VOLUNTEER MOTIVATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS AMONG UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE STUDENTS

By

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A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
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To my Family

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Chair: Brijesh Thapa
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Many college students spend a great deal of time volunteering, and participation in volunteer programs is growing in popularity among this demographic. However, little research has been conducted analyzing this phenomenon. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between volunteer motivations and constraints among college students. The data for this study were collected from three sections of an online class at the University of Florida. A total of 270 students completed an electronic version of a five-page questionnaire.

This study found that the majority of college students were involved in volunteerism in some capacity. Human Services organizations were viewed as being the most important volunteer segment and over half of respondents reported that time was their most important contribution.

The Volunteer Function Inventory was employed to analyze motivations. Five dimensions were found among respondents in this sample. Respondents indicated that items in the Values and Understanding dimension were most likely to motivate them to volunteer. Conversely, items in the Protective dimension were least likely to motivate respondents to volunteer. Volunteer

constraints was analyzed using a three-dimension model. Structural constraints were most likely to limit volunteerism for this sample.

Furthermore, several relationships were found between motivations and constraints. These relationships indicated that social interaction and public image were important motivators for this sample, though altruistic motives were reported as being the most important.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, public and private agencies of all types and sizes have relied on the use of volunteers to ensure continued success of their programs (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999, Silverberg, Backman, Backman, & Ellis, 1999). Furthermore, many people seek out opportunities to provide service to others as a way to satisfy their own needs. As budgets get tighter, and the demand for healthcare, human services, recreation, and education programs continue to grow, organizations have become increasingly dependent on the services provided by volunteers (Jensen, 1995). However, human service agencies and nonprofit organizations are experiencing shortages of volunteers which has often severely hampered their abilities to fulfill their missions (Burns et al., 2005). Operating expenses comprise 80% of the total budgets of most government agencies, and employee salaries and benefits usually constitute the primary expenditures (Kaczynski & Crompton, 2006). Similarly, nongovernmental organizations have comparable employee expenses. As a result, government agencies as well as nongovernmental organizations seek sources of free labor to offset expenses. It is becoming increasingly important to understand the factors that drive people to contribute financial support and a source of free labor to these organizations (Wilson, 2005, Campbell & Smith, 2006).

Volunteerism and related terms have been defined several ways by different authors. Henderson (1985) stated that a *volunteer* is "someone who contributes services without financial gain to a functional subcommunity cause" (pg. 31), while Wilson and Musick (1999) defined it as "someone who contributes time to helping others with no expectation of pay or other material benefit" (pg. 141). *Volunteerism* was defined by Bringle and Hatcher (1996) simply as unpaid helping activities while Carlo et al. (2005) referred to *volunteering* as "performing a service without compensation for an organization or agency" (pg. 1296). The common themes in the

definitions are contribution to society in one form or another without monetary compensation. Although there is no financial return for volunteering, research has shown that volunteers do expect other considerations for the work that they do (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

Examples of volunteer activities are evident in all sectors of society across nearly every socio-demographic category (Clary & Snyder, 1999, Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999, Silverberg et al., 1999), and volunteerism represents a major source of labor in the United States (Dutta-Bergman, 2004). In 1995, 93 million American adults (49% of the population) engaged in some form of volunteer activity that totaled over 20.3 billion working hours (Clary & Snyder, 1999). In 1999, volunteer contributions equated to over 150 billion dollars worth of service (Silverberg et al., 1999). According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2007), approximately 26% of American adults volunteered at least once between September 2006 and September 2007. Almost 29% of women and 22% of men over the age of 16 years volunteered. Individuals between 35 and 54 years of age were most likely to volunteer (30.3%) while those in their early twenties tended to be the least likely group to volunteer (17.7%). Also, a substantial portion of the volunteers in this age category were currently enrolled in college. More than 40% of college graduates volunteered compared to less than 20% of individuals without a college degree, and fewer than 10% of those without a high school diploma (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007).

The undergraduate college student population is an important demographic with respect to volunteerism. In 1984, 29% of college students volunteered for charity organization, and 40% became involved in fund-raising activities during their undergraduate years (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). Twenty years later, it was reported that 90% of students reported having volunteered in the past, 19% were active volunteers, and 45% planned to volunteer in the next two months (Carlo et al., 2005). In addition, several benefits have been reported for students who volunteer

such as enhanced Grade Point Averages (GPA), general knowledge, knowledge of a field or discipline, and aspirations for advanced degrees. Volunteerism is also associated with increased time spent on homework and preparation for exams and increased contact with faculty (Astin & Sax, 1998). Finally, institutions of higher education provide an atmosphere conducive to learning, communication of new ideas and current issues, and can be a foundation for activism behavior (Thapa, 1999). Since college students tend to be inclined to volunteer and have the potential to provide tremendous support to agencies and organizations, this group should not be overlooked for volunteer recruitment (Burns et al., 2005).

Programs must be efficiently planned and monitored to be successful, but measures must be adopted to ensure that the program is not perceived to be controlling (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Mandating volunteerism may be counterproductive, as applying external pressure to perform some action will not necessarily lead to the behavior once the pressure is removed (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Since managers cannot offer financial compensation, an understanding of volunteer motivation is central to the success and effectiveness of the organization (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999).

According to Silverberg et al. (1999), *altruistic motives* are characteristics of volunteers who have little interest in personal benefits to be gained from non-compensated service provision. Basically altruism is contribution in time, energy, and resources to an organization with the sole intention of helping others. Though altruism is often reported as a primary motivation to volunteer, it is widely believed that serving others is mutually beneficial for the donor and recipient (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Contemporary volunteer research tends to discount purely idealistic motives in favor of exploring personal advantages to the volunteer (Serow, 1991). Though community service is rarely undertaken out of necessity and rarely

produces extrinsic rewards (Serow, 1991), there are usually underlying motives to volunteer. Although altruism may lead a person to volunteer initially, self-interested motivations are more important for continued participation (Ryan et al., 2001).

Finally, in his research on stewardship in indigenous and primitive cultures, Fennell (2008) stated that humans are more altruistic towards their personal families because they share the same genes, and there is a desire to ensure that those genes are passed on. It is very difficult to convince a person to suppress their desire to advantage themselves and their own family in favor of advantaging the group (Fennell, 2008). This would indicate that volunteering outside of one's own family structure with purely altruistic motives goes against basic human nature. This is not to say that altruism does not exist; it merely suggests that the instances of true altruism should be rare.

Several studies have been conducted to identify effective management techniques for volunteers, but the majority has focused on the concepts of expectancy theory and satisfaction. Expectancy theory suggests that people engage in activities in specific settings to realize a group of psychological outcomes that are known and valued (Manning, 2005). Satisfaction is generally referred to as a measure of the extent to which those expectations have been met. Farmer and Fedor (1999) states that "unpaid workers have different reasons for joining an organization; show different patterns of attitudinal, calculative, and affective involvement; often experience confusion in exactly what their role in the organization is; and are not usually subject to the same performance standards to which paid workers are held" (Farmer & Fedor, 1999, pg. 353). Embarking on volunteer activities and then maintaining those activities over extended periods of time depend on matching the motivational concerns of the individuals with situations that can satisfy those needs (Clary & Snyder, 1999). A thorough knowledge of the factors that motivate

an individual to service is crucial to recruitment and retention of quality volunteers (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007).

Conceptual Framework

The Motivation Model has four components. These are Needs or Motivations, Behaviors or Activities, Goals or Satisfactions, and Feedback (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Motivations are the factors that impel a person to action. This occurs in two ways. First, a disequilibrium is created, causing a desire to correct the imbalance. This imbalance could be physiological (e.g. hunger, thirst, fatigue, etc.) or psychological (e.g. loneliness, boredom, etc.). The second part of motivation is when the individual recognizes or believes that a certain action will correct the disequilibrium (e.g. eating to relieve hunger, kayaking to relieve boredom, etc.) (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Only after this belief is established will the individual take action towards satisfying the need. After the individual performs the intended action, the level of satisfaction will be addressed. If the behavior fulfilled the need, the individual will feel satisfied and will show positive feedback (e.g. performing the activity again in the future, recommending the action to others, etc.). If the behavior did not satisfy the motive, the individual will show negative feedback and will modify or abandon the activity (see Figure 1-1) (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997).

Generally, once a motive is satisfied, it is no longer active (e.g. after eating, an individual no longer feels hungry), but in leisure research, it has been found that satisfaction of one's needs can often heighten the motive (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). For example, if a mountain climber has a need for self-esteem development and that need is satisfied by reaching the summit of the mountain, he may have a stronger desire to climb other peaks, rather than a decreased interest in doing so. Because of this inherent difference, much research has been conducted on motivation in the context of leisure and recreation.

Many authors have shown that the same activity may be undertaken by different individuals for different reasons, or to satisfy different motivations (Clary et al., 1998, Clary & Snyder, 1999, Graefe et al., 2000, Wilson, 2005). For this reason, contemporary volunteer motivation research takes a functional approach, developed by Katz in 1960. This approach arranges motivational items into groups or functions based on the needs that they fulfill. Each function is scored independently to assess which motivation types are most important (Clary et al., 1998, Clary & Snyder, 1999). The strength of this theory is that it directs inquiry into the personal and social processes that initiate, direct, and sustain action (Katz, 1960). In other words, there are several underlying motivational factors that lead a person to begin an activity and to remain active over time. By breaking motivations into categories or functions, researchers can reach higher levels of specificity with regards to the motivational factors of different groups or individuals. Clary and Snyder (1999) states that the core of functionalist inquiry is that people can and do perform the same actions in service of different psychological functions. That is to say, people engage in the same activity, but do so to fulfill different motives (Clary & Snyder, 1999). The leisure motivation construct goes beyond the activities that an individual participates in to what the leisure activities mean to them (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997).

In addition to motivation, it is important to understand the factors that may prevent or limit participation in volunteerism. There has been a paucity of research with respect to constraints to volunteerism, but a body of literature does exist on constraints to leisure in general. Since volunteering is undertaken during an individual's leisure time, leisure constraints models are useful to examine constraints to volunteerism. Crawford and Godbey (1987) identified three categories of constraints to leisure: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural. Intrapersonal constraints involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure

preferences, rather than intervening between preferences and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Interpersonal constraints are those that occur when known co-participants themselves are perceived to be prevented from participation because of structural constraints (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Structural constraints are intervening factors between leisure preference and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Raymore et al. (1993) determined that there is a hierarchical relationship between these categories of constraints. Jackson et al. (1993) posited a balance between motivations and constraints must be established if leisure participation is to take place. As each level of constraint is encountered along the hierarchy (Intrapersonal-Interpersonal-Structural), the rewards from participation (motivations) must be checked against the costs (constraints). If motivations exceed constraints, the individual will proceed along the continuum (Jackson et al., 1993).

This three-dimension model of leisure constraints has been empirically tested in the context of tourism in general (Thapa et al., 2002, Pennington-Gray et al., 2002), nature-based tourism (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002), and specific recreational activities (Nyaupane et al., 2004), and with minor differences, has been found to be valid and reliable in every case. However, to date it does not seem to have been tested with respect to volunteerism.

Statement of the Problem

Numerous studies have focused on the motivational factors that influence a person to participate in specific leisure-time activities, largely focusing on volunteer motivations. Though this body of work is large and spans several decades, there are still areas that have not been fully explored. More specifically, an examination of the motivations and constraints of undergraduate college students is needed.

Although it has been reported that volunteers in their early twenties account for the smallest percentage of volunteers, it has been shown that those with a college degree are as much

as four times more likely to volunteer than those who have less education (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). Furthermore, 90% of college students report to have volunteered at some point in their lives (Carlo et al., 2005). The high percentage of volunteers attending college, the majority of which are in the age category least likely to volunteer, makes this population worthy of further investigation. Similarly, little research has been conducted to examine constraints to volunteerism. Since volunteering is a leisure-time activity, constraints models from leisure and recreation research are applicable to analyze constraints to volunteering.

The objective of this research was to further examine motives and constraints to volunteerism among college students. Undergraduate students were selected as participants for this study because of their tendency to volunteer and for their viability as a valuable source of volunteer service. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the motivational factors of undergraduate students to volunteer in various capacities. More specifically, it examined who was volunteering, frequency of participation in volunteer programs, types of volunteer organizations, and why time was used to pursue these activities. In addition, this study explored factors that may act as constraints to participation in volunteerism. By understanding these underlying issues, volunteer managers can more effectively recruit and retain high-quality volunteers.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be examined in this study:

1. What motivates college students to volunteer?
2. What is the relationship between motivation and volunteer segments?
3. What is the relationship between volunteer motives and select socio-demographic characteristics?
4. What constrains volunteerism among college students?

5. What is the relationship between volunteer constraints and select socio-demographic characteristics?

6. Is there a relationship between volunteer motivations and constraints?

Delimitations

This study was delimited to undergraduate students enrolled in three online Introduction to Recreation courses at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida.

Definitions

The following terms were used as defined within the context of this study:

- **Volunteerism:** Any contribution of service, time, money, or resources without expectation of monetary reward. This contribution can be through an organization or independent of one.
- **Volunteer:** An individual that participates in any form of volunteerism.
- **Motivation:** "Something that impels people to action and gives direction to that action once it is aroused or activated" (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, pg. 188).

Constraint: Something that prevents or limits an individual from participation in an activity.

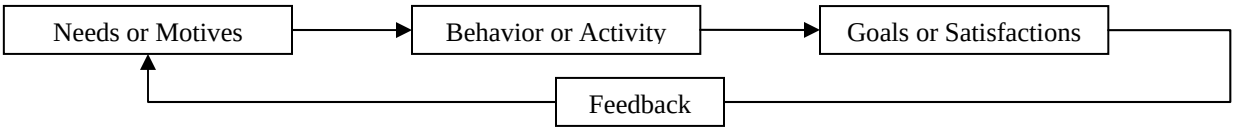

Figure 1-1. Model of motivation (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, pg. 189)

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature related to the examination of the relationships between volunteerism and associated correlates is presented in this chapter. The chapter is organized in four major sections:

1. Volunteerism
2. Motivation
3. Constraints
4. Summary

Volunteerism

Volunteering is a contribution to society in one form or another without monetary compensation. Although there is no financial return for volunteering, research has shown that volunteers do expect other considerations for the work that they do (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

Benefits of Volunteerism

Numerous studies have been conducted to analyze the benefits of volunteerism to both the organization and the volunteer. Researchers have examined how social activities such as volunteering contribute to a higher quality of life for older adults (Kelly et al., 1987); the effects of "service learning" on college students (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996); effects of volunteerism during a person's lifespan (Wilson & Musick, 1999); and the development of ecological sensitivity through volunteering in environmental stewardship programs (Ryan et al., 2001). Other research has shown that volunteers can ease the labor burden for nonprofit organizations (Martinez & McMullin, 2004) as well as government agencies (Kaczynski & Crompton, 2006), and other contributions that volunteers can make to their organizations (Ryan et al., 2001, Bruyere & Rappe, 2007).

