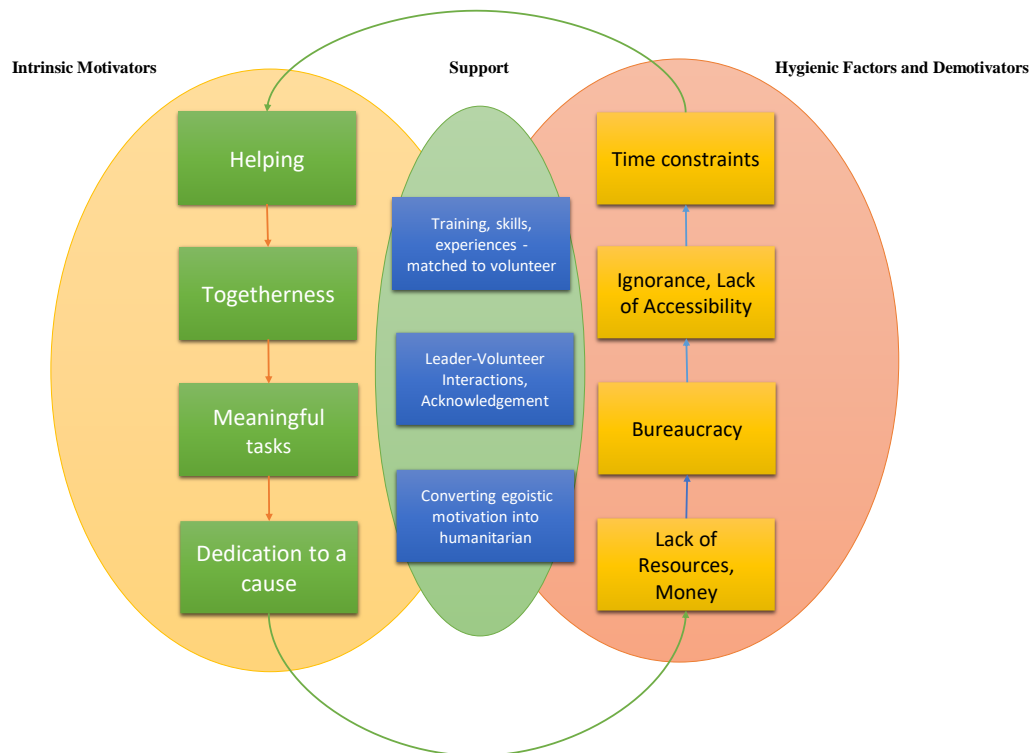


Figure 38: Volunteer Retention Model

As presented in Figure 38, the Volunteer Retention Model synthesises the findings into a practical and administrable model for organisations to enhance volunteer retention. The theoretical basis (see above) for the model is a convergence of multiple person-centred theories to build on a holistic, integrative theory of volunteering.

6.8 Summary

This chapter has provided an in-depth discussion of the empirical findings, drawing upon prior research theories, evidence, and conceptual models to assess the legitimacy, significance, and potential implications of the mixed-methods evidence. By definition, volunteerism is an individually motivated pursuit of engagement within a socially meaningful context that is broader and more robust than that of the immediate role of the individual. At the same time, situational hurdles and procedural constraints have the potential to restrict both the access to volunteer opportunities and long-term positions or relationships within a given organisation such as the BRC. The findings have revealed correlations and predicted theoretical relationships between volunteer support and increased motivation to participate in a growing range of volunteer opportunities. Further, the retention model of support presented in this chapter has demonstrated the opportunity to connect multiple layers of highly motivational support

strategies with desirable volunteer outcomes such as retention and frequency of service. The following chapter will conclude these findings and draw upon the full scope of evidence captured throughout this exploratory study to illuminate a range of desirable and sustainable pathways to motivated and engaged volunteerism.

7 Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

Statistical evidence regarding volunteerism in Europe has suggested that there is a widespread openness and commitment to volunteer activities that extend across the various national and cultural boundaries (Allison et al., 2002; Greenslade & White, 2005; Phillips & Phillips, 2010; Wu et al., 2009). While a wealth of prior research in this field has explored the relationships between volunteerism motivation and retention (see Chapter 2.6, p. 50), the lack of a consistent and predictable blueprint for improving volunteer motivation and retention has created significant gaps in the literature. The current study was designed to not only explore the tactics and strategies that have been successful in reducing volunteer turnover rates but also improve in-process motivation and volunteer experiences to enhance the overall contribution of support to increase volunteering activity over time.

While much of the research conducted on volunteerism has focused on key strategies for recruitment and retention, the bridge between effective retaining strategies, volunteer motivation, and organisational support was identified in the prior literature as a critical gap. To address this gap and to propose practical and pragmatic support strategies for motivating volunteers towards long-term commitments, this study has explored a variety of overlapping primary and secondary sources. Without a sufficiently robust field of empirical research regarding how volunteer support and motivation can contribute to improved retention, the literature in this field has been unable to reconcile the complex relationships between the psychological drive which encourages volunteering and the strategies and tactics for stabilising and sustaining this drive throughout the volunteering process. For distinct regions such as Bavaria in Germany, there has been a lack of transparency and clarity concerning any explanatory efforts that have been made to diagnose volunteer motivation and retention.

This investigation has focused on adding to a growing spectrum of research studies that have collected empirical evidence and insights related to the motivation of volunteers in a variety of settings. Where many prior studies have endeavoured to explain and validate the relationship between motives for volunteering (antecedents) and longevity over time (retention), a more rigorous exploration of the relationship between intra-organisational support and volunteer motivation had (to the knowledge of the author) not previously been conducted. This empirical research has provided the basis for interpreting the conceptual basis of volunteer motivation outlined in prior research

studies and systematically distilling those findings into a pragmatic model of volunteer support and engagement. The following sections will describe the pathways to these achievements and draw summative conclusions regarding the significance and transferability of these findings in future volunteer-based scenarios.

7.2 New Knowledge

The primary aim of this study was to determine if (and to what extent) different types of supportive measures affect volunteer motivation and the influence of motivation (if any) on levels of volunteer retention. This research aim was accomplished in multiple stages.

First, a review of secondary sources previously published in this field was conducted, exploring the conceptual and empirical perspectives that shape the expectations regarding motivations and support. Subsequently, an empirical survey of 995 volunteers and interviews with 15 volunteer leadership representatives at the BRC was conducted, resulting in in-depth insights and interpretations based on a comparison of grouped perspectives. The results have determined several outcomes to these findings conclusively. The primary result of this research is that volunteer support, which has hardly been researched in previous studies, is not only effective but is instrumental in shaping the relationship between personal motivators and intra-organisational demands. Whereas the underlying mission to enhance volunteering is individualistic and diverse, the central culture, values, and agendas of these factors have the potential to unify the motives and commitments of the volunteer population.

The further empirical finding resolved the initial research objective as well as accomplishing the core priorities of the research aim, identifying specific factors or support strategies that motivate individuals to participate in volunteerism. The conceptual evidence regarding the definition and character of volunteering suggests that individuals are motivated towards volunteering by a variety of triggers and influencers including psychological needs, social affiliations, emergency or crisis conditions, personal opportunism, or altruism and benevolence (Grönlund, 2011; Marta & Pozzi, 2008; Musick & Wilson, 2008; Okun et al., 2007). Through a review of the feedback and insights captured via this questionnaire and interviews, the Bavarian volunteers have confirmed the tension between both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, factors that not only shape and inspire volunteer activities but support and sustain such commitments over the long term. Most importantly, the insights from this empirical evidence have suggested that by converting individualistic or egoistic motivations into humanitarian or socially oriented priorities, it is possible to increase and sustain the motivation to

volunteer over an extended period. While altruistic motivation ('helping') and sharing a volunteering experience and common values together with others are the most prevalent motivating factors of Bavarian volunteers, egoistic traits were present in the data.

The relative sustainability and value of egoistic or utilitarian volunteering are limited by the gratification of the underlying needs, ultimately resulting in a higher turnover or shorter tenure for episodic or self-motivated volunteers.

The second objective accomplished throughout this study was to identify those support measures that should be incorporated into aid organisations to improve volunteer retention. In conducting a review of the volunteer experiences, there was an expectation that there would be some degree of similarity or consistency that could explain Van Til's (1988) prediction of motivational multiplicity. The insights from the participating volunteers suggested that such predictions are accurate, with central motives associated with social, personal, career, organisational, and need-based objectives. Importantly, there is a tension between the intrinsic and the extrinsic that must be resolved to achieve a more sustainable volunteering tenure. Whereas the participants acknowledged self-driving motivations as an originating mechanism for opportunity-seeking, it was evident that these catalysts are unsustainable and are vulnerable to the demotivational effects of difficulty, personal costs, systemic failures, and social conflicts.

Given that motivation is prone to wane and that volunteers must be motivated to continue to participate in selfless and altruistic endeavours, it was important for this study to determine what strategies (if any) are being employed by aid organisations to support and motivate their volunteer staff. The results suggested that enhancing intrinsic motivation using intangible support, such as personal appreciation, listening, an enabling expression of concern, are most effective.

The third research objective also considered what kind of support volunteers expect from the associated organisation and whether any potential gaps in support could negatively influence volunteer motivation and retention. The evidence suggests that where systemic support in the form of training and development or resources was withheld, volunteers would feel frustrated or cognitively detached from the overarching mission of the organisation. At the same time, where mission inconsistencies developed within the general objectives and values of the organisation, a greater level of discontinuity led to higher rates of erosion. While the results revealed that the BRC fulfilled or overfulfilled the support demands by volunteers regarding training, monetary compensation and communications, it does not meet the expectations regarding

equipment and funding. Finally, considering that enhancing intrinsic motivation using intangible support was found to be most effective: if organisations failed to support intrinsic motivators such as self-actualisation, achievements, and value-based priorities, then the findings confirmed that motivation would decline, and retention would become untenable.

Due to the likely outcome of gaps between expected and realised benefits associated with volunteering activities, it was predicted that organisational leadership would need to consider strategies for improving motivation and retention.

The fourth research objective focused on what support strategies could be introduced to realise such outcomes and improve the overall results for aid organisations. The empirical evidence suggests that it is first essential for leadership to develop active, open communication channels that not only support volunteer awareness and understanding but also create a framework of reciprocity capable of strengthening and stabilising the value systems essential to the broader volunteering agenda. By realigning any conditions that might lead to expectancy gaps and focusing volunteers on intrinsic motivators and value propositions, these findings have confirmed a positive and sustainable outcome. Furthermore, potential demotivators such as a lack of resources, an inability to access volunteering opportunities, or out-of-pocket costs and expenses need to be managed within the scope of the organisational aid programme to ensure the ease and efficiency of the volunteering process.

This study has concluded that there is a direct relationship between volunteer motivation and retention that can be actively and consistently supported as long as leaders are aware of the triggers and patterns. Whereas reactionary motivation strategies are important during times of uncertainty or difficulty, the primary goal for these leaders should be to introduce support into the architecture of the programme itself. Acknowledgement and recognition programmes should be incorporated into the temporal constructs of volunteer tenure, encouraging long-term participation in programmes designed for developing the skills and knowledge necessary to provide aid across a variety of scenarios. Open-door communication policies, volunteer participation, and continuous training and development initiatives all serve as stabilising and sustaining measures that can encourage retention. As long-term volunteers extend their position in the organisation, their role in training and supporting younger, newer volunteers is an important catalyst for motivation, while also driving the social-psychological forces that encourage sustained investment in the programme objectives.

For Bavarian organisations like the BRC or TeamBavaria, this study has demonstrated that most volunteers are actively seeking ways through which they can give back to their community. Such motivations can be used to sustain intrinsic motivators within the volunteering process, as leaders recognise, encourage, and support factors that drive the psychological and personal motives of the volunteer population. At the same time, other variables related to extrinsic motivators and execution-based challenges can create gaps in the motivational fabric that can lead to volunteering fatigue. For this reason, awareness of the effectiveness and value of particular motivational support strategies is essential to shaping the long-term realisation of organisational agendas. Aid organisations such as the BRC play a critical role in meeting the needs of people in need. There is a need to sustain these organisations and their broader social contributions. This study has demonstrated multiple strategies that can be used to support such agendas, focusing on improving the dynamic relationship between intrinsic motivational triggers and extrinsic interventions and solutions.

For leaders in volunteer organisations, the high rate of turnover and the fluctuation of both episodic and long-term volunteers creates challenges for developing reliable and predictable human resources. However, the critical nature of these services mandates an adaptive standard of motivation and retention that can improve the predictability of such human dynamics. Attempting to motivate individuals via extrinsic triggers such as monetary rewards, career advancement, or social compensation creates conditions that are not only untenable but that are inconsistent with the broader mission and value-driven agenda of the volunteer organisation, particularly that of the Red Cross. Instead, the feedback from these volunteers has suggested that the psychological triggers that make volunteering an attractive expression of human altruism, community, and selflessness should be emphasised. If leaders utilise motivators that are ego-centred and self-serving, they are failing to respect and acknowledge the core values of humanitarianism that drive individuals towards 'real' volunteering. Individuals who are interested in volunteering should be encouraged to do so for selfless reasons, not rewarded for their overarching status as a volunteer.

