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Designing Volunteers' Tasks to Maximize Motivation, Satisfaction and
Performance; The impact of job characteristics on the outcomes of volunteer
involvement

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in
the John Molson
School of
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Abstract

Designing Volunteers' Tasks to Maximize Motivation, Satisfaction and
Performance; The impact of job characteristics on the outcomes of volunteer
involvement

Valerie Millette

The purpose of this study was to test the applicability of the Job Characteristics Model in volunteer organizations and to assess the potential of redesigning certain types of volunteer tasks. The second goal of this project was to understand whether the way volunteers perceive the design of their volunteer work has an impact on their motivation, satisfaction and performance. Motivation was assessed using self-determination theory's concept of autonomous motivation. The link between these variables was assessed with data gathered in two questionnaires. First, 143 volunteers reported their motivation, satisfaction and intent to leave the organization. Volunteers were also asked about their perception of the characteristics of the tasks they perform. Second, the supervisors of respondents were asked to rate their performance and their organizational citizenship behaviours, so that a preliminary definition of the concept of volunteer performance was tested.

Results showed that job design can be a useful tool in increasing volunteers' autonomous motivation, satisfaction and in-role performance. In fact, support was found for the hypothesis that job characteristics influence these outcomes, and that autonomous motivation influences satisfaction. In addition, it was shown that autonomous motivation is a mediator in the relationship between job characteristics and satisfaction. Finally,

contradictory findings make it currently impossible to validate the proposed theory of volunteer performance without further research. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed.

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Table of Content

List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures.....	ix
1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 The Study of Volunteerism	1
1.2 Purpose and Contributions.....	4
2. The Hypothesized Model.....	5
3. The Job Characteristics Model.....	7
3.1 The JCM and paid work.....	7
3.2 The JCM and volunteer work.....	12
4. Volunteerism and Self-Determination Theory.....	15
4.1 Self-Determination Theory.....	15
4.2 The Self-Determination Continuum.....	15
4.3 Does the type of motivation make a difference?.....	18
4.4 SDT and the Job Characteristics Model.....	21
5. The Concept of Volunteer Performance.....	22
5.1 What do we know about volunteer performance?....	22
5.2 Defining Volunteer Performance.....	25
5.3 The performance of paid employees.....	26
5.4 Does the concept of OCB apply to volunteer work?..	30
5.5 The impact of job characteristics on task-related performance and OCBs in volunteer work.....	34
6. Methodology.....	34
6.1 Sampling.....	34
6.2 Data Collection Procedure.....	36
6.2.1 Volunteer Survey Variables.....	37
6.2.2 Supervisor Survey Variables.....	41
7. Data Analysis and Results.....	42
7.1 Demographics.....	42
7.2 Descriptive Statistics.....	45
7.3 Testing the Hypotheses.....	51
7.3.1 Correlations.....	51
7.3.2 Regression Analyses.....	56
7.3.3 Further Analyses.....	63

8. Discussion.....	69
8.1 Interpretation of findings.....	69
8.2 Volunteer Performance Revisited.....	77
8.3 Limitations.....	80
8.4 Future directions.....	82
8.5 Implications for practice and recommendations.....	85
9. Conclusion.....	88
10. References.....	90
11. Appendices.....	107
11.1 Questionnaire for volunteers.....	107
11.2 Questionnaire for supervisors.....	115

List of Tables

Table 1: Internal Reliabilities of JCM Subscales.....	38
Table 2: Internal Reliabilities of SDT Subscales.....	39
Table 3: Demographics and Levels of Involvement.....	43
Table 4: Descriptive Statistics.....	47
Table 5: Type of Volunteer Work Engaged in by Respondents.....	49
Table 6: Correlations.....	52
Table 7: Summary of Findings.....	62
Table 8: Impact of Activity and Mode of Supervision on Information Available.....	66
Table 9: Recommendations for Designing Volunteers' Tasks.....	87

List of Figures

Figure 1: Hypothesized Model.....6

Figure 2: Age of Respondents.....44

Figure 3: Education Level of Respondents.....44

Figure 4: Break-down of Respondents by Organization.....45

Figure 5: Revised Model.....62

Figure 6 : Interaction Effect.....63

Figure 7: Impact of Mode of Supervision on Information Available.....67

Figure 8: Impact of Mode of Supervision on Intent to Stay.....69

1. Introduction

1.1 The Study of Volunteerism

Over the past 30 years, more and more attention has been paid to the study of volunteerism. Depending on their backgrounds, researchers had different intents in studying this phenomenon. Some wanted to assess the possibility of countering government cutbacks by having volunteers offer social services, others wanted to tabulate all forms of work performed in the public domain, whether paid or not, and yet others were concerned with the impact of individualism on society (Wilson, 2000). Despite their different frames of reference, all had in common the search of answers to the 3 'Ws': *What* is volunteerism, *Who* volunteers, and *Why*?

Volunteerism has been defined as unpaid help provided in an organized manner to parties to whom the worker has no obligations (Musick & Wilson, 1997; Tilly & Tilly, 1994). When defined as a sustained form of nonspontaneous help, volunteer work becomes an appealing behaviour for those interested in motivation (Clary & Snyder, 1991). In fact, volunteer organizations now increasingly recognize that successful recruitment and retention of volunteers start with an understanding of their motives (Chambre, 1987). But defining volunteerism is not as simple as the above definition implies. Volunteers work in thousands of different organizations, and in even greater numbers of different roles, such that there is no standard practice in volunteerism (Gaskin, 1999).

In this sense, by defining volunteerism as an "activity involving contributions of time without coercion or remuneration" (Smith, 1994), we are greatly simplifying the reality of who is a volunteer and what their motivations may be. Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996) proposed that the terms 'without coercion' and 'without remuneration'

be seen as continua rather than absolutes. In this way, we would have to consider the realities not only of volunteers whose relationship with an organization is based on free will, but also of those who have an obligation to volunteer (e.g.: community service, school credits, etc.). Similarly, we would also have to take into account that while many volunteers may not receive any compensation or benefits at all, some of them receive stipends or low pay (e.g., international volunteers, interns, etc.; Cnaan & al., 1996).

This reality, of course, further highlights the necessity of carefully defining *who* is a volunteer. According to Cnaan and al. (1996), volunteers who pay a “higher price” for their activities (in terms of the inconveniences they endure, the alternative activities they must give up, etc.) can be considered to be performing a “purer” form of volunteer work and are, therefore, more likely to be considered “real volunteers”. Therefore, volunteers who give up time that could be spent earning an income would be considered “purer” volunteers than volunteers who are taking part in an internship that will award them school credits. This view highlights two questions that are still being debated among researchers (Wilson, 2000). First, can individuals receiving minimal material rewards be considered volunteers? Second, is it necessary to refer to motives when defining volunteer work? For the purpose of this study, the first question is answered with a cautious yes, as less than 15% of the volunteers included in the sample received minimal material compensation of a nonmonetary nature (in the form of bus tickets and free meals). The second question is answered in alignment with the social psychologists who have compiled inventories of motives for volunteering (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1998; Okun & Eisenberg, 1992; Snyder, 2001). That is, volunteering is regarded as a behaviour aimed at producing a public good (Wilson, 2000). Therefore, while the impact of

motivation on the outcomes of this productive activity will be examined, altruistic motives are not considered a prerequisite for inclusion in the sample.

It is recognized that gathering accurate data about volunteer work is a complex task (Wilson, 2000). According to Wilson (2000), the best estimate is that 56% of the US population volunteered in 1998. However, the survey he cites defines volunteerism very broadly (including spontaneous, informal help) and asks respondents if they have volunteered at any point in the past year, without regards to the length of their engagement. Therefore, while such impressive rates are often cited, we would be well advised to consider that only 20-25% of those who report volunteering do so on a regular basis (Gallup organization, 1986; Independent Sector, 1990, cited in Harrison, 1995). While many people volunteer, there is much variability in the extent of their commitment.

Theories that have attempted to explain volunteers' initial commitment include individual-level theories, such as Human Capital theory, Exchange Theory, and various theories of motivation. At the group-level, the impact of social networks, culture, family relations, demographic and contextual effects have also been researched (Wilson, 2000). What is surprising, however, is that much of this research stopped once volunteers had stepped into the volunteer organization. That is, once they joined the organization, volunteers were considered committed, without any further investigation into the time they spent there or the quality of the work they performed. Even knowing that the motivation to join and that the motivation to continue volunteering are distinct (Pearce, 1993) and that organizations must work ever harder to retain their long-serving volunteers because there are less volunteers available to replace those who leave (Davis, 1998), only a few researchers have assessed the impact of motivation on the length of volunteers' stay

with an organization (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1998; Gagné, 2000; Omoto & Snyder, 1995), and the impact of motivation on volunteers' performance has never been investigated.

In this study, closer attention will be paid to what happens once a volunteer joins an organization. Just as it has been recognized that the benefits of volunteer work for the mental health of seniors depends in part on the nature of the work performed (McIntosh & Danigelis, 1995) the impact of the nature of the work on other individual outcomes of volunteerism will be considered. More specifically, the characteristics of the work that volunteers perform will be assessed to measure their impact on motivation, satisfaction, performance, organizational citizenship behaviours and intent to leave the organization.

1.2 Purpose and Contributions

The practical objective of this study is to find out whether the job design of volunteer work relates to the motivation, performance and retention of volunteers. Demonstrating that the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) is applicable to the context of volunteer work will make it possible for volunteer managers to benefit from the vast expertise of organizational researchers who have been studying work redesign strategies for over 50 years.

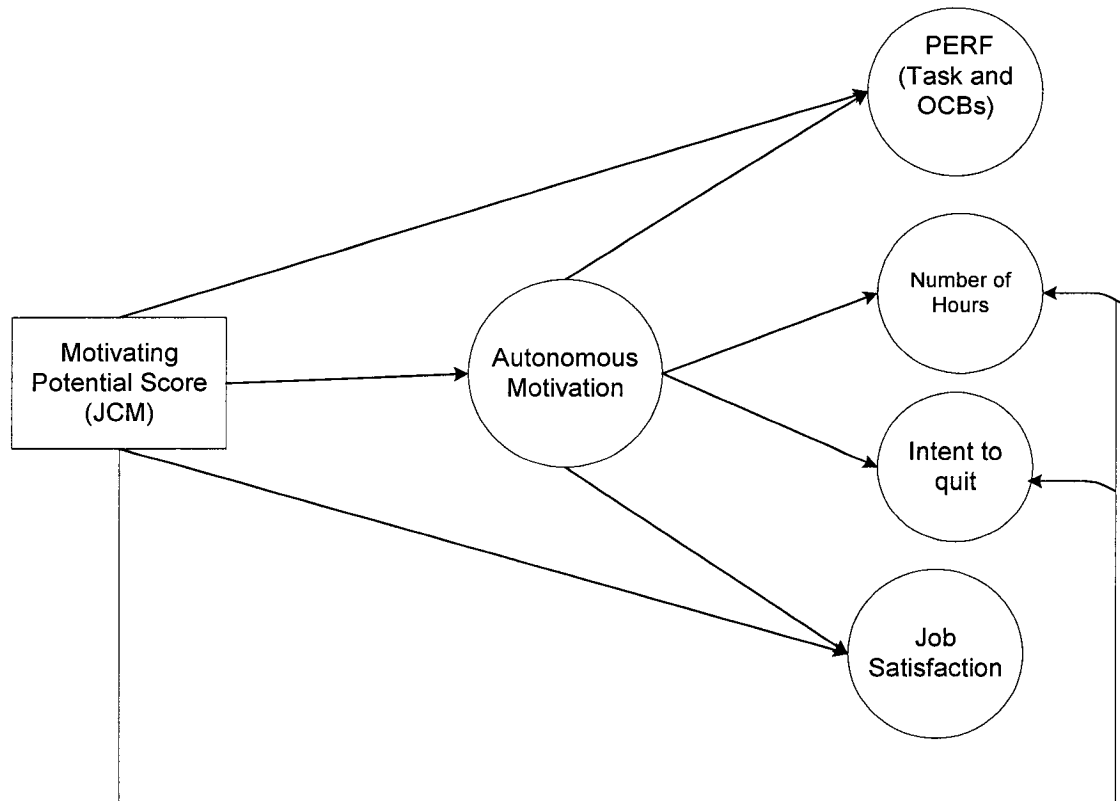
While the JCM has been used in a vast variety of paid work settings over the years, testing it in this new environment is no trivial matter. In fact, because volunteer managers often have very limited resources at their disposal to motivate volunteers, they must make sure that the work performed by volunteers is as motivating as possible. Therefore, this study could have great managerial implications for volunteer managers, as it might uncover an extra resource at their disposal in their efforts to improve their recruitment and retention strategies.

In order to reach this goal, several important contributions to academia will be made. As mentioned above, the most important one will consist of testing the Job Characteristics Model in the volunteer sector. This is, in itself, an important contribution, since, to date, the model has only been tested in the context of paid work. Since there is little agreement on what constitutes volunteer performance, and no attempts have yet been made at measuring it, another important contribution will include the test of a preliminary definition. In fact, I will propose that, just like is the case for paid work, organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) can be distinguished from task-related behaviours in the work performed by volunteers. Additionally, I will validate the use of Self-Determination Theory, the main motivational framework used in this project, in a setting where it has seldom been tested.

2. Hypothesized Model

The proposed model follows the work of Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance (1999), who showed that intrinsic motivation can be a mediator in the relationship between job characteristics and work attitudes and outcomes. In line with researchers who differentiated between the antecedents and outcomes of volunteer work (e.g., Omoto and Snyder, 1995), it proposes that satisfaction, performance (in-role and OCB), intent to quit and the number of volunteer hours are all indicators of volunteer work, while motivation is an antecedent of these indicators. The model below is based on this conceptualization.

Figure 1: Hypothesized Model



This model does not propose linkages between the indicators of volunteer work because, according to Wilson (2000), the peculiar characteristics of volunteer work imply that the relationships which may be found in work settings may not apply in this context. Furthermore, there are indications that volunteers' levels of satisfaction may not be related to turnover (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998, Wilson & Musick, 1999) and that volunteers are more likely to claim that a lack of autonomy led them to leave than to claim that they left because they were not satisfied (Harris, 1996). Similarly, it does not further explore the relationship between volunteers' satisfaction and their performance. Though this relationship has been the cause of much debate and interest over the past

decades (Judge, Thorensen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), it is now known to be a weak one at best (Fisher, 2003).

In order to better understand the model proposed above, I will now break it down to look at its components. First, I turn to the Job Characteristic Model (JCM) and review the findings that have emerged from its use in the workplace. I will then extrapolate those findings and present hypotheses as to how they may be reflected in the work of volunteers.

3. The Job Characteristics Model

3.1 The Job Characteristics Model and Work Motivation

Until 1950, most organizational research was aimed at designing more productive work processes (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). However, the 50s brought a stronger focus on human relations and researchers became more interested in the ways in which jobs affect those who perform them. Many studies showed that employees performing routine tasks were more dissatisfied, were absent more often and were more likely to leave the organization (e.g., Argyris, 1964). The majority of job enlargement experiments reported subsequently were deemed successful (e.g., Pelissier, 1965).

In an attempt to test whether different job characteristics have different impacts on different people, Hackman and Lawler (1971) used the expectancy theory of motivation and identified three general ‘needs’ that a job should fulfill if it is to be internally motivating. Those needs, later labelled “Critical Psychological States”, were defined as follows.

Critical Psychological States (as defined by Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.162):

Experienced meaningfulness of the work: “The degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable and worthwhile”

Experienced responsibility for work outcomes: “The degree to which the employee feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work he or she does”

Knowledge of results: “The degree to which the employee knows and understands, on a continuous basis, how effectively he or she is performing the job.”

Hackman and Oldham (1975) worked backward to identify core job characteristics that would increase the experience of the three psychological states. In developing and testing their Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), a questionnaire meant to help diagnose jobs with the intent of redesigning them, they identified five Core Job Characteristics as defined below.

Core Job Characteristics (as defined by Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p. 161):

Skill Variety: “The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person.”

Task Identity: “The degree to which a job requires completion of a “whole” and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.”

Task Significance: “The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large.”

Autonomy: “The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.”

Feedback from job: “The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.”

Hackman & Oldham (1975) proposed that while the effects of each characteristic can be looked at individually, an overall Motivating Potential Score (MPS) could be calculated from the results of the JDS. The MPS formula, shown below, is based on Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) belief that, while Experienced Responsibility results from Autonomy, and Knowledge of Result results from Feedback, Experienced Meaningfulness can be attained through either one or a combination of Skill Variety, Task Identity or Task Significance. Therefore, the MPS formula is designed as a multiplication of the core job dimensions as they relate to the Critical Psychological States.

MPS = [(Skill Variety + Task Identity + Task Significance)/3] x [Autonomy] x [Feedback]

It is important to note that Hackman and Oldman (1980) did not claim that the MPS *causes* positive outcomes, but rather that when employees perform well in a job with a high MPS, their motivation will be reinforced, thus “re-energizing the personal

drive to act effectively” (Barnabé & Burns, 1994, p. 174). Even without claiming causality, however, we can show that jobs high in motivating potential tend to be associated with positive outcomes. The correlation between MPS and performance is of .16, while that between MPS and internal work motivation is of .36 (Oldham, Hackman & Pearce, 1976). Similarly, Orpen (1979) found that objectively manipulating the MPS in a field experiment led to higher levels of intrinsic satisfaction and job involvement.