There are countless benefits for volunteers that can be derived from serving others, their communities, or the environment. Kelly et al. (1987) studied the effects of various leisure-time

activities on the subjective wellbeing of older adults (aged 40 years and above). They surveyed 400 older adults via telephone about their leisure-time activities and life satisfaction. It was found that not only does leisure contribute to life satisfaction, but that social activities such as volunteering are associated with much higher levels of satisfaction in adults aged 65-74 years (Kelly et al., 1987).

Service learning, a form of volunteering that incorporates volunteer service into an educational curriculum, has been shown to raise students' grade point averages (GPA) and to increase the desire for students to pursue advanced degrees (Sax & Astin, 1997). It has also been reported that service learning brings new life into the classroom, enhances performance on traditional measures of learning, increases interest in the subject, teaches new problem solving skills, and makes teaching more enjoyable (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

Wilson and Musick (1999) examined four variables in the context of volunteering: citizenship, anti-social behavior, physical and mental health, and occupational achievement. First, it was found that being active in a voluntary organization is positively related to civic responsibility. Volunteers were more likely to vote, participate in local politics, and encourage the democratic process (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Knoke (1990) also found that being active in volunteer organizations is positively related to being active in local politics. Second, the authors noted that volunteering significantly decreased the incidents of anti-social behaviors among teens such as getting pregnant, failing courses, or getting suspended from school. They caution that this may be partly due to the fact that students self-selected themselves into the volunteer program, and may have been less likely to participate in anti-social behaviors to begin with (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Through longitudinal analysis using mortality as an outcome variable, the authors have shown that volunteerism is related to better physical and mental health.

This could be due to the fact that volunteers may have easier access to fitness facilities, information, and other resources that promote healthy living. It was stated however that "volunteering improves health, but it is also likely that healthier people are more likely to volunteer" (Wilson & Musick, 1999, pg. 161).

Lastly, the variable of occupational achievement was analyzed. It was shown that students who participate in service learning programs are likely to see their GPA increase and that volunteering helps to develop skills such as leadership and teamwork. It was also reported that females seem to benefit more from volunteer experiences than men and that the more time a woman spends volunteering, the more prestigious her job is likely to be later in life (Wilson & Musick, 1999).

Ryan et al. (2001) examined the concept of commitment in environmental stewardship programs. The study found that many people initially took part in the volunteer programs to help the environment or for other altruistic reasons, but were more likely to stay active if they perceived other benefits as well. Social relationships, learning, and project organization were found to be significant predictors of continued participation, suggesting that organizations need to have a dynamic program that meets the changing motivations of volunteers as time progresses (Ryan et al., 2001). This study also found that those who volunteered more frequently found greater satisfaction with the benefits, and that active volunteers had more friends in the group, participated in other groups, and used the volunteer sites for recreation (Ryan et al., 2001).

Martinez and McMullin (2004) assessed the motivations of active and non-active members of a large nongovernmental organization to determine the effects of social networks, competing commitments, lifestyle changes, personal growth, and belief of the efficacy of one's actions on decision to become and remain active in the organization. They found that efficacy, the feeling

that one's actions are making a difference, had the greatest effect on active members' decision to be active in the group and that competing commitments had the most influence on decision not to participate (Martinez & McMullin, 2004). The members who felt a sense of pride in the work they were engaged in were more likely to continue to serve the organization. This highlighted the need for clear objectives and a well-developed management plan for volunteer programs to be successful.

Previous Research

Socio-demographic findings

In 1995, 93 million American adults (49% of the population) engaged in some form of volunteer activity which accounted for 20.3 billion working hours total (Clary & Snyder, 1999). In 1999, approximately 50% of American adults volunteered in nonprofit organizations that contributed $150 billion worth of service annually (Silverberg et al., 1999). Additionally, from September, 2001 to September, 2002, 1 in 4 people over 16 volunteered in some form or another (Boraas, 2003). Compared with earlier estimates, this figure shows that a very small percentage of Americans between the ages of 16 and 18 are volunteering. Also, White individuals have been reported to volunteer more frequently than African-Americans (United State Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007) however, when socioeconomic status was controlled for, African-Americans tended to participate in volunteer activities more than other races, and were also more likely to indicate altruistic motives for participation (Burns et al., 2005). This claim is in accordance with earlier findings, which stated that the socioeconomic status and race of a child can have a direct effect on whether or not he or she will be later engaged in civic activities such as volunteerism or participation in politics (Wilson & Musick, 1999).

Gender has been shown to have little to no effect on decisions to volunteer (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999), but economic status is likely to have an effect. According to Martinez and

McMullin (2004), members of volunteer organizations with higher incomes have more freedom to contribute financially to the organization while those with lower incomes tend to contribute more "sweat equity" (Martinez & McMullin, 2004).

A timeline of volunteer research

Volunteerism is not a new phenomenon. It has been a subject of interest in the leisure field for over five decades (see Kelly & Volkart 1952, Gordon & Babchuk 1959). Findings from these early works showed that members of the same group may place different values on their membership in terms of the need gratifications it makes possible (Kelley & Volkart, 1952); organizations vary in type and play to different personality types in membership (Gordon & Babchuk 1959); and that membership tenure is often greater and turnover is lower in groups with multiple objectives, large memberships, and long histories (Babchuk & Booth, 1969).

Following these studies, research on volunteerism evolved to examine trends and traditions of service in America (Ellis, 1978, Henderson, 1985); volunteer needs and motivations (Francies, 1983, McClelland, 1985); and how to effectively manage volunteers based on these needs (Henderson, 1980). A common objective was to understand the practical implications of assessing volunteer motivations, so that better program planning and volunteer management strategies could be identified.

Though relatively little was written on the topic in the 1970s and 1980s, the 1990s experienced a resurgence of interest in the topic of volunteerism (see Serow, 1991, Fischer et al., 1991, Verba et al., 1995, Wickham & Graefe, 1998). Wilson and Musick (1999) attribute this to concern that people were not voting, running for office, or supporting politics with their time and money as often compared to previous decades (Wilson & Musick, 1999). This hypothesis is somewhat supported by other studies that denote that active participation in volunteer

organizations can increase a sense of civic responsibility and citizenship (Knoke, 1990, Verba et al., 1995, Astin & Sax, 1998).

Examining volunteering through the lens of Person-Environmental Fit theory, Sargent and Sedlacek (1990) found that not only are there differences in personality types between members of different types of organizations, but that there are also differences in motivational needs between members of different types of organizations (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). The authors examined students volunteering in four campus organizations with different goals and objectives. Using a Holland-type personality scale and Murray's needs scale, they compared the motivations of members in the various organizations to the personality type of the members. Research showed that volunteers cannot be considered a homogenous group, but rather, vary from one organizational environment to the next in personality type and motivation (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990).

Wickham and Graefe (1998) analyzed motivations to volunteer in an environmental education setting. This study asked 30 volunteers to indicate the extent to which several motivational factors affected their decision to volunteer at an environmental education center in central Pennsylvania. Important motives were split between altruistic (desire to teach others, feel like they are making a difference, etc.) and egoistic (gain career experience, personal education experience, etc.) (Wickham & Graefe, 1998). The main goal of the research was to show how motives and demographic variables associated with those motives could be used to increase recruitment and retention efforts in volunteer programs (Wickham & Graefe, 1998). This study found that in addition to altruistic and egoistic motives, some volunteers desire a social setting in which to interact with other people. The authors state that managers of environmental education

centers could benefit from understanding volunteer motivations and based on this knowledge, they should design programs to meet the altruistic, egoistic, and social needs of volunteers.

Utilizing the Psychological Contract concept, Farmer and Fedor (1999) compared the management of volunteers to the management of paid employees within an organization. It is recognized that volunteers may differ from paid employees in the fact that they are not performing the service for monetary compensation. For this reason, employees and volunteers have been viewed differently in the literature. Furthermore, much research has focused on what leads people to volunteer, but there is a paucity of research with respect to what they do after they begin volunteering (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). This study found that elements of the Psychological Contract (common in human resources literature) can be an important tool to increase participation in various events and to reduce withdrawal from the organization (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). It establishes a set of reciprocal expectations for the organization and the volunteer and posits that if both entities are meeting their expectations, a satisfactory experience will result and lead to continued participation (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

More recently, Burns et al. (2005) recognized that college-aged young adults spend significant amounts of time volunteering and represent an important pool of future volunteers. It was stated that members of Generation Y are volunteering in their communities more than any other generation in American history (Burns et al., 2005). This study examined different motivations for volunteering of students attending different types of universities. The results indicate that students at different types of institutions do in fact have varying motivations for volunteerism, which was a good predictor of frequency of volunteering activities. An individual's motivation to volunteer is a better predictor of future behaviors than current

volunteer activities since the extent of one's current behaviors is often influenced by the amount of time an individual has for volunteering (Burns et al., 2005).

Operationalization

There are several definitions and interpretations for volunteering and related terms (See Henderson, 1985, Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, Wilson & Musick, 1999, Carlo et al., 2005). Through the decades, authors have operationalized "volunteer" in many ways. Heidrich (1990) viewed volunteerism in terms of service provided (Direct Service, Leadership, General Support, Members-At-Large) while Serow (1991) noted organization function (civic clubs, religious groups, fraternities or sororities, etc.). Fischer et al. (1991) examined Formal Volunteering, or actions carried out through an organization, and Informal Volunteering, defined as work that is engaged in outside of a formal organization. Wickham and Graefe (1998) studied whether volunteers were Habitual (serving regularly) or Occasional (serving once in a while), and Martinez and McMullin (2004) used the terms Active (paid dues and contributed service) and Non-Active (only paid dues). Still others have focused on "Volunteer Vacations" where participants pay thousands of dollars to travel somewhere and work (Campbell & Smith, 2006, Bruyere & Rappe, 2007).

In 1959, Gordon and Babchuk identified two distinct group types: Instrumental and Expressive. Instrumental groups serve as social influence organizations designed to maintain or to create some normative condition or change (Gordon & Babchuk, 1959). These organizations tend to be involved in a variety of issues, and due to the broad scope of objectives the authority is usually delegated to a committee that represents the organization publicly (Faich & Gale, 1971). Examples of instrumental groups might be organizations that lobby congress for lower greenhouse gas emissions from automobile manufacturers. The goals of the group are on a grand scale and members generally play more of a supporting role than an active one. Expressive

groups tend to focus on local issues related to specific goals of the group (Gordon & Babchuk, 1959). Examples of expressive groups may include hiking clubs that maintain trails for their own recreational use. The group members volunteer time and energy to protect and maintain recreation areas that they are particularly attached to.

Gordon and Babchuk (1959) state that this dichotomy may be overly-simplified. Some organizations are established as expressive and evolve to be more instrumental. In addition, some groups are both expressive and instrumental at the same time (Gordon & Babchuk, 1959). For example, the Sierra Club functions on multiple levels. On a local level, members protect recreation resources close to home. They may participate in service projects or go on outings in areas that they are attached to, but at the same time, the Sierra Club has much broader goals at the national level. This group has contributed to the protection of many natural resources and has been a key player in the environmental movement (Faich & Gale, 1971).

Liao-Troth and Dunn (1999) identified three major sectors in which organizations can be classified. These are Public (e.g. education, public healthcare, human services, etc.), Private (e.g. private healthcare, higher education, resort services, etc.), and Nonprofit (e.g. religious, animal rights, etc.). Carlo et al. (2005) expanded this to include six major types of organizations based on function. These are church or religious groups, social service agencies, schools, not-for-profit organization, for-profit corporations, and cause-oriented organizations.

Other studies attempt to classify the volunteer rather than the organization. Heidrich (1990) categorized four levels of participation in an organization as Direct Service, Leadership, General Support, and Members-At-Large. Other authors have suggested similar measures of involvement including serving on a committee, serving as an officer, or attending conferences and workshops (Wilson & Musick, 1999), or attending chapter functions and events,

participating in strategic planning process, promoting the organization, and participating in fundraising events (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

Finally, level of activity was addressed in regards to participation in a volunteer organization. A study on membership in the Appalachian Trail Conference compared motivations to volunteer (or not to volunteer) among active members (those that paid dues *and* volunteered) and non-active members (those that only paid dues) (Martinez & McMullin 2004). The following five factors were used to determine the willingness of individuals to volunteer. Efficacy refers to the ability of the individual to help protect the Appalachian Trail and to contribute to the management of natural resources. Competing Commitments include demands on an individual's time, finances, family, or job. Social Networks deals with knowing or meeting other people involved in volunteer activities. Lifestyle Change refers to changes in marital status or residence. The final factor, Personal Growth, deals with gaining experience for future employment and opportunities to grow as an individual (Martinez & McMullin 2004). This study was found to be a better predictor of non-active membership than of active membership.

Each of these approaches to defining volunteerism is valid, but a synthesis of all of these conceptualizations is needed. By examining the types of organizations people are volunteering for, the types of contributions they make to those organizations, and level of involvement in volunteering researchers can better identify the volunteer market. An understanding of the volunteers would aid in effective recruitment and retention efforts.