There was a tension observed within the empirical findings between long-term volunteers and episodic volunteers. While each of these organisations has acknowledged the need for this form of short-term participant, it is evident that there are concerns about the challenges associated with investing in episodic commitments when long-term positions remain unfilled. Given the feedback from leaders and their volunteer population, it is argued that the episodic volunteer represents an opportunity, not a burden. They not only fulfil a critical role under crisis or situational conditions, but they

are exposed to an environment in which episodic and long-term volunteers interact and engage. The affective value of this exposure should not be discounted. In fact, it could be predicted that if organisations such as the BRC developed channels for incorporating episodic participants into their programmes, they would be able to convert a percentage of those individuals into long-term volunteers. This argument complements the framework and model of volunteer support presented in the preceding chapter, contesting the idea that volunteers are not self-constructed; instead, they are supported, focused, and encouraged in their commitment to altruistic and humanitarian endeavours.

The central research questions regarding the motivation of volunteers and the role of organisational support in improving retention have confirmed several different challenges. Firstly, volunteers are heterogeneous and as a result, are conditioned and guided by a variety of motivational forces. Secondly, organisational needs and onboarding processes are variable, resulting in experiential outcomes that are inconsistent and often incomplete. The result of these two axes of variability is a largely unpredictable framework of motivation that must be resolved through consistent, pragmatic, and value-driven support systems. The findings have revealed that the opportunities for motivating volunteers begin on the first day of the process and are inclusive of the range of systemic, episodic, and interactive influences that predict the alignment or gap between expectations and experiences. If such expectations can be aligned and if the volunteers can be encouraged to embrace the altruistic advantages of aid-oriented volunteering, then it will be predicted that the role of support could enhance retention.

By providing opportunities for volunteers to align their interests with the capabilities and resources of the larger aid organisation, this study suggests that their motivations will shift towards high-value contributions and effective, enhancing outcomes.

Whereas the target for any aid organisation leader is an organisation in which volunteers strive for continued excellence, the organisation must outline and inspire the fundamental ideas and values that shape such excellence before targeting more rigorous accountability measures. This research has demonstrated that such value systems are intrinsic and able to be shaped via experiential and participative triggers that sustain and feed a sense of altruism and beneficence that extends beyond the egocentric needs of the individual. The summary framework of volunteer support and motivation presented in the discussion chapter provides the tools needed to ensure that such goals and outcomes are holistic and innate to the systemic constructs of the volunteering guidelines themselves.

Through an empirical exploration of the relationships between perceived and experienced support in aid organisations, this study has not only outlined the impact of support in aid-based settings, but it has also drawn connections between the modalities of support and the motivational effects and outcomes of such processes. Further, the characteristics and traits of the Bavarian volunteer population have been explored and interpreted concerning their influence on motivational considerations. By juxtaposing the perspectives of volunteers with their organisational leadership, this study has determined a critical gap in the expectation-perception dichotomy that shapes and informs the volunteering process. As a result, several group-dependent biases have been identified and rejected through a comparative interpretation of the leader-volunteer relationship:

- Motivation conflict paradigm: leaders assume that volunteers participate in formal processes because of altruistic or humanitarian value systems. Subordinates, however, transfer their own values into the volunteering process, creating a value gap that can lead to conflicting motivations.
 - Solution: Leadership must acknowledge the value-based gaps and strive to develop strong reinforcement systems capable of encouraging onboarding, value alignment, and volunteer commitment.
- Return equity and value transfer: while the work associated with volunteering would ideally provide a sufficient foundation to validate the altruistic efforts of the individual, the lack of tangible return equity can lead to demotivational effects.
 - Solution: There is a need for some form of intrinsic value transfer from within the volunteering process to the volunteers that not only validates their contributions but their achievements as well (e.g. longevity, scope of aid).
- Participation support solutions and volunteer-driven engagement: while procedural controls and good governance are important factors for the function and execution of the broader organisational mission, the gateway to long-term volunteering is a diversified range of opportunities and episodic solutions capable of meeting a range of needs.
 - Solution: a zero-turn-away policy could assist agencies such as the BRC and TeamBavaria with developing a strong base of shorter-term, episodic volunteers that could potentially be converted into longer-term lifetime contributors.

These three findings are significant when not only designing the volunteer programme but also shaping and implementing the procedures necessary to inspire retention over time. This study has suggested that a rising desire to volunteer in Bavaria is not consistent with a growing volunteer base, as systemic limitations and constraints have resulted in critical deficiencies and restrictions that reduce the ease of volunteer participation. Considerations such as increasing the informality and experiential value (e.g. fun, rewards, socialisation) of the volunteering process should be explored as practical resolutions to the gaps between volunteer support and volunteer motivation. By acknowledging volunteering as a form of secondary commitment, leaders can develop internal solutions that not only validate the motives of the individuals but also confirm the underlying advantages and intrinsic value of behavioural repetition (e.g. more frequent or regular volunteering). The strength of other intrinsic motivators such as togetherness, community, identity, socialisation, and achievement can then be leveraged as a purposive support strategy capable of improving and shaping the path from episodic to long-term volunteer.

7.3 Contribution to Theory

This study has built upon the prior research of Omoto and Snyder (1995), who suggested a relationship between support and motivation in volunteer settings. By extending this consideration to assess the role of motivation in reducing turnover and maximising retention outcomes, the prior findings of Tuohy (2015) have been confirmed. Whereas more recent works of Sakaduski (2013) and Kolar (2016) developed models that connected traits and values to the retention of volunteers, this research is highly theoretical, and as a result, has neglected an important aspect of validation and confirmation: empiricism. This study represents the first, non-governmental, large-scale survey and analysis of empirical findings regarding volunteer motivations in Bavaria. Further, the evidence captured has contributed a new understanding of how intrinsic and extrinsic motivators create tensions between effective and ineffective support strategies in volunteering settings. One of the primary advantages of a real-world exploration of these multi-dimensional perspectives is that any experiential evidence that translates across the temporal and experiential boundaries of the volunteering experience serves to validate and confirm the reliability and validity of the findings.

While macro-structural theories and SOT were discarded (see chapter 2.8, p. 57), the study used a multi-theoretical person-centred approach considering expectancy theory, SDT and Functional Motivation Theory. These theories were then combined,

informing a multi-method survey design and semi-structured interviews. Reflecting the complexity of volunteerism and based on the multi-theoretical and multi-method approach, a Volunteer Retention Model (see chapter 6.8, p. 248) was developed.

7.4 Contribution to Methodology

From a methodological perspective, this study has demonstrated the applicability of quantitative instruments such as the VFI and the HAS for analysing volunteer motivations, while also demonstrating the experiential value and advantages of a more robust qualitative insight.

Regarding methodology, the study offers a multi-theoretical approach, not only building on a single theory but considering and distilling the most prevalent theories in the field of research (see Table 57, p. 206, and Figure 30, p. 172). Unlike most previous quantitative studies focussing entirely on statistical analysis, and unlike the few qualitative studies aiming to understand a small group of volunteers, this study uniquely converges quantitative and qualitative survey data on a large sample of 995 participants and 15 interviews to explore what impact the level and various approaches to volunteer support have on volunteer motivation to increase levels of volunteer retention in the BRC.

7.5 Contribution to Practice and Recommendations

The fifth and final objective of this study was to provide recommendations for future volunteer organisation applications to support volunteer motivation and retain volunteers over an extended period. Based on the findings, three central strategies can be employed to not only ensure that motivation remains high but also to reinforce motivation over time to improve retention rates.

Recommendation 1: Reinforce Intrinsic Motivation By Translating Intangible Contributions (e.g. Time, Skills) into Tangible Outcomes:

The antecedents to volunteering have been shown to be directly connected to a range of intrinsic factors that include psychological, social, and ideological interests (Beyerlein & Sikkink, 2008; Clary et al., 1998; Duguid et al., 2013; Christopher J. Einolf, 2008; Okun, 1994). Where these factors are likely to sustain volunteer motivation over the short term, this evidence has demonstrated that long-term commitments require reinforcement of those intrinsic motivators. By translating actions into tangible measures of aid, the significance of individual contributions can be translated into more rigorous volunteering outcomes. Leadership should communicate and celebrate

achievements, drawing upon central mission objectives to demonstrate excellence and highlighting areas of deficiency to encourage opportunities for improvement (e.g. recruiting peers).

Recommendation 2: Emphasise Community and Socialise the Context of Volunteering and Collaborative Aid:

A central advantage of long-term volunteering pertains to the social relationships and connections that are developed throughout the organisational network (Beirne & Lambin, 2013; Sellon, 2014). Individuals align their personal interests with those of the volunteer population, supporting community engagement and investment in a central, collective goal. It is this mission or vision (Wolcott et al., 2008) that stimulates intrinsic valuation, while motivational solutions related to community and socialisation extend from robust and sustained relationships with others. This study has demonstrated the critical value of community and togetherness as expressed by the participants regarding their affiliative and membership-based relationships with other volunteers. From event-specific dynamics (e.g. serving the needy in a group setting) to long-term relationships with others, retention is likely to be magnified by social engagement.

While episodic volunteering makes population predictions more difficult, it also supports aid organisations under conditions in which regularity is incompatible with the nature of the specific mission (Wolcott et al., 2008). For this reason, encouraging episodic volunteering is an important solution for recruiting freshly motivated individuals that can fill immediate gaps and provide relief to over-worked full-time or permanent volunteers. Moreover, episodic volunteering is a gateway to longer-term interests that can encourage volunteers to consider formal membership for future purposes because some share the common motives (Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016). While recruiting first-time volunteers is a challenging process that often involves self-motivation, the feedback within the current study indicates that episodic volunteering is a pragmatic solution for not only solving immediate needs but also developing the values and priorities capable of supporting long-term interest and commitments.

Recommendation 3: Convert Egoistic Motives into Humanitarian Priorities:

While among the participants of this study there was strong support for altruistic priorities such as helping and dedication to a cause, a premise supported by a large proportion of other studies (Claxton-Oldfield et al., 2011; Dunn et al., 2016; Hoyer et al., 2008; Hyde et al., 2016; Planalp & Trost, 2009b), others such as Wuthnow (2012) have discovered in interviews with volunteers that individual motives and altruism are not incompatible. This is supported by Alam and Oliveras (2014) for a poor region

such as Bangladesh. However, while image concerns could (idealistically) confine egoistic motives, as suggested by Carpenter and Myers (2010), extrinsic support provided to enhance egoistic motives could have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motives (Sprenger, 2014). The findings of this study suggest that egoistic motives could be converted into humanitarian priorities by carefully matching volunteering opportunities with volunteer skills, reducing demotivating factors and communicating with volunteers to support hygiene factors in order to facilitate a positive connotation of humanitarian priorities. Although the findings suggested a high level of diversity among volunteers, which is supported in the literature (Liao-Troth, 2008; McAllum, 2014; McBride & Lee, 2012), volunteers with humanitarian priorities were likely to keep volunteering (Claxton-Oldfield et al., 2011; Dunn et al., 2016; Hyde et al., 2016).

7.6 Limitations in the Research Approach

Besides the limitations discussed in the previous chapters, further potential structural limitations need to be considered.

7.6.1 Sample Size

The first and primary limitation of this research was the scale and sampling selectivity of the empirical study. While the sample population was robust at 995 total participants and 770 participants completing the full questionnaire, considering that there are more than 100,000 volunteer members in both the BRC and Team Bavaria, this sample seemed relatively small at a first glance. Further, the population sample was purposively restricted to just one geographically similar population, relying upon localised insights to generate representative interpretations and analysis. Although this sampling technique restricted the scope of participants to only 770 individuals who completed all survey questions (out of 100,000–200,000 potential volunteer members of the two organisations), the confidence level assessment of 95% was indicative of a sufficiently robust and reliable sample population. Singh and Masuku (2014) have confirmed the advantages of a smaller sample population when drawing insights from a non-probabilistic sample. Given that the degree of variance throughout the entirety of the Bavarian volunteers is likely not to be greater than that observed within this sample population, this sampling limitation was both appropriate and essential to the accurate and statistically significant analysis of these findings.

7.6.2 Questionnaire Design

A secondary limitation of this study can be traced to the design of the questionnaire itself and the reliance upon prior scalar instruments in the form of the VFI and the HAS. Developed by Clary et al. (1998) as a means of assessing the relationship between six key influencers (values, career, understanding, social, enhancement, and protective), a critical socio-cultural bias was observed within the VFI in the initial study, as the prompts were American-specific and thereby culturally informed accordingly. A comparative assessment of cultural characteristics for Germany and the United States in the most recent Hofstede (2019) Cultural Compass Report reveals multiple points of socio-cultural departure including individualism (higher in the USA), long-term orientation (higher in Germany), and indulgence (higher in the USA). Although a cross-country comparison of volunteers could be used to confirm any reliability issues related to the potential biases within the Clary et al. (1998) model, the changes to the verbiage and question structure for the current study are argued to have been sufficient to limit any evidential influence or quantitative unreliability. A similar cultural bias was observed concerning the HAS, a scale developed by Nickell (1998) for an ASA Convention; however, in this study, purposive restrictions were made to the 20 prompts, reducing this scale to just 14 queries that were directly related to the motivations associated with volunteering and altruistic proclivities. In order to ensure that these questions were not inconsistent with the underlying values and perspectives of the participants, the open-ended queries at the end of the questionnaire were used to supplement the feedback and illuminate any regional and culturally-distinctive traits that might restrict the value of the quantitative dataset. Furthermore, the electronic questioning system (SurveyMonkey) was set to alter the sequence of the question sections so that hindsight effects were mitigated. Given the feedback, no such incongruities were observed.