However, over the years, most research on job characteristics did not respect the complete original JCM (Behson, Eddy & Lorenzet, 2000). For example, research reporting the use of the MPS is relatively scarce. Many studies have used the core dimensions individually, and yet others have used alternate methods of compiling an aggregate score. In fact, Fried and Ferris’ (1987) meta-analysis revealed that an additive index of the five core dimensions had more predictive power than the original multiplicative formula. Much research on the JCM has focused on reviewing the validity of its core dimensions (Kulik, Oldham, & Langner, 1988), but few studies took into account the Critical Psychological States included in the original model (Behson, Eddy & Lorenzet, 2000). This study will follow this trend by not taking into account the Critical Psychological States. In fact, motivation, an outcome in the JCM, will be tested to find out if it could, in fact, act as a critical state (mediator) in attaining outcomes such as satisfaction and performance.

While the hypotheses in this study rely on the use of the MPS as an aggregate score, I now review findings that link individual job dimensions to the model’s main variables, in order to support post-hoc analyses that may be performed in later sections. I first review the findings of researchers who used the JCM in the workplace. In the next

section, I will propose hypotheses as to whether these findings may or may not be replicable in the volunteer sector.

Satisfaction

The outcome that is most clearly linked to a high MPS is job satisfaction (Fried, 1991). In fact, while the JCM has been strongly criticized (Roberts & Glick, 1981), most reviewers agree that the 5 job dimensions of the JCM are related more strongly to satisfaction than they are to performance (Capelli & Rogovski, 2002). In fact, many researchers have demonstrated the positive relationship between job complexity and job satisfaction (e.g.: Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Ferris & Gilmore, 1984; Kelloway & Barling, 1991; Zaccaro & Stone, 1988). Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald (1985), in a meta-analysis of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction, found a correlation of .39 between these two elements.

Number of volunteer hours and turnover intentions

When studies in the workplace try to define commitment, they often look at variables such as absenteeism and turnover. Studies in the volunteer sector, however, focus primarily on the number of hours that volunteers work and their intention to leave the organization. In this section, the findings that link the JCM to workplace measures of absenteeism and turnover will be explained. In the next section, these measures will be applied to the volunteer sector.

Johns (1978) and Orpen (1979) supported the proposition that, while the relationship between higher MPS and lower absenteeism is small, it indeed exists. Similarly, job enrichment has been shown to have positive (if modest) effects on turnover (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985). However, by looking at the dimensions individually, some findings seem counter-intuitive. For example, Hirschfeld, Schmitt and Bedeian (2002)

found that employees may be absent more often if they perceive task significance and skill variety but do not trust that their pay is based on their performance.

While few would doubt the usefulness of the JCM in designing more motivating jobs in the workplace, the impact of job characteristics on volunteers' motivation has yet to be demonstrated. We now turn to an examination of the similarities and differences that can be expected between those two settings.

3.2 Using the Job Characteristics Model in a volunteer work context

In the past two decades, some imminent researchers and observers praised the volunteer sector for its management abilities, which they deemed superior to those used by many in the corporate world (Manz, Keating & Donnellon, 1990; Smith & Greeb, 1993). Drucker (1989) even claimed that “the best management practices and most innovative methods now come from the Girl Scouts and the Salvation Army” (p. 90). With that in mind, one might wonder if transposing a motivation theory from the corporate world to the volunteer sector is not taking a step backwards. However, the very fact that some business managers are now considering managing their employees as if they were volunteers (Smith & Greeb, 1993) points to the inescapable truth that human needs are the same no matter where they work, and no matter how much or how little money they receive for their efforts (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

By testing the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) in the context of volunteer work, the underlying hope is to find out if job characteristics significantly increase volunteers' motivation. In the past, most research considered volunteerism as one activity. That is, no matter what role volunteers took on, the same outcomes were expected simply because they all had put on the “volunteer hat”. According to Wilson (2003), however, “it is not

fruitful to treat all activities as if they were the same with respect to consequences” (p. 233). Similarly, Dailey (1986) and Gidron (1983) showed that volunteers are affected by the characteristics of their tasks.

3.2.1 The impact of job characteristics on indicators of volunteer work

Satisfaction

Support for the use of the specific dimensions of the JCM can be found in the volunteerism literature. For example, the importance of task variety is supported by Okun and Eisenberg’s (1992) suggestion that volunteers are more likely to be satisfied when their activities are varied. Similarly, it has been shown that volunteers tend to be more satisfied with roles that improve specific skills rather than make use of generalist ones (Brown & Zahrlly, 1989). Other characteristics inherent to the JCM also receive support in volunteering research. For example, Dailey (1986) showed that volunteers working on a political campaign were more committed when their work encouraged autonomy and provided feedback. Another dimension suggested by Hackman and Oldham (1975), dealing with others, receives support as well, as opportunities to develop friendships have been shown to increase satisfaction and commitment (Morrison, 2004). Based on these findings, it is likely that the findings from the workplace will be replicated with volunteers, such that:

Hypothesis 1A:

Volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS will be more satisfied than those who perceive their tasks as having a low MPS.

Number of volunteer hours and turnover intentions

Several researchers have shown that there is a clear link between volunteers' satisfaction, their intentions to quit and their actual behaviour of leaving the organization (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Siason, 1992; Wright, Larsen & Higgs, 1995). In fact, Siason (1992) claimed that a volunteer's intention to leave was based only on his/her satisfaction which, in turn, could be predicted by social norms and the costs and benefits associated to volunteer work. This view is congruent with the assertions that having fun is what keeps volunteers from leaving (Wright & al., 1995) and that the way to increase a volunteers' length of service is to increase their satisfaction (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). However, as Bussell and Forbes (2002) suggest, "despite efforts by volunteer groups to develop intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, it has to be recognized that volunteers do leave because of factors outside the volunteer organization's control" (p. 251). While this is true for paid employment, it is an even more important reality in the volunteer sector, since lower time commitments (often just a couple of hours a week) allow volunteers to leave without much disruption to their lives (Pearce, 1993). Based on this, the relationship found in the workplace literature is likely to be applicable to a volunteering environment, such that:

Hypothesis 1B:

Volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS will have spent more time volunteering in the past year than those who perceive their tasks as having a low MPS (number of hours).

Hypothesis 1C:

Volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS will be less intent on quitting the organization than those who perceive their tasks as having a low MPS (intent to quit).

4. Volunteerism and Self-Determination Theory

4.1 Self-Determination Theory

The conceptualization of motivation used in this project is that of Self-Determination Theory (SDT). As can be seen in the definitions provided below, SDT assumes that types of motivation can be aligned along a continuum of self-determination or internalization (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This continuum not only separates extrinsic motivation from intrinsic motivation, it also elaborates on diverse forms of extrinsic motives, which represent the varying degrees to which people can internalize (or “make their own”) the value of a particular behaviour.

4.2 The Self-Determination Continuum

Amotivation:

Before considering the source of motivation per se, it is important to realize that there are many situations in which the presence of motivation in itself cannot be taken for granted. This may occur when the person does not intend to take part in an activity, either because the activity is not valued, because the person does not feel sufficiently competent to complete it successfully or because the choice to get involved or not is perceived to be under the individual’s control (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The case of volunteerism is a clear example of this. While the behaviours of people who do volunteer can be thought to be regulated in some way, for the majority of the population, this behaviour is non-regulated, and thus, non-existent.

Extrinsic Motivation:

The term extrinsic implies that the reason that motivates behaviour is external to the behaviour itself. That is the case when people engage in volunteering activities not for the purpose of the activity itself but because they want to attain a separate outcome as a result of it (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation implies a non-zero level of competence and a high internal locus of control, that is, the existence of motivation in itself shows that those who choose to get involved do so based on their belief that they are capable of accomplishing the required tasks. Since this is true for all levels of motivation, the main difference between the types of motivations is their locus of causality, that is, the perceived level of autonomy involved in the decision. More specifically, extrinsic motives can be classified into four different categories that involve increasing degrees of autonomy.

External Regulation

Actions that are externally regulated are the least autonomous, as they imply that individuals are simply complying with rules and/or demands to avoid punishment or to get a reward (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This would be the case of a volunteer who gets involved based on the belief that it will lead either to desirable outcomes, such as getting a job or gaining approval from peers, or to the avoidance of negative outcomes, such as family disapproval (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Cases of extrinsic motivation are also becoming more frequent in young volunteers, for whom volunteering is increasingly becoming a graduation requirement (Astin, Sax & Avalos, 1999).

Introjected Regulation

Introjected regulation is slightly more autonomous than external regulation because it represents regulation inside a person. The person now acts according to

internal pressures such as ego-involvement, contingent self-worth and feelings of guilt and/or shame. Actions are motivated by the need to regulate one's opinion of oneself, that is, the need to perceive oneself as a worthy person. For example, individuals who volunteer to avoid feeling guilty or to feel proud, while not expecting overt reprimand from others if they don't do so, act to regulate their opinion of themselves, which is based on the introjected values of others (Ryan and Deci, 2000). For example, as Wuthnow (1990) pointed out, many people see volunteerism as a way to demonstrate that they are nice and decent human beings. Someone who thinks this way and feels anxious to make sure that others have a good opinion of him might become involved as a volunteer to relieve his anxiety.

Identified Regulation

When behaviours are regulated in an identified manner, they are personally endorsed by the person as meaningful goals (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals who volunteer because it is for a good cause or because they feel that it is the right thing to do are regulating their behaviours based on actions with which they identify, that is, because they value helping, doing so becomes a personal goal. For example, this might be the case of someone who feels concerned with the situation in a third-world country and decides to volunteer with the local branch of Oxfam.

Intrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic motivation represents the pinnacle of authenticity and autonomy in that it reflects the natural inclination of human beings to explore and master tasks that spontaneously strike them as interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Since Self-Determination Theory is based on the assumption that need satisfaction is required in order to attain intrinsic motivation, this type of motivation can only arise when individuals feel

autonomous, competent and related to others. Behaviours are intrinsically regulated when they are performed for the enjoyment they procure rather than to outcomes attached to them (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Since behaviours that are intrinsically regulated must arise out of interest, fun and/or enjoyment, the Self-Determination continuum implies that volunteer managers who would like to promote intrinsic motivation could only do so by making their volunteers' tasks more "fun". In fact, intrinsic motivation can only be increased by focusing on the task engagement *process*, as any focus on the *product* implies extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). This distinction points out the main difference between identified regulation and intrinsic regulation, in that it shows that people who are intrinsically motivated focus on the task itself, while those who identify with the goal underlying the task perform it for its instrumental value. It should be noted, however, that these types of motivations are not mutually exclusive. It is possible for someone who values the goal of an activity to also enjoy performing it, and vice-versa.

4.3 Does the type of motivation make a difference?

According to Deci and Ryan's (2000) theory, autonomous motivation is at work when volunteers find their tasks personally meaningful and/or interesting. That is, to be autonomous, motivation must emerge from either identified or intrinsic motives, as both introjected and extrinsic motives are considered to be forms of controlled motivation. Volunteers who are autonomously motivated are more likely to persist in their tasks, perform better and be more satisfied. In fact, it has been demonstrated that volunteers who act based on intrinsic motives are less likely to end their volunteer work than those who feel external pressure to volunteer (Snyder, 2001). Since we know that most of the

benefits attached to intrinsic motives are also linked to identified motives (Koestner & Losier, 2002), the best way to ensure volunteers' commitment if their tasks cannot be made more fun may be to increase their identification with their purpose. An easier option, of course, would be to recruit volunteers whose motivations are already autonomous. This idea, however, would imply a selection process in which potential volunteers would be screened for their types of motivation, a solution which is not only questionable ethically but also unrealistic for many organizations who cannot afford to turn down potential volunteers for such matters. In addition, this solution is clearly overly simplistic, as it ignores the impact that the context can have on motivation.

It has been demonstrated that acting based on intrinsic motivation tends to increase not only a person's self-esteem, vitality and general well being but also their level of creativity, persistence and overall performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, since only a small proportion of volunteers may be truly intrinsically motivated, the question remains as to whether different types of extrinsic motivation can lead to different outcomes in volunteer work.

More specifically, I will assess the impact that the level of autonomy involved in a volunteer's motivation has on satisfaction and performance. One way to do so is to use the Relative Autonomy Index (RAI), also referred to as the Self-Determination Index (Ryan & Connell, 1989). This index has been widely used in educational contexts and its weighting procedure has been validated and shown to be reliable (Goudas, Biddle & Fox, 1994; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Ryan & Connell, 1989). The RAI is computed as follows.

$$\text{RAI} = 2(\text{intrinsic}) + 1(\text{identified}) - 1(\text{introjected}) - 2(\text{extrinsic})$$

As can be seen in the above formula, the weights given to each type of motivation reflect their respective level of autonomy. Each of the four levels of autonomy is measured by four questions forming a subscale (i.e.: intrinsic, identified, introjected and extrinsic motivation subscales). The RAI represents a relative level of autonomous motivation, such that positive scores indicate stronger autonomous motivation and negative scores represent stronger controlled motivation. Therefore, using the RAI will allow the assessment of the extent to which autonomous motivation in general can be linked to the outcomes of volunteer work, and the test of the following hypotheses.

As mentioned above, it has been found that workers who are autonomously motivated tend to be more satisfied. I propose that the same will be true for volunteers and that this finding will be replicated, such that:

Hypothesis 2A:

Volunteers who have a high degree of autonomous motivation will be more satisfied with their work than volunteers who have a low degree of autonomous motivation.

It has been demonstrated that extrinsic motivation tends to “lower the voluntary labour supply” (Cappellari & Turati, 2004, p. 619) or that, in other words, autonomous motivation leads to higher rates of volunteering (Gagné, 2003). Based on this, and on the finding that intrinsic goals (such as improving one’s health and contributing to the community), were related to higher levels of persistence than extrinsic goals (such as achieving an attractive image; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Iens, Sheldon & Deci, 2004), I propose that individuals whose RAI scores are positive will be more likely to spend more time in the organization and claim that they intend to stay involved.

Hypothesis 2B:

Volunteers who have a high degree of autonomous motivation will have spent more time volunteering in the past year than those who have a low degree of autonomous motivation (number of hours).

Hypothesis 2C:

Volunteers who have a high degree of autonomous motivation have lower intentions to quit the organization than those who have a low degree of autonomous motivation (intent to quit).

4.4 Self-Determination and the Job Characteristics Model

In order to use both the Job Characteristics Model and Self-Determination Theory in the same model, it is important to compare and contrast both theories. In terms of similarities, the JCM is consistent with SDT in its intent to foster internal motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Just as SDT claims the value of autonomy, autonomy is also a critical psychological state in JCM. In fact, autonomy is the job dimension that has most consistently been shown to lead to the JCM's outcome variables (Behson, Eddy & Lorenzet, 2000). Job complexity, a concept measured by combining the five main dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model, has been shown to be positively related to intrinsic motivation (Gagné, Sénécal & Koestner, 1997; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989). Additionally, it has been shown that salespeople who experience meaningfulness in their jobs (a psychological state attained through task significance, skill variety and/or task identity) demonstrate greater levels of motivation and identification with the organization (Thakor & Ashwin, 2005). Based on this, I propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3:

Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high Motivating Potential Score (MPS) will have higher degrees of autonomous motivation than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

On the other hand, there are also quite a few distinctions to be made between the two theories. While SDT classifies different levels of intrinsic motivation, the JCM assumes that only one type of internal motivation exists (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In addition, while the JCM sees internal motivation as an outcome, SDT claims that motivation is often a mediator that will lead to other outcomes, such as satisfaction or performance. This is the conceptualization of motivation that informs this study, and leads to the hypotheses below. The justification for these hypotheses emerged from the findings that have been made in research using both the JCM and SDT in the work setting, which have been summarized earlier.

Hypothesis 4A:

Motivation will mediate the link between job characteristics and satisfaction. Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high MPS will have a higher degree of autonomous motivation and, as a result, will be more satisfied than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

Hypothesis 4B:

Motivation will mediate the link between job characteristics and number of hours. Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high MPS will have a high degree of autonomous motivation and, as a result, will have volunteered for a greater number of hours during the past year than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

Hypothesis 4C:

Motivation will mediate the link between job characteristics and intent to leave. Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high MPS will have a high degree of autonomous motivation and, as a result, will be more likely to want to quit the organization for a longer period of time than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

5. The concept of Volunteer Performance

5.1 What do we know about volunteer performance?

To this day, most of the research conducted on the topic of volunteerism has attempted to identify the motivations that bring people to non-profit organizations and

public service agencies in need of volunteers (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Clary & Orenstein, 1991; Miller, 1985). While some researchers have looked at some outcomes of volunteerism, these outcomes took the form of the number of hours spent in the organization (used as a measure of commitment, Cnaan & Cascio, 1999), the length of their stay in the organization (used as a measure of tenure, Cnaan & Cascio, 1999) and their intention to leave (Pearce, 1983). These measures, while clearly attempting to measure a quantitative aspect of the volunteers' contributions to the organizations, did not take into account the quality of the work performed. Furthermore, Cnaan & Cascio's (1999) found that the quantitative aspects of volunteer contributions (i.e.: tenure, commitment) could not be predicted by demographic variables. Even if the link between demographic variables and work quality in itself has not been tested, it is easy to extrapolate that if quantitative outcomes of volunteer work are difficult to predict, qualitative outcomes will be even more unpredictable. Following the logic inherent in organizational behaviour research, we could conclude that if performance cannot be easily predicted, it should at least be evaluated. Why then are so few organizations evaluating the work of their volunteers?