Volunteerism and College Students

Volunteering became popular on college campuses in 1960s and 1970s primarily through campus-based programs that encouraged community service (Ellis, 1978). In 1984, 29% of college students volunteered for a charity organization and 40% became involved in fund-raising

activities during their undergraduate years (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). In 1991, it was reported that nearly two out of three incoming freshman had volunteered during the previous year (Serow, 1991). Bringle and Hatcher (1996) stated "a significant number of college students actively participate in extracurricular community service through student organizations, the activities of student service offices, and campus-based religious organizations" (pg. 1), and that many faculty, staff, and students, particularly those at urban campuses, were involved in their communities, independent of the university (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

Bringle and Hatcher (1996) found that there was a sharp decline in student volunteer activities between high school and college. Astin and Sax (1998) reported that the most important factor influencing volunteerism in college is whether or not the student volunteered in high school. Other influencing factors include leadership ability, involvement in religious activities, commitment to participating in community action programs, tutoring other students during high school, being a guest in a teacher's home, and being a woman (Astin & Sax, 1998). This last finding is interesting because it has been shown that in the general population, gender has no significant impact on volunteerism (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999). If there is a significant difference among college students, this may have important implications for volunteer managers.

In 1998, 40% of freshmen said they spent one or more hours volunteering (Cress & Sax, 1998) and in 2005, 90% of college students reported to have volunteered in some capacity, 19% were currently volunteering, and 45% indicated that they intend to volunteer in the next two months (Carlo et al., 2005). School enrollment seems to have a significant effect on volunteering activities among young adults as well. People enrolled in schools have been observed to volunteer at twice the rate of those not enrolled. Furthermore, recent college graduates volunteer

twice as much as high school graduates and four times as much as high school dropouts (Boraas, 2003).

It was noted that 48% of students volunteered independently through a non-collegiate organization, and that entering freshmen who were most likely to volunteer tended to be less materialistic than their non-volunteering counterparts (Astin & Sax, 1998). The latter statement is supported by Thapa (1999) who states that materialistic lifestyles can be associated with less willingness to sacrifice material comforts for the benefit of another entity (Thapa, 1999). Furthermore, Astin and Sax (1998) reported that volunteer service during a student's undergraduate years enhances academic development, civic responsibility, and life skills. Students were more strongly committed to helping others, serving in their communities, promoting racial understanding, doing volunteer work, and working for nonprofit organizations. They were also less inclined to feel that individuals have little power to change society (Astin & Sax, 1998).

Volunteering has been shown to enhance GPA, general knowledge, knowledge of a field or discipline, and aspirations for advanced degrees. It can also be associated with increased time spent on homework and studying, and increased contact with faculty (Astin & Sax, 1998). Service participation has been linked to increases in social self-confidence and leadership abilities, and working at a park or other outdoor area increased commitment to clean up the environment, but had negative impacts on students' GPA. This may possibly be due to the fact that considerably more time is needed for this type of service, and these facilities are usually a greater distance from campus. Generally, the more time a student is devoted to service, the greater are the positive effects (Astin & Sax, 1998). Cress and Sax (1998) suggests that students' rising interest in volunteering may be manifestations of core values and attitudes. In 1998, one

in three freshmen considered to become a community leader to be a very important or essential life goal. In addition, four out of ten freshmen reported a desire to influence social values (Cress & Sax, 1998).

Motivation

Background

Motivation, the force that drives an individual to act in a certain way is one of the most basic concepts in psychology, yet researchers are still unable to fully grasp the concept (Iso-Ahola, 1989). Most scientists agree that people do not simply perform actions just for the sake of doing them. There is a force at work that moves that person to perform the action. Weber (1947) referred to this as a complex of subjective meaning which seems to the participant or to the observer as an adequate ground for the conduct in question. In other words, it is a justification for the individual's behavior. The literature reports that motives reflect the tendency to strive for a general class of incentives that are highly fused with affect (McClelland, 1985), and more recently, that people are compelled to act in such a way as to satisfy their needs (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). It is clear that there are underlying factors that affect individuals' decisions to perform any action, but determining those factors is complex.

Motives cannot be observed, but must be inferred from self-reports or actual behaviors, and there is no single motivational mechanism or theory that can explain all human motivation. Motives vary with situation and context (Iso-Ahola, 1989). It is accepted that self-reported behavior might not be an accurate assessment of actual behavior (Thapa, 1999), possibly due to social desirability bias. Social desirability bias can manifest when respondents report what they think the researcher wants to hear or what is socially desirable, rather than the actual facts (Serow, 1991). This is common when questioning people about issues that are widely

recognized as socially acceptable or unacceptable such as recycling, concern for the environment, vandalism, or the use of illegal drugs.

Previous Research

Motivation has been studied in various fields for decades, but only recently began to appear in leisure research. In the 1970s, researchers examined why people act the way they do during their leisure time. Various models have been developed to measure motivational factors and these tools have been used to extend further into more specific areas of leisure research, such as volunteerism.

A common finding in the study of leisure motivation is that each person has unique motivations and expectations with respect to the activity (Henderson, 1980), and several satisfaction goals are typically sought from participation in that activity (McFarlane, 1994). Different participants pursue different goals, and the same participant may be pursuing more than one goal (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Furthermore, individuals in diverse organizations would have different personal characteristics and motives, making generalizations from one activity to another misleading (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). Graefe et al. (2000) stated that empirical research has consistently shown that motivation dimensions differ for participants engaged in various activities, and can also vary for participants in the same or similar activities.

Motivation has been commonly used in conjunction with expectancy theory and satisfaction. Various terms including “preferences,” “psychological outcomes and benefits,” and “experience expectations” have been used to describe the social psychological processes represented by motivations and satisfactions (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Expectancy theory, developed in social psychology, suggests that people engage in activities in specific settings to realize a group of psychological outcomes that are known and valued. That is, people select and participate in recreation activities to meet certain goals or to satisfy certain needs (Manning,

2005). Satisfaction is generally referred to as a measure of the extent to which those expectations have been met. Motivation research is beneficial to this line of thinking because it helps to uncover what it is that leads a person to participate. By understanding motivations, researchers can more fully understand what is expected by the participant. By using that information, managers can plan programs and activities to maximize satisfaction with the experience.

Motivation to Volunteer

Volunteering is an activity conducted during an individual's leisure time. For this reason, it is not surprising that much of the research on volunteer motivations comes directly from the leisure literature. Studies on volunteer motivation began to appear in the 1970s, around the time that volunteering began to gain popularity on college campuses (Ellis, 1978). Early studies recognized that people did not volunteer purely for altruistic reasons. Instead, researchers used a continuum from altruism to egoism to identify motives for volunteering (Anderson & Moore, 1978).

It was realized that this two-dimensional approach did not clearly explain volunteer motivation for most individuals. Francies (1983) identified an Altruistic Deception Construct whereby people tend to socially portray their volunteer work as being altruistic, regardless of any other actual reason for engaging in the activity. Respondents reported high levels of altruistic motivation on the scales, but upon further investigation were found to have more egoistic motives (Francies, 1983). Volunteer motivation cannot be easily described as altruistic or egoistic because some motives combine self-interest and others-interest, and because many people indicate that they have both types of reasons for volunteering (Clary & Snyder, 1999). For these reasons, the continuum model was rejected in favor of a multi-faceted approach.

Drawing from psychology and leisure literature, scientists studying volunteer motivation began to apply the functional approach to their research. Several models have been used including the 2x2 Model of Seeking and Escaping (Iso-Ahola, 1989), Person-Environment Fit Theory (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990), the Psychological Contract (Farmer & Fedor, 1999), and the Octagon Model of Volunteer Motivation (Yeung, 2004). Since its development however, the most widely used model for measuring volunteer motivation has been the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI).

The Voluntary Function Inventory (VFI) was developed by Clary et al. (1996) to measure six functions of volunteering. The functions are Understanding, Social, Values, Protective, Career, and Enhancement. Each function consists of five individual items. Understanding involves a sense of learning and the development of new skills or perspectives. The Social function deals with participation with friends, or doing work that is viewed as important by the people who matter to the volunteer. Values relates to an individual putting their own beliefs into action to accomplish something that they perceive is important. The Protective function involves using the volunteer opportunity to cope with inner conflicts or stress. The Career function applies to situations where the individual is using the volunteer experience to build career experience or make networking connections. Finally, Enhancement deals with psychological development and personal growth (Clary et al. 1996).

The VFI has been found to be superior to other models that utilize either a single motivational dimension or a two-factor solution (Okun et al., 1998), and the scale has been shown to possess a high degree of internal consistency (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Burns et al. (2005) stated that the VFI is the preferred measure for understanding and measuring motivations to volunteer. It was shown that the scales appear to be reliable, having coefficient alphas

typically above .80 and test-retest correlations of .64-.78. The VFI also appears to possess construct and criterion validity. Responses to VFI scales are strongly correlated to volunteering activity (Burns et al., 2005).

Clary et al. (1998) further tested the validity and reliability of the VFI model by using the tool in six small studies. The first three studies used exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on diverse samples to test for validity across population and over time. They found that in all cases, the items loaded on a single factor and that the scale possesses substantial internal consistency and temporal stability. In addition, they found that functions are the same for volunteers and non-volunteers, indicating that the same volunteer concerns are present at different phases of the volunteer process (i.e. initiating volunteering and sustaining volunteering) (Clary et al., 1998). The fourth study tested for evidence of predictive validity by using the VFI model to design a series of promotional brochures for a volunteer program, each written to target one of the six volunteer dimensions. They found that the VFI correctly predicted the persuasive appeal of the messages when the message and motivation matched. The fifth study used the VFI to predict satisfaction in volunteer experiences. Again, it was found that when the experience and motivation are matched, higher levels of satisfaction are reported. Finally, the sixth study examined the future intentions of volunteers. Those volunteers that had their primary motivational functions satisfied in their volunteer experience were found to be more likely to intend to volunteer at a new location and to continue volunteering at the same location in the future (Clary et al., 1998).

People can be recruited into volunteer work by appealing to their own psychological functions (motives), they will be satisfied volunteers to the extent that they engage in volunteer work that serves these functions, and they will also continue to volunteer to the extent that these

functions are being served by volunteering. The authors suggest that although they found high support for the six-function VFI, their study examined volunteerism very generally. Thus, VFI items never speak to a particular type of volunteering. In addition, their samples consisted of both volunteers and non-volunteers, emphasized demographic diversity in the samples, and included volunteers with a wide range of tasks. It is expected that in other contexts, fewer or more functions may be present, especially when examining a specific form of volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998).

Clary and Snyder (1999) used the VFI to explore the volunteer process, paying special attention to factors that lead an individual to begin volunteering and decision to continue once they have started. Among other things, they found that typically respondents report that Values, Understanding, and Enhancement are the most important functions and that Career, Social, and Protective are less important but that the order varies across groups (Clary & Snyder, 1999). In addition, those who perceived greater benefits related to a particular function were more satisfied than those who perceived fewer benefits. Those who perceived higher benefits from functions that they considered to be important were more satisfied than those for whom the function was unimportant, regardless of perceived benefit (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Finally, college students that received functionally relevant benefits from volunteering were more likely to continue as volunteers than those who did not receive functionally relevant benefits, or those who received functionally irrelevant benefits (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

Okun and Schultz (2003) used the VFI to test volunteer motives across age groups. They found that as age increases, Career and Understanding motivations decreased while Social motivations increased. Furthermore, they found that age had little to no effect on Enhancement,

Protective, and Values motivations. The authors included another category, Making Friends, but found that the relationship between this category and age was nonlinear (Okun & Schultz, 2003).

Another use of the VFI compared the motivations of college students attending different types of universities (Burns et al., 2005). The authors sampled students in marketing classes at five institutions representing different philosophical and religious approaches to education. Across the five universities, differences were found in five of the six VFI functions. For all of the functions except Esteem, the African-American liberal arts university had the highest mean scores. In addition, the public commuter university had the lowest mean scores in four categories: Social, Protective, Understanding, and Values (Burns et al., 2005). This finding seems to be consistent with past research suggesting that race is a factor that affects one's likelihood to volunteer (Lucas, 1985, Wilson & Musick, 1999).

Wilson (2005) used the VFI model in conjunction with an assessment of level of involvement in volunteer programs to determine if volunteerism has the characteristics of Serious Leisure. This study used a sample of volunteers from the Florida Park Service and found that 95% were White, 78% had at least some college education, and 69% were married. The average length of volunteerism was 8 years and 69% of respondents reported volunteering 1-300 hours annually (Wilson, 2005). Additionally, those with college degrees were found to spend more hours volunteering than those with less education. The study found that motivation scores increased as participation and involvement increased. This shows that respondents placed greater importance on the motivational functions as participation continued (Wilson, 2005). This finding is in accordance with Clary et al. (1998), who found that a match of motivational function and volunteer experience leads to continued participation and greater satisfaction (Clary et al., 1998).

Finally, Bruyere and Rappe (2007) applied the VFI to volunteers in an environmental setting. The authors modified the original version by adding a qualitative question addressing the participant's self-reported most important motivation to volunteer. To make the tool useful for examining environmental volunteers, a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was conducted on the components of the VFI model, and seven new variables were identified: Help the Environment, Career, User, Learning, Social, Project Organization, and Values and Esteem (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). This seven-function VFI supports the Clary et al. (1998) prediction that fewer or more functions may be present when analyzing specific forms of volunteerism. Findings from this study show that Helping the Environment was the most important motivational factor, followed by User, Values and Esteem, Learning, Social, and Project Organization. Lastly, Career had significantly lower mean scores than every other category (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007).

Constraints

Though many studies have focused on motivation to volunteer, little has been reported about constraints to volunteerism. However, there have been numerous studies that have analyzed constraints to other leisure and recreation activities. Prior to the early 1990s, constraints research had only looked at constraints as insurmountable obstacles to participation. Little attention was paid to the intensity of constraints (Jackson et al., 1993). Contemporary constraints research posits that constraints are conceived of as phenomena that more likely result in modified participation than nonparticipation. "If a factor limits or inhibits participation in a given leisure pursuit, it may then be termed a *constraint*" (Raymore et al., 1993, pg. 99). It is generally accepted that three types of constraints exist. Intrapersonal constraints involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Interpersonal

constraints are those that occur when known co-participants themselves are perceived to be prevented from participation because of structural constraints (Raymore et al., 1993). Structural constraints are intervening factors between leisure preference and participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). This third category of constraints was the subject of most research prior to 1990.

Shaw et al. (1991) analyzed constraints to participation in various leisure time activities. The study identified 11 reported constraints: lack of time because of work, no facilities nearby, lack of time because of other leisure activities, low energy, requires too much self discipline, costs too much, injury or handicap, ill health, lack of necessary skills, available facilities are inadequate, and no leaders available (Shaw et al., 1991). Of these 11 constraints, only two were found to decrease participation in recreational activities and some were found to increase participation over time. It was reported that the structures themselves do not act directly as barriers to participation. Rather, it is the individual's perception of the structures and how those perceptions affect the experience that may constrain leisure (Shaw et al., 1991).