7.6.3 Measuring Retention

While Questions 10 and 11 were designed to measure retention, the very definition of retention is temporal; as a result, it cannot be directly measured via singular or incidental surveying techniques. A more productive solution would be to conduct a time-series investigation to measure individual motivations and perceptions of organisational and leader support over the varied stages of volunteerism. From a confirmatory standpoint, the direct relationships between motivation, longevity, and support could only be accurately measured by administering the same survey instrument to the same participants over an extended period of research (e.g. 1–3 years). Even if

restricted to a single year study, it would be valuable for future research in this field to consider multiple points of assessment, comparing individual responses to structured prompts at specific milestones in the volunteer process (e.g. 1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 12 months). In this study, besides the length of volunteering (Questions 9 to 11), the intention to remain (Questions 59 to 61) was used as a proxy measure of retention (Chacon et al., 2007; Greenslade & White, 2005; Hyde et al., 2016). Based on these findings, as support and motivation seem positively correlated, it is suggested that without sufficient support, individual (motivations and) retention would decrease, while higher levels of support would lead to improvements in retention (as in motivation).

7.6.4 Non-Member Volunteers

Another limitation of this study is the relatively small number (6.6%, see Figure 13) of participants who indicated that they were neither members of the BRC nor of Team-Bavaria. Therefore, a large majority of participants were already volunteering, meaning that the findings, foremost helping attitudes, do not necessarily reflect those of the general population but are likely to include an altruistic bias. Therefore, the study did not pursue the topic of volunteer recruitment because factors motivating individuals to start volunteering would more likely need an assessment of the motivations of non-volunteering persons. Research on retention, however, could emphasise already volunteering individuals and the likelihood of continuous volunteering.

7.7 Future Work and Additional Research

One of the important findings of this study was that the motives underpinning the decision to volunteer and the decision to continue to volunteer could change over time; as a result, the factors motivating volunteers at different temporal stages in their tenure could change over time as well. This investigation was designed to explore the relationship between support and volunteer motivation in the context of retention; however, as the findings have demonstrated, the motivations for one individual are different from the motivations for others, resulting in a difficult and often conflicted solution that could either support or dilute the motives of different groups. Intrinsic motivators, however, are important catalysts for the initial volunteering decision that have been linked to a positive, sustainable outcome that can increase retention and the longevity of the volunteer population.

Accordingly, in shaping any future research in this field, it is important for academics to begin with those factors that motivate volunteering in the beginning and determine how the emotional, psychological, behavioural, and ideological value systems can be

supported and sustained over the long term. For many volunteers, the tension between free and occupied time, for example, can create barriers to long-term volunteering, reducing the ability to commit to a consistent or predictable schedule because of personal responsibilities and commitments. The recent expansion in episodic volunteering through online portals such as TeamBavaria represents an important innovation in this process that allows individuals interested in volunteering opportunities to define their own schedule and manage their own commitments. Additional research is needed from a practical perspective to determine whether such forms of volunteering are meeting the needs of the organisation, the beneficiaries, and the broader volunteer mission. Whereas crisis-based interventions might benefit from episodic volunteering, formal programmes involving training – such as that at the BRC – have for decades relied heavily upon long-term volunteer engagement in order to meet their specific mission objectives.

Beyond the decision or motive to volunteer, this investigation has also revealed that there is a critical gap between the operational needs of the individual and the support and interactions being afforded by the leadership teams within the volunteering organisation. If leader-volunteer relationships are strained or stressed by the demands of the support activities, the potential for demotivation increases, and as a result, retention and longevity is more likely to decline.

Future research comparing volunteer organisations such as the BRC to private-sector corporations could yield important information about the psychological distinctions shaping volunteer motivations. Furthermore, the variable role between leaders and subordinates in such diversified settings could be used to shape and implement a leadership blueprint that is more effective, supportive, and engaging for volunteering purposes.

Another finding of the current study is that while volunteer support is likely to affect individuals to varying degrees, intrinsic support is likely to have a more positive influence on volunteer motivation and retention over time. In fact, the data analysis revealed that as the length of volunteering increases over time, the relative importance of intangible support increases over that of tangible support. This finding suggests that the tangible support effects may decrease to some degree due to mission fatigue or motive-influencing pressures. This results in a more effective need for support solutions that can continuously reaffirm individuals' intrinsic motives for volunteering on the one hand, while making them tangible on the other hand. This form of rejuvenation could yield interesting results in empirical settings if the relationship between longevity and mission-based motivations were assessed via longitudinal mechanisms.

Further, additional research in this field should consider the overall effectiveness of particular tangible and intangible support strategies at varying periods in the volunteering tenure, ultimately illuminating a retention model for volunteer support that considers the effects of temporal progression and service fatigue on intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.

Even more so, a longitudinal study considering the tenure of episodic volunteers such as members of 'TeamBavaria' could enhance future studies because motivation and demotivation could change over time. The findings of a longitudinal study could enhance the Volunteer Retention Model presented in this study.

7.8 Final Conclusions

This chapter has summarised the broad spectrum of findings captured throughout this multi-dimensional study. To meet the complex challenges of humanitarian support and needs fulfilment, volunteer organisations such as the BRC are continuing to refine and improve their support practices to motivate a larger number of volunteers and stimulate long-term retention outcomes. The antecedents to volunteer motivation have been thoroughly explored. Specific empirical findings have revealed the unique challenges that Bavarian organisations such as TeamBavaria and the BRC are facing as volunteer patterns manifest with greater degrees of unpredictability. This study has confirmed the need for more purposive and strategic internal support, targeting dimensions of both tangible and intangible character that not only have the potential to motivate volunteer populations but also drive programme performance and mission accomplishments. The multi-layered exploration of the evolving nature of volunteering in this study contributes to a deeper understanding of the forces driving, motivating, and sustaining individual volunteer commitment. The findings offer a targeted blueprint for meeting the unique but varying needs of the diversified volunteer population, demonstrating a range of opportunities for developing a standard of support that is conducive to more productive and effective organisational outcomes.

Appendix 1 Systematic Literature Review

Literature	Title (abbreviated)	Frequency of citations ▲	Key point(s) discussed	Sample	Research method	Theoretical framework	Critical evaluation?	Results (abbreviated)
(Dwiggins-Beeler et al., 2011)	Vectors of volunteerism	21	Relationship motivation, organizational communication, satisfaction, retention, recruiting	250 volunteers of a single NPO; southern California, USA	Quantitative; survey (including VFI)	Structural equation modeling	Yes, but works with correlations; cross-sectional, not longitudinal; low response rate (18%)	Satisfaction positively associated with retention.
(Harp et al., 2017)	Volunteer Engagement and Retention	21	Investigating the moderating role of community service self-efficacy (CSSE) on the relationship between organizational constraint, role ambiguity, and volunteer engagement	235 of 3 US NPOs	Quantitative online survey, closed questions	Job-demands resource model	Correlation and regression analysis.	Volunteers with higher CSSE were more likely to engage in volunteering
(Wolcott et al., 2008)	Sustainability of a Long-term Volunteer-based Bird Monitoring Program	21	Understanding motivating factors and how to retain volunteers	Sample of 347 Australian volunteers volunteering at least 5 years, but only 37 respondents; and 37 interviews; most volunteers > 55 years old	Mixed methods: survey with closed and open-ended question	Not mentioned	No statistical analysis, mainly reporting results	Main reason to volunteer was supporting the project and the context of the project (environmental protection); main reason ceasing was health
(Sellon, 2014)	Recruiting and Retaining Older	22	Meta-study of literature of older	Literature review between	Peer-reviewed, US studies,	Not applicable	Yes	Aids in retention: support from staff,

	Adults in Volunteer Programs		adult volunteerism searching for best practices	2006–2014	studies identifying gender and race, quantitative and qualitative			recognition, meaningfulness, social interaction, strengths of individuals, goals of volunteers
(Claxton-Oldfield et al., 2011)	The inventory of motivations for hospice palliative care volunteerism	23	Finding a reliable and valid tool beneficial to retention of volunteer in hospice palliative care	Two studies totalling 141 undergraduate students	Quantitative, closed questions	Inventory of motivations for palliative care volunteerism	Testing self-developed model, only students	altruism, civic responsibility, self-promotion, leisure, and personal gain
(McBride & Lee, 2012)	Institutional Predictors of Volunteer Retention	23	Longitudinal study of AmeriCorps volunteers	Quasiexperimental, longitudinal study between 1999–2002 of 1,752 AmeriCorps members	Quantitative surveys	Multi-level logistic regression	Yes, criticising that the volunteer field is so diverse that it is hardly possible to find generalisable results	Completers and leavers same personal variable structure; leavers because of health; completers need facilitation of volunteering. But: volunteer are very diverse
(Darch & Carusi, 2010)	Retaining volunteers in volunteer computing projects	23	Searching for ways to retain volunteer depending on three types of volunteers	35 questionnaires, undefined forum threads	Qualitative study, open-ended questionnaire, forum threads	Not revealed	Very focused on computer science, hardly generalisable	Have firm, consistent and transparent rules and reward work that benefits the project, for instance, by ensuring that volunteers have the incentive to run work units through to completion rather than abandoning them uncompleted
(Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace, 2009)	Recruitment and Retention of Volunteers in	24	Recruitment and retention with	unknown	Qualitative, unstructured	Not revealed	Missing total number of interviews	51% motivated by pride in what they do; 20%

	Emergency Services		emergency service volunteers		interviews			self-satisfaction and self-worth
(Beirne & Lambin, 2013)	Understanding the Determinants of Volunteer Retention Through Capture-Recapture Analysis	25	Understanding the determinants of volunteer retention rates	176 participants in Scotland	Longitudinal study 2006–2010, telephoned every 6 months	Capture-recapture analysis; case study	Yes, but very focused on promoting their framework	Three key factors explained variation in retention rates, a volunteer's vocation, the cohort into which they were recruited and the frequency with of success of the project
(Claxton-Oldfield & Claxton-Oldfield, 2012)	Should I stay or should I go	26	Volunteer satisfaction and retention in palliative care (they need extensive training before they can volunteer)	41 volunteers in New Brunswick, Canada	Qualitative, Informal interview-style group discussions	none	Focus on satisfaction, missing link to retention	Most satisfying: patients' & families' appreciation; least satisfying: boundary issues; why staying: helping others; why stopping: family commitments
(Claxton-Oldfield & Claxton-Oldfield, 2008)	Keeping hospice palliative care volunteers on board	27	Volunteer satisfaction and retention in palliative care	Meta-study of literature	Mixed-method	none	Self-citing	Reasons to leave: personal; measures for alleviating volunteer stress: clearly define roles; contributing volunteer retention through: using new volunteer and mentoring (there are long list of reasons)
(Wald et al., 2016)	Design principles for engaging and retaining virtual citizen scientists	28	Surveyed key personnel involved in the development	120 questionnaires with 40 (33%) response rate	Email questionnaire, quantitative	Heuristic evaluation	Hardly any	Usability of web-sites; purpose of task were most common factors

			and management of a sample of VCS projects					
(Dunn et al., 2016)	Systematic Review of Motives for Episodic Volunteering	32	describing empirical evidence about motives for episodic volunteering (EV) across sectors (sport, tourism, events, health and social welfare)	851 articles, 33 of them meeting all inclusion criteria, cross-sectional	Systematic literature review; directed qualitative content analysis	VFI functions	Little; asserts that few studies have conducted the preliminary qualitative ground-work required to identify salient motives for volunteers; little consistency in the measurement of motives in quantitative studies	Volunteers most motivated by altruism (helping others) and social interaction
(Hyde & Knowles, 2013)	What predicts Australian university students' intentions to volunteer their time for community service?	34	understanding of the psychosocial factors impacting on Australian students' decisions to volunteer	235 university students	Mixed-methods; regression analysis	Theory of planned behaviour	Yes, absence of prospecting measure; only intention as proxy measure	Study finds that self-perception is important whether someone is volunteering. Feelings of constraint (e.g.) time are decreasing intentions to volunteer
(Hyde et al., 2016)	Episodic Volunteering and Retention: An Integrated Theoretical Approach	36	Exploring determinants of retention of episodic volunteering	Cross-sectional survey of 340 episodic volunteer in Cancer Control, USA	Quantitative	integrates the volunteer process model and three-stage model of volunteers' duration of service; multiple regression analysis	Yes, study design, the use of proxy intention measure for actual retention and sample characteristics	Social/enjoyment and benefit motives, social norm, and satisfaction predicted Novice EV (first experience) retention; satisfaction and commitment predicted Transition EV (2-4 years intermittently) retention; and

								supporting the organisation financially, social norm, satisfaction, and commitment predicted Sustained EV (5-6 years consecutively) retention.
(Ringuet-Riot, Cuskelly, Auld, & Zakus, 2014)	Volunteer roles, involvement and commitment in voluntary sport organisations	36	Exploring the nature of volunteer engagement in sport by exploring the categorisation of sport volunteers as 'core' or 'peripheral' based on self-reported levels of involvement and commitment (volunteer management)	243 volunteers of volunteer sport organisations in north-west Australia	Quantitative survey	Differentiating 'core' (holding formal offices) and 'peripheral' (steady or occasional contributors) volunteers and their role identity; role theory	none	Core volunteers are more and broader involved than peripheral volunteers
(van Dongen et al., 2013)	The influence of adverse reactions, subjective distress, and anxiety on retention of first-time blood donors	36	investigates the effects of adverse events and feelings of distress and anxiety on retention of first-time blood donors. All effects were explored separately for men and women	1278 first-time donors, checked again 18 months later (Netherlands)	Quantitative survey	Logistic regression analysis	None	9% who experienced an adverse event did not come back. Reasons were certain health issues related to blood donation