One reason, pointed out by Harris (1994), is that assessing performance is part of a management process, and managing volunteers is often seen as a sensitive issue. In fact, he showed that volunteers taking on leadership roles, for the most part, do not think they ought to be managed or supervised. Similarly, Etzioni (1975) stated that organizations working with volunteers often endure mediocre performance because they feel unable to control such performance. The quality of the work performed by volunteers is seldom appraised, which leads to highly uneven levels of contributions to organizations (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

Clearly, volunteer performance is not perceived in the same way as is employee performance. In fact, according to Cnaan and Cascio (1999), the work and volunteering environments are two settings that are too inherently different for findings in one to be generalized to the other. Based on this premise, they conducted a study on volunteer performance that, just as others had done in the past, measured tenure and commitment as the only indicators of performance. Farmer and Fedor (2001) explain this reliance on attendance variables to measure volunteer performance by the assumption that, just by being there, volunteers contribute something to the organization. Of course, this assumption disregards the possibility that volunteers may show up as scheduled but exert so little effort as to not contribute or, worse, as to become a burden to the organization; an assumption which very few for-profit companies would make. In fact, whether they do so knowingly or not, volunteer managers who do not evaluate the performance of their volunteers work under the assumption that all volunteers are altruistic, dedicated and motivated to help the organization, no matter what personal costs they may incur. Is this belief realistic?

Before trying to define volunteer performance, it is important to address the question of why volunteers would “voluntarily” show up at a volunteer organization if they do not intend to make considerable efforts or are not capable of it. First, we must remember that performance is a factor not only of the willingness and capacity to perform, but also of whether a person gets the opportunity to do so (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982). Therefore, it is possible that capable and motivated individuals would not contribute to an organization because their work is not organized in a way that allows them to do so to the best of their abilities. Second, we should also note that volunteers are more likely to be given the opportunity to learn skills while doing their work than would

employees. It follows that some volunteers, while motivated to do a good job, may not yet have the ability to do so.

In fact, the literature on volunteer motivation makes it clear that potential volunteers come to non-profit organizations for a variety of reasons. As we have seen in the previous section, Self-Determination Theory explains that some volunteers may feel obliged to volunteer because they fear negative consequences if they do not. These consequences can take the form of external threats, such as a loss of special advantages, or internal threats, such as loss of self-esteem. According to the findings of Deci and Ryan (2000), someone who volunteers to avoid either type of consequences would be less likely to perform well and persevere in his tasks than someone whose choice to get involved is more autonomous.

5.2 Defining Volunteer Performance

Farmer and Fedor (2001) suggested that the best way to define volunteer performance is to look contextually at what each organization expects volunteers to contribute. They found that volunteer performance, when defined in terms of contributions, is a multi-faceted construct. For example, they showed that the performance of one specific type of volunteers in one specific organization, the Board of Directors volunteers at the March of Dimes organization, could be evaluated as a function of three types of contributions, namely, their time, their donations and the overall quality of their work (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). While Farmer and Fedor (2001) made the point that there is great practicality in developing different definitions of performance for different volunteers and different organizations, one question remains. Is it possible to have a general definition of volunteer performance that would outline general dimensions

and which could apply to all volunteers? Or will volunteer performance always have to be defined on a case-by-case basis? The organizational behaviour literature will now be reviewed to look for ideas of the types of dimensions that may be useful to defining the performance criterion for volunteer workers.

5.3 The performance of paid employees; the distinction between in-role and citizenship behaviours

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) pointed out the importance of distinguishing between the formal aspects of a job, also referred to as task-related performance, and the interpersonal activities that surround those formal aspects and make their completion easier by enhancing the work environment in which they take place. While Borman and Motowidlo (1993) referred to this latter dimension as contextual performance, their definition is also closely related to that of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), which will be used in this study. It should be noted that while the terms OCBs, extra-role behaviours and contextual performance are often used interchangeably, there are subtle distinctions between them (Geraghty & Collins, 2003).

In-role Performance

There are many examples of findings that link the job characteristics proposed by the JCM to better performance outcomes. In fact, an empirical summary by Kopelman (1985) reported that job characteristics have a sizable effect on individual productivity. Others, such as Churchill, Ford, Hartley, and Walker (1985), showed that, out of all the variables in their meta-analysis, salespersons' perceptions of their jobs' characteristics was the best predictor of their performance. Evans, Schlacter, Schultz and Gremler (2002) later showed that this is true whether the quantitative or qualitative aspects of

salespeople's performance is taken into consideration, a distinction that reminds of that between task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours, discussed below.

While the MPS has been shown to be correlated with performance, its best predictor was the core dimension of task identity (Fried & Ferris, 1987). According to Fried and Ferris (1987), "even if the estimated associations between job characteristics and performance in the total population are relatively low, these relationships have the potential to be meaningful" (p. 310). Job enrichment has been shown to be related to lower procrastination in job-related decision-making (Lonegan & Maher, 2000). More specifically, task significance, feedback from the job and autonomy are negatively correlated with decisional procrastination (Lonegan & Maher, 2000). Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5A.

Volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS will be rated as performing better on task-related dimensions than volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a low MPS.

As was mentioned before, Deci and Ryan (2000) proposed that autonomous motivation increases the likelihood of good performance. This relationship has been acknowledged by Vansteenkiste and al. (2004), who showed that intrinsic motivation leads to better performance in academic settings. Based on this knowledge, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5B.

Volunteers who have a high degree of autonomous motivation will be rated as performing better on task-related dimensions than volunteers who have a low degree of autonomous motivation.

Hypothesis 5C.

Motivation will mediate the link between job characteristics and task-related performance. Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high MPS will have a high degree of autonomous motivation and, as a result, will be rated as higher performers on task-related items than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The term organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been defined as an “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). This concept has received a lot of attention since it was first presented. Among relevant findings, it has been shown that, when asked to rate other people’s performance on a job, most individuals consider both task-related performance and OCBs (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Johnson, 2001; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989). Farh, Podsakoff & Organ (1990) found that OCBs were positively related to task complexity. Similarly, Hatcher, Ross & Collins (1989), using the number of suggestions made by employees as a measure of OCB, showed that those who had more complex jobs were more likely to engage in OCBs.

Further support for the distinction between task performance and OCBs is found in Katz & Kahn’s (1978) three-way division of job performance. Based on their definition, the performance of volunteers could be divided between their attendance (‘joining and staying in the organization’), their performance on role-prescribed tasks (‘dependably meeting standards of performance’) and their performance of organizational citizenship behaviours (‘going beyond prescribed roles’). However, just like it was argued earlier that different volunteer roles will have different outcomes, it is likely that volunteers playing certain roles will be more likely to perform OCBs. In fact, Johnson (2001) showed that the importance of OCB performance dimensions differs from job to job. Based on those findings, I propose that the characteristics of volunteers’ jobs will impact their performance of OCBs. It is worthwhile to note that some previous research

supports this idea, as it has been shown that job characteristics that promote greater involvement from employees can help increase commitment, which, in turn, plays an important role in the demonstration of citizenship behaviours (Kapelli & Rogovski, 2002; Organ, 1990).

Reviewing the OCB literature, Bolino (1999) remarked that the common link between all conceptions of OCB tends to be the belief that these behaviours evolve from either a disposition to help (personality trait) or a sense of obligation (job attitude). For example, Chen, Chun and Seago (1998) suggested that “levels of OCB reflect employees’ true willingness regarding how much they want to be involved in, or how much they would like to be distant from, the organization” (p. 924). While it has been acknowledged that individuals with different motives may engage in OCBs, the link between these different motives and the impact of OCBs on the organization has largely been ignored. In fact, Podsakoff, Mackenzie and Hui (1993) proposed that while it may be interesting to understand the effect of political motives on employees’ reasons for engaging in OCBs, such motives are irrelevant to the impact that OCBs have on the organization’s performance. As we saw in the previous section, it has been shown that motives influence certain outcomes in volunteer work (i.e., tenure and commitment, Clary & Snyder, 1998). Based on this idea and building on the impression management literature (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984), Bolino (1999) proposed that motives influence the quality of OCBs and their impact on the organization.

While Bolino (1999) did not test his propositions empirically, Finkelstein & Penner (2004) similarly attempted to integrate the literatures on volunteerism and OCB. Building on Rioux and Penner’s (2001) model, they tested three underlying motives for OCB, namely prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management, and

found that the motivation to help (i.e.: prosocial values) was the best predictor of OCBs. Furthermore, they found that, just like volunteers have been shown to develop, in the long-run, a 'volunteer identity' which greatly increases the likelihood that they will stay involved as volunteers in the future (Grube & Pillavin, 1996, cited in Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer, 1997), employees who perform OCBs develop, in the long-run, an 'organizational citizen' self-concept which greatly increases the likelihood of such behaviours occurring again (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004). Their findings, while not completely disproving Bolino's (1999) propositions, provided support for Penner, Midili and Kegelmeyer's (1997) model, which proposed that:

“Job attitudes, organizational variables, motives and personality traits all affect initial levels of OCB. This behaviour, in turn, influences the extent to which a person develops a role identity as an organizational citizen. It is this role identity that directly causes enduring levels of OCB.” (p. 112)

5.4 Does the concept of OCB apply to volunteer work?

While OCB and volunteerism, as separate behaviours, have been shown to have a lot in common, the question remains as to whether OCBs can be measured as a distinct dimension of the overall performance of a volunteer worker. In fact, as we have seen earlier, Cnaan & Cascio (1999) argued that most findings in the field of human resources are non-transferable to the management of volunteers. Therefore, before asking volunteer managers to assess the OCBs performed by the volunteers they supervise, it is crucial to demonstrate that this concept is at least likely to be relevant in this context.

While not every organization working with volunteers does so, Volunteer Canada (2001a) recommends that volunteers be given a written task description before they begin

their engagement with an organization. Such a practice allows volunteers to have a clear understanding of the tasks they are undertaking, as well as the limitations of their roles (Volunteer Canada, 2001a). Based on this premise, behaviours that go over and above such task descriptions can be argued to represent OCBs. For example, a volunteer who “signs up” to visit an isolated senior may go over and above the tasks required by his role by taking the time to explain to that senior the other services offered by the organization from which he could benefit. By doing so, this volunteer is representing the organization in a positive manner, a behaviour often categorized as extra-role (Lee & Allen, 2002).

However, Wolfe (1994) showed that whether employees perform OCBs depends on how broadly they define their jobs. In fact, she found that employees who believe that items representing OCBs form part of their responsibilities are more likely to perform them. In the case of the friendly visitor, it is possible that, while presenting the organization’s services to clients is not a formal item on this volunteer’s job description, he may consider doing so a part of his mandate, especially if he considers that his ‘mission’, in general terms, is to help the client. In fact, if OCB is not a clear-cut construct in the workplace because boundaries between them and in-role behaviours are ill-defined and based on individual perceptions (Wolfe, 1994), this is even more likely to be the case in a volunteering environment, where job descriptions tend to be more fluid.

Based on her findings, Wolfe (1994) concluded that researchers should be careful when deciding whose perspective they will consider when attempting to define extra-role behaviours in any given context. In volunteer organizations, it seems even more important to consider the volunteers’ perceptions, since these are more likely to vary according to their diverse expectations and motives. For example, a volunteer who is motivated to help the organization achieve its mission because she believes in the cause it

works for is likely to consider her role to be much broader than would a volunteer who specifically expects to gain expertise in using a particular software while designing the organization's website. In fact, Wharton (1991) demonstrated that volunteers adapt their roles to their experiences and expectations and that, as a result, role making is an interactional process.

Other researchers have linked job characteristics to performance of OCBs. For example, Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) found that job characteristics accounts for more variance in OCB than does satisfaction. Feather and Rauther (2004), found that opportunities to use varied skills were related to OCBs for permanent workers. Additionally, Tidwell (2005) demonstrated that strong organizational identification, a concept which could be related to task significance, led to increases in prosocial behaviours in general, and in subjective volunteerism in particular. It is of interest to note that Tidwell's concept of "subjective volunteerism" is really closely related to this study's definition of volunteers' OCBs.

Just as previous research points to a relationship between the MPS and OCBs, similar conclusions can be drawn from the research on autonomous motivation. As was mentioned earlier, autonomous motivation was shown to be related to helping behaviours (Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer, 1997). In fact, Tidwell (2005) showed that autonomous motives are related to organizational identification, which, in turn, is related to the performance of prosocial behaviours and subjective volunteerism. Additionally, Moorman and Harland (2002) showed that autonomous motivation helps predict short-term employees' OCBs.

Another way to look at the applicability of the OCB concept to the volunteer sector is to consider the outcomes that have been linked to OCB in the workplace. For example, Chen & al. (1998) found that employees who performed less OCBs were more likely to leave the organization. They explained that when employees become dissatisfied, they start avoiding some of their previous behaviours, starting with those that are less likely to have negative consequences (Rosse & Miller, 1984). Therefore, the lack of OCBs could be interpreted as a sign of dissatisfaction, which then increases the likelihood of turnover (Chen & al., 1998). In fact, Organ and Ryan (1995) showed that, for non-managerial employees, the performance of OCBs is more highly correlated to job satisfaction than is performance on role-prescribed tasks. While this may be true, there are many factors, over and above satisfaction, those employees take into account when they consider quitting their job (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

When it comes to volunteer work, it has been shown that commitment and tenure are both related to satisfaction (Cnaan & Cascio, 1999). Therefore, it is possible that volunteers who are satisfied will remain in the organization, and that their satisfaction will increase the likelihood that they will perform OCBs. Dissatisfied volunteers, on the other hand, could be predicted to simply leave the organization. If that were the case, one might argue that, in the long run, all volunteers would be performing OCBs. Based on these findings, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5D.

Volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS will be rated as performing more OCBs than volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a low MPS.

Hypothesis 5E.

Volunteers who have a high degree of autonomous motivation will be rated as performing more OCBs than volunteers who have a low degree of autonomous motivation.

Hypothesis 5F:

Motivation will mediate the link between job characteristics and the performance of OCBs. Volunteers who perceive their job as having a high MPS will have a high degree of autonomous motivation and, as a result, will be rated as performing more OCBs than volunteers who perceive their job as having a low MPS.

5.5 The impact of job characteristics on task-related performance versus OCBs in volunteer work.

Orpen (1979) found that while job enrichment led to increases in satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and involvement, it did not lead to higher performance. Others, such as Balt, Trevino and Sims (1994), showed that employees' level of control over a negative event was more highly correlated with their performance of OCBs than it was with their in-role performance. Accordingly, I propose that there might be a difference in the relative impact of job characteristics on volunteers' performance indicators, such that the impact of the MPS will be weaker for task-related performance than it will be for the performance of OCBs.

Hypothesis 6A.

While the relationship between MPS and in-role performance will be positive, it will be weaker than the one between MPS and OCBs.

Hypothesis 6B.

While the relationship between autonomous motivation and in-role performance will be positive, it will be weaker than the one between autonomous motivation and OCBs.

6. Key Methodological Choices

6.1 Sampling

Permission to access 230 volunteers and their 24 supervisors at CLSC René-Cassin was obtained. These volunteers form a diverse mix of people who help the population of Côte-St-Luc by visiting seniors, coaching new mothers, tutoring school

kids, driving seniors to their appointment, making presentations on Elder Abuse, organizing events, etc.

To increase the number of respondents and the validity of findings, permission to survey 70 additional volunteers at Entraide Bénévole Métro, in downtown Montreal, was also obtained. This community organization works in partnership with CLSC Métro and offers services to seniors that overlap with those provided by the CLSC (volunteers do friendly visits, grocery shopping or accompany seniors to medical appointments). While the volunteers of EBM are all supervised by the same volunteer coordinator, the smaller size of the organization makes it possible for that coordinator to keep a good contact with volunteers, making it likely that she was able to complete their performance evaluations as accurately as the caseworkers of CLSC René-Cassin did.

Finally, a sample of 15 volunteers from the Montreal Volunteer Bureau was added. These volunteers all work as placement counsellors or receptionists in the Bureau's downtown office. Because of the small number of volunteers supervised by the Bureau's volunteer coordinator, and because they all are in direct contact with her, the ability of this supervisor to evaluate the volunteers was ideal. Because volunteers were asked to complete the questionnaire in person while at the office, the response rate for this sample was of 100%. Even though the supervisor was the one distributing the questionnaires, confidentiality was maintained by asking volunteers to seal the envelope and mail it themselves once the questionnaire was completed. The volunteer coordinator then completed an evaluation form for each of her volunteers.