Jackson et al. (1993) proposed that individuals negotiate through various constraints, leading to modified participation in an activity rather than non-participation. Using existing constraints literature, the authors examined the negotiation concept. They found that preferences as well as participation are influenced by constraints and that constraints are interrelated (Jackson et al., 1993). Using the Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints proposed by Crawford et al. (1991) (see Figure 2-1), the authors confirmed that there is a hierarchical relationship between the three levels of constraints. Individuals will first be confronted with Intrapersonal constraints. Successful negotiation through these constraints allows the individual to proceed. Next, they will encounter Interpersonal constraints. If these constraints are negotiated successfully and interpersonal compatibility and coordination are established, the

individual will face structural constraints. If all three levels of constraints are successfully negotiated, the end result is participation in the activity. If the constraints are not negotiated effectively, the result is non-participation (Jackson et al., 1993).

To explain why some individuals are able to successfully negotiate constraints while others are not, Jackson et al. (1993) proposed the Balance model (see Figure 2-2). This model shows that based on how effectively they negotiate different levels of constraints, individuals can be placed into one of three groups: those who do not participate, those who alter participation because of constraints, and those who successfully negotiate constraints and participate with no changes (Jackson et al., 1993). The authors show that the *level* of participation, as opposed to a participation/non-participation dichotomy, can be viewed as a function of the balance between constraints and motivations. "Both the initiative and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participating in an activity and motivations for such participation" (Jackson et al., 1993, pg. 9). As each constraint is approached, the individual checks their motivation for performing the activity with the potential constraint. If the rewards (motivations) exceed the costs (constraints), the individual will progress along the continuum. This balance proposition was found to be highly consistent with a social exchange depiction of the negotiation process as a decision-making confrontation between rewards (motivations) and costs (constraints) and confirms that even if constraints are present, participation in an activity can still be an outcome, though it may be altered from unconstrained participation (Jackson et al., 1993).

Raymore et al. (1993) developed an instrument to measure perceived levels of Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural constraints on leisure when individuals are beginning a new activity. Factor analysis confirmed that these three categories of constraints exist and

empirical evidence supporting a hierarchical relationship between them was found (Raymore et al., 1993). Individuals with high Intrapersonal constraints would not progress to face Interpersonal constraints and those with high Interpersonal constraints would not progress to face Structural constraints. The authors caution that the instrument was developed and tested for the process of starting *any* new leisure activity. Different approaches should be used in different contexts, but should use a similar framework so that comparisons can be made across activities (Raymore et al., 1993). Finally, they suggest that a qualitative approach may be useful in developing a broader understanding of constraints on leisure and the subsequent outcomes associated with each class of constraints (Raymore et al., 1993).

Verba et al. (1995) analyzed common reasons why individuals do not participate in political volunteerism. Three common dimensions of barriers to volunteerism were reported as Lacked Capacity, Lacked Motivation, and Had Not Been Asked. These dimensions were only applied to political activism and cannot be generalized to all forms of volunteerism.

It was reported that the most common objection that college students have to volunteering is that it consumes time and energy that might otherwise be devoted to academic pursuits (Astin & Sax, 1998). The authors note that this argument has been refuted by their longitudinal analysis and that volunteerism tends to have positive impacts on academic development. However, if students perceive this to be a barrier, it is worthy of further investigation.

Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) examined whether the three types of constraints (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural) existed in the context of nature-based tourism. Using telephone interviews and a five-point Likert-type scale, respondents were asked to indicate how influential each of 11 constraints was to their decision not to participate in nature-based recreation activities (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). The study confirmed through factor

analysis that the three types of constraints do exist in nature-based recreation, but that Intrapersonal constraints did not appear to be a major influence in non-participation in their sample.

Thapa et al. (2002) sought to empirically test the same model within the context of tourism in Florida. Specifically, the study focused on non-Florida residents who had previously visited Florida. Again, this study confirmed three types of constraints, but it did not find evidence of Interpersonal constraints. Instead, the authors identified Intrapersonal constraints and two types of Structural constraints: Personal and Environmental (Thapa et al., 2002). Personal Structural constraints are associated more with the individual, while Environmental Structural constraints relate to the recreational setting. The authors posit that the lack of Interpersonal constraints may be due to the fact that tourism to Florida is often undertaken within a group of friends or family members. As a result, Interpersonal constraints may not be relevant (Thapa et al., 2002). This study highlights the need for further examination of leisure constraints in different settings and contexts. Pennington-Gray et al. (2002) further tested the model within the context of tourism in Florida, this time with a focus on Florida residents. The study found empirical support for the constraints model for Florida residents with respect to visitation to parks and other public lands. However, it did not test for a hierarchical relationship between the three levels of constraints or a constraint negotiation process. The authors suggest that future research should address these issues (Pennington-Gray et al., 2002).

Nyaupane et al. (2004) tested for differences in the constraints model across three specific recreational activities: canoeing, whitewater rafting, and horseback riding. The results partially supported the model proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987), but also found that items within the same dimensions can play different roles in different contexts. The importance of each

constraint differed across activities for the same group of individuals, supporting the hypothesis that the same items may play different roles in constraining different leisure activities (Nyaupane et al., 2004). Similar to Thapa et al. (2002), the authors found that the Structural constraints dimension was more complex than expected and should be reexamined in future studies of constraints to nature-based tourism, to explore the possibility of multiple subcategories of this dimension (Nyaupane et al., 2004).

Mowen et al. (2005) examined the stability of leisure constraints over time. They compared constraints research from the Cleveland area from 1991 and 2001 and analyzed changes in perceived constraints over time. Despite finding minor differences in demographics between the two samples, constraint perceptions remained remarkably similar over time. In both samples, the most commonly cited constraints to park use were 'too busy with other activities,' 'lack of time,' and 'too busy with family responsibilities' (Mowen et al., 2005). The authors also found that income was the single best predictor of perceived constraints while age, gender, and education were also useful predictors (Mowen et al., 2005).

Finally, in a study of constraints to volunteering at the Canada Summer Games in 2001, Cleave and Doherty (2005) used a mixed-methods approach to compare the constraints of non-volunteers to volunteers. Using items in three dimensions (Intrapersonal Constraints, Interpersonal Constraints, Structural Constraints) and focus-group interviews, the authors found strong evidence for Structural Constraints with both groups, moderate evidence for Intrapersonal Constraints, but only limited evidence of Interpersonal Constraints (Cleave & Doherty, 2005). Though similar constraints were found in both groups, non-volunteers were unable to negotiate through the barriers to participation. The authors posit that this may be due to unique constraints for non-volunteers. For example, non-volunteers were less attracted to volunteerism, to sports in

general, and to the Canada Games (Cleave & Doherty, 2005). The authors suggest that volunteer managers should address these constraints by making the volunteer program seem relevant by highlighting other motives such as economic potential or career enhancement (Cleave & Doherty, 2005).

Summary

Volunteerism has been shown to be beneficial to both the volunteer and to the organization that they are volunteering for (Wilson & Musick, 1999, Ryan et al., 2001, Burns et al., 2005). In particular, college students, who have been shown to be very active in volunteerism in recent years (Serow, 1991, Astin & Sax, 1998, Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999) can be a valuable resource to agencies and organizations lacking manpower or funding to support a full staff as well as the mission of the organization. Financial constraints on nonprofits have increased the importance of volunteers in recent years (Wickham & Graefe, 1998) due to the fact that many organizations don't have the funding for a large staff and rely on volunteers for the majority of their workforce (Ryan et al., 2001). Conversely, volunteers rely on these organizations to provide opportunities for service. It has been shown that non-governmental organizations (NGO) provide the majority of volunteer experiences (Campbell & Smith, 2006).

Research has consistently indicated that volunteers engage in these behaviors for different reasons and that each volunteer may have multiple motivations for doing what they do. Volunteer motivation research can be a valuable tool to managers, aiding in recruitment and retention of volunteers (Wickham & Graefe, 1998, Wilson & Musick, 1999) as well as in planning effective programs that will provide a satisfactory experience to the volunteer while accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990). Furthermore, little research has been done on the specific volunteer motivations of undergraduate college students. This unique demographic holds tremendous potential for volunteer recruitment efforts

as it has been noted that college students are “the future custodians, educators, policy makers, planners, and administrators” (Thapa, 2001, pg. 42).

Finally, there is a lack of research on constraints to volunteerism, though many studies exist that examine constraints to leisure in general. Because of its potential to drastically limit volunteer participation, particularly in college students who have many other competing commitments, this concept warrants further exploration. Using tools developed for measuring the three categories of leisure constraints (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural), comparisons can be made between constraints to volunteerism and other leisure activities.

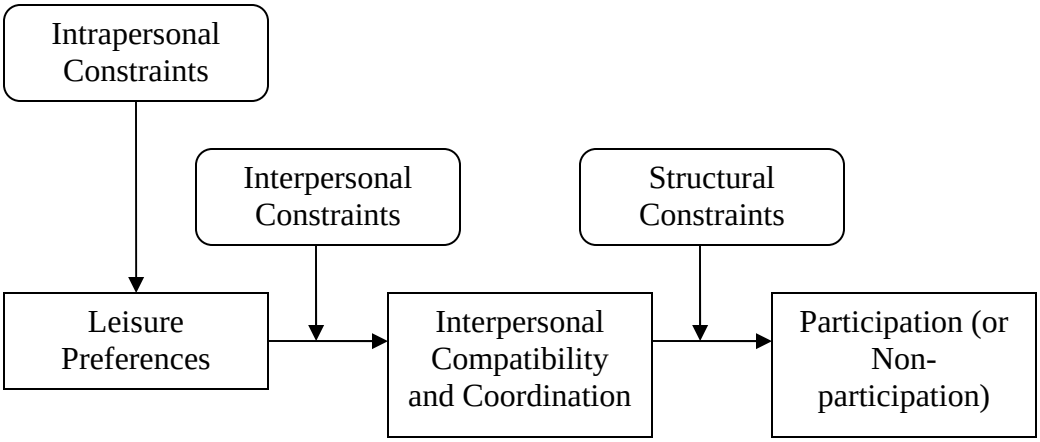

Figure 2-1. Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints. (Source: Crawford et al., 1991, pg. 13)

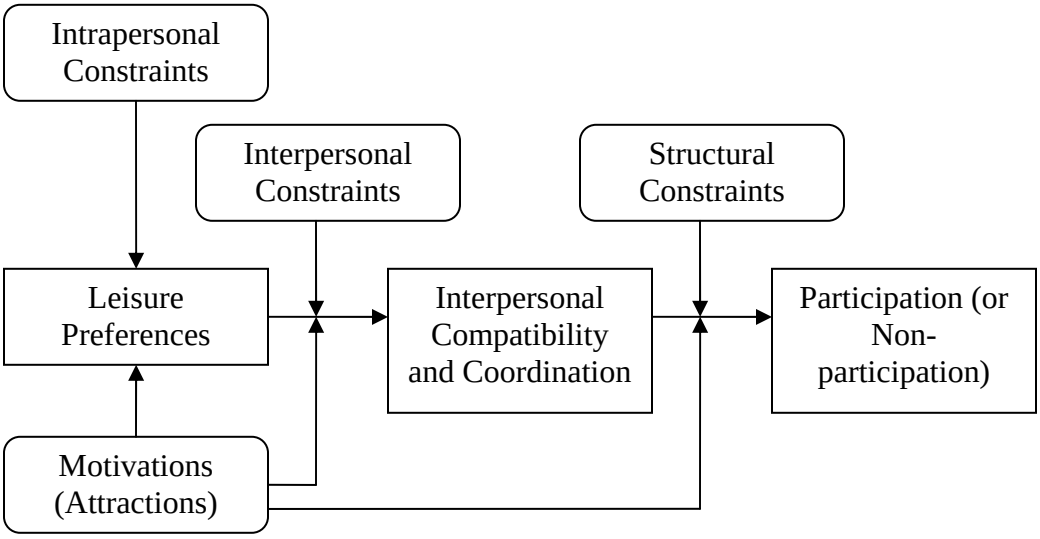

Figure 2-2. Leisure Participation as the Balance Between Constraints and Motivations. (Source: Jackson et al., 1993)

CHAPTER 3
PROCEDURES

The procedures used in this examination of the relationships between volunteerism, motivation, and constraints among undergraduate students are described in four sections of this chapter:

1. The Study Area
2. Selection of Subjects
3. Instrumentation
4. Treatment of the Data

The Study Area

Large campuses tend to support a wide array of volunteer activities both on and off campus (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). The University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida is exemplar of this type of institution. Gainesville is not a large metropolis, but is much larger and more heavily populated than the surrounding areas in the predominantly rural Alachua County. Furthermore, the University of Florida has the second largest student body in America, with 55,000 graduate and undergraduate students. In addition to the large student body, there is a wealth of volunteer opportunities within close proximity to the campus. There are several city, county, and state parks, human services organizations, and other volunteer opportunities within a few miles of the University, and the campus boasts one of the most active student bodies in America in terms of student-run organizations on campus. The majority of these organizations also tend to have a focus on volunteer service and community outreach.

This study was conducted in three undergraduate Introduction to Recreation classes at the University of Florida. These classes were chosen as a convenience sample to ensure that enough responses were received to investigate the research questions. This limits the generalizability of the results, but can be effective as an exploratory study to determine the future direction of this line of research.

Selection of Subjects

The Introduction to Recreation classes that were utilized in this study, were online-based courses. Participants should have included all students enrolled in this course in the Spring 2009 Semester. There were 305 students enrolled in the three classes ranging from freshmen to seniors. Participation in the class required students to complete a certain number of surveys or questionnaires throughout the course of the semester. A response rate of 88.5% was achieved due to the fact that this was a captive audience and participation was directly related to enrollment in the class.