(Planalp & Trost, 2009b)	Reasons for Starting and Continuing to Volunteer for Hospice	37	finding out from hospice volunteers how they first heard of opportunities to volunteer, what motivated them to volunteer when they first began, and why they continue	351 from three western US states; data from 2004	Quantitative; Questionnaire with closed and open-ended question.	ANOVA	Little	Decided to volunteer because: service (helping, making a difference) and personal experiences. Decided to continue because: Organisation is good and personally rewarding
(Sinclair et al., 2010)	An adapted postdonation motivational interview enhances blood donor retention	37	This study examined the effects of a postdonation adapted motivational interview (AMI) on blood donor attitudes and repeat donation behaviour.	215 blood donors interviewed, follow-up after 1 month and were to complete a questionnaire; Cincinnati Ohio USA	Quantitative	Intention Scale, Attitude Scale, State Anxiety Inventory and self-efficacy scale	Individual intervention components were not specifically evaluated	Donors in the AMI group reported greater intention to provide a future donation, more positive donation attitudes, and greater confidence in their ability to avoid adverse reactions. Further, AMI was associated with higher rates of attempted donation at 12 months
(Waters & Bortree, 2012)	Improving volunteer retention efforts in public library systems	38	Measuring impact of organisational communication and inclusive behaviours on volunteers' intention to continue volunteering	472 volunteers	Quantitative	Relationship Management Theory	Limited generalisation because only three libraries were assessed.	Female indicators of retention: group inclusion and participation. Male indicators: included in organisation's information network and participating in decisions

(McLennan et al., 2009)	Maintaining Volunteer Firefighter Numbers	39	Two studies: Volunteer exit survey and volunteer satisfaction survey	396 exit surveys; 514 second-year satisfaction survey of Australian firefighters	Quantitative	Unknown	Unknown	Exiting reasons: work/family and moving; higher levels of volunteer satisfaction, and thus intention to remain, were associated strongly with being a member of a well-led, inclusive, and harmonious brigade
(Hoye et al., 2008)	Volunteer Motives and Retention in Community Sport	41	about the relationship between volunteer motives and their intentions to remain with an organisation	407 volunteers from Australian community rugby clubs	Quantitative; confirmatory factor analysis	Self-administered questionnaire based on VFI	sample for the study was drawn from one type of sport organisation	High motivated volunteers with altruistic values were significantly more likely to report higher intention to continue volunteering
(Peachey et al., 2014)	Exploring the Motives and Retention Factors of Sport-For-Development Volunteers	43	investigating the motivation of volunteers who chose to take part in the World Scholar-Athlete Games, a multinational sport-for-development event, and to identify factors related to their retention	21 international volunteers	Qualitative; Focus groups and interviews; however deductive reasoning	VFI	none	volunteers were motivated by values, social, understanding, career, and self-enhancement, and when volunteers were satisfied that their initial motives were fulfilled, they continued to donate their time to the event; retention was driven by satisfaction of an individual's initial motives
(Dury et al., 2015)	To Volunteer or Not	44	examines a	Derived (not	Quantitative	statistics	Motivational	there is no gradual

			hybrid theory containing individual characteristics, resources, and social factors and volunteering of older adults living in Belgium	collected) from Belgian Ageing Study: 31,581 individuals aged 65 to 80 years			variables were not included; cross-sectional nature of these data prevented authors from determining temporality	distinction between non-, potential, and actual volunteers. Certain 'attitudes/dispositions' (religion, altruism, education, and physical health condition) and 'social contexts' (friends, cohabiting, being a parent, and helping others) indicate that volunteers are more oriented towards volunteering
(Ludwick et al., 2014)	Poor retention does not have to be the rule	50	analyses the retention and motivation of volunteer community health workers in Uganda	404 community health workers	Mixed-method; Pair-wise ranking	Not revealed	None	Reasons to drop-out: too busy and moving. Motivating factors: improving mission; education/training, being asked for advice by peers
(Gazley, 2013)	Predicting a Volunteer's Future Intentions in Professional Associations	51	estimating future volunteering intentions among a distinct group (occupational associations)	26,305 survey responses 90% USA	Quantitative; multinomial logistic regression	Penner volunteer process model; modified VFI	not employing a longitudinal study, only measuring future intentions rather than real behaviour	strength of a member's overall motivation to volunteer is positively associated with future intention to volunteer, but not at substantively significant levels; relationship between present volunteering and an intention to continue

								volunteer- ing is very positive
(Waikayi et al., 2012)	Volunteer management	56	investigating volunteerism and volunteer management , based on an exploratory case study of two British Red Cross shops	17 semi-structured interviews	Interpretivist, qualitative, Exploratory case study	No particular theoretical framework	Research design; no findings concerning retention in particular	Reasons for volunteering: social interaction, work that is valued and training/skills;
(Alam & Oliveras, 2014)	Retention of female volunteer community health workers in Dhaka urban slums	61	need to better understand factors associated with volunteer retention, and consequently recommend strategies for increasing their retention	542 current and 146 dropout community workers participated in the survey	mixed-method study included a case-control design to assess factors relating to the retention of volunteer	No particular framework	Limited number of dropout participant; Bangladesh being very poor is not mentioned as a reason, but results of financial motivators are considered to be normal in rural areas	Financial incentives were the main factor linked to retention. social prestige, community approval and household responsibilities were important non-financial factors associated with volunteer retention
(Dwyer et al., 2013)	Sources of Volunteer Motivation	111	examined the separate influences of volunteers' personal motives and their team leaders' behaviours on volunteer satisfaction and contributions	302 volunteers (USA)	Quantitative; structural equation modelling	self-determination theory (included VFI)	Measuring retention derived from working hours; possible bias of volunteers already volunteering within an organisation	motives that predicted volunteer contribution were different from those that predicted satisfaction. Whereas satisfaction was positively associated with motives concerning esteem enhancement and value expression, contribution was

								positively associated with motives to gain understanding and negatively related to motives pertaining to esteem enhancement and social concerns
(Vecina et al., 2012)	Volunteer Engagement	150	examines the concept of engagement in samples of volunteers from different non-profit organisations	245 Spanish and international volunteers	Quantitative: moderated mediation analysis, confirmatory factor analysis	Study 1: testing Utrecht Work Engagement Scale; Study 2: Three-Stage Model of Volunteers' Duration of Service	data are cross-sectional and, therefore, it is impossible to establish a causal link between variables	1) engagement is crucial to volunteer satisfaction during the first stage, while volunteer satisfaction is the key variable in explaining intention to continue. 2) engagement reinforces the participant's commitment to the organisation, while organisational commitment predicts intention to continue
(M. Kim, Trail, & Chelladurai, 2007)	A Model of Volunteer Retention in Youth Sport	152	investigate three different volunteer-retention models incorporating person-task fit (P-T fit), person-organisation fit (P-O fit), managerial treatment	515 volunteers in the American Youth Soccer Organization	Quantitative; structural equation modelling	person-task fit (P-T fit), person-organisation fit (P-O fit), managerial treatment (MT)	Participant may be influenced by parents. No random selection of participant.	empowerment mediated the relationship between P-T fit, P-O fit, MT, and intention to continue volunteering

			(MT), empowerment, and intention to continue volunteering					
(Shye, 2010)	The Motivation to Volunteer	164	A new approach to volunteer motivation research is developed. Instead of asking what motivates the volunteer (accepting <i>any</i> conceptual category), authors ask to what extent volunteering rewards the individual with each benefit taken from a complete set of possible benefits	1,500 Israelis were randomly selected and interviewed via telephone (not only volunteer)	Quantitative; structured interviews	systemic quality of life model; theory of needs roles of altruism versus egoism in volunteering	None, which is surprising considering selecting a 'new way of asking'; Motivating factors are still somewhat preset, which authors want to avoid	for the general population, the opportunity to develop friendships and gaining a sense of belonging to a community, are the most important motivations for volunteering. The possibilities of expressing one's personality and of expressing one's beliefs are also very important. relief from personal worries and improvement of one's economic conditions are the least important potential motivations
(Garner & Garner, 2011)	Volunteering an Opinion	185	examines volunteers' satisfaction, motivations, and the ways in which those volunteers respond to problems in the	383 Californian volunteers	Quantitative	Modified VFI (18 out of 30 questions)	Convenience sample limiting generalizability; many young participants	Results indicate relationships between participants' satisfaction and motivation and their responses to problems. Motivation, satisfaction, and responses to

			organi- sation					frustrating events all affect vol- unteer retention.
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Appendix 2 Questionnaire

Questionnaire

You are invited to participate in a research study that seeks to understand the impact of volunteer support on volunteer motivation to improve retention. Your participation in this study is on a voluntary basis. You may withdraw your consent or participation in this project any time you feel like. The researcher hereby gives an undertaking that all answers you provide will be kept confidential and used solely for the purpose of answering the research question. Your answers together with those of all other participants will be consolidated anonymously into a database for use in an analysis, and results will be presented on a group basis and not on an individual basis. If you have any questions or comments please feel free to contact the researcher.

By answering the questions below you acknowledge that you have read the statements above and that you give your consent and willingness to participate in this study. Thank you for your help in this research study.

Section 1: Demographics

In this section, please indicate your answer by ticking an option.

1. What is your gender?
 - a) Male
 - b) Female
 - c) Other

2. What is your age?
 - a) 18-25
 - b) 26-35
 - c) 36-45
 - d) 46-65
 - e) Over 65

3. What is your current marital status?
 - a) Single
 - b) Married
 - c) Widowed
 - d) Divorced

4. What is your educational qualification?
 - a) Certificate of Secondary Education and lower
 - b) General qualification for university entrance
 - c) University degree/polytechnic degree/professional qualification
 - d) Post-graduate degree

5. Are you employed?
- a) Yes, more than short-time employment (more than 14 hrs/week)
 - b) Yes, short-time employment (less than 14 hrs/week)
 - c) No
 - d) Retired
 - e) Student
6. If you are employed, are you employed by the organisation you volunteer?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
7. Give an estimate of the amount of your annual individual income:
- a) Less than € 2.400
 - b) € 2.401 – € 8.820
 - c) € 8.821 - € 20.000
 - d) € 20.001 - € 45.000
 - e) € 45.001 - € 60.000
 - f) € 60.001 - € 120.000
 - g) Over € 120.000
8. Where are you a member?
- a) Member of Bavarian Red Cross
 - b) Member of TeamBavaria
 - c) Member of Bavarian Red Cross and TeamBavaria
 - d) Not a member of Bavarian Red Cross nor TeamBavaria
9. How long have you been a member of Bavarian Red Cross or TeamBavaria? (indicate longest)
- a) Less than 1 year
 - b) 1-3 years
 - c) 3-5 years
 - d) 5-10 years
 - e) Over 10 years
 - f) I am not a member
10. If you volunteer regularly: how often?
- a) Weekly
 - b) Monthly

- c) Annually
- d) Every time there is a need in the society
- e) Not applicable

11. How much time do you volunteer?

- a) Irregular, I cannot tell exactly
- b) Less than 5 hours per week
- c) Between 5 and 15 hours per week
- d) Over 15 hours per week

Section 2: Volunteer Inventory Function

Please answer Questions 23–52 by ticking the appropriate number on the scale that represents your feeling of what motivates you. The scale is as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important

	Motivation	Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
12	By volunteering I feel less lonely.					
13	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.					
14	I feel compassion towards people in need.					
15	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.					
16	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.					
17	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.					
18	My friends volunteer.					
19	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.					
20	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.					
21	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.					

22	Volunteering makes me feel needed.					
23	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.					

Source: Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Meine, P. (1998). Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1516-1530.

Section 3: Helping Attitude Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: This section is a 14-item measure concerned with your helping attitudes. It provides a scale designed to measure your beliefs, feelings, and behaviour in your interactions with other people. There are no answers that are presumed to be right or wrong. The purpose is to capture an honest reflection of yourself. Using the five-point scale below, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement in the space which is next to each statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important

	Helping Attitude	Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
24	When given the opportunity, I enjoy aiding others who are in need.					
25	If possible, I would return lost money to the rightful owner.					
26	Helping friends and family is one of the great joys in life.					
27	It feels wonderful to assist others in need.					
28	Volunteering to help someone is very rewarding.					
29	Doing volunteer work makes me feel happy.					
30	I donate time or money to charities every month.					
31	Children should be taught about the importance of helping others.					
32	I plan to donate my organs when I die with the hope that they will help someone else live					
33	I try to offer my help with any activities my community or school groups are carrying out.					
34	I feel at peace with myself when I have helped others.					
35	If the person in front of me in the check-out line at a store was a few cents short, I would pay the difference.					

36	I feel proud when I know that my generosity has benefitted a needy person.					
37	Giving aid to the poor is the right thing to do.					

Source: Nickell, G. (1998). *The Helping Attitudes Scale*. Paper presented at 106th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association at San Francisco, August, 1998.

Section 4: Personal favours (open questions)

INSTRUCTIONS: This section is independent of the previous questions. It provides questions on your personal favours without predefined topics. Your answers may, but do not need to include ideas from the previous sections.

38	Despite of all the previous questions, these are my personal top three reasons what motivates me volunteering	
39	Despite of all the previous questions, these are the top three reasons what I think motivates people volunteering	
40	Despite of all the previous questions, these are the top three reasons what demotivates me	
41	Despite of all the previous questions, these are the top three reasons what I think demotivates people volunteering	

Section 5: Expected support vs. actual support

INSTRUCTIONS: the following scale provides questions on organisational support you are experiencing.

