

THE MOTIVATIONAL BASES
OF VOLUNTARY ACTION

THE MOTIVATIONAL BASES
OF VOLUNTARY ACTION:

Why Individuals Join Voluntary Organizations

BY
DAVID A. LANG, B.SC.

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AUTHOR: David A. Lang, B.Sc. (University of Toronto)

SUPERVISORS: Professor D.W. Carment
Dr. Stanley Heshka

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ABSTRACT

Five investigations were conducted to examine the antecedents of participation in voluntary organizations. The objectives of these studies were to identify factors which influence the decision to become a volunteer. While much prior research has been devoted to this subject, this series is distinctive insofar as it examines a broader range of potential determinants, employs longitudinal panel designs and directs particular attention to individual differences in the circumstances, the events and the psychological states which precede voluntary action.

In the first study, the reasons advanced by individuals to account for their decision to volunteer were examined employing open-ended interview questions and rating scale measures. Consistent with prior research, it was observed that most persons had more than one reason for volunteering. However, application of two statistical reduction techniques revealed that these reasons tended to be given in clusters and that there were three main purposes for joining:

- (1) Advancement of Career and Personal Goals
- (2) Social and Situational Compensation
- (3) Altruism

The second study was designed to explore the relationship between social background factors and the reasons for undertaking voluntary action. This investigation demonstrated that persons with similar social backgrounds often pursue voluntary action for similar purposes. The analysis revealed that students often participate to obtain career experience while unemployed persons and those recently experiencing major life events (e.g., retirement, loss of spouse, change in parental responsibilities), were more likely to volunteer in order to meet people, relieve boredom, and find purpose in life. In addition, while most persons mentioned a desire to help others among their reasons for volunteering, only retired or full-time employed respondents with situational stability (i.e., no recent life events) accentuated the altruistic purpose of their actions in their explanations. These results suggest that social background factors may influence the perceived utility of such pursuits and influence the reasons why people volunteer.

Study three examined the amount of social encouragement to volunteer received by various types of initiators. This investigation revealed that young individuals, persons with less formal education and first time joiners were especially likely to have been persuaded to join. Conversely, elderly persons, those experiencing recent major life events and individuals with previous volunteer experience were considerably less likely to have been persuaded. While prior research has shown that social encouragement is frequently associated with the

initiation of voluntary action, this study is the first to assess which types of joiners were most likely to receive encouragement to volunteer.

The fourth and fifth study of this thesis examined the relationship between attitudes toward voluntary action and participation in instrumental voluntary organizations. Study four assessed whether attitudes were predictive of joins which took place after various temporal delays. Attitudes were found to be excellent predictors of participation initiated within one to eight months of an attitude measure, but progressively less predictive of joins occurring after longer delays. Moreover, it was also discovered that attitudes tend to be better long-range predictors when the join was not preceded by a life event and when individuals undertook participation to promote organizational goals rather than personal objectives.

Finally, a three part investigation was conducted to examine the extent to which attitudes change when individuals become volunteers. Part one was a two-year longitudinal study which demonstrated that attitudes toward voluntary action became significantly more favourable when individuals joined voluntary organizations and significantly less favourable when such activities were terminated. In part two, it was observed that this attitude change occurred before the individuals had joined the organization and changed little once participation had begun. Finally, part three of this investigation indicated that attitudes toward voluntary action

generally became more favourable only after the individual had decided to become a volunteer. The implications of these findings with respect to the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer are discussed.

Throughout these studies, individual differences in the determinants of these activities were repeatedly noted. It is crucial that investigators direct increased attention to these differences in the development of their models of volunteer motivation. To assist in this regard, a model is presented which accommodates individual variation in the antecedents of participation and provides a conceptual framework in which to consider the significance of various antecedents of this phenomenon.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	xix
PART I PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS	
1. Introduction.....	3
2. Conceptual and Definitional Issues in Voluntary Action Research	
2.0 Introduction	9
2.1 Defining the Concept of Voluntary Action	11
2.2 Defining the Concept of Voluntary Organization.....	18
3. General Research Strategy: An Overview	
3.0 Introduction.....	25
3.1 Use of Longitudinal Research Designs.....	26
3.2 Use of a Longitudinal (Within-Subject) Perspective...	27
3.3 Use of a Broad Range of Variable Types.....	28
3.4 Individual Differences in the Routes to Voluntary Action.....	30
3.5 Research Topics Examined in this Thesis: An Overview.....	32
3.6 Data Sets Employed in This Research.....	36
3.6.1 Data Set Number One.....	36
3.6.2 Data Set Number Two.....	38
3.6.3 Data Set Number Three.....	38
3.6.4 Data Set Number Four.....	40
3.6.5 Data Set Number Five.....	44
3.7 Some Comments Regarding the Use of These Data...	46

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART II ROUTES TO VOLUNTARY ACTION

General Overview.....	49
4. Study One: General Themes in the Explanations for Becoming a Volunteer: Towards an Objective Classification Scheme by which to Order Explanation Types	
4.0 Abstract.....	51
4.1 Introduction.....	52
4.2 Method	
4.2.1 Subjects.....	55
4.2.2 Procedure.....	55
4.3 Analysis.....	57
4.4 Discussion.....	65
4.5 Method	
4.5.1 Subjects.....	68
4.5.2 Procedure.....	68
4.6 Analysis.....	70
4.7 Discussion.....	79
Notes.....	87
5. Study Two: The Relationship Between Social Background Characteristics and Explanations for Becoming a Volunteer	
5.0 Abstract.....	89
5.1 Introduction.....	90
5.2 Method	
5.2.1 Subjects.....	95
5.2.2 Measurement of Explanation For Joining.....	96
5.2.3 Measurement of Social Background.....	97

TABLE OF CONTENTS

5. Study Two: (cont'd)	
5.3 Analysis and Discussion.....	106
5.3.1 Sex.....	108
5.3.2 Age.....	111
5.3.3 Marital Status.....	112
5.3.4 Parental Stage.....	112
5.3.5 Occupation.....	114
5.3.6 Situational Instability.....	115
5.3.7 Social Background Profiles.....	116
5.3.8 A Comparison of Association Strength.....	120
5.4 General Discussion.....	122
Notes.....	124
6. Study Three: The Role of Social Encouragement in the Decision to Volunteer	
6.0 Abstract.....	127
6.1 Introduction.....	128
6.2 Method	
6.2.1 Subjects.....	130
6.2.2 Measurement of Volunteer Type.....	130
6.2.3 Construction of the Social Encouragement Index.....	133
6.3 Analysis.....	134
6.4 Discussion.....	143
Notes.....	147
PART III ATTITUDES AND VOLUNTARY ACTION	
General Overview.....	151
7. Study Four: The Utility of Attitudes as Predictors of Voluntary Action: A Test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis	
7.0 Abstract.....	159

TABLE OF CONTENTS

7. Study Four: (cont'd)	
7.1 Introduction.....	160
7.2 Construction of the Attitude Inventory.....	167
7.3 Test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis	
7.3.1 Subjects.....	182
7.3.2 Measurement of Participation.....	183
7.4 Analysis.....	186
7.5 Discussion.....	195
7.6 Method	
7.6.1 Subjects.....	200
7.6.2 Procedure.....	201
7.7 Analysis.....	203
7.8 Discussion.....	209
Notes.....	212
8. Study Five: Attitude Change and Voluntary Action	
8.0 Abstract.....	214
8.1 Introduction.....	217
8.2 Method	
8.2.1 Subjects.....	221
8.2.2 Procedure.....	221
8.3 Analysis.....	223
8.4 Discussion.....	231
8.5 Method	
8.5.1 Subjects.....	234
8.5.2 Procedure.....	234
8.6 Analysis.....	234
8.7 Discussion.....	240

TABLE OF CONTENTS

8. Study Five: (cont'd)	
8.8 Method	
8.8.1 Subjects.....	242
8.8.2 Measurement of Attitudes.....	245
8.8.3 Measurement of Intentions and Participation.....	250
8.9 Analysis.....	251
8.10 Discussion.....	258
Notes.....	263
 PART IV FINAL CONSIDERATIONS	
9.0 Introduction.....	267
9.1 Summary and Suggestions for Future Research.....	268
9.2 An Examination of Voluntary Action Theory.....	285
9.3 Towards a General Model of Voluntary Action.....	295
9.4 The Specific Version of the Deliberation Model	
9.4.1 Awareness of Voluntary Organizations within the Community.....	302
9.4.2 Feasibility of Participation.....	305
9.4.3 Attitudinal Component of the Model.....	313
9.4.4 The Consequences of Not Participating.....	329
9.4.5 General Version of the Deliberation Model...	339
9.5 Application of the Deliberation Model.....	345
9.6 Concluding Remarks.....	366
Notes.....	368
References.....	371

LIST OF TABLES

3.1	General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set One.....	37
3.2	General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Two.....	39
3.3	General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Three.....	41
3.4	General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Four.....	43
3.5	General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Five.....	45
4.1	Distributional Properties of Ratings for each Explanation.....	58
4.2	Product-moment Correlation Coefficients Between the Ratings of the Explanations.....	60
4.3	Factor Loadings of Explanations Following Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization.....	62
4.4	Factor Coefficients Reflecting the Contribution of Each Variable in the Calculation of the Factor Scores.....	63
4.5	Frequency of Individuals Giving Each Type of Explanation.....	72
4.6	Similarity Matrix Showing the Degree of Association (Phi Statistic) Between Explanations of Various Types.....	75
4.7	Dendrogram Displaying Clustering History of the more Frequently Cited Explanation Types Using Phi as the Measure of Association and Bridge's Linkage Method...	76
5.1	Description of the Most Frequently Observed Clusterings of Demographic Characteristics.....	103
5.2	Percentage of Each Group Giving the Three Types of Explanations for Joining.....	109

LIST OF TABLES

5.3	Percentage of Each Group Manifesting Each Dominant Explanation Theme.....	110
5.4	Percentage of Each Demographic Cluster Giving the Three Types of Explanations for Joining.....	118
5.5	Percentage of Each Demographic Cluster Manifesting Each Dominant Explanation Theme.....	119
5.6	Log Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square and Various Measure of Association Between Demographic Characteristics and Dominant Explanation Theme.....	121
6.1	Percentage Reporting Each Type of Recruitment Episode By Various Demographic Characteristics.....	135
6.2	Percentage Reporting Each Type of Recruitment Episode by Initiation Circumstances and Joining Explanation.....	137
6.3	Results of Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression Analyses Examining the Degree of Association Between Various Classes of Predictor Variables and the Amount of External Influence Received.....	141
7.1	Product-moment Correlation Coefficients Between Scale Items from Three Independent Student Samples...	174
7.2	Attitude Scale Differences Between Participators and Non-Participators in Instrumental Voluntary Organizations using First Student Validation Sample....	178
7.3	Attitude Scale Differences Between Participators and Non-Participators in Instrumental Voluntary Organizations using Second Student Validation Sample..	179
7.4	Examination of Attitudinal Differences Between Matched Sample and Individuals Not Contacted at T2...	184
7.5	Mean T1 Attitude Scores Among Individuals Joining Instrumental Organizations After Various Periods of Elapsed Time.....	188

LIST OF TABLES

7.6	Results of Stepwise Discriminant Analysis Comparing Attitudes of Persons Joining After Various Temporal Delays with the Attitudes of Active (T1) and Non-Active (T1-T2) Respondents.....	190
7.7	Results from the Classification Analysis to Assess the Extent to Which Persons Joining After T1 Can Be Reliably Distinguished From Active (T1) and Non-Participating Individuals Using the Discriminant Functions Derived with Respondent's Attitudes.....	194
7.8	An Illustration of the Effects of Differential Initiation Probabilities on the Composition of Samples Selected for Time of Join.....	199
7.9	Characteristics and Initiation Circumstances Among Joiners Exhibiting Various Delays Prior to Joining.....	204
7.10	Mean T1 Attitude Controlling for Time of Join Among Various Types of Initiators, Joining Under Various Circumstances.....	206
7.11	Mean T1 Attitude for Various Types of Initiators and for Active and Non-Active Persons.....	208
8.1	Change in Mean Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action Over Two Year Interval Among Individuals Displaying Various Changes in Membership Status.....	225
8.2	Attitude Differences During Two Year Period Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns with t-tests for Significance from Zero Change.....	227
8.3	Attitude Change (T1-T2) as a Function of Balance in Activity Displayed During the Two Year Interval.....	231
8.4	Mean Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action at Three Points in Time Among Persons Manifesting Various Participation Patterns Over Two Year Interval	236

LIST OF TABLES

8.5	Change in Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action During First Year of Study (T1 to T2) Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns Over Two Year Period.....	238
8.6	Attitude Change (T1 to T2) Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns with t-tests for Significance From Zero Change.....	239
8.7	Comparison of the Characteristics of Those Measured At T1 Only With Those Measured Both T1 and T2.....	243
8.8	Comparison of Mean Attitudes of Those Measured at T1 Only Versus Those Measured T1 and T2.....	244
8.9	Factor Loadings Following Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization (N = 1136).....	249
8.10	Comparison of Mean Attitude Towards Voluntary Action Among Those Active, Those Intending to Join in Next Four Months and Those Neither Active or Intending to Join (T1 Attitudes).....	253
8.11	Variation in Mean Overall Attitude Towards Volunteering Over Four Month Interval for Individuals Displaying Various Patterns in Activity and Intentions to Join.....	256

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Interview Schedule Employed for Data Base One.....	393
Appendix 2A. Interview Schedule Employed for Data Base Two.....	398
Appendix 2B. Information Obtained From Regular Volunteer Bureau Interview.....	405
Appendix 3. Interview Schedule Used for Data Base Three.....	406
Appendix 4A. Initial Attitude Items Excluded From Further Consideration Because of an Inability to Distinguish Participants from Non-Participants at $p < .20$ Level.....	409
Appendix 4B. Questionnaire Used in First Measure of Attitudes for Data Base Four.....	411
Appendix 4C. Additional Information Collected One Year After First Attitude Measure For Data Base Four.....	416
Appendix 4D. Additional Information Collected Two Years After the First Attitude Measure For Data Base Four.....	419
Appendix 5A. Questionnaire Used in First Measure of Attitudes For Data Base Number Five.....	429
Appendix 5B. Second Questionnaire Administered Four Months Later for Data Base Five.....	431

PART I
PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATION

CHAPTER ONE

The Motivational Bases Of Voluntary Action: Why Individuals Join Voluntary Organizations

1.0 Introduction

Voluntary action is a concept employed in reference to a broad collection of activities related to affiliation and participation in formal voluntary organizations. While some controversy exists as to what precisely constitutes a formal voluntary organization, this concept is generally conceded to include a broad range of organization types such as community based service organizations, political parties, social clubs, fraternal societies, athletic organizations and church groups (e.g., Verba & Nie, 1972).

It has been estimated in national surveys conducted in both the United States (Curtis, 1971; Hausknecht, 1962; National Science Foundation, 1974; Wright & Hyman, 1958; Verba & Nie, 1972) and in Canada (Carter, 1975; Curtis, 1971) that at any given time between 40 and 65 percent of the non-institutionalized adult population are members of at least one voluntary organization. In addition, between 32 and 40 percent of this population report active involvement on a regular basis in such organizations (Hagedorn & Labovitz, 1968; Verba & Nie, 1972; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959). Yet despite the considerable pervasiveness of this type of social activity, why individuals undertake membership in voluntary organizations remains only partially understood.

It is the objective of this thesis to examine why individuals join formal voluntary organizations, or more specifically, to study the relationship between various events, circumstances, and psychological states and the decision to volunteer.

While there is much to recommend the study of the determinants of voluntary action, two reasons have been paramount in the selection of this topic for investigation. First, a more detailed understanding of the events and states which precede the initiation of voluntary action will be useful to administrators of volunteer programmes. These administrators, often assigned the broad mandate of orchestrating the efforts of many individuals on shoe-string budgets, seldom possess the necessary resources to explore the issue of volunteer motivation. Nevertheless, the fact that many volunteer programmes experience considerable difficulty attracting and retaining suitable volunteers (Barber, 1950; Blau & Scott, 1962; Bull & Schmitz, 1976; Carter, 1975; Hardy & Cull, 1973; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Warner & Hilander, 1964) serves to underscore the need for such research.

Increased awareness as to what motivates individuals to volunteer will assist voluntary organization administrators in the development of more effective recruitment strategies. In addition, this information could yield insight as to how volunteer programmes should be modified to better accommodate the particular objectives of

participants. As such, these studies will contribute towards a tightening of the symbiotic exchange between volunteers and their organizations and possibly assist in the reduction of the unacceptably high turn-over rates typically plaguing such groups (Bellamy & Wells, 1974; Bull & Schmitz, 1976).

In addition to the pragmatic significance of this research, a second reason for selecting this topic follows directly from recent concerns advanced by many social psychologists. It has often been claimed that uncontrolled, naturally occurring social behavior is simply too complex to be of use in the development and testing of social psychological theory. The inherent confoundings which characterize field research render most studies of the determinants of natural behavior subject to a myriad of possible interpretations and often of dubious significance (Hammond, 1976; Underwood, 1957). Because of this belief, the general recommended strategy has been to explore the determinants of human social activity within laboratory settings where these complex determinants can be analytically decomposed. Thus, as stated by McGuire:

The past 20 years witnessed a progressively closer identification in the minds of the establishment ... of good social psychology research with laboratory manipulative research. [1969, pg. 21]

However, recently several writers have registered concern regarding the wisdom and appropriateness of laboratory research as the exclusive approach by which to study human social behavior. These concerns are of three types.

First, several investigators (e.g., Alker, 1977; Hogan, DeSoto & Solano, 1977; Sadava, 1980) have noted that the reliance upon experimental laboratory paradigms has resulted in a reduction in the range of behaviors normally examined by social psychologists. Thus behaviors which are easily manipulated and/or those activities which may be observed within relatively brief intervals of time have received considerably more attention than molar behaviors which do not readily conform to laboratory formats. This trend has led some to question whether social psychologists have assigned too much importance to the suitability of behavior for experimental laboratory research rather than to other, possibly more important criteria, such as the contribution of the research to our general understanding of human social activity (Sadava, 1980; Smith, Macaulay & Associates, 1980).

Secondly, considerable concern has been expressed regarding the impact laboratory experimentation has upon the behaviors under investigation. Much evidence has been accumulated demonstrating that subjects will often strive to discern the researcher's hypotheses and act to confirm these hypotheses (Campbell, 1969; Orne, 1962, 1969; Rosenthal, 1969). Others have shown that individuals sometime behave in contrived ways in order to favourably impress experimenters (Adair & Schachter, 1972; Rosenberg, 1965; Sigall, Aronson & VanHoose, 1970). And still others have simply questioned whether behavior manifested in laboratory settings, which are relatively stimuli deprived and usually unfamiliar to the actor, warrants generalization

beyond the laboratory context (Argyris, 1975; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Cronbach, 1975; Ellsworth, 1977; Turner, 1981; Wohlwill, 1973).

Third and perhaps most significantly, laboratory research appears poorly suited to provide evidence concerning the degree to which any given factor influences behavior. As explained by Petrinovich:

The very power and elegance of the experiment renders it inappropriate to determine the probable importance of an independent variable to control a dependent variable. If the experiment is done well enough, if the experimenter is good enough and is able by direct or by statistical control, to eliminate all potentially relevant variables from exerting any influence, then the variable left free to vary must account for a large proportion of the total variance in the dependent variable, even though it might control only a miniscule proportion of the variance in natural settings where all variables are free to covary unhindered by the experimenter. The experiment then, is ideal to determine possibility, but it falls short of being adequate to determine external probability.

[1979, pg. 376]

Since most research in social psychology has been designed to determine whether a particular factor produces reliably different distributions in the response patterns of actors (Edgington, 1974), laboratory controls have been desirable, if not essential. However, as the discipline of social psychology evolves and begins to apply its theories to the real world, it will become increasingly necessary to address the issue as to how much a particular factor influences behavior. It remains unclear to what degree the laboratory format

can be of use in this regard (Bowers, 1973; Petrinovich, 1979; Smith, McCaulay & Associates, 1980).

It is important not to overstate the case. Undoubtedly laboratory experimental research will continue to be a vital methodological tool in the study of social phenomena. However, it appears equally clear that if social scientists are to obtain a deeper understanding of the complex determinants of naturally manifested social behavior, it will be increasingly necessary to leave the restrictive confines of the laboratory.

The selection of this research topic has in large part been motivated by this concern. Thus, in addition to delineating the motivational determinants of voluntary action, it is hoped that this work will illustrate the utility of investigating complex social phenomena in natural settings and accordingly inspire others to adopt a similar course.

Before turning to the empirical research on this subject however, it is necessary to more precisely define what is meant by the concept "voluntary action" and "voluntary organization". It is this topic which is addressed in the next chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

Conceptual and Definitional Issues in Voluntary Action Research

2.0 Introduction

Participation in voluntary organizations has been examined from a myriad of perspectives both as a by-product of other research concerns and as a topic in itself (Palisi, 1968). Because of this fact, the terms "voluntary action" and "voluntary organization" have been used in many different ways. As David Horton Smith states:

A key problem in the study of voluntary action... is definition. While the struggle for greater definitional clarity as an important step towards developing adequate theories of voluntary action has brought about some agreement on what the definitional issues are, there has been little agreement on how to resolve them.

[1975, pg. 247]

Perhaps nowhere is the impact of this variation more salient than in the studies which have estimated the proportion of the population who are members of voluntary organizations. For example, Verba and Nie (1972) used a very generous definition of voluntary action in their national survey of the United States and found that 60% of the persons interviewed were self-proclaimed members of at least one voluntary organization.

On the other hand, Wright & Hyman, (1958) excluded labour unions as valid voluntary organizations and reported this rate to be between 45 and 50 percent of the population. Still others (Hagedorn & Labovitz, 1968; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959) have required that individuals participate on a regular basis in organizational activities before being considered volunteers, and have placed the participation rate at between 32 and 40 percent. And when the definition of voluntary action is restricted to participation in organizations which deliver service to the community (either through direct aid to specific client groups or through policy reform) between 25 and 38 percent are found actively involved (Carter, 1975; Hausknecht, 1962; United States Dept. of Labour, 1969). It is not surprising that Palisi (1968) characterized the study of voluntary action as largely lacking standardization.

Such variation in definition makes it imperative to be explicit regarding the use of the terms "voluntary action" and "voluntary organization" in this thesis. It is thus the objective of this chapter to review some of the ways these terms have been used throughout the literature as well as providing the definitions adopted for this present work. First, consideration will be given to the concept of "voluntary action", then following this the concept of "voluntary organization" will be examined.

2.1 Defining the Concept of Voluntary Action

The term "voluntary action" has been applied with considerable variability throughout the literature both in theoretical treatments of the subject and in empirical research. While in many instances, these variations have been quite subtle and accordingly of minor significance, in other cases they have reflected profound and fundamental differences in the conceptualization of this phenomenon.

In examining the application of the term voluntary action, it will prove useful to distinguish between two general theoretical orientations:

- (1) That which considers participation in voluntary organizations to be only one instance of a broader behavioral phenomenon
- (2) That which treats participation in voluntary organizations as a special class of behaviors

There are many examples within the literature where membership and/or participation in voluntary organizations is treated as a particular instance of a more general phenomenon. Theodore (1972) for example, has argued that voluntary action should be defined as all activities which are undertaken voluntarily by individuals to promote social change within society. This conceptualization thus considers voting and public demonstrations as valid forms of voluntary action but does exclude participation in organizations which do not adopt advocacy roles within the community (e.g., athletic organizations).

In contrast, Shultz (1972) has conceptualized voluntary action as all activities which are initiated for "altruistic" intent. Accordingly, Shultz argues that individuals participating in voluntary organizations for personal gain are not truly manifesting voluntary action and should be thought of as "pseudo-volunteers". Carter (1975) also adopted an altruistic conceptualization of voluntary action by including philanthropy, blood donations and participation in special short-term projects (e.g., United Appeal Campaigns) as valid forms of volunteer activity, while excluding political participation, athletics, and other activities which apparently were not undertaken for altruistic objectives.

Others have treated participation in voluntary groups as a instance of social behavior. For example, Hay (1948) proposed the Franklin Scale which classifies voluntary organization involvement with activities such as "visiting friends" and "attending parties". A similar conceptualization was used by Gough (1952) in the construction of his Social Participation Scale and by Snyder (1967) in his study of student social behavior in high schools. In each instance, participation in voluntary organizations is treated as simply another form of social activity.

The broadest definition of voluntary action is that advanced by David Horton Smith (1975) which conceives this phenomenon as:

The actions of individuals, collectivities, or settlements insofar as it is characterized primarily by the seeking of psychic benefits (e.g., belongingness, esteem, self actualization) and by being discretionary in nature

[not determined primarily by biosocial factors (physiological compulsions in their social forms), coercive factors (sociopolitical compulsions backed by a threat of force) or direct remuneration (direct, high-probability payment or benefits of an economic sort)].

[1975, pg. 247]

Smith's definition classifies a vast array of discretionary pursuits (of which participation in voluntary organization is but one instance) under the rubric of voluntary action. Others have also stressed the discretionary aspect of these activities in their bid to elucidate the essential qualities of this phenomenon (Bosserman & Gagan, 1972; Bull, 1971; Kelly, 1972). In so doing, they have derived conceptualizations of voluntary action which are strikingly similar to those advanced for leisure behavior (Iso-Ahola, 1979; Neulinger, 1974; Parker, 1981).

Each of these definitions delineates the conceptual boundaries of voluntary action to include a broad range of activities thought to possess a common underlying motivational basis. At the same time, the literal application of these abstractions would eliminate certain types of group participation on the grounds that the participation was either non-altruistic (Shultz, 1972), non-discretionary (e.g., D.H. Smith, 1975) non-social (e.g., Hay, 1948) or did not promote change within the community (Theodore, 1972).

There is undoubtedly some justification for these conceptualizations of voluntary action. Nevertheless, each possesses characteristics which render them inappropriate for this current thesis.

For example, it remains unclear whether such definitions could be rigorously enforced in actual empirical research. In fact, as far as can be determined, no investigator has ever eliminated members of a voluntary organization from a study of voluntary action on the bases of motivational criteria. Nor is it evident whether motivational criteria could be applied for this purpose since many individuals volunteer for more than one reason (see Chapter Four).

However, even if these methodological considerations were resolved, it would seem inappropriate to adopt any definition of voluntary action predicated upon assumed motivational bases for this thesis. This is because the prime purpose of this present research is to investigate volunteer motivation and to do so would be to presume the outcome a priori.

There is one further aspect of these definitions which is also somewhat disconcerting. In each case molar behaviors such as participation are indiscriminately grouped with isolated acts or micro behaviors (e.g., voting, donating money, attending a party) as though the distinction was of minor significance. However, given the considerable differences in energy and time commitment between molar and micro activities, such a tactic would seem inadvisable.

While most theoretical discussions of the concept "voluntary action" have sought to elucidate the fundamental qualities of such acts in terms of their apparent motivational bases, most empirical studies have simply operationalized voluntary action as those activities under-

taken in support of voluntary organizations (irrespective of the motives for such behaviors). By defining voluntary action in this way, these researchers have implicitly established participation and membership in voluntary organizations as a distinctive class of behaviors worthy of independent empirical investigation. There have been several of methods by which this has been achieved.

Wright and Hyman (1958) for example, simply asked individuals "Do you happen to belong to any groups or organizations in the community?" to determine whether the respondent was a volunteer.

More often, individuals are asked to indicate the types of organizations in which they are involved from a list of organizations supplied by the investigator (Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Bell & Force, 1956; Knoke, 1981; Komarovsky, 1946; Scott, 1957; Spreitzer, Snyder & Larson, 1974; Verba & Nie, 1972; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959). There are two advantages to this latter strategy. First, the list serves as a memory prompt and reduces the possibility that some memberships will be forgotten (Babchuk & Booth, 1969). Secondly, because the investigator determines the types of voluntary organizations contained in the list, it is possible to control the scope of the term "voluntary organization" and minimize interpretation variability. However, it should be noted that the "checklist" approach tends to underestimate the amount of volunteer activity when individuals participate in several groups, but specialize in organizations of a particular type (Cutler, 1980). In addition, this strategy ignores the intensity of

involvement which may be manifested by individuals in any given organization.

Because of this latter limitation, many researchers have opted for more intricate measures of participation which gauge the amount of involvement manifested. One of the most popular schemes for this purpose is known as the Chapin Participation Scale (Chapin, 1935). This scale assigns the following participation scores depending on the type of support given to an organization:

- "0" if the individual is not a member of the organization
- "1" if the individual is a member, but does not actually participate or contribute materially to the organization
- "2" if the individual makes a material contribution to the organization
- "3" if the individual attends at least some meetings of the organization
- "4" if the individual is a member of a committee in the organization
- "5" if the individual holds an officer position in the organization

The Chapin scale or some variation of it has been used extensively by voluntary action researchers (Anderson, 1946; Black, 1957; Chapin, 1937, 1939; Hagedorn & Labovitz, 1968; Hay, 1948; Martin, 1952; Mayo, 1950; Queen, 1949). However, despite its apparent merits, this strategy also possesses certain undesirable characteristics. For example, the categories used in this scale do not always apply since many groups do not permit non-participating mem-

bership status, solicit contributions, or have special committee work. In addition, the Chapin Scale and all variants award higher scores when individuals hold executive positions in the organization. This scoring practice thus tends to confound level of involvement with the length of time the respondent has been a member, since recent joiners are rarely awarded executive positions. Such a tendency is especially problematic for this present research since most of the individuals examined in this thesis have only recently initiated participation.

However, the most questionable assumption of the Chapin Scale is that "inactive membership", "material donation" and "active participation" differ only insofar as they reflect varying degrees of commitment to an organization. Yet there exists no a priori reason to assume that the motives which lead individuals to donate material or moral support to an organization are in any way comparable to the reasons why individuals actively pursue voluntary action. This point gains particular force when it is realized that most active volunteers join to advance personal goals rather than to further the goals of the organization (Flynn & Webb, 1975; Gluck, 1975; Weinstein, 1974). As such, it seems defensible to assert that active participation possesses sufficient distinctiveness from other forms of support for voluntary organization to warrant separate consideration as a behavioural phenomenon. This belief has been echoed by others in this field (Dachler & Bernhard, 1978; Evans, 1957; Maccoby, 1958; Rogers, 1971).

Accordingly, in this thesis the concept of "voluntary action" will be used to refer to the allocation of blocks of discretionary time, energy, and resources on a routine basis to the activities and responsibilities of active membership in a voluntary organization. By adopting this definition, it becomes increasingly important to be clear concerning the use of the term "voluntary organization".

2.2 Defining the Concept of "Voluntary Organization"

The concept "voluntary organization" has typically been defined by one of two strategies:

1. Definition by example
2. Definition by criteria

Definition by example has proved a useful method by which to both define the concept "voluntary organization" and operationalize its application in research. Several lists of organization types have been advanced for this purpose. For example, Spreitzer, Snyder and Larson (1974) employed a rather broad conceptualization of "voluntary organization" and included 17 types of groups in their list:

1. Church or synagogue
2. Religiously affiliated groups
3. Labour unions
4. Fraternal lodges
5. Veteran's organizations

6. Business and professional associations
7. Civic groups
8. Parent-teacher associations
9. Youth groups
10. Community centers
11. Neighbourhood improvement associations
12. Social and card playing clubs
13. Athletic teams
14. Country clubs
15. Political issue groups
16. Charities
17. Social welfare organizations

Comparable lists have also been utilized by the National Science Foundation (1974), Scott, (1957) and Verba and Nie (1972). Others have chosen to use fewer and more abstract categories of group types such as the four categories employed by Cutler (1977) in his research:

1. Politically oriented groups
2. Occupationally oriented groups
3. Social and service organizations
4. Religious organizations

Advocates of this approach have often disagreed as to which types of organizations should be included under the rubric of "voluntary organization". Thus, while almost all lists include service

organizations and political organizations, much disagreement exists as to whether groups such as labour unions (e.g., Knoke, 1981; Queen, 1949; D. H. Smith, 1975; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959), churches or synagogues (Axelrod, 1956; Bell & Force, 1956; Dotson, 1961; Greer, 1956; Komarovsky, 1946; Scherer, 1972) or social clubs and athletic organizations (Knoke, 1981; Smith & Freedman, 1972) should be considered voluntary organizations. No consensus has been reached concerning these issues and it is likely that variability in the types of voluntary organizations included in such lists will continue.

Several writers have adopted a different strategy by which to delineate the conceptual boundaries of this term. Rather than attempting to enumerate the types of voluntary organizations, they have sought to specify the essential qualities which must be possessed by a social collective before it may be considered a voluntary organization. Two types of criteria have been suggested for this purpose:

1. Criteria which distinguish formal voluntary organizations from other less formal social collectives
2. Criteria which distinguish formal voluntary organizations from non-voluntary organizations within society

The criteria commonly advanced by which to distinguish formal voluntary organizations from other types of social gatherings include:

1. The presence of elected officials or some form of oligarchical structure (Brown, 1953; Byod, Oyler &

Nicholus, 1936; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972; Warner, 1972; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959)

2. The existence of rules governing the rights and obligations of its membership (e.g., a formal constitution) (Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Komarovsky, 1933; Morris, 1965; Warner, 1972)
3. A clear demarcation of members from non-members (Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972)
4. A stated purpose or set of goals (Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959)
5. Periodic meetings which require at least semi-regular attendance (Lynd & Lynd, 1929; Komarovsky, 1933; Zimmer & Hawley, 1959)
6. A formal organization name (Komarovsky, 1933; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972)
7. Continuity in function over time (Babchuk & Booth, 1969)

The criteria which have been suggested to distinguish formal voluntary organizations from non-voluntary organizations within society include:

1. Freedom of entrance and exit by the membership (i.e., discretionary involvement) (Axelrod, 1956; Bode, 1972; Brown, 1953; Byod, Oyler & Nicholus, 1936; Knoke, 1981; Morris, 1965; Palisi, 1968; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972; Rose & Rose, 1969; Warner, 1972)
2. An absence of profit-motive by the organization (Axelrod, 1956; Palisi, 1968; Warner, 1972)
3. The absence of economic or material remuneration in return for the involvement of its membership (Knoke, 1981; Morris, 1965; Palisi, 1968; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972; Warner, 1972)

Unfortunately, because of the myriad of possible characteristics social collectives may possess, it is not uncommon to

find groups which satisfy some, but not all of the above criteria. With cognizance of this fact, some writers have proposed that a group need only fulfill some proportion of these criteria in order to qualify as a voluntary organization (e.g., Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Palisi, 1968). Still others have warned against the overzealous application of these criteria stressing that the "voluntariness" and "formal organizational structure" of groups are only a matter of degree by comparison to other social collectives (Rose & Rose, 1969; Smith, 1975). For example, D. H. Smith (1975) has argued that a voluntary organization can provide monetary return in exchange for the efforts of its membership if these payments are significantly lower than the typical market value for such services (e.g., CUSO volunteers). Similarly, groups need not possess all of the trappings of a formal organization (e.g., formal hierarchy, formal constitution, clear demarcation of members from non-members) in order to be considered a voluntary organization.

Recognition of the relativity of the two qualities "voluntariness" and "formal organization structure" illustrates how difficult it is to explicitly establish a clear distinction between voluntary organizations and other social collectives within society. When a group displays considerable "voluntariness" and "formal organizational structure" it epitomizes the ideal of a voluntary organization. However, as groups become progressively less formal in structure and/or progressively less "voluntary" they less adequately

portray this ideal. Where precisely to draw the line appears more a matter of personal taste than an empirically resolvable issue.

In this thesis, attention is given primarily to voluntary service organizations. Fortunately, these organizations usually possess considerable "formal structure" and "voluntariness" which make them prototypical voluntary organizations. At the same time, there are certain characteristics of service organizations which tend to make them unique among such organizations.

Voluntary service organizations are usually created in order to provide aid to a particular client group within the community who require special assistance not normally delivered by professional social service institutions (Carter, 1975). Examples of client groups aided by voluntary service organizations include the aged, physical disabled, mentally handicapped, illiterate, psychologically distressed, children, young adults and victims of violent crimes (Hamilton Volunteer Bureau, 1978-79).

Because the needs of these client groups are continuous, it is usually necessary to ensure that a sufficient number of volunteers will be available at all times. Thus service organization administrators are usually quite adamant that members participate on a regular basis in accordance with a mutually agreed upon schedule. Reliability in the attendance of participants is considered a highly prized attribute of service volunteers (Bellamy & Wells, 1974). Thus individuals who elect to participation in voluntary service organizations

are expected to participate on a routine schedule. Why individuals decide to allocate time and energy to such organizations is the central focus of this thesis.

CHAPTER THREE

General Research Strategy: An Overview

3.0 Introduction

If the number of studies undertaken to examine a phenomenon could be employed as a gauge of the amount known, it would be necessary to conclude that voluntary action was a thoroughly understood human behavior. In fact, David Horton Smith estimated that by 1975 over 2,000 investigations had examined some facet of this phenomenon. However, in large part because of the absence of certain kinds of research, there is much which remains unknown regarding the determinants of voluntary action.

It is the objective of this chapter to identify certain research tactics which generally have not been applied in studies of volunteer motivation. By so doing, it will be possible to illustrate the strategy adopted here in order to shed new light on the motivational determinants of these activities. Specifically, there are four aspects of this current series of studies which tend to make them unique among studies of this subject matter:

1. The use of longitudinal panel research designs
2. The use of a longitudinal (within-subject) perspective
3. The use of a broad range of variables selected from a number of variable classes

4. Concern for individual variation in the determinants of
this phenomenon

Each of these features are considered in turn in the next four sections of this chapter.

3.1 Use of Longitudinal Research Designs

The paucity of longitudinal research in the study of voluntary action has been acknowledged by many writers (Herman, 1976; McPherson, 1981; Qureshi, Davies & Challis, 1979; Zurcher, 1970). David Horton Smith has repeatedly stressed the need for an increased use of longitudinal research designs (Smith, 1975; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972; Smith et al, 1980) and even concluded his 1975 review of the literature with the comment:

Whatever future research on voluntary association is done, a significant proportion of it must be both quantitative and longitudinal if real progress is to be made. Many of the assumed causal relationships we find in cross-sectional studies may be overturned by appropriate longitudinal analyses.
[1975, pg. 265]

Yet despite consensus as to the need for such research, only a handful of longitudinal investigations have appeared in the voluntary action literature (Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Bull & Schmitz, 1976; Herman, 1976; Zurcher, 1970), and these have not been directly concerned with volunteer motivation. As a consequence, the role

played by many factors in the decision to undertake voluntary action remains largely unknown. This is especially the case with respect to the role of psychological factors such as attitudes and beliefs which cannot be reliability reconstructed through retrospection.

In recognition of this fact, this series includes two longitudinal panel investigations. The first of these (Chapter Seven & Eight), examines attitudes toward voluntary action on two (and in some cases three) occasions over a two year interval, to elucidate the relationship between attitudes and participation in voluntary organizations. It is noteworthy that this study is the first to measure attitudes before the individuals had joined a voluntary organization hence permitting an assessment of their predictive utility.

The second longitudinal investigation (Chapter Eight) also examines this relationship, only this time over a shorter interval. In this instance, the attitudes of university undergraduates were measured on two occasions separated by a four month interval. This study also obtained a measure of respondents' intentions to participate allowing the relationship between attitudes and intentions to volunteer to be discerned.

3.2 Use of a Longitudinal (Within - Subject) Perspective

By and large most studies of volunteer motivation have sought to determine which attributes distinguish volunteers from non-

participating individuals (i.e., a between-subject perspective). In contrast, relatively few investigations have been conducted comparing individuals before and after they have decided to become volunteers (i.e., a within-subject perspective). Nevertheless, it may be argued that prior to the time the individual first contemplates volunteering and the time of the join, something must change in the situation and/or psychological state of the individual. Undoubtedly, information about these changes could yield considerable insight as to why persons elect to undertake voluntary action.

Accordingly, most studies in this series adopt a longitudinal (within-subject) perspective and direct particular attention to recent changes in attitudes and situations which might provide clues as to why individuals decide to volunteer.

3.3 Use of a Broad Range of Variable Types

An inspection of the literature reveals that knowledge concerning the relationship between voluntary action and various types of variables (e.g., demographics, attitudes, social influences, prior experience) has largely been accumulated in a piecemeal fashion (Smith et al., 1980). Thus, although there have been investigations examining the relationship between voluntary action and demographic characteristics (e.g., Axelrod, 1956; Hausknecht, 1962; Scott, 1957; Wright & Hyman, 1958), attitudes (e.g., Herman, 1976), personality

variables (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1960; Goldhammer, 1964) and social encouragement (e.g., Althoff & Brady, 1972; Lewellen, 1976), it has been uncommon to find such factors considered simultaneously within the same investigation. Fortunately, this practice appears to be changing, for while investigations which examined multiple variable types were quite rare prior to 1970 (Freedman, Novak & Reeder, 1957; Milbrath, 1965; Smith, 1966), studies of more recent vintage have often included multiple variable types when delineating the determinants of such pursuits (e.g., Bull & Avcoin, 1975; Carter, 1975; Fendrick, 1974; Knoke, 1981; Olsen, 1976; Rogers, 1971; Townsend, 1973; Walker & Lawler, 1977).

Throughout the studies in this thesis, the relationship between voluntary action and a variety of situational and psychological factors will be examined including:

1. Biographics or Ascribed Status (e.g., sex, age, nationality)
2. Sociographics or Achieved Status (e.g., marital status, occupation, education, dependents)
3. Prior experience in voluntary organizations
4. Recent changes in the behavioral routine of the individual (i.e., life events)
5. Amount of social encouragement received to join (i.e., the recruitment episode)
6. Explanations given for joining
7. Attitudes toward voluntary action
8. Intentions to participate in voluntary organizations

Including a broad range of variable types within the same investigation permits certain types of analyses which are not feasible when variables are considered independently. For example, this strategy allows investigators to compare the utility of numerous variables as predictors of voluntary action. Comparisons of this sort are arduous when factors are examined in separate investigations under different and often unknown concomitant circumstances (Feldman, 1971; Hedges & Olkin, 1980; Light & Smith, 1971; Rosenthal, 1978).

It is also possible to determine whether certain factors moderate observed nomothetic associations when multiple variable types are employed. It is this type of analysis which is conducted in Chapter Seven of this thesis in order to determine whether certain variables affect the long-range predictive utility of attitudes.

Finally, when a diversity of factors are studied simultaneously, it is possible to search for combinations of variables which may denote determinant syndromes that promote this course of action (see Chapter Five). This sort of analysis will facilitate the identification of individual differences in the motivational basis of this phenomenon, which is an aspect of volunteer motivation too frequently ignored.

3.4 Individual Differences in the Routes to Voluntary Action

There has been relatively little consideration given to

individual variation in the determinants of voluntary action. Rather, most investigators have concentrated exclusively upon the nomothetic trends in their data as though a single set of motivational determinants could adequately describe this complex phenomenon. However, researchers who have taken the time to examine these trends more closely have typically found numerous variations in the events, circumstances and psychological states which precede the decision to volunteer.

For instance, Olsen (1976) conducted a path analysis on the antecedents of political action and discovered three distinct routes by which individuals became involved in such activities:

1. A family history of involvement which tends to promote offspring political participation
2. An increase in political awareness following other volunteer work which leads to participation in political organizations
3. Direct recruitment by members of political organizations

Investigations of phenomena similar to voluntary action have also identified individual differences of this sort. For example, Issac, Mutran and Stryker (1980) found that the circumstances which lead black and white students to become involved in political protests differed considerably. Walker and Lawler (1977) noted that tenured and non-tenured professors become involved in university extracurricular activities for decidedly different reasons. And Burch (1965) observed that factors affecting camping site selection differed among novice and

seasoned campers.

Throughout this thesis, analyses are performed to discern whether patterns exist across variables which might signify individual differences in the determinants of voluntary action. It is anticipated that by so doing, a number of common variable clusters will emerge which will yield a deeper appreciation of the factors which lead different types of individuals to volunteer.

3.5 Research Topics Examined in this Thesis: An Overview

The empirical research in this thesis consists of five investigations, each exploring a different facet of volunteer motivation. These studies are divided into two groups.

The first group consists of three studies which seek to identify individual differences in the circumstances surrounding the initiation of voluntary action. The first of these examines the explanations given by individuals for deciding to volunteer. Investigators have noted that persons generally give more than one reason for pursuing this course of action. In this study, factor analysis and cluster analysis are used to assess whether certain types of reasons tend to be mentioned in combination. To the extent that combinations are found, these analyses may suggest a useful way by which to classify explanations for joining.

The second study is undertaken to determine whether

individuals reporting similar social background circumstances tend to volunteer to accomplish similar objectives. If such an association is found, it may indicate that social background factors influence the perceived utility of such pursuits and thus indirectly affect the decision to volunteer.

The final investigation in this first set assesses the amount of social encouragement received by certain types of volunteers. The principal objectives of this study are to identify those circumstances where social encouragement is an important precursor of voluntary action as well as to reveal concomitant factors which render such encouragement superfluous.

While the first group of studies examines the ways in which joiners tend to differ from one another, the second set explores ways in which joiners differ from non-participating individuals. This group consists of two investigations designed to elucidate the association between attitudes and participation.

The first of these inquiries employs a two-year longitudinal design to evaluate the utility of attitudes as predictors of voluntary action. In this study, the attitudes of persons who joined one to eight months, nine to sixteen months or seventeen to twenty-four months after an attitude measure were compared to those of active volunteers and persons not participating during the two year interval. Through this research design, attitudinal differences which exist prior to joining a voluntary organization will be revealed. This

study is the first to assess whether the often noted attitudinal differences between volunteers and non-volunteers are present before individuals begin to participate.

In addition, an analysis is conducted to determine whether the predictive utility of attitudes is moderated by the circumstances preceding initiation, the reasons for joining and the demographic characteristics of the volunteer. As such, the possibility that attitudes predict certain types of participation better than others receives consideration.

The last study in this thesis also examines the attitude-voluntary action relationship. In this instance, particular attention is directed to changes in attitudes which transpire when individuals join or leave voluntary organizations. There are three parts to this investigation.

In part one, data from a two year longitudinal investigation are employed to assess the extent to which attitudes toward voluntary action fluctuate when individuals join or leave voluntary organizations. This study also examines which attitudes are most likely to vary when the membership status of a respondent changes.

To further delineate the nature of these changes, part two examines whether attitudes change prior to joining an organization or only after individuals have begun to participate. This is accomplished by comparing the change in attitudes noted among persons who joined an organization with those manifested by individuals over the year preceding initiation.

Finally, the third part of this study examines data from a four month longitudinal investigation to determine whether the positive attitude states of joiners precede the decision to volunteer, or manifest themselves only after the decision to volunteer has been made. The results of these studies will assist considerably in establishing the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer.

Throughout these investigations, a theoretical perspective known as the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) will be implicit. This stance credits individuals with an active role in the decision to pursue any given course of action. By embracing this viewpoint, it follows that individuals will be the best single repository of information concerning certain motives underlying their actions. This should not be construed as implying that factors unknown to individuals do not influence the decision to volunteer, but only that such factors will receive less attention in this thesis.

What will not be found in these investigations is allegiance to any one motivation theory currently advanced to explain voluntary action. This is because contemporary models of volunteer motivation generally do not describe the determinants of voluntary action in a manner which adequately recognizes individual differences. In the concluding chapter of this thesis however, Fishbein and Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action will be used to develop a useful approach by which to conceptualize the motivational bases of voluntary action

while remaining cognizant of these differences.

3.6 Data Sets Employed in This Research

The studies in this thesis use data obtained from five independent data sets and some data have been employed in more than one investigation. Therefore, in order to reduce redundancy in subsequent sections of this work, the characteristics of each data set will be described at this time.

3.6.1 Data Set Number One

The first data set was collected between March, 1977 and January, 1978 by interviewing 101 recent joiners of two voluntary service organizations (i.e., a hospital auxillary group and a consumer research organization). These respondents were recruited by means of a letter given to all joiners which described the objectives of the study. To encourage participation, a five dollar stipend was offered to persons agreeing to be interviewed.

Information was collected by means of a one-hour (approximately) semi-structured interview employing the interview schedule in Appendix One of this report. All interviews were conducted by a team of four university undergraduates who had received thorough training on appropriate interviewing techniques.

Respondents were predominately female (78.2%), single (65.3%), and university students (70.3%) with a mean age of 25.5

TABLE 3.1 General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set One.

: Dates Sample : Collected	March, 1977 to January, 1978	Percentage Female	78.2%	:
: Eligible : Universe	Recent joiners of two university campus service organizations	Mean Age (see note)	25.5 yrs.	:
: Sample Size	101	Marital Status		:
		Single	65.3%	:
		Married	23.8%	:
		Other	10.9%	:
: Sampling : Strategy	Haphazard			:
		Occupation		:
: Percentage of : Eligible Universe	Unknown	Student	70.3%	:
		Unemployed	14.9%	:
		Housewife	6.9%	:
: Data Collection : Procedure : (Duration)	Semi-structured interview (one hour)	Full-time Employed	4.0%	:
		Retired	4.0%	:
: Appendix Containing : Interview Schedule	One	Education		:
		Less than High School	3.0%	:
		High School Graduate	6.9%	:
		Partial Post-Secondary	71.9%	:
		Post-Secondary Graduate	18.2%	:
: Basic Research : Design	Cross-sectional			:
: Studies Using : Data Set	Study 1 (Chapter 4) Study 2 (Chapter 5)			:

Note: Mean age was computed using age category mid-points.

years. The demographic composition of this sample is indicative of the proximity of the voluntary organizations to the university campus. Further details concerning these data are summarized in Table 3.1.

3.6.2 Data Set Number Two

The second data set was collected between November, 1977 and March, 1978 by interviewing 103 persons who had contacted a local volunteer bureau to seek a referral to a volunteer service organization.

A structured interview of approximately 20 minutes duration was used to obtain these data employing the interview schedule in Appendix Two. The interview was conducted by the volunteer bureau's regular interviewing staff as an addendum to their normal intake interview. It should be noted that in contrast to the first sample, this interview was performed before the respondents had begun to participate in an organization.

The demographic composition of these data denotes a heterogeneous group of individuals with a broad range of ages, occupations and education levels. The respondents were predominantly female (82.5%) and reported a mean age of 31.2 years. Further details concerning these data are provided in Table 3.2.

3.6.3 Data Set Number Three

A third set of data was collected by interviewing 320 persons

TABLE 3.2 General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Two.

: : Dates Sample : Collected	November, 1977 to March, 1978	Percentage Female	82.5%	: :
: : Eligible : Universe	Contacts of Local Volunteer Bureau	Mean Age	31.2 yrs.	: :
: :		Marital Status		: :
: :		Single	48.5%	: :
: :		Married	41.7%	: :
: :		Other	9.7%	: :
: Sample : Size	103			: :
: : Sampling : Strategy	Consecutive Contacts			: :
: :		Occupation		: :
: : Percentage of : Eligible Universe	96.3%	Student	12.6%	: :
: :		Unemployed	38.8%	: :
: : Data Collection : Procedure : (Duration)	Structured Interview (20 minutes)	Housewife	25.2%	: :
: :		Full-time Employed	17.5%	: :
: : Appendix Containing : Interview Schedule	Two	Retired	5.8%	: :
: :		Education		: :
: : Basic Research : Design	Cross-sectional	Less than High School	24.3%	: :
: :		High School Graduate	38.8%	: :
: : Studies Using : Data Set	Study 2 (Chapter 5) Study 3 (Chapter 6)	Partial Post-Secondary and Graduates	11.7%	: :
		No Response	7.8%	: :

who contacted this same volunteer bureau between November, 1979 and April, 1980. Once again, the interview was conducted by the volunteer bureau's regular interviewing staff as an addendum to the normal intake interview. The interview was approximately twenty minutes in duration and employed the interview schedule in Appendix Three.

It is important to note that these data were obtained as part of a longitudinal field experiment designed to evaluate the impact of various referral procedures on the proportion who eventually participated in a voluntary organization. Consequently, some interviews were conducted by telephone, others during a personal (face to face) interview and still others during the course of a group interview, depending on the referral method to which the individual had been randomly assigned. Subsequent analysis showed that the variation in the interview procedure exerted no discernible impact upon the responses obtained.

The demographic composition of this sample is quite comparable to that of the second data set. Respondents were typically female (88.4%) and reported a mean age of 35.8 years. Additional information about these data are summarized in Table 3.3.

3.6.4 Data Set Number Four

The fourth set of data was collected to investigate the relationship between attitudes toward voluntary action and participation

TABLE 3.3 General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Three.

: Dates Sample Collected	November, 1979 to April 1980	Percentage Female	88.4%	:
: Eligible Universe	Contacts of Local Volunteer Bureau	Mean Age	35.8 yrs.	:
:		Marital Status		:
:		Single	40.6%	:
:		Married	47.5%	:
:		Other	11.9%	:
: Sample Size	320			:
: Sampling Strategy	Consecutive Contacts	Occupation		:
:		Student	14.1%	:
: Percentage of Eligible Universe	92.5%	Unemployed	25.0%	:
:		Housewife	35.9%	:
: Data Collection Procedure (Duration)	Structured Interview (20 minutes)	Full-time Employed	15.6%	:
:		Retired	9.4%	:
: Appendix Containing Interview Schedule	Three	Education Level		:
:		Less than High School	43.8%	:
:		High School Graduate	25.6%	:
: Basic Research Design	Cross-sectional	Partial Post-Secondary	30.7%	:
:				:
: Studies Using Data Set	Study 1 (Chapter 4) Study 2 (Chapter 5) Study 3 (Chapter 6)			:

in voluntary organizations and employed a two year longitudinal design. Accordingly, in addition to obtaining information about volunteer activities and demographic characteristics, measures of attitudes toward voluntary action were obtained on two (and sometimes three) occasions. The first attitude measure was obtained in March, 1977 by means of a questionnaire (see Appendix 4B) administered to 22 tutorial sections of an Introductory Psychology course. Of the 680 students who attended class on the day of the measure, 606 (89.1%) returned completed questionnaires. However, contrary to instruction, 144 (23.8%) students did not place their names on the questionnaire precluding subsequent follow-up. These questionnaires were excluded from further analysis.

Approximately 12 to 14 months later, a second measure was obtained from 98 of the original students using the questionnaire in Appendix 4C. Of the 98 individuals assessed on this second occasion, 87 (88.8%) completed a third version of the questionnaire one year later (see below), and were used for an investigation of attitude change employing a three-wave two year longitudinal design (see Section 8.4).

Between March and May, 1979, a more exhaustive follow-up was undertaken to obtain an attitude measure from as many of the original respondents as possible. Despite the two year delay, this follow-up was quite successful with 365 (79.0%) of the original respondents returning usable questionnaires. The final version of

TABLE 3.4 General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Four.

: Data Base	: First Measure	: Follow-Up After One Year	: Follow-Up After Two Years
: Dates Sample Collected	: March, 1977	: March to May 1978	: March to June 1979
: Eligible Universe	: Introductory Psychology Students	: Individuals Completing First Measure	: Individuals Completing First Measure
: Sampling Strategy	: Census	: Haphazard	: Census
: Sample Size	: 462	: 87	: 365
: Percentage of Eligible Universe	: 67.9%	: 18.8% (see note)	: 79.0%
: Data Collection Procedure (Duration)	: Questionnaire Completed in Class (10 minutes)	: Questionnaire Completed Out of Class (15 minutes)	: Questionnaire Completed Out of Class (25 minutes)
: Appendix Containing Questionnaire	: 4B	: 4C	: 4D
: Basic Research Design	: Cross-sectional	: Longitudinal	: Longitudinal
: Studies Using Data Set	: Study 4 (Chapter 7)	: Study 5 (Chapter 8)	: Study 4 (Chapter 7) : Study 5 (Chapter 8)
: Percentage Female	: 58.3%	: 58.8%	: 60.0%
: Mean Age as of March, 1977	: Not Measured	: 19.4 yrs	: 19.7 yrs
: Percentage Active in Organization as of March, 1977	: 14.1%	: 19.5%	: 14.0%
: Observed Bias Introduced by Attrition	: Excluded Sample less "Service Oriented in Leisure Time"	: None	: None

Note: Persons included in the first year follow-up analysis (Section 8.6) must have also completed the two year follow-up measure.

the questionnaire was similar in format to the first two, except that more information was obtained about the respondent's social background, and details were collected about the respondent's involvement in voluntary organizations during the interim (see Appendix 4D). Further details concerning this sample may be found in Table 3.4.

3.6.5 Data Set Number Five

The final set of data was a sample of 1,136 Introductory Psychology undergraduates who completed a measure of attitudes toward voluntary action (see Appendix 5A) in September, 1980. In January, 1981, a second attitude measure was obtained from 671 (59.1%) students using a somewhat longer questionnaire (see Appendix 5B). A comparison of the attitudes and demographics of these respondents with those not measured on the second occasion, revealed no significant differences between the two groups with the exception that commerce majors were over-represented and those with no university major under-represented among persons completing the second measure ($\chi^2=21.40$, d.f.=9, $p<.01$). This sample attrition appeared largely attributable to lack of attendance on the day the second questionnaire was administered, as only 12 (1.8%) persons declined to complete the second measure. Further details concerning these data are shown in Table 3.5.

TABLE 3.5 General Characteristics and Method of Collection of Data Set Five.

Data Base	First Measure	Follow-Up Measure
Dates Sample Collected	September, 1980	January, 1981
Eligible Universe	Introductory Psychology Students	Individuals Completing First Measure
Sampling Strategy	Census	Census
Sample Size	1136	671
Percentage of Eligible Universe	94.6% (see note)	59.1%
Data Collection Procedure (Approximate Duration)	Questionnaire Completed in Class (10 minutes)	Questionnaire Completed in Class (15 minutes)
Appendix Containing Questionnaire	5A	5B
Basic Research Design	Cross-sectional	Longitudinal
Studies Using Data Set	Study 5 (Chapter 8)	Study 5 (Chapter 8)
Percentage Female	58.9%	60.2%
Mean Age at Time of First Measure	19.6 yrs	19.5 yrs
Percentage Active in Service Org. at T1	27.6%	27.7%
Percentage Intending to Join a Service Organization at T1	27.3%	28.0%
Observed Bias Introduced by Attrition	Unknown	More "Commerce" Majors and less "Undefined" Majors in Original Sample

Note: Other research considerations dictated that only individuals completing the Cattell 16PF Personality Inventory the week prior were eligible for this measure.

3.7 Some Comments Regarding the Use of These Data

Before concluding this section, two points should be mentioned about the use of these data in subsequent analyses. First, it will be noted that much of the data obtained has not been employed in these analyses. Sometimes this was attributable to unanticipated measurement difficulties (e.g., personality items measured in the fourth set of data could not be configured into meaningful scales and failed the validation tests; some measures displayed virtually zero variability). More often however, data were not used because they simply were not germane to the research issues eventually addressed in the thesis.

In addition, Study Two (Chapter Five) and Study Three (Chapter Six) combine certain data sets to increase the sample size and permit special analyses to be performed. This was possible because similar measurement procedures were used to obtain the information. Notwithstanding, independent analyses were always performed on each data sets to determine whether different patterns emerged, and where apparent, these differences have been reported.