Instrumentation

An electronic version of a five page survey was developed with the assistance of a technology professional at the university. The tool consisted of four major sections. The first section addressed volunteer participation and included the scope of volunteerism, types of volunteer activities, and contribution to the organizations. The second section addressed volunteer motivations using 32 motivational items rated on a Likert-type scale from Not at all Important (1) to Extremely Important (7). These items and functions have been empirically tested in many studies and have proven to be valid and reliable (Clary & Snyder, 1999, Burns et al., 2005). In addition, an open-ended question was used to record other motivational factors not listed. The third section addressed constraints to participation in volunteer activities. Participants indicated the level of influence of each of 15 constraint items on their decision not to volunteer. This section also included an open-ended question to record any other constraints to volunteerism. Finally, the fourth section included select socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, year of schooling, academic major, and residence.

Treatment of the Data

This section addresses two areas: the operationalization of variables (volunteerism, motivation, and constraints) and the testing of research questions.

Operationalization of Variables

Volunteerism

In the literature, there has been a lack of consensus with respect to operationalization of volunteerism. Volunteerism has been operationalized in terms of the organizational structure of the volunteer activity (Gordon & Babchuk, 1959, Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999), level of activity and involvement of the volunteers (Heidrich, 1990, Fischer et al., 1991, Wilson & Musick, 1999), and characteristics of the volunteers (Sargent & Sedlacek, 1990, Clary & Snyder, 1999, Carlo et al., 2005). In this study, elements of each of these conceptualizations were used. This study measured volunteerism by the Scope of Volunteerism, the Volunteer Segment, and Type of Contributions.

The Scope of Volunteerism addressed the extent to which the individual had volunteered in the past based on three measures of volunteerism (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Volunteer Range was based on the number of organizations that the individual had volunteered for in the past. Volunteering Amount was the total number of hours that the volunteer contributed each year. Volunteering Length was the number of years that the individual had offered volunteer service (Wilson & Musick, 1999).

The Volunteer Segment section identified six categories of volunteer service; Political, Environmental, Recreational, Cultural, Human Services, and Educational. Examples of organizations in each of these six categories were provided. In addition, a category was added for “informal” volunteering, or service provided independent of an organization (Fischer et al., 1991).

Type of Contributions addressed the level of support based on five items: Time (e.g. attend meetings, sit on a committee, fundraising drives, etc.), Money (e.g. donations, annual dues, etc.), Leadership (e.g. hold office, chair a committee, act as a team leader on a project, etc.), Resources (e.g. allow the use of tools, vehicles, property, etc.), and Skills (e.g. physical labor, expertise/specialized knowledge, etc.). These three volunteerism measures provided a comprehensive assessment.

Motivation

The Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) developed by Clary et al. (1996) has been the standard tool to measure volunteer motivation (Okun et al., 1998, Burns et al., 2005). Since its development, it has been widely used to examine volunteer motivation, and was also used in this study. The VFI was developed to measure six functions of volunteering. The functions are Understanding, Social, Values, Protective, Career, and Enhancement. Understanding involves a sense of learning and development of new skills. The Social function relates to participation with friends, or doing work that is viewed as important by the people who matter to the volunteer. Values relates to an individual putting their own beliefs and values into action. The Protective function involves using the volunteer experience to cope with inner conflicts or stress. The Career function applies to situations where the individual is using the volunteer experience to build career experience. Enhancement deals with psychological development and personal growth (Clary et al. 1996). Five items from each dimension were used with two additional items. The items were rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale from Not at all Important (1) to Extremely Important (7) to assess the level of importance of each item on the participant's decision to volunteer. An open-ended question was used as an "Other" motive category. Specifically, the item read, "Please list any other factors that may contribute to your volunteerism."

Constraints

Constraints were measured by three dimensions with five items in each. The dimensions were Intrapersonal Constraints (involving personal psychological states that interact with leisure preference), Interpersonal Constraints (those constraints involving other participants), and Structural Constraints (barriers between preference and participation) (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). The items were rated using a 5-point Likert-type scale from No Influence (1) to Very Strong Influence (5), indicating how influential each item is to their decision not to volunteer. An open-ended question was also used as an "Other" constraint category. It read, "Please list any other factors that may prevent you from volunteering."

Testing the Research Questions

Data were entered and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). All research questions were tested using this software.

Question 1: What motivates college students to volunteer?

Factor analysis was utilized on the VFI items to establish motivation dimensions for this sample. Reliability analysis was used to confirm the validity of each dimension. Index scores were computed by taking the mean of the items in each dimension to identify which dimensions had the greatest influence on volunteerism among college students.

Question 2: What is the relationship between motivation and volunteer segments?

VFI scores were computed and means were compared for each of the six Volunteer Segments. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used with Volunteer Segment as the independent variable and dimension scores as the dependent variables. Additionally, motivations were compared between those who volunteered for Environmental organizations and those who did not.

Question 3: What is the relationship between volunteer motives and select socio-demographic characteristics?

Comparisons were made between select demographic variables and VFI dimensions using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-group t-tests.

Question 4: What constrains volunteerism among college students?

Reliability analysis was conducted to verify the internal consistency of each of the three dimensions (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural). Scores were determined for each dimension by computing means.

Question 5: What is the relationship between volunteer constraints and select socio-demographic characteristics?

Comparisons were made between select demographic variables and constraints dimensions using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-group t-tests.

Question 6: Is there a relationship between volunteer motivations and constraints?

Correlation analysis was used with VFI factors and Constraint factors to determine whether or not relationships existed.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

The results of the data analysis are illustrated in three major sections of this chapter:

1. Profile of Respondents
2. Description and Analysis of Key Variables
3. Results of the Research Questions

Profile of Respondents

Of the 270 respondents, 37.9% were males and 62.1% were females. Nearly 75% were Caucasian and 60.6% were in their Senior year. The majority of the sample was comprised of students from the United States with 3.0% originating from outside the country. Among the domestic students, 19 states were represented, with 81.9% of students originating in Florida. Over half of the students grew up in a large city (26.9%) or a small city (24.6%), and less than 10.0% grew up in a small town (8.3%) or a farm, ranch, or rural area (1.1%) (see Table 4-1).

In the 12 months prior to the study, 80.0% of respondents had volunteered, and over half of those volunteered for two or more organizations in that time period. Additionally, 39.0% reported to have volunteered independently, outside of an organization. About 41.6% of respondents spent between one and five hours per month volunteering, while 14.8% spent less than one hour per month. Over half of the respondents began volunteering between 2001 and 2005, and 36.3% began between 1996 and 2000. For the majority of respondents, these years represent the time spent in high school.

More than 97% of respondents volunteered in High School, and 88.7% were required to participate in a compulsory volunteer program such as “Service Learning” or “Community Service Hours.” Of those, 82.6% served beyond the mandatory requirement. Family was responsible for introducing 40.2% of respondents to volunteerism, while teachers (23.4%), friends (15.9%), and religious leaders (11.2%) accounted for over half. Nearly three fourths of

respondents volunteered in natural areas (e.g. parks, beaches, etc.) though only 54 respondents volunteered with environmental organizations (see Table 4-2).

Description and Analysis of Key Variables

Volunteerism

Volunteerism was operationalized using three measures: Scope of Volunteerism, Volunteer Segment, and Type of Contributions. Scope of Volunteerism addressed the extent to which the individual had volunteered in the past based on three items: Volunteer Range (the number of organizations volunteered for), Volunteer Amount (the total number of hours volunteered), and Volunteer Length (the number of years that the individual had been providing volunteer service).

The Volunteer Segment variable was comprised of six categories: Political, Environmental, Recreational, Cultural, Human Services, and Educational. Respondents were asked to select all of the segments that they had volunteered for and then to select the one that was most important to them.

Type of Contributions addressed the level of support that the volunteer provided to the organization and was based on five items: Time, Money, Leadership, Resources, and Skills. Respondents were asked to select all types of contributions that they provided for their organizations and also to select the most significant contribution.

The majority (80%) of respondents had volunteered in the 12 months prior to the study. Over 10% had been volunteering for more than 10 years, and 18.6% contributed more than 100 hours of volunteer service per year. The most important volunteer organizations were Human Services organizations (41.3%), while Educational programs were also important (29.1%). Over 50% of respondents volunteered for one of these types of organizations, and many volunteered for both. Over 70% of respondents stated that one of these types of organizations was the most

important to them. In addition to the six Volunteer Segments presented, respondents listed the Humane Society, Greek organizations, and religious organizations in the open response question.

Over half of respondents reported that Time was their most important contribution to volunteer organizations (54.5%). Contributions of Skills (22.5%) and Leadership (16.0%) were also noted. Money was not considered to be an important contribution (4.7%), though 43.5% of respondents had contributed financially to an organization (see Table 4-3).

Motivation

The Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) was employed to investigate volunteer motivation (Clary et al., 1996). The original 30 items were used with the addition of two new items: "I feel volunteering is a religious duty" and "Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment." Respondents rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Means were calculated for each item. Items with the highest means were, "I feel it is important to help others" (5.91), "I am concerned with those less fortunate than myself" (5.73), "I can do something for a cause that is important to me" (5.73), "I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving" (5.66), and "Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things" (5.64). Items with the lowest means were, "I feel volunteering is a religious duty" (3.51), "By volunteering, I feel less lonely" (3.60), "Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles" (3.79), "Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others" (3.79), and "Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems" (4.00) (see Table 4-4).

Following frequency analysis, an exploratory principal component factor analysis using Varimax rotation was employed for the VFI. Five volunteer dimensions were identified: Enhancement (3 items), Social (6 items), Career (6 items), Protective (6 items), and Values and Understanding (11 items). A reliability analysis was conducted for each dimension. Cronbach's

alphas were above 0.8 for each dimension and no items were removed. Collectively, the five dimensions explained nearly 66% of the total variance. Based upon the reliability analysis, the mean values of the items within each dimension were computed into single composite index scores for each dimension, respectively (see Tables 4-5 and 4-6).

Constraints

Constraints were measured using 15 items representing three dimensions: Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, and Structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Respondents rated each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Means were calculated for each item and are illustrated in Table 6. Items with the highest means were, "I have too many other commitments" (3.25), "I have no time to volunteer" (3.00), and "I am unaware of opportunities to volunteer" (2.50). Items with the lowest means were, "I have an injury, handicap, or ill health" (1.63), "I do not feel safe at volunteer sites" (1.64), "My family does not volunteer" (1.69), and "I do not have the necessary skills" (1.69). A frequency distribution of these items is illustrated in Table 4-7.

Based on the conceptual dimensions of Constraints, reliability analysis was conducted to verify the internal consistency of each of the three dimensions (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural). Cronbach's alphas were above 0.6 for each dimension and no items were removed. The three constraints dimensions explained over 58% of the total variance. Based on the reliability analysis, the mean values of the items within each dimension were computed into single composite index scores for each dimension (see Table 4-8).

Results of the Research Questions

Question 1: What motivates college students to volunteer?

Factor analysis yielded five Volunteer motivation dimensions for this sample. Dimension index scores were computed by taking the mean of the items in each dimension. The Values and

Understanding dimension scored the highest among respondents with a mean of 5.45. The Protective dimension scored the lowest among respondents with a mean of 4.01 (see Table 4-6).

Question 2: What is the relationship between motivation and volunteer segment?

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there was a relationship between motivation dimensions and volunteer segments. The five volunteer dimensions were used as dependent variables and the respondents' most important type of organization was used as the independent variable. Based on the results, a lack of significant relationship existed for all the analyses (see Table 4-9).

Further analysis was conducted on environmental volunteers. An independent sample t-test was conducted to investigate the motivations of those who volunteered for Environmental organizations and those who did not. No significant relationships were found (see Table 4-10)

Question 3: What is the relationship between volunteer motivations and select socio-demographic characteristics?

One-way analysis of variance and independent sample t-tests were used to investigate the relationships between motivations and select socio-demographic variables. The variables chosen were gender, race/ethnicity, class standing, and type of hometown.

Independent sample t-tests were employed to analyze the relationships between gender and motivations (VFI dimensions). One significant difference was found between gender and volunteer motivations. Females were more likely than males to indicate Values and Understanding as a motive to volunteer (see Table 4-11).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between race/ethnicity and motivations. Tests were conducted using the five motivation dimensions as dependent variables and race/ethnicity as an independent variable. No significant differences were found between race/ethnicity groups and motivation (see Table 4-12).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between class standing and motivations. Tests were conducted between each of the five motivation dimensions and class standing. No significant differences were found between class standing and motivation (see Table 4-13).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between type of hometown and motivations. Tests were conducted on each of the five motivation dimensions and type of hometown. No significant differences were found between hometown types and motivation (see Table 4-14).

Question 4: What constrains volunteerism among college students?

Factor analysis yielded three Constraint Dimensions for this sample. A Constraint Score was computed by taking the mean for all 15 items. Additionally, dimension scores were computed by taking the mean of the items in each dimension. Constraints Scores ranged from 1.00 to 3.67 with a mean of 2.13 for the entire sample. Structural constraints were the strongest for this sample with a mean of 2.54 and Intrapersonal constraints were the weakest with a mean of 1.87.

Question 5: What is the relationship between volunteer constraints and select socio-demographic characteristics?

One-way analysis of variance and independent sample t-tests were used to investigate the relationships between constraints and select socio-demographic variables. The variables chosen were gender, race/ethnicity, class standing, and type of hometown.

Independent sample t-tests were employed to analyze the relationships between gender and constraints. Significant differences between males and females were found for the Interpersonal Constraints dimension and in the total Constraints Score. Males reported stronger constraints to volunteerism in both cases (see Table 4-15).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between race/ethnicity and constraints. Tests were conducted on each of the Constraints dimensions and on the total Constraints index scores of respondents. Significant differences were found between race/ethnicity and Interpersonal constraints. Respondents who reported that they were White/Caucasian or Hispanic/Latino were more likely to report Interpersonal constraints than were African American/Black or Asian respondents (see Table 4-16).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between class standing and constraints. Tests were conducted between each of the Constraints dimensions and class standing. No significant differences were found between class standing and constraints (see Table 4-17).

One-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the relationships between type of hometown and constraints. Tests were conducted on each of the Constraints dimensions and type of hometown. No significant differences were found between hometown type and volunteer constraints (see Table 4-18).

Question 6: Is there a relationship between volunteer motivations and constraints?