1	2	3	4	5
Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important

		Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
42	I can express concerns and dissent					
43	Someone listens to me when I have something to say					
44	I get honours for my volunteer work					
45	I get feedback for my volunteer work					
46	I get advice how to improve my volunteer work					
47	I get training					
48	I am insured when volunteering					
49	I get financial aid because I live from social benefits					
50	I get a refund for transport expenses					
51	I get a reimbursement for the time volunteering					
52	I can file for tax exemptions because I volunteer					

Section 6: Personal favours

INSTRUCTIONS: This section is independent of the previous questions. It provides questions on your personal favours without predefined topics. Your answers may, but do not need to include ideas from the previous sections.

53	Despite of all the previous questions, I expect more support from the organisation in the following areas:	
54	Despite of all the previous questions, there is no need for support from the organisations in the following areas:	
55	Despite of all the previous questions, I expect more support from lawmakers in the following ways:	
56	Despite of all the previous questions, what kind of support are you in fact receiving?	

Section 7: Support and motivation, motivation and retention

INSTRUCTIONS: This section provides questions on what you think would the effect be for a given cause. Monetary support is any money you receive when volunteering (e.g. reimbursement of travel expenses, reimbursement for food etc.). Non-monetary support is any other support you receive from the organisation.

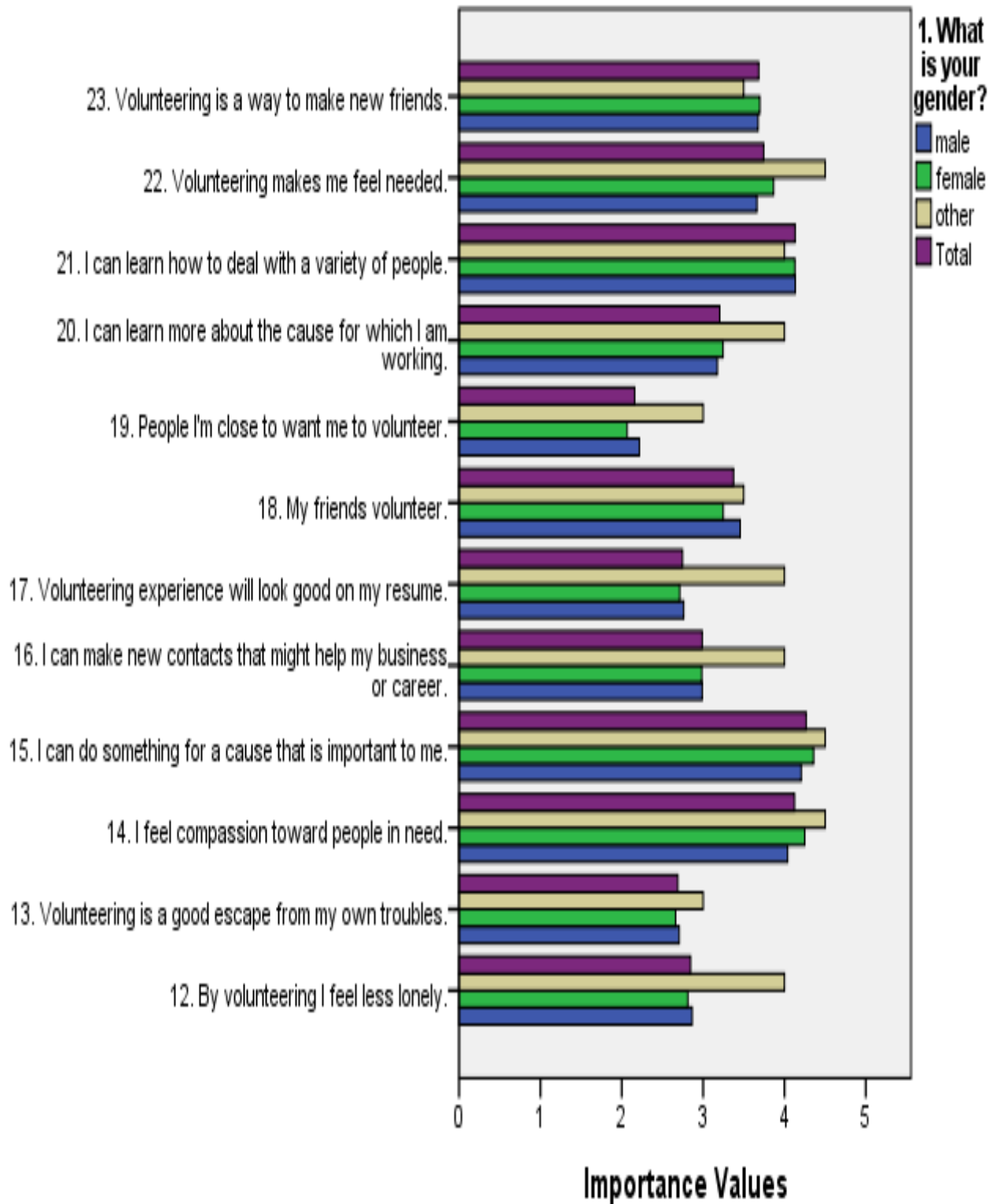
1	2	3	4	5
Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important

	Support	Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
57	More non-monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer					
58	More monetary support affects my motivation to volunteer					
59	More non-monetary support affects my retention with the organisation					
60	More monetary support affects my retention with the organisation					
61	The more I am motivated, the more I remain at the organisation I volunteer.					

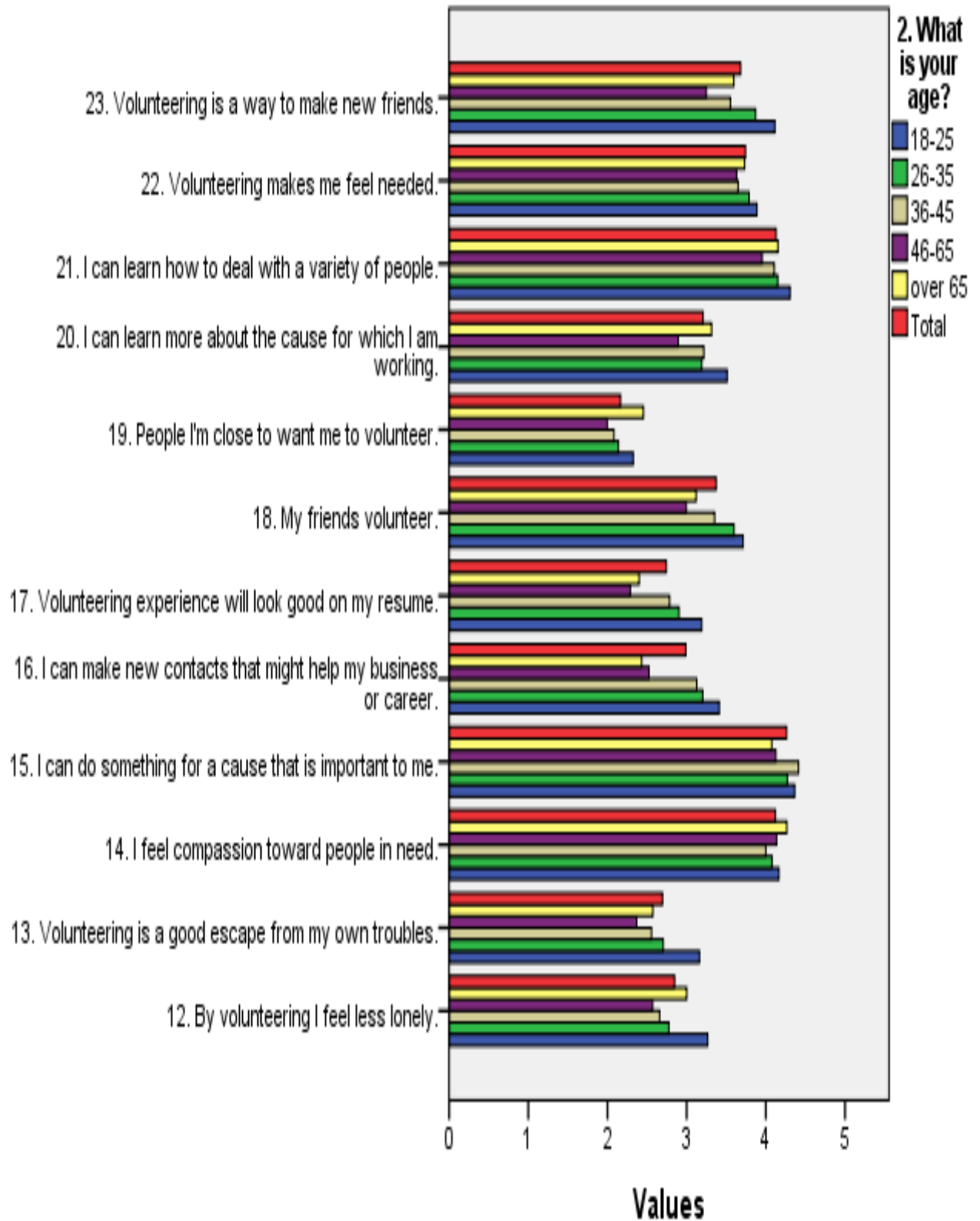
Appendix 3 Graphical Analysis Results

Crosstabulations of Section 1 (demographics) and Section 2 (abbreviated VFI) – Mean Values (see following page):

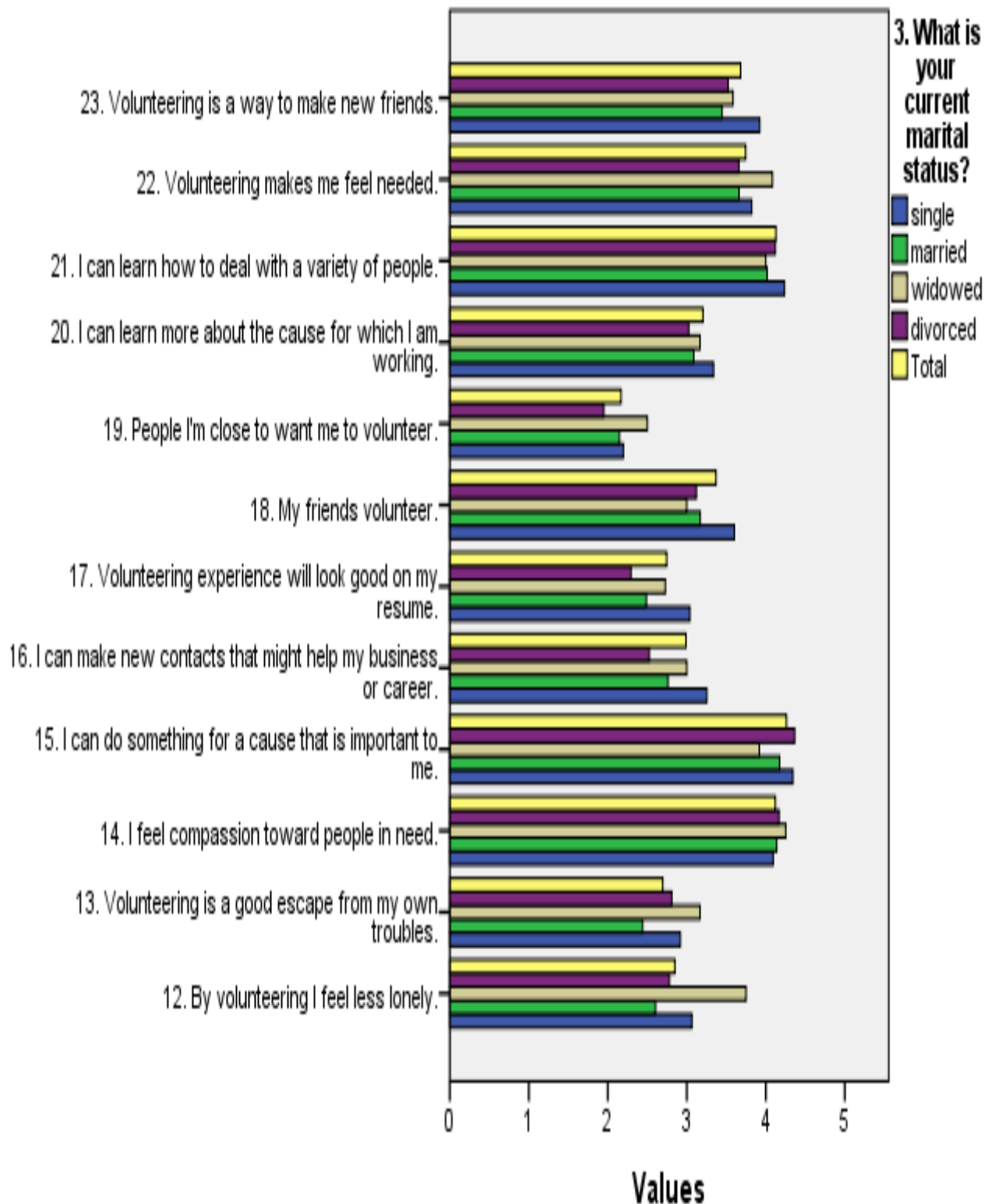
Answers by Gender (Mean)