Over and above their size differences, the main difference between the three organizations included in this study may lie in their organization of their volunteer workforce. In fact, two of them operate in a centralized manner, where the volunteer

coordinator is one of the main administrators and volunteers are responsible for most of the work performed in the organization (Adams & Shepherd, 1996). On the other hand, at the CLSC, volunteers are organized in a more decentralized manner, where the volunteer coordinator acts as a consultant to those staff members who supervise volunteers. The impact of this latter style of coordination is often that volunteers are managed by individuals who do not have the proper training or experience to do so (Fisher & Cole, 1993), and who may not realize that the expectations of volunteers are different from those of paid workers (Colomy, Chen & Andrews, 1987).

6.2 Data Collection Procedure

The data required for this study were collected through two different questionnaires. The first one was mailed to volunteers and asked them to provide a self-assessment of their motivation, satisfaction, intent to quit and perception of their tasks' characteristics. Volunteers received a pre-addressed, pre-stamped envelope, in which they were asked to return the questionnaire once completed. The questionnaires were received by the professor supervising this study, who took note of the number of the returned questionnaires (which were noted on the envelopes) and communicated them to the author of this thesis. All volunteers who were sent a questionnaire were called to ensure their participation, and those who had not returned their questionnaires within 3 weeks received a second phone call asking again for their collaboration.

Once a sufficient number of the first questionnaire was received, the 24 supervisors of the volunteers who had participated were asked to complete the second questionnaire. This questionnaire was distributed in person, and required the supervisors to rate their volunteers' performance, both in terms of task-related behaviours and of

organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). Supervisors were asked to complete the questionnaire and return it by mail; with the pre-stamped, pre-addressed envelope they were given. As an incentive to encourage participation, supervisors were given a small gourmet chocolate at the time of the first visit and were told that the first ten supervisors to send in their questionnaires would receive a bigger gourmet chocolate. All supervisors who sent in their questionnaires within two weeks received that prize, while those who had not returned their questionnaires after 3 weeks were visited once again to ask for their collaboration.

6.2.1 Volunteer Survey Variables

The first step in data collection was to mail a questionnaire to the 315 volunteers included in the first two samples described above (see appendix 11.1 for questionnaire).

Independent Variables

Job Diagnostic Survey (Job Characteristic Model)

The perceptions that volunteers have of their tasks was measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). All items (a total of 15) from the original JDS were used. These items asked volunteers to rate the 5 job characteristics on a 7-point scale. For 8 of these items, volunteers were asked to rate statements on a continuum ranging from complete agreement ("Very Accurate") to complete disagreement ("Very Inaccurate"). For example, one of the items measuring task variety asked respondents to rate whether the statement "My volunteer work requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills" by indicating whether this was "Very Inaccurate", "Very Accurate", or somewhere in between. The remaining 7 statements

had individual anchors that were adapted to each job dimension. As was explained earlier, the scores on each subscale (job dimension) were aggregated into an index measure of Motivation Potential (MPS). The five original job dimension proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) had an internal reliability ranging from .59 to .71. Table 1 presents a comparison table of those alphas and the ones obtained in this study.

Table 1: Internal reliabilities of JCM subscales

Job dimension	Alpha (this study)	Alpha (original study)
Autonomy	.68	.66
Task Identity	.56	.59
Skill Variety	.80	.71
Feedback from the job	.67	.71
Task significance	.60	.66

Motivation (Self-Determination Theory)

Motivation, as defined from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory (SDT), is seen as the source of the volunteer’s behaviour regulation. It was measured by using 16 items integrating four sub-scales, which were developed to measure the predominance of different motivation types (Gagné, 2000). Volunteers were asked “Why do you volunteer?” and presented with items which they were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert scale. This scale was anchored such that volunteers could indicate whether each item was “Not True at All”, “Somewhat True” or “Very True” for them. The four subscales represent the four “degrees” of autonomy in a volunteer’s motivation (i.e.: extrinsic, introjected, identified and intrinsic motivations). For example, someone who consistently rates highly on items such as “I volunteer because it is fun” and “I volunteer because it is interesting and enjoyable” would be assessed as highly intrinsically motivated. It should be noted that this scale was originally developed to assess behaviours towards the

environment and that its validity and reliability have been demonstrated in this context (Pelletier, Tuson, Green-Demers, Noels & Beaton, 1998). Table 2 compares the original alphas found by Pelletier et al. (1998) to the ones obtained in this study.

Table 2: Internal Reliabilities of SDT subscales

Motivation Type	Alpha (this study)	Alpha (original study)
Extrinsic	.39	.82
Introjected	.76	.79
Identified	.71	.81
Intrinsic	.77	.88

It should be noted that the low internal reliability of the extrinsic motivation subscale could potentially lead to non-significant results when testing for relationships between this type of motivation and other variables. However, because this subscale was a crucial component of calculating the RAI measure, which was used to test many of the proposed hypotheses, it was used nonetheless.

Dependent Variables

Number of volunteer hours

While previous studies have mostly considered tenure and the number of hours spent volunteering as measures of the performance of volunteers, this study attempted to clearly separate these quantitative measures of attendance from qualitative measures of performance. While the number of hours spent volunteering has been referred to as the ‘commitment’ of volunteers in previous studies (e.g.: Cnaan & Cascio, 1999), I looked at this measure as an independent indicator of volunteer involvement and measured it by asking volunteers to report directly the approximate number of hours they spent volunteering for this organization in 2004. This process was facilitated by the fact that

volunteers were required to keep track of their hours and provide them to the Volunteer Department at the beginning of the New Year, which coincided with the distribution of this questionnaire.

Intent to quit

Turnover intention, that is, an employee's intention to quit his/her job, has been shown to be, by far, the best predictor of actual turnover (Breukelen, Van Der Vlist & Steensma, 2004). The measure of turnover intent used in this study asked volunteers to rate the three following items: "It is likely that I will leave this organization within the next year", "I frequently think about leaving this organization" and "I frequently think about looking for volunteer work in another organization" on a 7-point continuum ranging from "Not true at all" to "Very true" (adapted from Camman & al., 1979, cited in Chen & al., 1998). This measure obtained an internal reliability of .69.

Satisfaction

The satisfaction measure used in this study was taken from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey. In defining satisfaction, the JCM positions it as an affective response to the job. As such, 'general satisfaction' is defined as "an overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p.162). This measure, as tested in the original model, included three items, one of which ("I frequently think of quitting job") was reversed. This item was not included for the purpose of this study, as it replicated an item from the "Intent to quit" measure (the correlation between this item of satisfaction and one of the items of intent to quit was .81). By removing this one item, the internal reliability of this measure increased from .74 to .79.

Other Variables

The first part of the survey asked volunteers to provide information about demographic variables such as their gender, age and level of education. These measures were used to test for interactions with the independent variables. Similarly, volunteers were asked how many times they were in contact with their supervisor over the past six months, as well as the number of meetings they attended on the organization's premise. The answer to these questions allowed to control for the lack of direct information that may potentially bias some supervisors' ratings, and to assess the impact of the relative isolation that some volunteers may experience in performing their assigned tasks.

6.2.2 Supervisor Survey Variables

Since each volunteer is supervised by one caseworker, the respective caseworkers of volunteers who completed the surveys were asked to assess their performance. This survey was shorter and assessed performance as a multidimensional construct by asking supervisors to rate, on a 7-point Likert-scale, whether 16 different statements are "Not True", "Somewhat True" or "Very True" (see appendix 11.2 for questionnaire). Supervisors were also given the opportunity to indicate that they did not possess enough information to evaluate an item (NI) or that an item did not apply to the volunteer's task (NA).

The 16 statements on this questionnaire included 4 task-related items, 8 OCB-related items, 3 general items taken from the current evaluation form used by CLSC workers, and 1 item assessing whether the caseworkers felt that they had enough information to complete the questionnaire. The 4 task-related items were adapted from Williams & Anderson (1991) and obtained an internal reliability of .76. For example,

supervisors were asked to rate on a scale from 1 to 7 whether the volunteer “Adequately completes assigned duties” or “Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform” (reversed item). The 8 OCB items were also adapted from Williams & Anderson (1991) to better reflect the volunteering context. Their alpha was of .86. For example, the item “Goes out of his/her way to help new employees” was adapted to “Goes out of his/her way to help new volunteers”. It should be noted that items adapted from Williams and Anderson were chosen to best represent the elements that were believed to make up performance in the diverse roles that volunteers in this sample were playing. Specifically, since many volunteers were working individually, only 2 items of their OCBI (OCBs toward individuals) were chosen, such that the remaining 6 OCB items were taken from the OCBO (OCBs toward the organization) scale.

Finally, the three items that were taken from the current evaluation form assessed the volunteer’s degree of openness to supervision, his/her ability to maintain a good relationship with the caseworker and the client’s satisfaction. These items were included for exploratory purposes.

7. Data Analysis and Results

7.1 Demographics

A relatively high response rate was obtained, as 43% (143 out of 330) of the volunteers contacted returned the questionnaires. This can be explained in part by the fact that all volunteers were called personally to ask them to complete the survey, and in part by the fact that pre-addressed and pre-stamped envelopes were included in the mailing, thus making participation as easy as possible. Out of those who sent back the questionnaire, 4 had not included enough information to be included in the study, having

only filled the demographic questions, and 5 had not completed it at all, replying only to let us know that they were no longer involved with the organization. Therefore, 134 volunteer surveys were used in the data analysis. Out of those volunteers, 69.4% were women. Table 3 summarizes the other key demographics that were measured, showing that a majority of volunteers (57.5%) had obtained a university degree and that 55.4% of them were over 55 years old. It also shows that the majority of respondents were only affected to one volunteer task at the time when they filled the survey, and that 53.1% of them had been involved with the organization for over 2 years. Finally, volunteers had spent on average 74 hours volunteering for the organization in the past year, with over 50% of them having given at least 50 hours of their time. Figures 2 and 3 provide a break down of the age and education levels of volunteers. Figure 4 breaks down the total number of participants by organization for which they were volunteering.

Table 3: Demographics and levels of involvement

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	54 years old	19.92 years (34 to 74 years old)
Education	3.56 (Bachelors)	1.28 (High School to Bachelors)
Tenure	159.54 weeks (3 years)	189.24 weeks (0 to 7 years)
Hours of volunteer work	74.3 hours	82.95 hours (0 to 157 hours)

Figure 2: Age of respondents

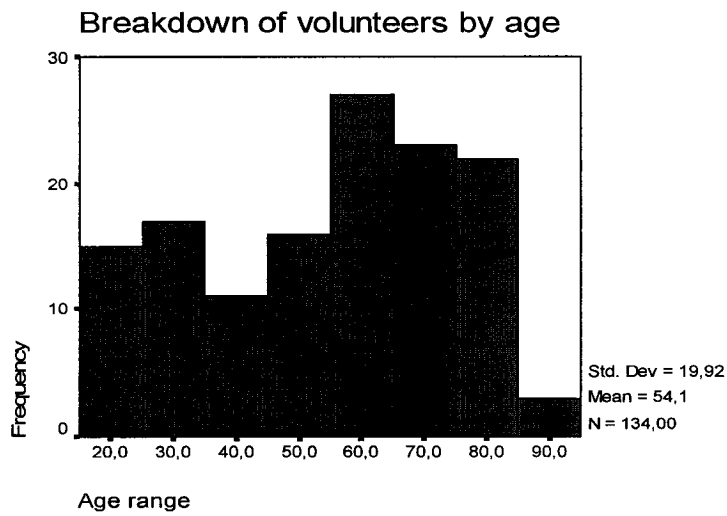


Figure 3: Education level of respondents

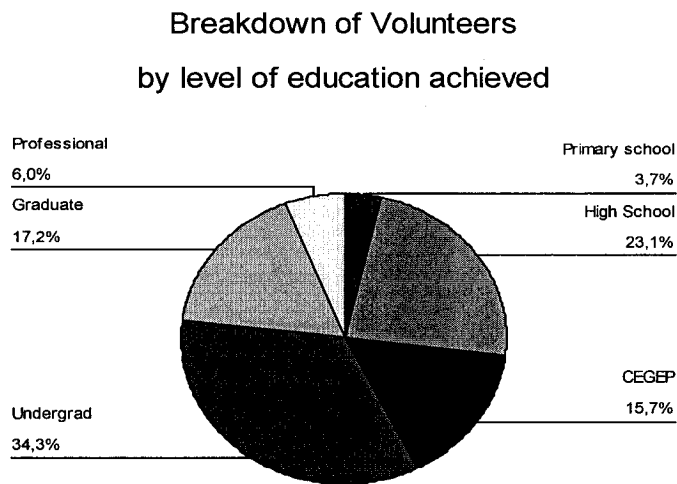
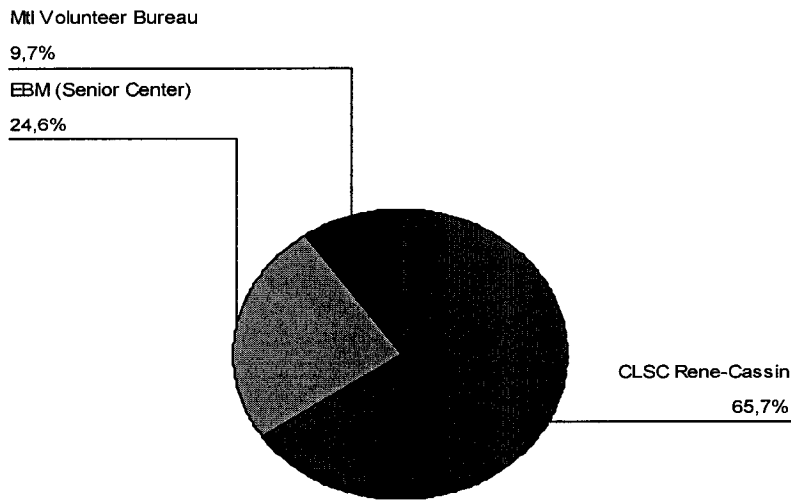


Figure 4: Organizations where respondents were volunteering

Breakdown of volunteers by organization



7.2 Descriptive Statistics

In order to better grasp the variability inherent in the data set, all variables included in this study were tested for skewness and kurtosis. Most of these variables were found to lie within the appropriate range (-2 to 2). However, certain variables exceeded these parameters. In terms of skewness, the number of hours that volunteers worked in the organization was distributed in a slightly asymmetric manner (2.252). This same variable (number of hours) also had a higher kurtosis (peak) than usual (6.26), such that there is little variability in the number of hours that volunteers worked. Similarly, there was little variability (high kurtosis) in the volunteers' tenure (3.842) and their level of satisfaction (3.639). Knowing that such restrictions on the data's variability would lower the likelihood of finding significant relationships, the "Hours" variable was transformed into its natural log. This strategy is one that is often used for variables measuring time, such as is the case here (Olsen, 1987). While this transformation ensured

normal variability (lowering the skewness of the “Hours” variable from 2.25 to -.539), it did not significantly change the results of correlation analyses. Therefore, the original (untransformed) “Hours” variable was used. Similarly, the “Tenure” variable was tentatively transformed into its squared root, as advised by Olsen (1987) for this type of variable. While this transformation also helped make the variable normally distributed, it did not impact significantly on results, and therefore the original data was used. Finally, the “Satisfaction” variable was not transformed, since its irregular variability did not impede from finding positive relationships, as we will now see.

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for the variables included in this study. All questions used to test for those variables were measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The number of respondents varies slightly from one variable to the next because some volunteers did not answer all questions. Their surveys were included nonetheless, inasmuch as they had completed all the items for at least two of the major variables of the study (i.e., motivation, satisfaction or perception of job characteristics). The number of respondents for performance items (in-role performance and OCB) is slightly lower ($n = 121$ while $n = 128$ for other variables). This is because performance was measured in a separate questionnaire, answered by the volunteers’ supervisors. The lower participation rate can be explained by the unavailability of 3 supervisors, who were no longer working for the organization. While the volunteers in question had been assigned to new supervisors, these new supervisors had not had the time to familiarize themselves with the volunteers’ work at the time of the completion of this second survey.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Extrinsic Motive	127	2.138	1.330
Introjected Motive	126	3.770	1.622
Identified Motive	129	4.985	1.468
Intrinsic Motive	127	5.010	1.382
RAI	126	6.917	4.334
Autonomy	128	4.947	1.472
Feedback from job	128	4.600	1.423
Task Significance	128	4.975	1.369
Task Identity	127	4.864	1.475
Skill Variety	128	3.961	1.685
MPS	127	115.12	68.42
Satisfaction	130	5.927	1.110
Thinks of Quitting	128	2.427	1.531
In-role Performance	121	6.023	1.110
CB Performance	122	5.701	1.156

Looking at the descriptive statistics obtained, we realize that the strongest motivation to volunteer was intrinsic, followed by identified. Introjected motivation was not as strong, and extrinsic motivation was the weakest. From these items, we see that, in the sample studied, autonomous motives seem to be more important than controlled ones. To confirm this, the Relative Autonomy Index (RAI) was calculated. To do so, the formula presented earlier was used ($RAI = 2*(intrinsic) + 1*(identified) - 1*(introjected) - 2*(extrinsic)$), and it was found that the RAI scores range from -6 to 17, with a mean RAI of 6.92 ($n = 126, SD = 4.33$). To better understand this result, consider that RAI scores can range from -18 to 18, and that negative scores imply that controlled motives are stronger than autonomous ones, while positive scores mean that autonomous motives are stronger. Based on the mean RAI obtained, therefore, the volunteers included in this study were more driven by autonomous motives than they were by controlled ones.