A bivariate linear correlation analysis was used to determine whether or not there was a relationship between volunteer motivations and constraints. Analyses were conducted on Motivation and Constraints dimensions. The Intrapersonal constraints dimension was positively correlated with the Social (r=0.18), Protective (r=0.16), and Enhancement (r=0.14) dimensions. The Values and Understanding function was negatively correlated with both the Interpersonal (r=-0.22) and Structural (r=-0.15) constraints dimensions. No correlations were found between the Career function and any constraints dimension.

The Values and Understanding function of motivation revealed two out of three significant relationships with constraints dimensions. However, a lack of a significant relationship was

identified with Intrapersonal constraints. Of the significant relationships, Interpersonal constraints displayed the strongest relationship (r=-0.22), followed by Structural constraints (r=-0.15). These results indicated that as a respondent's level of Values and Understanding motivations increased, the level of perceived Structural and Interpersonal constraints decreased. Further, as the level of perceived Intrapersonal constraints increased, a respondent's Enhancement (r=0.14), Social (r=0.18), and Protective (r=0.16) motivations also increased (see Table 4-19).

Table 4-1. Socio-demographic profile of respondents

Socio-demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	100	37.9%
Female	164	62.1%
Age		
Under 20 years	25	9.5%
20 years	61	23.2%
21 years	120	45.6%
22 years or older	57	21.7%
Race/Ethnicity		
Caucasian/White	196	74.8%
Hispanic/Latino	30	11.5%
African American/Black	18	6.9%
Asian	10	3.8%
Native American/American Indian	1	0.4%
Multi-racial/Mixed race	7	2.7%
Class Standing		
Freshman	11	4.2%
Sophomore	24	9.1%
Junior	69	26.1%
Senior	160	60.6%
Home Country		
Australia	1	0.4%
Bolivia	2	0.8%
Columbia	1	0.4%
Guyana	1	0.4%
UK	3	1.1%
USA	256	97.0%
Hometown Size		
Farm/Ranch/Rural	3	1.1%
Small Town	22	8.3%
Large Town	53	20.1%
Small City	65	24.6%
Large City	71	26.9%
Metropolitan Area	50	18.9%

Note: The percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding

Table 4-2. Volunteer profile of respondents

Volunteer Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Volunteered in the past 12 months		
Yes	216	80.0%
No	54	20.0%
Number of Volunteer Organizations		
0	4	1.9%
1	91	42.7%
2	70	32.9%
3	31	14.6%
4 or more	17	8.0%
Volunteered Independently Outside of an Organization		
Yes	83	39.0%
No	130	61.0%
Volunteer Hours/Month		
Less than 1	27	14.8%
1 to 5	76	41.6%
6 to 10	36	19.6%
More than 10	43	23.6%
Year Started Volunteering		
1991 to 1995	13	6.4%
1996 to 2000	74	36.3%
2001 to 2005	107	52.5%
After 2005	10	5.0%
Volunteered in High School		
Yes	206	96.7%
No	7	3.3%
Compulsory Volunteering in High School		
Yes	189	88.7%
No	24	11.3%
Volunteered Beyond High School Requirement		
Yes	176	82.6%
No	37	17.4%
Introduced to Volunteering By:		
Family	86	40.2%
Friend	34	15.9%
Teacher	50	23.4%
Religious Leader	24	11.2%
Scouting/Organization Leader	14	6.5%
Other	6	2.8%
Volunteered in Natural Areas		
Yes	159	74.6%
No	54	25.4%

Note: The percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding

Table 4-3. Volunteer scope, segment, and contribution

Volunteer Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Volunteered in the past 12 months		
Yes	216	80.0%
No	54	20.0%
Volunteer Hours/Week		
Less than 1	52	32.1%
1 to 5	98	60.6%
More than 5	12	7.4%
Volunteer Hours/Year		
Less than 1	6	3.1%
1 to 25	80	41.7%
26 to 50	45	23.3%
51 to 75	9	4.6%
76 to 100	16	8.3%
More than 100	36	18.8%
Years Spent Volunteering		
2 or fewer	17	8.2%
3 to 4	36	17.3%
5 to 6	51	24.5%
7 to 8	46	22.2%
More than 8	58	27.9%
Type of Volunteer Organization*		
Political	35	13.0%
Environmental	54	20.0%
Recreational	98	36.3%
Cultural	99	36.7%
Human Services	158	58.5%
Educational	154	57.0%
Other	14	5.2%
Most Important Type of Volunteer Organization		
Political	4	1.9%
Environmental	9	4.2%
Recreational	13	6.1%
Cultural	34	16.0%
Human Services	88	41.3%
Educational	62	29.1%
Other	3	1.4%
Contribution to Volunteer Organization*		
Time	197	73.0%
Money	94	34.8%
Leadership	89	33.0%
Resources	66	24.4%
Skills	155	57.4%
Other	1	0.4%

Table 4-3. Continued	9	4.6%
Volunteer Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Most Important Contribution		
Time	116	54.5%
Money	10	4.7%
Leadership	34	16.0%
Resources	3	1.4%
Skills	48	22.5%
Other	2	0.9%
Teacher	50	23.4%
Religious Leader	24	11.2%
Scouting/Organization Leader	14	6.5%
Other	6	2.8%

Note: The percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding
*Multiple responses

Table 4-4. Frequency distribution of Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) items

Questionnaire Statement*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N	Mean
I feel it is important to help others	1	1	6	11	39	80	70	208	5.91
I am concerned with those less fortunate than myself	0	1	6	16	53	83	51	210	5.73
I can do something for a cause that is important to me	2	1	3	16	59	71	57	209	5.73
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	1	2	5	25	48	74	54	209	5.66
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	2	1	7	13	55	88	41	207	5.64
I feel compassion towards people in need	1	4	5	17	68	59	54	208	5.60
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	4	1	9	17	82	63	33	209	5.36
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	2	4	8	22	89	56	29	210	5.27
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	3	1	12	30	75	57	30	208	5.23
I can explore my own strengths	5	4	5	36	75	58	27	210	5.16
Volunteering experiences will look good on my resume	9	12	7	36	69	46	30	209	4.92
Volunteering makes me feel important	5	10	18	33	66	55	22	209	4.90
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	11	8	16	45	58	49	23	210	4.76
Volunteering can help me get a foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	12	13	21	24	68	44	28	210	4.75
Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment	11	8	17	42	68	42	20	208	4.70
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	14	13	20	34	57	49	23	210	4.65
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	12	12	16	44	61	45	20	210	4.64
Volunteering is a way to make new friends	9	9	16	50	74	33	18	209	4.64
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	12	8	17	57	55	36	25	210	4.63
Volunteering increases my self-esteem	13	8	18	44	77	36	14	210	4.56
People I know share an interest in community service	6	12	25	52	65	38	12	210	4.52
Volunteering makes me feel needed	15	9	24	52	53	32	21	206	4.45
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it	11	11	23	62	52	33	18	210	4.45
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	14	12	34	48	56	35	10	209	4.27
People I'm close to want me to volunteer	17	15	36	54	52	26	9	209	4.07
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	17	19	30	59	50	22	11	208	4.04
My friends volunteer	17	14	32	62	62	18	5	210	4.01
Volunteering helps me to work through my own personal problems	23	14	34	58	41	23	15	208	4.00
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	28	22	29	55	47	22	7	210	3.79
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	22	19	41	58	45	15	9	209	3.79
By volunteering, I feel less lonely	25	31	31	63	41	10	8	209	3.60
I feel volunteering is a religious duty	50	20	29	42	34	22	13	210	3.51

*1=Not at all Important, 2=Very Unimportant, 3=Somewhat Unimportant, 4=Neutral, 5=Somewhat Important, 6=Very Important, 7=Extremely Important

Table 4-5. Factor loadings for volunteer motivation dimensions

Questionnaire Items*	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Values and Understanding					
I feel it is important to help others	0.808				
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	0.781				
I am concerned with those less fortunate than myself	0.775				
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	0.773				
I can do something for a cause that is important to me	0.750				
I feel compassion towards people in need	0.722				
I can explore my own strengths	0.702				
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	0.589				
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	0.581				
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	0.570				
Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment	0.566				
Protective					
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles		0.829			
Volunteering helps me to work through my own personal problems		0.763			
By volunteering, I feel less lonely		0.755			
Volunteering makes me feel needed		0.714			
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it		0.636			
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others		0.635			
Social					
People I'm close to want me to volunteer			0.844		
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service			0.840		
My friends volunteer			0.742		
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best			0.703		
People I know share an interest in community service			0.652		
I feel volunteering is a religious duty			0.472		
Career					
Volunteering can help me get a foot in the door at a place where I would like to work				0.828	
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career				0.798	

Table 4-5. Continued

Questionnaire Items*	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Volunteering experiences will look good on my resume				0.714	
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options				0.704	
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession				0.647	
Volunteering is a way to make new friends				0.556	
Enhancement					
Volunteering makes me feel important					0.686
Volunteering increases my self-esteem					0.502
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself					0.465
Number of items	11	6	6	6	3
Eigenvalue	6.40	5.07	4.09	3.96	1.57
Percentage of variance explained	20.00	15.85	12.77	12.37	4.89
Cumulative variance explained	20.00	35.86	48.63	61.00	65.89

* Items coded on a 7-point scale from Not at all Important (1) to Extremely Important (7)

Table 4-6. Reliability analysis for volunteer motivation dimensions

Questionnaire Items*	Mean	SD	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Values and Understanding				
I feel it is important to help others	5.90	1.09	0.761	0.905
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	5.68	1.14	0.704	0.907
I am concerned with those less fortunate than myself	5.74	1.02	0.663	0.910
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	5.65	1.11	0.728	0.906
I can do something for a cause that is important to me	5.75	1.10	0.739	0.906
I feel compassion towards people in need	5.58	1.19	0.700	0.908
I can explore my own strengths	5.22	1.24	0.734	0.906
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	5.26	1.20	0.614	0.912
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	5.38	1.20	0.669	0.909
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	5.31	1.14	0.636	0.911
Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment	4.70	1.52	0.552	0.918
Overall index	*5.45*	*0.86*	*NA*	*0.920*
Career				
Volunteering can help me get a foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	4.75	1.64	0.772	0.832
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	4.65	1.66	0.768	0.833
Volunteering experiences will look good on my resume	4.94	1.51	0.604	0.862
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	4.76	1.53	0.658	0.853
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	4.63	1.55	0.656	0.853
Volunteering is a way to make new friends	4.64	1.42	0.580	0.865
Overall index	*4.72*	*1.21*	*NA*	*0.871*
Enhancement				
Volunteering makes me feel important	4.90	1.41	0.586	0.844
Volunteering increases my self-esteem	4.56	1.47	0.734	0.700
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	4.63	1.55	0.724	0.709
Overall index	*4.70*	*1.27*	*NA*	*0.823*
Social				
People I'm close to want me to volunteer	4.07	1.54	0.733	0.842

Table 4-6. Continued

Questionnaire Items*	Mean	SD	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	4.26	1.52	0.825	0.826
My friends volunteer	4.02	1.41	0.611	0.862
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	4.06	1.54	0.741	0.841
People I know share an interest in community service	4.51	1.38	0.676	0.853
I feel volunteering is a religious duty	3.53	1.89	0.529	0.885
Overall index	*4.07*	*1.21*	*NA*	*0.880*
Protective				
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	3.80	1.54	0.793	0.858
Volunteering helps me to work through my own personal problems	4.00	1.66	0.759	0.862
By volunteering, I feel less lonely	3.61	1.57	0.701	0.872
Volunteering makes me feel needed	4.45	1.59	0.712	0.870
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it	4.43	1.50	0.644	0.881
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	3.81	1.62	0.641	0.882
Overall index	*4.01*	*1.25*	*NA*	*0.890*

* Items coded on a 7-point scale from Not at all Important (1) to Extremely Important (7)
SD = Standard Deviation, NA = Not Applicable

Table 4-7. Frequency distribution of constraints items

Questionnaire Statement*	1	2	3	4	5	N	Mean
I do not know anyone that volunteers	99	75	66	20	4	264	2.07
I have a limited budget	85	70	64	34	10	263	2.29
I am unaware of opportunities to volunteer	58	70	91	33	11	263	2.50
I do not have enough energy to volunteer	72	74	78	32	5	261	2.33
I have an injury, handicap, or ill health	175	34	36	16	3	264	1.63
I have too many other commitments	25	34	93	72	39	263	3.25
I think it will negatively affect my grades	98	87	51	24	4	264	2.05
No one has asked me to volunteer	97	76	67	19	5	264	2.09
I have no time to volunteer	34	53	84	64	28	263	3.00
My friends do not volunteer	106	80	48	25	3	262	2.00
I do not feel safe at volunteer sites	154	69	27	9	5	264	1.64
My family does not volunteer	147	65	39	12	1	264	1.69
I do not have the necessary skills	144	74	32	13	1	264	1.69
I do not have transportation to volunteer sites	172	37	31	15	8	263	1.67
I have no one to volunteer with	119	57	55	27	6	264	2.03

*1=No Influence, 2=Weak Influence, 3=Moderate Influence, 4=Strong Influence, 5=Very Strong Influence

Table 4-8. Reliability analysis for constraints dimensions

Questionnaire Items*	Mean	SD	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Structural				
I have no time to volunteer	2.98	1.18	0.545	0.559
I have too many other commitments	3.25	1.15	0.476	0.594
I have a limited budget	2.29	1.16	0.378	0.639
I am unaware of opportunities to volunteer	2.51	1.10	0.428	0.617
I do not have transportation to volunteer sites	1.66	1.08	0.294	0.672
Overall index	*2.54*	*0.75*	*NA*	*0.670*
Interpersonal				
My friends do not volunteer	2.00	1.04	0.746	0.777
I do not know anyone that volunteers	2.07	1.03	0.608	0.816
I have no one to volunteer with	2.03	1.13	0.667	0.800
No one has asked me to volunteer	2.09	1.04	0.584	0.822
My family does not volunteer	1.69	0.91	0.616	0.815
Overall index	*1.98*	*0.81*	*NA*	*0.839*
Intrapersonal				
I have an injury, handicap, or ill health	1.62	1.00	0.528	0.675
I do not have the necessary skills	1.69	0.90	0.590	0.655
I do not feel safe at volunteer sites	1.65	0.94	0.540	0.672
I think it will negatively affect my grades	2.05	1.04	0.490	0.690
I do not have enough energy to volunteer	2.33	1.07	0.355	0.744
Overall index	*1.87*	*0.69*	*NA*	*0.734*