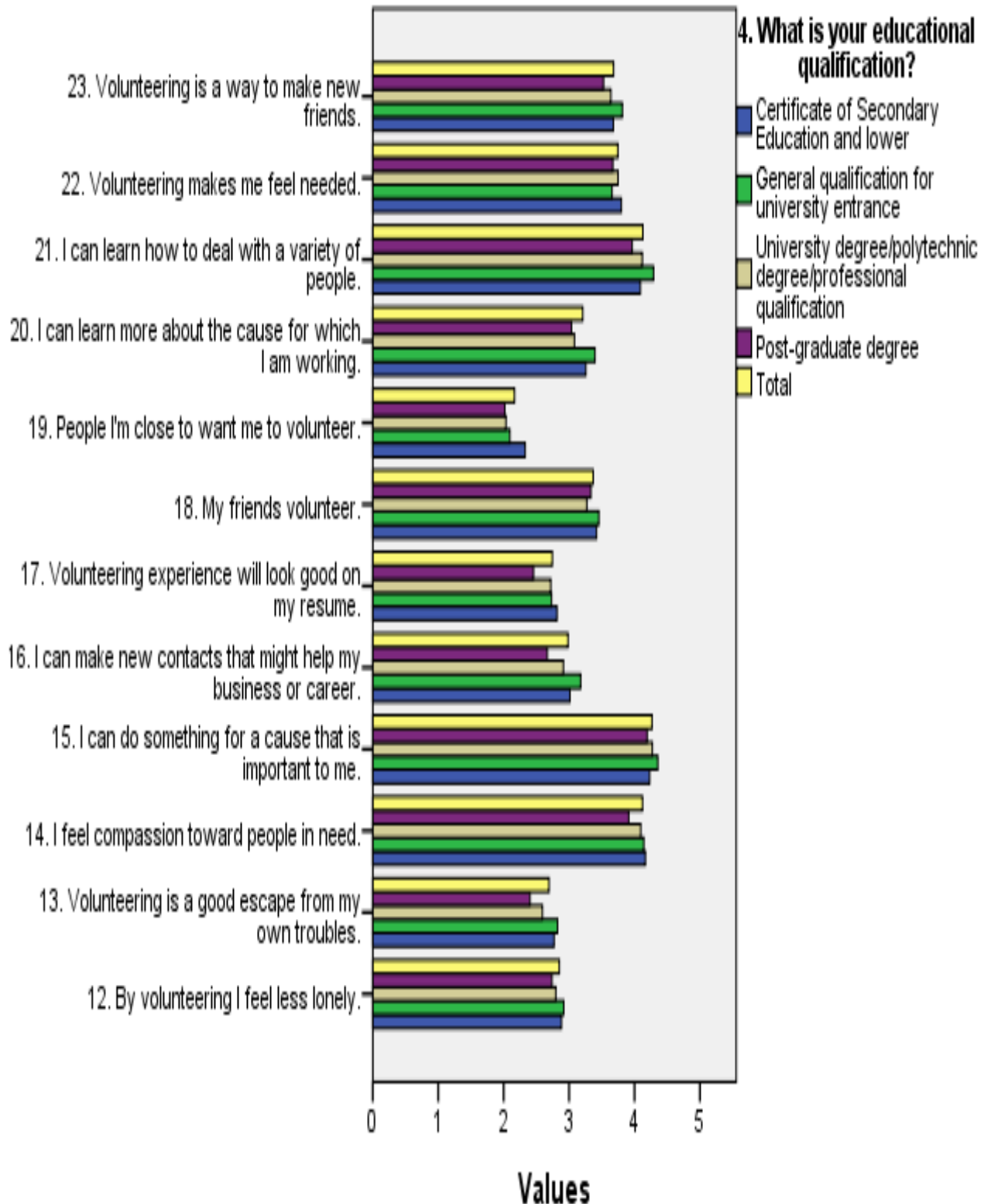
Answers by Age (Mean)



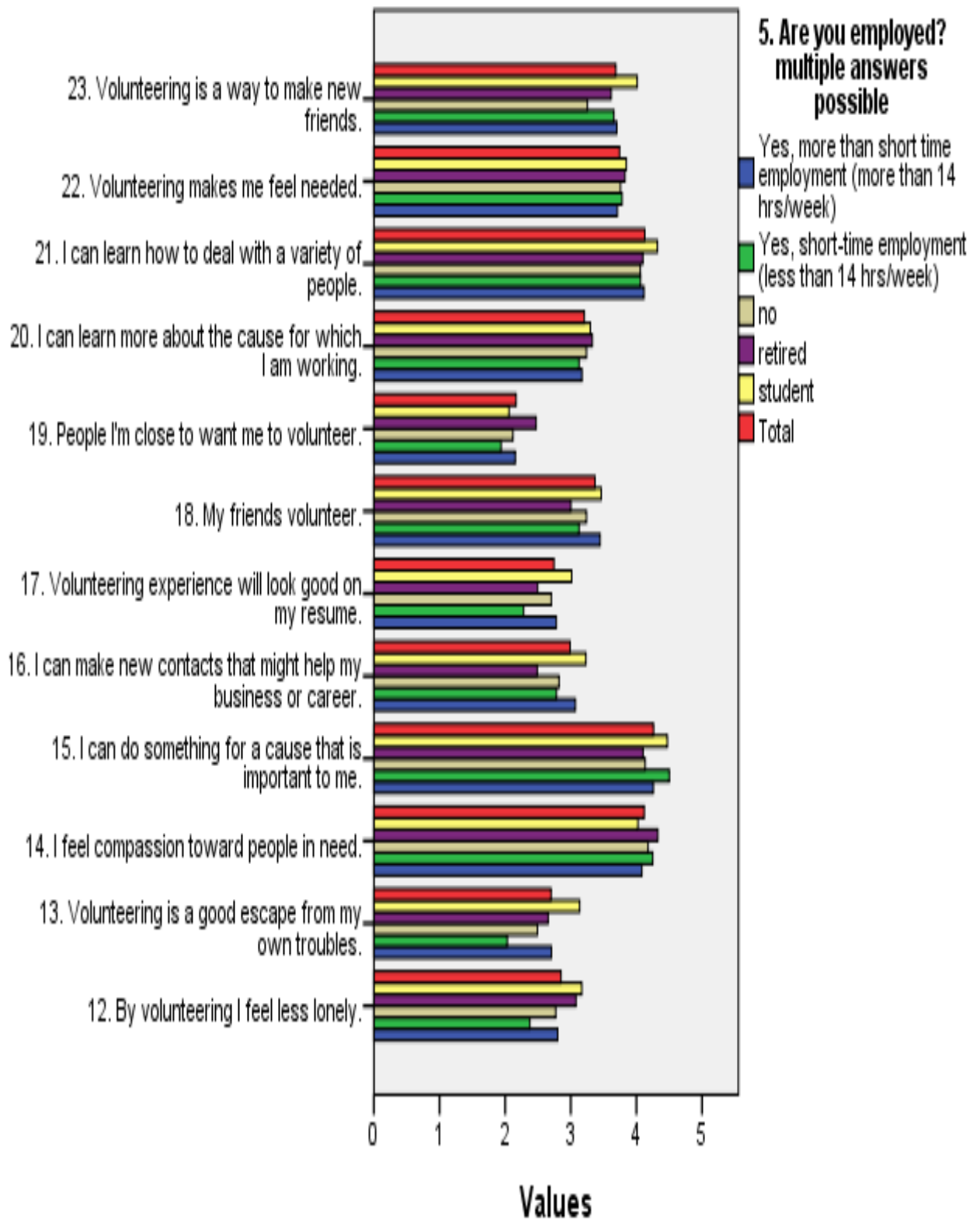
Answers by Marital Status (Mean)



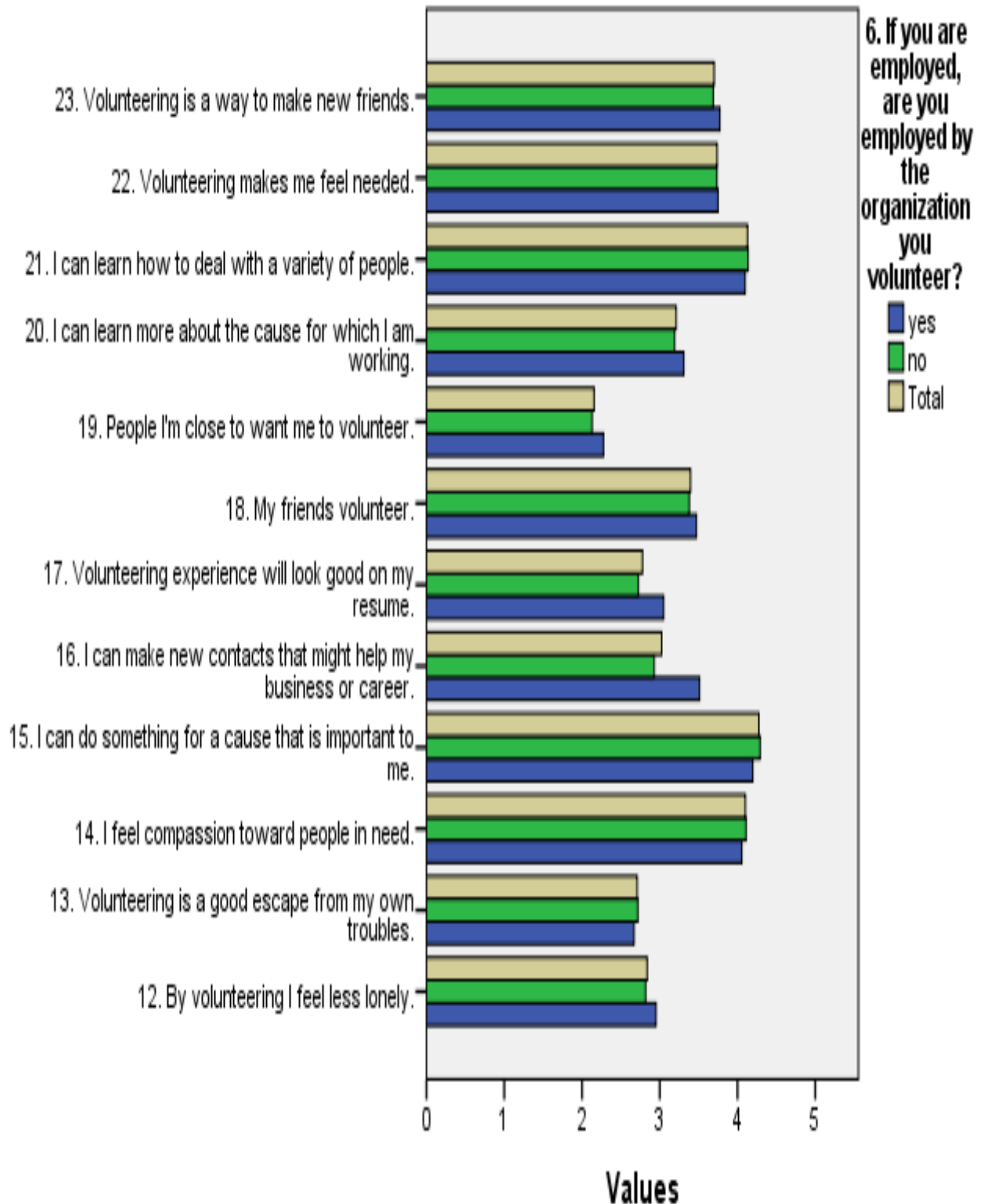
Answers by Education (Mean)



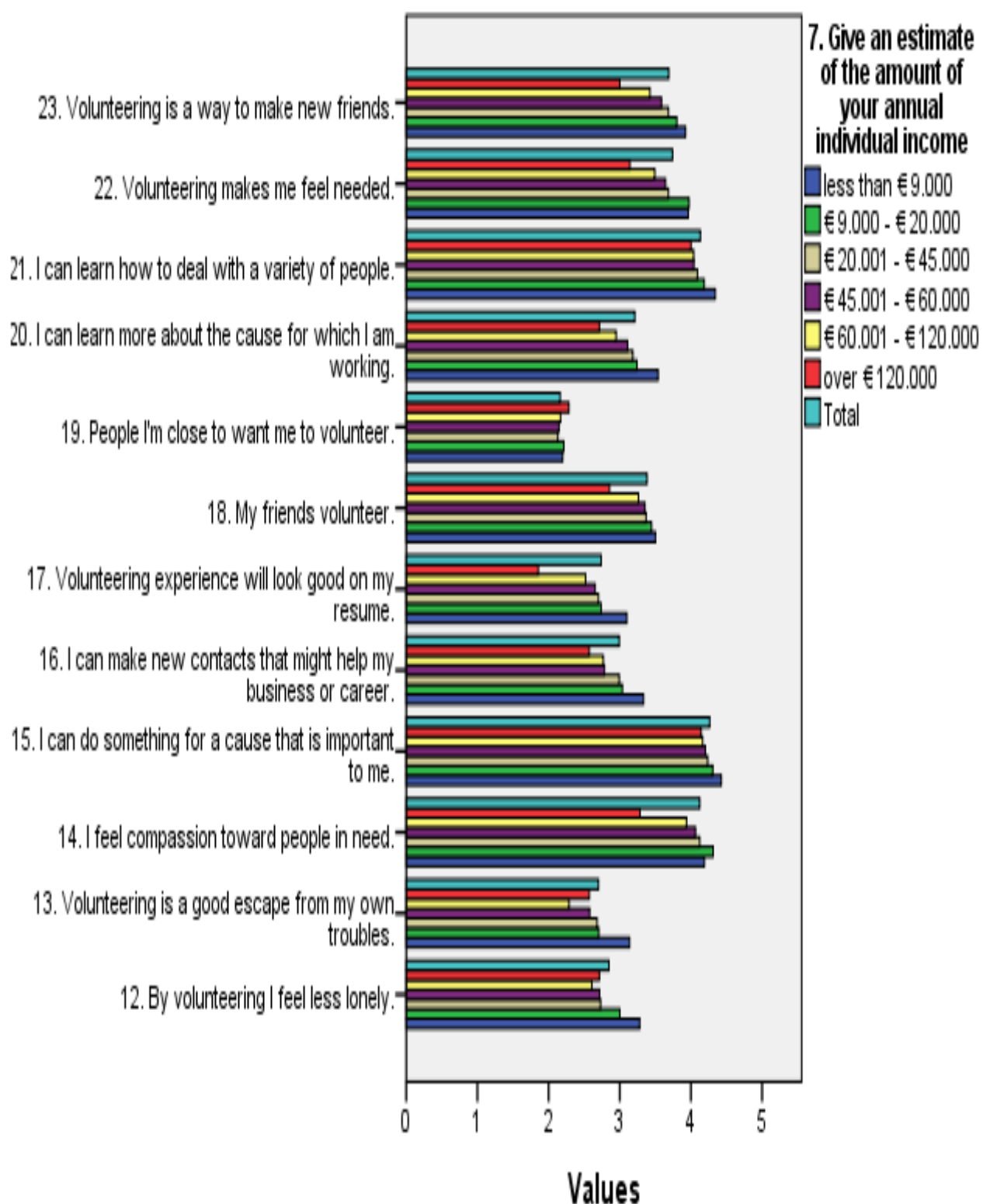
Answers by Employment (Mean)