PART II
ROUTES TO VOLUNTARY ACTION

PART II

Routes to Voluntary Action

General Overview

The study of the determinants of voluntary action has largely been restricted to nomothetic analyses designed to assess the relationship between selected variables and participation. Because of this fact, relatively little attention has been directed to variations in the ways by which individuals become volunteers. In this section, three investigations are presented which examine these often overlooked individual differences.

The first investigation examines the reasons given by individuals for deciding to join a volunteer service organization. In particular, attention is directed towards the development of a classification scheme by which to categorize these explanations. Although several schemes have already been advanced for this purpose, previous typologies have always been based upon subjective partitionings of the explanations. In contrast, this investigation employs two statistical data reduction techniques (i.e., principal factor analysis and a cluster analysis) to more objectively derive categories by which to organize explanations for volunteering.

The second study makes use of this scheme to examine the extent to which individuals with common social backgrounds give

similar reasons for becoming volunteers. While considerable prior research has been devoted to the study of the association between social background and participation in voluntary organizations, relatively few investigations have sought to discern whether a relationship exists between these factors and the reasons for becoming a volunteer. This investigation could determine whether the perceived utility of voluntary action is influenced by the individual's social background and thus possibly reveal a new role for such factors in the decision to volunteer.

Study three is designed to examine another factor in the decision to join a voluntary organization, specifically social encouragement. It has often been noted that many individuals become volunteers only after receiving social encouragement. This investigation is the first to elucidate which types of joiners are most likely to receive encouragement to volunteer. Accordingly, this analysis will identify when social encouragement is particularly important in the decision to volunteer. In addition, by determining those circumstances under which encouragement is not typically received, other factors which promote voluntary action may be identified.

Each of these studies focuses particular attention on the individual differences which exist in the determinants of this phenomenon. Through an examination of the variations in the routes to voluntary action, a deeper appreciation of the types of factors which precede participation may be obtained than is possible through nomothetic analysis alone.

CHAPTER FOUR

General Themes in the Explanations for Becoming a Volunteer: Towards an Objective Classification Scheme by which to Order Explanations

4.0 Abstract

The study of the reasons given for becoming a volunteer has been hampered by the absence of a procedure by which to categorize explanations. While several schemes have been advanced for this purpose, the categories suggested have been based exclusively upon the subjective impressions of investigators. In this study, two statistical data reduction techniques are used to devise a classification scheme by which to order reasons for undertaking volunteer participation. Despite considerable variation in the samples and the methods employed, the two independent studies revealed the same three general themes in the explanations of volunteers:

1. Achievement of a personal objective
2. Compensation for situational inadequacies
3. A desire to help others

These findings are considered in light of other investigations of volunteer motivation.

General Themes in the Explanations For Becoming a
Volunteer: Towards an Objective Classification Scheme by
which to Order Explanations

4.1 Introduction

Students of voluntary action have long expressed an interest in the reasons given by individuals for volunteering (Adams, 1980; Avery & Bergsteiner, 1980; Bushee, 1945; Carter, 1975; Flynn & Webb, 1975; Gluck, 1975; Komarovsky, 1933; Lundberg, Komarovsky & McInery, 1934; Sharp, 1978; Uzzell, 1980; Weinstein, 1974) treating this information as insightful concerning the conscious objectives sought through volunteer activities. Despite the considerable attention devoted to this type of information however, little consensus exists as to how these data should be organized for analysis.

Because volunteers mention a diversity of reasons to account for their decision to participate, most researchers have employed classification schemes to organize the reasons mentioned. One of the more frequent strategies used for this purpose has been to distinguish motives which primarily benefit participants from those which primarily benefit the organization (Althoff & Brady, 1972; Bowman & Boynton, 1966; DeVall & Harry, 1975; Martens, 1971; Uzzell, 1980). Other investigators have suggested categories which distinguish the types of benefits sought through voluntary action. For instance, Bushee (1945) suggested the categories:

"Self-Improvement", "Individual Recognition", "Social Contact" and "Community Improvement". Similarly, Avery and Bergsteiner (1980) distinguished between "Affiliation", "Contributing to Others" and "Self-Improvement" goals. Still others have proposed schemes based upon the apparent qualities of the stated objectives. For example, Gluck (1975) chose to distinguish between tangible goals (e.g., acquisition of skills) and intangible goals (e.g., acquiring a sense of belonging). On the other hand, Flynn and Webb (1975) grouped explanations according to whether they were a means to some end, or ends-in-themselves.

While many of these schemes have proven useful, all have been based exclusively upon the subjective judgements of researchers. Consequently, the categories proposed often reveal more about the ingenuity and/or theoretical perspective of the investigator than about the inherent patterns which exist in the explanations of volunteers. This need not be the case.

In several recent investigations, which examined the explanations given for pursuing various leisure activities, statistical data reduction techniques were employed to derive categories of explanations (Driver, 1975; Hawes, 1978; Hollender, 1977; Tinsley & Kass, 1978). A study by Tinsley, Barrett and Kass (1977) is an excellent illustration of this approach. In this investigation, a sample of 418 undergraduates were asked to complete a 334 item inventory containing 45 different "need" scales. For each item, respondents were instructed to assess the extent to which the specified need would be satisfied if they indulged in their favourite leisure pursuit.

Following this, the ratings were factor analysed revealing eleven latent needs satisfied by leisure activities including "affiliation", "power", "compensation", "altruism", "physical activity" and so on.

There are at least two advantages gained through this strategy. First, because a statistical technique is employed, it is possible to establish a set of general explanation categories without relying exclusively upon the subjective impressions of the investigator. Consequently, findings across investigations can be more readily compared without concern that observed differences are attributable to variations in the theoretical perspective of investigators.

In addition, the use of statistical procedures may reveal underlying associations in the data which are not apparent from inspection alone. Accordingly, these procedures may identify inherent patterns in the responses of individuals and yield new insights as to the motives which promote such activities.

It is the objective of this investigation to employ statistical data reduction techniques to analyse the explanations given for becoming a service volunteer. By so doing, it is hoped that a more objective classification scheme can be derived by which to organize these explanations.

This investigation is divided into two parts. In part one, a sample of participants were asked to rate the extent to which each of a number of motives were influential in their decision to become volunteers. These ratings were then factor analysed to determine whether patterns existed indicative of general motives for participation

In the second part, an independent sample of individuals were asked why they had decided to volunteer using an open-ended response format. The reasons mentioned were then analysed using cluster analysis to determine whether certain explanations tend to be given in combination. Because two methods were used to collect and analyse the explanations for volunteering, it will also be of interest to see whether different groupings of explanations emerge when different procedures are employed.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Subjects

The participants in the first study were 101 recent joiners of two volunteer service organizations who were interviewed between March, 1977 and January, 1978. The sample obtained was predominantly female (78.2%), single (65.3%), university students (70.3%) and possessed a mean age of 25.5 years. The volunteers were paid five dollars for their participation in the interview. For more details concerning this sample see Section 3.7.1.

4.2.2 Procedure

During the course of an one hour interview, respondents were asked "How much influence did each of the following have on your decision to join":

1. To repay a benefit or favour once received
2. To relieve boredom
3. To increase social contacts, friendships, companionship
4. To obtain some immediate benefit in terms of money, privileges, etc.
5. To promote a set of values and ideals
6. To achieve a particular concrete goal
7. To gain increased recognition and influence
8. To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others, (e.g., community service)
9. To exercise leadership, or organizational skills
10. To have some fun
11. To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc.
12. To be a particular kind of person
13. Someone asked me to join
14. I've always been interested in it

The extent to which each factor was influential in the decision was indicated employing the following six point unipolar scale:

- 0 = none at all
- 1 = very little
- 2 = a small amount
- 3 = a moderate amount
- 4 = a large amount
- 5 = very much

In addition, a space was provided to allow individuals to write in any additional reasons they may have had for becoming volunteers.

Since respondents seldom mentioned additional reasons however, the analysis was restricted to the original fourteen motives.

4.3 Analysis

To examine the rating distributions, means, standard deviations, and estimates of skewness and kurtosis were computed for each motive (see Table 4.1). This analysis revealed that "To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc." was on average, rated as the most influential reason for undertaking voluntary action (mean rating=3.92). Other reasons receiving high mean ratings, in descending order, included:

"To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others" (mean=3.43);

"To achieve a particular concrete goal" (mean=2.84);

"To increase social contacts, friendships, companionship" (mean=2.74);

"I've always been interested in it" (mean=2.73);

"To promote a set of values and ideals" (mean=2.54);

"To have some fun" (mean=2.48).

Three of the 14 motives were seldom rated as influential in the decision to volunteer:

"To obtain some immediate benefit in terms of money or privileges" (mean=0.45);

"To repay a benefit or favour once received" (mean=0.45);

TABLE 4.1 Distributional Properties of Ratings for each Explanation (N = 101).

Explanation for Volunteering	Mean Rating	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
To obtain some long-term benefit in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc. (EXPERIENCE)	3.92	1.33	-1.56	2.14
To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others (TO HELP)	3.43	1.32	-.89	.48
To achieve a particular concrete goal (PARTICULAR GOAL)	2.84	1.87	-.34	-1.38
To increase social contacts, friendships (MEET PEOPLE)	2.74	1.44	-.07	-.91
I've always been interested in it (ALWAYS INTERESTED)	2.73	1.90	-.26	-1.41
To promote a set of values and ideals (PROMOTE VALUES)	2.54	1.68	-.25	-1.19
To have some fun (HAVE FUN)	2.48	1.49	-.28	-.90
To exercise leadership or organizational skills (LEADERSHIP)	2.10	1.57	.04	-1.26
To relieve boredom (BORED)	2.08	1.78	.24	-1.29
To be a particular kind of person (BE TYPE OF PERSON)	1.83	1.65	.44	-.95
To gain increased recognition and influence (RECOGNITION + INFLUENCE)	1.18	1.31	.80	-.45
Someone asked me to join	.55	1.27	2.37	4.54
To obtain some immediate benefit in terms of money, privileges, etc.	.45	1.05	2.56	6.09
To repay a benefit once received	.41	1.04	7.14	2.79

"Someone asked me to join" (mean= 0.55).

Because of the low mean values and aberrant distributions of these motives (i.e., pronounced positive (left) skew and high modal peakness at zero), these items were excluded from further analyses. The remaining eleven items possessed distributions not appreciably different from normality and were thus analysed without transformation (see Table 4.1).

Principal factor analysis was used to discern whether the observed correlations between items could be attributed to a more parsimonious set of latent factors. Principal factor analysis is distinguishable from principal component analysis in that it partitions variance into common sources (i.e., variance common to a set of variables) and unique sources (i.e., variance unique to each variable in the analysis). Multiple R^2 , obtained by regressing each variable on all other variables in the analysis, was employed as the initial estimate of variance commonality. However, since multiple R^2 underestimates the actual commonality (Harmon, 1967), more precise estimates were derived by an iterative method until two successive sets of commonality estimates differed by no more than .001. A matrix containing product-moment correlation coefficients between all explanation ratings was prepared for input into the factor analysis (see Table 4.2). Inspection of this matrix suggested three groupings of significant correlation coefficients.

Consistent with this matrix, three factors were extracted with eigen values of 2.44, 2.00 and 1.58 respectively. The extracted

TABLE 4.2 Product - moment Correlation Coefficients Between the Ratings of the Explanations (N = 101).

Explanation Type	Experience	Recognition+ Influence	Particular Goal	Leadership	Bored	Meet People	Have Fun	To Help	Promote Values	Always Interested	Be Type Of Person
Experience	X	.31*	.47*	.37*	-.07	.00	.20	.01	.20	-.07	.38
Recognition + Influence	.31*	X	.41*	.25*	-.01	.10	.01	-.11	.04	-.16	.11
Particular Goal	.47*	.41*	X	.27*	-.23*	-.07	.11	.08	.13	-.18	.15
Leadership	.37*	.25*	.27*	X	-.14	-.04	.20	.25*	.19	.11	.22
Bored	-.07	-.01	-.23*	-.14	X	.53*	.32*	-.21	-.14	-.16	.04
Meet People	.00	.10	-.07	-.04	.53*	X	.45*	-.08	-.03	-.04	.18
Have Fun	.20	.01	.11	.20	.32*	.45*	X	-.10	.02	-.05	.19
To Help	.01	-.11	.08	.25*	-.21	-.08	-.10	X	.31*	.37*	.06
Promote Values	.20	.04	.13	.19	-.14	-.03	.02	.31*	X	.09	.27*
Always Interested	-.07	-.16	-.18	.11	-.16	-.04	-.05	.37*	.09	X	.14
Be Type Of Person	.38	.11	.15	.22	.04	.18	.19	.06	.27*	.14	X

Note: "*" Denotes significance at p<.01 (two-tailed significance test)

factors accounted for 22.2%, 18.9% and 14.4% of the common variance respectively. In accordance with Kaiser's criterion for significance (i.e., that a factor account for $1/n$ percent of the common variance, where n =the number of variables), all three factors were retained as significant (Schuessler, 1971).

The interpretability of the factor loadings was enhanced by rotating the initial solution using Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization. Varimax Rotation simplifies the columns of the factor matrix so that variables generally load either quite high or quite low on each factor while preserving the orthogonality of the inferred solution. The rotated factor matrix is presented in Table 4.3. As a further aid to interpreting these results, factor coefficients for each variable are displayed in Table 4.4. These coefficients indicate the weight which would be assigned to each item when computing factor scores and are therefore informative concerning the meaning of a factor (Schuessler, 1971).

Four explanations loaded heavily upon the first factor:

1. To achieve a particular concrete goal (factor loading = .707, factor coefficient = .366)
2. To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc. (factor loading = .707, factor coefficient = .357)
3. To gain increased recognition and influence (factor loading = .511, factor coefficient = .178)
4. To exercise leadership or organizational skills (factor loading = .459, factor coefficient = .154)

The first three explanations refer to the achievement of some personal objective through voluntary action. As such, persons scoring high on

TABLE 4.3 Factor Loadings of Explanations Following Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization.

: Explanation	: Factor 1	: Factor 2	: Factor 3	:
: Achieve particular : concrete goal	: .707	: -.117	: -.026	:
: Obtain long-term benefit : or experience	: .707	: .098	: .126	:
: Gain increased : recognition and influence	: .511	: .039	: -.153	:
: Exercise leadership or : organizational skills	: .459	: .034	: .335	:
: To relieve boredom	: -.173	: .666	: -.241	:
: Increase social contacts : friendships, companionship	: -.015	: .762	: -.037	:
: To have some fun	: .196	: .567	: .030	:
: To bring immediate or : long-term benefits to others	: .001	: -.144	: .630	:
: I've always been : interested in it	: -.195	: -.044	: .557	:
: To promote a set of : values and ideals	: .218	: -.010	: .397	:
: To be a particular : kind of person	: .330	: .264	: .305	:

TABLE 4.4. Factor Coefficients Reflecting the Contribution of each Explanation in the Calculation of the Factor Scores.

: Explanation	: Factor 1	: Factor 2	: Factor 3
: Achieve particular : concrete goal	: .366	: -.074	: .104
: Obtain long-term benefit : or experienté	: .357	: .066	: .056
: Gain increased : recognition and influence	: .178	: -.024	: -.097
: Exercise leadership or : organizational skills	: .154	: .041	: .144
: To relieve boredom	: -.077	: .339	: -.124
: Increase social contacts : friendships, companionship	: -.010	: .468	: .037
: To have some fun	: .052	: .212	: .048
: To bring immediate or : long-term benefits to others	: -.048	: -.039	: .397
: I've always been : interested in it	: -.102	: .022	: .309
: To promote a set of : values and ideals	: .052	: .019	: .165
: To be a particular : kind of person	: .084	: .097	: .155

this factor can be expected to have volunteered in order to advance some personal ambition, perhaps associated with their career or plans for self-improvement.

The second factor is largely defined by the pronounced loadings of three different explanations:

1. To increase social contacts, friendships, companionship (factor loading = .762, factor coefficient = .468)
2. To relieve boredom (factor loading = .666, factor coefficient = .339)
3. To have some fun (factor loading = .567, factor coefficient = .212)

In this case, the explanations refer to a desire for more social contact and stimulation. Therefore, at least one interpretation is that persons who scored high on this factor have joined voluntary organizations to seek out new sources of stimulation and compensate for perceived inadequacies in their present situations.

Finally, five items loaded heavily upon the third factor:

1. To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others, e.g., community service (factor loading = .630, factor coefficient = .397)
2. I've always been interested in it (factor loading = .557, factor coefficient = .309)
3. To promote a set of values and ideals (factor loading=.397, factor coefficient=.165)
4. To be a particular kind of person (factor loading=.305, factor coefficient=.155)
5. To exercise leadership or organizational skills (factor loading=.335, factor coefficient=.144)

It is noted that this last item also loaded heavily on the first factor.

The third factor is somewhat more difficult to interpret than the first two. Nevertheless, the pronounced loadings of "To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others" and "To promote a set of values and ideals" suggests an altruistic theme for this factor. The pronounced loading of the item "To be a particular kind of person" is quite vague and adds little further definition to the factor. On the other hand, the high loading of the explanation "I've always been interested in it" suggests that individuals who undertake voluntary action for altruistic reasons are also likely to have long been interested in volunteer work.

4.4 Discussion

Inspection of the explanation ratings reveal that most respondents considered several motives influential in their decision to become volunteers. This suggests that individuals typically join voluntary organizations for more than one reason, a finding not inconsistent with other studies of volunteer explanations (Bellamy & Wells, 1974; Carter, 1975; Flynn & Webb, 1975; Gluck, 1975).

Among those explanations rated most influential were "To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc." and "To achieve a particular concrete goal". It therefore appears that participation was most often pursued

by these respondents to achieve personal goals. This outcome may in part be attributed to the large proportion of students (70.3%) in this sample, who are commonly observed to use voluntary action as a method by which to acquire career experience (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Bryant, 1978; Davies, 1977; Nathan, 1972; also see Chapter Five in this current series). On the other hand, the high mean ratings given to the explanations "To bring immediate or long-term benefits to other" and "To promote a set of values and ideals" suggests that altruistic motives were also important reasons for some respondents.

Few individuals expressed a desire "To obtain some immediate benefits in terms of money or privileges". This finding shows that immediate tangible gain is not typically an expectation of new joiners. Moreover, the "Norm of Reciprocity", suggested by Boulding (1973) as a possible precipitator of voluntary action, was not considered influential in the decision of these individuals insofar as few rated the item "To repay a benefit or favour once received" as important.

It is of particular interest that few volunteers rated "Someone asked me to join" as influential in their deliberation. This finding is especially perplexing given that 42 (41.6%) individuals reported receiving some degree of social encouragement to undertake voluntary action during the interview. While this disparity is difficult to reconcile, it does suggest that volunteers may be reluctant to attribute their pro-social activities to external (situational) factors.

If so, then Self-Serving Attribution Bias (Bradley, 1978; Brewer, 1977) may influence the content of the explanations given for joining and researchers should remain cognizant of this bias when interpreting information of this type.

Principal factor analysis revealed that the influence ratings could be explained by a relatively simple latent pattern. Following Varimax Rotation, the factor loadings exhibited low factorial complexity with three general classes of explanations emerging:

1. To achieve personal goals or objectives
2. To experience new sources of (social) stimulation
3. To promote (an internalized) set of values by bringing benefits to others

Rather interestingly, similar categories were suggested by Avery and Bergsteiner (1980) as well as Bushee (1945) in their subjective partitionings of volunteer explanations.

Rating scales possess a number of advantages over open-ended questions in the measurement of reasons for volunteering. For instance, scales collect information in a standardized format facilitating subsequent analyses and also yield information concerning the extent to which any given reason was influential in the decision to volunteer. On the other hand, rating scales may impose certain constraints on the responses of individuals and prevent some from fully elucidating their reasons for initiating this action (Neulinger, 1974). In recognition of this fact, a second study was performed which allowed subjects to explain in their own words why they had

decided to volunteer. Then, cluster analysis was employed to determine whether similar groupings of explanations emerged.

4.5 Method

4.5.1 Subjects

Participants in this second investigation were 320 persons who had contacted a local volunteer bureau between November, 1979 and April, 1980 in order to seek a referral to a volunteer service organization. It should be noted that in contrast to the subjects in the first study, these individuals had not yet begun to participate.

In comparison to the first sample, the volunteer bureau contacters were more often female (88.4% versus 78.2%), older (mean age=35.8 yrs. versus 25.5 yrs), more often married (47.5% versus 23.8%) and less likely to be students (14.1% versus 70.3%). Additional details pertaining to this sample may be found in Section 3.7.3.

4.5.2 Procedure

During the interview, respondents were asked "What would you say were the reasons for your decision to become a volunteer?" In order to indicate the kinds of responses requested, three examples were supplied: "Career or Skill Development"; "Helping Others"; and "Meeting People". In retrospect, these probes may have biased the

responses of the volunteers. This possibility is supported by the fact that these same three explanations were the first, second and fourth most frequently mentioned reasons for joining (see Table 4.5). However, in a study of 103 persons who had contacted this same bureau about two years earlier, individuals were asked why they had decided to volunteer without these potentially biasing probes. In spite of this procedural difference, "Helping Others", "Career Development" and "Meeting People" were observed to be the three most common reasons for joining (see Note 1).

Since this investigation was initially undertaken to examine the extent to which various referral procedures altered subsequent attrition rates, not all individuals were interviewed using the same procedure. Thus approximately one-third of the respondents were interviewed over the telephone, one-third by personal (face to face) interviews and the remaining third during the course of a group orientation session. Individuals were assigned to these interviewing methods randomly in accordance with the experimental design of the original study. However all individuals were asked the same questions and subsequent analysis detected no differences between these groups with respect to the number or types of explanations given for volunteering. Accordingly, these data were combined for analysis.

4.6 Analysis

Because of the inherent complexities of the English language, a set of preliminary categories were established to standardize the explanations for volunteering and permit analysis. This was accomplished by dividing each response according to its principal and subordinate clauses and rewriting explanations not expressed in sentence form. Following this procedure, 986 explanations were identified in the responses of the 320 contacters (3.08 explanations per respondent). Only three persons offered no explanation for undertaking voluntary action.

Each explanation was then assigned to one of four general categories:

1. Statements which specified goals (e.g., to help others, to meet people, to gain career experience, to have fun)
2. Statements which referred to situations or a state of affairs (e.g., I have a lot of time, my situation limits social contact, I was lonely)
3. Statements which referred to a particular event which had occurred (e.g., I was asked, I recently met other volunteers)
4. Statements which identified a personal attribute of the respondent (e.g., I have done volunteer work before, I have needed skills, I enjoy volunteering)

After this initial assignment, the explanations were further divided into subcategories according to the goals, situations, events or attributes mentioned. New categories were created whenever a

statement referred to a goal, situation, event or attribute not previously encountered. Considerable care was exercised to ensure that categories were not overly abstract as this would have obscured possible nuances in the expressed purposes for volunteering.

This procedure produced 23 preliminary categories of explanations (see Table 4.5). Six statements which could not be unambiguously classified into these 23 categories were assigned to a miscellaneous group.

The preliminary categories, with examples of the types of statements assigned to each, have been presented in Table 4.5. This table also contains the frequency and the proportion of the sample mentioning each of the explanation types.

Without question, the most frequently mentioned explanation for undertaking voluntary action was "To help others" with almost two-thirds of the individuals giving this reason. Other common explanations included "To gain career experience" (36.3%); "To help get a particular job or into a particular type of academic programme" (e.g., medicine, physiotherapy, social work) (28.4%); "To meet people" (28.1%); "Because of boredom" (27.1%); "To find purpose in life" (20.0%); and "Because time was available" (19.7%). Together, these seven explanation types represented 73.3% of the reasons mentioned.

In order to determine whether certain reasons were given in combination with others, cluster analysis was performed. Using the phi statistic as the index of association (see Note 2), a similarity

TABLE 4.5 Frequency of Individuals Giving each Type of Explanation (Page 1 of 2)

Explanation Type (Examples of Accepted Paraphrases)	Frequency	Percentage
TO HELP OTHERS (to help others; to promote a cause; to contribute to society; others need help)	212	66.25
TO GAIN CAREER EXPERIENCE (to get career related skills)	116	36.25
TO HELP GET JOB/GET INTO COURSE (to improve chances of getting into particular program e.g., medicine, physio-therapy, social work; to improve chances of getting job)	91	28.44
TO MEET PEOPLE (to be with people; would like to meet new people)	90	28.13
BORED (bored; I need something to do; have nothing to keep me occupied)	87	27.18
TO FIND PURPOSE IN LIFE (to find purpose, meaning etc. in life; feel life requires more meaning; to make self more useful)	64	20.00
TIME AVAILABLE (have time available now; situation change allows more time to volunteer)	63	19.69
POSSESS NEEDED SKILLS (have needed experience; I have skills necessary to help others)	45	14.06
HAVE DONE BEFORE (have always done; have long been involved in such activities)	34	10.63
TO HELP RE-ENTRY INTO JOB MARKET (will allow/help return to the job market following absence from work)	32	10.00
SITUATION PREVENTS FULL-TIME JOB (due to health, family health, child care responsibilities; unable to work full time)	29	9.06
GAIN PERSONAL SATISFACTION BY HELPING (rewarding experience; love to volunteer)	18	5.63

TABLE 4.5 Frequency of Individuals Giving each Type of Explanation (Page 2 of 2)

Explanation Type (Examples of Accepted Paraphrases)	Frequency	Percentage
TO IMPROVE MYSELF (NON-CAREER) (to help become a better person; to get along better with other individuals)	17	5.31
TO TEST OUT POSSIBLE CAREER OPTIONS (to see if want to pursue career similar to requested volunteer work)	17	5.31
BECAUSE I WAS ASKED (because referred by doctor, parole officer, social worker; some asked me to join)	15	4.69
WILL HELP IN COURSE WORK (assigned as part of a course; will assist in project for course)	10	3.13
EXPOSED TO NEEDY (situation (e.g., job) brings me into contact with needy; recent interaction with needy)	8	2.50
TO HAVE FUN (heard it would be fun; want to have some fun)	6	1.88
TO DO SOMETHING DIFFERENT (to try something new; to take a break from my normal routine)	6	1.88
TO LEARN SOMETHING NEW (enjoy learning new things (non-career related))	6	1.88
LONELY SITUATION (because I was lonely)	6	1.88
FELT GUILTY (feel must repay debt to society; feel I must do more for others)	4	1.25
TO BE A MEMBER OF A GROUP	4	1.25
OTHER MISCELLANEOUS EXPLANATIONS	6	1.88
NO EXPLANATION GIVEN	3	.94

matrix was constructed displaying the association between the fourteen most frequently identified explanation types (see Note 3). This matrix is displayed in Table 4.6. Following this, hierarchical clustering was performed by grouping the individual explanations into larger clusters as a function of the degree of association exhibited. When a new cluster was formed, the association between this cluster and all other clusters in the analysis was estimated by averaging the phi value between all items contained within the respective groups, a procedure known as Bridge's Linking Method (Bijney, 1973). Linking was terminated when all clusters in the analysis were negatively associated (Romesburg, 1979).

The results of this analysis are displayed in Fig. 4.1. The dendrogram depicts the clustering history and indicates that three distinct groupings of reasons emerge when clustering proceeds until all associations are negative (i.e., $-.120$ between cluster 1 and 2; $-.021$ between cluster 1 and 3; and $-.073$ between cluster 2 and 3).

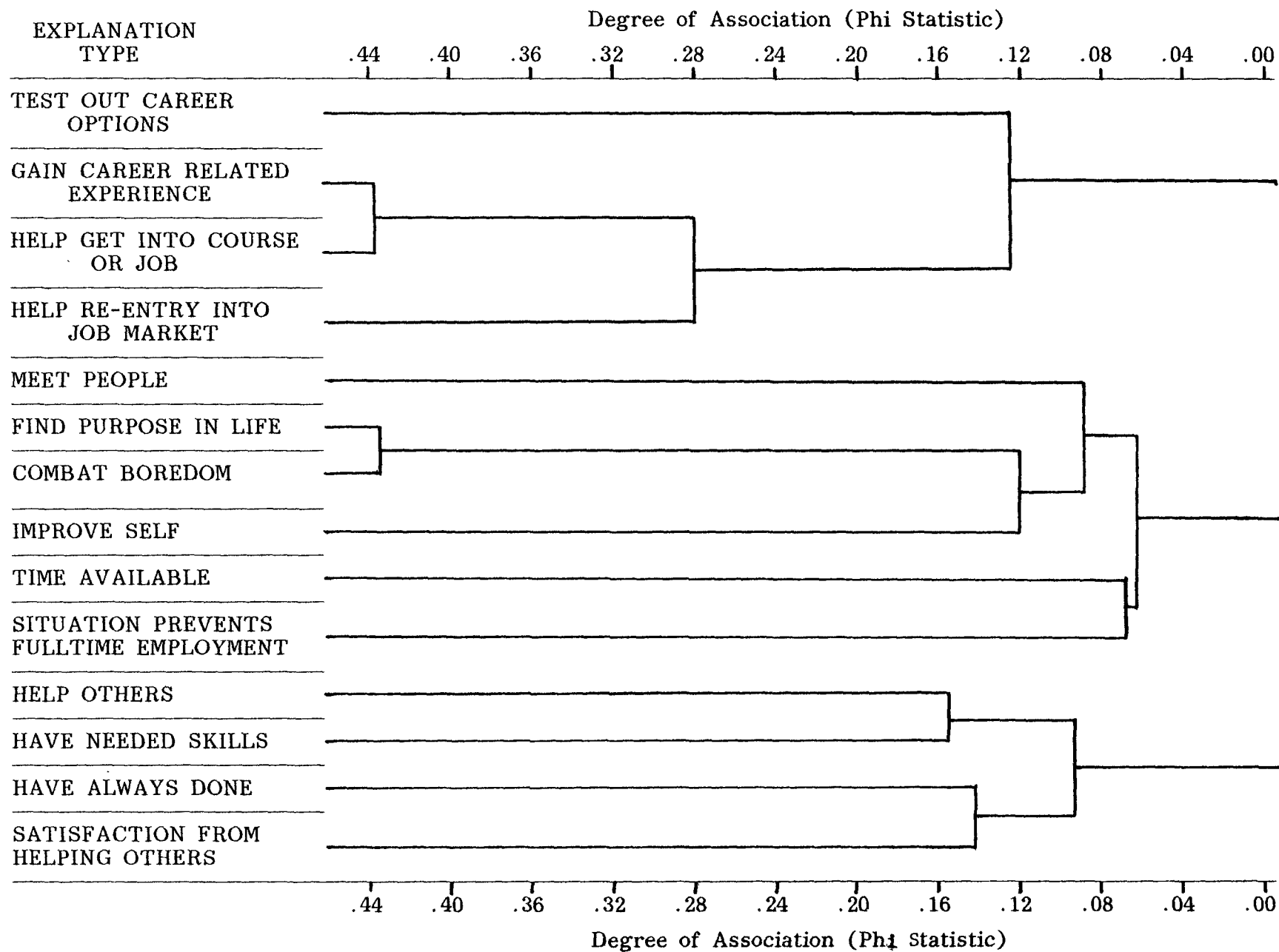
The first and best defined cluster completed linkage when the phi statistic equalled $.122$ (associated chi-square significant at $p < .05$). This cluster consisted of four explanations:

1. To gain career experience
2. To test out a possible career choice
3. To get into a special programme of studies (e.g., medicine, social work) or assist in obtaining employment
4. To assist the return to the work force (typically following an extended period of unemployment to raise children)

TABLE 4.6 Similarity Matrix Showing the Degree of Association (Phi Statistic) Between Explanations of Various Types.

	: Test Out : : Career : : Options :	To Gain : Career : Experience :	Help Get : Into : Course/Job :	To Help : Re-entry : Into Job :	To Find : Purpose : In Life :	To : Meet : People :	Bored : : : : :	To : Improve : Myself :	Time : Available : : :	Situation : Prevents : Job :	To Help : Others : : :	Possess : Needed : Skills :	Have : Done : Before :
: To Gain Career Experience :	.285	X	.437	.377	-.345	-.168	-.373	-.150	-.080	-.097	-.190	-.193	-.197
: Help Get Into Course/Job :	.160	.437	X	.182	-.281	-.179	-.338	-.149	-.102	-.028	-.180	-.155	-.150
: To Help Re-entry into Job : : Market :	-.079	.377	.182	X	-.167	.046	.132	-.079	.004	-.060	-.137	-.135	-.115
: To Find Purpose In Life :	-.079	-.345	-.281	-.167	X	.122	.432	.230	.033	.060	-.122	-.122	-.122
: To Meet People :	-.118	-.168	-.179	.046	.122	X	.211	.038	.045	-.045	-.068	-.093	-.193
: Bored :	-.113	-.373	-.338	.132	.432	.211	X	.012	.027	.137	-.188	-.045	-.074
: To Improve Myself : : (Non-Career) :	-.056	-.150	-.149	-.079	.230	.038	.012	X	-.026	-.027	.051	-.056	-.082
: Time Available :	-.026	-.080	-.102	.004	.033	.045	.027	-.026	X	.071	-.028	-.034	-.074
: Situation Prevents : : Full-time Job :	-.027	-.097	-.028	-.060	.060	-.045	.137	-.027	.071	X	.004	-.029	-.012
: To Help Others :	-.067	-.190	-.180	-.137	-.122	-.068	-.188	.051	-.028	.004	X	.156	.096
: Possess Needed Skills :	-.096	-.193	-.155	-.135	-.122	-.093	-.045	-.056	-.034	-.029	.156	X	.094
: Have Done Before :	-.082	-.197	-.150	-.115	-.122	-.193	-.074	-.082	-.074	-.012	.096	.094	X
: Gain Personal Satisfaction : : By Helping :	-.058	-.156	-.124	.009	.014	-.062	-.119	-.063	.017	.005	.146	.018	.136

Fig. 4.7 Dendrogram Displaying Clustering History of the More Frequently Cited Explanation Types Using the Phi statistic as the Index of Association and Bridge's Linking Method.



In each instance reference is made to the advancement of the individual's personal career through volunteering. It is of interest that this clustering contains items quite similar to those loading heavily on the first factor in the previous study (i.e., "To achieve a particular concrete goal"; "To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience; skills, contacts, knowledge, etc."; "To gain increased recognition and influence"; "To exercise leadership or organizational skills").

The second cluster consisted of six types of explanations:

1. To find purpose or meaning in life
2. To relieve boredom
3. To improve myself
4. Because time was available
5. Because the current situation prevented undertaking full-time employment
6. To meet people

The dendrogram reveals, that despite the strong association ($\phi=.432$) between two of the explanations (i.e., "To find purpose or meaning in life" and "To relieve boredom"), all items in this cluster were not linked until well into the clustering process. In fact, this group was not fully formed until the association was relatively weak and non-significant (i.e., associated chi-square significance was $p<.20$) indicating that the second cluster was not as well defined as the first.

Nevertheless, the explanations contained within the second cluster do exhibit a common theme as each refers to compensatory

activities or situations which might be expected to promote compensatory action. It should be noted that explanations in this grouping tend to resemble those items which loaded heavily upon the second factor in the first study (i.e., "To relieve boredom"; "To increase social contacts, friendships, companionships"; "To have fun").

Finally, a third cluster emerged in this analysis comprised of the four remaining explanations:

1. To help others
2. Because needed skills are possessed
3. Because personal satisfaction is gained by helping others
4. Because I have done it before

As with the second cluster, this grouping was formed relatively late in the clustering process with complete linkage transpiring only after phi was relatively small. Nevertheless, similarity in semantic content is apparent in these explanations with three items exhibiting an altruistic theme. The fourth explanation refers to a historical interest in volunteer work, and consistent with the first study, again suggested an association between altruistic intent and a long-standing interest in such pursuits. In fact, the items loading onto the third factor are remarkably similar to those isolated in this third cluster (i.e., "To bring immediate or long term benefits to others"; "To promote a set of values and ideals"; "To be a particular kind of person"; "I've always been interested in it").

4.7 Discussion

Despite considerable differences in the demographic composition of the two samples and in the method by which the reasons for volunteering were obtained and analyzed, both studies reveal a strikingly similar pattern in the explanations of volunteers. In each instance, three general themes emerged in the reasons individuals gave for pursuing these activities, one relating to the achievement of personal (career) objectives, a second pertaining to the search for new challenges and social stimulation and one further theme suggesting altruistic intent and prior interest/involvement in voluntary action.

Nevertheless, in spite of these similar outcomes it is probable that the cognitive processes which produced these patterns were quite different in the two investigations. In the first study, where individuals were asked to assess the influence each of a number of potential motives had on the decision to volunteer, the observed pattern of associations suggests that respondents perceived redundancies in the motives enumerated. This sort of response pattern characteristically emerges when response categories are too finely differentiated relative to a respondent's conceptualization of the situation (LaRocco, 1983). Thus, items such as "To obtain some long-term benefit" and "To achieve a particular concrete goal", which may appear quite distinct to an investigator who has given considerable thought to their nuances, may be perceived as more or

less equivalent by respondents and awarded similar influence ratings. Accordingly, the items tend to be highly associated.

On the other hand, the clusterings observed with open-ended responses are more likely attributable to the typical format of verbal explanations. Thus, 68.2% of the respondents stated a particular objective for volunteering (e.g., "To obtain career experience"; "To meet people"; "To help others"), then supplemented their response with explanations as to why this objective was important for them. For example, individuals who expressed a desire to obtain career-relevant experience often explained why this experience would be useful (e.g., "It will help me find a job"; "It will permit me to gradually re-enter the workforce"; "It will assist me in deciding whether to pursue this line of work as a career"). Similarly, if individuals reported they had volunteered to meet people or to find new meaning in their lives, they frequently sought to justify this desire by describing various inadequacies or constraints in their current situation (e.g., "I can't get a full-time job because I have young children at home"; "I'm dreadfully bored"; "I'm lonely"). The explanation "To help others" on the other hand, was often supplemented by reference to a personal quality which would account for this particular motive (e.g., "I have skills that are desperately needed"; "I find helping others deeply gratifying").

Of course, the extent to which any particular reason for joining is perceived as requiring additional elaboration will affect the

strength of the association exhibited between the primary reason for joining and supplementary explanatory statements. Thus, if respondents generally felt compelled to justify volunteering to obtain career-relevant skills and therefore stressed the value of these skills, relatively strong associations will be found between this goal and the justificatory remarks. Conversely, if a desire to help others is considered self-explanatory, the associations between this goal and supplementary explanations will be correspondingly weaker. This tendency may in part account for the well defined "Career Enhancement" cluster relative to the other two clusters of explanations.

Irrespective of the actual mechanisms underlying these two outcomes, it is apparent that voluntary action is predominately undertaken for one of three purposes. It is of interest to examine how this outcome compares with other studies of volunteer motivation.

Evidence that participation is initiated in order to further career objectives has been reported by a number of investigators in this field. For example, Anderson and Moore (1978) observed that 21% of the service volunteers interviewed mentioned career experience as a major reason for becoming involved. Similarly, Bellamy and Wells (1974) found "Preparation for future employment" as the third most frequent reason for volunteering and both Davies (1977) and Zeldin (1980) identified career experience as an important reason for participation among British volunteers. It is also not uncommon to find reference

to career enhancement as a motive for voluntary action in theoretical treatments of this topic (Bryant, 1978; Mueller, 1975; Rose, 1959; L. Smith, 1975).

Rather interestingly, recognition of this apparent function of voluntary action is not found in earlier studies of this subject (Gist, 1943; Lundberg, Komarovsky & McInery 1934; Minnis, 1951; Wirth, 1951). While this omission might be attributable to other factors (e.g., the types of organizations examined), it may also indicate that volunteering for this purpose is a comparatively recent development.

It should come as no surprise to find that students undertake voluntary action to advance career objectives. Participation in voluntary organizations offers valuable practical training and on-site experience not obtainable through conventional academic course work. In addition, joining a volunteer service organization is often the only way by which to gain access to otherwise restricted behavioral settings (e.g., hospital wards), or exposure to certain types of individuals (e.g., the aged, mentally handicapped or young children) to determine whether possible career paths will be fulfilling. It is also well known that volunteer activities are viewed favourably by the selection committees of various popular faculties (e.g., medicine, social work, physiotherapy) adding further impetus to volunteer for persons seeking careers in such areas (Davies, 1977).

Some voluntary action scholars may express alarm at the apparent pervasiveness of these self-serving motives for undertaking voluntary action. However, administrators of these programmes have become increasingly aware of such motives and have welcomed this symbiotic exchange which potentially benefits both client and volunteer (Bryant, 1978).

It has long been known that individuals pursue voluntary action in order to enhance their daily routines and compensate for inadequacies in their current situation. Even the earliest investigations of this subject documented the prevalence of this motive for volunteering (Gist, 1943; Lundberg, Komarovsky & McInery, 1934; Minnis, 1951; Wirth, 1951). More recently, Carter (1975) found that 78.4% of the service volunteers surveyed explained their participation by referring to motives of this type. Similarly, Flynn and Webb (1975) reported that almost 50% of the members of a community action group had joined because of an absence of meaning in their lives, boredom, and/or insufficient social contact. And Avery and Bergsteiner's (1980) study of recreational programme volunteers observed that the desire to be with others was among the most common reasons for joining.

In fact, explanations of this type are so frequently reported in studies of voluntary action that some writers have advanced models of this phenomenon based exclusively upon this motive. For example, in an attempt to account for increases in the number of voluntary organizations emerging during the 20th century, Wirth (1951) argued

that the primary function of voluntary organizations was to fill the psychological gaps produced by the large scale urbanization which took place during this period. Similar themes are apparent in theories by Gist (1943), Minnis (1951), and Anderson and Anderson (1959) who also identified compensation as the principal motive for voluntary action.

In both the first and second study, a considerable number of persons gave altruistic explanations for joining. These outcomes are consistent with many surveys of volunteers which have found altruistic reasons among the most frequently cited (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Carter, 1975; National Science Foundation, 1974; U.S. Department of Labour, 1969).

Smith (1981) however, has recently taken issue with these findings and seriously questioned whether altruism is a common motive for volunteering. In support of his concerns, Smith reviews several studies which did not find a preponderance of altruistic explanations (Flynn & Webb, 1975; Gluck, 1975; Sharp, 1978; Weinstein, 1974), noting that in each case the investigators used longer and more intensive interviewing techniques. On the basis of this observation, he suggests that a preponderance of altruistic explanations will only occur when researchers use superficial and inadequate data collection procedures (e.g., questionnaires) which yield "the socially accepted vocabulary of reasons people give for joining" [1981, pg 26] while shedding little insight as to the actual motives for such activities.

However, the voluntary organizations examined in the studies reviewed by Smith were all politically oriented groups whereas the investigations which Smith seeks to discredit examined volunteer service organizations. Therefore, the differences Smith attributes to methodology may simply reflect the fact that persons join different types of voluntary organizations for different reasons. The results of this current study support this latter interpretation.

At the same time, respondents in the second study often reported a desire to help others in combination with personal objectives for volunteering, as though altruism was important, but not the only reason for joining. This might have occurred because respondents were in the process of soliciting a referral and may have felt it prudent to include such remarks to convince the interviewer of their honourable intentions. If so, Smith's assertion may have a certain degree of verity. It should also be noted that such a tendency would account for the weaker association between the explanation "To help others" and the other explanations isolated in cluster three.

Whether human behavior is ever motivated exclusively by altruistic intent is an issue which extends beyond the phenomenon of voluntary action. Recently, several studies have revealed that acts which appear altruistically motivated are actually largely inspired by hedonistic motives (Bauman, Cialdini & Kendrick, 1981; Cialdini, Darby & Vincent, 1973; Cialdini & Kendrick, 1976). On the other

hand, some investigators have argued that behavior can be motivated by altruism alone under certain circumstances (e.g., Bateson, Duncan, Ackerman, Buckley & Birch, 1981; Hoffman, 1981). The data obtained in this present study are not suitable to determine whether persons giving such explanations have been motivated exclusively by altruistic concerns. It can only be stated that such explanations are frequently mentioned by those who pursue this course of action.

It is perhaps of equal significance to note that several factors which have been demonstrated to influence voluntary action are seldom mentioned as reasons for volunteering. Included in this list are determinants such as "role demands" (Lemon, Palisi & Jacobsen, 1972) "social encouragement" (LaCour, 1977) and "status enhancement" (Bushee, 1945). The conspicuous absence of such explanations should not be construed as implying that these factors do not play a role in the decision to volunteer. Rather, it is more probable that individuals lack cognizance of the influence such factors exert on their behavior or are reluctant to identify these motives due to their potentially pejorative connotations. Whatever the case, these omissions do stress the need to study volunteer motivation through a variety of perspectives utilizing several different types of information (Smith et al., 1980). In other words, while explanations do serve to identify the conscious objectives sought through participation, explanations alone cannot be expected to fully elucidate why people volunteer.

Notes:

1. The extent to which the inclusion of the three example explanations biased the responses of the bureau contacters can be assessed by comparing the response frequency of various types of explanations when examples are not provided. An independent sample of 103 individuals who contacted this same volunteer bureau about two years earlier were asked the following question:

"Sometimes people say that questionnaires do not allow them to express the real reasons why they did something. For the final question, would you tell us, in your own words, why you decided to become a volunteer"

No examples were given of the types of responses expected. Comparing the frequency with which various explanations were cited by the two groups, the following pattern was observed:

Explanation Type	No Examples Provided (Nov 1977 to Mar 1978) (n = 103)	Examples Provided (Oct 1979 to April 1980) (n = 320)
To Help Others	58.2%	66.2%
To Gain Career Experience	36.9%	36.3%
To Meet People	41.7%	28.1%

In essence, the inclusion of the three example responses did not appear to exert a statistically discernible influence on the responses of the individuals in this study.

2. While a number of association statistics have been devised for binary data (e.g., Zubin's "simple matching coefficient"; Jacard's "index of similarity"; Smirnov's coefficient), Bijney (1973) has argued that the phi statistic is least susceptible to spurious distortions and most appropriate for this sort of analysis. The formula for the phi statistic is:

$$\phi = \left(\frac{\chi^2}{N} \right)^{1/2}$$

where χ^2 = the chi-square value
 N = the number of cases in the analysis

Phi ranges from zero (no association) to 1.0 (perfect association) and may be assigned a positive or negative value depending on whether frequencies tend to predominate along the major or minor diagonal (respectively) of the 2 x 2 contingency table.

3. Only explanation types mentioned by 17 or more respondents were included in the cluster analysis. This was done to eliminate situations where the expected cell frequency in the 2 X 2 contingent table was less than one. Failure to follow this practice would have severely distorted the Chi-square value and accordingly the phi statistic.

CHAPTER FIVE

The Relationship Between Social Background Characteristics and Explanations for Becoming a Volunteer

5.0 Abstract

While the relationship between social background characteristics and participation in voluntary organizations is well documented, relatively little is known about the association between such factors and the explanations given for becoming a volunteer. In this study, social background characteristics are considered independently and in combination to discern whether persons who share common background circumstances undertake voluntary action for similar reasons. The results of this study clearly support an association between such factors and the joining explanation. This outcome may be interpreted as indicating that social background influences the perceived utility of voluntary action and accordingly tends to determine the reasons why people volunteer.

The Relationship Between Social Background Characteristics and Explanations for Becoming a Volunteer

5.1 Introduction

Without question, the topic most frequently examined by voluntary action researchers has been the extent to which social background characteristics (e.g., sex, age, marital status, social economic status, occupation) are associated with participation in voluntary organizations. As a result of these investigations, a voluminous literature has accumulated revealing a consistent pattern between such variables and participation frequency (Axelrod, 1956; Carter, 1975; Curtis, 1971; Foskett, 1955; Hausknecht, 1962; Hodge & Trieman, 1968; Hyman & Wright, 1971; Kellerhals, 1974; Khupfer, 1947; Mayo, 1950; Payne, 1960; Philips, 1967; Reissman, 1954; Richards, 1958; Rose, 1960; Scott, 1957; Verba & Nie, 1972; Wright & Hyman, 1958).

Because of the relationship consistently demonstrated between demographics and voluntary action, a number of researchers have sought to understand the role of background characteristics in the decision to volunteer. To this end, a variety of possible mediating factors have been postulated to account for these observed patterns. Often in such discussions, concomitant attitudinal and personality attributes are proposed to explain why certain types of individuals do

or do not volunteer. For example, Verba and Nie (1972) hypothesized that individuals with lower socio-economic status seldom participated because they generally lack sufficient personal efficacy. On the other hand, Lane (1959) thought that lack of awareness about voluntary organizations was responsible for this same pattern.

Others have sought to explain why certain types of individuals are under-represented among the volunteer sector by hypothesizing the existence of various situational constraints. For instance, Knoke (1981) proposed that younger individuals less frequently volunteer because their time is usually devoted to establishing their careers, finding a mate and raising young children. Berger (1960) suggested that blue-collar workers seldom volunteer because they are typically fatigued after a full day of physical labour.

While concomitant psychological states and situational constraints may partially account for the association between social background and voluntary action, there is at least one other potential impact of such factors which has received comparatively little consideration. Specifically, it may be hypothesized that individuals with certain social backgrounds will find different aspects of volunteer work attractive as a result of the exigencies created by their situations. Thus, students pursuing certain programmes of study (e.g., pre-medicine, social work) may find volunteer participation attractive because it advances their academic objectives; housewives may find it appealing because it offers increased social

contact; and retired individuals may consider the meaningful work of volunteers a particularly effective way to combat feelings of purposelessness. If such an association could be established, it might contribute significantly towards our understanding of the relationship between social background and volunteer participation. In addition, such a pattern would suggest that voluntary action is at least sometimes a response to situational exigencies.

It is not possible to appraise the validity of this hypothesized influence through an examination of the relationship between social background and participation frequency alone. Rather, what is necessary is an assessment of the extent to which volunteers possessing common social backgrounds participate to accomplish similar objectives. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of such research in the voluntary action literature, although those few inquiries which have studied this relationship offer some support for such an association.

For example, Gottlieb (1974) cross-tabulated several demographic characteristics with the reasons 3780 Vista volunteers gave for becoming involved. In this analysis, younger volunteers were found more likely to select the explanation "To do something useful while I decide what to do with my life" than were older volunteers. Unfortunately, Gottlieb supplied a relatively restricted range of possible motives (i.e., almost all explanations in the checklist were altruistically oriented), and it is therefore difficult to completely assess the association between social background and explanations for joining from this study.

Bellamy and Wells (1974) have also examined this association. In this study of 51 volunteer bureau contacters, persons 24 and younger more often indicated that they had undertaken voluntary action in "Preparation for their future career" than did those 25 and older.

However, undoubtedly the best evidence concerning the association between social background and reasons for joining is found in a study by Anderson and Moore (1978). In this investigation, 1062 Canadian volunteers were asked to indicate which of ten possible motives were influential in their decision to participate. These responses were then cross-tabulated with sex, age, prior work history, education and social class. The analysis revealed that individuals possessing similar demographic attributes often pursued voluntary action for the same purpose. For example, females were more likely to volunteer "In order to feel useful"; better educated individuals to further their "Personal development" and younger volunteers (i.e., 24 and younger) "To gain work related experience". Unfortunately, Anderson and Moore did not combine these characters to assess whether individuals who possessed several social background similarities exhibited even greater homogeneity in their explanations for participating.

It is the objective of this current study to further delineate the association between social background and explanations for volunteering. At the same time, there are three differences between this present investigation and those which have previously examined

this topic. First, open-ended questions are employed to permit respondents greater flexibility in describing their reasons for volunteering. Prior studies of this sort have obtained this information through fixed checklists or rating scales which might have constrained respondents' accounts of their motives (Hawes, 1978; Neulinger, 1974).

In addition, while previous investigations have explored the association between explanations and demographics one variable at a time, this analysis examines the relationship between explanations and clusterings of social background attributes. This analytic strategy, which has been referred to as the Configuration Approach (Acock & Defleur, 1972), capitalizes upon naturally occurring associations between factors such as age, marital status, parental responsibilities and other attributes which in concert delineate the individual's social background. The configuration approach is predicated upon the belief that behavior is influenced by combinations of factors which do not necessarily affect action in an additive manner. As well, this analytic strategy reduces the likelihood of spurious second order correlations and permits a stronger assessment of association strength since the effects of several factors are considered simultaneously.

One additional feature of this investigation is that recent changes in the individual's situation are considered when specifying the respondent's social background. Acknowledging such changes or "Life Events" (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1978) when defining social background is important since recent changes in status may appreciably

alter the perceived utility of voluntary action. For example, the reasons for volunteering given by individuals who have recently separated, or retired may be quite distinct from those mentioned by persons with identical status who have long since adjusted to such changes. As far as can be determined, this is the first investigation to explore the association between life events and the reasons why people volunteer.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Subjects

Application of the configuration approach requires extensive partitioning of samples in order to isolate groups of individuals possessing several common background characteristics. Accordingly, it was considered desirable to employ the largest sample possible for this analysis. This was achieved by combining the first three data sets to establish an overall sample of 524 respondents. It should be noted that the demographic composition of these three data sets differed somewhat. The members of the two university-based organizations were more often students (70.3%) than were contacters of the volunteer bureau (13.7%) and consistent with this, were generally younger and single. On the other hand, the two samples of volunteer bureau contacters were quite similar with the only significant distinction being that a greater proportion of retired individuals sought referrals during the second data collection period. Additional details

concerning each of these data sets may be found in Sections 3.6.1, 3.6.2 and 3.6.3.

5.2.2 Measurement of Explanation For Joining

During the course of the interview, respondents were asked to state in their own words why they had decided to volunteer. Interviewers were instructed to record the respondent's reply verbatim. Because three different interview schedules were employed, the precise wording of this question varied somewhat (see Note 1). However, since the explanations were categorized prior to analysis, the affect of this variation was considered to be minimal.

Reasons for initiating voluntary action were assigned to one of the three categories of explanations established in the first study of this thesis. As may be recalled, these categories were:

1. Career Enhancement explanations
2. Situational-Compensation explanations
3. Altruistic explanations

In addition, a second measure was constructed to indicate any dominant theme in the respondent's overall explanation. The dominant theme was defined as that category in which the majority of reasons had been assigned. In the event that a preponderance of a certain type of reason did not emerge (i.e., a tie in the number assigned to two or more categories), the dominant theme was treated as undefined. However, in order to minimize the number of undefined themes, ties between either of the two types of personal reasons (i.e., Career-Enhancement and Situational-Compensation) and the number

assigned to the "Altruistic" explanation category, were resolved in favour of the personal reasons for joining. This policy is consistent with the increased theoretical interest of personal objectives in this investigation and was used to resolve ties for 7.8% of the explanations.

If no reason was given for volunteering, or the reasons mentioned could not be assigned to either of the three categories, the dominant theme was also considered undefined. Fortunately, such instances occurred on only six (1.1%) occasions.

5.2.3 Measurement of Social Background

Social background was delineated using the respondent's sex, age, marital status, occupation and dependents. If the individual reported children, information was also obtained to determine whether the children were currently attending school.

As previously mentioned, consideration was also given to recent changes which may have transpired when defining the social background. The precise phrasing of the question employed to obtain this information varied somewhat between interview schedules (see Note 2), but always asked respondents whether any changes had recently occurred in their life or situation. It should be noted that the volunteer bureau contacters were only asked about changes which affected the availability of discretionary time and therefore may not have reported events that exerted no influence on time availability.

Life events were classified into "major" and "minor" categories. An event was considered a major life event if it signified a permanent change in the individual's life and/or obtained a score of

forty or greater on the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). Included in this category were the following types of events:

1. Death of spouse
2. Divorce or separation
3. Marriage
4. Birth of a child
5. Child begins school
6. Child leaves home
7. Retirement
8. Graduation from school
9. Major illnesses such as heart attacks, cancer, etc.

Changes mentioned which were classified as minor life events included:

1. Changes in residence
2. Temporary leaves of absence from school
3. Beginning school at a new institution
4. Minor health changes
5. Loss of employment

Since some respondents mentioned life events which transpired long before the initiation of voluntary action, an eligibility time limit was established. This criterion was predicated upon the assumption that major life events would exert a relatively long-term impact upon the individual in comparison to minor events. As such, major life events were considered eligible if they transpired within one year of initiation, whereas minor life events were eligible only if they occurred within six months. A third type of event mentioned by some respondents referred to a seasonal or minor adjustment in their schedules (e.g., beginning or ending of school term; loss of a part-time job (<20 hours per week); change in shift work; termination of other volunteer activities). These events were also considered minor life events if they transpired within three months of initiation.

Employing this information, six variables were constructed, each pertaining to a different (albeit not independent) aspect of the individual's social background:

1. Sex (a) male
(b) female
2. Age (a) 18 and under
(b) 19 to 24
(c) 25 to 39
(d) 40 to 59
(e) 60 and over
3. Marital Status
(a) single
(b) recently married (within one year)
(c) married (more than one year or no change mentioned)
(d) recently separated, divorced or widowed (within one year)
(e) separated, divorced or widowed (more than one year or no change mentioned)
4. Parental Stage (see Note 3)
(a) pre-parental stage (no children, 39 years or younger)
(b) preschool aged child (at least one child not currently attending school or at least one child four years old or younger)
(c) child entered school (at least one child enters school during most recent year, no preschool children)
(d) child/children in school (all children in school for at least one year or no change in parental responsibilities mentioned)
(e) child leaves home (at least one child leaves home within one year)
(f) post-parental stage (no children at home, 40 years or older)
5. Occupational Status (see Note 4)
(a) high school student (age <19)
(b) college/university student (age 19 & over)
(c) recently unemployed (within six months)
(d) unemployed (more than six months or no change mentioned)
(e) full-time employed
(f) recently retired (within one year of initiation)
(g) retired (more than one year or no change mentioned)

6. Situational Stability

- (a) stable background (no eligible life events mentioned)
- (b) recent life event (occurrence of at least one eligible major or minor life event)

Several other categories would also have been desirable in these parameters (e.g., recent child birth, recent employment acquisition, recent college/university entrance), but proved infeasible either because they were seldom mentioned or required partitioning information which was not collected.

These variables were then combined to produce a composite indicator which identified groups of individuals possessing several common background factors. While the most desirable method by which to construct the social background profiles would have been to simply cross-tabulate all six social background parameters, this would have yielded a 2100 cell matrix. Obviously, such a partitioning was impossible given the sample size. Therefore, a more economical partitioning strategy was used which entailed merging categories and excluding certain factors in the construction of the composite variable. The following rationale was employed in this process.

First, since age was implicitly reflected by parental status, and to a lesser degree the marital status and occupational status of the respondent, age was not used in the construction of the profiles. Secondly, individuals who reported being separated, widowed or divorced for more than one year were considered to possess marital status equivalent to that of a single individual. Finally, no distinction

was made between individuals who had been retired for over one year and those reporting no external employment (e.g., housewives or unemployed individuals).

Following these guidelines, the variables sex, marital status, parental stage and occupation were cross-tabulated yielding a manageable matrix containing 180 cells. Further aggregations of these cells were performed independently for male and female respondents.