* Items coded on a 5-point scale from No Influence (1) to Very Strong Influence (5)
SD = Standard Deviation, NA = Not Applicable

Table 4-9. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between motivation dimensions and volunteer segment

	Volunteer Segment													
	Political		Environmental		Recreational		Cultural		Human Services		Educational			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Sig.
Enhancement	4.42 (4)	1.55	4.59 (9)	1.01	4.26 (13)	1.82	4.63 (34)	1.15	4.78 (86)	1.30	4.74 (61)	1.22	0.476	0.826
Social	3.71 (4)	1.09	4.28 (9)	1.13	3.72 (13)	1.84	4.47 (34)	0.97	4.01 (86)	1.24	3.99 (61)	1.16	1.031	0.406
Protective	3.67 (4)	1.94	4.13 (9)	1.41	3.44 (13)	1.96	3.82 (34)	1.07	4.16 (86)	1.22	4.01 (61)	1.16	0.907	0.491
Values and Understanding	4.75 (4)	1.45	5.29 (9)	0.73	5.57 (13)	0.70	5.22 (34)	0.80	5.54 (86)	0.83	5.49 (61)	0.95	1.137	0.342
Career	5.21 (4)	1.43	4.87 (9)	0.75	4.73 (13)	1.45	4.27 (34)	1.22	4.67 (86)	1.21	4.96 (61)	1.15	1.612	0.145

SD=Standard Deviation, Sig.=Significance

Table 4-10. Independent sample *t*-test for relationships between motivation and environmental volunteers

	Volunteered for Environmental Organization					
	Yes		No			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	*t*	Significance
Enhancement	4.63 (54)	1.42	4.73 (156)	1.22	-0.503	0.615
Social	4.25 (54)	1.23	4.01 (156)	1.21	1.295	0.197
Protective	4.19 (54)	1.29	3.95 (156)	1.24	1.193	0.234
Values and Understanding	5.60 (54)	0.86	5.40 (156)	0.86	1.449	0.149
Career	4.65 (54)	1.30	4.75 (156)	1.18	-0.518	0.605

*Significant at the 0.05 level
SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4-11. Independent sample *t*-test for relationships between motivation and gender

	Gender					
	Male		Female			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	*t*	Significance
Enhancement	4.58 (77)	1.37	4.78 (133)	1.21	-1.082	0.281
Social	4.20 (77)	1.17	4.00 (133)	1.24	1.163	0.246
Protective	3.87 (77)	1.35	4.10 (133)	1.19	-1.288	0.199
Values and Understanding	5.28 (77)	0.94	5.55 (133)*	0.81	-2.242	0.026
Career	4.52 (77)	1.39	4.84 (133)	1.08	-1.854	0.065

*Significant at the 0.05 level
SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4-12. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between motivation and race/ethnicity

	Race/Ethnicity											
	White/Caucasian		Hispanic/Latino		African American/Black		Asian		Multi-racial/Mixed Race			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Sig.
Enhancement	4.64 (157)	1.21	5.11 (25)	0.83	4.53 (12)	1.96	5.26 (9)	1.31	4.00 (5)	2.45	1.614	0.172
Social	4.01 (157)	1.20	4.25 (25)	0.98	3.89 (12)	1.43	5.02 (9)	1.40	3.77 (5)	1.74	1.755	0.139
Protective	3.91 (157)	1.20	4.36 (25)	0.87	3.97 (12)	1.81	4.91 (9)	1.16	3.67 (5)	2.42	1.995	0.097
Values and Understanding	5.40 (157)	0.81	5.70 (25)	0.70	5.48 (12)	1.37	5.65 (9)	1.09	5.42 (5)	1.50	0.771	0.545
Career	4.63 (157)	1.18	5.07 (25)	1.00	4.79 (12)	1.53	5.44 (9)	0.96	4.67 (5)	2.27	1.584	0.180

SD=Standard Deviation, Sig.=Significance

Table 4-13. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between motivation and class standing

	Class Standing									
	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Significance
Enhancement	4.83 (10)	1.34	4.15 (20)	1.03	4.56 (55)	1.42	4.85 (125)	1.21	2.071	0.105
Social	4.53 (10)	1.49	4.03 (20)	0.86	3.98 (55)	1.34	4.08 (125)	1.19	0.603	0.614
Protective	4.37 (10)	1.44	3.78 (20)	0.91	3.79 (55)	1.46	4.12 (125)	1.17	1.439	0.232
Values and Understanding	5.29 (10)	0.93	5.27 (20)	0.88	5.32 (55)	0.99	5.55 (125)	0.79	1.460	0.226
Career	5.18 (10)	0.91	4.76 (20)	1.10	4.65 (55)	1.32	4.72 (125)	1.21	0.563	0.640

SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4-14. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between motivation and type of hometown

	Type of Hometown													
	Farm/Ranch/Rural		Small Town		Large Town		Small City		Large City		Metropolitan Area			
Motivation Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Sig.
Enhancement	5.33 (1)	-	4.81 (18)	1.14	4.40 (42)	1.35	4.62 (51)	1.33	4.81 (57)	1.16	4.92 (41)	1.31	0.917	0.471
Social	4.67 (1)	-	4.50 (18)	0.90	3.76 (42)	1.19	4.09 (51)	1.26	3.91 (57)	1.15	4.37 (41)	1.32	1.792	0.116
Protective	4.50 (1)	-	4.31 (18)	1.17	3.59 (42)	1.15	3.93 (51)	1.35	4.08 (57)	1.27	4.32 (41)	1.16	1.798	0.115
Values and Understanding	4.55 (1)	-	5.68 (18)	0.49	5.47 (42)	0.62	5.38 (51)	1.19	5.35 (57)	0.71	5.59 (41)	0.91	0.921	0.468
Career	3.67 (1)	-	5.00 (18)	0.74	4.71 (42)	1.08	4.63 (51)	1.23	4.67 (57)	1.26	4.84 (41)	1.41	0.484	0.788

SD=Standard Deviation, Sig.=Significance

Table 4-15. Independent sample *t*-test for relationships between constraints and gender

	Gender					
	Male		Female			
Constraints Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	*t*	Significance
Intrapersonal	1.94 (100)	0.67	1.82 (164)	0.69	2.034	0.155
Interpersonal	2.18 (100)	0.78	1.85 (164)	0.80	10.774	0.001*
Structural	2.59 (100)	0.69	2.52 (164)	0.78	0.654	0.419

SD=Standard Deviation, *Significant at the 0.001 level

Table 4-16. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between constraints and race/ethnicity

	Race/Ethnicity											
	White/Caucasian		Hispanic/Latino		African American/Black		Asian		Multi-racial/Mixed Race			
Constraints Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Sig.
Intrapersonal	1.88 (196)	0.66	1.91 (30)	0.82	1.78 (18)	0.84	1.64 (10)	0.51	1.77 (7)	0.70	0.664	0.651
Interpersonal	2.03 (196)	0.80	2.02 (30)	0.86	1.60 (18)	0.77	1.44 (10)	0.50	1.74 (7)	0.79	2.258	0.049*
Structural	2.58 (196)	0.71	2.54 (30)	0.81	2.42 (18)	1.11	2.10 (10)	0.62	2.43 (7)	0.80	0.950	0.449

SD=Standard Deviation, Sig.=Significance
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4-17. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between constraints and class standing

	Class Standing									
	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior			
Constraints Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Significance
Intrapersonal	2.02 (11)	0.75	1.98 (24)	0.64	1.89 (69)	0.70	1.83 (160)	0.68	0.605	0.612
Interpersonal	2.36 (11)	0.92	2.23 (24)	0.79	1.99 (69)	0.82	1.91 (160)	0.79	2.029	0.110
Structural	2.35 (11)	0.62	2.77 (24)	0.70	2.54 (69)	0.83	2.53 (160)	0.72	0.994	0.396

SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4-18. One-way analysis of variance for relationships between constraints and type of hometown

	Type of Hometown													
	Farm/Ranch/Rural		Small Town		Large Town		Small City		Large City		Metropolitan Area			
Constraints Dimensions	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	Mean (n)	SD	F	Sig.
Intrapersonal	2.53 (3)	0.90	1.76 (22)	0.61	1.90 (53)	0.61	1.85 (65)	0.75	1.83 (71)	0.59	1.90 (50)	0.81	0.760	0.579
Interpersonal	1.73 (3)	0.95	1.68 (22)	0.64	2.08 (53)	0.78	1.92 (65)	0.81	2.04 (71)	0.82	2.00 (50)	0.86	0.964	0.440
Structural	3.13 (3)	0.42	2.57 (22)	0.83	2.61 (53)	0.61	2.50 (65)	0.77	2.61 (71)	0.70	2.39 (50)	0.88	1.058	0.384

SD=Standard Deviation, Sig.=Significance

Table 4-19. Correlations between volunteer motivations and volunteer constraints

	Motivation Dimensions									
	Enhancement		Social		Protective		Values and Understanding		Career	
Constraints Dimensions	r	N	r	N	r	N	r	N	r	N
Intrapersonal	0.14*	210	0.18**	210	0.16*	210	-0.12	210	0.05	210
Interpersonal	0.05	210	0.08	210	0.05	210	-0.22**	210	-0.06	210
Structural	-0.06	210	0.00	210	-0.07	210	-0.15*	210	-0.04	210

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The objective of this research was to further examine motives and constraints to volunteerism among college students. Undergraduate students were selected as subjects for this study because of their tendency to volunteer and for their viability as a valuable source of volunteer service. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the motivational factors of undergraduate students to volunteer in various capacities. More specifically, it examined who was volunteering, their frequency of participation in volunteer programs, types of volunteer organizations, and why time was used to pursue these activities. In addition, this study explored factors that may act as constraints to participation in volunteerism. The results and conclusions of the study are presented in five sections of this chapter:

1. Summary of Procedures
2. Discussion of Relevant Findings
3. Limitations
4. Conclusions and Implications
5. Recommendations for Future Research

Summary of Procedures

Selection of subjects

Subjects in this study were selected from three Introduction to Recreation classes at the University of Florida. The classes that were utilized in this study were online-based courses in which students were required to complete a certain number of surveys or questionnaires throughout the course of the semester. Responses were received from 270 of the 305 students enrolled in the class, yielding a response rate of 88.5%.

The majority of the respondents were female, Caucasian, and were enrolled in their Senior year. Most of the respondents reported that they were either currently involved in volunteer activities or had been involved in the past twelve months. These findings are similar to those found in other studies (Astin & Sax, 1998, Carlo et al., 2005, Cress & Sax, 1998, Serow, 1991).

Furthermore, family was responsible for introducing over 40% of respondents to volunteerism and nearly three fourths of respondents had volunteered in natural areas.

Instrumentation

An electronic version of a five page survey was developed with the assistance of a technology professional at the university. The tool consisted of four major sections. The first section addressed volunteer participation and included the scope of volunteerism, types of volunteer activities the students are involved in, and ways the student contributes to the organizations with which they are associated. The second section addressed volunteer motivations using 32 motivational factor items rated on a Likert-type scale from Not at all Important (1) to Extremely Important (7). In addition, an open-ended question was used to uncover any other motivational factors not listed. The third section addressed constraints to participation in volunteer activities. It asked participants to rate 15 potential constraints to volunteerism on a Likert-type scale from No Influence (1) to Very Strong Influence (5). An open-ended question was used to uncover any other constraints not listed. Finally, the fourth section inquired about select socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, year of schooling, academic major, and city of residence.

Operationalization of Variables

Volunteerism

In this study, volunteerism was operationalized using three measures: the Scope of Volunteerism, Volunteer Segment, and Type of Contributions.

The Scope of Volunteerism addressed the extent to which the individual had volunteered in the past based on three measures of volunteerism (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Volunteer Range was based on the number of organizations that the individual had volunteered for in the past. Volunteering Amount was the total number of hours that the volunteer contributed each year.

Finally, Volunteering Length was the number of years that the individual had been providing volunteer service (Wilson & Musick, 1999).

Volunteer Segment identified six categories of volunteer service; Political, Environmental, Recreational, Cultural, Human Services, and Educational. Examples of each of these six categories were provided on the survey.

Type of Contributions addressed the level of support by measuring five items. These items were Time (e.g. attend meetings, sit on a committee, fundraising drives, etc.), Money (e.g. donations, annual dues, etc.), Leadership (e.g. hold office, chair a committee, act as a team leader on a project, etc.), Resources (e.g. allow the use of tools, vehicles, property, etc.), and Skills (e.g. physical labor, expertise/specialized knowledge, etc.).

Motivation

Motivation was operationalized using 30 items from the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) developed by Clary et al. (1996), with the addition of two new items: "I feel volunteering is a religious duty" and "Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment." Using factor analysis, these items were reduced to five Volunteer Motivation dimensions. This differs from the original study where the authors found six Volunteer Functions, but is acceptable as it was pointed out that more or fewer dimensions are likely to be found when the VFI is used on unique populations (Clary et al., 1998). Prior to this study, the tool had not been used to measure volunteer motivation on a sample of undergraduate college students who were active in volunteerism. Each function was checked for internal consistency based on Cronbach's alpha.

The Values and Understanding function (alpha=0.92) was comprised of 11 items that related to helping others and expanding one's own perspective on an issue. The Protective function (alpha=0.89) was comprised of six items that dealt with using volunteerism as a way to escape from one's own troubles. The Social function (alpha=0.87) was comprised of six items

involving social interactions and doing something that is seen as important to the people the volunteer is closest to. The Career function (alpha=0.87) was comprised of six items that related to developing skills or networking for the purpose of furthering one's career. Finally, the Enhancement function (alpha=0.82) was comprised of three items that deal with personal growth and development. Dimension scores were established by computing the mean of the items in each dimension.

Constraints

The Constraints variable was operationalized using 15 items from three dimensions: Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, and Structural. Each dimension was checked for internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha.

Intrapersonal Constraints (alpha=0.73) was comprised of five items that represent potential barriers involving only the individual in question. Interpersonal Constraints (alpha=0.84) was comprised of five items dealing with the perception of constraints to other individuals. Finally, Structural Constraints (alpha=0.67) was comprised of five items that reflected external barriers to participation. Dimension Scores were established by computing the mean of the items in each dimension.