In terms of job perceptions, there were more volunteers who considered that their tasks were significant, allowed them a certain degree of autonomy, and had an identifiable beginning and end than volunteers who did not think so. Similarly, we see that volunteers were more likely to think that their tasks allowed them to use varied skills, and that they were able to know how they were performing by looking at the clues provided by the job itself. Once this information was aggregated through the MPS, it was clear that the Motivating Potential of the volunteers' tasks varied greatly. In fact, while the MPS can theoretically range from 3 to 323, answers varied between 56 and 235. Table 5 shows the different roles taken on by volunteers, along with a short description, the number of volunteers playing that role, and the mean MPS for each task. This table enables us to see clearly that the MPS captures the inherent differences in volunteers' job characteristics and, as such, is an appropriate measure to use in testing the hypotheses.

Table 5. Types of Volunteer Work Engaged in by Respondents

Activity	Brief description of activity	Number of volunteers performing this activity	Mean MPS
In-Home Stimulation	One-on-one companionship and exercises with cognitively or physically impaired seniors	2	235.17
Early Childhood Assistance	Assist disadvantaged mothers in taking care of their young children	3	209.41
Info-Abuse Line	Answer phone line, give support and resources on elder abuse	10	170.62
Accompanier	Accompany to medical visits	10	165.75
Animating Activities	Organize and animate weekly group activities for isolated seniors	5	165.40
CareRing	Screen participants for a caretaker conference call support group	9	156.08
Board Membership	Participate in administrative decisions in the running of a non-profit organization	7	141.16
Shopper	Bring food to shut-in seniors	14	129.29
Placement Counsellor	Help prospective volunteers find the activities that are best suited to their interests	7	126.95
DropIn Center	Help run a center for disabled seniors	9	116.66
Friendly Visitor	Visit isolated seniors once a week	24	114.15
Income Tax Clinic	Help low-income individuals prepare their income tax papers	3	90.04
Translation	Translate documents	1	88.67
Administrative Work	Help with mailings, photocopying, running errands, make phone calls, etc.	8	83.61
Tutoring	Help kids with homework	1	82.20
Receptionist	Answer the phone, clerical tasks	7	80.58
Driver	Drive to medical visits	6	79.49
Flu Vaccination Clinic	Help direct seniors and maintain order during vaccination clinic	19	75.04
Mall Walk	Enter walkers' statistics into computer	5	63.96
Computer Work	Enter data, prepare documents	1	56.31
TOTAL		151 activities (1.3 per vol.)	115.12 (mean MPS)

As for other outcomes of volunteer work, the rate of volunteers' satisfaction was very high and few of them were thinking of quitting. Similarly, supervisors rated most volunteers' in-role performance as outstanding and considered that a large majority of volunteers performed OCBs.

Since volunteers included in this survey worked in three different organizations, tests were conducted to see whether the work location had a significant effect on the main variables included in this study. ANOVA tests were performed to assess potential mean differences in RAI, MPS, number of hours, intent to quit, satisfaction and both in-role and OCB performance. The only significant mean differences were found for hours ($F = 10.69, p < .01$), in-role performance ($F = 3.07, p < .05$) and OCB ($F = 5.34, p < .01$). More specifically, the Volunteer Bureau's volunteers had spent significantly more time with the organization ($M = 172$ hours, $SD = 101$), compared to EBM's ($M = 71.4$ hours, $SD = 81$) and the CLSC's ($M = 61.9$ hours, $SD = 72.3$) volunteers. Similarly, the Volunteer Bureau's volunteers were seen as performing significantly more OCBs ($M = 6.52, SD = .69$), compared to their CLSC ($M = 5.7, SD = 1.17$) and their EBM ($M = 5.32, SD = 1.11$) counterparts. Finally, EBM volunteers performed significantly better on in-role performance dimensions ($M = 6.42, SD = 1.04$) than volunteers at either the Volunteer Bureau ($M = 5.85, SD = .96$) or the CLSC ($M = 5.88, SD = 1.13$).

Also of interest, females scored significantly higher on autonomous motivation than did males ($F = 5.28, p < .05$). In fact, the mean RAI score for females was 7.51 ($SD = 4.13$), while males' mean RAI score was 5.64 ($SD = 4.54$).

7.3 Testing the hypotheses

7.3.1 Correlations; A preliminary test of hypotheses

While all 6 hypotheses (and sub-hypotheses) were tested using regression analyses, looking at Table 6, which provides the correlations for all the variables included in these hypotheses, provides a first glimpse at the way the results unfold.

Table 6: Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1- Age	(-)																		
2- Tenure	.412**	(-)																	
3- Hours	.037	.253**	(-)																
4- Extrin	-.385**	-.033	.041	(.39)															
5- Introject	.157	.229*	.118	.142	(.76)														
6- Identified	.168	.182*	.055	-.059	.612**	(.71)													
7- Intrinsic	.051	.194*	.200*	.017	.320**	.508**	(.77)												
8- RAI	.260**	.112	.104	-.67**	-.057	.449**	.663**	(-)											
9- Identity	-.082	.149	.205*	.032	-.151	-.111	.042	.024	(.56)										
10- Variety	-.024	-.039	.079	.026	.010	.129	.248**	.173	.125	(.80)									
11- Auton	-.209*	.069	.100	.081	.063	.091	.285**	.119	.390**	.390**	(.68)								
12- Fedbak	-.014	.150	-.004	-.114	-.057	.089	.234**	.253**	.352**	.407**	.210*	(.67)							
13- Signif	-.113	-.168	.014	-.105	.143	.208*	.299**	.253**	.229**	.533**	.277**	.416**	(.60)						
14- MPS	-.049	.113	.127	-.038	.015	.124	.354**	.285**	.535**	.634**	.665**	.728**	.578**	(-)					
15- Satisf	-.104	-.022	.153	-.224*	-.008	.249**	.360**	.415**	.204*	.295**	.378**	.259**	.413**	.392**	(.735)				
16- Quit	-.054	-.076	-.028	.023	-.114	-.149	-.095	-.047	-.081	-.010	-.111	-.067	-.254**	-.123	-.400**	(.80)			
17- Inrole	-.039	.136	.080	-.015	.082	.106	.080	.066	.090	.188*	.307**	.080	.187*	.285**	.161°	-.151	(.76)		
18- OCB	.076	.046	.222*	-.041	-.073	-.005	.048	.083	.026	.173°	.125	.063	.013	.166	.145	-.225*	.629**	(.86)	

** : Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* : Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

° : Correlation significant at 0.10 level (2-tailed)

Hypothesis 1 suggested that job characteristics (as measured through the MPS) would improve the outcomes of volunteerism. The correlations in Table 6 show that this is the case for volunteers' satisfaction ($r = .39$), as well as their in-role performance ($r = .29$). Contrary to the hypotheses, however, no correlations were found between the MPS and volunteers' number of hours, intent to quit or performance of OCBs.

Looking at the motivation variables, it is clear that while extrinsic motivation does not relate to any of the other types of motivation, the more autonomous types are all related to one another. In fact, a "quasi-simplex" pattern can be observed, that is, types of motivation which are closer to one another on the autonomous motivation continuum are more strongly related to one another (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In fact, intrinsic motivation and identified motivation have a correlation of .51, while identified and introjected motivations have a correlation of .61, and intrinsic motivation and introjected motivation (which are further away on the continuum) have a correlation of only .32. This finding suggests that the use of SDT in the volunteer setting is indeed appropriate, as it reflects patterns similar to ones found in workplace settings. The only exception to this pattern comes from the extrinsic motivation subscale, which, as mentioned, was uncorrelated because of its low internal reliability.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that autonomous motivation (as measured through the RAI), would impact the outcomes of volunteerism. This turned out to be partially accurate, as a correlation was found between autonomous motivation and satisfaction ($r = .42$). However, no correlations were found between autonomous motivation and in-role performance, OCBs, number of hours or intent to quit.

Hypothesis 3 suggested that better job characteristics would lead to higher autonomous motivation. There was a clear relationship between MPS and both the RAI ($r = .29$) and intrinsic motivation taken individually ($r = .35$). Looking at specific task characteristics, feedback from the job ($r = .25$) and task significance ($r = .25$) seem to have the strongest relationship with volunteers' autonomous motivation.

In the literature review, it was proposed that, just as is the case for paid workers, the performance of volunteers could be assessed through two distinct constructs, that is, in-role performance and OCBs. Since the results cited so far can neither confirm nor disconfirm this proposition, the similarities and differences that Table 6 allows to point out between these two concepts were examined.

The first correlation that was intuitively examined in order to test whether OCBs are distinct from in-role performance for volunteers was the correlation between these two performance variable. Seeing that this correlation was strong ($r = .63$), it could have been immediately decided that the two concepts were really one and the same. However, since it was already noted that this may not be a clear-cut matter, the investigation was pushed further and it was noted that, for 7 of the variables included in this study, the results were different between in-role and OCB-type performances. In fact, while the number of hours that volunteers spent in the organization in the previous year was significantly related to their performance of OCBs ($r = .22$), it did not relate to their in-role performance evaluations. Similarly, volunteers who performed OCBs were less likely to think of quitting ($r = -.23$), while this was not true of volunteers who performed well on in-role items.

While these differences pointed in the direction of the original hypotheses, some of them did just the opposite. For example, satisfaction was marginally related to in-role performance ($r = .16$), while this was not the case for OCB performance. Also going against findings in previous research, higher scores on job characteristics such as variety ($r = .18$), task significance ($r = .19$), and autonomy ($r = .31$), as well as the aggregated MPS ($r = .29$) were found to be positively related to in-role performance, but not to OCBs.

Having noted that some correlations supported the idea that OCB is distinct from in-role performance, the strong correlation between these two concepts still needed to be acknowledged. To better understand this, a factor analysis including the 12 performance items adapted from Williams and Anderson (1991) was performed, and only 1 Eigenvalue higher than 1 was found. In fact, all items loaded on one factor with loadings between .43 and .90. According to this test, therefore, there was only one construct representing performance, that is, in-role performance and OCB were not distinct constructs. It should be noted that a similar factor analysis, controlling for the organization where the volunteers were engaged, also only revealed one Eigenvalue for performance items (with all items receiving factor loadings between .45 and .93), such that organizations did not impact the ability to distinguish between in-role performance and OCBs.

This issue is revisited in the next section, where regression analyses are used to test the hypotheses. For the moment, it can be acknowledged that hypothesis 5a, which suggested that job characteristics would lead to better in-role performance ($r = .29$) is likely to be the only hypothesis relating to performance which will be supported, since no

correlations were found between either the MPS and OCB or between the RAI and either of in-role performance or OCB. Similarly, because the distinction between in-role performance and OCB isn't clear, hypothesis 6, which proposed size effects in the impact of both RAI And MPS on each type of performance, is not likely to be supported.

7.3.2 Regression Analyses

To examine Hypothesis 1 (a, b, and c), which proposed relationships between the JCM and satisfaction, number of hours and intent to quit, regression analyses were run using the MPS variable calculated in the previous section. Results support hypothesis 1a, which proposed that the MPS would be related to satisfaction, $R^2 = .17$, $\beta = .32$, $p < .001$. It can therefore be said that volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS are more likely to be satisfied with their work. On the other hand, hypotheses 1b and 1c were not supported, as no relationships were found between the MPS and the number of hours worked, $R^2 = .02$, $\beta = .13$, *ns.*, or between the MPS and the likelihood that volunteers think of leaving the organization, $R^2 = .02$, $\beta = -.13$, *ns.* In light of those two rejected hypotheses, and knowing that the use of the MPS as an aggregate score has been controversial at best in the literature, I decided to look at the 5 job characteristics individually to assess whether one or more of them may be more appropriate in predicting volunteers' involvement and turnover.

The relationship that was found between the MPS and satisfaction was supported by the relationships that were found between satisfaction and every individual job dimension. In fact, there are relationships between satisfaction and task identity, $R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .20$, $p < .05$, skill variety, $R^2 = .08$, $\beta = .30$, $p < .001$, autonomy, $R^2 = .14$, $\beta = .38$, $p < .001$, task significance, $R^2 = .16$, $\beta = .41$, $p < .001$, and feedback from the job, $R^2 = .06$,

$\beta = .26, p < .01$. Looking at the relationships between these individual job dimensions, Hypotheses 1b and 1c must be rejected, as there are no significant relationships between any of the 5 job dimensions and the number of hours that volunteers work. As for the relationship between volunteers' perception of their job characteristics and their intent to quit, only the perceived significance of their tasks is related to their intention to stay with the organization, $R^2 = .06, \beta = -.25, p < .01$.

Hypothesis 2 (a, b, and c) proposed relationships between volunteers' degree of autonomous motivation and their satisfaction, number of hours worked and intent to quit. Regression analyses which included the RAI as an independent variable and the outcomes of volunteer work as dependent variables were run. Hypothesis 2a, which suggested that volunteers who scored high on autonomous motivation were more likely to be satisfied, was supported, $R^2 = .17, \beta = .42, p < .001$. However, just as was the case for hypothesis 1b and 1c, no support for hypotheses 2b and 2c was found. Hypothesis 2b, which proposed a relationship between volunteers' autonomous motivation and the number of hours they worked, $R^2 = .01, \beta = .10, ns.$, was therefore rejected, along with hypothesis 2c, which claimed a relationship between volunteers' motivations and their intentions to quit, $R^2 = .00, \beta = -.05, ns.$

Hypothesis 3a proposed that volunteers who perceived their job as having a high Motivating Potential Score (MPS) would have higher degrees of autonomous motivation than volunteers who perceived their jobs as having a low MPS. To test this hypothesis, the RAI was regressed on the MPS, and it was found that Hypothesis 3a was supported, $R^2 = .08, \beta = .29, p < .001$. In fact, 8.1% of the variance in the degree of autonomous

motivation (RAI) can be accounted for by the changes in volunteers' perceptions of their tasks (MPS).

Hypothesis 4 (a, b and c) proposed that the impact of the job characteristics on the outcomes of volunteer work could, at least partially, be explained by their impact on volunteers' autonomous motivation. Since no relationships were found between either the number of hours or the intent to quit and the MPS or the RAI, mediations between these variables were not tested. In fact, such correlations would be absolutely necessary to the existence of a mediating relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, hypotheses 4b and 4c were not supported.

In order to test Hypothesis 4a, which proposes that the impact of the job characteristics on satisfaction can be explained through the impact of those characteristics on motivation, the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. As they suggested, three conditions are necessary to prove that autonomous motivation is, in fact, a mediating variable in the proposed model. The first condition is that both the MPS alone, $R^2 = .17$, $\beta = .41$, $p < .001$, and the RAI alone, $R^2 = .17$, $\beta = .42$, $p < .001$, must account for significant variations in satisfaction. The second condition is that the MPS must account for significant variations in the RAI, $R^2 = .08$, $\beta = .29$, $p < .001$. Both of these conditions have already been established as hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a were supported.

The third, and final, condition requires that the relationship between MPS and satisfaction become nonsignificant when motivation is entered into the equation. More specifically, in order to confirm a full mediation effect, this relationship should become nonsignificant and a Sobel test should be significant (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003).

However, partial mediation effects can be confirmed when this relationship becomes weaker, but still significant, and the Sobel test is significant. In order to find out if this would occur, a two-step regression was performed. I found that the relationship between MPS and satisfaction when RAI was added dropped slightly but was still significant ($\beta = .32, p < .001$), while RAI was significant as well ($\beta = .32, p < .001$).

Having found that the direct relationship between the MPS and satisfaction was weaker when the RAI as a mediator was controlled for, I confirmed the partial mediation effect by using the “Goodman 1” version of the Sobel test (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003). Looking at the relationship between job characteristics and satisfaction (supported in Hypothesis 1a), I found the first set of values to enter into the Sobel equation ($a = .018, SD = .01$). Similarly, I found the second set of values required to run this equation by looking at the already established relationship between autonomous motivation and satisfaction ($b = .076, SD = .019$). Running the Sobel test, I then obtained a test statistic of 2.37 ($p < .05$), which demonstrated that autonomous motivation does act as a mediating variable and, consequently, that Hypothesis 4a is partially supported.

Hypothesis 5 looked at the relationship between the model’s main variables (MPS and RAI) and performance as a special outcome of volunteer work. Before looking at the results of the hypothesis tests, it must first be acknowledged that the concepts of in-role performance and OCBs in volunteer work do not appear to be as clearly distinct as was suggested. In fact, as was mentioned earlier, the correlation between both types of performance is of .63, and the factor analysis revealed only one Eigenvalue, pointing to the existence of only one factor of performance. However, since

there were some signs that pointed to the possibility of OCB being different from in-role performance in certain cases, Hypothesis 5 was nonetheless tested.

In order to do so, I first reviewed the link between job characteristics and both types of performance. Hypothesis 5a suggested that volunteers who perceive their tasks as having a high MPS would be rated as higher performers on task-related items. This hypothesis was supported, $R^2 = .08$, $\beta = .29$, $p < .01$. However, Hypothesis 5b, which suggested that volunteers who rate higher of the job characteristics would perform more OCBs, was not supported, $R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .16$, *ns*.