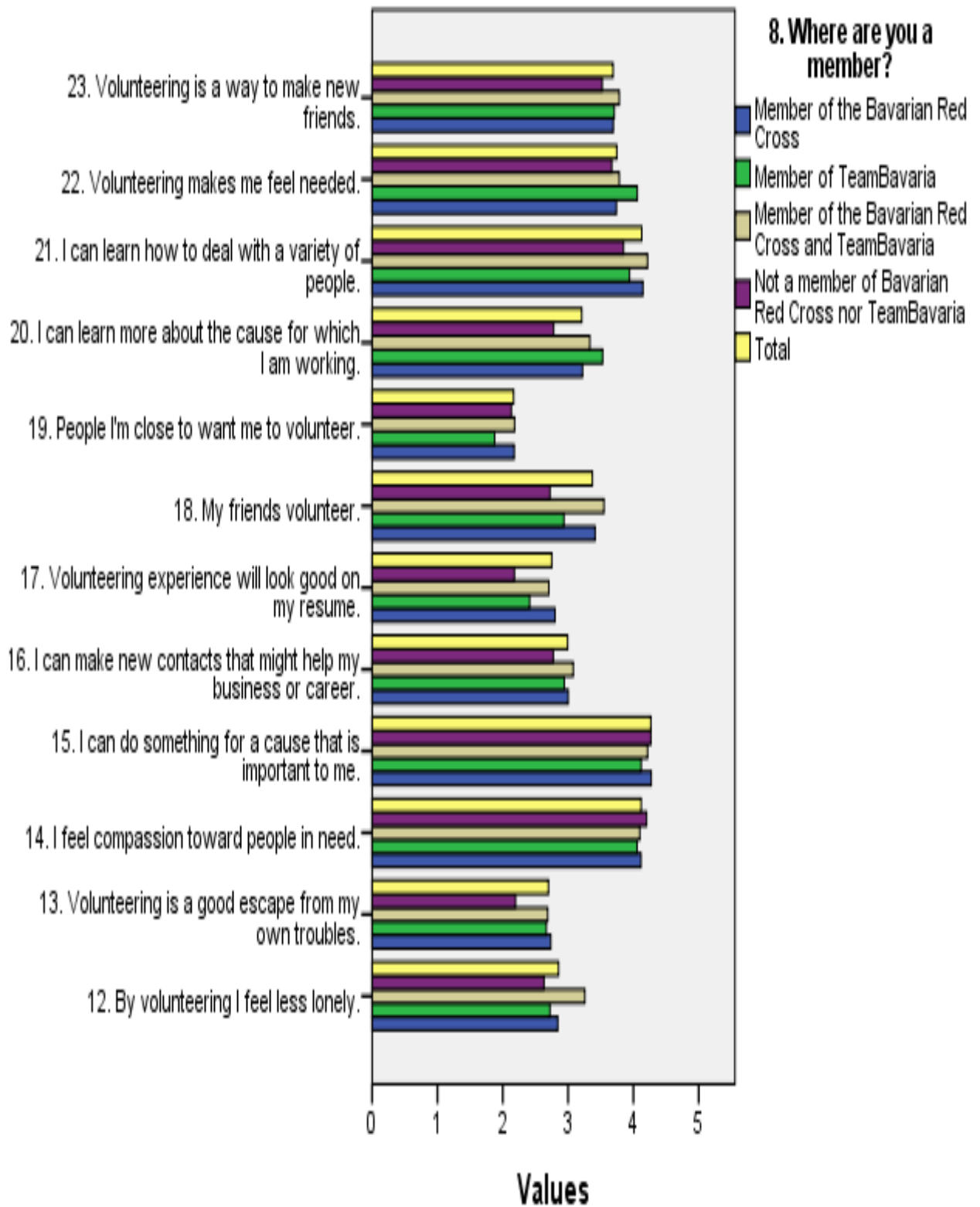
Answers by Employment within the Organisation (Mean)



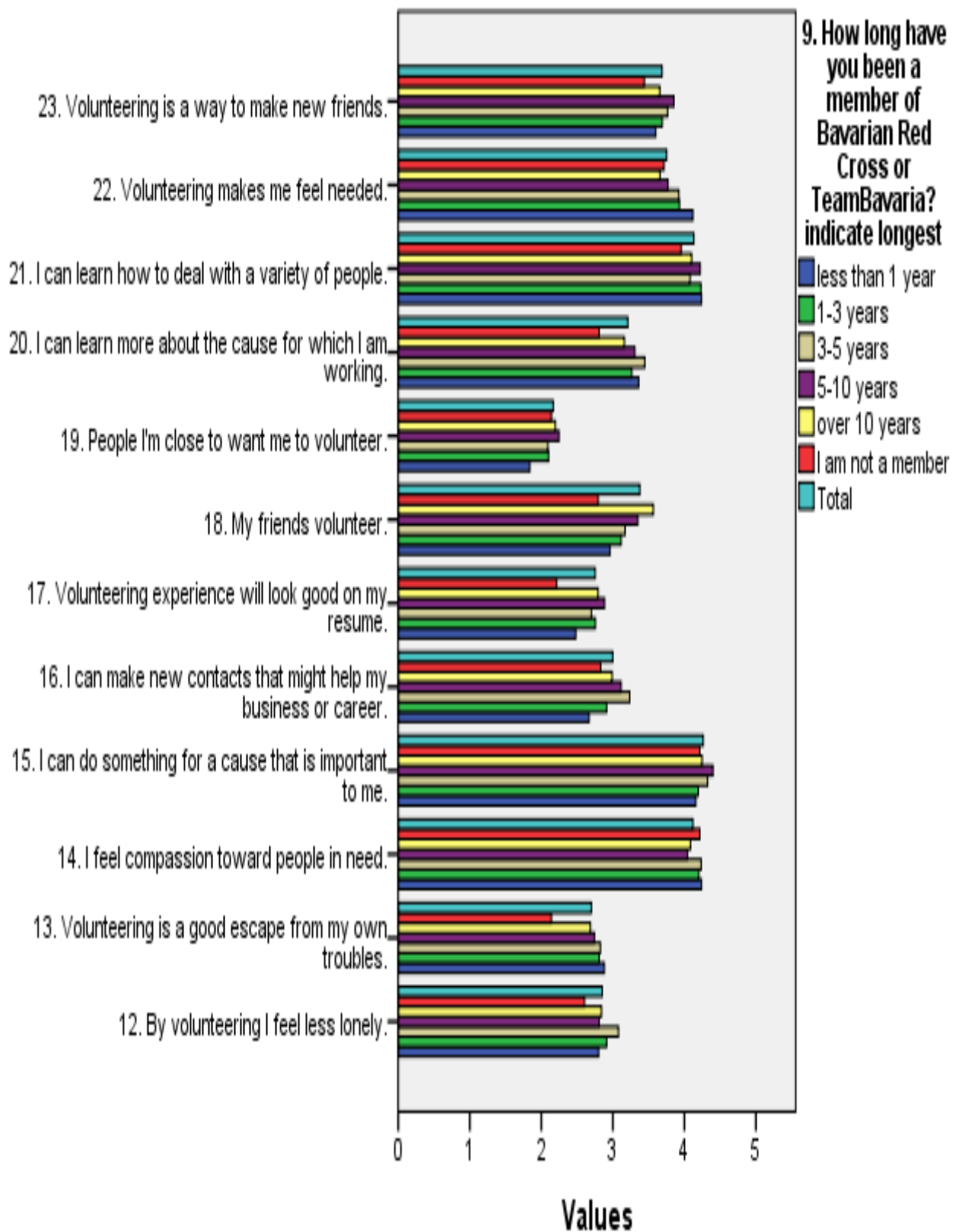
Answers by Income (Mean)



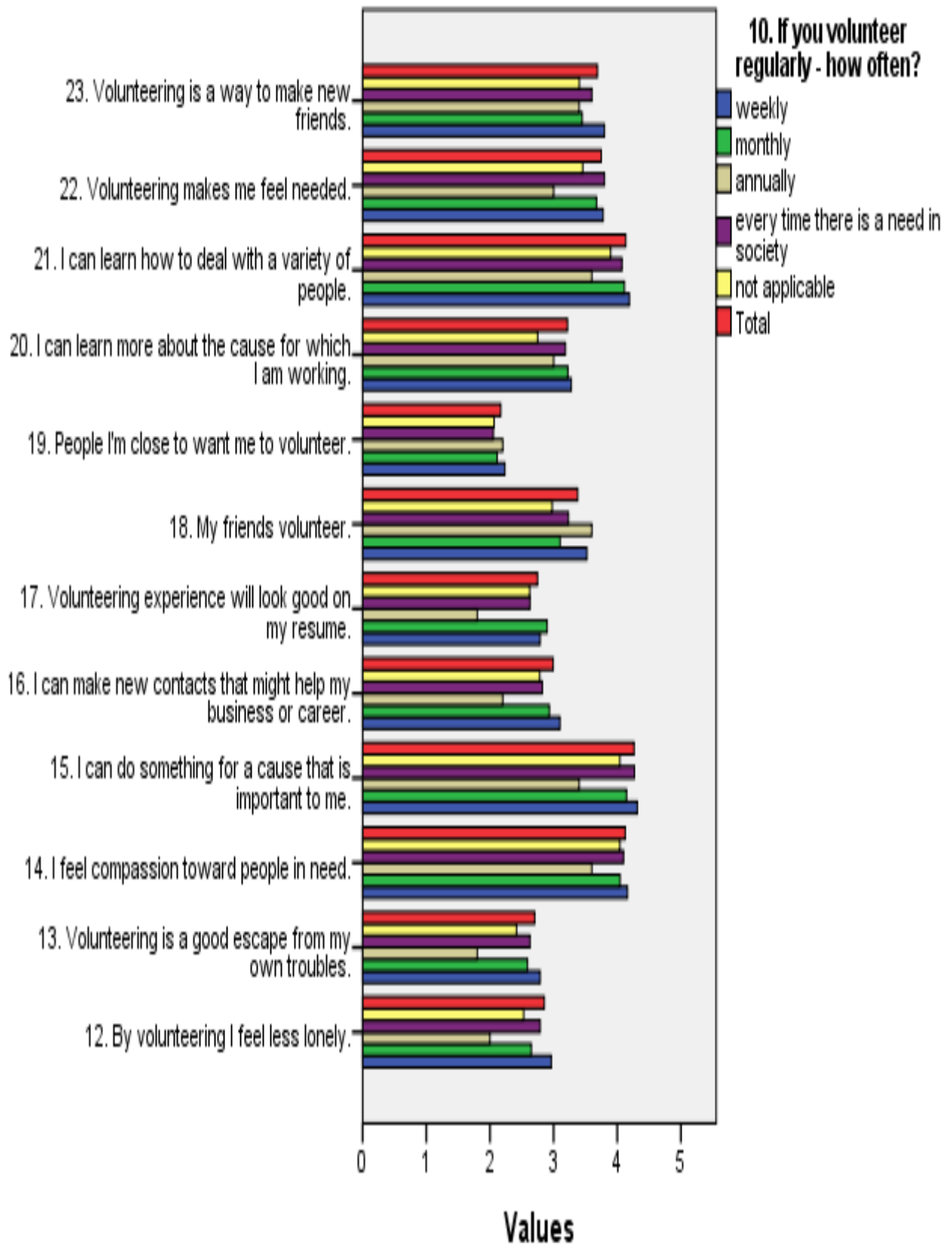
Answers by Membership (Mean)