Of the 90 potential combinations of female social background characteristics, only 24 combinations occurred. Of these, only 15 were reported by nine or more individuals and retained for further analysis. The frequency with which each of these 15 combinations of social background characteristics occurred, as well as a description of each profile is presented in Table 5.1. It is noted that 420 (88.1%) of the 477 females reported one of these 15 demographic profiles. Table 5.1 also provides mean age, the age range, the percentage of first time volunteers and the percentage reporting social encouragement to join to further define each group.

The most frequently observed profiles among females were:

1. Single; unemployed persons in the pre-parental stage (n=60/11.5% of entire sample)
2. Single; college/university students in the pre-parental stage (n=58/11.1% of entire sample)
3. Single; high school students in the pre-parental stage (n=38/7.3% of entire sample)
4. Married; unemployed persons in the post-parental stage (n=37/7.1% of entire sample)

5. Married; unemployed persons with children in school (n=35/6.7% of entire sample)
6. Single; full-time employed persons in the pre-parental stage (n=34/6.5% of entire sample)
7. Married; unemployed persons reporting the recent departure of a child from home (n=32/5.9% of entire sample)
8. Married; unemployed persons reporting the recent entrance of a child into school (n=29/5.5% of entire sample)

Of the 90 potential combinations of background characteristics for the male subjects, 12 occurred. However, because the sample contained only 77 males, just three profiles were reported by nine or more respondents. Therefore, in order to make better use of the male sample, certain groups were combined to produce four social background profile descriptive of 84.4% of the male initiators. These were:

1. Primarily single (23 single, 3 married); pre-parental; highschool, college or university students (n=26/5.0% of the entire sample)
2. Single; pre-parental; unemployed (n=13/2.5% of entire sample)
3. Single or married (5 single, 6 married); pre-parental; full-time employed (n=11/2.1% of the entire sample)
4. Married; post-parental; retired (n=15/2.9% of the entire sample)

TABLE 5.1 Description of Most Frequently Observed Clusterings of Demographic Characteristics.

: Reference : : Description :	: Frequency : : Observed :	: Percent- : : age of : : Sample :	: Description of Demographic Clusters :						: Percentage : : First Time : : Volunteers :	: Percentage : : Encouraged : : To Join :
			: Sex :	: Marital : : Status :	: Parental : : Stage :	: Current : : Occupation :	: Mean : : Age :	: Age : : Range :		
: Female : : High School : : Students :	38	7.3	: Female :	: Single :	: Pre-parental :	: High School : : Student :	15.4	: 13 to 19 :	68.4	71.1
: Female : : College : : Students :	58	11.1	: Female :	: Single :	: Pre-parental :	: University : : or College : : Student :	20.7	: 17 to 27 :	46.6	48.3
: Female : : Single : : Unemployed :	60	11.5	: Female :	: Single :	: Pre-parental :	: Unemployed :	21.5	: 15 to 32 :	50.0	56.7
: Female : : Single : : Employed :	34	6.5	: Female :	: Single :	: Pre-parental :	: Full-time : : Employed :	23.6	: 18 to 37 :	55.9	61.8
: Female : : Pre-parental : : Married : : Unemployed :	14	2.7	: Female :	: Married :	: Pre-parental :	: Unemployed :	23.8	: 19 to 29 :	57.1	35.7
: Female : : Pre-parental : : Married : : Employed :	14	2.7	: Female :	: Married :	: Pre-parental :	: Full-time : : Employed :	26.2	: 21 to 33 :	35.7	35.7
: Female : : Children at : : Home : : Unemployed :	16	3.1	: Female :	: Married :	: Young : : Pre-school : : Children :	: Unemployed :	28.1	: 22 to 36 :	56.2	43.8
: Female : : Child Enters : : School : : Unemployed :	29	5.5	: Female :	: Married :	: Child : : Recently : : Started : : School :	: Unemployed :	32.2	: 24 to 40 :	48.3	24.1

-103-

TABLE 5.1 Description of Most Frequently Observed Clusterings of Demographic Characteristics.

Reference Description	Frequency Observed	Percent-age of Sample	Description of Demographic Clusters						Percentage First Time Volunteers	Percentage Encouraged To Join
			Sex	Marital Status	Parental Stage	Current Occupation	Mean Age	Age Range		
Female Children Recently Wid/Sep/Div	15	2.9	Female	Recently Div/Sep. or Wid.	Children in School	Unemployed	33.1	20 to 45	60.0	46.7
Female Married Child in School Unemployed	35	6.7	Female	Married	Children in School	Unemployed	38.4	25 to 51	42.9	34.3
Female Child Left Home Unemployed	32	5.9	Female	Married	Child Recently Left Home	Unemployed	50.6	36 to 61	34.4	18.7
Female Post-parental Married Unemployed	37	7.1	Female	Married	Post-parental	Unemployed	53.4	38 to 68	48.6	27.0
Female Recently Retired	9	1.7	Female	Married	Post-parental	Recently Retired	55.7	47 to 66	77.8	55.6
Female Post-parental Recently Div/wid/sep	14	2.7	Female	Recently Div/Sep. or Wid.	Post-parental	Unemployed or Retired	51.8	40 to 65	64.3	35.7
Female Post-parental Single Retired	15	2.9	Female	Single or Div/Wid. or Sep.	Post-parental	Retired	68.8	59 to 86	46.7	40.0

TABLE 5.1 Description of Most Frequently Observed Clusterings of Demographic Characteristics.

: Reference : Description	: Frequency : Observed	: Percent- : age of : Sample	: Description of Demographic Clusters						: Percentage : First Time : Volunteers	: Percentage : Encouraged : To Join
			: Sex	: Marital : Status	: Parental : Stage	: Current : Occupation	: Mean : Age	: Age : Range		
: Male, Single: : Pre-parental : Students	26	5.0	: Male	: Single	: Pre-parental	: Student	: 21.5	: 17 to 27	63.0	30.8
: Male, Single: : Pre-parental: : Unemployed	13	2.5	: Male	: Single	: Pre-parental	: Unemployed	: 21.6	: 15 to 29	76.9	69.2
: Male : Employed	11	2.1	: Male	: Single : or : Married	: Pre-parental : or Children : in School	: Full-time : Employed	: 28.9	: 20 to 46	54.6	36.4
: Male : Married : Retired	15	2.9	: Male	: Married	: Post-parental	: Retired	: 67.1	: 52 to 78	60.0	26.7

5.3 Analysis and Discussion

Since the questions employed to obtain social background measures and explanations for joining varied between the three data sets, analyses were first conducted on each data set independently. While not all comparisons were possible (i.e., largely because of the proportion of students in the first sample), the pattern of results were consistent across all data sets. In fact, the only significant difference observed was that unemployed females more often manifested a "Situational-Compensation" explanation theme in the 1977-1978 volunteer bureau sample, whereas this same sort of initiator tended to displayed a "Career Enhancement" explanation theme in the 1979-1980 sample (loglikelihood ratio $\chi^2=7.72$, d.f.=1, $p<.01$). Notwithstanding, the overwhelming number of consistencies in the relationships between social background characteristics and explanations for becoming a volunteer suggested that combining the samples was unlikely to produce spurious associations.

In the combined sample, 67.6% of the respondents mentioned at least one "Altruistic" reason for joining, 59.7% gave at least one "Situational-Compensation" reason and 43.3% reported at least one "Career Enhancement" reason to account for their decision to volunteer. In addition 20.0% of the respondents mentioned a reason which could not be classified into any of the three categories (see Chapter Four), although in only 2 (0.4%) instances were these the only reasons given.

In terms of the theme in the overall explanation, 39.1% manifested "Situational-Compensation" dominant themes, 33.6% displayed "Career Enhancement" dominant themes and 22.3% manifested "Altruistic" dominant themes. Only 12.8% of the explanations exhibited no clear dominant theme. However, 7.8% of the explanations gave equal emphasis to altruistic and personal reasons for joining and were thus resolved in favour of the latter in accordance with the policy adopted by which to resolve ties (see Section 5.2.2). As such, only 5.0% of the explanations were classified as "Undefined".

To examine the relationship between social background and explanations for joining, the seven background parameters (i.e., sex, age, marital status, parental stage, occupation, recent situational stability and the composite profile) were cross-tabulated with each type of explanation as well as the dominant explanation theme. The results from these analyses are presented in Tables 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5.

Table 5.2 contains the cross-tabulations between sex, age, marital status, parental stage, occupation and situational stability and each explanation type. Since it was possible for respondents to mention more than one type of reason for joining, the row percentages in this table do not sum to 100 percent. Table 5.3 displays these same variables cross-tabulated with the dominant explanation theme and since this assignment is unique, the row

percentages do sum to 100 percent. A similar set of cross-tabulations is presented for the social background profiles in Table 5.4 (for the presence or absence of a particular explanation) and in Table 5.5 (for the dominant explanation theme). Loglikelihood ratio chi-squares were employed to detect significant differences in the distributions of explanation types across the various demographic categories (see Note 5). The following subsections discuss the association noted between each social background characteristic and the explanations given for volunteering.

5.3.1 Sex

Although the majority of individuals in this sample were female (85.3%), indicating a decided female preference for such activities, there is relatively little difference in the reasons why the males and females volunteered. Thus, although females gave "Situational-Compensation" explanations more often ($\chi^2=5.03$, d.f.=1, $p<.025$) and more frequently manifested "Situational-Compensation" dominant themes ($\chi^2=9.10$, d.f.=3, $p<.03$), these variations appear largely attributable to the age distributions of the male and female respondents (i.e., males were generally either under 30 years old (59.7%) or over 60 years old (15.6%) whereas the females were well represented across all age categories). In fact, when the respondent's age is statistically controlled, these differences vanish altogether.

TABLE 5.2 Percentage of Each Group Giving the Three Types of Explanations for Joining

Variable	Group	Frequency	Percentage Giving Explanation		
			Career Enhancement	Situational Compensation	Altruism
Sex	Female	447	43.6	61.7 *	66.9
	Male	77	41.6	48.1	71.4
Age	18 + under	77	68.8	36.4	68.8
	19 to 24	158	60.1	55.7	61.4
	25 to 39	133	40.6 ***	64.7 ***	66.9
	40 to 59	113	22.1	72.6	70.8
	60 + over	43	0.0	67.4	81.4
Marital Status	Single	245	60.4	47.8	67.3
	Recently Married	9	22.2	88.9	66.7
	Married	207	29.0 ***	64.7 ***	70.0
	Recently Sep/Wid/Div	37	29.7	91.9	62.2
	Sep/Wid/Div	26	23.1	76.9	57.7
Parental Status	Pre-parental	288	56.9	51.0	67.7
	Preschool Child	28	46.4	60.7	50.0
	Child Enters School	29	41.4 ***	72.4 ***	62.1
	Child in School	44	45.4	68.2	65.9
	Child Leaves Home	32	31.2	81.3	56.3
	Post-parental	103	7.8	69.9	77.7
Occupation	High School Student	36	61.1	22.2	69.4
	College Student	93	76.3	37.6	58.1
	Recently Unemployed	75	60.0 ***	70.7 ***	70.7
	Unemployed	208	35.1	73.6	62.0
	Full-time Employed	72	22.2	51.4	81.9
	Recently Retired	17	0.0	76.5	82.4
	Retired	23	0.0	60.9	87.0
Situational Stability	No Recent Life Event	148	51.4 *	50.0 *	67.6
	Recent Life Event	376	40.2	63.6	67.6

Note: * = p < .05
 ** = p < .01
 *** = p < .001

TABLE 5.3 Percentage of each Group Manifesting each Dominant Explanation Theme.

Variable (Statistical Significance)	Group	Frequency	Dominant Explanation Theme			
			Career Enhancement	Situational - Compensation	Altruism	Undefined
Sex (p<.03)	Female	447	33.8	41.2	20.8	4.2
	Male	77	32.5	27.3	31.2	9.1
Age (p<.0001)	18 + under	77	58.4	16.9	22.1	2.6
	19 to 24	158	47.5	30.4	14.6	7.6
	25 to 39	133	30.1	42.9	23.3	3.8
	40 to 59	113	14.2	57.5	23.0	5.3
	60 + over	43	0.0	51.2	46.5	2.3
Marital Status (p<.0001)	Single	245	49.8	23.3	21.2	5.7
	Recently Married	9	0.0	88.9	11.1	0.0
	Married	207	21.7	47.3	26.1	4.8
	Recently Sep/Wid/Div	37	13.5	67.6	13.5	5.4
	Sep/Wid/Div	26	15.4	65.4	19.2	0.0
Parental Status (p<.0001)	Pre-parental	288	45.8	27.1	21.5	5.6
	Preschool Child	28	28.6	39.3	21.4	10.7
	Child Enters School	29	37.9	51.7	10.3	0.0
	Child in School	44	29.6	52.3	13.6	4.6
	Child Leaves Home	32	21.9	65.6	12.5	0.0
Post-parental	103	4.8	55.3	35.0	4.8	
Occupation (p<.0001)	High School Student	36	58.3	11.1	27.8	2.8
	College Student	93	64.5	14.0	17.2	4.3
	Recently Unemployed	75	44.0	36.0	12.0	8.0
	Unemployed	208	23.6	54.8	15.4	6.2
	Full-time Employed	72	18.1	34.7	44.4	2.8
	Recently Retired	17	0.0	58.8	41.2	0.0
Retired	23	0.0	52.2	47.8	0.0	
Situational Stability (p<.05)	No Recent Life Event	148	41.2	30.4	23.6	4.7
	Recent Life Event	376	30.6	42.6	21.8	5.1

5.3.2 Age

In contrast, the age of the respondent was found to be highly associated with the types of explanations given. Younger persons (24 years old) were found considerably more likely to cite "Career Enhancement" reasons for volunteering, with 68.8% of those 18 and under and 60.1% of those 19 to 24 mentioning such explanations. In comparison, only 22.1% of those 40 to 59 years old and 0.0% of those over 59 mentioned "Career Enhancement" in their explanation for pursuing this course of action ($\chi^2=109.90$, d.f.=4, $p<.0001$).

On the other hand, the proportion of individuals giving "Situational-Compensation" reasons for joining tends to increase with age. Thus only 36.4% of those 18 and under cited "Situational-Compensation" reasons for joining whereas 64.7%, of those 25 to 39, 72.6% of those 40 to 59 and 67.4% of those 60 and older mentioned explanations of this sort ($\chi^2=28.69$, d.f.=4, $p<.0001$).

The dominant themes manifested in the overall explanation further emphasizes this relationship. "Career Enhancement" themes are most common among respondents 18 years and younger and progressively less often manifested as respondents become older. Conversely, "Situational-Compensation" themes are more prevalent as age increases reaching a peak among those 40 to 59 years old ($\chi^2=109.11$, d.f.=12, $p<.0001$).

Those 25 to 39 were most likely to show a diversity of explanation themes. This suggests that there may be a greater variety of reasons for becoming a volunteer at this stage in the life

cycle and partially explain the increased participation rate noted among individuals in these age categories (Carter, 1975; Curtis, 1971; Foskett, 1955; Hausknecht, 1962; Mayo, 1950; Payne, Payne & Reddy, 1972; Rose, 1960; Scott, 1957).

5.3.3 Marital Status

Since marital status and age were highly correlated ($\chi^2=84.61$, d.f.=12, $p<.001$), it is not surprising that similar trends were exhibited between marital status and the explanations for volunteering. Nevertheless, certain distinctive features were noted in this association which warrant comment.

For example, while single persons cited "Career Enhancement" reasons for joining 60.4% of the time, no other marital status group mentioned such reasons more than 30.0% of the time ($\chi^2=55.21$, d.f.=4, $p<.0001$). On the other hand, married and recently separated, widowed or divorced respondents were more likely to cite "Situational-Compensation" reasons for volunteering. This sort of explanation was particularly prevalent among persons recently married (88.9%) and those recently separated, widowed or divorced (91.9%) suggesting that voluntary action may be one method of coping with such changes.

5.3.4 Parental Stage

As with marital status, parental stage was highly correlated with age, a fact not surprising since age was employed in its construction. However, this variable provides a more informative

description of social background than age and accordingly its relationship with joining explanations is of considerable theoretical interest.

As might be anticipated, persons in the pre-parental stage (no children, less than 40 years old) gave "Career Enhancement" (56.9%) most often as a reason for joining, although this sort of explanation is still quite prevalent among individuals in the "Preschool Children" (46.4%), "Children Entering School (within one year)" (41.4%), and "Children All in School" (45.4%) stages ($\chi^2=23.69$, d.f.=5, $p<.001$). Persons with school aged children (68.2%) and those in the post-parental stage (69.9%) more often mentioned "Situational-Compensation" reasons for joining. This type of explanation is especially common among respondents reporting a recent departure of a child from home (81.3%) perhaps indicative of the "Empty Nest" syndrome (Cadoret, Winokur, Dorzab & Baker, 1972; Curlee, 1971; Oliver, 1977).

Parental stage was one of the few parameters to significantly covary with "Altruistic" reasons for joining ($\chi^2=11.04$, d.f.=5, $p<.05$). Thus persons in the post-parental stage of parenting gave "Altruistic" explanations (77.7%) and themes (35.0%) more often than any other group. This finding suggests that there is an increased tendency to volunteer in order to help others once individuals have completed raising their families.

5.3.5 Occupation

No individual social background characteristic exhibited a stronger association with the type of explanations given for volunteering than the occupation of the respondent. Occupation significantly moderated the proportion mentioning each of the three types of explanations ($\chi^2=125.35$, for "Career Enhancement"; $\chi^2=64.96$ for "Situational-Compensation"; and $\chi^2=20.96$ for "Altruistic" explanations; all significant at $p<.0001$) and was also highly associated with the overall explanation theme manifested ($\chi^2=150.59$, d.f.=18, $p<.0001$).

"Career Enhancement" explanations were most frequent among high school students (61.1%), persons recently unemployed (within six months of initiation) (60.0%), and especially college and university students (76.3%). On the other hand, "Situational-Compensation" explanations were most frequently given by persons who had recently retired (76.5%), persons without external employment (housewives, persons unemployed for more than six months) (73.6%), and rather interestingly, also by persons recently unemployed (70.7%). "Altruistic" explanations for joining were most frequent among persons with full-time jobs (81.9%), persons retiring recently (82.4%) and persons retired for more than one year (87.0%).

The strong association between this variable and the reasons for becoming a volunteer suggests that occupation profoundly influences the types of benefits sought through participation. Thus, respondents in the process of establishing their careers (i.e., students) use voluntary action as a method by which to assist these

career pursuits. Those without external employment tend to view participation as a means by which to meet people, combat boredom and possibly add meaning to their lives. And individuals with full-time jobs as well as those who have retired from the work force apparently find that volunteering affords them the opportunity to promote altruistic ideals.

It is of interest to note that most studies which have examined the association between occupations and leisure pursuits have failed to establish a significant relationship (Bacon, 1975; Cunningham, Montoye, Metzner & Keller, 1970; Frohlich, 1978; Grubb, 1975). Notwithstanding, the difference between these studies and the current analysis are understandable since previous investigations have only examined full-time employed individuals and have been primarily concerned with variations in participation frequency. Nevertheless, the results presented here indicate that when a broad range of occupations are considered and attention is given to the reasons for participation, a strong association is found.

5.3.6 Situational Stability/Instability

The association between life events and joining explanations is relatively weak in comparison to other social background factors. Individuals reporting eligible life events less often cited "Career Enhancement" reasons ($\chi^2=5.39$, d.f.=1, $p<.02$) and were more likely to give "Situational-Compensation" reasons ($\chi^2=8.04$, d.f.=1, $p<.05$), but the strength of these associations remain unimpressive relative to those found with variables such as age, marital status, occupation and parental stage.

5.3.7 Social Background Profiles

Because of the inherent confoundings of the various individual parameters of social background, the use of composite profiles to explore the relationship between social background and explanations for joining was of particular interest.

Table 5.4 presents the portion of individuals from each identified profile reporting the three types of explanations. The dominant explanation themes manifested by each group is provided in Table 5.5.

Inspection of these tables reveals a strong association between the reasons for volunteering and the social background profiles of the respondents. Individuals who were in the process of establishing their careers most often mentioned "Career Enhancement" explanations, including:

1. Single, female, high school students (63.2% mentioning and 60.5% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)
2. Single, female, college or university students (79.3% mentioning and 63.8% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)
3. Primarily single, male students (70.4% mentioning and 66.7% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)

On the other hand, individuals who gave "Situational-Compensation" reasons for undertaking voluntary action were more likely to have experienced major life events such as:

1. Married, unemployed females with child recently entering school (72.4% mentioned and 51.7% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)

2. Female parents, who had recently separated, divorced or been widowed (80.0% mentioning and 53.3% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)
3. Married, unemployed females reporting the recent departure of a child from home (81.3% mentioning, 65.6% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)
4. Married, post-parental females recently retiring from work (77.8% mentioning, 66.7% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)
5. Females in the post-parental stage reporting the recent death of a spouse, separation or divorce (100.0% mentioning, 71.4% manifesting this dominant explanation theme)

In addition, unemployed females also tended to give a preponderance of "Situational-Compensation" reasons for joining.

Finally, persons most likely to give "Altruistic" explanations for becoming volunteers tended to possess relatively stable social backgrounds (i.e., no life events) and typically report full-time jobs or having long retired from the work force. Included among these groups are:

1. Single, full-time employed females in the pre-parental stage (76.5% mentioning and 41.2% manifesting this dominant theme)
2. Married, full-time employed females in the pre-parental stage (100.0% mentioning and 57.1% manifesting this dominant theme)
3. Single, retired females in the post-parental stage (93.3% mentioning and 40.0% manifesting this dominant theme)
4. Married, retired males in the post-parental stage (86.7% mentioning, 60.0% manifesting this dominant theme).

TABLE 5.4 Percentage of each Demographic Cluster Giving the Three Types of Explanations for Joining.

Demographic Cluster	Frequency	Percentage Giving Explanation		
		Career Enhancement	Situational - Compensation	Altruism
Female, High School Students	38	63.2	28.9	68.4
Female, College Students	58	79.3	39.7	55.2
Female, Single, Unemployed	60	61.7	71.7	68.3
Female, Single, Employed	34	38.2	44.1	76.5
Female, Married, Pre-parental, Unemployed	14	35.7	78.6	47.9
Female, Married, Pre-parental, Employed	14	0.0	50.0	100.0
Female, Children at Home, Unemployed	16	31.2	68.8	62.5
Female, Child Enters School, Unemployed	29	41.4	72.4	62.1
Female, Children, Recently Wid/Sep/Div	15	60.0	80.0	44.4
Female, Married, Children in School, Unemployed	35	42.9	65.7	77.1
Female, Married, Child Left Home, Unemployed	32	31.2	81.3	56.3
Female, Married, Post-parental, Unemployed	37	13.5	64.9	64.9
Female, Married, Recently Retired	9	0.0	77.8	77.8
Female, Post-parental, Recently Sep/Wid/Div	14	14.3	100.0	78.6
Female, Post-parental, Single, Retired	15	0.0	66.7	93.3
Male, Single, Pre-parental, Students	26	70.4	29.6	55.6
Male, Single, Pre-parental, Unemployed	13	46.1	69.2	84.6
Male, Full-time Employed	11	36.4	63.7	81.8
Male, Married, Retired	15	0.0	53.3	86.7

TABLE 5.5 Percentage of Each Demographic Cluster Manifesting each Dominant Explanation Theme.

Demographic Cluster	Frequency	Dominant Explanation Theme			
		Career Enhancement	Situational-Compensation	Altruism	Undefined
Female High School Students	38	60.5	15.8	23.7	0.0
Female, College Students	58	63.8	15.5	15.5	5.2
Female, Single Unemployed	60	43.3	36.7	10.0	10.0
Female, Single Employed	34	35.3	20.6	41.2	2.9
Female, Married Pre-parental, Unemployed	14	21.4	71.4	7.1	0.0
Female, Married Pre-parental, Employed	14	0.0	42.9	57.1	0.0
Female, Children at Home, Unemployed	16	12.5	43.8	31.2	12.5
Female, Child Enters School, Unemployed	29	37.9	51.7	10.3	0.0
Female, Children Recently Wid/Sep/Div	15	20.0	53.3	20.0	6.7
Female, Married Children in School, Unemployed	35	31.4	48.6	14.3	5.7
Female, Married Child Left Home, Unemployed	32	21.9	65.6	12.5	0.0
Female, Married Post-parental, Unemployed	37	10.8	54.1	29.7	5.4
Female, Married Recently Retired	9	0.0	66.7	33.3	0.0
Female, Post-parental Recently Sep/Wid/Div	14	7.1	71.4	14.3	7.1
Female, Post-parental Single, Retired	15	0.0	60.0	40.0	0.0
Male, Single Pre-parental, Students	26	66.7	7.4	22.2	3.7
Male, Single Pre-parental, Unemployed	13	30.8	38.5	7.7	23.1
Male, Employed	11	9.1	45.5	36.4	9.1
Male, Married, Retired	15	0.0	33.3	60.0	6.7

Altogether, the variations in the proportions giving each type of explanation and displaying each dominant explanation theme were found highly significant ($\chi^2=143.86$ for "Career Enhancement"; $\chi^2=72.83$ for "Situational-Compensation"; $\chi^2=42.16$ for "Altruism"; and $\chi^2=171.36$ for the dominant explanation theme; all chi-square values significant at $p<.001$; see Note 6).

5.3.8 A Comparison of Association Strength

Table 5.6 summarizes the results of these analyses showing the degree of relationship between each social background parameter and the overall explanation theme. This table also provides two further indices of association, specifically Cramer's V and the Index of Predictive Association (see Note 7).

Inspection of Table 5.6 shows that the strongest association existed between the composite social background profiles and the dominant explanation theme. However, the strength of this association was only marginally superior to that observed with individual background attributes (e.g., occupation) and it must be concluded that the application of the Configuration Approach did not appreciably enhance the association between social background characteristics and the reasons for volunteering beyond that possible with individual characteristics alone.

Among the individual dimensions of social background, occupation displayed the strongest association with the dominant explanation theme, although marital status, age and parental stage

TABLE 5.6 Log Likelihood Ratio Chi-square and Various Measures of Association Between Demographic Characteristics and Dominant Explanation Theme.

Demographic Variable	Likelihood Ratio χ^2 d.f. (p-value)	Cramer's V	Index of Predictive Association (Lambda)
Sex	9.10 d.f. = 3 (p < .03)	.14	.01
Age Category	109.11 d.f. = 12 (p < .0001)	.25	.20
Marital Status	85.01 d.f. = 12 (p < .0001)	.23	.22
Parental Stage	98.89 d.f. = 15 (p < .0001)	.23	.18
Occupation	150.60 d.f. = 18 (p < .0001)	.30	.26
Situational Stability	7.83 d.f. = 3 (p < .05)	.12	.05
Demographic Profiles	171.34 d.f. = 36 (p < .0001)	.41	.29

were also found to be highly related. In fact, only the sex of the respondent and antecedent situational stability failed to appreciably covary with the reason for volunteering.

5.4 General Discussion

The results of this inquiry provide compelling support for the hypothesized association between social background and the reasons for becoming a volunteer. In almost every instance examined, the social background characteristics significantly moderated the reason for pursuing this course of action.

While it is important not to over generalize these trends, the following associations summarize the most salient patterns in these data. Young initiators, who are usually single and in the process of establishing their careers, typically undertake voluntary action as a means to further career objectives. Individuals recently experiencing disruptions in their normal routine as a result of changes in marital status, child rearing responsibilities or retirement more often initiate voluntary action in order to meet people, relieve boredom, fill in spare time and compensate for perceived inadequacies in their current situations. A less pronounced, but similar trend is noted among unemployed females.

Finally, while most initiators mention altruistic reasons for volunteering, only retired or full-time employed respondents with stable social backgrounds were noted to accentuate the altruistic

purpose of their actions in their explanations for joining. This outcome may denote that an established life style and the absence of pressing situational exigencies may provide the optimal conditions for the pursuit of altruistic ideals.

This inquiry has gone further than any previous study to document the association between social background and the reasons for becoming a volunteer. What was observed indicates that such factors appear to considerably affect the characteristics of such endeavors found appealing. Future research efforts should extend these findings by employing psychological indices of social background, such as the amount of social contact typically experienced and the availability of time, which will better delineate the exigencies of the initiator's situation. Through such research, it may be possible to better understand the mechanisms linking social background with the decision to become a volunteer.

Notes:

1. The precise wording of the question asking respondents why they had volunteered differed somewhat between the three interview schedules. The 101 participants of the two university based service organizations were asked:

"Personally, what do you think you will get out of participating in the activities of this association?"

The 103 volunteer bureau contacters interviewed between November, 1977 and March, 1978 were asked:

"For the final question, would you tell us in your own words, why you decided to become a volunteer?"

Finally the 320 volunteer bureau contacters interviewed between November, 1979 and April, 1980 were asked:

"What would you say were the reasons for your decision to become a volunteer?"

Whether these variations in question phrasing affected the responses given is difficult to discern particularly in view of the differences in the demographic composition of the three samples. However, it was noted that respondents mentioned a different number of reasons for joining with the university-based volunteers, and the first and second sample of volunteer bureau contacters giving an average of 3.85, 3.31 and 3.08 reasons for volunteering respectively ($F=24.95$, $d.f.=2,521$, $p<.0001$). However, because the explanations were categorized prior to analysis and most respondents gave explanations from the same category, this difference was not considered to have introduced any serious bias.

2. The precise wording of the question used to assess whether a life event had recently transpired varied between the three interview schedules. The 101 university-based organization volunteers responded to the question:

"Did anything in your situation change around the time [you decided to join]?"

Respondents in the first volunteer bureau sample were asked:

"Has anything in your lifestyle or situation changed recently which might have resulted in your having more or less free time?"

This question was accompanied with a list of seven types of life events these being:

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (1) Marital Status | (2) Family Responsibilities |
| (3) Job Demands | (4) Health |
| (5) Place of Residence | (6) Commuting Time |
| (7) Other | |

The 320 volunteer bureau contacters comprising the third sample were asked:

"Have any of the following things changed in your life or situation which might have resulted in your having more or less free time?"

This question was followed by a list of possible changes these being:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| (1) Marital or Romantic Status | (4) Family Health |
| (2) Parental or Family Responsibilities | (5) Personal Health |
| (3) Job or Job Demands | (6) Place Where You Lived |

The extent to which these variations altered the measures of life events is difficult to fully assess given the demographic composition variations between the three samples. It was observed that the proportion of respondents mentioning life events differed between the three samples, with the university-based volunteers and the first and second volunteer bureau samples reporting life events 92.1%, 71.8% and 65.6% of the time respectively ($\chi^2=26.5$, d.f.=2, $p<.0001$). It was also noted that the university-based organization respondents, who were primarily student volunteers, mentioned considerably less major life events; but this trend is consistent with the students interviewed at the volunteer bureau.

3. The distinction between pre-parental and post-parental stages is based on the assumption that births after the age of 39 are unlikely. It does not necessarily reflect the respondent's actual intentions on this matter.
4. Unemployment refers to lack of external employment and includes persons reporting occupations of "unemployed" and "housewife".
5. The formula for computing the loglikelihood ratio chi-square is as follows:

$$\chi^2 = 2N \ln N + 2 \sum_{j=1}^c \sum_{k=1}^r n_{jk} \ln(n_{jk}) - 2 \sum_{j=1}^c n_{.j} \ln(n_{.j}) - 2 \sum_{k=1}^r n_{.k} \ln(n_{.k})$$

where:

N = the total number of observations

- c = the number of columns in the matrix
- r = the number of rows in the matrix
- n_j = the number of observations in the j th column
- n_k = the number of observations in the k th row
- n_{jk} = the number of observations in the jk th cell

The calculated value is assessed for chi-square with $(r-1)(c-1)$ degrees of freedom. For large N's, the loglikelihood ratio χ^2 becomes equivalent to the ordinary Pearson χ^2 test. However, for moderately large samples, or for tests involving a large number of cells in the matrix relative to the sample size, the loglikelihood ratio χ^2 is considered a more powerful statistical test (Hays, 1963; Mood & Graybill, 1963).

6. The cross-tabulations between the nineteen social background profiles and the three categories of dominant themes results in a somewhat spare table with several cells containing less than five observations. Application of the chi-square test results in more than 25% of the cells having expected values below 5.0 and as such this test should be interpreted with some caution.
7. The "Index of Predictive Association" is an asymmetrical measure which gauges the extent to which knowledge of the independent variable reduces the probability of classification error beyond that possible with the modal category alone. The formula for this index is as follows:

$$\text{Lambda} = \frac{\sum \text{Max over } k \text{ } f_{jk} - \text{Max } f_{.k}}{N - \text{max } f_{.k}}$$

where: $\sum \text{max } f_{jk}$ = the sum of the cells in each row which contain the largest number of observations

$\text{max } f_{.k}$ = the number of observations in the modal category for the dependent variable

N = the total number of observations

CHAPTER SIX

The Role of Social Encouragement in the Decision to Volunteer

6.0 Abstract

Although it has long been known that many individuals are asked to volunteer, relatively little is known concerning which types of initiators are most likely to receive this sort of encouragement. In this study, the type and amount of encouragement received by various types of voluntary action initiators is examined. The results indicate that more social encouragement tends to be received by young, single, student, unemployed, and less well educated initiators. Persons reporting no prior volunteer experience and no antecedent life events were especially likely to have been persuaded to join. Stepwise multiple linear regression analysis revealed that the respondents' prior volunteer experience, age and situational stability were the best predictors of the amount of encouragement received. Together these variables accounted for 21.6% of the variance in an ordinal index of such influence. These findings are discussed in terms of the role suggested for social encouragement in the decisions of certain types of individuals to volunteer.

6. The Role of Social Encouragement in the Decision to Volunteer

6.1 Introduction

In the first two investigations, attention was directed to the reasons given by individuals for becoming a volunteer. This sort of study tends to foster the impression that voluntary action is a self-initiated behavioral strategy undertaken to achieve particular objectives. While such an impression is appropriate for some volunteers, it is also well established that many others only decide to volunteer after being encouraged. For example, Nova Carter's 1975 survey of Canadian volunteers found that 75.9% were first "directed" to voluntary action by friends (37.2%), family (22.7%) or workmates (8.7%). Similarly, Adams (1980) observed that 83% of the Red Cross volunteers he interviewed had received some form of social encouragement to join. Comparable results have been reported in other studies of service volunteers (Babchuk & Gordon, 1962; Hardley & Farrell, 1975; La Cour, 1977; Levens, 1968) as well as studies of different types of volunteers (Almond & Verba, 1963; Althoff & Brady, 1972; Bronfenbrenner, 1960; Erbe, 1964; Lipset, 1960; Milbrath, 1965; Olsen, 1976; Verba & Nie, 1972).

Although few dispute the importance of social encouragement as a common precipitator of voluntary action, virtually nothing is known regarding when this external influence is likely to be received.

In fact, only one investigation could be found which offers insight as to who is most likely to be encouraged to volunteer (Olsen, 1976). In this study, Olsen sought to identify the ways individuals became involved in the activities of political parties. Using path analyses, he determined that individuals with no prior volunteer experience or family history of political action were particularly likely to have been solicited to join by members of the political party. This outcome suggests that persons not previously acquainted with such organizations and their activities may require encouragement before contemplating participation.

While Olsen's investigation represents a good beginning, there remains much to be learned about the kinds of volunteers most often encouraged to participate. For example, it is not known whether the amount of encouragement customarily received covaries with the sex, age, education or the marital status of the volunteer. It is also unknown whether the reason for volunteering and/or other circumstances associated with initiation moderate the necessity of this external persuasion.

Nevertheless, this kind of information is important for at least two reasons. First, by identifying who is most often encouraged to participate, it will be possible to better understand the ways in which different types of individuals become volunteers. As previously argued, increased cognizance of individual differences in the determinants of voluntary action is essential if the motivational bases

of this complex phenomenon are to be fully elucidated.

Secondly, research of this sort could reveal other factors which promote voluntary action. Thus, by determining which attributes and circumstances distinguish encouraged volunteers from those not receiving encouragement, factors which motivate voluntary action and reduce the need for this sort of inducement may become apparent.

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Subjects

Participants in this study were a sample of 423 individuals who had contacted a local volunteer bureau between either November, 1977 and March, 1978 or October, 1979 and April, 1980 in order to seek a referral to a voluntary service organization (see Note 1). The sample was predominantly female (87.0%) with an average age of 34.7 years and were quite heterogeneous with respect to their marital status, occupation and formal education. Additional details about these respondents may be found in Section 3.6.2.

6.2.2 Measurement of Volunteer Type

As part of a larger data collection effort, details concerning the individual's sex, age, marital status, current occupation, formal education and number of dependents were obtained. These data were

employed to distinguish different types of initiators and were divided into two general categories:

1. Ascribed Status Variables
 - a. Sex (male; female)
 - b. Age (18 and under; 19 to 24; 25 to 39; 40 to 59; 60 and over)
2. Achieved Status Variables
 - a. Marital Status (single; married; separated/divorced/widowed)
 - b. Occupation (student; unemployed; housewife; full-time employed; retired)
 - c. Education Level (did not complete high school; high school graduate; at least some post-secondary education)
 - d. Parental Status (no children or elderly dependents; children or elderly dependents)

Individuals were also asked about their prior and current participation in volunteer service organizations. Employing this information, three types of initiators were identified:

1. First time joiners - if the respondent reported no prior or current involvement in a volunteer service organization
2. Joiners with some prior experience - if the respondent reported only one prior and no current memberships in a volunteer service organization
3. Active volunteers and individuals with much prior experience - if the respondent reported two or more prior affiliations and/or one or more current memberships in a service organization (see Note 2)

Respondents were further asked whether any life events had recently transpired which had altered the amount of discretionary time available. Three types of joiners were distinguished with this information:

1. Persons reporting no life events (within the eligible time frames)
2. Persons reporting a "Minor" life event (within 6 months of initiation) or schedule readjustments (with 3 months of initiation) (e.g., changes in residence; temporary leaves of absence from school; loss of employment; beginning or ending school term; loss of part-time job)
3. Persons reporting a "Major" life event (within one year of initiation) (e.g., death of spouse; separation; divorce; birth of child; child entering school; child leaving home; retirement; graduation from school; major illnesses, operations or accidents)

The distinction between "Minor" and "Major" life events was based on the apparent severity of the event as indicated by the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) and whether the event signified a somewhat permanent change (major) as opposed to a temporary change (minor) in the life of the individual. Further details concerning the measurement and construction of this parameter are found in Section 5.2.3.

One additional factor used to differentiate initiators was the reason for volunteering. The "Dominant Explanation Theme" (see Section 5.2.2) was employed for this purpose with three reasons for undertaking this course of action distinguished:

1. Career Enhancement
2. Situational-Compensation
3. Altruism

If the respondent gave no reason for volunteering or reasons which could not be classified into any of the three categories, the dominant

explanation theme was considered "Undefined". Similarly, if no single personal objective was accentuated in the explanation, the theme was treated as "Undefined".

6.2.3 Construction of the Social Encouragement Index

The extent to which respondents received social encouragement to participate prior to seeking a referral was determined using the responses to three questions (see Note 3):

1. How did you first learn about the volunteer bureau?
2. Were you encouraged or asked to become a volunteer?
... and if "YES" ...
3. Would you have contacted the bureau without this encouragement?
 Definitely Yes
 Probably Yes
 Don't Know
 Probably No
 Definitely No

Utilizing the responses to these questions, a social encouragement index was constructed with the following scoring rationale:

1. If individuals sought out information about the bureau or had known about the bureau through prior knowledge and also did not report being encouraged, a score of "1" was assigned. In such instances the decision to volunteer was considered "Self-Inspired".
2. If individuals learned about the bureau through the media (radio, television or newspapers) or from friends, family or others, but did not report being encouraged, a score of "2" was awarded. Such persons were referred to as

"Media Inspired" since they had received information which may have influenced their decision to contact the voluntary bureau, but were not actually encouraged to become involved.

3. If individuals were encouraged, but felt they probably or definitely would have contacted the bureau without this encouragement, a score of "3" was given. Persons in this category were considered to have been "Socially Supported" in their decision to become involved.
4. Finally, if respondents reported being encouraged, and considered it unlikely that they would have contacted the bureau without this encouragement (i.e., response of "don't know", "probably not" or "definitely not" to question 3), the score "4" was assigned. Such individuals were considered to have been "Persuaded" to become volunteers.

Because these questions ask about the circumstances which directed the individual to voluntary action, the constructed variable will be referred to as the "Recruitment Episode". All four Recruitment Episodes were well represented in the sample with 10.9% of the initiations "Self-Inspired", 25.3% "Media Inspired", 23.4% "Socially Supported", and 19.9% "Persuaded".

6.3 Analysis

To assess the extent to which certain types of Recruitment Episodes were associated with particular kinds of initiators, cross-tabulations were performed between the encouragement index and the respondents' sex, age, marital status, occupation, dependents and formal education (see Table 6.1). This index was also

TABLE 6.1 Percentage Reporting each Type of Recruitment Episode by Various Demographic Characteristics.

Variable	Group	N	% Reporting Each Recruitment Episode				χ^2 (p - Value)	Mean of Encr. Index (See Note)	F-ratio (p-value)	
			Self- Inspired	Media Inspired	Socially Suppt'd	Persuaded				
Sex	Female	368	10.6	45.9	23.4	20.1	$\chi^2 = 1.50$ (N.S.)	2.53	F = .42	
	Male	55	12.7	38.2	23.6	25.5		2.62	(N.S.)	
Age	Under 19	61	6.6	16.4	31.1	45.9	$\chi^2 = 58.48$ (p<.0001)	3.16	F = 12.38	
	19 to 24	100	10.0	36.0	26.0	28.0		2.72	(p<.0001)	
	25 to 39	115	13.0	51.3	26.1	9.6		2.32		
	40 to 59	109	10.1	57.3	16.5	15.6		2.38		
	Over 59	38	15.8	57.9	15.8	10.5		2.21		
Marital Status	Single	180	11.7	30.6	26.7	31.1	$\chi^2 = 32.83$ (p<.0001)	2.77	F = 16.74	
	Married	195	9.7	56.9	20.5	12.8		2.36	(p<.0001)	
	Wid/Sep/Div	48	12.5	50.0	22.9	14.6		2.40		
Dependents	No	332	11.1	41.6	24.1	23.2	$\chi^2 = 8.04$ (p<.01)	2.59	F= 4.56	
	Yes	90	10.0	56.7	21.1	12.2		2.36	(p<.04)	
Occupation	Student	58	6.9	25.9	25.9	41.4	$\chi^2 = 54.70$ (p<.0001)	3.02	F = 9.18	
	Unemployed	120	11.7	36.7	20.0	31.7		2.72	(p<.0001)	
	Housewife	141	10.6	58.2	20.6	10.6		2.31		
	Full-time Emp	68	8.8	42.6	36.8	11.8		2.51		
	Retired	36	19.4	55.6	16.7	8.3		2.14		
Education	H.S. Partial	165	4.2	38.8	27.3	29.7	$\chi^2 = 27.11$ (p<.0003)	2.82	F = 12.43	
	H.S. Grad.	122	13.1	50.8	20.5	15.6		2.39	(p<.0001)	
	Some Post-									
	Secondary	128	16.4	46.9	21.9	14.8		2.35		

Note: Higher scores denote more external influence in Recruitment Episode.

cross-tabulated with prior volunteer experience, situational stability and the dominant explanation theme (see Table 6.2). In addition, mean social encouragement index scores were computed for each level of the nine predictor variables. Recall that higher scores in this index denote that more social persuasion was received. The results of these analyses were illuminating.

Of the six demographic attributes examined, five significantly covaried with the type and amount of social encouragement reported, these being the respondents' age ($\chi^2=58.5$, d.f.=12, $p<.0001$), marital status ($\chi^2=32.8$, d.f.=6, $p<.0001$), occupation ($\chi^2=54.7$, d.f.=12, $p<.0001$), formal education ($\chi^2=27.1$, d.f.=6, $p<.0003$), and parental status ($\chi^2=8.0$, d.f.=3, $p<.05$). In fact, only the sex of the initiator appeared unrelated to the Recruitment Episode.

Individuals most likely to have considered the encouragement received crucial in their deliberation were young (under 19: 45.9%; 19 to 24: 28.0%), students (41.4%), unemployed (31.7%) and single (31.1%). On the other hand, those over 25 years old (12.2%); married (12.8%), separated, divorced or widowed (14.6%); housewives (10.6%), full-time employed (11.8%) or retired (8.3%); and those with dependents (12.2%), least often reported being "Persuaded" to join.

While comparatively few individuals indicated that their decision was "Self-Inspired" (10.9%), this type of Recruitment Episode was most prevalent among those over 59 years old (15.8%), retired (19.4%) and respondents with at least some post-secondary education

TABLE 6.2 Percentage Reporting each Type of Recruitment Episode by Initiation Circumstances and Joining Explanation.

Variable	Group	N	Percentage Reporting each Type of Recruitment Episode				χ^2 (p - Value)	Mean Encr. Index (see note)	F-ratio (p-value)
			Self- Inspired	Media Inspired	Socially Suppt'd	Persuaded			
Prior Experience in: Service Organizations:	First Join	230	5.2	40.4	23.9	30.4	$\chi^2 = 51.70$ (p<.0001)	2.80	F = 24.95 (p<.0001)
	Some Prior	83	9.6	48.2	28.9	13.3		2.46	
	Much Prior or Current	110	23.6	51.8	18.2	6.4		2.07	
Life Events	Stable	139	7.2	36.0	27.3	29.5	$\chi^2 = 25.94$ (p<.0001)	2.79	F = 10.74 (p<.0001)
	Minor Change	145	13.1	40.7	24.1	22.1		2.55	
	Major Change	139	12.2	58.3	18.7	10.8		2.28	
Dominant Explanation Theme	Career Enhancement	129	9.3	41.9	24.0	24.8	$\chi^2 = 13.74$ (p<.15)	2.64	F = 2.39 (p<.05)
	Situational Compensation	175	8.6	50.3	21.7	19.4		2.52	
	Altruism	98	17.3	43.9	23.5	15.3		2.37	
	Undefined	21	9.5	23.8	33.3	33.3		2.90	

Note: Higer scores denote more external influence in Recruitment Episode.

(16.4%). In contrast, persons under 19 years of age (6.6%), students (6.9%) and especially those who had not completed high school (4.2%) seldom reported "Self-Inspired" Recruitment Episodes.

Joiners who had recently experienced major life events were also unlikely to report having been "Persuaded" to participate ($\chi^2=25.9$, d.f.=6, $p<.0001$). In fact, such respondents reported indispensable encouragement only 10.8% of the time, whereas those experiencing minor life events or no life events reported having been "Persuaded" 22.1% and 29.5% of the time respectively.

Of the variables examined, none was a better predictor of the Recruitment Episode than the prior volunteer experience of the respondents ($\chi^2=51.7\%$, d.f.=6, $p<.0001$). Persons undertaking this course of action for the first time were particularly likely to have been "Persuaded" to volunteer (30.4%) and rarely (5.2%) reported "Self-Inspired" Recruitment Episodes. By comparison, currently participating individuals and those with much prior volunteer experience frequently (23.6%) reported "Self-Inspired" Recruitment Episodes and rarely (6.4%) considered the social encouragement received crucial in their deliberations.

Finally, the reasons given for becoming a volunteer, as reflected by the dominant explanation theme, proved to be a comparatively weak predictor of the amount and type of social encouragement received ($\chi^2=13.74$, d.f.=9, $p<.15$). Apparently, the Recruitment Episode is not associated with the reasons for initiating voluntary action.

Undoubtedly, some of the above trends are attributable to second-order correlations. For example, younger respondents are typically students or unemployed, tend to be single, and are more likely to be volunteering for the first time. As will be recalled, these types of initiators are likely to report having been "Persuaded" to volunteer. On the other hand, mature individuals are likely to possess attributes commonly associated with an absence of encouragement to participate such as prior volunteer experience, dependents and more formal education (see Chapter Five). It is thus necessary to disentangle these inherent confoundings in order to determine which factors covary most with the degree of social inducement reported.

With this objective in mind, a series of stepwise multiple linear regression analyses were performed regressing the social encouragement index score on the four classes of predictor variables (Ascribed Status, Achieve Status, Recruitment Circumstances, Explanation for Joining). Adjusted R-squares were used as a gauge of the influence each group of factors exerted on the necessity of social encouragement (see Note 4). Since no a priori assumptions were possible concerning the association between social encouragement and the respondents' age, marital status, occupation, education, or reason for joining, these variables were converted into dummy vectors prior to analyses. However, the ordinal character of the prior volunteer experience and life event severity indices were of

theoretical interest and therefore retained in their original form. Employing these data, three separate regression analyses were conducted.

The first was undertaken to assess the predictive value of each of the four classes of variables. The results of this analysis are presented in the first four columns of Table 6.3. Examination of the adjusted R-squares reveals that the "Initiation Circumstances" (prior volunteer experience, antecedent life events) were the best predictors of the amount of social encouragement received accounting for 14.8% of the variance in this index ($F=37.6$, $d.f.=2,420$, $p<.0001$). Following this, Achieved Status (occupation, education, marital status, parental status) and Ascribed Status (sex, age) exhibited the strongest association with this index explaining 9.3% and 7.2% of the variance respectively. Finally, the dominant explanation theme was the least predictive of the amount of social encouragement received accounting for only 1.8% of the variance.

To assess the extent to which each class of variables exerted a unique effect on the social encouragement index, semi-partial R-squares were computed after statistically controlling for each of the other variable groups. Determining the "unique" variance explained by a class of variables is recommended as an effective strategy by which to disambiguate the effects of numerous highly intercorrelated factors (Kerlinger & Pedhazor, 1973). The results of this analysis are displayed in the last two columns of Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3 Results of Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression Analyses Examining the Degree of Association Between Various Classes of Predictor Variables and the Amount of External Influence Received.

Variable Class	Multiple R	Adjusted R ²	Regression Equation F-Ratio d.f. (p - Value)	Variables in Regression Equation (Beta)	Unique Variance (Semi-partial R ²)	Semi-partial F-Ratio d.f. (p-value)
Ascribed Status (sex, age)	.272	.072	F = 33.67 d.f. = 1,421 (p < .0001)	1. 18 & Under vs. Older (.27)	-	-
Achieved Status (occupation, education, marital status, dependents)	.312	.093	F = 22.64 d.f. = 2,420 (p < .0001)	1. No High School Degree vs. Other (.23) 2. Single vs. Other (.20)	.018	F = 9.76 d.f. = 1,411 (p < .002)
Initiation Circumstances (prior history, life events)	.390	.148	F = 37.59 d.f. = 2,420 (p < .0001)	1. Prior Experience (-.32) 2. Life Events (-.21)	.075	F = 28.71 d.f. = 1,404 (p < .0001)
Dominant Explanation Theme (career, compensation, altruism, undefined)	.142	.018	F = 8.66 d.f. = 1,421 (p < .004)	1. Altruism vs. Personal (-.14)	.014	F = 7.35 d.f. = 1,405 (p < .008)
All Variables Combined	.486	.216	F = 11.54 d.f. = 3,419 (p < .0001)	1. Prior Experience (-.25) 2. 18 & Under vs. Older (.22) 3. Life Events (-.16)	-	-

This analysis revealed that only prior volunteer experience and antecedent life events explained an appreciable amount of unique variance after controlling for the other three classes of variables. The adjusted semi-partial R-square indicated that 7.5% of the variance was uniquely explained by this variable group (semi-partial $F=28.71$, $d.f.=1,404$, $p<.0001$). However, the Ascribed Status of respondents (semi-partial $F=9.76$, $d.f.=1,411$, $p<.002$) and the explanation for joining (semi-partial $F=7.35$, $d.f.=1,405$, $p<.003$) also accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance, albeit only a meager 1.8% and 1.4% respectively. Notwithstanding, this does demonstrate that these two factors exerted an independent influence upon the necessity of social encouragement not attributable to the other measured characteristics of the initiator.

Finally, stepwise regression was performed employing all variables simultaneously to identify those factors most associated with the amount of social encouragement received and to assess the predictive utility of the optimal combination of these variables. The results of this analysis are displayed in the bottom row of Table 6.3.

Three variables were entered and retained in the regression equation prior to exceeding the $p<.05$ entrance and retention criterion.

These were:

1. Prior volunteer experience (Beta=-.25)
2. Persons under 19 years old versus older respondents (Beta=.22)
3. Antecedent life events (Beta=-.16)

In combination, these three parameters accounted for 21.6% of the variance and yielded a highly significant regression equation ($F=11.54$, $d.f.=3,419$, $P<.0001$).

6.4 Discussion

These analyses suggest that the amount and type of social encouragement received varies appreciably for different types of initiators. Among those most likely to report having been "Persuaded" to volunteer were young (under 25 years old), student, unemployed, less educated, first time joiners and those with no antecedent life event. Conversely, those least often "Persuaded" to join were elderly initiators (over 59 years of age), retired, respondents with some post-secondary education and persons recently experiencing major life events. Joiners with concomitant participation as well as veterans of such pursuits were especially unlikely to identify social encouragement as influential.

Stepwise multiple linear regression analyses revealed that prior experience in volunteer activities, age and the antecedent situational stability were the best predictors of the intensity of encouragement reported. However, semi-partial R-squared values computed after statistically controlling for alternative classes of variables indicated that the Ascribed Status of the initiator and the explanation for volunteering also exerted independent, albeit minor effects on the necessity of encouragement.

The relationship between the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the intensity of social inducement reported suggests that persons who are married, middle aged, and better educated, and who normally dominate the volunteer sector (Axelrod, 1956; Foskett, 1955; Hodge & Trieman, 1968; Hausknecht, 1962; Scott, 1957; Verba & Nie, 1972; Wright & Hyman, 1958) are also least likely to receive encouragement to participate. This outcome contradicts the notion that the traditional demographic profile of the volunteer sector is partially attributable to an increased likelihood that such individuals will be recruited by volunteer organizations (Bronfenbrenner, 1960; LaCour, 1977). On the contrary, the current findings suggest that dispositional factors endogenous to such persons (e.g., self-confidence, perceived obligation, awareness of voluntary action), or circumstances which enhance the perceived utility of such endeavors (e.g., lack of social contact) are more likely responsible for their over-representation among volunteers.

At the same time, it is important to note that the individuals in this study have approached voluntary action through an indirect channel (i.e., a volunteer bureau). It is therefore necessary to determine whether this same pattern emerges among persons who join organizations without this intermediate step before generalizing these results to other volunteers.

Younger initiators were particularly likely to have been "Persuaded" to participate. This finding may imply that young

persons are somewhat reluctant to become volunteers, perhaps reflecting a lack of civic responsibility at this age. On the other hand, this pattern may occur because younger persons are less aware of voluntary action, the methods by which to become involved, and the personal benefits which can be accrued through participation. If one function of social encouragement is to provide this vital information, it would be expected to be more prevalent among individuals normally lacking such knowledge.

The most unexpected outcome of this study was the relatively strong association between antecedent life events and the Recruitment Episode. Could this mean that life events produce exigencies which intensify the perceived attractiveness of participation and correspondingly reduce the need for encouragement; or does this pattern emerge because of a decrease in the amount of social contact experienced following life events, which reduces the probability that the decision to volunteer will be discussed with others? The fact that persons who experience certain major life events (e.g., changes in marital status or parental responsibilities), frequently mention a desire to meet people among their reasons for joining (Chapter Five), is consistent with this latter interpretation.

The single best predictor of the type of social encouragement received is the respondent's prior volunteer experience. Clearly those with current and/or extensive prior involvement receive, and apparently require less social encouragement to volunteer. This

association is in good agreement with Olsen's 1976 study of political activists.

The pronounced negative association between volunteer experience and encouragement suggests that these two factors may play a similar role in the decision to volunteer. For instance, both encouragement to join and volunteer participation may increase awareness of this behavioral course and accentuate the potential utility of such endeavors.

This pattern also suggests a developmental sequence in the typical career of volunteers. Thus, voluntary action may occur for the first time primarily when external factors promote such action. However, once the individual has engaged in such pursuits, future participation may be undertaken without encouragement to repeat the experience (see Note 5).

The study of the amount and type of social encouragement received by various types of initiators illustrates the individual variations apparent in the determinants of this phenomenon. Accordingly, research of this type underscores the importance of recognizing individual differences in the routes to voluntary action.

Notes:

1. The sample of 101 participants of the two university based organizations were excluded from these analyses because of the absence of certain crucial questions necessary to construct the social encouragement index.
2. The additional weight given to current memberships in the construction of the volunteer experience index was predicated upon the assumption that active involvement would likely exert a more pronounced impact upon the decision to volunteer than prior volunteer activities. This assumption is at least partially supported by the attitude change study reported in Chapter Eight of this thesis.
3. The precise question wording varied between the 1977-1978 and the 1979-1980 interview schedules. Those interviewed between November 1977 and March 1978 were asked:

"Did anyone suggest or encourage you to contact the volunteer bureau?"

... and if yes ...

"Do you think you would have contacted the bureau without the encouragement or suggestion?"

[Response Options 1. Yes, Definitely, 2. Probably, 3. Maybe, Don't Know, 4. Probably Not"]

Those interviewed between October 1979 and April, 1980 were asked the questions appearing in Section 6.2.3.

While it is unfortunate that identical questions were not employed, a comparison of the results obtained revealed no significant differences either in the proportion of individuals reporting encouragement (45.8% - 1977-78 versus 42.8% - 1979-80; $\chi^2=1.04$, d.f.=1, NS) or in the proportion stating they would probably or definitely not have contacted the bureau without this encouragement (22.3% - 1977-78 versus 20.3% 1979-80; $\chi^2=.20$, d.f.=1, NS). As such, the effects of these differences were thought to be inconsequential.

4. Adjusted R-square values are used in this study and all others in this thesis. This index adjusts the value of R-square when the number of independent variables becomes large relative to the number of observations in the sample. The formula for calculating the adjusted R-square is as follows:

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = R^2 - \frac{(K-1)}{(N-K)} (1 - R^2)$$

where: R^2 = unadjusted R^2
K = the number of independent variables in the regression equation (Note: $K \text{ min}=2$)
N = the number of observations in the sample

When N is much larger than K, the adjusted R-square approximates the unadjusted R-square value. The adjusted R-square is considered a more conservative gauge of the proportion of variance explained than the unadjusted R-square.

5. The strong negative association between prior volunteer experience and encouragement to join may also be due to the existence of two decidedly different types of volunteers. The first type joins because they possess relatively enduring beliefs that such action is worthwhile and tend to have had a long history of community service in such organizations. For this type of volunteer, encouragement may be somewhat unnecessary. The second type of volunteer joins to achieve a personal objective or due to situational exigencies and requires social encouragement in order to reinforce the belief that the sought after benefit will be obtained. If these two types of volunteers do exist, no developmental sequence will emerge. However, had this been responsible for the negative association between prior experience and encouragement, it would have been expected that a stronger association would exist between the explanation for volunteering and the Recruitment Episode.