I then looked at the hypotheses regarding the relationship between autonomous motivation and performance. In Hypothesis 5c, I had suggested that volunteers who scored high on autonomous motivation would be rated as higher performers on task-related items. This hypothesis was not supported, $R^2 = .00$, $\beta = .07$, *ns*. Similarly, no support was found for Hypothesis 5d, which proposed that volunteers who were autonomously motivated would perform more OCBs, $R^2 = .01$, $\beta = .08$, *ns*. Having rejected these hypotheses, it is clear that Hypotheses 5e and 5f, which proposed that the RAI could be a mediator between the JCM and performance measures, were not supported either. This is a given, since a relationship between the RAI and performance measures would have been necessary to supporting such mediating potential (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In Hypothesis 6, I had tried to predict the different effect sizes that would be part of the relationships I was predicting between both the MPS and the RAI and performance measures. More specifically, Hypothesis 6a predicted that the relationship between the MPS and OCB would be greater than the relationship between the MPS and in-role

performance. Since no relationship was found between the MPS and OCB but one was found between the MPS and in-role performance, Hypothesis 6a was rejected. Similarly, Hypothesis 6b proposed that the relationship between the RAI and OCB measures would be greater than that found between the RAI and in-role performance measures. Since no relationships were found between the RAI and either of the performance measures, Hypothesis 6b was rejected.

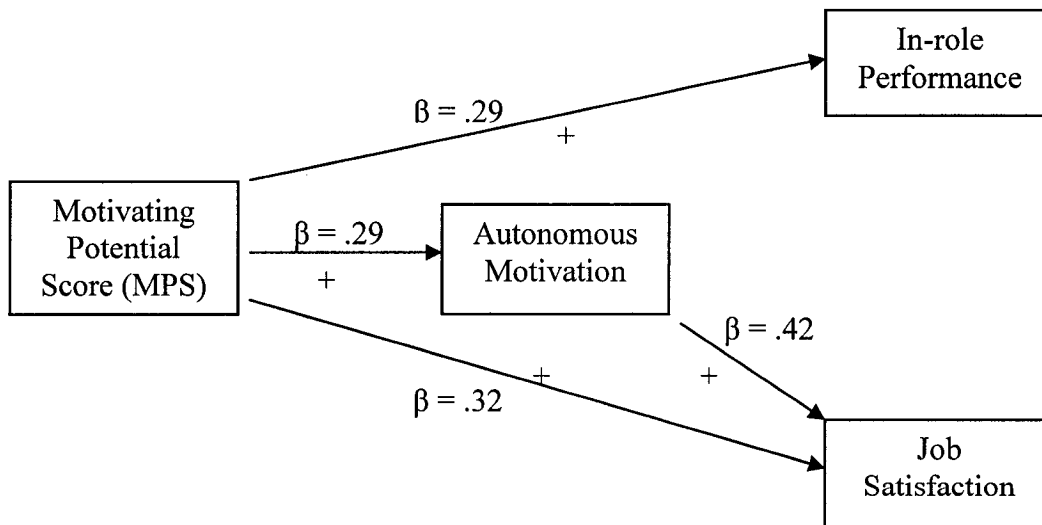
In order to control for the impact that working in different organizations may have had on volunteers' experiences, regression analyses controlling for organizations (using two dummy codes) were run. The general pattern of results remained the same as that reported above. However, when controlling for organizations, the MPS was found to have a slightly larger effect on satisfaction, $R^2 = .19$, $\beta = .38$, $p < .01$, and to be related to performance of OCB, $R^2 = .13$, $\beta = .19$, $p < .01$, which was not the case when organizations were not controlled for. Because this is a borderline effect and the relationship between MPS and OCB is a marginal one at best, and because Hypothesis 5b originally did not take into consideration this control variable, original results will be considered.

Table 7 summarizes the above findings by indicating which hypotheses were supported and which ones were rejected. Figure 5 shows a revised model with confirmed hypotheses.

Table 7: Summary of findings

Hypotheses	Supported	Not Supported
1a) MPS - Satisfaction	√	
1b) MPS – Nb. Hours		√
1c) MPS - Quitting		√
2a) RAI - Satisfaction	√	
2b) RAI – No. Hours		√
2c) RAI - Quitting		√
3a) MPS - RAI	√	
4a) MPS – RAI - Satisfaction	√	
4b) MPS – RAI – No. hours		√
4c) MPS – RAI - Quitting		√
5a) MPS – Inrole Perf	√	
5b) RAI – Inrole Perf		√
5c) MPS – RAI – Inrole Perf		√
5d) MPS - OCB		√
5e) RAI – OCB		√
5f) MPS – RAI – OCB Perf		√
6a) MPS – Inrole < MPS - OCB		√
6b) RAI – Inrole < RAI - OCB		√

Figure 5: Revised Model

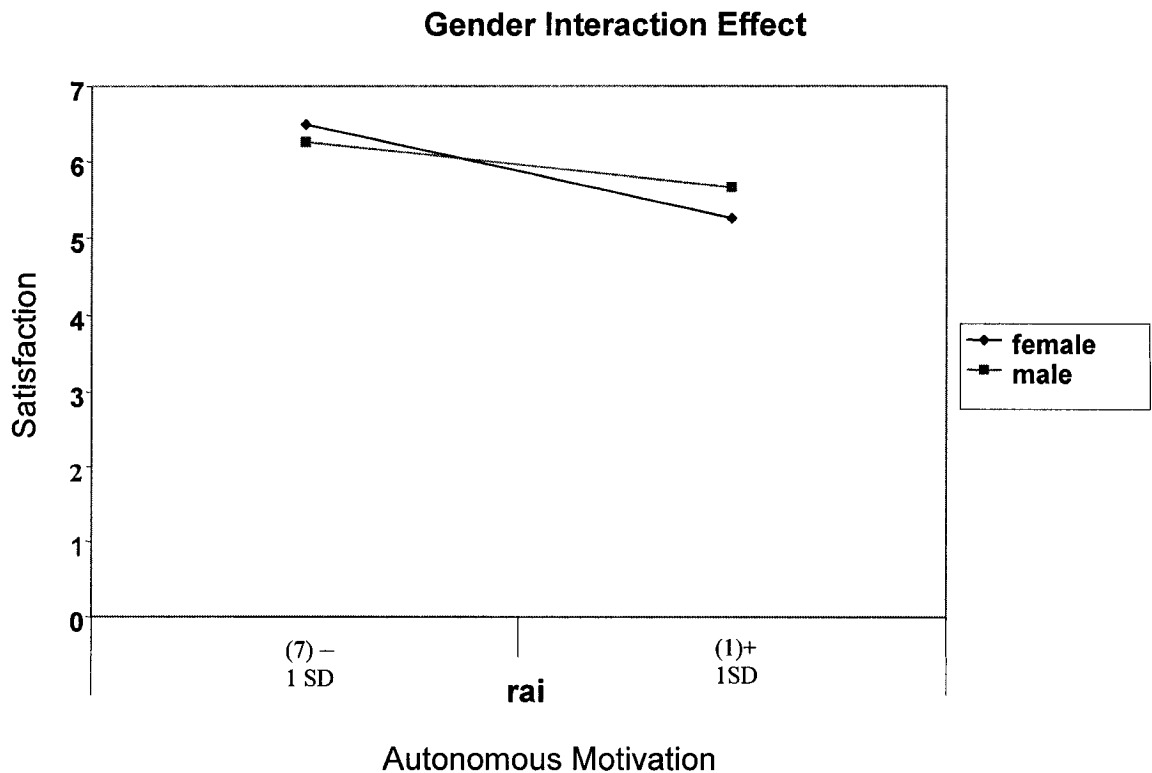


7.3.3 Further Analyses

In order to better understand the results and their implications, it is important to consider all the information available. In this study, certain variables, though not part of the hypotheses, were included for exploratory purposes. In light of the results reported above, I thought appropriate to pay closer attention to them.

Demographic variables were used to test for possible interaction effects with the main variables included in this study. While tests were run with all these variables, only one interaction effect was found. Figure 6 shows that interaction, which occurs through the impact of the gender variable on the relationship between the RAI and satisfaction. As we can see, women's level of satisfaction tends to be more affected by their level of autonomous motivation than men's. This specific test was run with the data contributed by a total of 126 volunteers. 86 of them were females, while the other 40 were males.

Figure 6: Interaction Effect



Another exploratory variable that will be considered is the amount of information that supervisors had in order to complete volunteers' ratings. Results show that, on average, supervisors claimed to have sufficient information to adequately evaluate volunteers ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 1.64$). However, asking supervisors to rate their own ability to perform part of their job creates potential for false assertions. Additionally, it is possible that supervisors who have never received any training in working with volunteers and are inexperienced might underestimate the work that such a responsibility creates and genuinely believe that they have all the information they need, when in fact, they might not. It is for that reason that closer attention was paid to this variable.

The variable "supervisor has enough information" was normally distributed, enabling us to examine its relationships with other indicators included in this study. As could be expected, volunteers who worked more hours ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), had more contacts with staff members ($r = .30$, $p < .001$), and received more feedback from others ($r = .29$, $p < .001$), were supervised by staff members who think they had enough information to rate them. Some other exploratory variables also point to interesting relationships. For example, supervisors who thought they had enough information to assess volunteers tended to have a better relationship with them ($r = .37$, $p < .001$) and to believe that they were more open to criticism ($r = .32$, $p < .001$). Of course, it could be that a better relationship encourages freer communications, or vice-versa. Interestingly, volunteers were more likely to be rated as high performers on both in-role ($r = .26$, $p < .001$) and OCB ($r = .42$, $p < .001$) items when supervisors thought they had enough information to rate them.

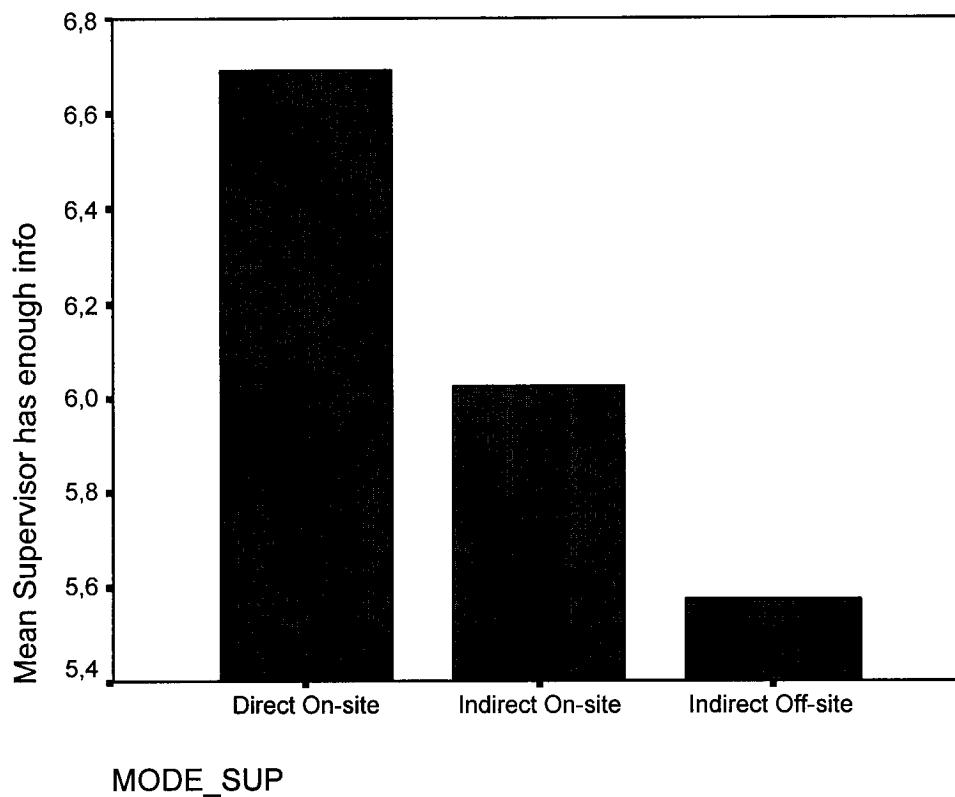
Realizing that performance ratings were influenced by the amount of information supervisors had, I wondered whether the inability to distinguish between the two performance constructs might be due to supervisors' lack of information, in that supervisors who didn't observe volunteers' work directly may have completed the questionnaire based on general impressions of their work. Table 8 shows the distribution of volunteers' tasks, based on their availability for observation by supervisors. Looking at that distribution, only 24% of the tasks performed by volunteers were actually directly observed by supervisors on a regular basis. 32% of tasks were performed on-site, but with infrequent contacts with the supervisor. Finally, 44% of tasks were performed off-site, with no direct observation possible for supervisors. It should be noted that the level of observation was determined based on the observation possible for the supervisor who completed the volunteers' evaluation. That is, even if other staff members were present, only the level of observation available to the one staff person who was asked to participate in this study was considered.

Table 8: Impact of activity and mode of supervision on information available

Mode of supervision	Activity	Number of Vols	Supervisor's Level of Information (1 to 7)	
Direct, on-site (mode 1)	Activity Animators	5	7.00	
	Administrative work	8	6.22	
	Board members	7	7.00	
	Drop-In Center	9	6.67	
	Receptionist	7	7.00	
	<i>Total Direct, on-site</i>		36 (23.84%)	6.78
Indirect, on-site (mode 2)	CareRing	9	4.40	
	Computer work	1	7.00	
	Flu Clinic	19	5.59	
	Income Tax Clinic	3	5.00	
	Info-Abuse Line	10	6.50	
	Placement Counselor	7	7.00	
	<i>Total indirect, on-site</i>		49 (32.5%)	5.92
Indirect, off-site (mode 3)	Accompaniers	10	6.88	
	Drivers	6	4.20	
	Early Childhood Assistance	3	4.00	
	Friendly Visitors	24	5.53	
	In-Home Stimulation	2	6.00	
	Mall Walk	5	4.00	
	Shoppers	14	6.11	
	Translation	1	4.00	
	Tutoring	1	4.00	
	<i>Total indirect, off-site</i>		66 (43.71%)	4.97
	TOTAL		151 (100%)	5.89

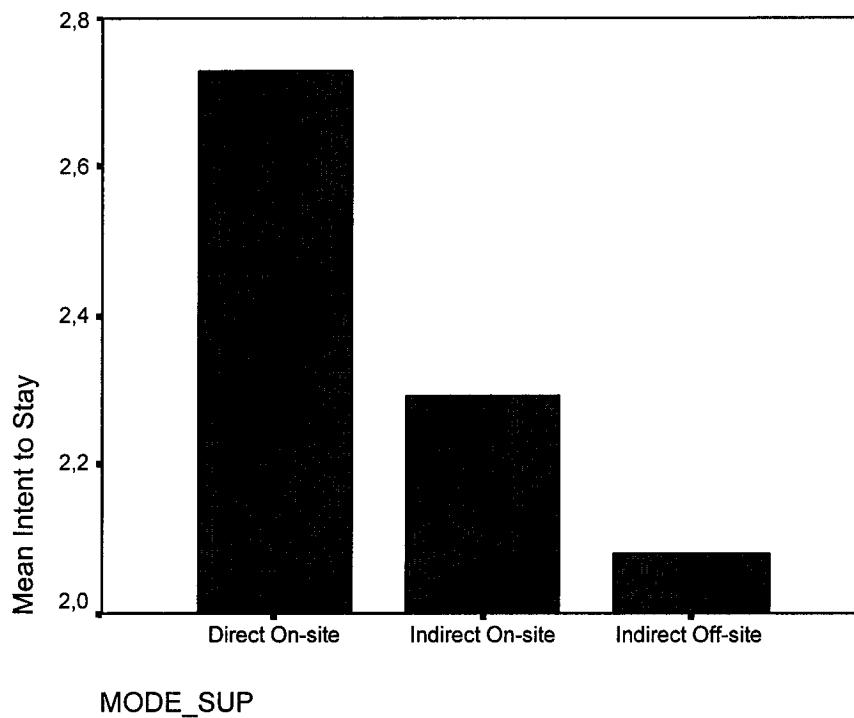
In order to verify whether there were significant differences between volunteers supervised directly or indirectly and on-site or off-site, ANOVA tests were run with the mode of supervision as an independent variable. Testing for impact on the information available to supervisors, a significant difference was found between the three subgroups ($F = 3.06, p < .05$). By performing an LSD test, it was found that the main difference lied between the direct on-site and the indirect off-site groups (*mean difference* = 1.11, $p < .05$). The direct on-site and indirect on-site groups were found to be only marginally different (*mean difference* = .66, $p < .10$), while there was no significant difference between the on-site and off-site indirect supervision modes. Figure 7 shows the impact of the mode of supervision on the information available to supervisors.

Figure 7: Impact of Mode of Supervision on Information Available



Seeing that the role played by volunteers influenced the quality of their relationship with their supervisors, it was considered that liking might play a role in supervisors' ratings. Testing for this possibility, significant correlations between the quality of a supervisors' relationship with a volunteer and both in-role ($r = .67, p < .01$) and OCB ($r = .75, p < .01$) ratings were found. While an ANOVA test showed no difference in the way the mode of supervision influenced performance ratings, it was found that volunteers were significantly less likely to think of quitting ($F = 6.11, p < .001$) when they were supervised directly and worked at the same location as their supervisors. To figure out which mode of supervision was most likely to impact on staying intentions, a post-hoc LSD test was run, and a significant difference was found between the staying intent of volunteers who are supervised directly and on-site (mode 1) and those who are supervised indirectly and off-site (mode 3) (*mean difference* = .65, $p < .05$). Just as was the case earlier, it seems that the main difference between the modes of supervision resided in whether volunteers worked on-site or off-site. Figure 8 illustrates the impact of these modes on volunteers' intent to stay with the organization.