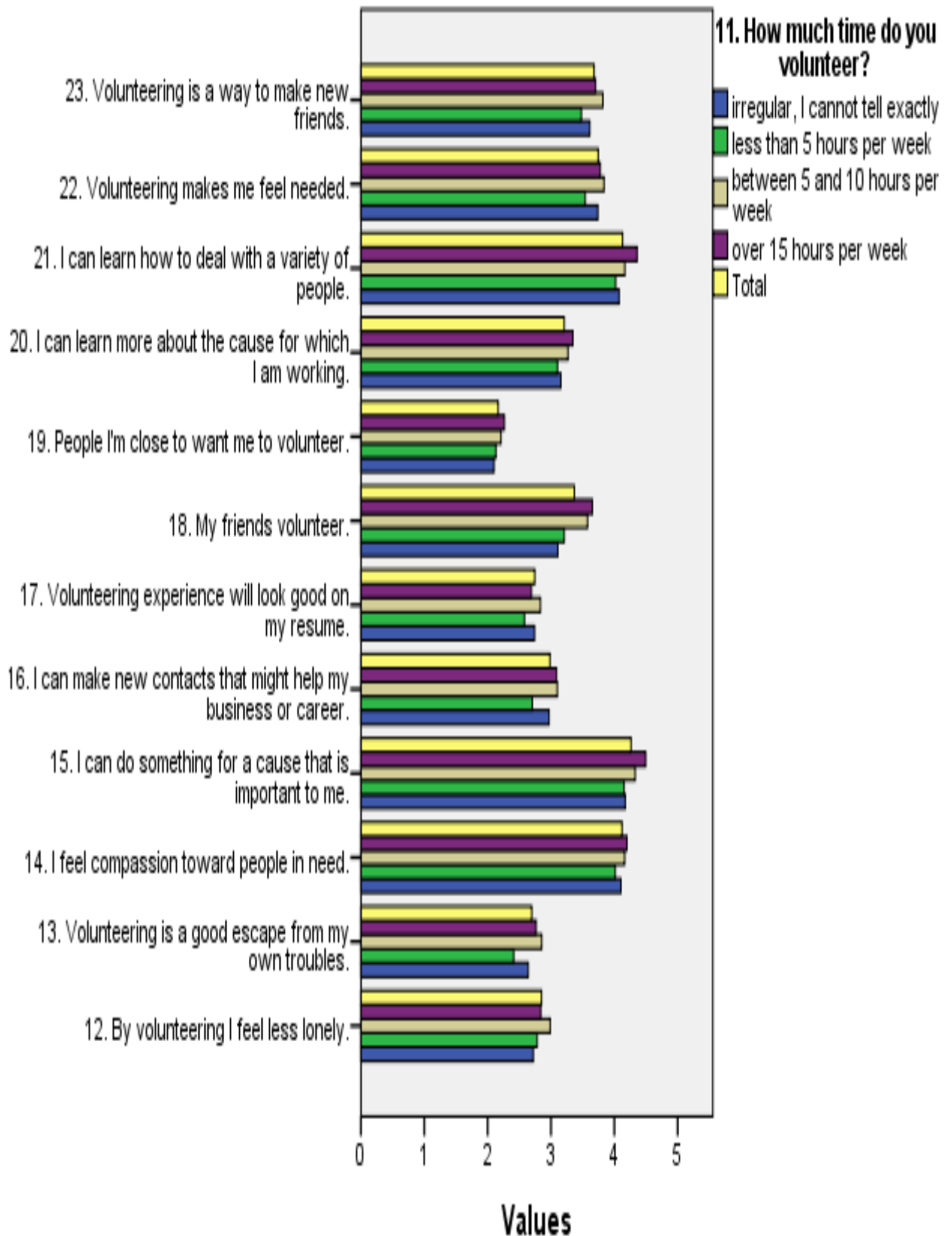
Answers by Membership Duration (Mean)



Answers by Frequency (Mean)



Answers by Duration (Mean)



Appendix 4 Statistical Analysis Results

The following list of statistical data tables contains data which was not displayed in detail within the chapters of the study. In order to provide a complete picture of the data, they are listed below.

Q13: Volunteering is a Good Escape from My Own Troubles (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	158	15.9	19.3	19.3
	Unimportant	185	18.6	22.6	42.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	279	28.0	34.1	76.1
	Important	141	14.2	17.3	93.4
	Very important	54	5.4	6.6	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Q25: If Possible, I Would Return Lost Money to the Rightful Owner (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very unimportant	11	1.1	1.3	1.3
	unimportant	12	1.2	1.5	2.8
	Neither important nor unimportant	87	8.7	10.6	13.3
	Important	275	27.6	33.4	46.7
	Very important	439	44.1	53.3	100.0
	Total	824	82.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	171	17.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Q26: Helping Friends and Family Is One of the Great Joys in Life (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	4	0.4	0.5	0.5
	Unimportant	9	0.9	1.1	1.6
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	97	9.7	11.8	13.3
	Important	372	37.4	45.1	58.4
	Very Important	343	34.5	41.6	100.0
	Total	825	82.9	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	169	17.0		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	170	17.1		
Total		995	100.0		

Q27: It Feels Wonderful to Assist Others in Need (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	12	1.2	1.5	1.5
	Unimportant	27	2.7	3.3	4.7
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	132	13.3	16.0	20.7
	Important	401	40.3	48.6	69.3
	Very Important	253	25.4	30.7	100.0
	Total	825	82.9	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	169	17.0		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	170	17.1		
Total		995	100.0		

Q28: Volunteering to Help Someone is Very Rewarding (Descriptive Statistics)

		Fre-quency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very unimportant	8	.8	1.0	1.0
	unimportant	13	1.3	1.6	2.6
	neither important nor unimportant	91	9.1	11.1	13.6
	important	448	45.0	54.5	68.1
	very important	262	26.3	31.9	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	172	17.3		
	System	1	.1		
	Total	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Q29: Doing Volunteer Work Makes Me Feel Happy (Descriptive Statistics)

		Fre- quency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very unimportant	10	1.0	1.2	1.2
	unimportant	18	1.8	2.2	3.4
	neither important nor unimportant	160	16.1	19.5	22.9
	important	395	39.7	48.1	71.0
	very important	238	23.9	29.0	100.0
	Total	821	82.5	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
	System	1	.1		
	Total	174	17.5		
Total		995	100.0		

**Q31: Children Should be Taught about the Importance of Helping Others (De-
scriptive Statistics)**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	3	0.3	0.4	0.4
	Unimportant	2	0.2	0.2	0.6
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	6	0.6	0.7	1.3
	Important	209	21.0	25.5	26.9
	Very Important	599	60.2	73.1	100.0
	Total	819	82.3	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	175	17.6		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	176	17.7		
Total		995	100.0		

**Q32: I Plan to Donate My Organs when I Die with the Hope that They Will Help
Someone Else Live (Descriptive Statistics)**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per- cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	60	6.0	7.6	7.6
	Unimportant	47	4.7	5.9	13.5
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	160	16.1	20.2	33.6
	Important	224	22.5	28.2	61.8
	Very Important	303	30.5	38.2	100.0
	Total	794	79.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	200	20.1		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	201	20.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Q33: I Try to Offer My Help with Any Activities My Community or School Groups are Carrying Out (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unimportant	10	1.0	1.2	1.2
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	124	12.5	15.1	16.3
	Important	444	44.6	53.9	70.2
	Very Important	245	24.6	29.8	100.0
	Total	823	82.7	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	171	17.2		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	172	17.3		
Total		995	100.0		

Q34: I Feel at Peace with Myself when I Have Helped Others (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	20	2.0	2.4	2.4
	Unimportant	30	3.0	3.7	6.1
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	206	20.7	25.2	31.3
	Important	385	38.7	47.1	78.5
	Very Important	176	17.7	21.5	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	177	17.8		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Q35: If the Person in Front of Me in the Check-Out Line at a Store Was a Few Cents Short, I Would Pay the Difference (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	31	3.1	3.8	3.8
	Unimportant	33	3.3	4.1	7.9
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	212	21.3	26.0	33.9
	Important	346	34.8	42.5	76.4
	Very Important	192	19.3	23.6	100.0
	Total	814	81.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	180	18.1		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	181	18.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Q36: I Feel Proud when I Know that My Generosity Has Benefitted a Needy Person (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	40	4.0	4.9	4.9
	Unimportant	85	8.5	10.4	15.2
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	237	23.8	28.9	44.1
	Important	308	31.0	37.5	81.6
	Very Important	151	15.2	18.4	100.0
	Total	821	82.5	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	174	17.5		
Total		995	100.0		

Q37: Giving Aid to the Poor is the Right Thing to Do (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	4	0.4	0.5	0.5
	Unimportant	22	2.2	2.7	3.2
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	207	20.8	25.3	28.5
	Important	407	40.9	49.8	78.3
	Very Important	177	17.8	21.7	100.0
	Total	817	82.1	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	177	17.8		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	178	17.9		
Total		995	100.0		

Q45: I Get Feedback for My Volunteer Work (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	26	2.6	3.2	3.2
	Unimportant	51	5.1	6.2	9.4
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	190	19.1	23.1	32.5
	Important	440	44.2	53.5	86.0
	Very Important	115	11.6	14.0	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Q46: I Get Advice How to Improve My Volunteer Work (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	17	1.7	2.1	2.1
	Unimportant	30	3.0	3.7	5.7
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	143	14.4	17.4	23.2
	Important	433	43.5	52.8	76.0
	Very Important	197	19.8	24.0	100.0
	Total	820	82.4	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
	System	2	0.2		
	Total	175	17.6		
Total		995	100.0		

Q47: I Get Training (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	14	1.4	1.7	1.7
	Unimportant	23	2.3	2.8	4.5
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	88	8.8	10.7	15.2
	Important	380	38.2	46.1	61.3
	Very Important	319	32.1	38.7	100.0
	Total	824	82.8	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	171	17.2		
Total		995	100.0		

Q49: I Get Financial Aid Because I Life from Social Benefits (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	269	27.0	32.8	32.8
	Unimportant	231	23.2	28.1	60.9
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	201	20.2	24.5	85.4
	Important	79	7.9	9.6	95.0
	Very Important	41	4.1	5.0	100.0
	Total	821	82.5	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	174	17.5		
Total		995	100.0		

Q50: I Get a Refund for Transport Expenses (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	111	11.2	13.5	13.5
	Unimportant	133	13.4	16.1	29.6
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	236	23.7	28.6	58.2
	Important	239	24.0	29.0	87.2
	Very Important	106	10.7	12.8	100.0
	Total	825	82.9	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	169	17.0		
	System	1	0.1		
	Total	170	17.1		
Total		995	100.0		

Q52: I Can File for Tax Exemptions because I Volunteer (Descriptive Statistics)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Unimportant	165	16.6	20.1	20.1
	Unimportant	172	17.3	20.9	41.0
	Neither Important nor Unimportant	237	23.8	28.8	69.8
	Important	155	15.6	18.9	88.7
	Very Important	93	9.3	11.3	100.0
	Total	822	82.6	100.0	
Missing	-1.00	173	17.4		
Total		995	100.0		

Appendix 5 Interview Questions

MODEL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Date:

Time: from..... until.....

BRC-Unit:

Introductory notes to interviewee:

- The broader topics are motivation, retention, and support of volunteers in the BRK
- The purpose of the interview is to find out to what extent your views coincide with those of the volunteers.
- Interview is anonymous.
- Consent of interviewee to record the interview (to be recorded)?

A. LEADING QUESTION 1:

What do you think motivates people to volunteer at the BRC?

(a) Additional/further content:

- To what extent do intrinsic factors play a role? feelings? interaction? communication?
- To what extent do extrinsic factors play a role? career? Expectations of others? Donations? Tax advantages?
- To what extent do personal relationships (age, gender, income, marital status) play a role?
- Are volunteers more motivated if they are supported by the BRC?

(b) To keep conversations going:

- What do you associate with it mentally?
- Is there anything else?
- Next?

(c) Further enquiry (personal perspective):

- What motivates you most to volunteer in the BRC?

- How long have you been volunteering in the BRC?
- How can the BRC better motivate volunteers?
- How can the BRC best support volunteers?
- What does the BRC do wrong?

B. LEADING QUESTION 2:

What are the traits of a typical BRC volunteer?

(a) Additional/further content:

- "Helper Syndrome" - independent of the BRC?
- "donor type" - independent of the BRC?
- Relationship between unbound helpers and formal BRC volunteers?
- Influence of volunteer support services of the BRC?

(b) Further enquiry:

- is support still needed for volunteers who always help anyway? why?
- Can support services change the helping attitude of volunteers? how?

C. LEADING QUESTION 3:

Which volunteers does the BRC need?

(a) Additional/further content:

- Can volunteering also be a hindrance from an organisation's perspective?
- What is the role of volunteers themselves as a supportive? monitoring? leading?
- Does the organisation have to support volunteers, or do volunteers have to support the organisation?

D. LEADING QUESTION 4:

What kind of volunteer support is important?

(a) Additional/further content:

- Communication (communicate concerns, be heard)? → Emotional support

- Honours and recognition?
- Training and training?
- Insurance?
- Earnings, refunds?
- Tax/state recognition?

(b) Further enquiry:

- Why is this so?
- Where do volunteers expect more support?
- What support do you personally think is important?
- What support do volunteers actually receive?
- What is the BRK doing to mitigate demotivation (e.g. bureaucracy, lack of work environment/equipment)?
- Where are the most disputes?

E. LEADING QUESTION 5:

How does organisational support affect the motivation to volunteer?

(a) Additional/further content:

- less direct financial support?
- more direct financial support?
- what are the developments in the future?

(b) Further enquiry:

- Where does this come from?
- Why is that?

F. LEADING QUESTION 6:

What do you think is the best way of supporting volunteers?

(a) Additional/further content:

- the "cheapest" support?
- the "easiest" support to implement?

- the support "with the most influence on motivation"?
- support 'which best reconciles the expectations of volunteers and managers'
- Support to meet volunteer needs?
- Support to meet the needs of the BRC?

(b) Further enquiry:

- Why is this so?

G. LEADING QUESTION 7:

Do you think highly motivated volunteers stay longer at the BRK?

(a) Additional/further content:

- How does this relate to the "unbound helper"
- Would motivated "unbound helpers" stay at the BRK if they were better supported?

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