PART III

Attitudes and Voluntary Action

PART III

Attitudes and Voluntary Action

General Overview

One common technique employed to study why people volunteer has been to assess how participators differ from non-participators. To this end, an impressive array of investigations have compared volunteers with non-volunteers with respect to a myriad of characteristics such as social background factors (Hyman & Wright, 1971; Palisi & Jacobsen, 1977; Scott, 1957), normative beliefs (Brown, 1953; Carr & Roberts, 1965), early childhood/adolescent volunteer experiences (Fendrich, 1974; Hollingshead, 1949; Kelly, 1974; Smith, 1974), extensiveness of social network (Babchuk & Booth, 1969; Edwards, White & Owens, 1977; Jacoby, 1965; Laumann, 1966; Milbrath, 1965; Rose, 1959; Scott, 1957), knowledge concerning community affairs (Lewellen, 1976; Steinberger, 1981; Sykes, 1957) and personality characteristics (Bernard, Hecht, Schwartz, Levy & Schiele, 1950; Browning & Jacob, 1964; Milbrath & Klein, 1962).

Included among such investigations are those which have sought to determine whether volunteers possess attitudes which are different from those of non-active individuals (Beal, 1956; Bronfenbrenner, 1960; Freedman, Novak & Reeder, 1957; Gough,

1952; Herman, 1976; Larson & Cotton, 1961; Levens, 1968; Magill, 1973; Philips, 1967; Rogers, 1971; Rose, 1959; Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973; Zurcher, 1970). Three of these inquiries are particularly noteworthy in this regard.

The first is a study by Townsend (1973) who assessed the extent to which attitudes toward voluntary action could be used to predict volunteer participation. Using multiple linear regression, Townsend found that attitudes were moderately good predictors of the number of memberships reported accounting for 18.5% of the variance in this indicator.

In another study, Rogers (1971) regressed an index of behavioral commitment to a farmer's cooperative on measures of the respondent's attitudes toward the cooperative (i.e., specific attitudes) and voluntary action in general (i.e., general attitudes). Consistent with Townsend's study, Rogers observed that attitudes were good predictors of the degree of behavioral commitment reported with 34.0% of the variance explained by specific attitudes and 12.9% of the variance accounted for by general attitudes toward volunteering.

However, the most impressive demonstration of the discriminating power of attitudes was reported by David Horton Smith in 1966. In this investigation, measures of both specific and general attitudes toward volunteering were obtained from a sample of 81 Chilean volunteers and a matched sample of inactive individuals. Employing stepwise multiple linear regression, Smith demonstrated that attitudes toward the specific organization of membership and attitudes

toward voluntary action in general explained 59.0% and 42.0% of the variance respectively in a binary dependent variable (i.e., active versus not active). Smith's outcome is particularly impressive since the two samples were matched prior to analysis for sex, age, marital status and occupational prestige, thus removing any effects attributable to such factors.

Although these studies show that active volunteers possess attitudes clearly distinguishable from non-volunteers, they yield relatively little insight concerning the role played by attitudes in the decision to volunteer. In fact, there are at least five different hypotheses which could explain these observed cross-sectional differences:

1. The Selective Attraction Hypothesis
2. The Selective Recruitment Hypothesis
3. The Rationalization Hypothesis
4. The Selective Attrition Hypothesis
5. The Participation Hypothesis

Of these hypotheses, none assigns a more important role to attitudes in the decision to volunteer than the Selective Attraction Hypothesis (Herman, 1976). This hypothesis contends that cross-sectional attitudinal differences emerge because individuals with positive attitudes toward volunteering are more likely to be attracted to this course of action. It is clear that many writers favour the Selective Attraction Hypothesis in their interpretation of these attitudinal differences (Black, 1957; Herman, 1976; Martin & Siegal,

1953; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972). However, there exists no evidence to either support or refute such a role for attitudes in the decision to become a volunteer.

A second, equally viable explanation of the observed attitudinal differences is offered by the Selective Recruitment Hypothesis. This hypothesis maintains that organizations often actively seek out and solicit persons possessing attitudes favourable to their cause. As a result, individuals with positive attitudes become over-represented among those who volunteer. Despite some evidence of selective recruitment by certain voluntary organizations (Bronfenbrenner, 1960; Erbe, 1964; Etzioni, 1961; Mulford, Klomglan, Beal & Bohlen, 1968), the extent to which this factor is responsible for the attitudinal differences between active and non-active individuals also remains unsubstantiated.

The belief that attitudes are relatively unstable psychological states has been advanced by several students of attitudes (Alwin, 1973; Fishbein, 1967; Katz, 1960; Schuman & Johnson, 1976; Schwartz, 1978; Schwartz & Tessler, 1972; Wicker, 1969). It is this conceptualization of attitudes which is the basis of the third explanation of these attitudinal differences namely the Rationalization Hypothesis. Consistent with the theoretical stance of Katz (1960), Bem (1972) and Festinger (1957), the Rationalization Hypothesis contends that attitudes are mere epiphenomena of the various cognitive processes undertaken to rationalize the decision to become a volunteer. As such, attitudes can be anticipated to possess little predictive value since they will only

become distinctively favourable during or after the decision to volunteer. In other words, the Rationalization Hypothesis suggests that attitudes play no role in the volunteer's deliberation.

It is perhaps surprising in light of the popularity this conceptualization of attitudes has enjoyed among social psychologists, to find relatively little mention of this possibility in the voluntary action literature (notable exceptions being LaCour, 1977 and Smith, 1980). Notwithstanding, this interpretation must remain a strong contender as an explanation of the attitudinal differences noted between active and non-participating individuals.

A fourth explanation of these differences has been advanced by Herman (1976) and is called the Selective Attrition Hypothesis. In this scheme, attitudes are not considered important in the decision to join, but are assigned an important role in the decision to continue participation once the activities have been initiated. As such, the Selective Attrition Hypothesis proposes that individuals possessing attitudes consistent with an organization's members will continue to participate, whereas those with attitudes incompatible with the group will tend to leave. Since cross-sectional designs over-represent persons who participate for longer durations, this produces the often observed difference in the attitudes of active and inactive individuals. The Selective Attrition Hypothesis is consistent with Pervin's (1968) Individual-Environment Fit model advanced to explain differential

performance and withdrawal by individuals across a variety of behavioral settings. If this hypothesis provides the best explanation of the attitudinal differences, it would be anticipated that attitudes will be more predictive of who leaves voluntary organizations than who is likely to undertake this course of action. Once again however, there is no unequivocal evidence to support this possibility.

One additional hypothesis advanced to explain the differences in the attitudes of volunteers and non-volunteers is the Participation Hypothesis (Gottesfeld & Dozier, 1966; Herman, 1976). Consistent with the name, this hypothesis postulates that gradual changes transpire in the attitudes of participants due to the socializing effects of participation. If this model is valid, attitudes should not predict voluntary action, but should exhibit gradual change as a function of participation duration.

While there is no evidence that participation effects are responsible for the attitudinal differences between active and non-active individuals, there are four studies which have examined the impact of participation on personality factors. Two of these (Gottesfeld & Dozier, 1966; Levens, 1968) compared measures of "Locus of Control" among novice and more seasoned members of voluntary organizations and in each instance found the more experienced volunteers to exhibit greater "internal" Locus of Control. This outcome was attributed to the effects of participation in the group. However, Herman (1976) argues that these studies did not offer an unequivocal demonstration of participation effects since such an out-

come is also entirely consistent with the Selective Attrition Hypothesis.

A third study conducted by Zurcher (1970) is not susceptible to this ambiguity. In this investigation, Zurcher obtained measures of ten selected personality attributes on two occasions separated by a seven month interval from 60 members of a voluntary organization. A comparison of the personality characteristics manifested at the two times showed significant changes in four of the ten measures among lower socio-economic status members, although no changes were noted among higher socio-economic status members. While this study did not measure the attitudes of the respondents, it remains to date the most compelling demonstration of participation effects. Nevertheless, a study by Herman (1976) with a similar type of volunteer (i.e., lower socio-economic status volunteers) and a similar research design, failed to replicate Zurcher's findings. As such, the circumstances under which participation effects tend to transpire remain unclear at this time. Of course, it is also unknown whether such effects are responsible for the attitudinal differences detected in cross-sectional investigations.

In conclusion, despite the considerable research effort directed to the study of the attitudes of volunteers, relatively little is known about the role these factors play in the decision to participate. This state of affairs is largely attributable to the paucity of longitudinal investigations which measure attitudes before, during and following participation, since only through such designs is it possible

to clearly distinguish between these five hypotheses. In this section, two investigations are presented which seek to discern the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer using longitudinal panel designs.

The first of these examines the extent to which attitudes are predictive of participation undertaken after various temporal delays. Because this is the first investigation to obtain a measure of attitudes before individuals had begun to participate, it provides the first valid test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis.

In the second investigation, attention is directed to changes in attitudes which occur among individuals joining and leaving voluntary organizations. Particular attention is directed to the point at which attitudes tend to change, since this will provide crucial insight as to which of the five hypotheses offers the most appropriate description of the attitude-voluntary action relationship.

CHAPTER SEVEN

The Utility of Attitudes as Predictors of Voluntary Action:

A Test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis

7.0 Abstract

This study examined the extent to which attitudes toward voluntary action were predictive of participation. Using a two-year longitudinal panel design, the attitudes of individuals joining either one to eight months, nine to sixteen months or seventeen to twenty-four months after an attitude measure were compared to those of individuals active at the time of the attitude measure and persons not participating during the two year interval. It was found that the predictive utility of attitudes dramatically declined as a function of the interval intervening between the attitude measure and the join. Further analysis revealed that this attenuation was not attributable to differences in the types of persons joining after various delays. However, it was observed that the long-range predictive value of attitudes varied depending on the reasons why the individual undertook voluntary action and whether a life event preceded the join. These findings are interpreted as providing support for the Selective Attraction Hypothesis. However, it also appears that this model may be more applicable for certain types of volunteers than for others.

The Utility of Attitudes as Predictors of Voluntary Action:

A Test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis

7.1 Introduction

The Selective Attraction Hypothesis contends that certain persons are more likely to undertake voluntary action because they possess attitudes which favourably predispose them towards this course of action. If this hypothesis represents a valid description of the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer, it would be expected that the attitudes of participants will be distinctive from non-participants well before individuals join organizations. It is the objective of this study to assess this possibility.

In this investigation, a measure of general attitudes toward voluntary action was obtained from a sample of university undergraduates. Then, the attitudes of individuals who undertook participation one to eight months, nine to sixteen or seventeen to twenty-four months after this measure were compared to those of respondents active at the time of the attitude measure and those who did not participate during the two year interval. If attitudes play a role in the decision to volunteer, individuals who join voluntary organizations should possess attitudes similar to those of active volunteers and quite distinctive from non-participating respondents prior to initiation. Moreover, by dividing joiners according to

the delay prior to initiation, it will be possible to assess how long before joining any pre-initiation attitudinal differences are apparent.

While there is no prior research of this sort in the voluntary action literature, the relationship between attitudes and other types of behaviors has been the focus of a myriad of investigations (see Bentler & Speckart, 1979, 1981; Deutsch, 1973; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Schuman & Johnson, 1976; Wicker, 1969 for reviews). It is instructive to briefly consider the findings of this research.

Earlier research on this topic provided little support for a causal relationship between attitudes and behavior (e.g., Cook & Selitz, 1964; Corey, 1937; Deutsch, 1949; Dollard, 1949; Insko & Schopler, 1967; Kutner, Wilkins & Yarrow, 1952; La Piere, 1934; Lewin, 1951; Warner & DeFleur, 1969). In fact, so unimpressive were the results of such inquiries, that after reviewing 31 studies which reported attitude-behavior associations, Wicker (1969) was forced to conclude:

Taken as a whole, these studies suggest that it is considerably more likely that attitudes will be unrelated or only slightly related to overt behaviors than that attitudes will be closely related to actions. Product-moment correlation coefficients relating the two kinds of responses are rarely above .20 and often are near zero. Only rarely can as much as 10% of the variance in overt behavioral measures be accounted for by attitudinal data. [1969, pg 65]

However, research of more recent vintage has offered new hope that attitudes may sometimes be determinants of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Alwin, 1973; Bentler & Speckart, 1979, 1981;

Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Fazio & Zanna, 1978; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Goodmanson & Gaudin, 1971; Kahle & Berman, 1979; Regan & Fazio, 1977; Weigel & Newman, 1976). These investigations demonstrate that when possible mitigating factors are considered, attitudes can be shown to be excellent predictors of at least some types of behaviors.

One factor often identified as important in determining the strength of the association between attitudes and behavior is the interval intervening between the measures. Specifically, it is alleged that the association between attitudes and behavior will diminish as the temporal separation between the measures increases (Alwin, 1973; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Schuman & Johnson, 1976; Schwartz, 1978; Wicker, 1969). Despite wide spread consensus concerning this property of the attitude-behavior relationship however, there is surprisingly little research which has sought to estimate the rate of this attenuation. In fact, only four investigations provide information pertinent to this issue.

The first of these (Kelly & Mirer, 1974) examined the association between voting preference and voting behavior among a selected subset of individuals considered most likely to "change their minds" (due to apathy or uncertainty regarding their vote). For these individuals, the number of days between the assessment of voting preference and the election was found to account for 28% of the variance in an index of voting prediction errors. Unfortunately, it is somewhat difficult to generalize the results of this investigation

since the analysis was based on a selected subset of the original sample, and because the attitude-voting behavior relationship appears to be somewhat unique (Schuman & Johnson, 1976).

An investigation by Norman (1975) also yields evidence concerning the effects of temporal separation on this relationship. In this study, students' attitudes toward participating in a psychology experiment were assessed six weeks and three weeks before they were asked to participate in such an experiment. Norman found that the attitudes manifested three weeks before the experiment were more predictive of students' responses ($r=0.47$) than were those obtained six weeks prior ($r=0.37$), although this difference was not statistically significant. Notwithstanding, given the relatively brief time spans involved, Norman's findings are suggestive of a relatively rapid deterioration of this relationship.

However, Schwartz (1978) notes that such a research design is poorly suited to evaluate the effects of temporal separation. This is because the first attitude measure may have spurred respondents to contemplate this course of action resulting in a crystallization of their attitudes by the time of the second measure and spuriously enhancing the attitudes' predictive value. Thus, even had Norman observed a significant change in the association strength, it would have remained unclear whether this was a characteristic property of attitude-behavior relationships or merely an artifact of the research design employed.

Schwartz's (1978) investigation of this phenomenon is not prone to this design weakness. In this study, individuals were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt morally obligated to assist in a programme to tutor blind children. This attitude was assessed either six months, three months, or both six and three months prior to a direct appeal for such assistance. Schwartz found a significant decline in the association between the perceived moral obligation to assist and students' response to this request with a correlation of 0.47 when three months intervened, but only 0.13 when the attitude measure was obtained six months earlier (respondents measured both six and three months before this request manifested a similar pattern).

On the other hand, a study by Davidson and Jaccard (1979) suggests that a rapid decline in the association between attitudes and behavior as a function of the intervening interval need not transpire in all instances. In this study, attitudes and subjective normative beliefs (i.e., evaluations of the normative expectations of salient references weighted by the respondents' motivation to comply with each referent) regarding contraceptive use and childbirth were obtained from a sample of 244 married women. These measures were then combined in accordance with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) model and used to predict actual contraceptive use and conception attempts/births which took place over a one or two year interval. Davidson and Jaccard found that the association between the weighted linear combination of attitudes and subjective normative beliefs (derived through linear regression analysis) and each criterion

behavior remained quite strong regardless as to whether a one or two year period was considered. Thus, while the multiple correlation with the model's predictive components decline significantly from $r=.70$ (one year interval) to $r=.63$ (two year interval) when contraceptive use was the criterion behavior, this decline was not significant for the conception attempt/birth behavioral criterion ($r=.65$ for a one year interval versus $r=.60$ for a two year interval). Moreover, in neither case was a rapid attenuation of the relationship apparent.

Unfortunately, Davidson and Jaccard did not report the change in the association between attitudes and behavior independent of subjective normative beliefs. Consequently the attenuation of the attitude-behavior relationship cannot be assessed from this study. In addition, it is regrettable that no analysis was reported which examined the extent to which attitudes were predictive of behavior manifested one to two years after the measure (i.e., the longer-term correlations were based on those behaviors occurring over the entire two year interval), as this would have provided a more appropriate assessment of attenuation effects.

It seems quite probable that the association between attitudes and behavior will diminish as a function of the temporal separation of such measures. After all, a voluminous literature has accumulated (see Chapter Eight) revealing the susceptibility of attitudes to change over time. Consequently, as the interval of time between the assessment of attitudes and the behavioral criterion lengthens, the probability of attitude change will increase and the association strength

can be expected to decline. At the same time, the available information on this topic is inadequate to permit unequivocal conclusions to be drawn concerning the rapidity of this attenuation. This state of affairs is particularly apparent with respect to the decline in the association between more general attitudes (i.e., attitudes toward a more general phenomenon) and general behavioral criteria. In fact, the scant evidence available actually suggests that the attitude-behavior relationship at this more general level of specificity may be less prone to rapid attenuation of this sort.

Thus, the studies of Kelly and Mirer (1974), Schwartz (1978) and Norman (1975) each examined quite specific attitudes and single-act behavioral criteria (i.e., voting behavior in a specific election; response to a request for assistance in tutoring blind children; volunteering for a particular psychology experiment). In each case, the evidence reveals a rapid attenuation of the attitude-behavior relationship as a function of the intervening period. On the other hand, Davidson and Jaccard (1979) examined general attitudes and multiple observation behavioral criteria (i.e., contraceptive use and conception attempts/births over an extended period) and reported comparatively little attenuation of this sort. Although other factors may be responsible for this difference (e.g., Davidson and Jaccard employed a more sophisticated model which included measures of both subjective normative beliefs and attitudes), the possibility remains that general attitudes may be good predictors of general behavior criteria over extended time spans.

This hypothesis may also be generated on theoretical grounds. General attitudes toward a broad class of behaviors (e.g., participation in voluntary organizations) may reflect the synthesis of many specific attitudes toward particular behaviors in this class (e.g., participation in a specific group). If this is the case, general attitudes may be comparatively robust and not exhibit the same degree of instability as specific attitudes over time. Accordingly, since temporal instability is considered the principal reason for the gradual attenuation of the attitude-behavior relationship when such measures are separated by progressively longer intervals of time (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Schuman & Johnson, 1975; Schwartz, 1978), it may be predicted that the association between general attitudes and general behavioral criterion will be less susceptible to such a decline. In other words, general attitudes may be excellent long-range predictors of general behavioral manifestations. This study will permit an assessment of this hypothesis as it pertains to voluntary action.

7.2. Construction of the Attitude Inventory

In order to make this study generalizable to the earlier cross-sectional research in the voluntary action literature, it was first necessary to construct an inventory of attitudes which could distinguish active volunteers from non-participating individuals. This process would also reduce the possibility that a failure to find predictive attitudes was attributable to an insensitive set of attitude

indices. The inventory was developed employing the following procedure.

For the purpose of this investigation, attitudes toward voluntary action were defined as verbal evaluative responses to favourable and unfavourable statements about various aspects of voluntary organizations and participation in such organizations. The adoption of this conceptualization of attitudes is consistent with the typical use of this term in the voluntary action literature and is also in good agreement with definitions of this construct advocated by others (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). However, no claim is made concerning the consistency of these verbal evaluations over time or for their relationship with behavior, since these are considered empirical issues rather than inherent conceptual properties of attitudes.

Because the original objective of this study was to examine the utility of both attitudes and personality measures as predictors of voluntary action, the initial questionnaire contained 46 attitudinal items and 66 personality items. Unfortunately, subsequent validation tests revealed that the personality items were relatively poor discriminators of volunteers from non-volunteers and could not be configured into meaningful scales. Thus the personality measures were not considered further in this investigation.

The initial 46 attitudinal items were a collection of measures obtained from a variety of sources (e.g., Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973) which had been demonstrated to distinguish between volunteers and non-participating individuals. This collection was supplemented

with several original attitude items. Each item was presented in the form of an opinionated statement, examples being "I think my family and friends would be very pleased if I were to join a voluntary organization", "Many volunteer groups tend to be concerned with unimportant goals and are thus a waste of time" and "Personally, the way I most prefer to spend my leisure time is in helping others". In the initial questionnaire, 26 statements expressed positive (i.e., favourable) opinions about voluntary action and 20 statements presented negative (i.e., unfavourable) opinions.

Respondents were instructed to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each of the statements employing a six point bi-polar Likert scale with the following numbering scheme (see Note 1):

- +5 = strongly agree with the statement
- +3 = moderately agree with the statement
- +1 = slightly agree with the statement
- 1 = slightly disagree with the statement
- 3 = moderately disagree with the statement
- 5 = strongly disagree with the statement

To assist in the interpretation of the terms "voluntary groups", "volunteer organizations" and "clubs" mentioned in the statements, the following explanatory paragraph was provided in the instructions to the questionnaire:

When a statement refers to "volunteer groups", "volunteer organizations" and/or "clubs", you should take this to mean any organized or formal gathering of volunteers on a reasonably regular basis for some specified purpose or objective. When answering these questions, try not to think of only one type of volunteer activity, but rather of volunteer groups in general (e.g., political groups, service groups, youth groups, lodge gatherings).

Two independent validation samples were employed to determine which items distinguished between active and non-active students and to arrange these items into meaningful scales. The first sample was obtained by distributing questionnaires to 112 Introductory Social Psychology undergraduates who were asked to complete the measure in their spare time. Unfortunately, perhaps due to the length of this first questionnaire and the fact that most students were preparing for final examinations at this time, only 53 (47.3%) individuals returned completed questionnaires.

This first sample was employed to reduce the length of the questionnaire by determining which items provided the best cross-sectional discrimination between active and non-participating individuals. For this purpose, the sample was partitioned in two ways. The first distinguished between persons currently active (at the time of the measure) in at least one instrumental organization versus those not currently active. The second partitioning distinguished between persons active within the past year versus those not active during this interval. This second partitioning was included to identify items which distinguished between recently active persons and those without a recent experience, since it was felt that such items might also predict future voluntary action.

Current and recent participation was considered to have occurred if the individuals reported active membership in any of the following types of voluntary organizations:

1. Service oriented

2. Political groups

3. Academic or school services

These types of organizations are often referred to as "instrumental" and may be distinguished from other types of voluntary organizations (i.e., "expressive") insofar as they are primarily established to benefit a client group. In contrast, the primary function of expressive organizations is to provide direct benefits for their membership (e.g., social clubs, athletic groups). Variations on the "instrumental-expressive" distinction are frequently utilized by voluntary action researchers (Babchuk & Gordon, 1962; DeVall & Harry, 1975; Gordon & Babchuk, 1959; Walker & Lawler, 1977; Zander, 1972).

Individuals were considered active members of an organization only if they reported at least one hour per week (on average) participation in the organization's activities. This criterion was used to eliminate persons who were "members in-name-only" in accordance with the definition of voluntary action adopted for this thesis (see Chapter Two).

In the first validation sample, 10 (18.9%) persons were currently active and 5 (9.4%) additional individuals reported activity within the last year in at least one instrumental organization. Two-tailed t-tests were employed to determine which attitude items best distinguished current or recently active volunteers from non-participants. From this analysis, twenty-eight items were eliminated from subsequent versions of this inventory because they failed to distinguish between recent/current volunteers and inactive

respondents at the $p < .20$ level or better. The excluded items are listed in Appendix 4A.

Because of the small group sizes in the first validation sample, a second validation sample was considered desirable to further refine this instrument and arrange the items into scales. This sample was obtained by administering a shortened version of this inventory (see Appendix 4C) to 151 Introductory Social Psychology students during class time. Of these, 150 (99.3%) students returned usable questionnaires. The one holdout was unable to complete the questionnaire because he was blind.

Using these data, the individual attitude items were configured into eight scales based upon similarity of content and correlated significance at the $p < .05$ level. In all instances, intra-scale items were more highly correlated than inter-scale items further supporting the structuring of the inventory.

Seven of the attitude scales consisted of two items each, with the eighth scale containing four items. The four item scale resulted when the items from two separate scales (i.e., "Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community" and "Efficacy of Voluntary Organizations") were found to be highly correlated. As a guard against acquiescence and response bias, each scale contained equal numbers of positive (favourable) and negative (unfavourable) statements about voluntary action. One exception to this pattern was necessary however with the "Social Opportunities from Participating" scale, since no positive statements of this sort distinguished between

participating and non-participating students. When computing the scale scores, all negative items were reversed so that higher values consistently denoted more favourable attitudes toward voluntary action. In addition, the constant three was added to all responses to eliminate negative values.

Items comprising each scale, along with the intra-scale item correlation coefficients obtained using the first and second validation samples and the test data employed in the main analysis of this study (see Section 7.3.1) are presented in Table 7.1. It should be noted that while two (of 26) intra-scale item correlations were not statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the validation samples, all intra-scale item correlations were significant at the $p < .01$ level with the actual test data. In addition, in no instance was the same correlation coefficient non-significant for both validation samples.

The scales in this inventory assess attitudes toward numerous facets of voluntary action including:

1. Service Orientation to Leisure Time
2. Perceived Obligation to Participate (in a voluntary organization)
3. Time Available for Participation
4. Effects on Life of Participating
5. Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations
6. Social Opportunities From Participating
7. Response of Others to Joining
8. Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community

TABLE 7.1 Product-moment Correlation Coefficients Between Scale Items for Three Independent Student Samples (Page 1 of 3).

	First Sample (N = 53)	Second Sample (N = 150)	Test Sample (N = 365)
Scale 1: Service Oreintation (to Leisure Time)			
(a) Personally, the way I most prefer to spend my time is in helping others. (Pos.)			
(b) There are so many difference things that I would like to do with my leisure time, that I really doubt whether there would be time to be a volunteer. (Neg.)	r = - .28 (p < .02)	r = - .38 (p < .001)	r = - .35 (p < .001)
Scale 2: Perceived Obligation (to Participate)			
a) I often feel as though I should do more for my community and country through volunteer activities of some sort. (Pos.)			
b) Improving the community is primarily the responsibility of the government and not the private citizen. (Neg.)	r = - .48 (p < .001)	r = - .16 (p < .05)	r = - .19 (p < .01)
Scale 3: Effects on Life (of Participating)			
a) Being a member of a club or voluntary organization would probably have little effect on my life or personality. (Neg.)			
b) Joining a volunteer organization would probably add a whole new dimension to my life. (Pos.)	r = - .58 (p < .001)	r = - .44 (p < .001)	r = - .46 (p < .001)
Scale 4: Time Availability (for Participation)			
a) Personally, I have enough spare time to be a member of at least one club or organization. (Pos.)			
b) I am constantly busy, there is little time available to allow me to belong to a volunteer group. (Neg.)	r = - .73 (p < .001)	r = - .63 (p < .001)	r = - .68 (p < .001)

TABLE 7.1 Product-moment Correlation Coefficients Between Scale Items for Three Independent Student Samples (Pg. 2 of 3).

	: First : Sample : (N = 53)	: Second : Sample : (N = 150)	: Test : Sample : (N = 365)	:
Scale 5: Accessibility (of Voluntary Organizations)	:	:	:	:
a) Most volunteer organizations tend to welcome volunteers with great enthusiasm. (Pos.)	:	:	:	:
b) One should not join a volunteer group unless he/she has something special to offer such as special talent or training. (Neg.)	: r = - .09 (p < .60)	: r = - .17 (p < .05)	: r = - .18 (p < .01)	:
Scale 6: Social Opportunities (from Participating)	:	:	:	:
a) I do not think I would like very many of the types of people who tend to join volunteer organizations. (Neg.)	:	:	:	:
b) If one makes friends at a club or organization, they seldom turn out to be good friends, but rather merely acquaintances. (Neg.)	: r = .26 (p < .04)	: r = .33 (p < .001)	: r = .33 (p < .001)	:
Scale 7: Reponse of Others (to Joining)	:	:	:	:
a) I think my family and friends would be pleased if I were to join a volunteer organization. (Pos.)	:	:	:	:
b) Personally, I really don't think anyone in my family or any of my friends would care either way whether I joined a volunteer group or not. (Neg.)	: r = - .27 (p < .03)	: r = - .49 (p < .001)	: r = - .48 (p < .001)	:

TABLE 7.1 Product-moment Correlation Coefficients Between Scale Items for Three Independent Student Samples (Pg. 3 of 3).

Scale 8: Value of Voluntary Organizations (to the Community)

- a) If it were not for volunteer groups, many important things in the community would never get done. (Pos.)
- b) The community would suffer a great loss if it were to lose its volunteer group. (Pos.)
- c) Many volunteer groups tend to be concerned with unimportant goals and are thus a waste of time. (Neg.)
- d) Volunteer groups, although perhaps beneficial to the actual members, usually contribute very little to the general community. (Neg.)

	B	C	D	
A	.63 (p < .001)	-.33 (p < .01)	-.26 (p < .03)	- Sample 1 (N=53)
	.64 (p < .001)	-.14 (p < .10)	-.45 (p < .001)	- Sample 2 (N=150)
	.52 (p < .001)	-.29 (p < .001)	-.32 (p < .001)	- Test Sample (N=36)
B	X	-.57 (p < .001)	-.45 (p < .001)	- Sample 1 (N=53)
		-.29 (p < .016)	-.53 (p < .001)	- Sample 2 (N=150)
		-.41 (p < .001)	-.46 (p < .001)	- Test Sample (N=36)
C		X	.67 (p < .001)	- Sample 1 (N=53)
			.27 (p < .001)	- Sample 2 (N=150)
			.47 (p < .001)	- Test Sample (N=36)

It is felt that this inventory measured many of the attitudes which might be relevant when individuals contemplated involvement in instrumental voluntary organizations (e.g., the social consequences of involvement, possible situational and social constraints, the value of such organizations to the community).

To assess the degree to which the attitude scales distinguished between participating and non-participating students, a further analysis was performed using the two validation samples. The results from the first validation sample (see Table 7.2) showed that all but one of the attitude scales (i.e., Social Opportunities from Participating) significantly ($p < .05$) discriminated between volunteers and non-participating individuals with at least one of the two sample partitionings. This same analysis, repeated with the second validation sample, (see Table 7.3) demonstrated that all scales could distinguish between currently/recently active volunteers and non-participants. In fact, twelve of the eighteen t-tests were found significant at the $p < .001$ level or better.

Stepwise discriminant analysis was employed to determine the extent to which volunteers (either current or within the last year) could be distinguished from non-participating individuals using the optimal combination of the attitude scales. In this analysis, attitude scales were entered and retained in the discriminant function only if they were significant ($p < .05$) after adjusting for those scales already in the function. The results of these analyses are displayed in the

TABLE 7.2 Attitude Scale Differences Between Participators and Non-participators in Instrumental Voluntary Organizations using First Student Validation Sample (N = 53) (Higher Score denotes more positive attitude)

Attitude Scale	Currently Active at T1 Mean Value N = 10	Not Currently Active at T1 Mean Value N = 43	T - Test Value (p-value)	Active within 1 Year of T1 Mean Value N = 15	Not Active Within 1 Yr. of T1 Mean Value N = 38	T - Test Value (p-value)						
Service Orientation	4.40	3.24	t = 2.75 (p < .02)	4.40	3.09	t = 3.30 (p < .002)						
Perceived Obligation	5.20	4.35	t = 2.30 (p < .04)	5.33	4.18	t = 3.13 (p < .003)						
Effects on Life	5.00	4.02	t = 2.14 (p < .05)	4.70	4.01	t = 1.41 (p < .18)						
Time Availability	4.90	3.97	t = 1.75 (p < .10)	4.90	3.85	t = 2.17 (p < .04)						
Accessibility of Organizations	5.65	5.26	t = 1.33 (p < .21)	5.70	5.18	t = 2.15 (p < .04)						
Social Opportunities	4.80	4.19	t = 1.94 (p < .07)	4.57	4.20	t = 1.16 (p < .25)						
Response of Others	4.60	3.44	t = 2.81 (p < .03)	4.27	3.42	t = 2.16 (p < .04)						
Value to Community	5.48	4.71	t = 3.03 (p < .01)	5.37	5.15	t = 2.87 (p < .007)						
Average Scale Score	5.03	4.03	t = 3.75 (p < .002)	4.91	4.14	t = 3.79 (p < .001)						
Results from Discriminant Analysis	Canonical correlation = .37 Wilk's lambda = .87 Best single predictor = Response of Others			F - ratio = 7.87 (p - value < .001)			Canonical correlation = .50 Wilk's lambda = .75 Best single predictor = Service Orientation			F - ratio = 11.23 (p - value < .001)		
% Cases correctly classified by discriminant function =			EXP. : OBS. : SIGN. :	% Cases correctly classified by discriminant function =			EXP. : OBS. : SIGN. :					
			56.5 : 71.7 : p<.01 :				52.9 : 73.6 : p<.0001 :					

TABLE 7.3 Attitude Scale Differences Between Participators and Non-participators in Instrumental Voluntary Organizations using Second Student Validation Sample (N = 150).

Attitude Scale	Mean Attitude Currently Active (N = 34)	Mean Attitude Not Currently Active (N = 116)	T - Test Value (p-value)	Mean Attitude Active Within 1 Yr (N = 53)	Mean Attitude Not Active With 1 Yr: (N = 97)	T - Test Value (p-value)						
Service Orientation	4.75	3.44	t = 7.51 (p < .001)	4.57	3.28	t = 8.10 (p .001)						
Perceived Obligation	4.85	4.61	t = 1.52 (p < .14)	4.85	4.57	t = 2.06 (p < .05)						
Effects on Life	4.82	4.24	t = 3.73 (p < .001)	4.73	4.18	t = 3.89 (p < .001)						
Time Availability	4.98	3.97	t = 4.43 (p < .001)	4.75	3.89	t = 4.12 (p .001)						
Accessibility of Organizations	5.56	4.95	t = 6.31 (p < .001)	5.38	4.93	t = 4.38 (p < .001)						
Social Opportunities	4.93	4.55	t = 2.25 (p < .03)	4.89	4.50	t = 2.56 (p .02)						
Response of Others	4.17	3.95	t = .98 (p < .35)	4.29	3.84	t = 2.56 (p < .02)						
Value To Community Of Organizations	5.20	4.64	t = 4.12 (p < .001)	5.15	4.56	t = 4.99 (p < .001)						
Average Attitude Score	4.83	4.23	t = 6.27 (p < .001)	4.76	4.16	t = 6.80 (p < .001)						
Results From Discriminant Analysis	Canonical correlation = .60 Wilk's lambda = .64 Best single predictor = Service Orientation			F - ratio = 11.05 (p - value < .001)			Canonical correlation = .55 Wilk's lambda = .70 Best single predictor = Service Orientation			F - ratio = 17.36 (p - value < .001)		
	% Cases correctly classified by discriminant function			EXP.	OBS.	SIGN.	% Cases correctly classified by discriminant function			EXP.	OBS.	SIGN.
	Cases used in analysis			62.8	86.3	p<.001	Cases used in analysis			59.8	76.6	p<.001
	Cross-validation sample			68.6	81.8	p<.001	Cross-validation sample			53.5	75.3	p<.001

lower portions of Tables 7.2 and 7.3 for the first and second validation samples respectively.

The analyses showed that in combination, these attitude scales were powerful discriminators of volunteers and non-volunteers. The attitude scale "Service Orientation to Leisure Time" proved especially useful insofar as it was found the best single discriminator of participating versus non-participating students in three of four analyses. The proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable by these functions ranged from 13.7% to 36.0%.

To determine the degree to which students could be correctly identified as volunteers or non-volunteers employing these discriminant functions, classification analyses were conducted (see the bottom row of Tables 7.2, 7.3). In the first validation samples, 71.7% (current vs. not) and 73.6% (within last year vs. not) of the respondents were correctly assigned using the scores derived from the discriminant functions. In both cases, chi-square tests revealed this classification to be significantly ($p < .01$) better than would be expected by chance alone (see Note 2).

Because the second validation sample was much larger, the classification analysis was performed with cross-validation of the discriminant function. This was accomplished by randomly dividing the sample into two equal groups, deriving a discriminant function with one group and then employing this function to classify cases in the second group. Cross-validation of a discriminant function permits an assessment of the degree to which a function can be derived which generalizes to other independent samples.

When the attitudes were used to distinguish active volunteers from non-participating respondents, cases used to derive the discriminant function were correctly classified 86.3% of the time. Cases not used in the analysis were correctly assigned 81.8% of the time. Similarly, when respondents were classified as either active within the last year or not, cases used to construct the discriminant function were correctly classified 76.6% of the time whereas the cross-validation sample was appropriately assigned 75.3% of the time. In all instances, classification success was significantly better than would have been expected by chance assignment alone ($\chi^2 \geq 14.13$, d.f.=1, $p < .001$).

These analyses demonstrate that the attitude scales reliably distinguished between participating and non-participating individuals. Accordingly, the validation procedure was considered to have yielded an inventory of attitudes suitable for an assessment of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis. It is of interest to note that variations of all eight scales have previously been identified as significant cross-sectional discriminators of volunteers and non-volunteers in at least one prior investigation (Mulford & Klonglan, 1972).

Finally, principal factor analysis was performed with the eight attitude scales to determine whether any latent patterns emerged in the responses of the students. Separate analyses were conducted with each of the two validation samples. In both analyses, only one factor was extracted explaining 43.0% and 41.8% of the variance in the first and second validation samples respectively. These results indicate that students tended to possess a single general attitude

towards voluntary action. On the basis of this analysis, a general index of attitude towards voluntary action was computed by averaging the values of all eight scales (see Note 3). However, in order to discern whether any nuances existed in the predictive utility of attitudes toward particular facets of voluntary action, the eight individual scales were also retained for the analysis.

7.3 Test of the Selective Attraction Hypothesis

7.3.1 Subjects

To assess the extent to which attitudes toward voluntary action were predictive of participation, the constructed attitude inventory was administered in questionnaire form (see Appendix 4B) to an Introductory Psychology class in March, 1977. Four hundred and sixty-two students (77.8% of the eligible universe) returned useable questionnaires. Sample attrition was primarily attributable to the omission of the respondent's name which precluded subsequent follow-up. Approximately two years later, an attempt was made to obtain a measure of the participation which had taken place during the intervening period (see Appendix 4D) from all of the original respondents. The follow-up success rate was quite good with usable questionnaires returned by 365 (79.0%) of the original respondents. Failure to obtain a measure on this second occasion was generally due to an inability to locate individuals as contacted persons seldom declined to complete the second questionnaire.

To determine whether this loss of sample introduced bias, the T1 attitudes (i.e., March, 1977 attitudes) of persons not completing the second questionnaire (N=97) and individuals omitting their names on the first questionnaire (N=144) were compared to those of the test sample (N=365). These comparisons (see Table 7.4) revealed that students who omitted their names were significantly less "Service Oriented in Their Leisure Time" ($t=2.12$, $d.f.=507$, $p<.04$) than students in the test sample. However, no differences were observed between persons who did not complete the second questionnaire and the test sample.

The students completing both questionnaires had a mean age of 19.4 years at the time of the first measure and were predominantly female (58.3%). Further details concerning these respondents are provided in Section 3.7.4.

7.3.2 Measurement of Participation

The participation in instrumental voluntary organizations which occurred during the two year period was assessed by means of the following question:

Since March of 1977 (in the last two years) in HOW MANY of the following types of NONPROFIT organizations, groups or clubs have you been an active member (if even for only a very short period of time)?

Following this was a list of 7 organization types:

1. Service organizations
2. Academically related organizations
3. Social clubs or fraternal organizations
4. Political or political issue groups
5. Religious or church affiliated organizations or groups

TABLE 7.4 Examination of Attitudinal Differences Between Matched Sample and Individuals Not Contacted at T2. (Based on T1 attitude scale values).

Attitude Scale	Mean T1 Attitude of Persons Contacted at T2 (N = 365)	Mean T1 Attitude of Persons Not Contacted due to Name Omission (N = 144)	Mean T1 Attitude of Persons Not Reached at T2 (N = 97)	t - Test Between Matched Sample and "No Name" Respondents	t - Test Between Matched Sample and "No Contacts"
Service Orientation	3.71	3.54	3.62	t = 2.12 (p < .05)	t = .71 (p < .50)
Perceived Obligation	4.57	4.67	4.59	t = -.87 (p < .15)	t = -.27 (p < .50)
Effects on Life	4.25	4.16	4.31	t = .47 (p < .65)	t = -.55 (p < .60)
Time Availability	3.94	3.98	3.96	t = -.17 (p < .90)	t = -.09 (p < .93)
Accessibility of Organizations	5.06	5.14	5.05	t = -.75 (p < .50)	t = .12 (p < .91)
Social Opportunities	4.64	4.72	4.65	t = -.59 (p < .56)	t = -.17 (p < .87)
Response of Others	3.91	3.78	3.85	t = 1.07 (p < .30)	t = .54 (p < .59)
Value To Community	4.72	4.69	4.71	t = .20 (p < .85)	t = .10 (p < .92)
Average Attitude Score	4.29	4.24	4.28	t = .45 (p < .65)	t = .07 (p < .95)
Multivariate t-Test				Hotelling T ² = 29.68 F = 1.27 d.f. = 7,500 (p < .20)	Hotelling T ² = 18.47 F = .80 d.f. = 7,453 (p < .75)

6. Nonprofit musical or hobby groups
7. Athletic teams or clubs

Examples of each type of group were supplied to further define these categories.

If individuals reported involvement in any voluntary organizations during this interval, the following additional details were obtained:

1. The month and year the individuals first joined the organization
2. The month and year the individuals left the organization (where appropriate)
3. The amount of time in an average week devoted to performing group activities
4. Whether or not the individuals were encouraged to join this group and if so, whether they would have joined this group in the absence of this encouragement
5. The reason why they had joined this group
6. The reason why they had left the group (where appropriate)

This information was collected for the first three memberships reported by the respondent and used in the second part of this study (see Section 7.6). If the individual had been active in more than three organizations, only details regarding the time interval during which the participation had occurred were obtained.

Since this study was concerned with participation in instrumental organizations, only memberships reported in service organizations, political organizations and academically related organizations were considered in the analysis. However, if it was apparent from the explanation for joining provided by the respondents

that an instrumental organization had been misclassified into one of the expressive group categories, it was treated as eligible participation. To avoid including persons who were members of an organization, but who did not take part in the organization's activities on a regular basis, only memberships requiring one hour or more per week (on average) were considered eligible. In addition, since individuals sometimes reported involvement in short-term campaigns of limited duration (e.g., United Appeal fund raising drives) only memberships lasting for two or more consecutive months were considered manifestations of voluntary action.

7.4 Analysis

The objective of this inquiry was to assess the degree to which the attitudes of individuals initiating voluntary action in an instrumental organization differed from currently active volunteers and non-participating individuals before becoming involved. To perform this analysis, respondents were classified into one of five categories based on their participation pattern over the two year period:

1. Active participants at the time of the first attitude measure (T1) (N=51)
2. Individual not active at T1 who initiated voluntary action within eight months of the attitude measure at T1 (N=33)
3. Individuals inactive during the first eight months who initiated voluntary action between nine to sixteen months after the attitude measure at T1 (N=26)

4. Individuals inactive during the first sixteen months who initiated voluntary action between seventeen to twenty-four months after the attitude measure at T1 (N=31)
5. Individuals who did not participate in an instrumental organization during the two year interval (N=224)

The frequency of initiations was by no means uniformly distributed over the months of the year. The majority of new joins occurred during September (28.9%), October (15.6%), January (15.6%) and May (11.1%).

Mean scores for the five types of respondents were computed for each of the eight attitude scales as well as the average score of all eight scales. These means, displayed in Table 7.5, showed that the positiveness of the attitudes toward voluntary action declined as the delay prior to initiation lengthened. Persons not joining an instrumental organization during the interval displayed the least favourable attitudes toward voluntary action. This pattern was consistent across all attitude indices.

One-way analysis of variance indicated that the between group main effects were significantly different at the $p < .0001$ level ($F \geq 7.95$, d.f.=4,360) for all nine attitude indices. To further delineate these attitudinal differences, Scheffé's a posteriori comparison tests were performed with $\alpha = .10$. This test was selected because it is exact for groups of unequal size (Scheffé, 1959). The results of this analysis are indicated in Table 7.5, with lines above the means denoting groups possessing attitudes not significantly different from active volunteers and lines below the

TABLE 7.5 Mean T1 Attitude Scores Among Individuals Joining Instrumental Voluntary Organizations After Various Periods of Elapsed Time.

Elapsed Time Prior to Join

Attitude Scale	Active At T1 (N = 51)	Joined Within 1 to 8 Months of T1 (N = 33)	Joined Within 9 to 16 Months of T1 (N = 26)	Joined Within 17 to 24 Months of T1 (N = 31)	Did Not Join (N = 224)	F - ratio (p - value) Correlation Between Attitude and Join Delay
Service Oriented	4.76	4.35	4.27	3.63	3.33	F = 27.2 (p < .0001) r = -.46
Perceived Obligation	5.14	4.98	4.77	4.48	4.37	F = 11.87 (p < .0001) r = -.35
Time Availability	5.06	4.35	4.25	3.93	3.59	F = 14.73 (p < .0001) r = -.32
Effects on Life	5.06	4.61	4.54	4.06	4.00	F = 12.82 (p < .0001) r = -.33
Accessibility of Organization	5.51	5.26	5.15	5.03	4.91	F = 8.74 (p < .0001) r = -.28
Social Opportunities	5.04	5.11	4.87	4.68	4.45	F = 7.95 (p < .0001) r = -.28
Response of Others	4.62	4.67	4.08	3.89	3.62	F = 15.32 (p < .0001) r = -.36
Value to Community of organization	5.35	5.20	5.02	4.68	4.47	F = 16.46 (p < .0001) r = -.36
Average Attitude Score	5.01	4.74	4.55	4.23	4.03	F = 41.32 (p < .0001) r = -.53

Note: Lines above group means indicate groups not significantly different from those currently active; lines below group means indicate groups not significantly different from "non-participants". (A posteriori test, Scheffé test, alpha = .10)

means denoting groups with attitudes not significantly different from non-participants. As can be observed, persons joining one to eight months after T1 possessed attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. In contrast, individuals who became volunteers seventeen to twenty-four months after the attitude measure possessed attitudes similar to those of non-participants. Persons joining nine to sixteen months after the first measure possessed attitudes between these two extremes.

As an additional index of the relationship between attitudes and the elapsed time prior to initiating voluntary action, the number of months elapsing prior to the join was correlated with the scores for each attitude scale (see Table 7.5, last column). The product-moment correlation coefficients ranged from $-.28$ to $-.53$ reflecting a significant ($p < .001$) negative association between the favourableness of the attitudes toward voluntary action and the time elapsing prior to participation.

Stepwise discriminant analysis was employed to determine which attitudes best distinguished the three groups of joiners (i.e., one to eight months, nine to sixteen months, seventeen to twenty-four months) from active and non-participating individuals. Seven discriminant analyses were conducted in all; two each for the comparison of the three groups of joiners with both active and non-participating individuals and one further analysis comparing these two latter groups. The results of these analyses are displayed in Table 7.6.

TABLE 7.6 Results of Stepwise Discriminant Analysis Comparing Attitudes of Persons Joining After Various Temporal Delays with the Attitudes of Active (T1) and Non-active (T1 to T2) Respondents.

Number of Months After T1: Before Initiation :	Comparison Group :	Active at Time of Attitude Measure (N = 51) :	Not Active During Two Year Interval (N = 224) :
: Joined 1 to 8 Months After T1 (N = 33)	: Attitudes	: 1 : Time Availability	: Resp. of Others
	: Entering	: 2 :	: Service Orientation
	: Discr. Funct.	: 3 :	: Value to Community
	: Canonical Corr.	: .30	: .42
	: % Var. Explained	: 9.0%	: 17.6%
	: Wilk's Lambda	: .91	: .82
	: Function F - Ratio	: F = 8.08	: F = 18.13
	: Significance Level	: p < .006	: p < .0001
: Joined 9 to 16 Months After T1 (N = 26)	: Attitudes	: 1 : Time Availability	: Service Orientation
	: Entering	: 2 :	: Value to Community
	: Discr. Funct.	: :	:
	: Canonical Corr.	: .35	: .29
	: % Var. Explained	: 11.9%	: 8.4%
	: Wilk's Lambda	: .88	: .91
	: Function F - Ratio	: F = 10.19	: F = 11.51
	: Significance Level	: p < .002	: p < .0001
: Joined 17 to 24 Months After T1 (N = 31)	: Attitudes	: 1 : Service Orientation	: Service Orientation
	: Entering	: 2 : Value to Community	:
	: Discr. Funct.	: 3 : Accessibility of Org.	:
	: Canonical Corr.	: .67	: .10
	: % Var. Explained	: 44.3%	: 1.0%
	: Wilk's Lambda	: .56	: .98
	: Function F - Ratio	: F = 20.66	: F = 1.47
	: Significance Level	: p < .0001	: p < .10
: Did Not Join During Interval (N = 224)	: Attitudes	: 1 : Service Orientation	:
	: Entering	: 2 : Accessibility of Org.	:
	: Discr. Funct.	: 3 : Resp. of Others	: N.A.
	:	: 4 : Time Availability	:
	:	: 5 : Effects on Life	:
	: Canonical Corr.	: .59	:
	: % Var. Explained	: 35.0%	:
	: Wilk's Lambda	: .65	: N.A.
	: Function F - Ratio	: F = 28.93	:
	: Significance Level	: p < .0001	:

In the two analyses which compared persons joining one to eight months or nine to sixteen months with those active at the time of the measure, only one scale satisfied the entrance and retention criterion ($p < .05$), this being the "Time Available for Participation" attitude scale. The two functions derived accounted for 9.0 and 11.9% of the variance respectively and were both statistically significant ($F = 8.08$, $d.f. = 1, 82$, $p < .006$ for persons joining one to eight months after T1; $F = 10.19$, $d.f. = 1, 75$, $p < .002$ for persons joining nine to sixteen months after T1). This finding suggests that an absence of discretionary time for volunteering may have been the main reason these individuals had delayed their involvement.

In contrast, when persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 were compared to active volunteers, three attitude scales entered into the discriminant function (i.e., Service Orientation to Leisure Time; Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community; Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations). This suggests that substantial differences existed in the attitudes toward voluntary action of these respondents. This latter discriminant function accounted for 44.3% of the response variance and was highly significant ($F = 20.66$, $d.f. = 3, 77$, $p < .0001$).

Precisely the reverse pattern was observed when the joiner groups were compared with non-participants. Thus persons joining one to eight months after T1 possessed attitudes highly distinguishable from non-participants with the three attitude scales entering the discriminant function (Response of Others to Joining; Service

Orientation to Leisure Time; Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community). The discriminant function derived explained 17.6% of the response variance ($F=18.13$, $d.f.=3,251$, $p<.0001$).

On the other hand, no attitude scale was found significant at the $p<.05$ level when the attitudes of persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 were compared with those of non-participants. It is of interest to note however, that four attitude scales were found marginally significant ($p<.10$) in the predicted direction: (Service Orientation to Leisure Time; Time Available for Participation; Response of Others to Joining; Social Opportunities from Participating) indicating that there was at least some attitudinal differentiation between these respondents. When the entrance and retention criterion in the discriminant analysis was relaxed ($p<.10$), the "Service Orientation to Leisure Time" scale was found to be the best single discriminator of persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 from non-joiners. It is worthy of comment, that each comparison of a group of joiners with the non-joiners showed "Service Orientation to Leisure Time" to be among the best discriminators.

As might be anticipated, the most significant discriminant function resulted when persons active at the time of the attitude measure were compared with persons inactive over the two year interval ($F=28.93$, $d.f.=5,267$, $p<.0001$). Five attitude scales passed the entrance and retention criterion in this analysis, these being: "Service Orientation to Leisure Time"; "Accessibility of Voluntary

Organizations"; "Response of Others to Joining"; "Time Available for Participation" and "Effects on Life of Participating". The derived function explained 35.0% of the participation variance.

Finally, to assess the degree to which persons could be assigned to the correct participation category using their attitudes toward voluntary action, classification analyses were performed (see Table 7.7). In this analysis, respondents were randomly divided into two groups, one of the groups was used to construct the discriminant function and then the second group was classified utilizing the derived function. This was done to assess the generalizability of the discriminant function (i.e., cross-validation).

Because non-joiners greatly out-numbered joiners and the fact that grossly unequal group sizes tends to distort classification analyses, non-joiners were randomly divided into four equal groups prior to this analysis. Then separate groups of non-participants were used in each classification analysis. In other words, each analysis contrasted one of the joiner groups with an independent sample of non-participating individuals (see Note 4).

Inspection of Table 7.7 reveals trends consistent with earlier analyses in this study. Persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 could be readily distinguished from active volunteers. However, classifications were considerably less reliable when an attempt was made to distinguish persons joining one to eight months or nine to sixteen months after T1 from active volunteers. Conversely

TABLE 7.7 Results from the Classification Analysis to Assess the Extent to Which Persons Joining After T1 Can Be Reliably Distinguished From Active (T1) and Non-participating Individuals Using Discriminant Functions Derived with Respondent's Attitudes.

: Number of Month : : After T1 Before : : Initiation :	: Comparison : : Group :	: Active at Time : : of First : : Attitude Measre :		: Not Active During : : Two Year Interval :	
		: Cases in Analysis :	: Cases Not in Analysis :	: Cases in Analysis :	: Cases Not in Analysis :
: Joined : : 1 to 8 : : Months : : After T1 :	: % Correctly Classified : : by Chance :	: 52.3% :	: 54.7% :	: 51.7 :	: 61.3 :
	: % Correctly Classified : : by Discr. Funct. :	: 71.1% :	: 66.7% :	: 68.2 :	: 73.9 :
	: Significance of : : Classification :	: $\chi^2 = 7.16$: : (p < .01) :	: $\chi^2 = 2.73$: : (p < .10) :	: $\chi^2 = 5.59$: : (p < .01) :	: $\chi^2 = 4.92$: : (p < .03) :
: Joined : : 9 to 16 : : Months : : After T1 :	: % Correctly Classified : : by Chance :	: 60.7% :	: 58.3% :	: 62.5 :	: 60.9 :
	: % Correctly Classified : : by Discr. Funct. :	: 73.7% :	: 78.9% :	: 72.1 :	: 81.1 :
	: Significance of : : Classification :	: $\chi^2 = 4.47$: : (p < .05) :	: $\chi^2 = 9.95$: : (p < .005) :	: $\chi^2 = 3.70$: : (p < .06) :	: $\chi^2 = 11.19$: : (p < .001) :
: Joined : : 17 to 24 : : Months : : After T1 :	: % Correctly Classified : : by Chance :	: 56.0% :	: 52.9% :	: 66.4 :	: 53.5 :
	: % Correctly Classified : : by Discr. Funct. :	: 90.0% :	: 78.0% :	: 72.7 :	: 61.9 :
	: Significance of : : Classification :	: $\chi^2 = 24.20$: : (p < .0001) :	: $\chi^2 = 11.71$: : (p < .001) :	: $\chi^2 = 1.92$: : (p < .20) :	: $\chi^2 = 2.12$: : (p < .20) :
: Did Not : : Join : : During : : Interval :	: % Correctly Classified : : by Chance :	: 50.3% :	: 50.1% :	: N.A. :	: N.A. :
	: % Correctly Classified : : by Discr. Funct. :	: 84.9% :	: 85.9% :	: N.A. :	: N.A. :
	: Significance of : : Classification :	: $\chi^2 = 26.54$: : (p < .0001) :	: $\chi^2 = 27.79$: : (p < .0001) :	: N.A. :	: N.A. :

persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 often possessed attitudes indistinguishable from non-participating respondents. On the other hand, those joining relatively soon after T1 could be reliably discriminated from non-participators. Finally, non-participating individuals could be distinguished with considerable accuracy from active volunteers. In all instances, the classification success rate remained comparable regardless of whether the cases used to derive the discriminant function were classified or the cross-validation sample was assigned.

7.5 Discussion

The results of this analysis are relatively straightforward. Individuals who joined instrumental organizations soon after the attitude measure (i.e., one to eight months), manifested attitudes remarkably similar to those of active volunteers. In fact, with the exception of a difference in their attitudes toward the availability of time for volunteering, a distinction which may explain why these persons delayed joining, the two groups are indistinguishable with respect to their attitudes toward voluntary action.

This outcome demonstrates that the attitudinal differences observed between active and inactive individuals in cross-sectional studies (e.g., Rogers, 1971; Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973) precede the initiation of voluntary action as predicted by the Selective Attraction Hypothesis (see Note 5).

Nevertheless, as the delay prior to initiation increased, the attitudes of joiners became progressively more like those of non-participating individuals and hence less predictive of participation. In fact, when the join occurred more than sixteen months after the attitude measure, only marginal attitudinal differences were apparent between the joiners and the non-participating respondents. Therefore, positive attitudes toward voluntary action do precede initiation, but only for a limited duration prior to the join. Such an outcome is consistent with those investigations (Kelley & Mirer, 1974; Norman, 1975; Schwartz, 1978) which have found the predictive utility of attitudes to decline as a function of the interval between the measure of attitudes and behavior. However, it warrants mention that the time interval considered in this present study was considerably longer.

At least two factors may be responsible for this outcome. First, the attitudes of non-participants may be less positive than those of active volunteers, but undergo change to a positive state some time prior to initiation. Thus, individuals joining within one to eight months of T1 may have already experienced this change, whereas the persons joining after seventeen to twenty-four months changed their attitudes only after T1. If this were the case, it would then be expected that an attitude measure obtained closer to the time of the delayed initiators' join would have revealed a change towards more favourable attitudes (see Section 8.6 for a test of this hypothesis).

This interpretation means that attitudes will be good short-range predictors of voluntary action, but not particularly good long-range predictors. In addition, if this sort of attitude change does transpire, it will be important to determine when it occurs (i.e., before the decision; during or after the decision has been made, but before the join; after joining) since this will clarify whether attitudes play a role in the decision to become a volunteer (see Chapter Eight).

However, a second interpretation of these results is also possible. It may be that the Selective Attraction Hypothesis is only applicable for a proportion of those who become volunteers. For example, individuals who join to promote the ideals of the organization or to repeat previous experiences may possess attitudes similar to active volunteers which influence their decision to volunteer. On the other hand, the attitudes toward voluntary action of persons joining in response to social encouragement from family and friends, or to further personal goals (e.g., career), may have little to do with their decision to volunteer. If this is the case, and there is also a greater probability that persons with positive attitudes will join during any given time interval (as suggested by the Selective Attraction Hypothesis), then the observed decline in the favourableness of attitudes as a function of initiation delay may be attributable to a difference in the proportion of these two types of volunteers among the three categories of joiners.

This possibility is best illustrated with a hypothetical example. Assume that a sample is drawn which consists of two types

of joiners in equal numbers. The first type undertakes voluntary action because they find it appealing and possess attitudes toward voluntary action similar to those of active volunteers. Assume further, that the probability of a join by such individuals for a hypothetical interval of time is $p=.20$.

On the other hand, a second type of volunteer also exists who undertakes voluntary action due to external factors (e.g., encouragement) or to achieve some personal goal. Because of this fact, their attitudes toward voluntary action play a relatively minor role in their decision to become involved and are therefore similar to non-participating individuals. Assume once again, that because this type of initiator possesses attitudes which do not predispose voluntary action, the probability of a join occurring during this same hypothetical time interval is $p=.10$.