Figure 8: Impact of Mode of Supervision on Intent to Stay



Finally, interaction variables were created to verify whether the amount of information that supervisors had impacted on the performance ratings of volunteers. Regressions were run, but no significant interactions effects were found, whether with in-role performance or with OCB.

8. Discussion

8.1 Interpretation of findings

Summary of supported hypotheses

In this study, the relationships between job characteristics, autonomous motivation, performance, satisfaction and tenure were tested. As was seen in Table 7, 5 out of the 18 initial hypotheses were supported. The main theme of those 5 hypotheses centered on the concept of satisfaction. In fact, both job characteristics (Hypothesis 1a) and autonomous

motivation (Hypothesis 2a) were good predictors of volunteers' satisfaction. Job characteristics also predicted autonomous motivation (Hypothesis 3a) and autonomous motivation acted as a mediator in the relationship between job characteristics and satisfaction (Hypothesis 4a). Only one hypothesis involving performance was supported, as job characteristics were found to predict volunteers' in-role performance (Hypothesis 5a).

How can these findings be interpreted? First, while job design does affect autonomous motivation, the impact is actually relatively small, as less than 10% of the variance in RAI is accounted for by changes in volunteers' perceptions of their tasks. Therefore, while it may be useful to redesign volunteers' jobs, this endeavor is not likely to drastically change volunteers' motivations, as many other factors, such as supervisors' management styles and the organizational environment, influence this variable. Redesigning volunteers' tasks, however, is likely to significantly increase volunteers' satisfaction.

Satisfaction

In terms of satisfaction, findings were quite unequivocal. 17% of the variance in satisfaction could be accounted for by the impact of job characteristics, and yet another 17% was accounted for by autonomous motivation. In interpreting those findings, however, potential biases that may affect volunteers' ratings of their satisfaction should be considered. One such bias was pointed out by Wilson (2000), who stated that some individuals who work without receiving any compensation may feel that they ought to be enjoying themselves or believe that others expect them to be. In fact, according to Exchange Theory, it is possible that, "when volunteers say how much they benefit from

serving others, they could simply be engaging in 'reciprocity talk', in which they articulate their need to complete the transaction by indicating how much they enjoy the work so that a balance is restored to the relationship" (Wuthnow, 1991, p. 95). To believe in this idea is to agree that assessing volunteers' satisfaction with the same instrument as is used to assess their motivation runs risks of bias through common method variance. In fact, if some volunteers feel that they *should* be enjoying themselves, they might be more likely to indicate that they volunteer "because it's fun" (intrinsic motive), when, in reality, they feel a great deal of pressure to do so. Asking volunteers to rate their satisfaction before they rate their motivation may therefore prompt different reactions. In order to test for this possibility, the order of satisfaction and motivation items on the questionnaires going out to 2 of the 3 organizations included in the sample had been reversed. As reported in the Descriptives section, the mean difference in satisfaction between organizations was not significant. It seems, therefore, that the satisfaction measure is not affected by the order of the questions. Since there are few, if any, other ways of measuring volunteers' motivations and satisfaction other than asking them to rate it themselves; since findings are consistent with those of other researchers, who found that the JCM relates more strongly to satisfaction than it does to performance (Capelli & Rogovski, 2002); and since Wilson (2000) concluded that Exchange Theory is probably too 'utilitarian' to be of much use in a voluntary setting, the satisfaction measure is judged adequate and, as a result, the above findings are deemed to be well-grounded. Having said that, it would nonetheless be interesting to control such a self-report bias in future studies by measuring motivation differently. One way to do so would be to follow Lévesque and Pelletier's (2003) lead

and observe unconscious motivation. In fact, their study showed that while individuals may at times be unable to predict and assess their own motives, their actions are guided by unconscious motivational orientations which can be activated and measured.

Number of hours and intent to quit

Looking back at the hypotheses, neither the job characteristics nor the degree of autonomous motivation could predict the number of hours that volunteers spent in the organizations and/or their intent to quit. In retrospect, these findings appear logical. In proposing these hypotheses, in fact, it had been suggested that a variable such as absenteeism, which is used in the workplace, could be transferred into the voluntary context and reflected by the number of hours volunteers spent in the organization. However, it had also been noted that absenteeism was only modestly related to job characteristics and little evidence was found that autonomous motivation could be linked to such quantifiable outcomes.

Furthermore, it is clear that, in the voluntary setting, volunteers' time commitments differ from those of the paid, full-time employees who have been included in the samples of absenteeism researchers. The main difference between these two settings may in fact be found in the way that volunteers make decisions to attend volunteer activities, which is intuitively understood to be different from the way that workers decide to show up to work. The lack of relationship between job design, motivation and hours could therefore be explained by this fundamental difference, knowing that the process through which volunteers make attendance decisions is a fairly complex one, which takes into consideration not only time constraints, but also competing intentions, subjective norms, moral obligations and feelings of self-efficacy

(Harrison, 1995). Put more simply, just like motivated and satisfied paid workers may not choose to come to work on weekends if offered the possibility to do so, motivated and satisfied volunteers may not choose to spend additional time in the organization.

On the other hand, volunteers' decisions to quit the organization appear to be much less complex than their attendance choices. Indeed, the only predictors of intent to quit were volunteers' level of satisfaction with their tasks and their perceptions that their tasks were significant. It should be noted, however, that the measure of intent to quit, which was borrowed from a study of the paid workforce, may not have been the most appropriate one to use in this context. As was observed, one of the items of this measure (the one asking volunteers whether they frequently thought about searching for volunteer work in other organizations) was not highly correlated with the other two and lowered the scale's internal reliability. It was, however, the volunteers' comments that provided us with an explanation for this situation, as a few of them pointed out that, because their volunteer commitments only required a few hours per week on average, it was possible for them to join other organizations without leaving the one they were currently involved with. Along the same line, other volunteers commented that they were leaving for personal, and often for medical, reasons, which had nothing to do with their satisfaction levels. This point is also well taken, given that over 35% of respondents were over 70 years old. These considerations go a long way in explaining why job characteristics and motivation did not have a direct impact on volunteers' intentions to leave.

This result is also in line with Gagné (2003), who found that it wasn't the satisfaction of needs, *per se*, which predicted volunteer turnover, but the extent to which the organization provided a context in which those needs could be met. While the present

study looked at the autonomy inherent to volunteers' tasks, it did not take into consideration whether the environment in which volunteers worked actually provided the support necessary (e.g., supervisory styles, structure, etc.) for volunteers to perform autonomously. This therefore points to other variables that would need to be included in future studies.

Performance

In the previous section, we saw that, with the exception of job characteristics influencing in-role performance but not OCBs, there was little evidence to support the suggestion that OCBs could be distinguished from in-role performance in the volunteer setting, just as can be done in paid work settings. Those results, as well as the inability to support a relationship between motivation and performance, were more or less surprising. Although there was previous evidence that job characteristics could have an impact on performance, which was confirmed, there was little support for a relationship between autonomous motivation and performance. This can partially be explained by the fact that few researchers of Self-Determination Theory have been measuring performance. In fact, when Vansteenkiste et al. (2004) found that students' intrinsic motivation led to better academic performance, they claimed to be the first to prove such a relationship, which had long been hypothesized. It is interesting to note that they had done so not by asking respondents to self-report on their motivations, as was done here, but by manipulating their subjects' motivations experimentally.

The link between autonomous motivation and performance has been reviewed by several researchers, and it has been shown that autonomous motivation increases the likelihood of effort and higher overall performance on complex tasks (Grolnick & Ryan,

1987). More specifically, Gagne and Deci (2005) proposed that controlled motivation (i.e., extrinsic and introjected motives) would impede performance on heuristic tasks, but may lead to improved performance on algorithmic tasks in the short run. In this study, the relationship between autonomous motivation and performance was difficult to predict accurately, because the tasks included in the sample varied greatly in their level of complexity.

It has also been found that the “ideal” motivation to perform well in jobs that comprise both complex tasks and tasks requiring discipline would be a mix of intrinsic and identified motives (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The difference between these two types of autonomous motivation was further explained by Koestner and Losier (2002), who demonstrated the importance of considering the type of task when deciding whether to encourage intrinsic versus identified motives. For example, they proposed that the ability to dedicate oneself to deliberate practice is based not on intrinsic but on identified motivation. In the present study, we saw that job characteristics were correlated with intrinsic motivation, but not with identified motivation. Acknowledging the importance of identified motives (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Koestner & Losier, 2002) this finding can be seen as an indication that, while job design in and of itself can promote enjoyment of a task, other interventions are needed to help volunteers identify with the purpose of these tasks. As was mentioned before, one such intervention may be to support an autonomous climate in the organization. This can be done by allowing volunteers to make more choices, listening to their perspectives, and encouraging them to take more initiatives (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Another important requirement to increasing volunteers’ identification would be to provide them with adequate structure, that is, “consistent

guidelines, expectations, and rules for behavior, without respect to the style in which they are promoted” (Koestner & Losier, 2002, p. 115). Doing so helps volunteers understand the importance of the tasks they are to perform and, as a result, helps them feel more autonomous, as their behaviours become more congruent with their values.

While we see that in-role performance has received considerable attention, much less is known about the impact of autonomous motivation on OCB performance. It was suggested, however, that since autonomous motivation has been shown to increase the likelihood of helping behaviours, it would be likely to also be linked to OCBs in the work context (Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer, 1997). Of the few studies who reviewed this topic more closely, Moorman and Harland (2002) showed that the motivation of short-term employees for taking an assignment impacted on their OCB performance. While this study did not use the RAI measure, the motives which they found to be most related to OCBs were the most autonomous ones. For example, they found that the desire to gain useful skills (identified motive) was positively correlated with OCBs, while the desire to make money (extrinsic motive), was negatively related to OCB.

An Alternate Explanation: A potential missing mediator

In the last two decades, some researchers suggested that job design theories such as the JCM had not been useful in demonstrating the relationships between job characteristics and work outcomes, such as performance, which they predicted (Wall & Jackson, 1995). More specifically, complaints were heard to the effect that while job characteristics such as autonomy and skill variety could predict affective responses, there was scant evidence that they could in fact be linked to task performance (Burr & Cordery, 2001). One answer to this puzzle was suggested by Kelly (1992), who proposed that the

process through which job characteristics influence performance must be different from the process through which they affect satisfaction. Based on this idea, and on the concept of self-efficacy, which has been shown to be significantly related to performance (Bandura, 1986), Burr and Cordery (2001) showed that self-management efficacy (defined as individuals' confidence in their capabilities to decide of the steps to follow in order to accomplish a given task) was a mediator that helped explain the relationship between job characteristics and both motivation and performance. In other words, they found that "perceived control over one's own performance brought about by increased self-regulatory opportunities within one's work give rise to enhanced self-management efficacy beliefs, thereby increasing work motivation" (Burr & Cordery, 2001, p.30).

It is possible, therefore, that the performance hypotheses were not supported because the impact of self-management efficacy was not considered. Of course, this is not the only potential mediator that could help further review the proposed model, as will be further discussed in the section on future directions. Additionally, though it might be useful to integrate SDT's concept of competence need with the concept of self-efficacy, this is clearly an undertaking that would require further research.

8.2 Volunteer Performance Revisited

As was mentioned before, the supervisors' lack of information might in part be to blame for the inability to distinguish between in-role and OCB aspects of volunteers' performance. However, even if that were the case, there is probably much more to it. To start with, OCB, even in the workplace, is still a rather messy construct. In fact, there have been so many critics of the original definition of OCB that Organ (1997) decided to redefine it, so that OCB would no longer have to be "extra-role" and could actually lead

to rewards. Admitting that his new definition closely resembles that of contextual performance, he stated that OCB should now be seen as “performance that support the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (Organ, 1997, p. 95). In the years that have followed this redefinition, the concept of OCB, instead of getting clearer, has actually become muddier, as two different definitions are now being used by researchers (Motowidlo, 2000). Making the issue even more difficult to sort out, Vey and Campbell (2004) showed that OCB items “actually tap into behaviours considered in-role by [both] employees and supervisors” (p.1).

Furthermore, researchers have raised some questions that have direct implications for this study. Lam, Hui and Law (1999), for example, found that supervisors perceive OCBs to be more in-role than do subordinates. If that is correct, we could think that the supervisors in this study did not distinguish between in-role performance and OCBs because they expected that volunteers would fulfill all of those ‘requirements’ as part of their involvement. This is possible, assuming that supervisors have a generally positive view of volunteers, seeing them as altruistic and motivated to help, therefore being more likely to go ‘above and beyond’ what is required of them. Of course, this assumption taps into the supervisors’ beliefs, an aspect that was not considered. To date, mixed evidence has been found regarding the impact of supervisors’ experience on their perceptions of volunteers’ motivations and performance (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999; Vey and Campbell, 2004). It would therefore be important to pay more attention to supervisors in trying to better understand the reliability of their ratings.

Another important consideration is the difference between the paid and volunteer settings. While this specific difference has never been studied, Vey and Campbell (2004)

recognized that “whether the same model of what constitutes in-role and extra-role behaviours applies to all occupations is an empirical question” (p. 121). It is therefore justified to question whether findings in the workplace can be replicated in a voluntary organization. Was it realistic to expect that William and Anderson’s (1991) results, which showed through a factor analysis that supervisors were able to distinguish between in-role behaviours, OCBs aimed at individuals and OCBs aimed at the larger organization, would be replicable in a volunteer setting? After all, as they pointed out the many factors that could have kept them from supporting their theory, they seemed almost surprised to have achieved such results. Among the factors they considered, many apply to the present study. First, halo effects could have played a significant role. Second, the fact that many respondents in their study were professionals could have made it more difficult to distinguish between types of performance, since professional jobs tend to have less “clear-cut” descriptions (William and Anderson, 1991). The same can certainly be said of volunteers’ tasks, as many of them may never even have received an official job description.

More importantly, looking more closely at the performance items that were borrowed from William and Anderson’s (1991), and keeping in mind the distinction that was made earlier between the different modes of supervision, it becomes clear that many OCB items were close to impossible to evaluate for supervisors who did not have direct contact with volunteers. For example, two of the items that were included in the performance evaluation aimed to assess OCBs directed at other individuals. However, when we consider that 44% of volunteers work individually off-site, it becomes clear that these volunteers’ supervisors could not validly assess whether they “went out of their

way to help new volunteers” or “passed along information to other volunteers”. Similarly, supervisors could not appropriately assess whether volunteers who were working off-site were performing OCBs directed towards the organization, such as “conserving and protecting organizational property” or “adhering to rules to maintain order”.

In the end, it seems that it might have been the way of defining volunteers’ OCBs and measuring them that was faulty. Looking at the definition of task and contextual performance, now perceived as a close cousin of OCB, it seems intuitive that such a distinction would exist in volunteer work, as it does in other settings. Indeed, a voluntary organization could not function without individuals who not only perform tasks meant to produce the organization’s services, but also help others in that production process by enhancing the social and psychological environment in which it takes place.

8.3 Limitations

Throughout the results and discussion sections, several limitations of this study and its design have been pointed out. The main one was probably the supervisors’ ability (or inability) to observe volunteers’ work. Even if it was assumed that most supervisors were fulfilling their duties towards volunteers, it must be kept in mind that, for a majority of them, this only required talking to volunteers on the phone once or twice a month. When doing so, they only received the volunteer’s version of what was happening. While supervisors were also in contact with the clients that volunteers visited, it is possible that clients may not always have been willing or able to provide accurate feedback. As for staff members who supervised volunteers working onsite but did not

have the opportunity to observe their work regularly, we might wonder if the episodes of the volunteers' work which supervisors did observe were instances of maximum, rather than typical, job performance (Sackett, Zedeck & Fogli, 1988).

Another limitation is that the 'quality of relationship' variable was used as a proxy to assess whether supervisors liked volunteers. These two variables, of course, are not equivalent, and an accurate measure of liking should be used to better explain why the impact of the quality of the relationship is greater in the case of OCBs than it is in the case of in-role performance. Since Cardy & Dobbins (1986) found that "liking is an integral dimension, that is, a dimension difficult to separate from the performance dimensions", this is indeed a relevant variable to consider.

Other, more general, limitations of this study include the fact that the design used was cross-sectional, which means that the direction of the relationships that were found can only be hypothesized. A longitudinal study would help address this limitation. Another limitation is the relatively small sample size, and the relatively small number of volunteer tasks that were included. Considering that there are literally thousands of different roles that volunteers can play, and the wide variety of people from all walks of life who fill these roles, the sample, even though it included volunteers playing 25 different roles in 3 different organizations, was indeed too small to be representative of volunteers at large. It should be noted, however, that, to my knowledge, this is the largest number of volunteer roles that have been included in any study to date. Another particularity of this sample, which could limit the transferability of results, is the age, higher than average, of respondents.