If the individuals in the universe of eventual initiators are grouped according to the time of initiation, then the pattern illustrated in Table 7.8 emerges. Among those joining relatively soon after the attitude measure, volunteers of the first type will dominate (i.e., those with attitudes similar to active volunteers). As a consequence, the mean attitude of this group will tend to be quite positive and similar to persons already active in such organizations. However, as the delay increases prior to initiation, the number of persons with positive attitudes tends to decline more rapidly and joiners of the second type will tend to dominate. Consequently, the mean favourableness of the attitudes declines as a function of the

TABLE 7.8 An Illustration of the Effects of Differential Initiation Probabilities on the Composition of Samples Selected for Time of Join.

Time Interval	Number of Joiners		
	Group 1 Prob (init) = .20 (N = 1000)	Group 2 Prob (init) = .10 (N = 1000)	% of Group 1 Initiators
1	200	100	66.6%
2	160	90	64.0%
3	128	81	61.2%
4	102.4	72.9	58.4%
5	81.9	65.6	55.5%
6	65.5	59.0	52.6%
7	52.4	53.1	49.7%
8	41.9	47.8	46.7%
9	33.5	43.0	43.8%
10	26.8	38.7	40.9%

initiation delay. However, this decline is not attributable to an absence of attitude change, but rather because of a change in the proportions of the two types of joiners.

If a change in the composition of the groups is responsible for the results obtained in this current investigation, two outcomes can be anticipated. First, it would be expected that individuals initiating voluntary action after various delays will possess different characteristics, initiation circumstances and/or reasons for deciding to volunteer. Secondly, any differences which are observed should tend to moderate the attitude-behavior relationship. In the next section these possibilities are examined.

7.6. Procedure

7.6.1 Subjects

Since the objective of this analysis was to determine whether differential sample composition was responsible for the decline in mean attitude as a function of initiation delay, most analyses were restricted to the 90 individuals who undertook voluntary action during the two year interval. However, for some analyses persons active (N=51) at the time of the first attitude measure and individuals not participating during the two year interval (N=224) were employed as comparison groups.

7.6.2 Method

In order to delineate the demographic profile of the respondent, students were asked to report their sex, age and country of birth. Other demographic information was also obtained (e.g., marital status, occupation), but it exhibited insufficient variability to warrant analysis.

In addition, information was collected regarding the circumstances associated with each join (whether or not it was the first time the individual had volunteered; whether a life event had transpired prior to the join; whether the individual had received strong encouragement to join; why they had decided to become involved in the organization). These data were employed to construct variables which identified the conditions under which participation was initiated.

For example, if individuals reported receiving encouragement to join and indicated that they might not have joined without this encouragement, the join was classified as "encouraged". All other individuals were considered not to have required encouragement to join.

A second variable distinguished between those who had experienced a life event prior to joining and those not experiencing such an event. The strategy employed to construct this variable was identical to that used in previous studies in this series (see Section 5.2.3). However, because the measure of life events only asked

about changes which had transpired during the two years of the study, the interval prior to initiation in which life events were considered eligible was shortened to six months for major life events (see Note 6).

To distinguish first time volunteers from persons with prior volunteer experience, all respondents were asked to rate the amount of participation they had experienced (i.e., never active; seldom active; somewhat active; very active) in seven types of voluntary organizations during high school. If the individual reported any involvement in service organizations, political organizations or academically related organizations (i.e., instrumental organizations), they were considered to have had at least some prior volunteer experience. All other persons were classified as first time joiners.

These three parameters were also combined to produce a composite indicator which identified two types of initiation circumstances. The first type occurred when individuals with prior volunteer experience joined without encouragement or antecedent life events. Such respondents were considered prime candidates to have joined due to endogenous dispositional factors and to possess attitudes toward voluntary action with long-range predictive utility. The second type of initiation circumstance was considered to occur when respondents were either first time joiners, strongly encouraged to join and/or experienced an antecedent life event. Because these respondents had not previously volunteered and/or reported situational factors which may have influenced their decision to

participate, these students were considered less likely to possess attitudes predictive of their volunteer activities. The composite indicator should provide a strong test of the potential moderating influence of initiation circumstances on the attitude-voluntary action relationship.

Finally, one other variable was constructed to reflect the reasons why the individual had become a volunteer. This variable distinguished between respondents who had joined exclusively to further the ideals of the organization and those who mentioned at least one personal objective among their reasons for joining. It is of interest to note that the majority of personal objectives mentioned pertained to career advancement (58.0%), a finding consistent with the results of Chapter Five. However, because few students mentioned "Situational-Compensation" as a reason for joining, it was not possible to use the three category explanation typology devised in Chapter Four of this thesis.

For the purpose of all analyses, the average value of the eight attitude scales was employed as the index of the general attitude towards voluntary action.

7.7 Analysis

If the probability of initiation is different for certain types of joiners, it would be expected that individual differences will be apparent among persons undertaking voluntary action after various delays. To assess this possibility, the proportion of respondents

TABLE 7.9 Characteristics and Initiation Circumstances Among Joiners Exhibiting Various Delays Prior to Joining.

Variable	Time of Initiation			Statistical Test (p-value)
	Joined After 1 to 8 months	Joined After 9 to 16 months	Joined After 17 to 24 months	
N	33	26	31	-
% Female	72.7	80.8	77.4	$\chi^2 = .54$ (p < .50)
Mean Age (at T1)	20.4	19.3	19.2	F = 1.89 (p < .20)
% Canadian Born	84.8	80.7	83.9	$\chi^2 = .18$ (p < .70)
% First Time Joiners	33.3	57.7	41.9	$\chi^2 = 3.55$ (p < .20)
% Encouraged	18.2	30.7	32.3	$\chi^2 = 1.93$ (p < .50)
% Reporting Life Event (See Note)	21.2	23.1	25.8	$\chi^2 = .190$ (p < .70)
% Joining to Advance Organizational Goals	45.5	50.0	38.7	$\chi^2 = .75$ (p < .50)
% With Prior experience, Not encouraged, and Not Reporting a Life Event	51.5	38.5	41.9	$\chi^2 = 1.12$ (p < .30)

Note: Proportions reporting life events based on sample N = 79.

reporting each demographic characteristic, type of initiation circumstance and reason for volunteering was calculated for the three categories of initiators (see Table 7.9.).

This analysis revealed no differences among the three groups either in terms of demographic attributes or with respect to the circumstances associated with their join. Thus, there is no support for the hypothesis that the decline in the favourableness of attitudes toward voluntary action was attributable to differences in the types of individuals joining after various delays.

Nevertheless, it was of interest to determine whether certain factors influenced the longer-term predictive utility of these attitudes. To accomplish this, analysis of covariance was employed with the overall attitude towards voluntary action statistically adjusted for the number of months elapsing prior to the join (see Note 7). This procedure will identify types of initiators who exhibit an uncharacteristically favourable or unfavourable overall attitude given their initiation delay.

The results of this analysis (see Table 7.10) reveal that three factors significantly moderate the long-range predictive utility of the overall attitude index. First, persons reporting an antecedant life event possessed a significantly less favourable overall attitude towards voluntary action (mean=-3.44) than did those joining without an antecedent life event (mean=1.05) ($t=3.39$, $d.f.=88$, $p<.001$). Secondly, persons who joined to advance the organization's goals displayed a significantly more favourable overall attitude (mean=1.67) than did individuals joining to advance personal objectives (mean=-1.33)

TABLE 7.10 Mean T1 Attitude Controlling for Time of Join Among Various Types of Initiators, Joining Under Various Recruitment Circumstances.

Variable Type	Group	N	Adjusted T1 Attitude	t - test (p-value)
Sex	Female	69	-.20	t = .62 (N.S.)
	Male	21	.65	
Age (at T1)	19 + under	57	.20	t = .45 (N.S.)
	20 + over	33	-.34	
Nationality	Canadian Born	79	-.05	t = .25 (N.S.)
	Other	11	.39	
Prior Experience	First Join	21	-1.15	t = 1.07 (N.S.)
	Previously Active	69	.35	
Recruitment Episode	Not Encouraged	66	.40	t = 1.12 (N.S.)
	Encouraged	24	-1.10	
Life Events	Not Reported	69	1.05	t = 3.39 (p < .001)
	Reported	21	-3.44	
Explanation For Joining	Advance Org. Goals	40	1.67	t = 2.39 (p < .001)
	Personal Gain	50	-1.33	
Composite Variable	Prior Experience Not Encr + No Life Event	40	2.26	t = 3.64 (p < .001)
	At least One Of Above	50	-1.80	

($t=2.39$, $d.f.=88$, $p<.02$). Finally, the composite indicator distinguishing persons with prior volunteer experience, no antecedent life event and no encouragement to join from those who were either first time joiners, encouraged and/or reported an eligible life, also significantly moderated the attitude-behavior relationship. In this instance, the former group displayed an uncharacteristically favourable overall attitude (mean=2.26) relative to the latter type of joiner (mean=-1.80) ($t=3.64$, $d.f.=88$, $p<.001$).

To illustrate how these differences translated into terms of the unadjusted overall attitude towards voluntary action, the overall T1 attitude of active volunteers, non-participating respondents, and the three groups of joiners was calculated after partitioning joiners with respect to the conditions under which initiation took place. As can be observed in Table 7.11, although the favourableness of the attitude declines as a function of initiation delay for both types of joiners, this decline is more gradual among individuals who reported previous volunteer experience, no encouragement to join and no antecedent life event. In fact, a posteriori comparisons employing Scheffé's test (with $\alpha=.10$), revealed that these kinds of joiners possess an overall T1 attitude not significantly different from active volunteers, even when the join was delayed over sixteen months. In contrast, persons reporting either no previous volunteer experience, a life event or encouragement to join possessed an overall attitude indistinguishable from active volunteers only when the join occurred

TABLE 7.11 Mean T1 Attitude for Various Types of Initiators and for Active and Non-active Persons.

Time Of Initiation	Initiation Circumstance	N	Mean T1 Attitude	A Posteriori Comparisons (Scheffé, alpha = .10) (see note)	
Active at T1		51	5.01	A	
1 to 8 months after T1	Prior History, Not Encouraged, No Life Event	17	4.91	A	
9 to 16 months after T1	Prior History, Not Encouraged, No Life Event	10	4.87	A	
17 to 24 months after T1	Prior History, Not Encouraged, No Life Event	13	4.46	A	NA
1 to 8 months after T1	Either First Join, Encouraged or Reported Life Event	16	4.56	A	NA
9 to 16 months after T1	Either First Join, Encouraged or Reported Life Event	16	4.37		NA
17 to 24 months after T1	Either First Join, Encouraged or Reported Life Event	18	4.08		NA
Not active T1-T2		224	4.03		NA

F - Ratio = 25.98 d.f = 7,357 p < .0001 Adjustment R² = .338

Note: "A" Following group mean indicates that mean attitude was not significantly different from those active at T1;
 "B" Following group mean indicates that mean attitude was not significantly different from those not active T-1-T2.

within eight months of T1. The F-ratio from this analysis was highly significant ($F=25.98$, $d.f.=7,357$, $p<.0001$) with 33.8% of the attitudinal variance explained by this partitioning.

7.8 Discussion

The results of this analysis do not support the hypothesis that the decline in the positiveness of attitudes was attributable to differences in the types of volunteers who joined after various delays. Thus persons who joined one to eight months, nine to sixteen months and seventeen to twenty-four months after the attitude measure did not differ with respect to sex, age, nationality, prior volunteer experience, recruitment episode, antecedent situational stability or the reasons for joining.

On the other hand, the initiation circumstances surrounding the join do appear to moderate the utility of attitudes as longer-term predictors of voluntary action. For example, it was found that persons who joined to further the goals of the organization possessed a more favourable overall attitude towards voluntary action than did individuals who volunteered to accomplish personal objectives.

Moreover, when life events preceded the join, the overall attitude was less positive than would be expected given the delay prior to initiation. This outcome is especially interesting since it assists in clarifying the effects life events have on the decision to participate. Thus had respondents with antecedent life events possessed a more favourable overall attitude towards voluntary action

given the delay prior to initiation, it would have implied that life events merely unleash previously allocated time and permit interested persons to pursue such activities. However, the finding that life events are associated with a less predictive overall attitude suggests that these events may have motivated voluntary action by creating situations which enhanced the perceived utility of participation. This interpretation would be consistent with the results of Chapter Five, and if correct, would suggest an important, previously neglected role for life events in the decision of some individuals to pursue such activities.

It was also revealed that when information about the respondent's prior volunteer activities and recruitment episode were combined with life events, the moderating influence of the combination on the attitude-voluntary action relationship was accentuated. However, the magnitude of this increase (i.e., 11.6% of the variance explained by life events alone versus 13.1% for the composite indicator) is relatively modest and suggests that the prior volunteer experience and social encouragement are comparatively weak moderators of this relationship. This belief is further supported by the fact that prior volunteer activity and encouragement did not significantly alter this relationship when considered independently.

In conclusion, the results of this investigation indicate that the often reported cross-sectional differences in the attitudes of active and non-participating individuals do precede the initiation of these activities. Accordingly, this study supports the Selective Attraction Hypothesis which contends that persons with more

favourable attitudes toward voluntary action are more likely to be attracted to this course of action.

However, at the same time it appears that Selective Attraction may be more applicable for certain types of volunteers than for others. Thus persons who participate in order to promote the ideals of the organization and/or join in the absence of possible situational precipitators of voluntary action (e.g., life events), tend to possess attitudes predictive of their involvement long before initiation. It therefore would appear that their attitudes play an important role in the decision to volunteer.

On the other hand, when external factors precede initiation and/or participation is undertaken to accomplish personal objectives, attitudes toward voluntary action are comparatively poor long-range predictors of such activities (although they are still relatively good short-range predictors). For these individuals, antecedent situational changes and events may be necessary before they are likely to pursue this course of action, and their attitudes toward voluntary action may be of lesser importance in the deliberation.

Notes

1. In retrospect, the omission of a neutral response was considered to be unjustified by this investigator.
2. The proportion of cases correctly assigned by chance in the classification analyses was computed by summing the expected cell frequencies (calculated as if performing a chi-square test) of the principal diagonal of a 2 x 2 contingency table. The contingency table was formed using the number of cases actually in each category as the marginal row totals and the number of cases assigned to each category by the discriminant function as the marginal column totals. This table was also used to calculate the significance of the classification success beyond chance assignment.
3. Factor scores were computed and used in addition to the average scale score. The use of factor scores to assess attitudes has been advocated by a number of theorists (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; LaRocco, 1983; Liska, 1974) and follows directly from the theoretical stance that attitudes cannot be directly measured, but only inferred by latent response tendencies. However, in all instances the results obtained with the average scale value were comparable to those obtained with the factor scores. Thus, since the average score was considered conceptually simpler, it was employed in order not to unnecessarily complicate the procedure, a tactic which could obfuscate otherwise straightforward results.
4. Discriminant analysis between the four randomly assigned groups of non-participants detected no differences in attitudes even remotely significant. As such, these groups were considered equivalent with respect to their attitudes toward voluntary action.
5. It should be noted that attitudinal differences between individuals who subsequently became volunteers and those who did not is also consistent with the Rationalization Hypothesis, particularly if the respondents have already decided to join a voluntary organization. This matter is discussed in greater detail in Chapter Eight.
6. Only life events occurring between T1 and T2 were measured in the questionnaire. As such, the possibility remains that persons joining within 6 months may have experienced a minor or major life event which was not reflected by this measure. It is difficult to determine whether this factor seriously biased the estimate of the proportion reporting life events among those persons joining 1 to 8 months after T1. Of the 33 persons who did initiate during this period, 11 (33.3%) joined within six months of T1. If the person spontaneously reported eligible life events prior to T1, these were considered in the analysis. However, if no life event was reported by the individual, it was assumed that none had occurred.

7. The regression of the overall T1 attitude on the number of months passing prior to involvement demonstrated the predictive power of this parameter. Number of months delayed accounted for 10.7% of the attitudinal variance when considering the sample of initiators and 30.8% of the variance when all respondents were included in the analysis. In both instances the regression fit was found highly significant ($F=10.51$, $d.f.=1,88$, $p<.002$; $F=26.00$, $d.f.=1,363$, $p<.0001$ respectively).

CHAPTER EIGHT

Attitude Change and Voluntary Action

8.0 Abstract

The extent to which attitudes toward voluntary action change when individuals join or leave voluntary organizations has not previously been examined. In this investigation, three longitudinal studies were conducted to discern whether these attitudes change and if so, when these changes are most likely to transpire. The first study examined whether attitudes toward voluntary action changed when university undergraduates joined or left voluntary organizations during a two year interval. These changes were compared to those manifested by persons who were continuously active and those who did not participate during this period. Results showed that when persons joined voluntary organizations, their attitudes toward voluntary action became similar to those of active volunteers. On the other hand, when individuals left an organization, their appraisal of voluntary action became less favourable and more like that of non-participants. In comparison, relatively little attitude change was noted among respondents who remained active or inactive over the two year interval.

The second study sought to discern whether these changes occurred before initiation or only after the individual had begun to

participate. This was accomplished by obtaining three measures of attitudes toward voluntary action at one year intervals and comparing the attitude change exhibited when individuals joined an organization with that manifested by persons in the year preceding initiation. The results indicated that attitudes changed before individuals became volunteers and changed very little once participation began.

Finally, a four month longitudinal investigation was undertaken to examine the relationship between attitudes, intentions to join a voluntary organization, and participation. The objective of this study was to assess whether attitudes changed before individuals decided to volunteer or only after this decision was made. The results showed that individuals who expressed intentions to join a voluntary organization possessed attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. This occurred regardless of whether the individual actually joined an organization in the ensuing four month period. On the other hand, persons with no intentions to volunteer, who nevertheless did join a voluntary organization, possessed attitudes more characteristic of non-participants prior to initiation. These findings indicates that favourable attitudes toward voluntary action primarily emerge after the decision to volunteer has been made, a finding in agreement with the Rationalization Hypothesis.

There was one exception to this trend however. Students who did not intend to join an organization at the time of the first

measure, but who expressed intentions to join within six months of the second measure, manifested T1 attitudes more characteristic of active volunteers than non-participants. This result could mean that attitudes sometimes change to a more positive state before individuals decide to volunteer. Unfortunately, such an interpretation is not unequivocal as it is possible that these individuals may have already decided to volunteer as of T1, but merely deferred participation until after the second measure. The implications of all findings with respect to the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer are discussed.

Attitude Change and Voluntary Action

8.1 Introduction

In Chapter Seven, it was revealed that students who joined voluntary organizations soon after a measure of attitudes (T1) exhibited attitudes toward voluntary action quite similar to those of active volunteers. At the same time, this study also demonstrated that the T1 attitudes of individuals who joined after long delays (i.e., 17 to 24 months after T1) were more similar to those of non-participating individuals.

One explanation advanced to account for this pattern was that attitudes may become more favourable some time prior to the initiation of voluntary action. Thus, persons joining within eight months of the attitude measure may have already changed their attitudes about volunteering, whereas those joining after longer delays had progressively less often done so. If this interpretation is valid, it would be expected that a change to a more favourable appraisal of voluntary action is a common antecedent among those who become volunteers. It is the objective of this chapter to assess this hypothesis.

If attitudes toward voluntary action do shift to a more positive state prior to participation, it will be crucial to determine at what point this change is most likely to transpire as this information will yield considerable insight into the role of attitudes in the decision

to volunteer. For example, if favourable attitudes emerge prior to the decision to join, it would portend a role for attitudes in this deliberation. On the other hand, if this change only takes place after the decision has been made, it would likely indicate that the change is a consequence of the deliberation and of no causal significance.

It is also important to determine whether attitudes change after the individual has begun to volunteer as predicted by the Participation Hypothesis (Herman, 1976). If so, this might partially account for the often reported cross-sectional differences between the attitudes of volunteers and non-volunteers (Rogers, 1971; Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973) as well as revealing a useful method by which to foster desirable attitude changes among certain types of individuals (Gottesfeld & Dozier, 1966; Levens, 1968).

Finally, the extent to which the characteristically positive attitudes of active volunteers persist after persons leave voluntary organizations will also be examined in this chapter. By exploring this facet of the attitude-voluntary action association, it will be possible to assess whether participation leaves an enduring impression upon the attitudes of individuals or merely a transient impact while the individual is actively involved. Information of this sort could reveal whether attitudes toward voluntary action mediate the often reported association between prior voluntary action and future participation (Bullena & Wood, 1970; Fendrich, 1974; Hollingshead, 1949; Kelly, 1974; Snyder, 1967).

It is surprising in view of the potential insight which could be acquired through a study of attitude change and voluntary action, that no prior investigation of this sort has appeared in the voluntary action literature. In fact, the only studies to date which have explored the association between participation and changes in psychological states (Herman, 1976; Zurcher, 1970) have sought to gauge the influence such activities exert on the personality of participants; and even here the measures were obtained only after the respondents had joined the organizations.

Nevertheless, there is a bountiful literature available on the general subject of attitude change which has elucidated numerous characteristics of this phenomenon, including who is most susceptible to persuasion (Baruch, 1972; Wrightsman & Cook, 1965), what types of information yield the most pronounced attitude change (Aronson & Golden, 1962; Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953; Janis, Kaye & Kirschner, 1965; Schweitzer & Ginsburg, 1966; Smith, 1973; Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Firestone & Levy, 1965) and to what extent attitude changes produce a corresponding change in behavior (Cialdini & Ascani, 1976; Leventhal, Singer & Jones, 1965). Moreover, there have been several theoretical models proposed by which to consider the phenomenon of attitude change (Bem, 1972; Festinger, 1957; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Heider, 1958; Osgood & Tannenbaum 1955).

While a detailed examination of this literature is beyond the scope of this current work (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Schuman & Johnson, 1976; for reviews), these investigations have demonstrated that attitudes can be relatively unstable psychological states which on occasion, may exhibit considerable variability over brief intervals of time. This malleability is particularly accentuated when respondents are confronted with counter-attitudinal information (Cook, 1969; Cook & Selitz, 1964; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Kiesler & Munson, 1975; Mussen, 1953; Silverman, 1971).

At the same time, though these studies have thoroughly demonstrated the potential for attitude change, there exists little evidence that attitudes normally do fluctuate with variations in behavior (Zimbardo & Ebbensen 1969). This state of affairs exists largely because investigations in this area have usually employed paradigms which seek to induce attitude change in order to observe its properties. In fact, as far as can be determined, there are no studies which have examined the association between naturally (i.e. unmanipulated) manifested attitudes and changes in behavior over an extended interval of time. Therefore, this present study should provide some insight concerning this neglected facet of attitude-behavior relationships.

In this chapter, the relationship between attitude change and participation in voluntary organizations is examined by means of three longitudinal studies.. The first of these assesses the extent to which

attitudes change when persons join or leave voluntary organizations and compares these changes with those manifested by non-participants and active volunteers over the same interval. Following this, a three-wave longitudinal panel design is utilized to determine whether attitudes tend to change before or after the individual has joined the organization. Finally, whether attitudes change before or after the decision to volunteer is made will be explored in a four month longitudinal investigation.

8.2 Method

8.2.1 Subjects

Participants in this first study were 365 Introductory Psychology students who completed two questionnaires separated by a two year (approximate) interval. For some analyses, a select sample of 319 individuals displaying participation patterns of particular interest were used. Additional details regarding this sample are provided in Section 3.7.4.

8.2.2 Procedure

The procedure employed to develop the attitude inventory has been discussed in detail elsewhere (see Section 7.2) and will be only briefly reviewed here. The attitude inventory employed in this and the second investigation was constructed employing items demonstrated by prior research to distinguish between active and non-active

individuals as well as several original items. From this assortment, those items which best discriminated between participating and non-participating students were selected and arranged into eight scales. These scales covered a broad range of topics pertaining to voluntary action and reliably distinguished between active and non-active students in cross-sectional analyses.

The first measure of attitudes (see Appendix 4B) was obtained from a sample of Introductory Psychology undergraduates in March of 1977 (T1). A subsequent follow-up measure (see Appendix 4D) was administered approximately two years later (T2) to as many of the original respondents as possible. Completed questionnaires were returned by 365 (79.0%) of the original respondents.

The attitude measure employed at T2 was identical to the original in all important respects. Examination of the attitudes reported on this second occasion revealed a significant change towards more favourable attitudes among the respondents (i.e., the average value from all eight scales increased .57, $t=2.02$, $d.f.=364$, $p<.05$). However, this difference appeared largely attributable to the greater number of active volunteers at T2 (i.e., 51 at T1 versus 73 at T2), and was not apparently due to any variation in the procedures used to obtain the two measures. It is of interest to note that the attitudes reported on these two occasions were highly correlated, with coefficients ranging from $r=.35$ to $r=.54$ across the

eight attitude scales (mean $r=.46$, all $p<.0001$). The average value from the eight scales obtained on these two occasions was most highly correlated ($r=.66$) demonstrating that sometimes attitudes do exhibit stability over long intervals of time.

Consistent with the definition of voluntary action adopted for this thesis (see Chapter Two), individuals were considered to have participated in an instrumental voluntary organization only if they reported involvement in an organization for at least one hour per week on average. In addition, to eliminate participation in special campaigns of limited duration, only memberships lasting two or more consecutive months were considered manifestations of voluntary action.

8.3 Analysis

To examine whether attitudes changed when individuals joined or left voluntary organizations, the sample was partitioned into six groups according to the participation pattern manifested over the two year interval:

1. Persons active at both T1 and T2
(N=29, 7.9%)
2. Persons active at T1 but not at T2
(N=22, 6.0%)
3. Persons not active at T1, but joining one to eight months after this time and remaining active until T2
(N=17, 4.7%)
4. Persons not active at T1, but joining nine to sixteen months after this time and remaining active until T2
(N=12, 3.3%)

5. Persons not active at T1, but joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 and remaining active until T2 (N=15, 4.1%)
6. Persons inactive during the entire two year interval (N=224, 61.4%)

It should be noted that 46 (12.6%) persons reported activity in an instrumental organization during this period, but were not active at either T1 or T2. These individuals were excluded from this particular analysis. Using the average value from all eight attitude scales as the index of the respondent's overall attitude towards voluntary action, the mean T1 and T2 attitude as well as the mean T1 to T2 attitude change was computed for each of the six groups (Table 8.1). Two-tailed t-tests were employed to determine whether the attitude change was significantly different from zero.

The results revealed that the magnitude and direction of attitude change depended largely upon the participation pattern manifested over the interval. Persons reporting no change in membership status from T1 to T2 displayed no systematic change in their overall attitude towards voluntary action ($\Delta=.06$, $t=1.04$, $d.f.=28$, $p<.35$ for persons active at both T1 & T2; $\Delta=.05$, $t=1.50$, $d.f.=223$, $p<.15$ for persons not participating during the two year interval). On the other hand, persons not active at T1 who joined a voluntary organization during the interval tended to display more positive attitudes at T2 than at T1. Moreover, the magnitude of this change increased as a function of the amount of time elapsing prior to initiation ($\Delta=.23$, $t=1.47$, $d.f.=16$, $p<.17$ for those joining one to eight

TABLE 8.1 Change in Mean Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action Over Two Year Interval Among Individuals Displaying Various Changes in Membership Status.

Activity Pattern	N	T1 Attitude	T2 Attitude	Difference (T1-T2) (t - test) (p - value)
Active T1 and Active T2	29	5.11 (a) (see note)	5.17 (a)	$\Delta = .06$ $t = 1.04$ ($p < .35$)
Active T1 But Not Active T2	22	5.01 (a)	4.63	$\Delta = -.38$ $t = -3.58$ ($p < .002$)
Joined 1 to 8 Months after T1 Active T2	17	4.81 (a)	5.04 (a)	$\Delta = .23$ $t = 1.47$ ($p < .17$)
Joined 9 to 16 Months after T1 Active T2	12	4.48	4.81 (a)	$\Delta = .33$ $t = 1.95$ ($p < .09$)
Joined 17 to 24 Months after T1 Active T2	15	4.31 (b)	4.83 (a)	$\Delta = .53$ $t = 3.58$ ($p < .003$)
Not Active During Two Year Interval	224	4.09 (b)	4.14 (b)	$\Delta = .05$ $t = 1.50$ ($p < .15$)
Cross-sectional Analysis :				
F - Ratio		F = 29.08	F = 29.52	
d.f.		d.f. = 5,313	d.f. = 5,313	
(p - value)		($p < .0001$)	($p < .0001$)	
Adjusted R ²		.318	.321	

Note: "(a)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Active T1-T2 group.

"(b)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Not Active T1-T2 group.

(Scheffé a posteriori comparisons with alpha = .10).

months after T1; $\Delta=.33$, $t=1.95$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.09$ for those joining nine to sixteen months after T1; $\Delta=.53$, $t=3.58$, $d.f.=14$, $p<.003$ for those joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1). Finally, persons active at T1 who had left the organization by T2 exhibited a significant change towards a less favourable overall attitude ($\Delta=-.38$, $t=-3.58$, $d.f.=21$, $p<.002$).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to compare the attitudes of these six groups at both T1 and T2. This analysis revealed highly significant cross-sectional differences on both occasions ($F=29.08$, $d.f.=5,313$, $p<.0001$, at T1; $F=29.52$, $d.f.=5,313$, $p<.0001$, at T2). A posteriori comparison employing Scheffé's test with $\alpha=.10$, indicated that only those individuals joining a voluntary organization within eight months of T1 initially possessed T1 attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. By T2 however, all persons who had joined an organization during the ensuing interval manifested attitudes similar to the continuously active volunteers.

To determine which attitudes were most likely to fluctuate with changes in membership status, differences scores were computed by subtracting the T1 attitude from the T2 attitude for each scale. Then, two-tailed t-tests were employed to determine whether this change departed significantly from zero. Because some groups sizes were perilously small and many t-tests were conducted, this exploratory analysis should be interpreted with some caution (see Table 8.2).

TABLE 8.2 Attitude Differences During Two Year Period Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns with t-tests for Significance from Zero Change.

Attitude Scale	ACTIVITY PATTERN						
	Active T1 and Active T2 (N = 29)	Active T1 But Not Active T2 (N = 22)	1 to 8 Months, Active T2 (N = 17)	9 to 16 Months, Active T2 (N = 12)	17 to 24 Months, Active T2 (N = 15)	Not Active During Interval (N = 224)	Total Sample (N = 365)
Service Orientation To Leisure Time	$\Delta = -.017$ (p < .92)	$\Delta = -.409$ (p < .06)	$\Delta = .088$ (p < .81)	$\Delta = -.042$ (p .91)	$\Delta = .567$ (p < .05)	$\Delta = .027$ (p < .71)	$\Delta = .026$ (p < .67)
Perceived Obligation to Participate	$\Delta = -.034$ (p < .81)	$\Delta = -.409$ (p < .02)	$\Delta = -.235$ (p < .24)	$\Delta = .417$ (p < .09)	$\Delta = .467$ (p < .11)	$\Delta = .058$ (p < .34)	$\Delta = .030$ (p < .52)
Effects on Life of Participating	$\Delta = .068$ (p < .60)	$\Delta = -.386$ (p < .09)	$\Delta = .471$ (p < .11)	$\Delta = .292$ (p < .34)	$\Delta = .700$ (p < .02)	$\Delta = -.032$ (p < .69)	$\Delta = .023$ (p < .67)
Time Available for Participation	$\Delta = .121$ (p < .57)	$\Delta = -.750$ (p < .01)	$\Delta = .764$ (p < .05)	$\Delta = .750$ (p < .21)	$\Delta = .800$ (p < .14)	$\Delta = .132$ (p < .20)	$\Delta = .147$ (p < .07)
Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations	$\Delta = -.017$ (p < .84)	$\Delta = -.523$ (p < .005)	$\Delta = .029$ (p < .87)	$\Delta = .375$ (p < .70)	$\Delta = .300$ (p < .18)	$\Delta = .121$ (p < .03)	$\Delta = .078$ (p < .07)
Social Opportunities from Participating	$\Delta = .086$ (p < .54)	$\Delta = -.068$ (p < .75)	$\Delta = .353$ (p < .08)	$\Delta = -.250$ (p < .28)	$\Delta = .267$ (p < .31)	$\Delta = .013$ (p < .85)	$\Delta = .012$ (p < .80)
Response of Others to Joining	$\Delta = .224$ (p < .27)	$\Delta = -.318$ (p < .13)	$\Delta = .265$ (p < .21)	$\Delta = .708$ (p < .009)	$\Delta = .500$ (p < .05)	$\Delta = -.040$ (p < .58)	$\Delta = .020$ (p < .71)
Value of Voluntary Org. to the Community	$\Delta = .066$ (p < .59)	$\Delta = -.209$ (p < .11)	$\Delta = .124$ (p < .57)	$\Delta = .367$ (p < .23)	$\Delta = .633$ (p < .004)	$\Delta = .130$ (p < .02)	$\Delta = .121$ (p < .006)

Note: Δ = attitude change T1 to T2.

Persons active at both T1 and T2 displayed the least attitude change over the period, with no significant changes in any of the eight attitudes measured. Rather interestingly however, there were some significant changes in the attitudes of persons not participating during the two year period. In this instance, non-participants exhibited more favourable attitudes toward the "Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations" ($\Delta=.12$, $t=2.12$, $d.f.=223$, $p<.03$) and the "Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community" ($\Delta=.13$, $t=2.34$, $d.f.=223$, $p<.02$).

Only one attitude changed significantly among persons joining within eight months of the first attitude measure, this being their appraisal of the "Time Available for Participation" ($\Delta=.76$, $t=2.11$, $d.f.=16$, $p<.05$). Similarly, persons undertaking voluntary action nine to sixteen months after T1, exhibited only one significant positive attitude change. In this case however, it was with respect to their evaluation of the "Response of Others to Joining" ($\Delta=.71$, $t=3.14$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.009$). In contrast, persons joining an instrumental organization after a seventeen to twenty-four month delay, exhibited significant positive changes in four of the attitudes measured, these being "Service Orientation to Leisure Time" ($\Delta=.57$, $t=2.11$, $d.f.=14$, $p<.05$), "Effects on Life of Participating" ($\Delta=.70$, $t=2.63$, $d.f.=14$, $p<.02$), "Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community" ($\Delta=.63$, $t=3.43$, $d.f.=14$, $p<.004$) and "Response of Others to Joining" ($\Delta=.50$, $t=2.09$, $d.f.=14$, $p<.05$).

No group exhibited more attitude change than those initially active who terminated their involvement prior to T2. Among these respondents, seven of eight attitude measures detected shifts toward less favourable attitudes, with three of these changes statistically different from zero. The four other changes were marginally significant at $p < .13$ or better. In fact, the only attitude index which did not change when persons left an organization was the "Social Opportunities From Participating" measure. This outcome suggests that the positive attitudes held while active, did not entirely persist once the activities had been terminated.

To assess which attitudes fluctuated most with changes in membership status, a variable was constructed which reflected the time period during the two year interval in which the individual was active in a voluntary organization (i.e., the balance in activity). This variable was calculated by subtracting the number of months after T1 before initiation occurred, from the number of months prior to T2 since the individual was last active. If a positive value was obtained from this computation, it signified that the individual had predominantly participated during the first year of the study. On the other hand, a negative value would indicate that more activity had occurred during the second year of the study. Individuals exhibiting equal amounts of activity in both years of the study would receive a score of zero from this computation. It is expected that those attitudes which varied most with changes in membership status would exhibit the strongest correlation with this index.

Using only those persons who participated at some point during the two year interval, correlation coefficients were computed between each attitude change score and the activity balance indicator (see Table 8.3). All but one of the attitude scales (i.e., "Social Opportunities from Participating") exhibited significant positive correlations with this indicator, with coefficients ranging from $r=.22$ to $r=.36$. The overall attitude index (i.e., the average value of the eight scales) exhibited the strongest association with the activity balance score ($r=.47$, $p<.0001$).

Stepwise multiple linear regression analysis was conducted regressing the activity balance index on the T1 to T2 attitude change scores to identify those attitudes which fluctuated most with changes in membership status (see bottom of Table 8.3). Consistent with prior applications of this procedure, predictor variables were entered and retained in the regression equation only if the semi-partial F-ratio was significant after controlling for those variables already in the equation. Three attitude scales satisfied this entrance/retention criterion, these being (in order of entry): "Response of Others to Joining", "Perceived Obligation to Participate", and "Service Orientation to Leisure Time". The overall regression equation was found highly significant ($F=11.0$, $d.f.=3,108$, $p<.0001$) and explained 22.0% of the variance in the activity balance indicator.

TABLE 8.3 Attitudinal Change (T1-T2) as a Function of Balance in Activity Displayed During the Two Year Interval.

Attitude Scale	MEAN CHANGE IN ATTITUDE (T1 - T2)					F - Ratio (p value) d.f. = 4,359	Correlation Between Attitude Change and Activity Balance Score
	Predominantly Active Early (Bal > 12)	More Active During 1st Yr (0 < Bal < 12)	Balanced Activity (Bal = 0)	More Active During 2nd Year (-1 > Bal > -12)	Predominantly Active Late (Bal < -12)		
Service Orientation to Leisure Time	-.542	-.045	.022	-.081	.542	F = 3.67 (p < .006)	r = .300 (p < .001)
Perceived Obligation to Participate	-.619	.045	.047	-.103	.403	F = 4.76 (p < .001)	r = .349 (p < .0002)
Effects on Life of Participating	-.405	-.182	-.020	.279	.458	F = 3.01 (p < .020)	r = .296 (p < .002)
Time Available for Participation	-.405	-.250	.131	.338	.639	F = 2.09 (p < .09)	r = .222 (p < .02)
Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations	-.453	-.273	.105	.250	.250	F = 4.07 (p < .003)	r = .314 (p < .0007)
Social Opportunities from Participation	-.381	-.091	.022	.324	-.056	F = 1.75 (p < .15)	r = .108 (p < .26)
Response of Others to Joining	-.381	-.477	-.010	.309	.500	F = 4.67 (p < .001)	r = .360 (p < .0001)
Value to Voluntary Org. to the Community	-.391	.036	.122	.141	.442	F = 3.47 (p < .008)	r = .320 (p < .0006)
Average of the Attitude Scales	-.452	-.154	.053	.185	.400	F = 10.43 (p < .0001)	r = .472 (p < .0001)
Results From Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression: Analysis with Balance Score as Dependent Variable	Note: Analysis is restricted to individuals joining and/or leaving an organization during the two year interval.						
	Variables Entered into Equation					Step 1) Response of Others to Joining	
						Step 2) Obligation to Participate	
						Step 3) Service Orientation to Leisure	
	Multiple R = .484 Adjusted R-square = .220					F - Ratio = 11.0	
						d.f. = 3,108, p < .0001	
NOTE: Groups not statistically different shown by lines above and below attitude means (Scheffé a posteriori comparisons with alpha = .10)							

8.4 Discussion

The results from these analyses clearly indicate that attitudes toward voluntary action change when individuals join and leave voluntary organizations, but tend to remain relatively stable otherwise.

For example, persons active on both occasions exhibited no attitude change from T1 to T2. Similarly, while persons not participating during the two year interval did display more favourable attitudes as of T2 toward the "Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations" and the "Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community", the magnitudes of these shifts were relatively modest. Nevertheless, this latter outcome does show that attitudes toward voluntary action can change even in the absence of participation. However, whether these changes were attributable to variations in procedure, the effects of university attendance, increased maturity or some other factor cannot be ascertained with these data.

Persons joining a voluntary organization during the interval tended to exhibit positive shifts in their attitudes toward voluntary action from T1 to T2. The magnitude of these changes increased as a function of the initiation delay as well as the initial discrepancy between their attitudes and those of active volunteers. Persons joining within eight months of T1, who already possessed attitudes similar to those of active volunteers, changed only in their appraisal of the "Time Available for Participation". This finding suggests that situational constraints may have been responsible for their delayed

initiation. In contrast, persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after T1, who had originally possessed attitudes quite distinct from active volunteers, displayed considerable attitude change from T1 to T2, with four of the eight attitude indices changing significantly.

Perhaps most unexpected were the attitude changes observed among individuals active at T1, who had left the organization by T2. Among these individuals, less favourable impressions of voluntary action were detected by seven of the eight attitude scales with three of these changes statistically significant. It would therefore appear that the positive attitudes manifested by these respondents at T1 did not persist unabated once participation was terminated. At the same time, it warrants mention that these individuals continued to exhibit attitudes significantly more favourable than non-participating respondents (see Table 8.1). Therefore, despite these changes in attitudes, participation in a voluntary organization still appears to leave a residual effect upon the attitudes of former volunteers.

There is little evidence of participation effects in these data insofar as active volunteers exhibited no systematic attitude modulation. Nevertheless, it is not possible to completely dismiss participation effects as the reason why the attitudes changed among those who joined a voluntary organization. In order to do this, it would be necessary to obtain a measure of attitudes on two occasions prior to the initiation of voluntary action, and demonstrate that attitudes change prior to joining the organization. In the next section, consideration is given to an investigation fulfilling this design requirement.

8.5 Method

8.5.1 Subjects

Respondents in this second analysis were a subset of the original sample consisting of 87 university undergraduates who completed an additional questionnaire approximately one year after the first attitude measure. From this sample, 80 persons were selected who exhibited participation patterns of particular interest. For further details concerning this sample, the reader should consult Section 3.7.4.

8.5.2 Procedure

The questionnaire employed to obtain a measure of attitudes after one year was identical in form and content to the original questionnaire with the exception that information about the participation which occurred during the intervening period was collected (see Appendix 4C). The criteria for participation was the same as that used in the first study (see Section 8.2.2).

8.6 Analysis

The objective of this analysis was to assess whether attitudes changed before the initiation of voluntary action or only after the individual had joined the organization. To determine this, attitudes measured on three separate occasions (separated approximately by one year intervals) were examined among respondents displaying each of the following participation patterns:

1. Individuals reporting activity at T1, T2 and T3.
(N=11, 12.6%)
2. Individuals not active at the time of the first attitude measure, but reporting activity at both T2 and T3
(N=7, 8.0%)
3. Individuals not active at T1 and T2 reporting active involvement as of T3
(N=9, 10.3%)
4. Individuals inactive from T1 to T3
(N=44, 50.6%)

If attitudes change prior to the initiation of voluntary action, then the most pronounced attitude changes from T1 to T2 should be manifested by persons who were inactive during the first year of the study (T1 to T2) and who joined an organization during the second year (T2 to T3). Conversely, if attitudes change only after participation begins, then T1 to T2 attitude change should be most evident among persons joining during the first year and T2 to T3 attitude change most apparent among those joining during the second year.

Using the average value of the eight attitude scales as an index of the overall attitude towards voluntary action, the mean value was computed for persons displaying each of the identified participation patterns (see Table 8.4). While the groups are often perilously small, trends indicate that overall attitude tended to change before the individuals began to participate. In fact, after controlling for between subject variation, only individuals joining during the second year of the study exhibited a significant T1 to T2 attitude change ($F=10.26$, $d.f.=2,16$, $p<.005$).

TABLE 8.4 Mean Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action at Three Points in Time Among Persons Manifesting Various Participation Patterns Over Two Year Interval.

Activity Pattern (T1 to T3)	N	T1 Attitude	T2 Attitude	T3 Attitude	Within-Group F - Ratio d.f. (p-value)
Active (T1, T2 & T3)	11	4.85 (a)	5.04 (a)	4.87 (a)	F = 1.66 d.f. = 2, 20 (N.S.)
Not Active T1 : Active T2, T3	7	4.68 (a) (b)	4.80 (a)	4.67 (a) (b)	F = 1.66 d.f. = 2, 12 (N.S.)
Not Active T1 + T2 : Active T3	9	3.94 (b)	4.61 (a) (b)	4.62 (a) (b)	F = 10.26 d.f. = 2, 16 (p < .005)
Not Active T1, T2 & T3	44	4.07 (b)	4.04 (b)	4.07 (b)	F = .45 d.f. = 2, 86 (N.S.)
Between-Group F - Ratio (d.f. = 3, 67)		F = 6.85 (p < .05)	F = 9.45 (p < .02)	F = 8.10 (p < .03)	

Note: "(a)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Active T1-T2-T3 group.

"(b)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Not Active T1-T2-T3 group.

(Scheffé a posteriori comparisons with alpha = .10)

To enhance the group sizes for subsequent analysis, the partitioning criteria were relaxed to include persons exhibiting one of the three participation patterns despite not being active at the time of the third attitude measure. The new groups resulting from this partitioning were as follows:

1. Persons active at T1 and T2
(N=12, 13.8%)
2. Persons not active at T1 who joined between T1 and T2
and were active at T2
(N=12, 13.8%)
3. Persons not active between T1 and T2 who joined
between T2 and T3
(N=12, 13.8%)
4. Persons inactive during the entire two year interval
(N=44, 50.6%)

With this partitioning, the first analysis was repeated using the measures of attitudes obtained at T1 and T2 (see Table 8.5). As may be observed, only persons undertaking voluntary action during the second year (T2 to T3) exhibited a significant positive shift in their overall attitude towards voluntary action from T1 to T2 ($\Delta=.52$, $t=3.94$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.002$).

Further analyses were conducted using the eight individual attitude scales. As before, two-tailed t-tests were employed to determine if the attitude change was significantly different from zero. Once again, caution should be exercised in interpreting these exploratory analyses because of the number of t-tests conducted and the small group sizes (see Table 8.6).

TABLE 8.5 Change in Overall Attitude Towards Voluntary Action During First Year of Study (T1 to T2) Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns Over Two Year Period (T1 to T3).

Activity Pattern	N	T1 Attitude	T2 Attitude	Difference Score t - test (p - value)
Active T1 and Active T2	12	4.91 (a)	5.06 (a)	$\Delta = .15$ $t = 1.39$ ($p < .20$)
Joined T1 - T2 Active at T2	12	4.77 (a)	4.85 (a)	$\Delta = .08$ $t = .51$ ($p < .65$)
Joined T2 - T3 Not Active T1-T2	12	4.04 (b)	4.56 (a)	$\Delta = .52$ $t = 3.94$ ($p < .002$)
Not Active During Two Year Interval	44	4.07 (b)	4.04 (b)	$\Delta = -.03$ $t = .52$ ($p < .60$)
Cross-sectional Analysis		T1 Attitudes	T2 Attitudes	
F - Ratio		F = 9.88	F = 13.40	
d.f.		d.f. = 3,76	d.f. = 3,76	
(p - Value)		p < .0001	p < .0001	
Adjusted R - Square		R ² = .281	R ² = .346	

NOTE: "(a)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from active T1-T2 group.

"(b)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from not active T1-T2 group.

(Scheffé a posteriori comparisons with alpha = .10)

TABLE 8.6 Attitude Changes (T1-T2) Among Individuals Displaying Various Activity Patterns with t-tests for Significance from Zero Change.

Attitude Scale	ACTIVITY PATTERN				
	Active T1 and Active T2 (N = 12)	Joined T1 to T2 (N = 12)	Joined T2 to T3 (N = 12)	Not Active During Interval (N = 44)	Total Sample (N = 80)
Service Orientation To Leisure Time	$\Delta = .042$ (p < .90)	$\Delta = .083$ (p < .81)	$\Delta = .458$ (p < .05)	$\Delta = -.148$ (p < .36)	$\Delta = -.017$ (p < .87)
Perceived Obligation to Participate	$\Delta = -.125$ (p < .34)	$\Delta = -.167$ (p < .37)	$\Delta = .958$ (p < .002)	$\Delta = .068$ (p < .66)	$\Delta = .111$ (p < .27)
Effects on Life of Participating	$\Delta = .375$ (p < .03)	$\Delta = -.125$ (p < .59)	$\Delta = .375$ (p < .12)	$\Delta = -.125$ (p < .30)	$\Delta = -.035$ (p < .70)
Time Available for Participation	$\Delta = .458$ (p < .14)	$\Delta = .708$ (p < .20)	$\Delta = 1.00$ (p < .02)	$\Delta = -.227$ (p < .30)	$\Delta = .145$ (p < .36)
Accessibility of Voluntary Organizations	$\Delta = -.125$ (p < .39)	$\Delta = .208$ (p < .51)	$\Delta = .208$ (p < .48)	$\Delta = .011$ (p < .91)	$\Delta = .035$ (p < .66)
Social Opportunities from Participating	$\Delta = .125$ (p < .62)	$\Delta = -.208$ (p < .41)	$\Delta = .125$ (p < .71)	$\Delta = .216$ (p < .20)	$\Delta = .111$ (p < .30)
Response of Others to Joining	$\Delta = .542$ (p < .005)	$\Delta = .208$ (p < .68)	$\Delta = .708$ (p < .06)	$\Delta = .227$ (p < .25)	$\Delta = .308$ (p < .02)
Value of Voluntary Org. to the Community	$\Delta = -.092$ (p < .69)	$\Delta = -.083$ (p < .77)	$\Delta = .308$ (p < .14)	$\Delta = .264$ (p < .05)	$\Delta = .130$ (p < .15)

Note: Δ = Attitude Change (T1-T2).

The results showed that significant positive attitude changes were exhibited by both inactive respondents and persons active at the time of the first two attitude measures. Nevertheless, these changes were rather modest by comparison to those manifested by persons who joined a voluntary organization between T2 and T3. With respect to this latter group, more favourable attitudes were manifested toward their "Perceived Obligation to Participate" ($\Delta=.96$, $t=4.10$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.002$), "Service Orientation to Leisure Time" ($\Delta=.46$, $t=2.20$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.05$), and the "Time Available for Participation" ($\Delta=1.0$, $t=2.75$, $d.f.=11$, $p<.02$). What is more, marginally significant changes in the predicted direction were found for three other attitude scales, these being "Response of Others to Joining" ($\Delta=.71$, $t=2.05$, $p<.07$), "Effects on Life of Participating" ($\Delta=.38$, $t=1.56$, $p<.12$) and "Value of Voluntary Organizations to the Community" ($\Delta=.31$, $t=1.48$, $p<.14$). In contrast, persons joining during the first year of the study displayed no systematic change in their attitudes from T1 to T2.

8.7 Discussion

This analysis indicates that attitudes change before the initiation of activities. It thus appears that the Participation Hypothesis is unable to account for the attitudinal shifts observed with these data.

There are two other attitude-behavior models which are consistent with this pattern of results however. The first is the Selective Attraction Hypothesis which contends that individuals are

attracted to voluntary action because they possess positive attitudes toward this sort of activity. The second is is Rationalization Hypothesis which maintains that attitudes change because of cognitive processes (e.g., dissonance reduction) associated with the decision to become a volunteer.

To distinguish between these two models, one further investigation was conducted. In this study, attitudes toward voluntary action and intentions to join a voluntary organization were obtained from a sample of university undergraduates on two occasions separated by a four month interval. With these data, the attitudes of joiners who had already decided to volunteer as of T1 (i.e., post-decision stage) were compared to those of joiners who arrived at this decision only after their attitudes had been measured (i.e., pre-decision stage). If positive attitudes are exhibited prior to the decision to volunteer as predicted by the Selective Attraction Hypothesis, both groups should possess attitudes similar to active volunteers. However, if positive attitudes emerge only after the decision is made, those in the post-decision stage (i.e., intending to join) should possess attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers, whereas those in the pre-decision stage (i.e., no intentions to join) will manifest attitudes more typical of non-participating respondents. As well, because this research design affords an opportunity to examine the changes in attitudes from T1 to T2, it will also be possible to assess whether attitudes change when individuals decide to volunteer, join voluntary organizations or terminate participation.

8.8 Method

8.8.1 Subjects

Participants in this final study were obtained from a sample of 1136 Introductory Psychology undergraduates who completed a questionnaire (Appendix 5A) in September, 1980 (T1). This questionnaire measured their current involvement in four types of voluntary organizations, their attitudes toward various types of voluntary action, and their plans for participation during the next four months. Approximately four months later (i.e., January, 1981; T2), a similar version of this questionnaire (Appendix 5B) was administered to determine whether the original respondents had participated in a voluntary organization during the intervening period or whether they had any intentions to do so in the next six months. This questionnaire also obtained a second measure of their attitudes toward voluntary action to assess whether any change had occurred since the first measure.

Of the original 1136 respondents, 671 (59.1%) completed the second questionnaire. Sample attrition was primarily attributable to lack of attendance the day the second measure was administered as only 12 students declined to participate in the study. To determine whether this sample attrition was systematic, the T1 responses of individuals who completed both questionnaires were compared with those of persons completing only the first questionnaire. This comparison, present in Tables 8.7 and 8.8, revealed no significant differences between the two groups with respect to sex, age, year in

TABLE 8.7 Comparison of the Characteristics of Those Measured at T1 Only with Those Measured Both T1 and T2.

	Measured at T1 and T2 (N = 671) %	Measured at T1 only (N = 465) %	Chi-Square d.f. (p - value)
% Female	58.0	60.2	$\chi^2 = .57$ d.f. = 1 (p < .45)
% Academic Year			
1st Year	90.3	88.8	$\chi^2 = 3.39$
2nd Year	5.2	6.9	d.f. = 2
3rd Year	4.5	4.3	(p < .64)
% Major			
Social Sciences	16.7	19.6	
Health Related	5.5	5.4	
Social Work	4.3	5.4	
Physical Sciences	14.2	15.9	$\chi^2 = 21.40$
Commerce	32.2	20.9	d.f. = 8
Engineering	4.5	3.9	(p < .01)
Physical Education	6.3	7.7	
Other	4.6	5.2	
Undecided	11.6	16.3	
% Active in Service Organization at T1	27.6	27.7	$\chi^2 = .004$ d.f. = 1 (p < .95)
% Intending to Join Service Organization within 4 Months of T1	26.8	28.0	$\chi^2 = .42$ d.f. = 1 (p < .81)

TABLE 8.8 Comparison of Mean Attitudes of Those Measured at T1 Only Versus Those Measured T1 and T2.

Attitude Item	Measured at T1 and T2 (N = 671)	Measured at T1 Only (N = 465)	t - Test d.f. (p - value)
I have a lot in common with most people who belong to service groups.	3.97	4.06	t = .96 d.f. = 1134 (p < .34)
I sometimes feel I should be involved in a service group.	4.69	4.71	t = .05 d.f. = 1134 (p < .82)
I believe in the goals or purposes of at least some service groups.	5.45	5.42	t = -.51 d.f. = 1134 (p < .61)
People who are important to me would be pleased if I joined a service group.	4.73	4.77	t = .61 d.f. = 1134 (p < .54)
I think I would enjoy the activities involved in being a member of a service group	4.45	4.55	t = 1.06 d.f. = 1134 (p < .29)
Some of my personal goals for self-improvement and development would be advanced by joining a service group	4.78	4.81	t = .30 d.f. = 1134 (p < .77)
All things considered I would very much like to be a member of a service group	4.47	4.48	t = .10 d.f. = 1134 (p < .91)
Average Value of All Items	4.65	4.69	t = .58 d.f. = 1134 (p < .56)

university, the proportion intending to participate in a voluntary service organization or the proportion activity involved in a service organization. In addition, no differences were detected in the respondents' attitudes toward voluntary action. It was noted however, that commerce majors were over-represented and those with undetermined university majors under-represented among respondents completing the second questionnaire ($\chi^2=21.4$, d.f.=8, $p<.01$).

From this sample, 318 (47.4%) students were selected who displayed participation and/or intentions of particular interest. Included in this subset were 100 (14.9%) persons who reported activity in a service organization at T1 and/or T2, 66 (9.8%) individuals who reported intentions to join a service organization at T1 and/or T2 and a further 152 (22.7%) respondents who reported neither activity or intentions to participate in a service organization during the investigation. The remaining 353 students were excluded from this analysis because they had participated or expressed intentions to participate in another type of voluntary organization (see Note 1).

For additional details concerning this sample, the reader may refer to Section 3.7.5.

8.8.2 Measurement of Attitudes

The study reported here was actually part of a larger investigation examining the relationship between attitudes, intentions and participation in four types of voluntary organizations:

1. Service Groups: such as volunteer groups which aid the disabled, distressed, handicapped, aged or young people; school year book staffs, etc.
2. Political Groups: such as political parties, student councils, civic rights groups, ecology groups, etc.
3. Social Clubs: such as friendship clubs, hobby clubs, ethnic groups, non-competitive athletic groups, etc.
4. Competitive Groups: such as organized athletic clubs (e.g., football, hockey), debating teams, chess teams, etc.

Although this study will only deal with the results pertaining to service groups, the fact that four types of voluntary organizations were examined did influence the design of the attitude measure.

The technique employed to obtain an assessment of attitudes toward the four types of voluntary action was similar to that used in previous studies. Students were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with a number of opinionated statements using the following seven point Likert scale:

- +3 = strongly agree
- +2 = moderately agree
- +1 = slightly agree
- 0 = don't know or no opinion
- 1 = slightly disagree
- 2 = moderately disagree
- 3 = strongly disagree

It should be noted that in contrast to the response scale used in the previous measure of attitudes, this scale contained a neutral response option. To eliminate negative values, three was added to all responses prior to analysis.

The attitude measure consisted of seven opinionated statements, each phrased so that increased agreement denoted more positive (i.e., favourable) attitudes toward voluntary action. For each item, students were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement as it applied to each of the four group types. For example, with respect to the first item, students were instructed to appraise the statements: "I have a lot in common with most people who belong to service groups"; "I have a lot in common with most people who belong to political groups"; "I have a lot in common with most people who belong to social groups"; "I have a lot in common with most people who belong to competitive groups". Therefore, 28 responses were required to complete the seven item questionnaire. The seven opinionated statements comprising the measure of attitudes toward service organizations were:

1. I have a lot in common with most people who belong to [service groups].
2. I sometimes feel I should be involved in a [service group].
3. I believe in the goals or purposes of at least some [service groups].
4. People who are important to me would be pleased if I joined a [service group].
5. I think I would enjoy the activities involved in being a member of a [service group].
6. Some of my personal goals for self-improvement and development would be advanced by joining a [service group].
7. All things considered, I would very much like to be a member of a [service group].

The attitude measure was designed to cover a broad range of issues which might be relevant when contemplating participation in a service organization including "Perceived Social Commonality" (Item 1); "Perceived Obligation to Participate" (Item 2); "Identification with Organizational Goals" (Item 3); "Response of Significant Others to Joining" (Item 4); "Activity Enjoyment" (Item 5); "Personal Goal Advancement Through Voluntary Action" (Item 6); and a general evaluation of the desirability of participating in such organizations (Item 7). Since particular group types were identified in each statement, the attitude items in this inventory may be considered more specific than the those used in the first attitude inventory.

Because attitudes toward four types of participation were obtained, it was possible to assess the extent to which individuals possessed similar attitudes toward various forms of voluntary action. This was accomplished by performing principal factor analysis with the original sample of 1136 students (see Table 8.9). Four factors were extracted in this analysis with eigen values of 6.65, 4.57, 4.41 and 2.35. In combination, the factors accounted for 64.3% of the response variance. Inspection of the factor loadings following Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization revealed that attitude items pertaining to the four group types each loaded on different factors. This outcome showed that students possessed distinct attitudes toward each of the four group types and that the evaluation of various facets of any particular group type was relatively consistent across the seven attitude items. To assess respondents' attitudes toward service

TABLE 8.9 Factor Loadings Following Varimax Rotation With Kaiser Normalization
(N = 1136).

Attitude Item	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III	Factor IV
A lot in common with political volunteers	.73	-.03	-.03	.04
Should be involved in political groups	.82	.04	-.01	.09
Believe in goals of political groups	.58	.12	.09	.09
Significant other pleased if join political grp.	.66	.06	.08	.01
Enjoy activities of political groups	.90	-.02	-.02	.02
Personal goals advanced by political groups	.84	.07	.04	.03
Like to be member of political groups	.90	.01	.00	.05
A lot in common with competitive volunteers	.06	.73	-.10	-.09
Should be involved in competitive groups	.09	.75	.05	-.04
Believe in goals of competitive groups	.03	.72	.08	.06
Significant other pleased if join compt. grp.	.04	.64	.09	.14
Enjoy activities of competitive groups	.01	.90	.03	.01
Personal goals advanced by competitive grp.	.02	.78	.12	.03
Like to be member of competitive group	.00	.90	.04	.04
A lot in common with social volunteers	.06	-.03	.66	.21
Should be involved in social groups	.01	.02	.73	.18
Believe in goals of social groups	-.03	.12	.62	.18
Significant other pleased if join social group	.04	.04	.58	.11
Enjoy activities of social groups	.01	.02	.86	.16
Personal goals advanced by social group	.01	.10	.73	.17
Like to be member of social group	.08	.02	.82	.21
A lot in common with service volunteers	.15	-.11	.17	.61
Should be involved in service groups	.11	-.01	.23	.70
Believe in goals of service groups	.00	.20	.19	.48
Significant other pleased if join service grp	-.02	.16	.23	.57
Enjoy activities of service groups	.04	-.04	.14	.85
Personal goals advanced by service group	.00	.05	.16	.79
Like to be member of service group	.07	-.04	.19	.83
Eigen Value	6.65	4.57	4.41	2.35
% Variance Explained by Factor	23.8	16.3	15.8	8.4

organizations alone, this analysis was repeated using only those items pertaining to this type of organization. As might be anticipated, a single factor was extracted with an eigen value of 4.04 which accounted for 57.8% of the response variance. Based on this outcome, a composite attitude index was established by averaging the responses across all seven items.

Finally, it is of interest to note that the attitudes manifested at T1 and T2 were highly correlated, with coefficients ranging from .31 to .59 (mean $r=.50$) across the attitude items. The T1 to T2 correlation between the composite attitude index was .68 revealing considerable stability over the four month interval. All correlation coefficients were significant at $p<.0001$.

8.8.3 Measurement of Intentions and Participation

Participation at T1 was assessed by the question "How many hours per week are you currently spending participating in a [service organization]?". Individuals reporting one hour or more participation in a service organization were considered to be active volunteers. To determine whether activity had occurred between T1 and T2, respondents were asked:

During the period since August, 1980 to date (i.e., the last 6 months) have you at any time been involved as an active member (i.e., attended meetings, practices or in some way spent time with a group on a reasonably regular basis) in [any service organizations]?

Individuals reporting at least one hour of participation per week on average were considered to have participated in a service organization.

The students were also asked whether they intended to participate in a service group. At T1, the question used was: "Within the next four months do you plan to join a [service group]?" This question had response options of "Yes" or "No". At T2, the second measure of intentions asked: "Within the next 6 months, do you plan to join any [service groups]?". However, in this instance the students were instructed to indicate the probability that a join would occur using the response options "Definitely Not", "Probably Not", "Don't Know", "Probably Will Join", and "Definitely Will Join". Those students indicating they probably or definitely would join a service organization in the next six months were considered to have expressed intentions to become volunteers within six months of T2.

8.9 Analysis

The first analysis assessed the extent to which individuals who had already decided to volunteer as of T1 (i.e., expressed intentions to join), possessed attitudes similar to active volunteers and non-participants with no intentions to join. This was accomplished by comparing the mean T1 attitudes manifested by three types of respondents:

1. Students currently active volunteers at T1
(N=71, 22.3%)
2. Inactive students expressing intentions to join a service organization in the next four months at T1
(N=71, 22.3%)

3. Inactive students expressing no intentions to join a service organization in the next four months at T1 (N=176, 55.4%)

One-way analysis of variance revealed that the attitudes toward service groups manifested by these three types of respondents differed significantly ($p < .0035$) across all seven attitude items (see Table 8.10). Moreover, a posteriori comparisons employing Scheffé's test ($\alpha = .10$) showed that students who expressed intentions to become volunteers possessed attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. In contrast, the attitudes of respondents with no intentions to join differed significantly from both active volunteers and those intending to volunteer on six of the seven attitudes assessed.

While this analysis demonstrated that those who had decided to volunteer possessed attitudes similar to active volunteers, it did not indicate whether individuals without intentions, who nevertheless did join during the ensuing interval, also possessed attitudes characteristics of active volunteers. To examine this possibility, each group was partitioned into three categories based on the activity and intentions reported at T2. Therefore, this partitioning distinguished between nine types of respondents:

1. Students active at both T1 and T2 (N=55, 17.3%)
2. Students active at T1, who were inactive as of T2, but expressed intentions to join a service organization within six months of T2 (N=8, 2.5%)

TABLE 8.10 Comparison of Mean Attitude Towards Voluntary Action Among Those Active, Those Intending to Join in Next 4 Months and Those Neither Active Nor Intending to Join (T1 Attitudes).

Attitude Item	Active T1 (N = 71)	Intending to Join (N = 71)	Not Active (N = 176)	F - Ratio (p - Value) R ²
A lot in common with persons who belong to service group	<u>5.14</u>	<u>4.96</u>	3.43	F = 41.3 (p < .0001) R ² = .22
Should be involved in service groups	<u>5.35</u>	<u>5.40</u>	4.23	F = 22.3 (p < .0001) R ² = .13
Believe in goals or purpose of at least some service groups	<u>5.77</u>	<u>5.68</u>	5.35	F = 5.78 (p < .0035) R ² = .04
Significant others pleased if join service group	<u>5.38</u>	<u>5.28</u>	4.41	F = 18.64 (p < .0001) R ² = .11
Enjoy activities of service groups	<u>5.52</u>	<u>5.55</u>	3.89	F = 49.96 (p < .0001) R ² = .25
Personal goals advanced by joining service group	<u>5.55</u>	<u>5.66</u>	4.25	F = 36.22 (p < .0001) R ² = .20
Like to be a member of service group	<u>5.37</u>	<u>5.57</u>	3.91	F = 45.41 (p < .0001) R ² = .23
Average Attitude Item	<u>5.44</u>	<u>5.44</u>	4.21	F = 45.41 (p < .0001) R ² = .23

- 1) degrees of freedom for all F-Ratios = 2,315
- 2) attitude means joined by underline were found not significantly different at $p < .10$ using Scheffé's a posteriori test

3. Students active at T1, who were inactive as of T2 and expressed no intentions to join at T2
(N=8, 2.5%)
4. Students inactive at T1, who expressed intentions to join within four months of T1 and were active as of T2
(N=18, 5.7%)
5. Students inactive at T1 and T2 who expressed intentions to join both at T1 and T2
(N=30, 9.4%)
6. Students inactive at T1 and T2 who expressed intentions to join at T1, but not at T2
(N=23, 7.2%)
7. Students who reported neither activity or intentions to join at T1, but were active at T2
(N=11, 3.5%)
8. Students who reported neither activity or intentions to join at T1, but did express intentions to join within the next six months of T2
(N=13, 4.1%)
9. Students who reported no activity or intentions to join at either T1 or T2
(N=152, 47.8%)

It is interesting that only 18 (25.3%) of the 71 students who stated intentions to join at T1 actually joined a service organization before T2. While this finding illustrates the considerable disparity between intentions and voluntary action, this initiation rate was nevertheless significantly higher than that observed among the 176 respondents not intending to join. Among this latter type of respondent only 11 (6.2%) subsequently joined a service organization ($\chi^2=17.84$, d.f.=1, $p<.001$).

The mean overall attitude (i.e., the average value for all seven attitude items) at T1 and T2 was computed for each of the nine groups and is presented in Table 8.11. A number of interesting patterns emerged from this analysis.

Students reporting no change in their membership status from T1 to T2 (i.e., either active, intending to participate or not intending to participate on both occasions), exhibited little change in their attitudes over the four month interval. On the other hand, initially active respondents who left the organization before T2, manifested a significant decline in the positiveness of their attitudes. Rather interestingly, this decline transpired even when respondents expressed intentions to join a service organization within six months of T2 ($\Delta = -.75$, $t = -2.63$, $d.f. = 7$, $p < .03$ for individuals with intentions at T2; $\Delta = -.50$, $t = -3.00$, $d.f. = 7$, $p < .02$ for individuals without intentions at T2). A similar decline in the favourableness of the attitudes occurred among inactive respondents who had initially reported intentions to join, but had apparently decided not to volunteer by T2 ($\Delta = -.63$, $t = -3.70$, $d.f. = 22$, $p < .002$).

With respect to the relationship between attitudes, intentions and the initiation of voluntary action, the most interesting respondents were those who joined a service organization during this period. In this instance, joiners who had already decided to volunteer as of T1, manifested T1 attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. On the other hand, joiners who had originally not stated intentions to join possessed T1 attitudes similar to those of non-participating, non-intending individuals.

TABLE 8.11 Variation in Mean Overall Attitude Toward Volunteering Over Four Month Interval for Individuals Displaying Various Patterns in Activity and Intentions to Join.

Pattern of Activity and Intentions to Join T1-T2	N	T1 Attitude	T2 Attitude	Difference (T1-T2) t-test (p - value)
Active at T1 Active at T2	55	5.49 (a)	5.39 (a)	$\Delta = -.09$ $t = -1.06$ ($p < .29$)
Active at T1, Not Active At T2: Intends to Join at T2	8	5.45 (a)	4.70 (a)	$\Delta = -.75$ $t = -2.63$ ($p < .03$)
Active at T1, Not Active at T2: No Intentions to Join	8	5.13 (a)	4.62 (b)	$\Delta = -.50$ $t = -3.00$ ($p < .02$)
Intends to Join at T1 Active at T2	18	5.56 (a)	5.41 (a)	$\Delta = -.14$ $t = -.99$ ($p < .34$)
Intends to Join at T1 Intends to Join at T2	30	5.55 (a)	5.57 (a)	$\Delta = -.02$ $t = .19$ ($p < .85$)
Intends to Join at T1 Not Active, No Intentions at T2	23	5.25 (a)	4.62 (b)	$\Delta = -.63$ $t = -3.70$ ($p < .002$)
Not Active, No Intentions to Join at T1 Active at T2	11	4.44 (b)	4.80 (a)	$\Delta = .36$ $t = 1.02$ ($p < .33$)
Not Active, No Intentions to Join at T1 Intends to Join at T2	13	5.11 (a)	5.32 (a)	$\Delta = .21$ $t = .80$ ($p < .44$)
Not Active, No Intentions at T1 or T2	152	4.12 (b)	3.99 (b)	$\Delta = -.13$ $t = -1.56$ ($p < .12$)
Cross-sectional Analysis				
F - Ratio		F = 18.82	F = 17.63	
d.f.		d.f. = 8,309	d.f. = 8,309	
(p-value)		($p < .0001$)	($p < .0001$)	
R-square		R ² = .328	R ² = .315	

NOTE: "(a)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Active T1-T2 group.

"(b)" following group mean signifies mean not significantly different from Not Active, No Intentions T1-T2 group.

(Scheffé a posteriori comparisons with alpha = .10)

To further explore the differences between the two types of joiners (i.e., those with and without T1 intentions), additional analyses were conducted. This comparison revealed that at the time of the first attitude measure, respondents in the pre-decision stage (i.e., no T1 intentions to join) possessed remarkably different impressions of volunteer action than did those in the post-decision stage (i.e., intentions to join at T1). In fact, the only similarity in the attitudes of these two groups was with respect to their evaluation of the "Response of Significant Others to Joining". By T2 however, the attitudes of these two types of joiners had become statistically indistinguishable. It should be noted however, that this attitudinal similarity at T2 was partially attributable to a shift towards less favourable attitudes among those joiners who had initially expressed intentions to volunteer. What is more, the attitude change from T1 to T2 found among non-intending joiners, while in the predicted direction, was not significantly different from zero change ($\Delta=.36$, $t=1.02$, $d.f.=10$, $p<.33$).

One explanation for this outcome is that the two types of initiators had undertaken voluntary action for different reasons or under different circumstances. To evaluate this hypothesis, these two groups were compared with respect to a broad range of characteristics and initiation circumstances. This comparison revealed no differences between intending joiners and non-intending joiners in terms of sex, age, years in university, marital/romantic status, prior volunteer experience, amount of social encouragement received to volunteer or

the reasons for becoming a volunteer. In fact, the only difference even remotely approaching statistical significance was the mean number of months elapsing prior to initiation (1.8 months for intenders and 2.6 months for non-intenders; $t=1.42$, $d.f.=27$, $p<.13$).

Finally, one outcome in this analysis provided an interesting exception to the overall trend. Students who did not initially intend to join, but who reported plans to join a service organization within six months of T2, possessed T1 attitudes similar to those of active volunteers. In contrast to all other results obtained in this analysis, this outcome suggests that positive attitude states may precede the decision to volunteer on some occasions.

8.10 Discussion

The results of this third investigation both replicate and extend previous findings concerning attitude change and voluntary action. Consistent with earlier analyses, students reporting no change in membership status exhibited little change in their attitudes toward voluntary action. In addition, significant declines in the positiveness of attitudes from T1 to T2 were again observed among persons who terminated their volunteer activities.

Undoubtedly the most interesting findings concerned the relationship between attitudes and intentions to volunteer. Students stating intentions to volunteer at T1, displayed T1 attitudes indistinguishable from active volunteers. This similarity existed

regardless of whether the individual actually joined a service organization during the ensuing four month period. In addition, individuals who initially intended to volunteer, who later expressed no intentions to join as of T2, exhibited a significant decline in the favourableness of their attitudes toward voluntary action, further illustrating the association between attitudes and intentions to volunteer.

In contrast, persons not expressing intentions to join at T1, who nevertheless did join an organization, possessed T1 attitudes more characteristic of non-participating individuals than active volunteers. Moreover, after joining the organization, these respondents manifested a more favourable appraisal of voluntary action, although the actual T1 to T2 attitude change was not significantly different from zero.

In combination, the results suggest that a strong relationship exists between attitudes toward voluntary action and intentions to become a volunteer and that attitude change is closely associated with the decision to volunteer. As will be recalled, such a pattern of results is most consistent with the Rationalization Hypothesis. Nevertheless, the possibility that attitudes change to a more positive state shortly before this deliberation cannot be completely ruled out with a longitudinal study of this duration.

There was one interesting exception to this pattern which suggests that this association may be more complex than originally envisioned. Inactive students who reported no plans to join before

T2, but expressed intentions to join within six months of T2, manifested T1 attitudes quite similar to those of active volunteers. This pattern may indicate that under certain circumstances, antecedent positive attitude states do precede the decision to volunteer. Unfortunately, such an interpretation is not unequivocal, as it is possible that these students may have decided to volunteer as of T1, but had merely elected to delay participation until after T2. This for example, might be characteristic of persons who participate on a seasonal basis (e.g., summer) or individuals who routinely volunteer, but were currently unable to participate due to temporary situational constraints. Future research efforts should measure both the short and long-term intentions of individuals to ascertain whether indeed this is the case.

Overall, the results of these attitude studies provide no support for three of the five models advanced to explain the attitudinal differences between active and inactive individuals. Thus, there is no evidence that persons who were actively encouraged to participate possessed more favourable attitudes toward voluntary action as would be expected if the Selective Recruitment Hypothesis was responsible for these differences. Nor does there appear any indication that persons who leave organizations hold different attitudes from those who continue to participate (prior to the termination of activities) as predicted by the Selective Attrition Hypothesis. And if attitudes change gradually as a consequence of involvement, as predicted by the Participation Hypothesis, it was not detected in any of these investigations.

Rather, the evidence indicates that the cross-sectional attitudinal differences between volunteers and non-participants exist prior to the initiation of these activities. The task now facing investigators is to determine whether these antecedent differences emerge because individuals possess favourable attitudes which predispose them toward such behaviors or because of rationalizing tendencies associated with the decision to volunteer. Most likely, both will occur depending on the type of volunteer considered (e.g., veterans versus first time joiner), the conditions under which initiation takes place (e.g., antecedent life events versus situational stability) and the reasons for participating (e.g., to assist the group versus self-gain).

The strong association between attitudes and intentions to volunteer should come as no surprise, particularly in view of the seminal theoretical and empirical work of Fishbein and Ajzen (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1969, 1977, 1980; Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These psychologists have developed an elegant model suggesting that intentions to act are a function of the weighted linear combination of respondents' attitudes and subjective normative beliefs concerning these behaviors. The utility of this scheme as a useful way by which to consider the relationship between attitudes, norms and intentions to act has been repeatedly illustrated for other behavioral domains (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1969, 1980; Bentler & Speckart, 1981; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Fazio & Zanna, 1978; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; LaRocco, 1983; Regan & Fazio, 1977). The evidence

obtained here suggests this scheme may be equally well suited to describe the role of these factors in the decision to become a volunteer (see Section 9.3).

Finally, it is important to remain cognizant of the fact that these attitude studies have used student samples and may not generalize to other types of volunteers. At the same time, whether these patterns are exhibited by non-student volunteers (and particularly more mature and experienced volunteers) is a matter undoubtedly worthy of investigation.

Notes

1. The results reported in this study were part of a larger investigation examining the relationship between attitudes, intentions and participation with respect to four types of voluntary action:

1. Service organization participation
2. Political organization participation
3. Social club participation
4. Competitive group participation

Since the primary focus of this thesis is on participation in service organizations, only this portion of the study has been reported here. It would have also been of interest to have examined the relationship between attitudes, intentions and participation among political volunteers since this class of organizations were previously considered in early studies of this series. Unfortunately, few respondents reported activity and/or intentions to participate in political organizations precluding comparable analyses for this group type.

The larger research design did influence the selection of a comparison group of non-participating respondents, since this group was compared to all four types of volunteers. Consequently, only individuals not reporting activity or intentions to participate in any of the four group types were included in the non-participation category. This criterion was more stringent than that applied for non-participation in the earlier studies of this series. However, examination of attitudes toward voluntary service organizations among social club and competitive organization participators/intenders revealed no significant differences with those of non-participants. Rather interestingly, political volunteers or intenders did express significantly more favourable attitudes toward service organizations than did social club and competitive organization participators or those intending to join such groups.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the relationships observed between attitudes, intentions and participation among service volunteers, were in all important respects generalizable to social club and competitive group participators and those intending to participate. Thus, there is good evidence to suggest that the pattern of results observed for service volunteers can be extended to other types of voluntary action.

PART IV
FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

CHAPTER NINE
FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

9. Introduction

Throughout this series of investigations, consideration has been given to a variety of determinants of voluntary action. In this concluding chapter, the highlights of this research are reviewed and various avenues for future study recommended. Following this, attention will be directed to some of the theoretical strategies which have been employed to consider the subject of volunteer motivation. It will be argued that although many of these approaches possess considerable merit, none appears well suited to simultaneously provide a comprehensive account of the potential factors which promote such activities while accommodating individual differences in the antecedents of this phenomenon. However, by devising a scheme which seeks to discern the effects of these antecedents on the decision to volunteer, it will be possible to construct a general model of volunteer motivation which achieves both of these objectives. The final portion of this chapter will consider one scheme predicated upon this principle. The potential integrating capabilities and heuristic value of this model will also be illustrated.

9.1 Summary of Results and Some Suggestions for Future Research

In the first investigation, the form and content of explanations for becoming a volunteer were examined. Two methods were used to determine why the individuals had elected to initiate such activities. The first asked 101 recent joiners of two university-based volunteer service organizations to rate the influence each of fourteen possible factors had on their decision to join the organization. The second simply asked 320 persons who had contacted a local volunteer bureau why they had decided to volunteer.

In both cases, respondents often gave multiple reasons for volunteering. To discern whether any patterns existed in the combinations of explanations mentioned, two statistical data reduction techniques were employed (a principal factor analysis with the rating scale responses; a cluster analysis with the open-ended responses). Both analyses detected similar patterns in the reasons given for volunteering. These patterns suggest that participation is usually pursued for one of three purposes:

1. To advance personal and career related goals
2. To compensate for perceived inadequacies in the respondent's situation (e.g., meet people, relieve boredom, find purpose, fill in time)
3. Altruism

The similarity in the two outcomes is particularly noteworthy given the differences in the demographic composition of the two

samples as well as the different measurement techniques and analytical procedures used. These results also illustrate the utility of statistical data reduction techniques as devices by which to study the explanations of volunteers. Perhaps most importantly however, these investigations reinforce the undeniable fact that participation in voluntary organizations serves decidedly different functions for different individuals; an aspect of this phenomenon too frequently forgotten by investigators in this area.

Researchers are encouraged to consider the application of factor analysis and cluster analysis in the study of explanations for joining other types of voluntary organizations (e.g., political groups, social clubs, athletic organizations). Through such research, it will be possible to better understand the role such activities play in the lives of participants.

More research is also necessary concerning the psychological characteristics of explanations for volunteering. For example, it would be of interest to determine whether persons tentative about their decision to participate mention more reasons for joining in a bid to convince themselves of the appropriateness of their actions. It is also unclear why respondents so seldom refer to social encouragement when explaining their decision to volunteer. Investigators should also examine whether explanations change once an individual begins to participate in the organization, particularly since these verbal accounts are typically obtained only after participation has begun (Carter, 1975; Flynn & Webb, 1975; Gluck, 1975; Weinstein, 1974).

It would also be of value to determine whether the reasons for volunteering are predictive of the intensity and duration of participation following initiation. Evidence obtained by this investigator indicates that this may indeed be the case. In this study, recent initiators were asked to estimate how long they expected to continue as active volunteers. Respondents reporting they had joined in order to obtain career related experience estimated their participation would last 13.4 weeks on average. On the other hand, persons who had joined for altruistic reasons or to compensate for situational inadequacies estimated 21.5 weeks of future participation ($t=2.14$, $d.f.=87$, $p<.04$). If this outcome could be replicated with measures of actual participation intensity and duration, it would prove of considerable value to the administrators of such programmes.

The second study in this thesis sought to determine whether persons with common social background characteristics join to achieve similar objectives. To assess whether such an association existed, general explanation types were cross-tabulated with sex, age, marital status, parental status, occupation, recent life events, and certain combinations of these factors. This analysis revealed that younger persons (and especially students) usually initiate voluntary action in order to test out potential career paths, gain career related experience

and/or enhance the probability of acceptance into highly competitive faculties such as medicine, social work and physiotherapy. On the other hand, housewives and unemployed persons typically volunteer to meet people, relieve boredom and/or find purpose or meaning in their lives. Such compensatory explanations were particularly prevalent among individuals who had recently experienced major life events such as divorce, separation, death of spouse, children entering school or leaving home or retirement. This latter outcome suggests that voluntary action may sometimes serve as a coping strategy by which individuals compensate for such changes.

In contrast to other explanation types, there is little association between social background and altruistic reasons for joining. Rather, individuals from all social backgrounds mentioned a desire to help others among their reasons for volunteering. However, it was noted that altruistic intent was only accentuated in the explanation when individuals did not report life events and were also either full-time employed or retired. This pattern may indicate that situational stability is necessary before voluntary action is likely to be initiated primarily to promote altruistic ideals. Whether this is indeed the case, could prove an interesting question for further investigation.

While these results demonstrate that an association exists between social background factors and the reasons for joining, there remains much to be learned regarding the mechanisms which link social background to the decision to volunteer. For example, it is

unclear whether major life events create situations which produce a need for participation or merely increase the amount of discretionary time available for volunteer work. These data also do not reveal whether individuals with particular career goals, or certain types of social situations are more likely to undertake voluntary action.

Unfortunately, demographic variables alone are inadequate to permit a full elucidation of these mechanisms. It is thus recommended that future research include measures which better delineate the psychological and situational state of the respondents (e.g., the amount of social contact normally experienced, perceived social status, time availability, future personal objectives) in order to achieve this objective.

Study Three was undertaken to investigate the extent to which various types of volunteers receive social encouragement to volunteer. While previous studies have noted that individuals are often encouraged by others to join, this investigation was the first to identify factors closely associated with this sort of external inducement.

In this investigation, 423 volunteer bureau contacters were asked how they had first learned about the bureau, whether they had been encouraged to volunteer and if so, would they have sought a referral without this encouragement. Using these responses, four Recruitment Episodes were identified (i.e., Self-Inspired, Media Inspired, Socially Supported and Persuaded). Then, cross-tabulations were performed to determine which types of initiators were most likely to have experienced each kind of Recruitment Episode.

This analysis revealed that younger volunteers, persons with less education and persons undertaking voluntary action for the first time were especially likely to have been "Persuaded" by others. Conversely, elderly volunteers (i.e., 60 years and older), persons reporting recent major life events, and respondents with considerable prior volunteer experience least often reported having been encouraged to join.

Stepwise multiple linear regression analysis determined that prior volunteer experience, antecedent life events and the respondent's age were the three best predictors of the amount of encouragement received. Together these variables explained 21% of the variance in an index of social encouragement.

As is often the case, this study raises more questions than it answers. For instance, it was observed that persons experiencing a major life event prior to initiation typically receive less encouragement to become volunteers. Could this outcome emerge because life events motivate voluntary action and make social persuasion unnecessary or does this pattern merely reflect a decline in social contact following life events which makes social encouragement less likely to occur?

Younger initiators are especially likely to have received encouragement to volunteer. Does this pattern reveal some reluctance by younger individuals to volunteer, or does this simply indicate that discussions with others are usually necessary in order to inform young people about the opportunities for voluntary action and the methods by which to become involved?

Researchers should also examine whether the amount of social encouragement received is associated with the intensity and duration of commitment subsequently manifested. An investigation by this researcher suggests that such an association is probable. In this study, persons contacting the volunteer bureau (1979-1980 sample) were followed up after three months to determine whether they had joined a voluntary organization. This follow-up revealed that only 20.9% (13 of 62) of those "Persuaded" to volunteer were active in a volunteer organization whereas 66.7% (22/33) of those not "Persuaded" to join reported involvement ($\chi^2=19.32$, d.f.=1, $p<.0001$). Such a finding suggests that persuasion may lead individuals to initiate voluntary action, but generally does not translate into sustained participation afterwards. This fact should be kept in mind by administrators who adopt aggressive recruitment tactics to swell the ranks of their organizations.

The last two investigations in this thesis examined the relationship between attitudes toward voluntary action and participation. The first study considered whether persons who subsequently joined instrumental organizations possessed attitudes similar to those of active volunteers prior to initiation.

Using a two year longitudinal design, the attitudes of students who joined one to eight, nine to sixteen, or seventeen to twenty-four months after an attitude measure (T1) were compared to those of active volunteers and non-participating individuals. The results indicated that persons joining one to eight months after T1

possessed attitudes quite similar to active volunteers, but as the delay prior to initiation lengthened, the T1 attitudes of joiners were progressively more like those of non-participating individuals. In fact, persons joining seventeen to twenty-four months after the attitude measure, manifested T1 attitudes only marginally ($p < .10$) distinguishable from non-participating individuals.

One explanation advanced to account for this pattern was that students who volunteered after longer delays joined for different reasons and/or under different circumstances than those joining soon after T1. To assess this possibility, respondents were categorized according to the delay prior to initiation and compared with respect to a broad range of factors. This analysis detected no differences in the demographics of the individuals, the conditions under which initiation took place, or the reasons for the join, suggesting (although not unequivocally proving), that these individuals were comparable in every respect except for their initial attitudes toward voluntary action.

On the other hand, this analysis did reveal that the predictive utility of attitudes varied depending upon the circumstances associated with the initiation. Thus, persons who joined after experiencing life events and those volunteering in order to achieve personal objectives possessed attitudes less predictive of their eventual voluntary activities. This moderating effect was further accentuated when multiple factors were considered in combination. In this instance, persons with prior volunteer experience, stable social

backgrounds and no encouragement to join were found to possess T1 attitudes not statistically different from active volunteers, even when the join was delayed over seventeen months after the attitude measure. In contrast, joiners who had either been encouraged to join, had no prior volunteer history and/or had experienced an antecedent life event, possessed T1 attitudes similar to active volunteers only when the join occurred within eight months of T1.

This investigation was the first to demonstrate that individuals who join voluntary organizations possess attitudes similar to active volunteers prior to initiation. As such, the results support the Selective Attraction Hypothesis which maintains that persons with favourable attitudes toward voluntary action are more likely to be attracted to this course of action. At the same time, this study also found that favourable attitudes toward volunteering are only apparent for a limited amount of time prior to the join, particularly when participation is preceded by a life event and/or is pursued to accomplish personal objectives.

At least three interpretations are consistent with the results of this investigation. First, attitudes may be an important determinant in the deliberation only when individuals join to further the goals of an organization and/or when the decision is made in the absence of strong situational influences (e.g., life events). If this is the case, it would suggest that the Selective Attraction Hypothesis provides an appropriate account of the attitude-voluntary action relation for only a portion of those who pursue this course of action.

A second viable explanation is that attitude change plays an important role in the decision to volunteer. Thus, attitudes may become more positive, perhaps as a result of exposure to new information about voluntary action, which in turn increases the probability that the decision to join will occur. If so, the Selective Attraction Hypothesis would remain the best description of the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer, albeit in a somewhat modified form.

Finally, as predicted by the Rationalization Hypothesis, attitudes may change only after individuals decide to volunteer due to cognitive dissonance, self perception or some other process. If so, attitudes will play no direct role in the decision to volunteer, but rather merely reflect the psychological processes associated with this deliberation. This would mean that most individuals who joined within eight months of T1 must have decided to volunteer before the attitude measure, whereas those joining after longer delays more often reached this decision after this measure was taken.

It was imperative to determine which of these interpretations offered the best description of the attitude-voluntary action relationship, since each suggested a somewhat different role for attitudes in the decision to volunteer. To accomplish this objective, the relationship between attitude change and participation was studied in a three part investigation.

The first part examined the extent to which attitudes change when individuals report change in membership status. In this study,

measures of attitudes obtained on two separate occasions separated by a two year interval were examined among persons displaying various participation patterns. The analysis revealed that relatively little attitude change transpired when individuals reported the same membership status at both T1 and T2 (i.e., either active or inactive). Similarly, persons joining one to eight months after T1, who had already possessed attitudes similar to active volunteers at T1, manifested little change in their attitudes over this period. However, individuals joining a voluntary organization seventeen to twenty-four months after T1 showed a significant change towards a more favourable appraisal of voluntary action. Rather interestingly, it was also noted that initially active volunteers who terminated their involvement by T2, subsequently manifested less favourable impressions of voluntary action.

While this study illustrated that attitudes changed when individuals volunteered, it did not reveal whether these changes occurred before or after individuals joined the organization. To distinguish between these two possibilities, a second study was undertaken using a subset of the original sample who had completed one further measure of attitudes after the first year of the study. In this analysis, the attitude changes manifested by persons joining during the first year were compared to those of persons joining during the second year of the study. This comparison revealed that the attitudes changed before the individuals joined the organizations and exhibited little change thereafter.

Finally, one additional study was undertaken to determine whether attitudes change before individuals decide to volunteer, or only after these decisions have been made. In this study, attitudes toward voluntary action, intentions to participate and actual participation were assessed on two occasions separated by a four month interval. If attitudes play a role in the decision to volunteer, as predicted by the Selective Attraction Hypothesis, persons joining a voluntary organization should manifest attitudes similar to active volunteers regardless of whether they had already decided to join by T1 (i.e., post-decision phase) or only arrived at this decision after T1 (i.e., pre-decision phase). On the other hand, if attitudes change after the decision to volunteer has been made, the two types of joiners should initially possess decidedly different attitudes toward voluntary action. The results of this study were illuminating.

Individuals who expressed intentions to volunteer at T1 possessed attitudes toward voluntary action indistinguishable from those of active volunteers. This occurred regardless of whether the individual actually joined a voluntary organization during the ensuing four month interval.

On the other hand, joiners who did not initially express intentions to volunteer, possessed attitudes more characteristic of non-participants than active volunteers. Moreover, there was some indication (albeit non-significant) of a change towards more favourable attitudes from T1 to T2 among joiners who had not originally expressed intentions to do so. Further analysis revealed that this

outcome was not attributable to differences in the types of individuals who volunteered or to the circumstances associated with initiation (i.e., encouragement, prior history, life events, reasons for volunteering).

The results from this study suggest that attitudes toward voluntary action change to a more positive state only during or after the individual has decided to volunteer, an outcome most consistent with the Rationalization Hypothesis. Nevertheless, the fact that the attitudes of non-intending (T1) initiators did not appreciably change from T1 to T2 implies that there may be more to this association than initially anticipated.

What is more, it was also found that individuals who stated no intentions to become volunteers at T1, but did state intentions to participate within six months of T2, possessed T1 attitudes more characteristic of active volunteers. This finding could indicate that favourable attitudes sometimes do precede the decision to volunteer as postulated by the Selective Attraction Hypothesis. Unfortunately, this interpretation is not unequivocal as it is possible that these respondents had already decided to volunteer as of T1, but had also elected to defer participation until some time after T2. Because respondents were not asked about their long-term intentions, this possibility can not be dismissed.

In summary, the results indicated that attitudes toward voluntary action tend to become more favourable before individuals join organizations. However, whether these changes precede the decision to volunteer or occur only after this decision is made cannot be determined with these data. It is therefore necessary to study the association between intentions and attitudes further before the role of attitudes in the decision to volunteer can be clearly delineated.

It is also important to determine whether similar attitude patterns exist among non-student volunteers (and particularly more mature individuals) as well as other types of volunteers. In addition, more studies are required to determine what factors might be responsible for these attitude changes (e.g., cognitive dissonance, self perception, exposure to new information, a change in the way existing information is evaluated). There is also evidence from this research that attitudes may play different roles for different types of participants and this is certainly worthy of further inquiry.

Throughout these studies, the occurrence of an antecedent life event was repeatedly found to moderate other factors associated with initiation. Thus, persons reporting antecedent life events were less frequently encouraged to join and more often mentioned compensatory explanations (e.g., boredom, loss of purpose, to fill in time) for becoming involved. What is more, the attitudes of persons who joined after a life event were less predictive of their participation than those not experiencing such antecedent events.

It is also of interest in this regard, that research by this investigator has found life events to be one of the best predictors of participation duration following initiation. In this investigation, persons who experienced antecedent life events were found active in a new voluntary organization 67.7% (21/31) of the time after three months. In contrast, only 10.7% (3/28) of those not experiencing such events were found active at this time ($\chi^2=22.45$, d.f.=2, $p<.0001$). This pattern was replicated with an independent sample of volunteer bureau contacters obtained some two years later (76.0% (73/96) active after three months among those with antecedent life events; 39.8% (41/103) active among those without antecedent life events; ($\chi^2=31.28$, d.f.=2, $p<.0001$)).

In combination, the evidence portends an important, previously neglected role for life events in the decision to initiate and sustain participation in voluntary service organizations. Researchers are encouraged to explore this relationship further. For example, it would be interesting to determine whether life events increase the likelihood that individuals will volunteer. The results from these studies suggest this may be the case insofar as 67% of the individuals who contacted the volunteer bureau and 92% of the two university-campus organization volunteers reported life events prior to initiation. However, this question cannot be satisfactorily answered until the rate of life events among both initiators and non-initiators are compared.

It is also important to determine whether certain types of life events are particularly likely to promote voluntary action. For

example, these investigations reveal that life events which tend to increase the amount of discretionary time (e.g., loss of employment, retirement, children entering school) are frequently precursors of voluntary action. In contrast, events which might be anticipated to reduce the amount of discretionary time (e.g., acquisition of a new job, birth of a child) were seldom mentioned. The events most frequently reported also tend to connote undesirable or negative changes in the lives of individuals (e.g., death of spouse, separation or divorce, loss of employment), suggesting that negative disruptions in the daily routine may be especially likely to promote voluntary action. The fact that persons with antecedent life events often mention compensatory reasons for joining further supports this hypothesis.

Finally, if there is one fact which remains evident throughout all of these investigations, it is that the circumstances, the events and the psychological states which precede the initiation of volunteer activities vary considerably between individuals. The results of these investigations suggest that social background, prior volunteer experience, interpersonal encouragement and life events are all associated with the decision to volunteer, but that each appears relevant only for a portion of those who pursue these activities. Even the role of the individual's attitudes toward voluntary action tends to vary depending upon the reasons for becoming a volunteer and the conditions under which initiation occurs. Clearly, there are many routes to voluntary action.

It is essential that investigators give increased attention to these individual differences in the study of such activities. In fact, researchers who fail to acknowledge these variations in their theoretical and empirical efforts may be expected to seriously underestimate the true complexity of this phenomenon.

At the same time, the question naturally arises as to whether this individualism precludes the development of a meaningful general scheme by which to discuss the subject of volunteer motivation. Is voluntary action a behavioral abstraction possessing superficial manifest qualities and little more, or do certain similarities exist in the antecedents of these behaviors which could provide a basis for a general model of volunteer motivation?

By way of an answer to this question, the final sections of this dissertation have been devoted to a review of the various approaches employed to build general models of voluntary action. Then, one scheme which might offer a particularly useful way by which to consider this topic will be examined.

9.2 An Examination of Voluntary Action Theory

Developing a general model of volunteer motivation must be recognized from the outset as an ambitious undertaking. Not only must such a model encompass a broad range of potential influences in order to claim comprehensiveness, but it should also possess sufficient flexibility to accommodate individual variations in the role of each identified factor.

By and large, the majority of the theoretical statements advanced by workers in this area have sought to explain why certain factors tend to covary with volunteer participation. The most typical example of this sort of theorizing is found in investigations which have studied the relationship between demographic characteristics and volunteer participation. In such instances, the investigator will often postulate the existence of some mediating factor to account for an observed association. For example, Berger (1960) speculated that blue-collar workers participate less than white-collar workers because they are more likely to be physically fatigued following a full day of physical labour. Hausknecht (1964) attributed this same pattern to decreased personal efficacy among blue-collar workers. In another illustration of this type of theoretical assertion, Lane (1959) speculated that younger individuals are less likely to participate in political activities because they generally lack awareness of political affairs. On the other hand, Glenn and Grimes (1969) proposed that younger persons are seldom politically involved because they do not have sufficient discretionary time while in the process of establishing their careers and raising young families.

This sort of post-hoc speculation is found throughout the voluntary action literature. However several students of this subject have seriously challenged the utility of this piecemeal approach and have sought to devise more elaborate models of this phenomenon. While the scope and sophistication of these efforts has varied considerably, usually one of three strategies have been adopted for this purpose:

1. Antecedent Enumeration
2. Conceptual Model Building
3. Statistical Model Building

Antecedent Enumeration has sought to contribute to a fuller understanding of the determinants of voluntary action by cataloguing all potential factors which may tend to affect the decision to volunteer. Included in this group are those studies which have sought to discern the reasons why individuals volunteer (e.g., Adams, 1980; Bushee, 1945; Komorovsky, 1933) as well as some of the broader surveys of the events and circumstances which precede volunteer participation (e.g., Bellamy & Wells, 1974; Carter, 1975; Milbrath, 1965). It is also this approach which is found in Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt's 1975 discussion of volunteer motivation.

The Antecedent Enumeration approach is useful insofar as it illustrates the broad range of factors which potentially promote or constrain the emergence of volunteer activities. In addition, it is usually in these works where the greatest cognizance of individual

differences in the determinants of voluntary action is displayed. Nevertheless, it must be recognized that enumerating potential influences is only the first step in the construction of a general scheme and by no means constitutes an end product of this endeavor.

A decidedly different strategy by which theories about volunteer motivation have been devised is reflected in the Conceptual Model Building approach. In such instances, theorists begin with an analogy or conceptual scheme which they believe offers a useful way to think about voluntary action. For example, Rogers, Hefferman and Warner (1972) proposed that involvement in voluntary organizations could be viewed from the perspective of Exchange Theory (Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Accordingly, when the benefits reaped from involvement justify the costs incurred as a consequence of participation, individuals can be expected to remain actively involved and effectively committed to the organization. Alternatively, when costs overshadow the benefits, individuals will tend to diminish their contribution if not withdraw outright from the organization. Rogers, Hefferman and Warner have empirically demonstrated the utility of this perspective by obtaining measures of the costs and benefits perceived by members of a farmer's co-operative, and illustrating the value of this information as a predictor of the level of behavioral and affective commitment manifested.

Another example of this sort of theory is found in Lemon, Palisi and Jacobsen's (1972) Dominant Status Theory. This scheme

has been advanced as a partial explanation of the typical demographic profile of the volunteer sector. It is predicated upon the astute observation that persons who possess demographic characteristics usually revered in society (e.g., higher income, more education, higher occupational prestige, married) and/or tend to be members of dominant groups within society (e.g., males, white, protestants) are typically over-represented among volunteers. Lemon, Palisi and Jacobsen have postulated that this tendency can be attributed to the role demands of "Dominant Status" which engender an enhanced sense of civic responsibility and obligation to participate. In support of their contention, they have constructed a simple index of "Dominant Status" and demonstrated its utility as a predictor of volunteer participation (Lemon, Palisi & Jacobsen, 1972; Palisi & Jacobsen, 1977).

Other examples of conceptual model building include Smith's (1969) General Activity Syndrome, which is based on the observation that behavior manifested in voluntary organizations tends to covary with increased activity in other discretionary behavior; and McPherson's use of Dynamic Equilibrium as a concept by which to characterize volunteer participation patterns throughout the life cycle (McPherson, 1981; McPherson & Lockwood, 1980). In each case, the author has proposed a useful perspective by which to view the topic of volunteer motivation.

Unfortunately, theoretical work of this sort is seldom found in the voluntary action literature. This is especially regrettable as it is generally in such treatments that the psychological and situational

processes directly associated with the decision to become a volunteer receive the most intense consideration. What is more, since these theorists have employed relatively abstract constructs in their schemes (e.g., Dominant Status; perceived costs and benefits; time allocation), they exhibit greater cognizance that different factors may exert an equivalent effect on the decision to volunteer. For example, Lemon et al. (1972) argue that numerous combinations of demographic characteristics can imbue "Dominant Status" and its concomitant accentuation of civic obligation. Similarly, Rogers et al. (1972) implicitly recognize that many factors can increase or decrease the perceived benefits and costs of participation. As a consequence, conceptual models are better suited to accommodate individual variations in the determinants of volunteer activity than models which postulate a single role for each factor. Given the etiological diversity which characterizes this phenomenon, this sort of flexibility must be considered advantageous, if not essential.

At the same time, there are certain short-comings in the typical application of this procedure which should not be overlooked. For instance, despite the fact that most theorists appear aware that their model will only apply to a portion of those who pursue volunteer work, there has been relatively little effort directed towards delineating the boundary conditions of these schemes. Moreover, few attempts have been made to combine models to devise more comprehensive accounts of volunteer motivation. The absence of this sort of work may be attributable in part to the relatively recent development of many of these conceptual schemes. Nevertheless, it

can only be hoped that increased effort will be directed towards such syntheses in future theoretical and investigatory work with this approach.

One other strategy which has been employed in the development of general models of voluntary action may be referred to as Statistical Model Building. This approach has enjoyed increasing popularity among voluntary action researchers, perhaps due to the increased use of multivariate statistical techniques in the study of volunteer motivation (Hodge & Trieman, 1968; Issac, Mutran & Stryker, 1980; Olsen, 1976; Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973). When this strategy is utilized, the investigator usually begins by identifying a variety of factors (e.g., prior volunteer experience, demographic characteristics, attitudes toward voluntary action, personality attributes) which may be associated with variations in participation. Then, measures of each factor are obtained from both volunteers and non-volunteers and assessed for their utility as predictors of the amount of volunteer activity manifested.

In most studies of this sort, multiple linear regression has been used (e.g., Grupp & Newman, 1973; Hodge & Treisman, 1968; Smith, 1966; Townsend, 1973) with the standardized regression coefficients employed as indices of the relative importance of each factor, and the proportion of variance explained by the regression equation serving as a gauge of the utility of the model. Less frequently, predictor variables are arranged in accordance with their apparent temporal sequencing and path analysis is performed (e.g., Olsen, 1976).

Undoubtedly, the most ambitious application of this strategy is Smith's Sequential Specificity Model (Smith, 1966; Smith, Reddy & Baldwin, 1972) and its subsequent, more elaborate version, the Interdisciplinary Sequence Specificity Time Allocation Life-Span Model (ISSTAL) (Smith, 1980). This complex scheme has been proposed as a universal paradigm by which to consider the effects of a diverse range of possible state and process variables on discretionary social activity such as voluntary action. Included in this framework are variable classes such as "Biophysical-Environmental Factors", "Social Background and Role Factors", "Personality and Intellectual Factors", "Attitudes and Intentions" and "Situational and Immediate Awareness Factors". What is more, Smith has specified a particular interdependency between these factors whereby more general and usually temporally removed determinants (e.g., culture) exert their influence on behavior through more specific and proximal states (e.g., attitudes).

Smith recommends that investigators should obtain measures from as many of these variable categories as possible and examine these factors simultaneously by means of multivariate statistical procedures (i.e., multiple linear regression, path analysis, discriminant analysis). The objective is to produce complex regression equations which predict volunteer participation as well as other activities. In support of his recommendations, he cites numerous examples where the proportion of variance explained in an

investigation has been markedly increased by including variables from more than one of the identified variable groups (Smith, 1980).

It is clear that statistical model building is a useful technique by which to study volunteer motivation. By considering the relationship between voluntary action and several potential factors simultaneously, it becomes possible to comparatively assess the predictive value of several variable types. Further, such investigations are generally the most comprehensive studies available on the subject of volunteer motivation. This method is also less prone to the problems of second order correlations which might spuriously mislead investigators who examine variables one at a time.

Notwithstanding, there are certain limitations to this approach which must also be acknowledged. For example, it is not uncommon for the investigator to appraise the theoretical significance of a given factor exclusively in terms of its observed association with the dependent variable. While this may be partially justified given the exploratory nature of this research, because many factors can attenuate the association between variables (e.g., multiple-collinearity, curvilinear associations, the distribution of the independent variable, the number of levels of the independent variable), this practice could prove misleading in certain instances.

Even if such parametric considerations were fully addressed, it would still seem somewhat myopic to equate theoretical significance with the strength of the association alone. In fact, it may often be the comparatively modest relationships which yield the greatest

insights concerning this phenomenon, particularly if they are non-intuitive or contrary to contemporary theory. As well, factors which tend to be relatively poor short-term predictors of participation may possess the redeeming quality of long-term predictive utility and advocates of this approach should direct greater attention to such possibilities.

Another problem which has tended to limit the value of the Statistical Model Building approach has been the almost total neglect of individual variations in the determinants of voluntary action. Thus with few exceptions (e.g., Althoff & Brady, 1972; Olsen, 1976), investigators have concentrated exclusively upon the nomothetic trends in their data without regard to the possibility that different models may be applicable for different types of volunteers. The evidence from this current series of investigations clearly illustrates the potential dangers from such neglect and argues strongly for such consideration when this approach is employed.

Researchers who advocate Statistical Model Building may be further criticized for not directing sufficient attention to the theoretical mechanisms which account for the relationships observed in their analyses. For example, it is commonplace to find no distinction between variables which covary with voluntary participation because they exert a direct effect upon the psychological and situational processes which motivate volunteer behavior, and factors which exert only an indirect influence. When discussions are turned to potential mechanisms, they are typically cursory in nature and usually fail to

adequately elucidate the hypothesized processes or agents involved. For instance, if an investigator states that prior volunteer experience exerts its influence upon subsequent deliberations through its enduring impact on the individual's attitudes (e.g., Olsen, 1976), the reader is left uninformed as to how this mediation takes place. Is this because former participants possess information which affect their beliefs and the other substrates of attitudes or is cognitive consistency, self perception, or perhaps some other process responsible for this proposed linkage? Even Smith, who has directed greater attention to these issues than any other theorist, is at least partially susceptible to this sort of criticism.

In fairness, it should be acknowledged that the large number of variables usually examined in such investigations often makes a detailed discussion of each hypothesized mechanism infeasible, particularly given the space restrictions imposed on most journal articles. Notwithstanding, it remains essential that proponents of Statistical Model Building give increased attention to these important issues if this strategy is to lead to the construction of a meaningful general model of volunteer action.

The use of statistical techniques in the study of this phenomenon will undoubtedly continue to be a useful, if not vital tool. However, it is important to recognize that this technique alone cannot substitute for well reasoned conceptual thought.

9.3 Towards a General Model of Voluntary Action

It would be ideal to devise a model of voluntary action which embodied some of the positive elements of each of these three model building strategies. Such a model should recognize that considerable individual variation exists in the determinants of this phenomenon as does the Antecedent Enumeration approach. It should also elucidate the theoretical mechanisms which link these determinants to the decision to volunteer as many Conceptual Models do. Finally it must possess the potential to deal with a broad range of antecedents as does Statistical Model Building.

With these objectives in mind, an attempt was made to construct a paradigm which was capable of accommodating individual variations in these determinants, emphasized the mechanisms which linked various antecedents to the decision to volunteer and was sufficiently general to deal with a broad range of possible antecedent factors. The approach employed can be briefly outlined as follows.

The first objective was to devise a model of the deliberation process itself which identified the types of information typically utilized in the decision to volunteer and the manner in which this information was evaluated and synthesized. Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) Theory of Reasoned Action provided the basis for this scheme, although this model was modified somewhat to enhance its heuristic qualities for the present application.

Then, once the deliberation model had been defined in terms of a multi-parameter symbolic equation, a research strategy was

devised to determine how certain precursors of voluntary action (e.g., prior volunteer experience, social encouragement, social background, life events) altered the value of various parameters in the model. By pursuing a vigorous research programme in order to ascertain the association between various antecedents and the deliberation model's parameters, it will be possible to better understand why certain factors moderate the incidence of volunteer participation. This amounts to proposing that if any factor alters the probability that voluntary action will be undertaken, it must do so through its impact on the constituents of the deliberation process (i.e., the information salient to the individual or the way this information is evaluated). In addition, this strategy suggests that the functional role of the precursors of voluntary action can be best elucidated in terms of their effect on the decision to volunteer.

The proposed paradigm represents a distinct departure from the conventional research strategy in this area. Typically, investigators have sought to determine the extent to which various characteristics of respondents (e.g., demographics, attitudes, personality characteristics) covary with participation in voluntary organizations. While this approach has contributed much to our understanding of who is most likely to volunteer and what sort of events precede activities of this sort, it has generally failed to yield insight as to the mechanisms responsible for these patterns.

The strategy proposed here is to substitute the traditional dependent variable of volunteer activity (e.g., active versus not

active, number of memberships, frequency and intensity of participation) with the parameters of a model devised to depict the deliberation process. Then, if a particular factor is found to moderate a specific parameter in the model, and this in turn alters the probability that the decision to volunteer will be made, the relationship between events, circumstances and individual attributes and manifestations of volunteer activity can be effectively bridged in a psychologically meaningful way. There are numerous advantages gained by approaching the subject of volunteer motivation with this strategy which will become evident once the model has been described in full.

As was previously mentioned, the Theory of Reasoned Action advanced and refined by Fishbein and Ajzen (Ajzen, 1971; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1969, 1972, 1977, 1980; Fishbein, 1966, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1974, 1975, 1981; Kaplan & Fishbein, 1969) will serve as the basis of the deliberation model proposed here. It is perhaps appropriate to begin this discussion with a brief review of this scheme.

Fishbein and Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action is predicated upon the assumption that the decision to undertake any behavioral course involves a rational assessment of both the consequences of such action and the expectations of significant others concerning whether or not the activity should be performed. As such, Fishbein and Ajzen maintain that the determinants of reasoned action are restricted to information salient to the individual at the time of the

decision and the way this information is evaluated and integrated. The components of this assessment and its relationship with intentions and behavior may be expressed in terms of the following symbolic equation:

$$B \equiv BI = (A_B)w_1 + (SN)w_2 \quad (1.1)$$

where:

- B = behavior
- BI = intentions to perform the behavior
- A_B = the attitude towards performing the behavior
- SN = the generalized normative belief concerning performance of the behavior
- W_1, W_2 = empirically derived standardized regression coefficients

In addition, the attitudinal (A_B) component, may be further defined as follows:

$$A_B = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i \quad (2.1)$$

where:

- A_B = the attitude towards performing the behavior (Attitudinal Component)
- b_i = the probability that i th salient behavioral outcome or consequence will occur if the behavior is performed (Belief Strength)
- e_i = the evaluation (favourableness or unfavourableness) of the i th behavioral consequence (Evaluation)
- n = the number of salient beliefs held about the consequences of performing the behavior (Behavioral Consequences)

Similarly, the generalized normative belief component (SN) of the model can be defined as:

$$SN = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i m_i \quad (3.1)$$

where:

SN = the generalized normative belief concerning performance of the behavior (Generalized Normative Belief)

b_i = the belief concerning the extent to which the i th referent thinks the behavior should or should not be performed (Normative Belief)

m_i = the extent to which the individual is generally motivated to comply with the perceived normative expectations of the i th referent (Motivation to Comply)

n = the number of salient and relevant referents

The traditional application of this model entails obtaining measures of the extent to which respondents believe certain outcomes or consequences will occur if a particular behavior is performed and an evaluation of the favourableness or unfavourableness of each consequence. This information is used to estimate the respondent's attitude towards performing the behavior by summing the evaluations of all expected behavioral consequence weighted by the estimated likelihood of occurrence. A similar procedure is employed in order to estimate the Generalized Normative Belief (SN). In this instance, the respondent is asked to indicate the extent to which various referents think the behavior should or should not be performed and whether the respondent generally tends to comply with each referent's expectations. Then, the Generalized Normative Belief is estimated by adding the expectations of the referents weighted by the general Motivation to Comply with each referent. Finally, a measure of the respondent's intentions to perform the behavior is regressed on the Attitudinal

and Normative indices to derive the component's standardized regression coefficients (w_1, w_2).

Fishbein and Ajzen's model has been applied to a broad range of behavioral phenomenon (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975 for reviews) yielding regression equations which typically account for a substantial proportion (between 25 and 70%) of the variance in indices of behavioral intentions. The Theory of Reasoned Action has also been an effective stimulator of research on attitude-intentions-behavior associations attesting to its heuristic utility (e.g., Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Hackman & Anderson, 1968). It seems reasonable to conclude that a modified version of this scheme can be employed with good success as the basis of the deliberation process in voluntary action.

Fishbein and Ajzen have designed their model so that it may be applied to a broad range of behavioral phenomena. Accordingly, the various components of their symbolic equation are expressed using abstract concepts. Since the objective here however, is to design a scheme which applies exclusively to the decision to volunteer, it is possible to be more explicit concerning the nature of the model's components (e.g., define the attitudinal component in greater detail), and to incorporate various factors which could prove decisive when individuals contemplate voluntary action, although not necessarily crucial in the decision to pursue other behavioral courses.

As a result, four modifications have been made in the original Fishbein and Ajzen scheme to enhance its utility for the present application:

1. A parameter has been included to reflect the extent to which the individual is cognizant of the opportunities for voluntary action in the community (Section 9.4.1)
2. A parameter has been introduced to gauge the extent to which the individual perceives participation in known organizations to be feasible (Section 9.4.2)
3. The Attitudinal component of the model has been more explicitly defined to permit individual differences in the perceived utility of participation to be more readily discerned (Section 9.4.3)
4. The formula by which the Attitudinal component of the model is calculated has been slightly (but not substantively) altered to give greater emphasis to the consequences of not participating (Section 9.4.4)

In the sections to follow, each of these modifications will be reviewed in turn. Then, in Section 9.5, methodological issues and potential applications of the proposed model will be examined.

Before turning to this discussion however, it is necessary to clarify two points about the model proposed here. Fishbein and Ajzen have devised their scheme in order to study the relative importance of attitudes and normative beliefs as determinants of behavioral decisions. As such, their model has not distinguished between the types of attitudes or beliefs which may be decisive in such deliberations. On the other hand, the objective here is to identify all factors which might be considered by an individual contemplating voluntary action so that each may be studied independently. This has naturally lead to an expansion of the number of parameters in the symbolic equation. While at first this tactic would appear to render the proposed model less parsimonious than the original, there is good reason to design the model in this manner.

Recall that the general paradigm entails devising a model of the deliberation process and then using this scheme to estimate the impact of various events (e.g., life events) or circumstances (e.g., prior volunteer experience) on the decision to volunteer. As such, if the deliberation model is devised using the minimum number of parameters in order to achieve maximal parsimony, it would be less capable of identifying the impact of various events on the decision to volunteer with precision. For example, if a change in the individual's circumstances produces an increased need for social contact, this might affect the evaluation of a belief that volunteering will result in meeting new people, but not the appraisal of the organization's contribution to the community. By constructing a model which distinguishes between these two types of evaluations, it thus becomes possible to define the effects of this antecedent in more precise terms.

Secondly, it should also be noted that the version of the model described here has been designed to apply to the decision to join a specific voluntary organization. While a model delineated at this level of specificity will be useful in the present application, it may not be appropriate for all lines of research (e.g., long-term prediction of participation). In recognition of this fact, a more general version of the deliberation model has also been designed and will be presented in Section 9.4.5.

9.4 The Specific Version of the Deliberation Model

9.4.1 Awareness of Voluntary Organizations within the Community

It is customary in studies of the attitude-behavior relationship

to implicitly assume that the respondent possesses the necessary knowledge in order to pursue the behavioral course under consideration. For the most part, this assumption is quite valid since the criterion behaviors selected for study have typically been well known to the general population (e.g., contraceptive use - Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; voting behavior - Fishbein & Coombs, 1974; religious acts such as attending church - Fishbein & Ajzen, 1974) or the opportunity to perform the criterion behavior has been presented as part of the investigation's design (e.g., Norman 1975; Schwartz, 1978).

However, the same cannot be assumed a priori in the case of voluntary action. In fact, a national survey of Canadian volunteers (Carter, 1975) found that 44.6% of those who had never volunteered identified lack of awareness concerning the opportunities available for participation as the major reason for their inactivity. This outcome suggests that it is important to include some index of the individual's current state of awareness concerning the opportunities for volunteer pursuits within the community.

There are undoubtedly a variety of methods by which this may be accomplished, as the concept of awareness is indeed complex. However, for the purpose of this present version of the model, the degree of awareness possessed by an individual will be operationally defined as the number of organizations in the community that are salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation and for which a method or procedure by which to become involved is known (i.e., where to go, whom to contact, when the organization is accessible, how to acquire such information if desired).

An awareness of many opportunities for participation does not guarantee that voluntary action will be pursued. Rather, it is quite possible that an individual may know of a myriad of organizations but consider participation in each infeasible and/or undesirable. On the other hand, it may be hypothesized that as the number of organizations salient to the individual increases, so too will the probability that a particular organization will be found which offers a viable and attractive course of action.

Alternatively, if the individual is unaware of the organizations operating within the community and/or lacks vital information as to how to join a voluntary organization, it does not mean that participation will not occur. Nevertheless, this state of affairs does signify that a crucial ingredient in the necessary precursors for voluntary action is absent, and it will be essential that this information be acquired at some point before participation can ensue. Since this adds an additional step to the initiation sequence, it may then be expected to diminish the probability of participation.