8.4 Future Directions

Is more Research on Volunteer Performance Necessary?

As I explained the difficulty of distinguishing volunteers' OCB performance from their in-role performance, I mentioned a few options that would increase the odds of finding positive results in future research. Before recommending such options formally, however, one fundamental question must be answered. Assuming we were to prove, without a doubt, that the performance of volunteers is multidimensional, would we be better off? If we shared that finding with a volunteer manager who asked us "So what?", would we know what to answer? In other words, why would anyone want to research this topic any further?

I argue that there are, in fact, many reasons to pursue this investigation further. Probably the most important one is that being able to define volunteer performance would allow us to better predict it. We know, for one thing, that predictors of OCBs are different from predictors of in-role performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991). By establishing the existence of traits that could predict OCBs among volunteers, we may be able to focus recruitment strategies to attract the kind of volunteers who would be most likely to display such behaviours. We also know that employees who demonstrate OCBs are more likely to be committed to the organization (Chen & al., 1998). Being able to predict volunteers' OCBs would therefore allow us to recruit volunteers who would be in for the long haul. While I do not suggest that volunteers interested in short-term assignments should be rejected, we must keep in mind that while "volunteers may be free in the sense of not requiring a great deal of cash outlays, they are very expensive in terms of recruitment, training, co-ordination and supervision time" (Ellis, 1996, p. 103). That is

why I propose that training for specialized positions could be reserved for volunteers who are more likely to have “OCB potential”. Of course, at this time, these ideas may seem far-fetched, as we have yet to clearly demonstrate the validity of the OCB concept in volunteer work. My point, however, is that additional research is not only justified, but necessary, if volunteer managers are to make better use of the limited resources they have at their disposition.

Another important question to address before more research is done on this topic has to do with whether findings relating to volunteer performance could ever be generalized across organizations. We know that there exists about as many types of volunteer roles as there are voluntary organizations, and that two job descriptions that look the same on paper could, in reality, be drastically different once put in context. But does this mean that the efforts needed to further research this question are not warranted? I believe that, because the research that is proposed at this point is at a very preliminary and theoretical level, findings such as that volunteer performance is multidimensional could be generalized across a large number of organizations. It is true, however, that the impact of such a finding would need to be interpreted carefully, taking into consideration the particularities of each organization. For example, it might be important for each volunteer manager to determine whether OCBs could potentially have negative effects in his or her organization and whether they should or shouldn't be encouraged. While this possibility may seem counter-intuitive, there may be some types of organizations in which serious problems could be created by well-intentioned volunteers who, by performing what we might consider OCBs, would in fact be crossing boundaries. Take the example of a large health and social services organization in which most paid

employees would be syndicated. In such an organization, a volunteer who signs up as a Friendly Visitor might be mandated to visit an elderly woman who is very isolated. If this volunteer, trying, in all good faith, to go “above and beyond” her job description, decides to also help this client with her groceries, she might actually be doing the job of a paid employee, which could, in the worst case scenario, result in a grievance being submitted to the Human Resources Department. While such opportunities for crossing boundaries most certainly exist with paid employees as well, it is likely that volunteers run even more risks of getting caught into this type of situation. Because such idiosyncrasies exist in most organizations, it would therefore be difficult to judge of the impact of OCBs in a theoretical, uniform manner. However, until we reach this point, more research certainly is warranted.

What should we study next?

One type of study which I think would be especially useful at this point would be a study in which all volunteers perform the same type of work, under the direct, on-site supervision of at least 3 supervisors, who would be made accountable for their evaluations. Such a study would allow much clearer conclusions to be drawn with regards to the performance distinctions that may exist in the work of volunteers. As was mentioned earlier, such a study could focus more on the supervisors’ background and experience, in order to better understand how their ratings might be influenced by their past exposure to volunteers and by certain personality variables. Of course, it might also be useful to assess some of the personality traits of volunteers. Much research in volunteer settings has, in fact, attempted to identify the traits of individuals who sign up to become volunteers. As we get to better understand what volunteer performance is all

about, it would be interesting to know if the personality traits that have been found to predict the act of joining a volunteer organization could also predict how well volunteers perform while they work in that organization.

8.5 Implications for Practice and Recommendations

Designing Volunteers' Tasks

Since this study allowed to confirm that job characteristics are related to both volunteers' motivations and satisfaction, I will now review what these theoretical findings mean, practically, for volunteer managers. Clearly, the most obvious implication of these findings is that job design is a useful tool to encourage volunteers to develop autonomous motivation and to enhance their satisfaction. By working to increase volunteers' autonomous motivation, volunteer managers are improving their chances that volunteers will be satisfied, will have an increased sense of well-being and will spend more time with the organization (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Similarly, by ensuring that volunteers are satisfied, volunteer managers are also improving their chances of retaining them. But what does job design really entail?

It is important to note that there is no "one-size fits all" solution to designing volunteers' tasks, as what works in one organization may not work in the next (Volunteer Canada, 2001a). Having said that, it is possible to ensure that every volunteer's task meets the criteria of the job characteristics model, at least to some extent, when we remember that we are trying to impact the volunteer's *perception* of the task, which may not require a full redesign of the task itself. To better understand this, consider the strategy proposed by Volunteer Canada (2001a) to increase volunteers' perceptions of

task identity. Giving the example of office volunteers, they suggest that volunteers should be presented their task as one of “tracking phone calls to ensure that clients are called back promptly” rather than simply one of “helping out around the office”. They propose that this simple redefinition helps make the volunteers’ task more measurable, as “when they track the 300th call, they [now] have something quantifiable to show for their efforts” (Volunteer Canada, 2001a, p. 19). While this reframing strategy may sound rather simplistic, it is certainly a good way to increase task identity and feedback for a job that may otherwise not be easy to redesign.

As the previous example pointed out, creativity can often be crucial in the success of job redesign, as the main goal of such an endeavor is to maintain “a careful balance between the ability of the organization to meet its objectives on time, and the need of volunteers to participate in meaningful activities that allow them to pursue their personal objectives” (Volunteer Canada, 2001a, p.30). Table 9 proposes ways to ensure that each of the five core characteristics reviewed in this study are part of each volunteer’s job description.

Table 9: Recommendations for Designing Volunteers` Tasks

Job Characteristics	Recommendations
<i>Task Identity</i>	Make sure the tasks you design have clear beginnings and endings.
<i>Task Significance</i>	Make sure that the impact of volunteers` tasks on your organization`s mission is clearly stated. When volunteers don`t work directly with clients who benefit from your organization`s services, try to create opportunities for interaction with them, so that volunteers get to see who benefits from their work and how.
<i>Skill Variety</i>	The fact that you are in a voluntary setting offers you a distinct advantage when it comes to creating diverse opportunities for volunteers to use and develop different skills. Make sure that staff members understand the importance of teaching volunteers new skills.
<i>Autonomy</i>	Autonomy will only be useful when volunteers have enough information and support to make adequate decisions. Make sure to recognize and adapt to the volunteers` abilities. Set objectives collaboratively and give them as much leeway as possible in determining how to reach these goals.
<i>Feedback</i>	Feedback is a crucial component of recognizing volunteers` work. If you fail to provide constructive feedback to volunteers, you are communicating to them that the work they do is not important.

While I suggested that future studies should focus on tasks that allow supervisors to observe volunteers directly, it must be recognized that there will always be situations in which volunteers will be working in unsupervised settings. Even though evaluating the performance of these volunteers is a challenge, it is one that is worth the effort, as it has been shown that volunteers who receive feedback are more likely to be satisfied with their work. Below are some tips (adapted from McCurley & Lynch, 2005; McCurley, 1995) that will allow volunteer managers to be more “in control” of such situations, while ensuring that volunteers maintain a reasonable level of autonomy.

Recommendations for Supervising Off-site Volunteer:

- Make sure that all off-site volunteers participate in orientation sessions that help them internalize the organization's mission, values and policies.
- Establish the volunteer's responsibility and accountability for results by asking them to suggest and report on reasonable objectives for their work each month
- Every 6 months, meet with volunteers to review their current job description. Is it still accurate? Are they doing more? Less? Work together to adapt the job description if necessary.

9. Conclusion

In this study, it was demonstrated that a model that has been used by organizational psychologists for several decades in the corporate environment is applicable to the volunteer sector. Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristic Model, in fact, has been shown to be a useful and easily available tool for volunteer managers who hope to help their volunteers reap the numerous benefits of autonomous motivation and increased satisfaction, while improving the quality of their work. While theoretical justification was provided to encourage volunteer managers to review the design of their volunteers' tasks, practical recommendations were also designed to make this study's findings readily actionable.

In reviewing the concept of volunteer performance, no clear distinction could be made between in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviours in the work of volunteers. This study, however, provides a strong basis from which future researchers will be able to further investigate this concept. Over and above everything else, it was demonstrated that volunteer performance is a concept which is worth paying attention to, as it holds the key to improving recruitment and retention processes in the volunteer sector. As non-profit organizations become more business-minded in their

managerial practices in order to become more efficient and to ensure their survival, it is crucial that volunteers be treated professionally and that their performance evaluations no longer be viewed as “taboos”. As volunteer managers realize the importance of evaluating volunteers, they will see the necessity of putting in place structures that will allow such assessments to take place. It is through those structures that volunteers will be able to receive not only the feedback, but also the support and recognition that are so vital to their intention to keep contributing to society in such a needed manner.

10. References

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SURVEY OF CLSC VOLUNTEERS

1- What is your gender? Male Female

2- What is your age? _____ year old

3- What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed? (Please check one):

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Primary school | <input type="checkbox"/> College/CEGEP | <input type="checkbox"/> Graduate degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> High school | <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Professional degree |

4- How long have you been volunteering at the CLSC (approximately)?

Years _____ Months _____ Weeks _____

5- How many hours have you volunteered since January 2004?
(Give an approximate number) _____ hours

6- How did you hear about us?

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| Friends/family <input type="checkbox"/> | Newspaper <input type="checkbox"/> |
| CLSC worker <input type="checkbox"/> | Radio <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Volunteer Bureau <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| Other organization (please name) <input type="checkbox"/> | _____ |
| Other source (please indicate) <input type="checkbox"/> | _____ |

7- What is (are) your current role(s) as a volunteer? (If you are not presently active as a volunteer, please indicate the role you played in the past, noting the period when this work took place).

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Accompanier
<input type="checkbox"/> CareRing volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Computer Work volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Driver
<input type="checkbox"/> Elder Abuse Info-Line volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Friendly Visitor
<input type="checkbox"/> Mall Walk volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> New Mother Coach
<input type="checkbox"/> Shopper
<input type="checkbox"/> Tax Clinic volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Translator/Interpreter | <input type="checkbox"/> Administrative Assistant
<input type="checkbox"/> Community Development volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Drop In Center volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Early Childhood Assistant
<input type="checkbox"/> Flu Clinic volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> In-home stimulation volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Mom and Tots group volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Tutor
<input type="checkbox"/> Sunny Corner volunteer
<input type="checkbox"/> Team Leader |
|--|---|

Other: _____
 Period performing this task (if not currently active): _____

8-a) How many meetings or events have you attended at the CLSC in the past 6 months? (Workshops, special events, meeting with your supervisor, etc.)

I attended _____ meetings/events.

b) How many times have you been in contact with your supervisor in the past 6 months (including over the phone)?

I had _____ contacts with my supervisor.

c) Do you read the Volunteer Department Newsletter?

Yes No Sometimes

9- How do you personally feel about your volunteer work? The following statements are things people may say about their jobs. Please indicate how much you agree with each statement.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Agree Agree
 Strongly Slightly Slightly Strongly

a) Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this volunteer job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this volunteer job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) I frequently think of quitting this volunteer job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10- Do you intend to continue volunteering? Please indicate how true the following statements are for you.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Not true Somewhat Very true
 at all true

a) I frequently think about leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) I frequently think about searching for volunteer work in another organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) It is likely that I will leave this organization within the next year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11- Why do you volunteer? Please indicate how true each statement is for you, using the scale provided.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 Not true Somewhat Very true
 at all true

1) So other people would approve of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) Because it really feels personally important for me to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) Because it is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Because volunteering has become a fundamental part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) Because I would really feel bad about myself if I didn't.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) For the recognition I get from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) Because it is a sensitive thing to do for those in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) Because I would feel guilty if I didn't.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) Because it makes me feel proud and like a worthy person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) Because it is interesting and enjoyable for me to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11) Because my friends and family insist that I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12) For the enjoyment I feel when I volunteer in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13) Because volunteering is part of the way I've chosen to live my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14) Because I would feel bad if I didn't do anything for people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15) For the benefits provided by the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16) Because I find the task I'm assigned pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12- How would you describe your volunteer job? (Part 1)

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe the tasks you do as a volunteer, as *objectively* as you can. Please do not use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your tasks.

You are to circle the number which is the most accurate description of your volunteer job.

- a) To what extent does your volunteer work require you to *work closely with other people* (either clients or staff in the organization).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; dealing with other people is not at all necessary in doing this job.			Moderately; some dealing with others is necessary.			Very much; dealing with other people is absolutely essential and part of the job.

- b) How much *autonomy* is there in your volunteer work? That is, to what extent does your volunteer job permit you to decide on your own how to go about the work?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; the job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done			Moderate autonomy; many things are standardized and I not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.			Very much; the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.

To what extent does your job involve a "*whole*" and *identifiable task*? That is, is your volunteer job a complete task that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small *part of* accomplishing the overall goal, which is finished by other people?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job is only a tiny part of the overall task; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the end			My job is a moderate-sized "chunk" of the overall task; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.			My job involves doing the whole task; the result of my activities are easily seen when the goal is reached.

- c) How much variety is there in your volunteer job? That is, to what extent does the volunteer work you do require you to do many different things, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again			Moderate variety		Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.		

- d) In general, how *significant or important* is your volunteer job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are <i>not</i> likely to have important effects on other people.			Moderately significant		Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.		

- e) To what extent does your supervisor, other staff members or other volunteers let you know how well you are doing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Very little; people almost never let me know how I am doing.			Moderately; sometimes people may give "feedback"; other times they may not.		Very much; managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant "feedback" about how well I am doing.		

- f) To what extent does doing your volunteer job itself provide you with information about your performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing – aside from any “feedback” other volunteers or your supervisor may provide?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little; the job itself is set up so I could almost work forever without finding out how I am doing doing.			Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides “feedback” to me; sometimes it does not.			Very much; the job is set up so that I get constant “feedback” as I work about how well I am doing.

13- How would you define your volunteer job? (Part 2)

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job. You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or inaccurate description of *job* as a *volunteer* in this organization. Again, try to be as objective as possible as you can, regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Inaccurate	Mostly Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Very Accurate

1) My volunteer work requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) My volunteer work requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) My task is arranged so that I do <i>not</i> have the chance to do an entire identifiable task from beginning to end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Just doing the work required provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) This volunteer job is quite simple and repetitive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) This volunteer work can be done adequately by a person working alone – without talking or checking with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) My supervisor or fellow volunteers almost <i>never</i> give me any feedback about how well I am doing in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) This volunteer job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) This volunteer job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) My supervisor or fellow volunteers often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11) The job provides me the chance to completely finish the tasks I begin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12) The volunteer work itself provides very few cues about whether or not I am performing well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13) The volunteer work gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14) This volunteer job in itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14- Comments?

Please use this space for any additional comments you would like to make about your volunteering experience or about this research project.

Please return this questionnaire with the pre-addressed envelope you received.

Thank you for your collaboration!

Confidential Volunteer Evaluation

Use the following scale or indicate N/A if the item does not apply to the person's situation. If the item applies but you do not have the information, indicate N/I.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Not true			Somewhat true			Very true		

In his/her role as a volunteer, _____:

1. Is a good team player.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
3. Goes out of his/her way to help new volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
4. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
5. Conserves and protects organizational property.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
6. Has an attendance record which is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
7. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
8. Passes along information to other volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
9. Gives advance notice when unable to show up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
10. Complains about insignificant things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
11. Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
12. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
13. Is open to supervision and constructive criticism.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
14. Has maintained a good relationship with me as his/her supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
15. The client is completely satisfied with this volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
16. As this volunteer's supervisor, I feel I have enough information to assess his/her performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Comments: _____

Please return this questionnaire with the pre-addressed envelope you received.

Thank you for your collaboration!

Confidential Volunteer Evaluation

Use the following scale or indicate N/A if the item does not apply to the person's situation. If the item applies but you do not have the information, indicate N/I.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Not true			Somewhat true			Very true		

In his/her role as a volunteer, _____:

1. Is a good team player.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
3. Goes out of his/her way to help new volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
4. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
5. Conserves and protects organizational property.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
6. Has an attendance record which is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
7. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
8. Passes along information to other volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
9. Gives advance notice when unable to show up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
10. Complains about insignificant things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
11. Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
12. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
13. Is open to supervision and constructive criticism.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
14. Has maintained a good relationship with me as his/her supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
15. The client is completely satisfied with this volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	N/I
16. As this volunteer's supervisor, I feel I have enough information to assess his/her performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Comments: _____

Please return this questionnaire with the pre-addressed envelope you received.

Thank you for your collaboration!