The awareness parameter can be incorporated into the original Fishbein and Ajzen model (now altered to represent the more specific version of the deliberation model) in the following manner:

$$VA \equiv SI = \underset{\text{over } N}{\text{Max}} (A_i)w_1 + (SN_i)w_2 \quad (1.2)$$

where:

- VA = joining a particular voluntary organization
(Voluntary Action)
- SI = expressing intentions to join a particular
voluntary organization (Specific Intentions)
- A_i = the attitude of the individual towards
participating in the i th organization
- SN_i = the generalized normative belief concerning
participation in the i th organization
- w_1, w_2 = standardized regression weights for the
attitudinal and normative components of the model
- N = the number of organizations salient to the
individual at the time of the deliberation for
which a method by which to become involved is
known
- Max over N = the maximum perceived utility of participation
among those organizations salient to the
individual at the time of the deliberation

This modification to the model therefore hypothesizes that the probability of intentions to join a specific organization at any point in time, will vary as a function of the most desirable, known opportunity for participation. If the awareness parameter is equal to zero (i.e., $N=0$), then the maximum value of N will also be zero and the individual will be considered to lack cognizance of an option for participation (see Note 1). As this discussion proceeds, further modifications to the specific version of the deliberation model will be introduced.

9.4.2 Feasibility of Participation

Students of attitude-behavior relationships have frequently acknowledged that various situational constraints (e.g., time, money,

energy, physical ability, skills) may prevent individuals from behaving in a manner consistent with their attitudes and beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Fazio & Zanna, 1978; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Regan & Fazio, 1977; Schuman & Johnson, 1976; Wicker, 1969). Despite consensus on this issue however, there has been relatively little effort directed towards modifying models of this sort to include indices which reflect the ability of the individual to perform the activity under examination. Nevertheless, it may be argued that the assessment of the feasibility of any given activity forms an integral part of a behavioral decision and warrants special consideration in the design of such schemes.

The extent to which the individual views a particular pursuit as viable may be especially crucial in the decision to become a volunteer as participation may require a considerable investment of time, energy and material resources. This fact gains force when it is noted that individuals commonly mention situational constraints when explaining why they are not involved (Carter, 1975; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Uzzell, 1980). What is more, not all organizations are accessible to every member in society, and individuals must evaluate whether they possess the necessary qualifications for membership when contemplating participation in any given organization.

There are at least four factors which may be decisive in the assessment of participation feasibility:

1. Whether or not individuals believe they are qualified to become members of the organization
2. Whether or not individuals believe their schedule will permit the allocation of sufficient time to satisfy the participation requirements of membership
3. Whether or not individuals believe they possess the necessary skills and attributes to perform the activities of the organization
4. Whether or not individuals believe they will be able to sustain the expenses incurred as a consequence of participation

Whether or not prospective volunteers believe that they will be accepted by an organization if an attempt is made to join will largely depend on their impression of the organization's membership eligibility requirements. Organizations vary considerably with respect to these requirements and may restrict admittance to all but a select elite within society. Even volunteer service organizations, which tend to be quite liberal in their eligibility requirements, typically employ some form of screening process to assess the suitability of the applicant (Bellamy & Wells, 1974; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975). Individuals seeking membership may be rejected on the basis of a broad range of criteria including sex, age, race, religion, social class, occupation, intelligence or personal disposition. Therefore, if individuals believe they will be unable to satisfy any of these requirements, participation in the organization will be judged as infeasible.

Individuals must also believe they possess a schedule which permits participation in the organization in accordance with the requirements of active membership. This assessment may include an

estimate of the amount of time which will be required to travel to and from the organization's operational base(s) as well as the number of meetings, practices, training sessions or social gatherings which should be attended in order to maintain membership in good-standing. It is also necessary that the individuals' schedules permit the allocation of time during those periods in the day, week or month when the organization's activities are performed. In other words, time available during the evenings will be of little value if the organization only operates during the day. Research which has examined why individuals do not volunteer has revealed that schedule incompatibility and the absence of discretionary time are among the most common reasons for lack of participation (Carter, 1975; Knoke, 1981; Uzzell, 1980).

The assessment of participation feasibility may also include an evaluation of the extent to which individuals believe they are capable of performing the perceived duties of a member in a particular organization. This assessment may be especially crucial if the prospective participants expect that special attributes (e.g., self-confidence, patience, intelligence, physical stamina) or skills will be necessary to execute the functions of an active volunteer in a competent and effective manner. If special training is deemed requisite, the quality and intensity of the organization's training programme may also be considered in this assessment. It is of interest in this regard, that inadequate training to deal with the needs of client groups and perform the functions of a service

volunteer is the most frequently identified weakness of most volunteer programmes (Carter, 1975).

Finally, it is also necessary that individuals believe they will be able to afford any expenses incurred as a consequence of participation. These expenses might include initiation fees, periodic membership dues, babysitting costs, travel expenses, or the purchase of special equipment (e.g., uniforms). If it is believed that participation will reduce the possibility of pursuing certain income generating activities (e.g., part-time employment), this may also be treated as an incurred expense of involvement.

When individuals conclude that they will be incapable of satisfying the requirements of membership for any of the above reasons, participation in the organization will be judged infeasible. Accordingly, the feasibility assessment can be expressed in terms of the following symbolic equation:

$$f_i = a_i \times t_i \times p_i \times m_i \quad (4.0)$$

where:

- f_i = the perceived feasibility of participating in the i th organization
- a_i = whether or not individuals believe they will satisfy the i th organization's entrance eligibility criteria
- t_i = whether or not individuals believe they will be capable of allocating the necessary time to fulfill the participation requirements of the i th organization
- p_i = whether or not individuals believe they possess the necessary skills and/or attributes, or will be given sufficient training to perform the activities of the i th organization in a competent and effective manner

m_i = whether or not individuals believe they will be able to accommodate the required monetary expenses of participation in the i th organization

Parameters a_i , t_i , p_i and m_i may assume either the value "1" or "0" depending as to whether the individual decides that the requirement can be met (1) or not met (0). Therefore, the feasibility parameter (f_i) will only obtain a value of "1" (i.e., feasible) if participation is considered viable with respect to each of the four assessments (i.e., access, time, performance, monetary expense).

If for any reason an individual fails to consider one of these four factors when appraising the viability of participation (e.g., the prospective volunteer is unaware that the organization enforces specific entrance eligibility criteria), the overlooked parameter will be assigned the value "1". This is because neglected aspects of feasibility cannot be a reason for involvement to be judged impractical (see Note 2). By defining the feasibility parameter in this way, it follows that the feasibility assessment can only serve to restrict participation. In other words, if persons decide that they are incapable of meeting the requirements of active participation in a particular organization ($f_i=0$), the perceived attractiveness of this course of action is likely to be irrelevant. On the other hand, whether or not individuals join organizations when participation is judged feasible ($f_i=1$) will depend upon the attractiveness of the activities and the normative beliefs concerning such involvement.

This tenet of the model is reflected in the way the feasibility parameter is incorporated into the deliberation model:

$$VA=SI= \underset{\text{Over } N}{\text{Max}} f_i(A_i w_1 + SN_i w_2) \quad (1.3)$$

where:

f_i = the feasibility of participating in the i th organization
and where $f_i=1$ if feasible and $f_i=0$ if not feasible

All other components of the model retain their original definition (see Section 9.4.1).

Representing the parameters of the feasibility assessment (Equation 4) as binary variables is undoubtedly an over-simplification of the true character of these assessments. Clearly it is possible for a person to evaluate participation as viable, but also conclude that such pursuits will impose variable degrees of strain on available discretionary resources. This conclusion may be particularly evident with respect to the assessment of the time and monetary requirements of participation (t_i, m_i). Accordingly, the assessment of participation feasibility may often fail to yield a decisive (i.e., binary) outcome.

The extent to which voluntary action is feasible may be especially pertinent when the possibility of participation in a number of organizations is entertained (i.e., $N > 1$). In such instances, variations in the perceived requirements of memberships and the ability of the individual to fulfill these requirements may be critical in the deliberation. It is therefore desirable to capture this characteristic of the feasibility assessment in the design of this parameter of the model.

One way to accomplish this objective would be to ask respondents to rate the extent to which they believe the membership

requirements of a particular organization could be fulfilled using an unipolar scale ranging from "not possible" to "very possible". For example, with respect to the perception of the respondent's ability to dedicate sufficient time to the organization's activities, the question might read "How possible do you expect it will be to contribute the necessary time to be a member of this organization?"

These ratings could be converted to values between 0 and 1 (the values "0" and "1" being assigned to the rating scale anchors), and the overall index of feasibility (f_i) would be calculated by multiplying the four feasibility parameters. This parameter would continue to be incorporated in the scheme as previously specified (Equation 1.3).

Investigators are encouraged to consider both the binary and continuous version of the feasibility parameter in the application of this model and assess the merits of each through empirical validation. In addition, further examination of the way that individuals typically assess participation feasibility would contribute to a determination of the most appropriate method by which to represent this component of the scheme.

In theory at least, the assessment of participation feasibility should be independent of the evaluation of the utility of involvement. Thus, it is entirely possible that certain individuals will find participation quite appealing, but decline to join due to lack of time, energy, money, personal efficiency or some other situational constraint. On the other hand, some may feel that their circumstances permit

participation, but that such action is unlikely to prove fulfilling and worthwhile.

Nevertheless, it can be expected that in some instances the individuals' assessment of participation feasibility will be appreciably influenced by the attractiveness of the pursuit. Therefore, some persons may considerably underestimate the requirements of membership to foster their conviction that the attractive benefits of voluntary action are obtainable or exaggerate the demands of volunteering to justify their decision not to join. These biasing tendencies may be accentuated if individuals feel obligated to defend their decisions to others (Bradley, 1978).

9.4.3 Attitudinal Component of the Model

Fishbein and Ajzen have designed their model in abstract terms so that it may be applied to a broad range of behavioral phenomena. As such, the original model contains a global attitudinal component which does not distinguish between the different reasons why a particular course of action may be found appealing. While in many instances, individual differences in the perceived utility of a behavioral course may be of secondary theoretical interest, this is not the case with volunteer motivation.

Rather, there is abundant evidence that voluntary action is undertaken by individuals to achieve decidedly different objectives (Adams, 1980; Anderson & Moore, 1978; Bryant, 1978; Bushee, 1945; Davies, 1977; Flynn & Webb, 1975; Nathan, 1972; Sharp, 1978; Smith

1980; Uzzell, 1980; Weinstein, 1974; also see Chapter Four of this thesis). It is therefore crucial to elucidate these differences if the determinants of volunteer participation are to be fully understood. Fortunately, this may be accomplished without substantially altering the theoretical characteristics of the original Fishbein and Ajzen scheme by simply dividing the attitudinal component into parts, with each part addressing the appraisal of a different type of behavioral consequence. Therefore, if a particular kind of behavioral outcome is important for some individuals but not for others, the model will be capable of detecting this difference and its heuristic value will be enhanced.

Research which has studied the reasons why individuals volunteer suggests that there are at least four kinds of behavioral consequences which may be influential in the decision to volunteer:

1. The extent to which participating in the organization is expected to exert a positive or negative impact on the client group served by the organization (Instrumental Value of Participating)
2. The extent to which participating is anticipated to alter the prospective volunteer's leisure routine (Leisure Value of Participating)
3. The extent to which participating is expected to impact the personal goals or aspirations of the individual (Achievement Value of Participating)
4. The extent to which participating is expected to influence existing relationships with persons of importance to the individual (Social Value of Participating)

In the discussion that follows, attention will be given to each type of behavioral consequence.

The Instrumental Value of Participating may be defined as the extent to which the individual believes involvement in any particular group will produce a positive or negative effect on the client group served by the organization. The term "client group" is used here in its generic sense to refer to those individuals impacted by the organization when it is effective in accomplishing its objectives. For example, if the organization is a volunteer service group, the clients would be those persons (e.g., elderly, infirmed, distressed, handicapped) who receive goods and services from the organization. Political organizations on the other hand, may strive to accomplish goals which will affect all of society. Expressive organizations (i.e., groups, clubs or organizations designed primarily to benefit the actual participants), may also affect various client groups, although this is not always immediately apparent. For example, competitive athletic teams may affect the status of the institutions they represent depending on their success in competition. If however, the individual does not anticipate that participating will affect anyone external to the organization (i.e., the group does not have a client), participating will be deemed to possess no Instrumental Value.

In terms of the Fishbein and Ajzen formula for attitudes toward behavior, the Instrumental Value of Participation in any given voluntary organization may be symbolically expressed as follows:

$$IV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{a_i} CI_{ij} \cdot e_{ij} \quad (2.2)$$

where:

IV_i = the expected Instrumental Value of Participating in the i th organization

CI_{ij} = the extent to which participation in the i th organization is anticipated to exert the j th impact on the client group (Client Impact)

e_{ij} = the extent to which the j th impact is considered favourable or unfavourable from the perspective of the client group

a_i = the number of impacts on the i th organization's client group salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation

It is possible of course, for an individual to perceive participation in an organization to have negative Instrumental Value. This will occur whenever the impact of participation is expected to have an undesirable impact on the client group. For example, if a political organization promotes ideals counter to the individual's personal political philosophy, it is likely that participating in that organization will be viewed as possessing negative Instrumental Value.

The Client Impact parameter (CI_{ij}) of the Instrumental Value of Participating may be thought of as an assessment of the degree to which participating is expected to contribute towards the advancement of the organization's goals. Individuals may feel that their involvement will not advance these objectives if they lack personal efficacy or believe the organization incapable of fulfilling its intended mandate. It should be noted in this regard, that lack of personal efficacy and organization efficacy have both been identified as reasons why individuals elect not to join organizations (Hausnechkt, 1962; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Smith et al 1980; Verba & Nie, 1972).

In contrast to the other three attitudinal components in the deliberation model (i.e., Leisure Value, Achievement Value, Social Value), the consequences of participating in the Instrumental Value component are evaluated from the perspective of the client group and not the prospective volunteer. Accordingly, this evaluation may be considered an assessment of the value and worthiness of the organization's goals. One ramification of this fact is that this appraisal need not correspond to the interests or concerns of the prospective participant. In other words, it is entirely possible that individuals may perceive an organization as benefiting its client group (i.e., possesses high Instrumental Value), while at the same time expressing little interest in promoting this particular cause. Two outcomes can be anticipated when this occurs. First, it will be expected that the Instrumental Value of Participating will possess comparatively little value as a predictor of future volunteer activity in this organization. Secondly, it is likely that this lack of interest will be implicitly reflected in the assessment of the Leisure Value and Achievement Value of Participating in this group. This second outcome may be anticipated since advancing organization goals of little interest to the individual is unlikely to prove satisfying (therefore reducing the Leisure Value of Participating) and is probably inconsistent with the respondent's personal goals or aspirations (therefore reducing the Achievement Value of Participating).

The Leisure Value of Participating concerns the extent to which involvement in an organization is anticipated to be enjoyable,

stimulating and personally meaningful to the prospective volunteer. Issues of relevance in this assessment may include whether joining the organization will change the amount and quality of social contact normally experienced, whether the activities will be interesting or challenging and whether involvement will add purpose and meaning to life.

The evaluation of such consequences will largely depend on the interests and needs of the individual at the time of the deliberation. For example, persons who desire increased social contact can be anticipated to rate this sort of behavioral consequence more favourably than those who prefer solitude during their leisure hours. Similarly, whether any type of volunteer work is considered desirable will depend on the interests, temperment, status and skills of the prospective volunteer at the time of the deliberation.

The Leisure Value of Participating may be expressed in terms of the Fishbein and Ajzen attitudinal formulation as follows:

$$LV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{b_i} BRI_{ij} \cdot e_{ij} \quad (2.3)$$

where:

LV_i = the Leisure Value of Participating in the i th organization

BRI_{ij} = the extent to which participating in the i th organization is expected to exert the j th impact on the individual's behavioral routine (e.g., changes in social contact, responsibility, level of activity, sence of purpose, self-esteem)

e_{ij} = the favourableness or unfavourableness of the j th impact (from the individual's perspective)

b_i = the number of impacts of this sort expected from participating in the i th group salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation

In general, the impact on the individual's behavioral routine will only exist while the individual is actively involved in the organization (although there may be certain residual effects, such as enduring friendships, which persist after the activities are terminated). Accordingly, persons who volunteer in order to experience its perceived Leisure Value will likely view participation as an end in itself. In contrast, if an individual joins in order to further personal ambitions or goals, participation is likely to be a means by which to achieve some valued end (Flynn & Webb, 1975). In such instances, the apparent Achievement Value of Participating will likely exert a greater influence on the deliberation outcome.

The Achievement Value of Participating is a function of the extent to which such pursuits are expected to facilitate or hamper personal goal achievement. While these goals will often be related to the prospective volunteer's career, effects on the individual's standing in the community or plans for goals unrelated to one's career may also be pertinent in this assessment. Behavioral consequences which may affect personal goals include the acquisition of new skills, knowledge, credentials or social (business) contacts. As such, the Achievement Value of Participating generally leaves a more enduring impact on the individual than does its Leisure Value.

The Achievement Value of Participating in any particular volunteer organization is measured by the formula:

$$AV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{C_i} GI_{ij} \cdot e_{ij} \quad (2.4)$$

where:

AV_i = the Achievement Value of Participating in the i th organization

GI_{ij} = the extent to which participating in the i th organization is expected to exert the j th impact on a personal goal or personal advancement (Goal Impact)

e_{ij} = the extent to which the j th impact is evaluated as positive or negative with respect to goal achievement or personal advancement

c_i = the number of impacts on personal goals due to participation in the i th organization salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation

Similar to the other attitudinal indices in the deliberation model, it is possible for participation to possess negative Achievement Value. This will occur for example, whenever participation is anticipated to reduce the time available for personal pursuits or when associating with a particular organization is expected to negatively impact the individual's standing within the community. On the other hand, if persons do not believe that participation will affect their personal goals in any way, involvement in the organization will be perceived as possessing no Achievement Value.

The distinction between the Instrumental Value, Leisure Value and Achievement Value is consistent with the results of Chapter Four in this thesis. As may be recalled, this investigation used two statistical data reduction techniques (a factor analysis and a cluster analysis) to discern whether the reasons mentioned for undertaking voluntary action exhibited any inherent patterns indicative of underlying general motives. The results obtained more or less correspond to the Instrumental-Leisure-Achievement partitioning proposed for the deliberation model. Therefore, because an empirically derived typology

of joining explanations was utilized in the construction of this model, it should be well suited to identify individual differences in the reasons for such action (see Note 3).

There is one further type of behavioral consequence which can also be anticipated to influence the decision to volunteer, although it is seldom mentioned as a reason for joining such organizations (see Chapter Four). This is the extent to which participating in any particular organization will alter existing relationships with significant others or the Social Value of Participating.

The Social Value of Participating in any given organization may be assessed by the following formula:

$$SV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} RI_{ij} \cdot e_{ij} \quad (2.5)$$

where:

SV_i = the Social Value of Participating in the i th organization

RI_{ij} = the extent to which participating in the i th organization will alter the relationship with the j th significant other

e_{ij} = the favourableness or unfavourableness of the expected change in the relationship with the j th significant other

d_i = the number of relationships which will be affected by participating in the i th organization

It is crucial not to confuse the Social Value of Participating with the Generalized Normative Belief component of the deliberation model, although the distinction between these two parameters is somewhat subtle and worthy of comment.

As will be recalled, the original Fishbein and Ajzen model defines the Generalized Normative Belief as the sum of all the salient

referents' expectations weighted by the individual's motivation to comply with each referent (see Note 4). Similarly in terms of the proposed deliberation model, the Generalized Normative Belief about participating in any particular organization can be symbolically represented by the equation:

$$SN_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} PE_{ij} \cdot M_{.j} \quad (3.2)$$

where:

- SN_i = the Generalized Normative Belief about Participating in the i th organization
- PE_{ij} = the extent to which the j th referent would think the prospective volunteer should or should not participate in the i th organization (Participation Expectation)
- $M_{.j}$ = the extent to which the prospective volunteer is generally motivated to comply with the expectations of the j th referent (Motivation to Comply) (see Note 4)
- N_i = the number of referents who might be expected to have an opinion about participating in the i th organization salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation

At first blush, the Social Value of Participating (Equation 2.5) and the Generalized Normative Belief about Participating (Equation 3.2) may appear to be merely different approaches by which to assess the same source of influence. After all, each is concerned with the expectations of significant others and each possesses an index of the extent to which the referents are considered important to the respondent (albeit utilizing somewhat different methodologies). It is therefore appropriate to question the need to include both terms in the proposed deliberation model.

This issue has been broached by Miniard and Cohen (1981) who have cogently argued that the social consequences of a behavior (i.e., the extent to which an act is likely to be approved or disapproved by significant others) are inextricably interwoven with subjective normative beliefs about performing the behavior. Accordingly, they have challenged whether behavioral consequences which pertain to social approval can be clearly disambiguated from normative beliefs, as maintained by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). As an alternative, Miniard and Cohen suggest that it is more appropriate to distinguish between the social consequences and the personal consequences of an act when modelling the determinants of behavioral decisions. In terms of the deliberation model advanced here, this would amount to a retention of the Social Value of Participating component, but the deletion of the Generalized Normative Belief component from the scheme.

However, Fishbein and Ajzen (1981) have countered with an argument of their own:

That behavioral and normative beliefs differ in important ways and reflect more than a "surface" distinction can be seen by considering some additional examples. I may well believe that buying my wife a diamond ring would make her happy, but at the same time also believe that she thinks I should not do so (perhaps because we cannot afford it). In isolation, these two beliefs could produce a positive attitude toward the behavior and a negative subjective norm. Similarly, I may believe that my doctor thinks I should take a vacation (normative belief) but not that doing so would please my doctor (behavioral belief). Again, attitudes and subjective norms would be differentially affected [Fishbein & Ajzen, 1981, pg. 343]

The distinction between the Social Value of Participating and the Generalized Normative Belief about Participating becomes quite

apparent when the effect each exerts on the decision to volunteer is considered under various scenarios. For example, the normative expectations of an important referent (i.e., someone with whom the individual usually tends to comply), may influence the decision to volunteer even when this referent is unlikely to learn about this activity (see Note 5). On the other hand, since it is unlikely that the social relationship will be altered if the referent is unaware of the involvement (i.e., $SI_i=0$), significant others who remain uninformed about the join will not be considered in the assessment of the Social Value of Participating.

Similarly, if a referent believes that the individual should volunteer, but also expresses the belief that this will not occur, the prospective volunteer may likely decide that the relationship with this referent will not be affected if participation is not undertaken (i.e., the Social Value of Participating will not change). Nevertheless, the normative expectations of this referent may continue to exert an influence on the deliberation outcome.

In both instances, this distinction occurs because Normative Beliefs are linked to the perception of the expectations of others (i.e., the extent to which others think the behavior should or should not be performed), but not necessarily to the anticipated reactions of others. Therefore, whenever a discrepancy exists between the normative beliefs of a referent and the expected impact on the relationship with the referent (due to lack of awareness, indifference about this particular activity or a disparity between what the referent thinks

should be done and what they think will actually occur), the opinions of this referent may exert little influence on the perceived Social Value of Participating while continuing to define the Normative Beliefs about Participating.

There are many instances where this can be expected to occur. For example, parent's normative values may continue to influence offspring behavioral choices long after their death. The recommendations of experts (doctors, lawyers) concerning the advisability of any given course of action may contribute to the definition of the Normative Beliefs about a behavior, despite the fact that the relationship with such referents will likely remain unaltered by the individual's behavior. And the opinions of an admired celebrity may impact Normative Beliefs although it is unlikely that the individual and the celebrity will ever meet.

Therefore, in theory at least, it would appear reasonable to retain both the Social Value of Participating and the Generalized Normative Belief as separate components in the deliberation equation. Notwithstanding, should empirical use of this model reveal that these terms are highly interdependent and generally do not contribute to the prediction of participation in independent ways, it may be prudent to delete one of these terms from the deliberation model.

With the division of the attitude component into four separate parts, the deliberation model now assumes the following form:

$$VA=SI= \underset{\text{Over } N}{\text{Max}} f_i(IV_i.w_1 + LV_i.w_2 + AV_i.w_3 + SV_i.w_4 + SN_i.w_5) \quad (1.4)$$

where:

- VA = voluntary action
- SI = intentions to join a specific volunteer organization
- f_i = the feasibility of participating in the i th organization
- IV_i = the perceived Instrumental Value of Participating in the i th organization
- LV_i = the perceived Leisure Value of Participating in the i th organization
- AV_i = the perceived Achievement Value of Participating in the i th organization
- SV_i = the perceived Social Value of Participating in the i th organization
- SN_i = the Generalized Normative Belief about participating in the i th organization
- N = the number of voluntary organizations salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation
- Max Over N = the most favourable assessment of participation among those organizations salient to the individual at the time of the deliberation
- w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5 = empirically derived regression coefficients

As previously mentioned, the division of the attitudinal component of the model into discrete parts considerably enhances the heuristic potential of this scheme as a device by which to explore individual differences in the motives for volunteering. Therefore, if different types of individuals tend to be attracted to voluntary action for different reasons (as suggested by Chapter Five of this thesis), the predictive utility of the model's components will detect this. For example, because university students often undertake voluntary action

in order to acquire career-related skills, experience and/or credentials, the perceived Achievement Value of Participating may be especially predictive of their intentions to volunteer. On the other hand, those who join to combat boredom, meet new people and/or add purpose and meaning to their lives may be most influenced by the perceived Leisure Value of Participating. In each case, such a pattern would be identified by variations in the magnitude of the standardized regression coefficients of the various components in the model. Accordingly, this scheme will serve as a useful instrument by which to objectively discern individual differences in the importance of various aspects of voluntary action, while simultaneously providing a general conceptual framework in which to view their influence on the deliberation process. As will be recalled, these capabilities are considered highly desirable in any model of volunteer motivation.

Finally, Fishbein and Ajzen have restricted their attitudinal component to the respondent's attitude towards performing the behavior. It seems reasonable however, to ask whether individual's attitudes toward the organization (e.g., prestige, demographic composition of the membership, decision making-policies) might also prove decisive in such deliberations.

While ultimately this possibility can only be assessed through empirical study, there are at least two reasons to argue against such an addition. First, attitudes toward the organization can be expected to considerably influence the prospective volunteer's beliefs concerning the consequences of participation. For instance, the types of

individuals who are believed to join an organization may influence the perceived Leisure Value of Participating in that organization. Similarly, the prestige of the organization may influence the individual's evaluation of the Achievement Value and Instrumental Value of Participating. As a result, the respondent's attitudes toward the organization will implicitly be reflected in the model insofar as they influence beliefs concerning the probable consequences of involvement.

Secondly, research on the attitude-behavior relationship suggests that the addition of the individual's attitudes toward the organization is unlikely to appreciably improve the model's predictive utility. The reason for this expectation is that investigations which have assessed the association between attitudes toward objects and behavior have generally found little or no relationship. Thus, as concluded by Fishbein and Ajzen:

Of those studies that have obtained some measure of attitude and a behavioral criterion, most have attempted to predict a single-act or repeated observation criteria from a traditional measure of attitude towards an object. As might be expected, these studies have met with little success.

...In contrast, when attitude towards a behavior, rather than an object, has been used to predict single-act or repeated-observation criteria, significant findings have usually been obtained.

[Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, 360-361]

It warrants mention that single-act behavioral criterion (i.e., whether or not a specific act is performed on a particular occasion) and repeated-observation behavioral criterion (i.e., the extent to which a particular behavior is manifested over a number of occasions)

are the most likely dependent variables in the intended application of the deliberation model (see Note 6). Therefore, the individual's attitude towards the organization will not be included as a component in this version of this scheme.

9.4.4 The Consequences of Not Participating

The decision to volunteer may be viewed as a choice between joining and not joining a volunteer organization. Accordingly, the assessment of the potential ramifications of not participating may often form an integral part of the total evaluation of such action. Since the perceived attractiveness of not participating may well prove decisive, it is of interest to examine how such beliefs are treated by the Theory of Reasoned Action.

The original Fishbein and Ajzen model is capable of accommodating salient beliefs regarding the consequences of not performing the behavior. For example, if voluntary action is expected to reduce the opportunity for indulging in other desirable past-times (e.g., visiting friends, reading, watching television, attending night-school), this may be considered a negative consequence of participation. Similarly, if important referents are thought to generally favour the decision to volunteer, not doing so may be anticipated to be met with some disapproval.

Nevertheless, although the original scheme can accommodate beliefs of this sort, it may be argued that the model is not ideally suited to reflect this aspect of the deliberation. The reason for this conclusion is as follows.

Fishbein and Ajzen hypothesize that intentions are largely determined by the salient beliefs held about performing the behavior and the normative expectations of salient referents. As a result, factors which effect belief salience will alter the probability of intentions to perform the behavior. This prediction is supported by research (Ajzen, 1971; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972; Fishbein, 1966) which has demonstrated that when certain beliefs are systematically accentuated, behavioral intentions are predictably moderated. It therefore follows, that if beliefs about performing and not performing the behavior are to be fairly represented in the model, it will be crucial to ensure that its application does not accentuate the salience of one type of belief over the other. Unfortunately, this is not generally the case.

Rather, the recommended paradigm by which to elicit salient beliefs is to instruct respondents to enumerate the expected outcomes if the behavior is performed (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Such a procedure is likely to focus the respondents' attention primarily on the effects produced by the action (e.g., meeting people, personal gratification, acquisition of new skills), and cause them to neglect the potential ramifications of not performing the behavior (e.g., increased discretionary time, less responsibility, less social interaction, reduced risk of making a mistake). This problem is particularly exacerbated when investigators predetermine the behavioral consequences to be evaluated by using standardized measures which only address the consequences of the action (e.g., Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979).

Some may argue that the typical emphasis given to the consequences of action in this paradigm is likely to faithfully reflect the inherent tendency to ignore the ramifications of not performing a behavior in deliberations of this sort. While such a tendency may exist, there is little gained by artificially accentuating this bias through the research design employed. Moreover, there is potentially much to be lost when the strategy ensures a reduction of the salience of the consequences of not performing the activity. In addition, even though respondents may neglect the consequences of not pursuing a given course of action during a brief assessment of attitudes, it does not follow that such consequences will continue to be overlooked when this behavioral course is seriously contemplated.

Fortunately, it is possible to remove this differential emphasis by simply asking respondents to also enumerate the anticipated consequences of not participating in a given organization. What is more, this tactic would not require any adjustments to the basic tenets of the original scheme, as the value of both types of consequences can be estimated in the same manner (i.e., by obtaining the sum of the evaluation of each consequence weighted by its likelihood of occurrence). Then, the overall value of each of the four attitudinal components (i.e., Instrumental Value, Leisure Value, Achievement Value, Social Value) can be estimated by subtracting the perceived value of not participating from the value of participating for each of the four content areas. For example, the Overall Leisure Value of Participating would be calculated as follows:

$$LV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{b_i} BRI_{ij} e_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{x_i} BRI_{ik} e_{ik} \quad (2.7)$$

where:

LV_i = the Overall Leisure Value of Participating in the i th organization

BRI_{ij} = the probability that the j th impact on the behavioral routine will occur as a consequence of participating in the i th organization

e_{ij} = the evaluation of the j th impact

b_i = the number of impacts on the behavioral routine expected as a consequence of participating in the i th organization

BRI_{ik} = the probability of the k th impact on the behavioral routine as a consequence of not participating in the i th organization

e_{ik} = the evaluation of the k th impact

x_i = the number of impacts on the behavioral routine expected as a consequence of not participating in the i th organization

Similarly, the formulae for the remaining three attitudinal components in the deliberation model would be adjusted accordingly:

$$IV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{a_i} CI_{ij} \cdot e_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{w_i} CI_{ik} \cdot e_{ik} \quad (2.6)$$

where:

IV_i = the Overall Instrumental Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{j=1}^{a_i} CI_{ij} e_{ij}$ = the perceived Instrumental Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{k=1}^{w_i} CI_{ik} e_{ik}$ = the perceived Instrumental Value of not Participating in the i th organization (i.e., the extent to which not participating in the i th organization is expected to effect the

client group or appreciably alter the capability of the organization to achieve its intended goals multiplied by the evaluation of this potential impact from the perspective of the client group)

$$AV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{c_i} GI_{ij} e_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{y_i} GI_{ik} e_{ik} \quad (2.8)$$

where:

AV_i = the Overall Achievement Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{j=1}^{c_i} GI_{ij} e_{ij}$ = the perceived Achievement Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{k=1}^{y_i} GI_{ik} e_{ik}$ = the perceived Achievement Value of Not Participating in the i th organization (i.e., the extent to which not participating in the i th organization is expected to affect the individual's goals or aspirations multiplied by the evaluation of this effect)

$$SV_i = \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} RI_{ij} e_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{z_i} RI_{ik} e_{ik} \quad (2.9)$$

where:

SV_i = the Overall Social Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{j=1}^{d_i} RI_{ij} e_{ij}$ = the perceived Social Value of Participating in the i th organization

$\sum_{k=1}^{z_i} RI_{ik} e_{ik}$ = the perceived Social Value of Not Participating in the i th organization (i.e., the extent to which not participating in the i th organization is expected to affect the relationship with the salient referents multiplied by an evaluation of each of these expected impacts).

To further illustrate the need for this modification in the deliberation model, it will prove instructive to examine the types of consequences which may be salient to the individual when contemplating the implications of not joining a particular organization. As will be seen, these beliefs are generally not the same as those salient when the ramifications of involvement are considered.

The Instrumental Value of Not Participating refers to the expected impact on the client group which would occur if the individual elected not to join the group. In general, outcomes of this sort will only be salient if individuals believe their participation is vital to the success of the organization.

For example, an especially talented athlete may assess the prospects of team success as severely diminished if he decides not to become involved. A prestigious individual may expect that joining an organization will encourage many others to participate and therefore view not joining as considerably impacting the organization. Still another may perceive that the organization is desperately in need of leadership and direction, and conclude that unless this role is adopted, the group's very survival may be jeopardized. As such, in at least one sense the Instrumental Value of Not Participating serves as a further index of the respondent's perceived obligation to participate (see Note 7).

For the most part, it can be expected that prospective joiners will not view their involvement as critical to an organization's operations. Accordingly, perceived consequences of this sort should

rarely occur and the Instrumental Value of Not Participating will typically exert little effect on the Overall Instrumental Value of Participating.

On the other hand, the Leisure Value of Not Participating can be expected to more often influence the perceived Overall Leisure Value of a group. The Leisure Value of Not Participating is an evaluation of those impacts on the individual's leisure routine which are likely to transpire if the decision is made not to volunteer. In many instances, this will translate into an assessment of those leisure pursuits which will become possible if time and energy are not allocated to participation (see Note 8). For instance, some may envision that not becoming involved will allow more time for family and friends, reading, watching television, going to the theatre or other enjoyable past-times. Others may simply view such a decision as creating more opportunities to relax and enjoy life at a less hectic pace.

Accordingly, the relationship between the Leisure Value of Participating and the Leisure Value of Not Participating can be viewed as a comparative assessment of the utility of voluntary action relative to other past-times which will be possible if time and energy are not dedicated to voluntary action. Therefore, if the perceived consequences of participating are considered less appealing than the anticipated outcomes of not participating, the Overall Leisure Value of Participating will be judged as undesirable (i.e., negative). In effect, this means that the prospective volunteer has decided that his leisure time will be more enjoyable, interesting, challenging or

meaningful if the decision is made not to join the organization. Note that this will occur even if the expected consequences of participation are considered desirable, but less favourable than alternative behavioral options salient at the time of the deliberation.

Rather interestingly, the converse of this prediction is also likely to be true. Therefore, if persons anticipate that their behavioral routine will become less satisfactory in the absence of voluntary action, then the Overall Leisure Value of Participating will be more favourable than had only the consequences of participation be examined during the deliberation. Such a situation might arise if individuals expect that continued inactivity will result in progressive loss of self-esteem, further social withdrawal, or more intense feelings of boredom and purposelessness.

The assessment of the Achievement Value of Not Participating may be anticipated to function in a similar fashion. In this case, this value will be a function of the expected opportunities created for the achievement of personal goals if time and energy are not dedicated to a voluntary organization. Thus, similar to the Overall Leisure Value, the Overall Achievement Value is an assessment of the possibilities for goal advancement through participation relative to alternative strategies by which to achieve these same objectives. This might include the expectation that not volunteering will allow more time for academic pursuits (and hence better grades), permit a part-time job to be undertaken, or allow more time to search for more suitable employment.

Conceptualizing the Overall Leisure Value and Achievement Value of Participating in this manner recognizes the fact that the decision to join a voluntary organization is not necessarily restricted to a single behavioral option. As such, when more than one course of action is contemplated, the Leisure and Achievement Value of Participating will be most meaningful when compared to the perceived utility of alternative ways by which these discretionary resources can be committed.

It is possible of course, that the individual will expect no change in the status quo if the decision is made not to join the organization. In such instances, no behavior consequences will be salient when the respondent contemplates the ramifications of not participating. As a result, the Leisure and Achievement Value of Not Participating will be neutral (i.e., zero) and the symbolic equations used to compute these two components in the model (Equations 2.7 and 2.8) will assume their original form (Equations 2.3 and 2.4).

Finally, the Social Value of Not Participating is an evaluation of the anticipated effects the decision not to volunteer will have on existing relationships with significant others. Note that the relationships impacted by such a decision need not be the same as those altered by the decision to become involved. This will especially be the case when significant others are unaware that the individual is entertaining voluntary action, and are only likely to become cognizant of this fact if participation is initiated. In this instance, the decision not to join can be expected to exert little effect on existing

relationships (i.e., the Social Value of Not Participating will be near zero), while the decision to volunteer may. Another instance where an asymmetry will occur with respect to the social consequences of joining and not joining the organization is when important referents express a distinct preference concerning the outcome of the deliberation. In this situation, it may be anticipated that relationships with referents will be affected more when the individual acts counter to their preferences than when the decision is in agreement with these preferences.

As was mentioned in Chapter Six, many persons who initiate voluntary action concede that their decision was influenced by the encouragement received from friends, family and others. It may be that the social implications of not joining were evaluated as quite negative by these individuals and that this considerably influenced the deliberation outcome.

It is not necessary to alter the form of the Generalized Normative Belief component (SN_i) to accommodate beliefs concerning the consequences of not participating. This is because respondents are asked to rate their motivation to comply (MC_j) with each referent independent of the deliberation outcome. As well, since individuals are instructed to consider the fact that referents may favour either the decision to join or not to join, both outcomes of the deliberation are examined during this assessment.

Instructing respondents to consider both the consequences of participating and not participating in the evaluation of the utility of such action has been recommended as a method by which to reduce the bias which may ensue when only the consequences of participation are contemplated. At the same time, by asking prospective volunteers to give due consideration to the potential ramifications of not volunteering, the salience of such beliefs may be artificially accentuated beyond that which would occur when voluntary action is naturally entertained. If so, this modification will tend to attenuate the relationship between the deliberation model and behavioral intentions and should therefore be reconsidered. Nevertheless, this proposed modification does possess sufficient merit to warrant empirical assessment.

9.4.5 General Version of the Deliberation Model

To this point in the discussion attention has been given exclusively to the specific version of the deliberation model. As will now be apparent, the specific version is designed to assess the extent to which participation is feasible, appealing and compatible with prevailing normative beliefs about organizations known and salient to the individual at the time of the assessment.

There are several advantages gained by specifying the deliberation model in this manner. For example, because this model focuses on the current knowledge available to the individual (e.g., awareness of organizations in the community, salient beliefs about these

organizations) and the way this information is assessed (perceived utility of such action, perceived feasibility of participation, normative beliefs about participation), it is well suited to define the existing state of affairs of the prospective volunteer. As such, any factor which may currently be preventing participation (e.g., awareness, feasibility, perceived utility, normative beliefs) can be clearly identified.

It may also be anticipated that the specific version of this model will be quite sensitive to changes in the respondent's circumstances and to the subtle impacts of various events (e.g., life events, social encouragement) which enhance or reduce the probability of voluntary action. For example, if the individual learns of a new organization during a conversation with a friend, the maximum value of N (i.e., the most desirable option available for voluntary action salient to the individual), may change dramatically and considerably alter the likelihood that the individual will decide to volunteer. Another may experience a subtle change in his behavioral routine that appreciably alters the feasibility of joining an organization known about for some time. Even an article in a newspaper concerning a particular organization can exert a major impact on the model's parameters, if this article alters beliefs held about the organization.

In each case, a relatively minor event is observed to exert a profound influence of the likelihood that participation will be initiated. At the same time, these events may have little impact on the

prospective volunteer's general appraisal of voluntary action, and would therefore not have been detected by a more general version of this scheme.

Notwithstanding, the specific version of the deliberation model will not be suitable for all research applications, and especially those involving the prediction of volunteer pursuits over an extended interval of time. This is because the specific version does not distinguish between transient states (e.g., awareness of local organizations, temporary situational constraints), which may momentarily preclude participation, and more enduring dispositional factors (e.g., attitudes towards participation, normative beliefs about such action), which may make intentions unlikely for an extended period of time. Thus, the specific version of the model would predict the same likelihood of intentions among persons who love volunteer work, but are currently unaware of the opportunities available in the community (perhaps due to a recent relocation); those who find participation an attractive behavioral option, but momentarily lack sufficient time for such pursuits; and those who see little utility in such endeavors or believe such action counters the prevailing normative expectations of important referents. It may be anticipated however, that the long-term probability of voluntary action will be quite different for each of these individuals.

Therefore, if the investigator is interested in predicting voluntary action over a longer period of time, a more general version of the deliberation model is likely to yield more satisfactory results.

Fortunately, due to the design of the original Fishbein and Ajzen scheme (see Note 9), the specific version can be converted to a more general form with relatively few modifications. In fact, the general version of the deliberation model differs from its more specific form in only three notable respects.

First, the specific version of the model asks respondents whether they have intentions to join a particular organization within a well defined time frame (e.g., three months). This is done to maintain consistency between the behavioral criterion and the specificity of the parameters in the model. On the other hand, since the general version of the deliberation model is constructed to predict volunteer behavior in general, the measure of behavioral intentions is relaxed to include less well defined plans for participation. This means that individuals who decide to volunteer in principle, without any particular organization in mind, or those who plan to join a particular organization at some undetermined future time, may be considered to have expressed general intentions to participate. Of course, well defined plans for involvement would also be considered intentions to join. The use of less stringent criteria for behavioral intentions recognizes the need to measure intentions and behavior at the same level of specificity in order to maximize the predictive utility of the scheme (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

The second difference between the specific and general versions of the deliberation model is found in the specificity of the

beliefs assessed to estimate the feasibility, attitudinal and normative components of the model. With the specific version, respondents are asked to evaluate beliefs about participating and not participating in a particular organization known at the time of the assessment. In contrast, the general version simply asks respondents to appraise participation feasibility, attractiveness and norm compatibility in general terms, without reference to any particular group. This is done in order to obtain a global measure of the individual's attitude towards participating, normative beliefs about involvement and the general feasibility of such action which might serve as better long-range predictors of voluntary action (see Chapter Seven).

Finally, the specific version of the deliberation model treats the perceived feasibility of participation as crucial in determining whether a particular organization is joined. This is reflected by the way this parameter is embodied in the scheme (i.e., the value of this parameter is multiplied by the value of the weighted sum of the attitudinal components and the generalized normative belief component). Arranging the specific deliberation equation in this way means that lack of feasibility inhibits intentions to volunteer regardless of the desirability of participation.

With the general version of the deliberation model, the feasibility parameter is not incorporated into the scheme in this way. Rather, the general version includes the feasibility parameter as simply another predictor variable in the equation much the same way as the attitudinal and normative components of the model. This is done

because the feasibility of participating may be expected to vary considerably over time (see Chapter Eight), and therefore will not necessarily preclude voluntary action for an extended interval of time.

With these modifications, the general version of the model takes the following symbolic form:

$$VA \equiv GI = fw_1 + IVw_2 + LVw_3 + AVw_4 + SVw_5 + SNw_6 \quad (1.5)$$

where:

VA = Voluntary Action

GI = General Intentions of Participating

f = General Feasibility of Participating

IV = General Overall Instrument Value of Participating

LV = General Overall Leisure Value of Participating

AV = General Overall Achievement Value of Participating

SV = General Overall Social Value of Participating

SN = Generalized Normative Beliefs About Participating

w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5 = empirically derived standardized regression coefficients

Note that the formulae by which the parameters of this model are estimated are identical to those employed with a specific version of this scheme. For example, the General Overall Achievement Value of Participating is still assessed by subtracting the Achievement Value of Not Participating from the Achievement Value of Participating (see Section 9.4.4). Similarly, the feasibility component is still derived by multiplying the four separate feasibility assessments (i.e., time, ability, expense and access) as discussed in Section 9.4.2.

Both the specific and general versions of the deliberation model can be employed in the study of volunteer motivation. In the next section, some of these potential applications will be reviewed along with various methodological considerations.

9.5 Application of the Deliberation Model

Developing a model of the deliberation process which depicts the types of information used, and the manner in which this information is evaluated and synthesized to assess the viability, utility and normative consistency of such endeavors, is the first crucial step in a two stage research programme designed to elucidate the motivational bases of voluntary action. In this section, some of the issues which remain to be resolved in order to refine this model will be examined. Following this, consideration will be given to the way this scheme can be employed to assess the impact of various events and circumstances on the decision to become a volunteer.

The theory which has dictated the form and content of the two versions of the deliberation model has been discussed at length in Section 9.4. However, to this point there has been comparatively little attention given to the procedural strategies by which to estimate the value of these parameters. As will be seen, there are numerous options by which to obtain the required information from respondents when applying the deliberation model, and investigators are encouraged to try different procedures in order to assess their merits and shortcomings.

Ideally, the methods utilized should strive to obtain the necessary measures in the most unobtrusive, nonreactive manner possible. This means that care should be exercised to avoid artificially accentuating various beliefs about such action and the manner in which this information is appraised and integrated. Unfortunately, the least obtrusive methods are also likely to yield data in the most unstandardized form, hence complicating subsequent analyses. Thus, undoubtedly some compromises will be necessary in order to achieve sufficient measurement standardization to permit analyses.

One approach by which to accomplish this balance, is to view the parameters of the model as an agenda to be followed in the assessment of various facets of participation. Variations on this method are illustrated with the specific version of this scheme.

First, the respondents' awareness of the opportunities for participation could be assessed, by instructing them to identify (by name) as many organizations as possible (up to some arbitrary maximum) known to operate in the community. Additional questions could be asked about each organization mentioned (e.g., location of operational base) to ensure that the respondent is actually familiar with each group, and not merely speculating about its existence. In addition, it should be determined whether the individual is cognizant of a method by which to contact each organization. The number of organizations thus identified would serve as an index of the respondent's current awareness of participation opportunities in the community. Persons who are unable to name even one organization,

or who are uncertain as to how to contact an organization, may be considered to lack knowledge of an opportunity for participation within the community. Accordingly, the maximum value of N (i.e., the most favourable appraisal of known opportunities for participation) would be set at zero (i.e., neutral), and the assessment process would be terminated at this point (see Note 10).

For those who were capable of identifying at least one group, the next step in the assessment sequence would be to select that organization which was judged to present the most viable and attractive option for voluntary action. There would be two stages in this selection procedure. First, any organization in which participation was considered infeasible would be excluded as a candidate for further assessment. The evaluation of participation feasibility could be structured by asking respondents to appraise the extent to which the perceived requirements of active membership (access, time, ability and monetary expense) could be satisfied for each organization, employing predetermined rating scales (see Section 9.4.2). However, a less obtrusive method would be to simply ask respondents whether they believe participation in each organization would be possible, and to elaborate upon their rationale when involvement in any organization was judged infeasible. While this latter strategy would yield less standard indices of feasibility, it is likely to better approximate the natural deliberation process. Moreover, a non-structured assessment of participation feasibility may

yield considerable insight concerning why certain individuals believe voluntary action is untenable.

If the respondent decides that participation in all known organizations is infeasible, then it would be concluded that there existed no known opportunities for involvement at this time. As such, the maximum value of N (i.e., the most favourable appraisal of known opportunities for involvement) would again be set at zero (i.e., neutral) and subsequent assessments would be unnecessary.

After establishing the subset of known organizations for which participation is considered viable, the individual would then be instructed to choose that organization for further evaluation, which was perceived to offer the most attractive option for participation (see Note 11). If two or more organizations were perceived as equally attractive, the organization with which the individual was most familiar would be chosen.

There are two exceptions to this selection procedure however. First, if the individual has definite plans to join a particular organization (within the time frame established for the behavioral criterion), then subsequent appraisals should apply to this organization. Secondly, active volunteers should complete the assessment sequence for the organization of membership. In all instances, the objective is to obtain an assessment of the organization which represents the most probable candidate for future volunteer activity.

The next step in the assessment entails obtaining a measure of the individual's attitude towards participating in this organization. There are at least three options by which this may be accomplished. The least obtrusive is to ask respondents to enumerate the expected consequences of participating and not participating in this particular organization. For each behavioral consequence mentioned, the individual would then be instructed to estimate the likelihood of occurrence (on a scale ranging from "Very Unlikely to Very Likely"), as well as the perceived favourableness of each outcome (on a scale ranging from "Very Undesirable to Very Desirable"). Following this, each identified behavioral consequence would be assigned by the investigator to the attitudinal component judged most appropriate (Instrumental, Leisure, Achievement, Social) and the four values would be calculated as per the prescribed formulae (see Section 9.4.4).

A more elaborate technique would entail instructing respondents to enumerate the anticipated consequences of participating and not participating with respect to the client group (Instrumental Value), their behavioral routine (Leisure Value), personal goals and aspirations (Achievement Value) and their relationships with significant others (Social Value). Although this more structured approach may tend to accentuate the salience of certain beliefs, it is to be preferred for three reasons. First, this strategy eliminates the need to classify the respondent's beliefs afterwards; a procedure which could prove quite difficult in many

instances. In addition, the structured approach would yield a more thorough assessment of the potential consequences of participating and not participating. As such, it may tend to better reflect the consequences salient when voluntary action is actually given serious consideration. Finally, by asking respondents to contemplate the potential impact of their action (or inaction) on the client group, it is possible to also instruct them to rate the favourableness of such outcomes from the perspective of the client group. As will be recalled, this type of evaluation is requisite to assess the Overall Instrumental Value of Participating as prescribed by the model's design (see Section 9.4.3)

There is one further method by which to obtain a measure of the respondent's attitude towards participating and not participating in a particular organization. This is to supply a predetermined list of potential behavioral consequences and request an appraisal of the likelihood and favourableness of each. While this approach would obtain the respondent's ratings in the most standardized form and in the process simplify subsequent analyses, such a method cannot be recommended. This is because not enough is presently known about these beliefs to establish these scales a priori. What is more, individual differences in the salience of particular outcomes may considerably alter the deliberation outcome.

The procedure used to derive the Generalized Normative Belief about participating is identical to that customarily applied with

the Fishbein and Ajzen model. Thus, respondents would be asked to generate a list of all persons who might tend to have an opinion about such matters and to indicate the extent to which each referent would think the organization should or should not be joined. Then, respondents would indicate their general inclination to comply with each referent's expectations on a scale anchored by "Generally want to do what referent χ thinks I should do" and "Generally do not want to do what referent χ thinks I should do" (Davidson & Jaccard, 1979). The sum of all relevant referent expectations, weighted by the motivation to comply with each referent, would be computed as per the prescribed formula for this component (Equation 3.2).

With the specific version of the deliberation model, the individual's behavioral intention is an estimate of the probability that the organization being evaluated will be joined within a clearly defined interval of time (e.g., three months). Therefore, plans to join at some point after this time frame, or plans to join a voluntary organization in principle without any particular group in mind, are not considered manifestations of intentions. It should be noted, that persons who are unable to name a particular organization in the community (i.e. lack awareness), or who believe that participation in all known organizations is infeasible, are considered incapable of having explicit plans to join a particular organization at the time of this assessment. In such instances, the probability of intentions is assumed to be zero (see Note 12).

In the event that the respondent is already a member of a voluntary organization, the behavioral intentions measure is modified to obtain an estimate of the probability that participation will be continued in this organization (i.e., that at least one more meeting will be attended or one more organization activity will be performed). It should be made clear to active volunteers, that this activity must take place within the specified time interval, and that intentions to return to the organization at some time after this period should not be reflected in their estimates.

The behavioral criterion is assessed at the end of the specified time frame by determining whether the organization appraised was joined or not joined. If the individual was active at the time of the assessment, the behavioral criterion is whether or not additional participation occurred.

Finally, the standardized regression coefficients must be estimated to weight the components of the model. The procedure by which this is accomplished will vary depending as to which version of the feasibility parameter is used.

If the binary version of the feasibility parameter is employed, the coefficients can be derived by regressing the estimate of the probability of participation (i.e., behavioral intentions) on the four attitudinal components and the Generalized Normative belief component. It should be noted that this is identical to the procedure used with the original Fishbein and Ajzen model.

However, if the feasibility of participation is assessed on continuous rating scales (see Section 9.4.2), the computation of the regression weights is considerably more complex. In this case, there are at least three methods by which to estimate the coefficients.

The first method is simply to ignore the feasibility parameter while computing the regression weights, and then insert this value into the equation after the coefficients have been derived. However, this technique would cause an attenuation in the relationship between behavioral intentions and the deliberation model, since inserting an additional parameter after the derivation of the coefficients would violate the least squares solution achieved through regression analysis. In addition, because the feasibility of participating is likely to exert a considerable impact on the estimated probability of participation, neglecting this parameter when computing the regression weights may yield misleading results concerning the relative importance of the components in the model. This problem would be particularly exacerbated if perceived feasibility tended to covary with certain components in the model.

A second method by which to estimate the regression coefficients would be to multiply each component in the model by the value of the feasibility parameter prior to the regression analysis. Symbolically, this procedure is represented as:

$$VI \cong SI = (f_i IV_i)w_1 + (f_i LV_i)w_2 + (f_i AV_i)w_3 + (f_i SV_i)w_4 + (f_i SN_i)w_5 \quad (1.6)$$

This option may appear to offer a viable remedy by which to derive the regression coefficients while acknowledging the influence of

feasibility on the intentions to volunteer. Unfortunately however, this method also possesses certain undesirable characteristics. For example, because components in the model can assume a value of zero, multiplying each component by the value of the feasibility parameter would alter the magnitude of some, but not all components. Consequently, the association between the model's components and ultimately the derived regression coefficients would be distorted. As well, multiplying the components by the feasibility parameter will affect the variances of these variables and further distort the coefficients. This means that interpretation of the coefficients as indices of the importance of each factor in the deliberation will be perilous and prone to error.

Accordingly, if the continuous version of the feasibility parameter is employed, a third method by which to derive the regression coefficients is recommended. With this method, respondents would be instructed to estimate the probability of participation after disregarding the perceived feasibility of the pursuit. Then, this second measure of intentions would be regressed on the attitudinal and normative belief components of the model to derive the coefficients. These weights would then be used in the deliberation equation as previously delineated (Equation 1.4).

While this approach would not yield a least-square solution and may attenuate the relationship between the model and the measure of behavioral intentions, it allows a crisp conceptual distinction between the importance of attitudes toward participating, normative beliefs

about participating and the feasibility of such endeavors. Notwithstanding, it must be acknowledged that the viability of this approach hinges on the ability of subjects to render realistic estimates of participation under such hypothetical circumstances. In the event that empirical testing of this technique indicates that such estimates are of dubious value, it is recommended that the binary version of the feasibility parameter be employed with the specific version of the deliberation model.

In review, there are ten steps in the proposed application of this scheme, these being:

1. Obtain a listing of all organizations known to the individual at the time of the assessment.
2. Ask respondents to eliminate any organization from the list in which participation is considered infeasible.
3. Instruct respondents to select one remaining organization for further assessment which appears to offer the most attractive opportunity for participation (or that organization which the respondent intends to join or is already a member).
4. Ask respondents to enumerate all expected consequences due to participating and not participating in this organization as they pertain to the client group (Client Impacts), their behavioral routine (Behavioral Routine Impacts), personal goals or aspirations (Personal Goal Impacts) and existing relationships with significant others (Relationship Impacts).
5. For each behavioral consequence, obtain an estimate of the likelihood of occurrence (belief strength) and the favourableness or unfavourableness of the consequence (evaluation) with respect to the individual (Leisure Value, Achievement Value, Social Value) or the client group (Instrumental Value).
6. Compute the value of the four attitudinal components (Instrumental Value, Leisure Value, Achievement Value, Social Value) as per the prescribed formulae.

7. Obtain an assessment of the perceived expectations of relevant referents and the inclination to comply with each referent and compute the Generalized Normative Belief about participating in this organization in accordance with this component's formula.
8. Obtain an estimate of the probability that participation will be undertaken in this organization within a clearly defined time interval.
- 9(a). If the binary version of the feasibility parameter is used, compute the component weights by regressing the measure of behavioral intentions on the attitudinal and normative components of the model.
- 9(b). If the continuous version of the feasibility parameter is used, obtain a second measure of behavioral intentions after instructing respondents to disregard feasibility considerations, and regress this measure on the attitudinal and belief components of the model to derive the regression coefficients.
10. Compute the overall evaluation of participation in a specific organization as per the prescribed formula (Equation 1.4 in Section 9.4.3).

Application of the general version of the deliberation model would essentially proceed along these same lines, although it would not be necessary to perform steps one, two and three. In addition, beliefs would be elicited about participating and not participating in general, and the measure of behavioral intentions would recognize vague plans to participate even when the recipient organization was yet undetermined. Similarly, the behavioral criterion would assess whether participation had occurred in any organization during the time frame under consideration. Finally, since the feasibility assessment is treated as a separate predictor variable in the same manner as the attitudinal and normative belief component of the general model, the continuous version of this parameter should be

used to increase its sensitivity to subtle variations in perceived feasibility.

The recommended procedures by which to apply the general and specific versions of the deliberation model should not be viewed as a mandatory sequence which must be rigidly adhered to at all times. Rather, investigators are encouraged to try alternative methods by which to obtain the necessary measures, and to modify the equations as desired to evaluate the utility of different forms of this scheme. In this regard, some potentially interesting variations might include use of individual ratings of importance rather than regression coefficients to weight the models components, inclusion of a measure of attitudes toward the organization to assess its potential predictive utility, and the use of a more elaborate behavioral criterion (e.g., number of hours spent participating, duration of involvement) as opposed to the binary criterion suggested here.

Nevertheless, it remains imperative to remember that all components in the model must be assessed at the same level of specificity as the dependent variable. Thus, it would be inappropriate to evaluate the utility of the specific version of the model using a general dependent measure (i.e., participation in any organization over an extended interval of time). Similarly, it cannot be expected that the general version of this scheme will produce spectacular results when a specific dependent variable is employed (e.g., participation in a particular organization within a relatively short time frame).

It can be anticipated however, that research directed at refining the deliberation model will yield numerous interesting by-products. For example, research of this sort will reveal much about why certain persons are not involved in voluntary organizations (e.g., lack of awareness, lack of time, perceived neutral or negative utility, counter to normative beliefs). As well, this kind of research should shed new light as to the types of behavioral consequences various types of individuals anticipate when volunteering and the way these outcomes tend to be evaluated.

Once the form and content of the deliberation model has been refined through empirical study, it will be possible to move on to the next phase of this research programme. It is the objective of this phase to determine the effects of various known antecedants of voluntary action exert on the parameters of the deliberation model and in turn, the decision to become a volunteer. As will be recalled, this phase of the programme is predicated upon the assumption that psychological states, circumstances and events can only alter the probability of participation by influencing the decision to volunteer in some manner. Therefore, it is possible to define the functional significance of any factor in terms of the type of influence it exerts on the deliberation process.

To conduct this sort of analysis, it will prove useful to decompose the deliberation model into its constituent parts and to assess the extent to which various factors tend to covary with the value of each constituent. There are a myriad of indices which could be extracted for this purpose including:

1. The number of organizations known and salient to individuals (Awareness)
2. The extent to which time is available for participation (Time Availability)
3. The extent to which the individuals believe they are capable of performing the functions of an active member in a competent and reliable fashion (Personal Efficacy)
4. The extent to which the individuals believe the monetary expense incurred as a consequence of participation can be accommodated (Monetary Expense)
5. The extent to which the individuals believe they can fulfill the organization's membership eligibility requirements (Elibility Requirements)
6. The number of salient beliefs held about the consequences of participating (Behavioral Consequences of Participating)
7. The number of salient beliefs held about the consequences of not participating (Consequences of Not Participating)
8. The extent to which various outcomes are likely to occur (Belief Strength)
9. The evaluation of various outcomes (Consequence Evaluation)
10. The perceived Overall Instrumental Value of Participating (Instrumental Value)
11. The perceived Overall Leisure Value of Participating (Leisure Value)
12. The perceived Overall Achievement Value of Participating (Achievement Value)
13. The perceived Overall Social Value of Participating (Social Value)
14. The number of referents considered relevant and salient to the individuals (Number of Relevant Referents)
15. The perceived expectations of these referents (Referent's Expectations)

16. The general inclination to comply with the expectations of various referents (Motivation to Comply)
17. The Generalized Normative Belief about participating (Normative Belief)
18. The value of the model's standardized regressions coefficients (Beta Weights)
19. The overall appraisal obtained from the deliberation equation (Overall Appraisal)

The extent to which certain psychological states, situational circumstances or events in the life of the individual (or combinations of these factors) tended to moderate each of these indices would yield considerable insight as to why such factors appear to promote or constrain volunteer participation. For example, if the investigator was interested in the effect children entering school had on the probability that a parent would volunteer, he might compare the value of these indices for persons who had recently experienced this life event and a matched sample of persons who had not. Even better, a longitudinal study might be performed to identify the changes in these indices which occurred among persons who experienced this event and those who did not. This sort of analysis might reveal that when children enter school, the following changes occur:

1. The parent reports having more time for participation
2. The perceived Leisure Value of Participating becomes more favourable
3. The perceived Achievement Value of Participating increases (if the parent uses participation as a method by which to reentering the work force)
4. The perceived normative expectations of salient referents become more favourable toward the decision to join (since such activities are less likely to take time away

from the child and potentially affect the child's welfare)

5. The standardized regression coefficients for the Leisure Value and Achievement Value of Participating would become more positive indicating that the appraisal of these aspects of voluntary action are now more predictive of deliberation outcomes

Since many of these changes are likely to increase the probability that the individual will decide to volunteer (i.e., produce a more favourable overall evaluation of participation), it would be expected that such a life event would increase the probability of voluntary action. This hypothesis could be verified by examining the proportion of individuals of each type who actually did volunteer.

Moreover, if individuals were more likely to join a voluntary organization after their children entered school, the reasons why this occurred would be much better understood than had participation frequency been employed as the sole dependent variable. In other words, it would not be necessary for the investigator to speculate about the possible explanations for this pattern, since the mechanisms which linked this life event to the decision to become a volunteer would be elucidated.

To further illustrate the value of this sort of research, it is perhaps instructive to consider the potential effects other events might have on the parameters of the deliberation model. For example, if an individual was asked to join a particular organization, the following may occur:

1. The salience of this particular organization would increase (i.e., increased awareness)

2. The salience of various behavioral consequences of participation and the likelihood that these outcomes would occur might increase depending on the content of the persuasive message (i.e., sales pitch) of the recruiter; this in turn might increase the perceived Instrumental Value, Leisure Value and/or Achievement Value of Participating in this particular organization
3. The Social Value of Not Participating would become more negative due to the potential impact a decision not to volunteer could have on the relationship with the recruiter; this of course, assumes that the relationship with this solicitor is of value to the recruited individual
4. The normative expectation of the recruiter would become more salient and the belief that this referent thinks the join should occur more extreme

On the other hand, if the individual's spouse had recently died, the following changes might ensue:

1. The individual may feel less capable of incurring the anticipated costs of participation
2. The individual may appraise the Leisure Value of Participating more favourably
3. The individual may appraise the Leisure Value of Not Participating less favourably
4. Significant others might be more inclined to think participation should be undertaken (perhaps owing to its perceived therapeutic value) and increase the normative beliefs that the activity should be pursued
5. The standardized regression coefficient of the Leisure Value component of the model might increase, indicative of the greater importance this facet of voluntary action exerts on the deliberation outcome

Finally, if a person undertook a new and better paying job in a new city, the following might be anticipated to occur:

1. The individual would have less awareness of the organizations operating in the community (due to the relocation to a new city)

2. The individual may have less time for voluntary action as a result of the demands of the new position
3. He may believe that it is now easier to incur the anticipated expense of participation
4. The Achievement Value of Participating may be altered (dependent on the nature of the job change)
5. There may be a change in the expected impact participation would have on existing social relationships
6. The prevailing normative beliefs about voluntary action may change because the individual will now be exposed to a new peer group with potentially different opinions about such action

Of course, research of this sort need not be restricted to the impact of events on the deliberation process. Rather, it is also possible to explore the extent to which the model's parameters covary with more enduring attributes of respondents (e.g., sex, age, race, education, income, occupation, marital status, parental responsibilities, prior volunteer experience). In fact, this application of the paradigm could contribute towards a much deeper understanding as to why certain types of individuals are over-represented among volunteers (e.g., greater awareness of the organizations operating in the community; participation is viewed as more feasible; participation is considered more attractive; normative beliefs are more favourable toward such pursuits).

Moreover, this model is well suited to detect differences in the factors which promote voluntary action among different types of individuals. For example, students may tend to evaluate the utility of voluntary action primarily in terms of its perceived Achievement Value. Therefore, the standardized regression coefficient for the

Achievement Value component of the model may be quite pronounced when this model is applied to student samples. On the other hand, persons who have recently experienced a major life event (e.g., divorce, separation, death of spouse, children leaving home, children entering school, retirement) may assess participation largely in terms of its perceived Leisure Value, and accordingly this parameter of the model would have a larger positive beta weight. The deliberations of social climber might be primarily driven by the perceived Social Value of Participating and the Generalized Normative Beliefs concerning such action. In contrast, political activists may be most concerned with the perceived Instrumental Value of the pursuit. In each instance, these differences would be identified by the deliberation model through the variations exhibited in the value of the regression coefficients.

It should also be noted, that the study of the effects of various factors on the model's parameters need not proceed one variable at a time. Rather, it is completely possible with this paradigm, to examine the influence of several factors simultaneously in regression analyses, employing the model's parameters as dependent variables. In fact, this type of analysis possesses distinct merit insofar as it reduces the probability that an observed association will be attributable to a spurious second order correlation.

It should be noted, that the proposed scheme can also be utilized to assess the verity of certain hypotheses about the motivational determinants of this phenomenon. For example, Lemon,

Palisi and Jacobsen (1972) have hypothesized that persons who occupy dominant positions in society are more likely to volunteer due to the increased civic obligations commensurate with such roles. If indeed this is the case, it should follow that persons with dominant status will possess normative beliefs which are more supportive of participation than persons who occupy less lofty positions in society.

Therefore, the study of volunteer motivation with this paradigm promises to be an exciting and insightful undertaking and to shed new light on why particular events, circumstances and psychological states enhance the likelihood of participation. It also reduces the need to speculate about the potential mechanisms which link factors to participation as is typically necessary when behavioral criterion is used as the sole dependent variable.

The model is also designed to accommodate individual differences in the determinants of voluntary action, and even more importantly, actually encourage the study of these differences. At the same time, it recognizes that any given factor can exert a number of influences on the deliberation process and that decidedly different factors can influence the deliberation in a similar way.

Finally, there is no limit on the number and types of potential determinants which can be examined with this paradigm. Thus, the model is as well suited to study cultural influences as it is minor events in the lives of individuals, each of which may enhance or diminish the likelihood of participation in a voluntary organization.

In conclusion, it is a paradigm which tends to capture some of the best features of the Enumeration Approach, Conceptual Model-building Approach and the Statistical Model-building Approach, while avoiding many of the weaknesses of these strategies. Its apparent heuristic utility and integrative capabilities suggest that this paradigm could serve as a useful and meaningful approach by which to study the motivational bases of voluntary action. However, as with any model, its full potential will only be realized through application and refinement.

9.6 Concluding Remarks

The study of the motivational bases of voluntary action reveals this phenomenon to be complex and subject to a myriad of influences. It further illustrates the difficulties which are encountered when investigating human social behavior in a natural context. At the same time, this sort of research often yields profound insights concerning the human condition and the factors which guide behavior and should therefore be pursued with vigor and resolve.

The inextricably interwoven drivers of natural social behavior often stubbornly resist analytical dissection, and investigators who seek to study them outside the confines of the laboratory may expect to encounter numerous theoretical and methodological obstacles. Still, these obstacles should be viewed as challenges and not insurmountable barriers precluding meaningful and worthwhile inquiry. Those willing

to accept this challenge can be expected to obtain new and clearer insights, not only concerning the motivational bases of voluntary action, but with respect to our understanding of human behavior in general.

Notes:

1. Although it seems reasonable to conclude that the most favourable appraisal of known organizations will be neutral when no organizations are salient to the individual, it does not follow that this person will possess neutral beliefs about volunteering in general. Since general beliefs may influence the likelihood that participation will ensue, the specific version of the model should only be employed to predict participation in those organizations known to the individual at the time of the assessment (see Section 9.4.5).
2. It may be argued that it is more appropriate to delete a parameter from the feasibility equation when it is overlooked. However, this practice would mean that when feasibility was not considered in the deliberation, the deliberation outcome would be undefined. Since this is considered unrealistic, the value of "1" is assigned whenever a particular facet of feasibility is ignored by the individual.
3. The typology of explanations for volunteering was derived using service volunteers only. It is thus necessary to verify that these same categories apply to other types of volunteers before extending this model in its present form to such participants.
4. In earlier versions of the Fishbein and Ajzen model (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972), the Motivation to Comply parameter was behavior specific and measured the extent to which the prospective actor felt compelled to comply with the referent's expectation about the performance of the behavior under scrutiny. Unfortunately, this meant that the Motivation to Comply was almost a secondary measure of behavioral intentions and therefore somewhat inappropriate in a model designed to predict behavioral intentions. However, in more recent versions of this scheme (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, 1981), the motivation to comply with the referent's expectation is assessed without reference to any particular action. It is in this sense that the parameter is employed in the present model.
5. Fishbein and Ajzen might argue that a referent who is unlikely to become aware of a certain act is unlikely to be considered relevant in the formulation of normative beliefs about the act. However, this is not clearly indicated by these theorists in their descriptions of this component (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, 1981).
6. Fishbein and Ajzen have noted that attitudes toward objects do tend to predict multiple-act behavioral criteria (i.e., the extent to which individuals manifest a broad range of behaviors of a given type e.g., religious behavior). Therefore, if a multiple-act criterion is employed with this model (e.g., donating money to an

organization, holding a membership card, attending rallies, participation on a regular basis, talking about the cause of the organization), there may be some justification for including the individual's attitude towards the organization as a component.

7. The perceived obligation to participate in an organization will increase if the individual believes that not joining will affect the organization's client group only if the individual perceives this cause as worthwhile. In addition, it is important to stress that the perceived obligation to participate will be influenced by other factors, such as the normative beliefs held about such action.
8. Because the required time and energy to volunteer will vary between organizations, the perceived Leisure Value of Not Participating and the perceived Achievement Value of Not Participating will vary dependent on the organization under consideration.
9. Fishbein and Ajzen's model is applicable to behavioral intentions at any level of specificity, from intentions to perform a particular act on a given occasion, to general intentions to perform a broad range of behavioral manifestations over an extended interval of time. However, it is crucial to ensure that all components in the model are measured at the same level of specificity in order to ensure maximum predictive utility.
10. It might prove insightful to ask respondents who are not aware of any organizations in the community, to evaluate voluntary organizations in general. This evaluation may reveal the reason for their apparent lack of awareness (e.g., failure to perceive utility in such pursuits). Nevertheless, it is inappropriate to include these additional assessments in the specific version of the deliberation model since they are obtained at a different level of specificity than the behavioral intention and behavioral criterion measures.
11. It may be prudent to ask respondents to appraise two or more organizations to ensure that the maximum value of N is obtained. This is because further contemplation about the behavioral consequences of participating and not participating in an organization may reveal to the respondent that an organization which appeared appealing at first, does not really offer an attractive course of action. By asking respondents to appraise two or three organizations, it is likely that this situation can be avoided.
12. It seems inconceivable that an individual who is unaware of any organizations in the community or who views participation as

infeasible in all known organizations, would have explicit plans to join a particular organization. Nevertheless, this possibility must be examined empirically before the estimate of the probability that a specific organization will be joined can be arbitrarily set at zero.

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Appendix 1. Interview Schedule Employed For Data Base One

VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION PARTICIPATION

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEWER'S NAMEINTERVIEW NO.....

DATE/TIME.....ASSOCIATION.....

INTERVIEWEE PURPOSE CONFIDENTIALITY RIGHT OF REFUSAL
ADVISED OF: OF STUDY [] [] AND TERMINATION []

INTERVIEW FEE: PAID [] RECEIPT NO.....

(IF SPACE INADEQUATE FOR ANY ANSWER, WRITE ON BACK OF PAGE)

1. When (date) did you join/become a member of this association?
2. Exactly when (number of weeks before 1) did you decide to join? Can you remember the circumstances in which this decision happened? (Describe immediate relevant events surrounding decision to join/contact).
3. Would you say the decision to join was "impulsive" or "premeditated" (spur of the moment, or had you been thinking about it for a while)? If latter, for how long (# of weeks)? What started you thinking about it?
4. What were your recent sources of information about the association? (Details of circumstances, where and how information obtained).
5. To what degree did you look for information, and to what degree did it just cross your path? (Situational details of both aspects.)
6. (a) Before joining, did you personally know anyone who was engaged in a similar activity; a member of this or a similar group; an advocate of this kind of activity? (Who? Relation to interviewee? Which group or activity? Person's role or status in group?)
(b) (If anyone above is a recent acquaintance) Under what circumstances did you meet, talk? (If anyone above is a "friend" or "significant other", get some details of relationship: closeness/modelling/liking.)

7. With respect to "deciding to join" at the time you did, why did you do it just then?

PROBES: Can you recall anything in your situations, or any events during the preceding days/weeks/months which might have influenced you to "decide to join" just then?

* : Was there any event or issue which might have produced personal dissatisfaction and led you to join?

Why didn't you join a day sooner, or later? (Try to get answers which bear on events or changes in interviewee's situation and environment.)

Why not a week sooner, or later? A month? A year?

8. Did anything in your situation change around the same time? (If not already mentioned, were there changes in the status of any of the following: Health/free time/occupational demands /school/financial status/completion of other involvement/boredom/get details).
9. Try to explain your joining as if you "weren't to blame"; that is, so that anyone in the same situation, and in whom the same things happened would have joined.
10. Did you ask or talk to anyone (or vice versa) about joining or contacting this association before you actually did it? (Who? When? What circumstances led to the talk?) What did you get out of the talk? Encouragement? Information? Skepticism?
11. How did your friends/parents (significant others) react to your joining? (Or, how do you think they will react when they find out?) How important to you is their reaction?
12. Have you ever done anything similar to this before? (What? When? What circumstances surrounded involvement? . . . questions 1 - 10.)
13. When did you first have direct contact with the association (# of weeks before 1)? How (phone/letter/visit)?
14. When you first made personal contact with the association, how were you received (Initial experience/orientation/initiation/screening/welcome/introduction to other members)?
15. About how many hours per week, on the average, do you (expect to) spend on activities related to this association?
16. How far do you have to travel to attend/participate in activities of this association? _____ How often? _____ How much time does it take? _____ Is this a difficulty?
-

- 17. Personally, what do you think you will get out of participating in the activities of this association (Establish relationship to individual interests)?
- 18. Give interviewee list of motives for joining (explain if necessary) and check to see that list has been properly filled out.

How much influence did each of the following have on your decision to join?

- 0 = none at all
- 1 = very little
- 2 = a small amount
- 3 = a moderate amount
- 4 = a large amount
- 5 = very much

To repay a benefit or favour once received _____ (Write a number in this space)

To relieve boredom _____

To increase social contacts, friendship, companionship _____

To obtain some immediate benefit in terms of money, privileges, etc. _____

To promote a set of values and ideals _____

To achieve a particular concrete goal _____

To gain increased recognition and influence _____

To bring immediate or long-term benefits to others, e.g. community service _____

To exercise leadership, or organizational skills _____

To have some fun _____

To obtain some long-term benefits in terms of useful experience, skills, contacts, knowledge, etc. _____

To be a particular kind of person _____

Some asked me to join _____

I've always been interested in it _____

Other (Please specify)
..... _____

- 19. Do you belong to any other voluntary associations (Attend meetings/pay dues)? (For each of these get some details of circumstances surrounding involvement by asking some of questions 1 - 12, especially noting situational factors contributing to recruitment).

20. Are there any associations or groups to which you used to belong but no longer do? (For each of these get details of when/why dropped, especially in terms of situational factors.)
21. (INTERVIEWER: Before asking this question, emphasize confidentiality and independence of this study and data from organization; need for candid answer.)
 - (a) Can you foresee any situation that might come up, or any reasons that you might eventually have for leaving?
 - (b) What is your best estimate of how long you will be an active member of this association (how many months/years)?
22. List the voluntary associations to which the people you live with (e.g., parents, roommates, etc.) belong, and their role/status in these organizations.

Appendix 2. Interview Schedule Employed For Data Base Two

SECTION I

First we are interested in learning more about your previous experience (if any) with organized groups of many types (not just volunteer service groups).

1. Do you presently belong to any of the following kinds of clubs, groups, organizations?

INTERVIEWER: (i) IN THE APPROPRIATE BOX PLEASE ENTER THE LENGTH OF TIME IN YEARS THE VOLUNTEER WAS A MEMBER

(ii) IF VOLUNTEER IS PRESENTLY OR HAS BEEN WITHIN 3 YEARS, A MEMBER OF 3 OR MORE GROUPS DO NOT BOTHER ABOUT EXPERIENCE BEFORE THAT

(iii) IF NO CURRENT OR RECENT EXPERIENCE, ASK ABOUT "MORE THAN 3 YEARS AGO"

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION PRESENT WITHIN 3 YEARS MORE THAN 3 YEARS AGO

a) Organized sports groups (tennis clubs, bowling leagues)

b) Social clubs or groups (e.g. friendship groups, bridge, ethnic groups)

c) School related organizations (eg. PTA, student council)

d) Volunteer Service groups

e) Church Groups (eg. choir, women's committee, church school)

f) Political groups (eg. active in a political party, pollution probe, tenants organization)

g) Other (Please Specify)

2. Has your involvement with this (these) groups in anyway played a role in your decision to come to the volunteer bureau today? How?

PROBES: STARTED YOU THINKING ABOUT IT, PREVIOUS GROUP HAD CONTACT WITH THE BUREAU, ETC.?

3. People sometimes leave groups because they are dissatisfied or unhappy with other members, the way the group is run, their job in the group, etc. Have you ever left a group or club because you had a similar kind of experience? Describe what happened.

SECTION II

The next group of questions concerns how you found out about the bureau and why you decided to contact it when you did.

1. a) Can you remember exactly when you decided that you would volunteer?

How long ago _____

Describe the circumstances in which this decision happened.

- b) Was there any reasons why you chose to contact the bureau at this time rather than sooner or later?

INTERVIEWER: TRY TO DETERMINE WHETHER ANY EVENT OR SITUATION OCCURRED WHICH MIGHT HAVE CAUSED THE PERSON TO COME AT THIS PARTICULAR TIME. EG., PREVIOUS RESPONSIBILITIES OR COMMITMENTS ENDED, FRIEND ASKED THEM ALONG, ETC.

2. a) Has anything in your lifestyle or situation changed recently which might have resulted in your having more or less free time?

INTERVIEWER: RECORD ALL ANSWERS UNDER b) BELOW:

- (b) Has there recently been any change in:

	<u>What</u>	<u>How Long Ago</u>
(i)	marital status?	
(ii)	family responsibilities (child care? care for aged?)	
(iii)	job? job demands? extra employment	
(iv)	health?	
(v)	place of residence?	
(vi)	committing time?	
(vii)	Other:	

c) Have any of the following situations occurred within the last two months?

- (i) family member became a volunteer
Yes _____ No _____
- (ii) family member talked to you about his/her volunteer work
Yes _____ No _____
- (iii) someone you met recently is a volunteer
Yes _____ No _____
- (iv) you learned something new about the shortage or need for volunteer workers
Yes _____ No _____
- (v) someone you know received help or services from a volunteer
Yes _____ No _____
- (vi) you saw an advertisement asking for volunteers
Yes _____ No _____
- (vii) a friend recently joined a volunteer association
Yes _____ No _____
- (viii) you were contacted by a volunteer recruiter
Yes _____ No _____
- (ix) you heard a volunteer recruiter speak
Yes _____ No _____

3. a) Would you say your family has a tradition or history of voluntary work?

	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Brothers & Sisters</u>	<u>Close Relatives</u>
Very active	_____	_____	_____
Somewhat active	_____	_____	_____
Slightly active	_____	_____	_____
Not active	_____	_____	_____

b) How many of your current friends would you say have been volunteers?

- Many _____
- Some _____
- Few _____
- None _____
- Other (Please specify) _____

INTERVIEWER: IF NO TO BOTH a) AND b) ABOVE, SKIP C.

c) Did this in any way affect your decision to join? How?

- PROBES:
- 1) STARTED YOU THINKING ABOUT IT?
 - 2) MADE YOU MORE AWARE?
 - 3) GAINED NEW INFORMATION? ETC.

4. Did anyone recently suggest or encourage you to contact the volunteer bureau?

IF YES, DO ALL PARTS OF THIS QUESTION
IF NO, GO TO QUESTION 5 ON NEXT PAGE

a) If yes, what relation is this person to you?

- Close friend _____
- New friend _____
- Acquaintance _____
- Neighbour _____
- Family member _____
- Other relative _____
- Other (please specify) _____

b) How long have you known this person? _____

c) How much future contact do you expect to have with this person?

- Very much _____
- Some _____
- Very Little _____
- None _____
- Don't know _____

d) Do you think you would have contacted the bureau without this encouragement or suggestion?

- Yes, definitely _____
- Probably _____
- Maybe, don't know _____
- Probably not _____

e) Has this person who encouraged or suggested that you contact the bureau been associated with any voluntary organizations?

- (i) Presently involved _____
- Previously involved _____
- Not involved _____

(ii) Type of Organization: _____

(iii) Role in Organization: _____

5. Did you come alone or with someone else today (tonight)?

- _____ Alone
- _____ With someone else

If the other person is also volunteering please give their name.

6. Is there any reason why you contacted the volunteer bureau rather than an organization directly?

SECTION III

We are now interested in learning more about why you decided to become a volunteer.

1. Many volunteers have said that they enjoy being a volunteer because they gain the opportunity to work with and meet new and interesting people.

a) Would you say you decided to become a volunteer at least partly because you wanted to meet and work with people?

INTERVIEWER: THIS NEED NOT BE THE ONLY REASON FOR THEIR JOINING BUT WE WANT TO KNOW IF IT PLAYED ANY PART IN THE DECISION.

IF YES GO TO PARTS B AND C
IF NO GO DIRECTLY TO QUESTION 2.

b) How important would you say this was in your decision to become a volunteer.

Very important _____
Somewhat important _____
Only slightly important _____

c) Is there any particular reason why you would perhaps like to meet or work with people at this time?

INTERVIEWER: (i) JOB OR SITUATION LIMITS SOCIAL CONTACT WITH OTHERS?
(ii) JUST MOVED OR CHANGED JOBS?
(iii) UNSATISFIED WITH PRESENT AMOUNT OF SOCIAL CONTACT?

2. One of the advantages of being a volunteer is that it often allows one to learn or develop new skills or receive special training.

a) Is there any particular kind of skill or training you would like to acquire while serving as a volunteer? (If yes, please specify).

INTERVIEWER: IF THE VOLUNTEER HAS INDICATED A DESIRE TO LEARN NEW SKILLS OR ACQUIRE TRAINING GO ON TO PARTS B AND C -- IF NOT GO TO QUESTION 3.

b) How important was the opportunity to learn this (these) new skill(s) in your decision to become a volunteer?

Very important _____
Somewhat important _____
Only slightly important _____

- c) Is there any particular reason why you might like to have this training or develop this (these) skill(s)?

INTERVIEWER: WILL THIS BE OF USE TO THE INDIVIDUAL IN HIS CAREER?

3. Becoming a volunteer will undoubtedly require some of your time...

- a) What activities will you now probably have to sacrifice or do less often in order to find time for your volunteer work?

PROBES: WHAT WOULD YOU DO WITH THE TIME IF YOU WERE NOT VOLUNTEERING, EG., WATCH T.V., VISIT FRIENDS, WORK PART-TIME, HOUSEWORK, ETC.

- b) Are any of these sacrifices ones which you will particularly miss? (Be specific) Which, Why?

- c) Would you say you are a very busy person most of the time or do you often find that you have alot of spare time?

Busy most of the time _____
Busy sometimes but not usually _____
Seldom busy, alot of spare time _____

4. Sometimes people say that questionnaires do not allow them to express the real reasons why they did something. For the final question, would you tell us, in your own words, why you decided to become a volunteer?

Appendix 2b. Information Obtained From Regular Volunteer Bureau
Interview

In addition to the data collected in the 1977-1978 and 1979-1980 volunteer bureau study, information routinely obtained during the bureau's regular interview was also employed in various investigations in this series. The following information was obtained by this means:

1. Name, address and telephone number
2. Marital status
3. Occupation
4. Year of birth
5. Sex
6. Formal education
7. Dependents (a) children at home
(b) children at school
(c) other
8. Method by which the individual first learned about the volunteer bureau
9. Length of time available for volunteer work
10. Days available for volunteer work
11. Time of day available for volunteer work
12. Availability of private or public transportation
13. Area of city preferred to volunteer
14. Age preference of client group
15. Skills and interests of initiator

Appendix 3. Interview Schedule Used For Data Base Three

The following are a series of questions which we are gathering in regards to a joint research project with:

- The Hamilton Volunteer Bureau
- McMaster University
- Youth Job Corps

Please be informed that:

- (i) Your identity and the information you provide is strictly confidential and will remain so.
- (ii) It is only used for the purpose of this research project and will not affect your placement in any way.
- (iii) If for any reason you would prefer not to answer any of the following questions, please feel free to do so.

We would like to thank you for your assistance with this project.

NAME: _____
TELEPHONE NO.: _____ POSTAL CODE: _____
SEX: FEMALE MALE AGE: (approx.) _____

1. What is your current (at the time of this study) major occupation?

- Housewife Student
- Retired Full-Time Employed
- Unemployed

2. Do you have a part-time job in addition to your major occupation?

- Yes No

If "Yes", how many hours per week (average) do you spend at this job?

3. Please check the highest level of education you have obtained.

- Less than Grade 13
- High School Graduate
- Community College Graduate
- University Degree - Specify: _____
- Professional Degree - Specify: _____

4. How did you first learn about the Volunteer Bureau?

Newspaper

Doctor or Worker

Friend

Parent or Relative

Other Agency

Other - Specify: _____

5. Were you encouraged or asked to become a volunteer?

Yes

No

If "Yes", would you have contacted the Bureau without this encouragement?

Definitely Yes

Probably No

Probably Yes

Definitely No

Don't know

6. Are you currently active in any of the following types of groups, clubs, or organizations?

Social or fraternal organization (e.g., friendship groups, ethnic groups, special interest groups)

Volunteer service group

Academically-related group (e.g., PTA, Student Council)

Political-issue or related group (e.g., active in a political party, or political-issue group, community-related organization)

Athletic clubs or teams (e.g., tennis club, cross-country skiing club, bowling league)

Church-affiliated group (e.g., choirs, social clubs, study groups, committees)

7. Have any of the following things changed in your life or situation within the last year which might have resulted in your having more or less free time?

WHEN (what month?)

Marital or romantic status

Parental or family responsibilities
(e.g. birth of a child, children
off to school, children moving away
from home, care of the aged)

Job or job demands (e.g. promotions
leaving a job, retirement, change in
employer, etc.)

Family Health

Personal Health _____

Place where you live _____

8. What would you say were the reasons for your decision to become a volunteer (e.g. career or skill development, helping others, meeting people, etc.)?

APPENDIX 4A Initial Attitude Items Excluded From Further Consideration Because of Inability to Distinguish Participants From Non-participants at The $p < .20$ Level. (Pg. 1 of 2).

1. Generally speaking, most volunteer organizations tend to be unable to accomplish their major goals.
2. Many volunteer organizations don't treat volunteers with respect.
3. Most volunteer groups are ruled by a few key people who make most, if not all of the important decisions in the group.
4. Every individual has a moral obligation to his/her country and his/her community to assist when needed in anyway.
5. Being a member of a volunteer organization usually involves very little of the volunteer's spare time.
6. Only those who are deeply committed to the goals or beliefs of a group should decide to join that group.
7. Most people who tend to join volunteer groups tend to be friendly and sociable and are probably quite fun to be with.
8. Joining a volunteer organization or club is a good way to make new friends.
9. I could probably achieve some of my own goals better through an organization.
10. Personally, I don't feel that it is necessary for me to participate in a volunteer activity to be a good citizen.
11. If you have not decided whether you will like being a member of a particular club or organization, you should join it to find out.
12. It takes a very special type of individual to belong to a volunteer organization.
13. It is very hard to break into a group where friendships have already been strongly formed.
14. Many paid workers in an organization tend to view volunteers as a threat to their job security.
15. Joining a volunteer organization or club tends to put restrictions on one's life.
16. Most volunteer groups allow and encourage all members to participate in the decision making process of the group.

APPENDIX 4A (Pg. 2 of 2).

17. Once an individual has joined a volunteer group, the other members often expect them to donate more and more of their spare time to the organization.
18. Most volunteer organizations ask no requirements of their members except a willingness to become involved.
19. People who belong to organizations often tend to socialize with one another outside of that organization.
20. Being a member of a group allows one to grow rather than taking away one's freedom.
21. Most organizations tend to be very grateful to their volunteer workers.
22. If one really puts in an effort he/she can make a significant contribution to the community.
23. I am usually more concerned with my own personal problems than with the problems of my community or society in general.
24. Most volunteer organizations tend to be well organized and quite effective in reaching their goals.
25. There is much an individual can do to change things in his/hers community even if he/she is not powerful or influential.
26. Volunteer organizations are made up of all types of people from all walks of life.
27. I gain great personal satisfaction from helping others and try to do so as often as possible.
28. People who tend to join clubs or volunteer organizations usually have more exciting lives than non-joiners.

Appendix 4B: Questionnaire Used in First Measure of Attitudes for
Data Base Four

Name: _____

Year: 1 2 3 4

Sex: M _____ F _____

*** All information that you provide in this questionnaire is confidential and will not be used for any purposes other than this study of volunteer organizations. Reports of the results will be in a form which maintains anonymity and no individual will be identified. If you find any questions offensive you may omit that question.

PLEASE READ ALL INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE BEGINNING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

The following questionnaire contains a number of opinionated statements. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements. To indicate the amount to which you agree or disagree, please use the following number code:

Write in +5 - if you strongly agree with the statement

- +3 - if you moderately agree
- +1 - if you only slightly agree
- 1 - if you only slightly disagree
- 3 - if you moderately disagree
- 5 - if you strongly disagree

Please use these numbers only. (i.e. do not use _4 or 0 for example)

When a statement refers to "volunteer groups" "volunteer organizations" and/or "clubs" you should take this to mean any organized or formal gathering of volunteers on a reasonably regular basis for some specific purpose or objective. When answering these questions try not to think of only one type of volunteer activity but rather of volunteer groups in general (e.g. political groups, service groups, youth groups, lodge gatherings, etc.)

Completion time for this questionnaire: 10-15 minutes.

- _____ 1. When working on a task or problem, I usually prefer to work alone rather than in a group.
- _____ 2. If a particular task or project takes a long time to complete, I will often become bored or lose interest after a while and fail to complete the project.

- _____ 3. Personally, the way I most prefer to spend my leisure time is in helping others.
- _____ 4. Unfortunately, most people today, tend to be honest because they are afraid of getting caught and not because of their own morals.
- _____ 5. I often set goals which are difficult to meet.
- _____ 6. I very much enjoy being complimented; social approval is important to me.
- _____ 7. Many volunteer groups tend to be concerned with unimportant goals and are thus a waste of time.
- _____ 8. I think my family and friends would be pleased if I were to join a volunteer organization.
- _____ 9. The person who plans ahead usually will have fewer problems than a person who does not plan ahead.
- _____ 10. If it were not for volunteer groups, many important things in the community would never get done.
- _____ 11. I try to control others rather than permit them to control me.
- _____ 12. I will often attend social gatherings in the hope of meeting someone new.
- _____ 13. Most volunteer organizations tend to be well organized and quite effective in reaching their goals.
- _____ 14. It is impossible for me to believe that change or luck plays an important role in my life.
- _____ 15. There are so many different things that I would like to do with my leisure time, that I really doubt whether there would be time to be a volunteer.
- _____ 16. The community would suffer a great loss if it were to lose its volunteer groups.
- _____ 17. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
- _____ 18. People who tend to join clubs or volunteer organizations usually have more exciting lives than non-joiners.

- ___ 19. When I am with someone else, I usually make most of the decisions.
- ___ 20. I often feel as though I should do more for my community and country through volunteer activities of some sort.
- ___ 21. In today's world, one must often act against his moral beliefs to survive economically.
- ___ 22. Speaking for myself, I would prefer to be a member of a well structured group where I knew what to do and when to do it rather than a less formal group where I was not told such things.
- ___ 23. It seems foolish to me to worry about my "self-image".
- ___ 24. Volunteer organizations are made up of all types of people from all walks of life.
- ___ 25. Being a member of a club or volunteer organization would probably have little effect on my life or personality.
- ___ 26. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
- ___ 27. Personally, I have enough spare time to be a member of at least one club or organization.
- ___ 28. If I believe in something, I will often argue strongly against opposing view points.
- ___ 29. Most volunteer organizations tend to welcome volunteers with great enthusiasm.
- ___ 30. Volunteer groups, although perhaps beneficial to the actual members, usually contribute very little to the general community.
- ___ 31. I usually work better when I have many guidelines and regulations to provide me with information.
- ___ 32. One should not join a volunteer group unless he/she has something special to offer such as a special talent or training.
- ___ 33. After I get to know most people, I decide that they would make poor friends.

- ___ 34. Improving the community is primarily the responsibility of the government and not the private citizen.
- ___ 35. In group activities, I usually tend to be a follower and let others lead the group.
- ___ 36. I am constantly busy, there is little time available to allow me to belong to a volunteer group.
- ___ 37. Many paid workers in an organization tend to view volunteers as a threat to their job security.
- ___ 38. If one makes friends at a club or organization, they seldom turn out to be good friends, but rather merely acquaintances.
- ___ 39. Joining a volunteer organization or club would probably add a whole new dimension to my life.
- ___ 40. Since the leaders of the group are usually best qualified and informed, it is perhaps to be benefit of most groups if the major decisions are made by the leaders of that group.
- ___ 41. I am often irritated by the opinions some of my friends state in conversation.
- ___ 42. If I had the opportunity to live my life over again, there would be many, many things that I would do differently.
- ___ 43. Personally, I really don't think anyone in my family or any of my friends would care either way whether I joined a volunteer group or not.
- ___ 44. I do not think I would like very many of the types of people who tend to join volunteer organizations.
- ___ 45. A person should adopt their ideas and their behavior to the group that happens to be with him/her at the time.
- ___ 46. I usually try to take it easy and enjoy life. Being a big success really isn't important to me.

Additional Information

1. Did you currently (at the time of this study) have a part-time job?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, how many hours/wk. on an average do you spend at this job? _____ hrs/wk.

2. Are you currently (at the time of this study) an active member of a volunteer organization?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, how many hours/wk. do you spend with this (these) organization(s)?

Organization 1. _____ hrs/wk.

Organization 2. _____ hrs/wk.

Organization 3. _____ hrs/wk.

What type of organization would you say this (these) was (were).*

_____ primarily social _____ political
_____ service oriented _____ athletic
_____ academic or school services _____ church affiliated
_____ other (please specify) _____

* In the event that you belong to more than one organization please respond for all organizations you are PRESENTLY a member of.

3. Approximately, what is your parents combined income?

_____ less than &7,000
_____ \$7,000 to \$10,000
_____ \$10,000 to \$15,000
_____ \$15,000 to \$20,000
_____ \$20,000 to \$25,000
_____ \$25,000 to \$30,000
_____ do not know
_____ parents deceased,
_____ retired or disabled
_____ other (please specify)

4. What level of formal education did your father obtain?

_____ some public school
_____ graduated from public school
_____ some high school
_____ graduated from high school
_____ partial university or college
_____ graduated from university or college
_____ partial graduate work
_____ graduate degree (M.A., M.Sc.)
_____ professional degree (Phd,M.D.,LLD)
_____ other (please specify)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

Appendix 4C. Additional Information Collected One Year After
The First Measure for Data Base Four

1. Do you currently (at the time of this present study) have a part-time job?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, how many hours/wk. on an average do you spend at this job? _____ hrs/wk.

2. Did you have a part-time job in March of last year? (1977)

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, is it the same job you have now? _____ Different? _____

3. Are you currently (at the time of the present study) an active member of a volunteer organization? (In the event that you belong to more than one organization at this time, please respond for all organizations you are PRESENTLY a member of).

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, what type of organizations and how much time do you spend in each.

- | | | | |
|----------|-----------------------------|-------|---------|
| 1) _____ | Primarily Social | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 2) _____ | Service Oriented | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 3) _____ | Academic or School Services | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 4) _____ | Political | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 5) _____ | Athletic | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 6) _____ | Church Affiliated | _____ | hrs/wk. |
| 7) _____ | Other (Please Specify) | _____ | hrs/wk. |

4. a) Apart from your current participation as indicated above, within the last year (Since March, 1977) were you involved in any of the above mentioned groups even if briefly?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, what type of groups or clubs?

TYPE

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| 1) Social | _____ |
| 2) Service Oriented | _____ |
| 3) Academic or School Related | _____ |
| 4) Political | _____ |
| 5) Athletic | _____ |
| 6) Church Affiliated | _____ |

7) Other (Please Specify) _____

For how long? _____

4. b) If you answered yes to either question 3 or 4a) above, how did you first learn of this group, club and/or organization?

- _____ Newspaper/Posters/Media
- _____ Friend/Room-mate/Relative
- _____ Other (Please Specify) _____

How long did you think about joining this (these) group(s) before you actually joined?

_____ less than a month _____ more than a month

5. WITHIN THE LAST YEAR (SINCE MARCH OF 1977)

a) Have you stopped (including leave of absence) being an active member of any groups?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, what type of group(s) and how long ago did you leave?

TYPE

- 1) Social _____
- 2) Service Oriented _____
- 3) Academic or School Services _____
- 4) Political _____
- 5) Athletic _____
- 6) Church Affiliated _____
- 7) Other (Please Specify) _____

b) Why did you leave the group?

- _____ Group no longer operating
- _____ Disagreement with organization or members
- _____ Employment
- _____ Change in school demands, time, etc.
- _____ Moved
- _____ Dissatisfied with group operations or progress
- _____ Other (Please Specify) _____

c) Do you plan to return to these groups in the NEAR (say 6 months) future?

_____ yes _____ no

6. SINCE MARCH OF 1977, HAVE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING HAPPENED TO YOU?

- yes _____ Friend asked you to participate in or join a group.
- yes _____ Recruiter asked you to join a group.
- yes _____ Someone you know received help from a volunteer group, club or organization.
- yes _____ Friends or relatives joined a voluntary group, club or organization.
- yes _____ Began to read the newspaper more.
- yes _____ Moved or changed place of residency.
- yes _____ Have fewer time consuming obligations to others (e.g., spouse, parents, mate).
- yes _____ School work has been demanding more time.
- yes _____ School work has been demanding less time.

7. Do you have any plans to join any organizations, groups or clubs in the immediate future?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, please specify the type of organization that you plan to join.

When? _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH

Appendix 4D. Additional Information Collected

Two Years After The First Attitude Measure For Data Base Four

In this section we are interested in learning about some of the ways you have spend your time since completing the first version of this questionnaire two years ago. To assist us in knowing when you were involved in various kinds of activities, you will be asked to indicate periods of activity on a time scale of the following type:

1977 _____ 1978
Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar

1978 _____ 1979
Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar

When you are asked to indicate a period of time you were involved in a particular activity (e.g. in question #1 you are asked to indicate periods during which you had a part-time job) please do so by place a check mark above the appropriate month and year. Thus for example, if you had a part-time job from September of 1978 to January 1979 you would indicate this by checking the space above these months as follows:
Ex.1

1978 _____ 1979
Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar

In the event that you were active for only a portion of a month (as for example might occur if you had begun working September 22, 1978) still check off that particular month.

We realize that it may prove difficult to recall precisely what you have done in the last two years, but please try to be as accurate as possible when indicating these time spans.

1. a) Since March of 1977 (that is during the last two years) please indicate during what months of the year you had paid employment which required at least five hours or more a week of your time (including part-time work, summer jobs or any full-time jobs).

1977 _____ 1978
Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar

1978 _____ 1979
Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar

(If you are unsure how this is to be done, please see example #1 in the instructions).

2. a) Since March of 1977 have you at anytime: (check for yes, blank for no).

Yes _____ i) left university (i.e. terminated your student status) other than for summer vacation?

Yes _____ ii) Changed universities or gone to a community college?

Yes _____ iii) changed to part-time student status (i.e. course load of 2 courses or less)?

If you have answered "yes" to any of the above, in what month and year did this change take place?

Month _____ year (circle) 77 78 79.

b) i) If you are currently a full-time student, what is your major? (e.g. psychology, medicine, engineering, etc.)

ii) When did you first decide to pursue this major? (e.g. during high school)

iii) How many hours in a typical week (i.e. not during exam periods) do you seriously spend on your studies (including attending classes)? _____ hours/week.

3. DURING THE LAST 7 MONTHS (i.e. since the beginning of September of 1978) have any of the following taken place: (check yes, if event has occurred)

a) Yes _____ A close friend or family member received some assistance or help from an organization or club which you were not a member.

b) Yes _____ You saw an ad or poster about a particular group, club or organization which made you think about joining (even if you did not actually join).

c) Yes _____ You heard a recruiter for a group, club or organization talk about joining.

d) Yes _____ You discussed the possibility of joining a group, club or organization with a friend or family member.

e) Yes _____ You made a new friend who was already quite active in at least one group, club or organization which they often spoke about.

f) Yes _____ A member of your family joined a group, club or organization that you were not a member of.

g) Yes _____ A close friend joined a group, club or organization that you were not a member of.

- h) Yes ___ A family member asked you or encouraged you to join a group, club or organization.
 - i) Yes ___ A close friend asked you or encouraged you to join a group, club or organization.
 - j) Yes ___ A recruiter (whom you did not know personally) asked you to join a group, club or organization.
 - k) Yes ___ You experienced a sudden increase in the amount of leisure time available (in the last six months).
 - l) Yes ___ You experienced a sudden decrease in the amount of leisure time available (in the last six months).
4. Since March of 1977 (in the last two years) in HOW MANY of the following types of NONPROFIT organizations, groups or clubs have you been an active member (if even for only a very short period of time)?
- a) Social clubs or fraternal organizations: ___# of memberships in the last two years (e.g. ethnic groups, friendship groups or fraternal organizations).
 - b) Service organizations: ___# of memberships in laster two years (e.g. Big Sisters, hospital volunteer services, crisis intervention or any group where a service is delivered to others).
 - c) Academically Related Organizations: ___# of memberships in last two years (e.g. student council, parent-teacher associations, etc.)
 - d) Political or Political Issue Groups: ___# of memberships in last two years (e.g. Pollution Probe, federal/provincial or civic political parties).
 - e) Religious or church affiliated organizations or groups: ___# of memberships in last two years (e.g. C.Y.O., choir, religious study groups, project groups).
 - f) Nonprofit musical or hobby groups: ___# of memberships in last two years (e.g. community orchestras, gun clubs, science clubs, etc.).
 - g) Athletic teams, or clubs: ___# of memberships in last two years (e.g. baseball teams, tennis or bowling clubs, ski clubs, etc.).
 - h) Other NONPROFIT groups, clubs or organizations NOT mentioned above: ___# of memberships in last two years. Please specify the nature of this (these) group(s).

If you have NOT been active in any non-profit groups, clubs or organizations during the last two years (i.e. since March of 1977) even for a very short period of time, go to question #5.

A) In reference to the first mentioned: (check one)

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> social | <input type="checkbox"/> church related |
| <input type="checkbox"/> service | <input type="checkbox"/> academically related |
| <input type="checkbox"/> political | <input type="checkbox"/> athletic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> musical/hobby | <input type="checkbox"/> other. |

i. In what month and what year did you join this group?

_____ month _____ year

ii. Why did you join this group?

iii. How much time in an average week did you spend with this group or doing group activities? _____ hours/week.

iv. Were you encouraged or asked to join this group?

_____ Yes _____ No

v. Would you have joined without this encouragement or without being asked?

Definitely join _____	Probably not join _____
Probably join _____	Definitely not join _____
Don't Know _____	

vi. When did you leave this group?

_____ still active left: _____ month _____ year
Why did you leave?

(NOTE: ABOVE QUESTIONS WERE REPEATED TWO MORE TIMES)

5. Approximately how many students attended your particular high school? (If you attended two or more high schools indicate the number of years spent at each high school beside the number of students attending the school.)

Number of years at this school

0 - 250 students	_____	_____
250 - 500 students	_____	_____
500 - 750 students	_____	_____
750 - 1,000 students	_____	_____
1,000 - 2,000 students	_____	_____
2,000+ students	_____	_____

6. During your time at high school, how active were YOU in the following types of non-profit groups, clubs or organizations (including groups both inside and outside of your high school)? (Please check one for each group type.)

	Very Active	Somewhat Active	Seldom Active	Never Active
--	----------------	--------------------	------------------	-----------------

a. Social clubs

b. Service organizations

c. Athletic teams/clubs

d. Political parties/
groups

e. Academically related
groups (i.e., year-
book staff, student
council, parent-
teach, etc.)

f. Hobby groups (e.g.,
science clubs,
language groups)

g. Religious/Church
affiliated groups
or clubs

h. Other not mentioned
(please specify)

7. When you were in ELEMENTARY and HIGH SCHOOL, in what kinds of non-profit groups (if any) were your PARENTS (or legal guardians) active members?

Mother was active in (CHECK HERE FOR MOTHER)

Father was active in (CHECK HERE FOR FATHER)

- _____ Social clubs or fraternal organizations
_____ Volunteer service organizations
_____ Political party or community action groups
_____ Athletic clubs or organizations
_____ Religious affiliated or church groups
_____ Hobby or craft clubs
_____ Other (please specify) _____

8. During THE PAST THREE YEARS, in what kinds of non-profit groups (if any) have your PARENTS (or legal guardians) been active members?

Mother was active in (CHECK HERE FOR MOTHER)

Father was active in (CHECK HERE FOR FATHER)

- _____ Social clubs or fraternal organizations
_____ Volunteer service organizations
_____ School related organizations (e.g. PTA)
_____ Political party or community action groups
_____ Athletic clubs or organizations
_____ Religious affiliated or church groups
_____ Hobby or craft clubs
_____ Other (please specify) _____

9. If either of your parents are currently deceased, please indicate below.

___ mother, deceased as of ___ father deceased as of
(year) (year)
___ legal guardian, deceased as of
(year)

- (ii) What was the nature of this occurrence?
 - a) serious illness b) serious illness
 - serious accident serious accident
 - serious operation serious operation
 - death death
- (iii) In what month and what year did this occur?
 - a) _____ month _____ year
 - b) _____ month _____ year

15. Have you personally had any severe illnesses, accidents or operations since March of 1977?

No _____
(if no go to
question 16)

Yes _____ (if yes please answer parts (i) to (iii))

- (i) What was the nature of this occurrence?

first occurrence since March 1977?	second occurrence since March 1977?
a) <input type="checkbox"/> serious illness	b) <input type="checkbox"/> serious illness
<input type="checkbox"/> serious accident	<input type="checkbox"/> serious accident
<input type="checkbox"/> serious operation	<input type="checkbox"/> serious operation
- (ii) When did this occur?
 - a) _____ month _____ year
 - b) _____ month _____ year
- (iii) How long was it before you recovered from this?
 - a) _____ weeks b) _____ weeks

16. For how long have you lived in Canada? (check one)

_____ all my life.

_____ years - if you have not lived in Canada
of your life, in what country did
you live before?

(If more than one, indicate that
country in which you lived the
longest).

17. a. What was the population of the town or city you lived in while in elementary and grade school? (NOTE: if more than one, indicate that town where you lived the longest during that time.) (Check one only)

- population of 10,000 or less
- population of 10,000 to 50,000
- population of 50,000 to 100,000
- population of 100,000 to 500,000
- population of 500,000+.

b. How long have you lived in the Hamilton-Wentworth region (includes Hamilton, Ancaster, Dundas, Burlington and Stoney Creek)? _____ years

18. What is your current age? _____

Appendix 5B. Second Questionnaire Administered Four Months Later
for Data Base Five

LEISURE TIME GROUP PARTICIPATION STUDY

Name _____ Student # _____
first middle last

Sex M___ F___ Age _____ Academic Year 1 2 3 4 Other
(circle one)

MARITAL/ROMANTIC STATUS ___ single, unattached ___ single, going steady
___ single, engaged ___ married
___ separated, divorced or widowed

Planned Major _____ Not yet determined _____

How many hours (in a typical week) do you spend at your studies?
(include lecture, lab and tutorial time as well as studying) ___ hrs/week

Current Occupation ___ Full-time student ___ Other
(if other please specify) _____

Do you have a part-time job? ___ No ___ Yes, if yes ___ hrs/week

How long have you lived in the Hamilton area?
___ all my life ___ yrs. ___ I do not currently live in area.

If you have not lived in the Hamilton area all of your life where did
(do) you live previously (currently)?

At this time do you:

- ___ live at home with parents or relatives
- ___ live on campus in residence
- ___ live in off-campus housing

With how many others do you share your accomodation (circle one)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Voluntary participation in organized sports, groups, clubs, and other organizations has long been of interest to social scientists. While there are many types of groups, each may be classified as mainly fitting into one of the following categories:

1. SOCIAL CLUBS: such as friendship clubs, hobby clubs, ethnic groups, non-competitive athletic groups, etc.
2. SERVICE GROUPS: such as volunteer groups which help the disabled, distressed, handicapped, aged or young people, school yearbook staffs, etc.
3. POLITICAL GROUPS: such as political parties, student councils, civil rights groups, ecology groups, etc.
4. COMPETITIVE GROUPS: such as organized athletic clubs (football, hockey, etc.) debating teams, chess teams, etc.

In this questionnaire we would like to learn how you feel about each of the four types of groups. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements for each group type using the following number code:

- WRITE IN:
- 3 if you strongly agree with the statement for a specific type of group
 - 2 if you moderately agree
 - 1 if you only slightly agree
 - 0 if you don't know or have no opinion about the statement
 - 1 if you only slightly disagree
 - 2 if you moderately disagree
 - 3 if you strongly disagree with the statement for a specific type of group.

Please write in only one of the numbers in the space provided preceding EACH group type.

1. I have a lot in common with most people who belong to
 Social groups Political groups
 Service groups Competitive groups

2. I sometimes feel I should be involved in a ...
 Service group Competitive group
 Social group Political group

9. Within the next 6 months, do you plan to join any group of the following types?

a service group definitely not
 probably not
 don't know
 probably will join
 definitely will join

a political group definitely not
 probably not
 don't know
 probably will join
 definitely will join

a competitive group definitely not
 probably not
 don't know
 probably will join
 definitely will join

a social group definitely not
 probably not
 don't know
 probably will join
 definitely will join

PART III

During the period since August of 1980 to date (i.e., the last 6 months) have you at any time been involved as an active member (i.e., attended meetings, practices or in some way spent time with a group on a reasonably regular basis) of any of the following types of groups? (Please do not answer for group memberships which did not involve any of your time.)

1. Any service groups? No (if no, go to question #2)
 Yes (if yes, please answer the following questions)

i. What was (were) the name(s) of this (these) groups and typically, how many hrs/wk did you participate?

a) _____ hrs/wk.
b) _____ hrs/wk.

ii. During which months were you an active member of this (these) group(s)? (Indicate by placing an "X" over each month [or part month] during which you were active).

_____ () Check here if still active
Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan.

(If you have been involved with more than one group of this type, answer for that group you joined first or parts iii to viii).

iii. Have you been a member of this specific group before?
 No Yes if yes, when before? _____

iv. What event took place which first started you thinking about joining a group of this type? (e.g. previous experience, was asked to join, some change in my situation or career objectives, friend joined, saw an ad, etc.)

v. For how long did you think about joining before you actually joined? _____ weeks.

vi. Were you encouraged to join this group? No Yes (If yes, by whom? (e.g., friend) _____)

Would you have joined had you not received this encouragement?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably yes definitely yes

vii. For what purposes or reasons did you join this group?

viii. If you are not currently an active member of this group, why did you leave? _____

If given the opportunity, would you join this group again in the future?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably would definitely would

2. During the past 6 months (since August, 1980) have you at any time been an active member of any political groups?

No (if no, go to question #3)
 Yes (if yes, please answer the following questions).

i. What was (were) the name(s) of this (these) groups and typically, how many hrs/wk did you participate?

a) _____ hrs/wk.
b) _____ hrs/wk.

ii. During which months were you an active member of this (these) group(s)? (Indicate by placing an "X" over each month [or part month] during which you were active).

_____ () Check here if still active
Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. active
(If you have been involved with more than one group of this type, answer for that group you joined first for parts iii to viii).

iii. Have you been a member of this specific group before?

No Yes if yes, when before? _____

iv. What event took place which first started you thinking about joining a group of this type? (e.g., previous experience, was asked to join, some change in my situation or career objectives, friend joined, saw an ad, etc.)

v. For how long did you think about joining before you actually joined? _____ weeks.

vi. Were you encouraged to join this group? No Yes (If yes, by whom? (e.g., friend) _____)

Would you have joined had you not received this encouragement?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably yes definitely yes

vii. For what purposes or reasons did you join this group?

viii. If you are not currently an active member of this group, why did you leave? _____

If given the opportunity, would you join this group again in the future?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably would definitely would

3. During the past 6 months (since August, 1980) have you at any time been an active member of any competitive groups?

No (if no, go to question #4)

Yes (if yes, please answer the following questions).

i. What was (were) the name(s) of this (these) groups and typically, how many hrs/wk did you participate?

a) _____ hrs/wk.
b) _____ hrs/wk.

ii. During which months were you an active member of this (these) group(s)? (Indicate by placing an "X" over each month [or part month] during which you were active).

____ () Check here if still
Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. active

(If you have been involved with more than one group of this type, answer for that group you joined first for parts iii to viii).

iii. Have you been a member of this specific group before?

No Yes if yes, when before? _____

iv. What event took place which first started you thinking about joining a group of this type? (e.g., previous experience, was asked to join, some change in my situation or career objectives, friend joined, saw an ad, etc.)

v. For how long did you think about joining before you actually joined? _____ weeks.

vi. Were you encouraged to join this group? No Yes (If yes, by whom? (e.g., friend) _____)

Would you have joined had you not received this encouragement?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably yes definitely yes

vii. For what purposes or reasons did you join this group?

viii. If you are not currently an active member of this group, why did you leave? _____

If given the opportunity, would you join this group again in the future?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably would definitely would

4. During the past 6 months (since August, 1980) have you at any time been an active member of any social groups?

No (if no, thank you for your help)
 Yes (if yes, please answer the following questions).

i. What was (were) the name(s) of this (these) groups and typically, how many hrs/wk did you participate?

a) _____ hrs/wk.
b) _____ hrs/wk.

ii. During which months were you an active member of this (these) group(s)? (Indicate by placing an "X" over each month [or part month] during which you were active).

____ () Check here if still
Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. active

(If you have been involved with more than one group of this type, answer for that group you joined first for parts iii to viii).

iii. Have you been a member of this specific group before?

No Yes if yes, when before? _____

iv. What event took place which first started you thinking about joining a group of this type? (e.g., previous experience, was asked to join, some change in my situation or career objectives, friend joined, saw an ad, etc.)

v. For how long did you think about joining before you actually joined? _____ weeks.

vi. Were you encouraged to join this group? __No __Yes (If yes, by whom? (e.g., friend) _____)

Would you have joined had you not received this encouragement?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably yes definitely yes

vii. For what purposes or reasons did you join this group?

viii. If you are not currently an active member of this group, why did you leave? _____

If given the opportunity, would you join this group again in the future?

definitely not probably not don't know
 probably would definitely would

PART III

In the next set of questions, we are interested in learning to what degree others you have known (e.g., your father, your best friend, etc.) have shown interest and/or been active in groups of the four types. When answering these questions, please use the number from the following code which best describes the interests and activities of the person mentioned for groups of EACH of the four types.

WRITE IN 4 if the person mentioned has been almost always active and has shown an extreme interest in such groups and their activities

3 if they have been often active or at least shown a strong interest in such groups and their activities.

2 if they have sometimes been active and shown at least a moderate interest in such groups and their activities.

1 if they have been seldom or never active but have at least shown a slight interest in such groups and their activities

0 if they have never been active and have shown no interest in such groups or their activities

-1 if they have shown some dislike for such groups, their membership or their activities

-2 if they have shown a strong dislike for such groups, their membership or their activities

X if the person mentioned does not exist or you do not know about their involvement

11. My father's (or male guardian's) activities and interests are as follows for each group type?

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| () Social groups | () Service groups |
| () Political groups | () Competitive groups |

12. My mother's (or female guardian's) activities and interests are as follows for each group type:

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| () Service groups | () Social groups |
| () Competitive groups | () Political groups |

13. Generally speaking, my brothers and sisters have shown activities and interests as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups |
14. My closest friend's activities and interests are as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups |
15. Generally speaking, my close male friends have shown activities and interests as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups |
16. Generally speaking, my close female friends have shown activities and interests as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups |
17. During the period one year prior to beginning (or returning) to university last September (i.e., Sept. 1979 to Sept. 1980) I would describe my own activities and interests as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups |
18. Over the past 5 years, prior to beginning (or returning) to university last September, I would describe my own activities and interests as follows for each group type:
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Competitive groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Political groups |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Service groups |