Discussion of Relevant Findings

The results of the research are summarized and the relationships between the independent and dependent variables are discussed in this section.

Research Question 1: What motivates college students to volunteer?

The Values and Understanding dimension scored the highest among respondents with a mean of 5.45 and the Career dimension had the second highest score with a mean of 4.72, followed by the Enhancement dimension with a mean of 4.70. Since the Values and Understanding dimension involved helping others and giving back to society, this supports the

findings of Astin and Sax (1998) that students were strongly committed to helping others, serving in their communities, promoting racial understanding, doing volunteer work, and working for nonprofit organizations. (Astin & Sax, 1998). Clary and Snyder (1999) also found that the Values and Understanding and Enhancement dimensions were the highest among respondents, though in their study, Values and Understanding represented two separate dimensions. Conversely, the study found that the Career dimension did not rank highly among volunteers as it did in this study.

According to Clary et al. (1998), people can be recruited into volunteer work by appealing to their own psychological functions or motives. Since Values and Understanding rated the highest among respondents, this statement is supported by the fact that Human Services organizations were the most popular. The motives represented by the items in the Values and Understanding dimension can all be satisfied by volunteering for Human Services organizations, who's main goals are helping other people and giving back to the community.

The strength of the items in the Career dimension is unique to this sample. This finding suggests that college students are more interested in furthering their career paths through volunteerism than the general population. This could be due in part to the fact that most college students are not currently employed full time, while the majority of non-student volunteers are. Non-students may have less of a need to volunteer in order to enhance their résumés, build social networks, or explore new careers.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between motivation and volunteer segment?

No significant relationships were found between motivation dimensions and volunteer segments. In general, volunteers in every segment were able to satisfy their motives to the same extent. When analyzed separately, no significant was relationship was found between motivations in those who volunteered in Environmental organizations and those who did not.

These findings could be due to the fact that all of the respondents had a similar demographic background and motivations. Differences may have been found in a more diverse sample or in a sample with a more equal distribution of volunteer segments.

In this study, most of the respondents volunteered for Human Services and Education organizations and relatively few volunteered for Political or Environmental organizations. This finding was unexpected due to the fact that the study was conducted during an election year in which students were said to be particularly active.

Respondents reported stronger motivations in the Values and Understanding function, which are satisfied by volunteering for Human Services organizations. The motivations of volunteers in each of these segments may differ significantly in other samples. Finally, it is likely that Values and Understanding motives could be satisfied by volunteering in any segment.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between volunteer motivations and select socio-demographic characteristics?

The variables chosen for analysis were gender, race/ethnicity, class standing, and type of hometown. One significant difference was found between males and females with respect to motivation. Females were more likely than males to indicate Values and Understanding as a motive to volunteer. Liao-Troth & Dunn (1999) found that there was no significant difference in volunteerism between genders, but the sample for that study was not comprised entirely of college students. The results of this analysis support Astin and Sax (1998) who found that among college students, there was a significant relationship between gender and volunteerism. Specifically, Astin and Sax (1998) also found that female college students were more highly motivated to volunteer than males. Additionally, Wilson and Musick (1999) found that females seem to benefit more from volunteer experiences than men. The findings that women are more likely to volunteer and receive more benefits from volunteering than men are supported by the

results of this analysis that show that women have stronger motivations to volunteer, especially within the Values and Understanding dimension.

No significant differences were found between race/ethnicity groups with respect to motivation for this sample. This finding differs from the literature which stated that white individuals are likely to volunteer more frequently than African-Americans (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007), though when socio-economic status is controlled for, African-Americans tended to participate in volunteer activities more than other races (Burns et al., 2005). This may be due to the fact that all respondents in this study had a similar demographic background. Over 86% of respondents in this sample were white/Caucasian or Hispanic/Latino and all of them had some college education. Respondents from the other studies represented the general public, not college students specifically.

No significant differences were found between class standings with respect to motivation for this sample, though the Freshmen category had a slightly higher mean value for each motivation dimension than the other categories. This may be due to the fact that 70.0% of respondents in this sample were required to volunteer in high school in order to graduate. This finding may be unique to this sample as it has been stated that a very small percentage of Americans between the ages of 16 and 18 are volunteering (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). Most high school students in the state of Florida are required to participate in Service Learning or other compulsory volunteer programs and nearly 82% of this sample reported Florida as their state of residence. Respondents were asked to report volunteer activity during the previous 12 months, which would include volunteer service as a high school student for the Freshmen category. These results also support the statement that volunteer activities tend to decline between high school and college (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Many college students

indicate a strong desire to volunteer, but report a lack of time for volunteer activities. High school students may have fewer time constraints than college students who often have to balance a full class schedule with work, socialization, networking, and a host of other activities. In addition, many college students live away from home for the first time and must learn to cope with the added responsibilities of meeting daily needs (e.g. food, sleep, exercise, etc.).

Research Question 4: What constrains volunteerism among college students?

Total Constraint scores and dimension scores were computed for respondents to determine which constraints were strongest for this sample. Constraints Scores ranged from 1.00 to 3.67 with a mean of 2.13 for the entire sample. Structural constraints were the strongest for this sample with a mean of 2.58 and Intrapersonal constraints were the weakest with a mean of 1.66. This finding supports the Hierarchical Model of Constraints proposed by Crawford et al. (1991) which states that Intrapersonal Constraints are the first to be encountered and the easiest to overcome while Structural Constraints are the most difficult to negotiate. It was reported that the most common objection that college students have to volunteering is that it consumes time and energy that might otherwise be devoted to academic pursuits (Astin & Sax, 1998). Since these items represent Structural Constraints, the results of this analysis support this statement.

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between volunteer constraints and select socio-demographic characteristics?

The variables chosen for analysis were gender, race/ethnicity, class standing, and type of hometown. Significant differences between males and females were found for the Interpersonal Constraints dimension and in the total Constraints score. Males reported stronger constraints in both cases. This supports the finding that females in this sample volunteered more frequently than males. It was found that as Interpersonal constraints increased, Values and Understanding

motivations decreased. With weaker motivations, the constraints were more difficult to negotiate, thereby leading to lower levels of participation.

Significant differences were found between race/ethnicity and Interpersonal constraints. Respondents who reported that they were White/Caucasian or Hispanic/Latino were more likely to report Interpersonal constraints than were African American/Black or Asian respondents.

Research Question 6: Is there a relationship between volunteer motivations and constraints?

The Intrapersonal constraints dimension was positively correlated with the Social (r=0.18), Protective (r=0.16), and Enhancement (r=0.14) motivation dimensions. Furthermore, the Values and Understanding motivation dimension was negatively correlated with both the Interpersonal (r=-0.22) and Structural (r=-0.15) constraints dimensions. No correlations were found between the Career motivation dimension and any constraints dimension.

These correlations indicate significant linear relationships between the variables. The findings show that as Interpersonal and Structural constraints increased Values and Understanding motivations decreased. Additionally, as Intrapersonal constraints increased, Social, Protective, and Enhancement motivations also increased.

Limitations

The findings are not generalizable to the general population of college students because the sample was drawn from three sections of the same course and from students at one university. Additionally, the study relied on self-reported measures of motivation and volunteer behavior. Self-reported measures are subject to degrees of bias, and it can be difficult to identify the magnitude of the error. Furthermore, the majority of this sample originated in the state of Florida, where compulsory volunteerism is a standard in most high schools. This could have a

significant impact on volunteerism in college and further limits the generalizability of these results.

Conclusions and Implications

This study found five motivational functions and three constraint dimensions with respect to volunteerism among college students. Furthermore, several significant relationships were found between motivation, constraints, and various demographic characteristics.

Correlations were found between the Values and Understanding function and Structural and Interpersonal constraints, and between Intrapersonal constraints and the Social, Protective, and Enhancement functions. These relationships indicated that social interaction is important for this sample.

In the first relationship, as the respondent perceives higher levels of constraints for friends and family (Interpersonal constraints), they are less motivated to help other people and serve the community (Values and Understanding function). This is interesting because the Values and Understanding function was the strongest motivation function for this sample. This finding may be an indication that the items represented by the Values and Understanding function (altruistic in nature) are not as important to the individual as reported. Rather, they are perceived as being important to those around the individual and by volunteering, the individual is able to improve the way others perceive them. This supports the Altruistic Deception Construct presented by Francies (1983), whereby people tend to socially portray their volunteer work as being altruistic, regardless of any other actual reason for engaging in the activity.

Additionally, as the respondent perceives more Structural constraints (lack of time, money, transportation, etc.), they are less motivated by Values and Understanding items. This supports Martinez and McMullin (2004), which found that efficacy (Values and Understanding items) had the greatest effect on the decision to be active in a volunteer organization and that competing

commitments (Structural constraint) had the most influence on the decision *not* to participate. This could be attributed to a desire to fulfill one's own needs before serving others. If an individual perceives that spending time, money, or resources volunteering will have a negative impact on the individual or the individual's friends and family, they will be less motivated to use those resources in serving others. It is difficult to convince a person to suppress their desire to advantage themselves and their own families in favor of advantaging the group (Fennell, 2008). The literature has stated that although altruism may lead a person to volunteer initially, self-interested motivations are more important for continued participations (Ryan et al., 2001). Values and Understanding motives may not be strong enough on their own to overcome certain Structural constraints.

Furthermore, as Intrapersonal constraints (personal barriers between preference and participation) increase, Social motivations (motivation to do work that is viewed as important by the people who matter to the volunteer) also increase. The finding shows that students who perceive a high level of Intrapersonal constraints may rely on the support of the people around them in order to volunteer. As shown in the previous relationship, if that support is not available (Interpersonal constraints), the individual may not be able to successfully negotiate the constraints hierarchy and participate in volunteerism. Wickham and Graefe (1998) also found that in addition to altruistic and egoistic motives, some volunteers desire a social setting in which to interact with other people. It seems likely that this social interaction may be more important to some student volunteers than other motives. It has been stated that people may initially take part in volunteer programs for altruistic reasons, but they are more likely to stay active if they perceive other benefits (such as social benefits) as well (Ryan et al., 2001).

Volunteer managers should be aware of these relationships and market volunteer activities to address them. Programs should highlight the importance of the program and offer awards or recognition to volunteers. Public recognition serves the need for peer support, acknowledgement, and other social benefits while appealing to the volunteers desire to satisfy Values and Understanding motives as well. This can create more incentive to overcome Interpersonal and Structural barriers. Social relationships, learning, and project organization have all been shown to be significant predictors of continued participation (Ryan et al., 2001), suggesting that organizations need to have a dynamic program that meets the changing motivations of volunteers as time progresses.

It has been shown that an individual's motivation to volunteer is a better predictor of future behaviors than current volunteer activities since the extent of one's current behaviors is often influenced by the amount of time an individual has for volunteering (Burns et al., 2005). Volunteer managers should provide programs that make the most use of a volunteer's time. Programs should focus not only on benefiting the organization, but on reducing Structural constraints for the volunteers. Respondents in this study indicated that lack of time was a major constraint to volunteerism. They would rather spend their time studying, socializing, or advancing their career goals. Volunteer managers could design programs that incorporate relevant learning, socialization, or networking into the program, thereby reducing a major Structural constraint and satisfying additional motivation goals.

Additionally, females reported stronger motivations, weaker constraints, and higher levels of involvement in volunteer activities than males for this sample. Males reported higher Interpersonal constraints and total constraints than females. To appeal to more males, volunteer managers must understand the social nature of these constraints and should develop programs

that help to enhance the volunteer's perception of how other people view them. It is unclear whether egoistic motives are more prevalent in males or if males are just more comfortable reporting them, but in either case, a volunteer program must provide more benefits than simply helping out a cause.

Recommendations for Future Research

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, further research on the motivations and constraints to volunteerism among undergraduate college students is needed among other student populations to verify these results. Past research has focused on motivations and constraints to various leisure activities, but little has been written about these constructs in regards to volunteerism. Volunteerism is a unique leisure-time activity in that it is often not undertaken solely for pleasure or relaxation. Volunteers participate in various programs to give back to their communities, help a cause, or build social networks.

The term "volunteerism" as defined in this study may not accurately depict true volunteerism. Specifically, compulsory volunteerism programs fit into the current definition (provision of service with no monetary compensation) though they are undertaken by obligation, not free will. Also, contributing financial support to an organization is considered to be volunteerism, even if no other contribution is given (e.g. time, labor, expertise, etc.) Furthermore, programs which offer participants small amounts of monetary compensation (e.g. stipends, living expenses, etc.) are not included in the present definition, but are often undertaken voluntarily, though the money is rarely a strong motivating factor. Rather, other motivations (e.g. meet new people, further career goals, develop understanding, etc.) are the primary goals of participants. Research should be conducted to appropriately define "volunteerism" and should consider in-kind vs. in-cash rewards, obligation vs. free will, and provision of financial support vs. other contributions.

Additional research should compare the motivations and constraints of current student volunteers to those who have volunteered in the past, but are no longer active. In addition, comparisons should be made between the motivations and constraints of student volunteers and non-students in the same age range. Comparisons could also be made between the motivations and constraints of participants in Service Learning or other compulsory volunteer programs and volunteers who were introduced to service by other means.

Females consistently report stronger motivations to volunteer and more frequent participation in volunteer programs than males. Future research should explore this phenomenon to determine why women are more likely to volunteer than men.

It has been stated that the Structural constraint dimension may be more complex than originally thought and that this dimension should be reexamined and possibly expanded to two or more separate dimensions (Thapa et al., 2002, Nyaupane et al., 2004). Thapa et al. (2002) suggested Personal Structural constraints and Environmental Structural constraints. Volunteerism research may benefit from this line of analysis.

Research should also be conducted to identify the functions served by different volunteer organization types. If different volunteer segments satisfy different motivations in participants, volunteers could be matched up with organizations that would fulfill their personal needs, while still accomplishing the goals of the organization.

Furthermore, it is clear that both motivations and constraints play a role in determining whether or not an individual will volunteer. High levels of motivations do not ensure participation, and high levels of constraints do not necessarily prevent it. Further research is needed to understand that interplay of motivations and constraints in the decision to volunteer. The constraints construct should be introduced into the balance model of motivation and

satisfaction (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Satisfaction should be compared between volunteers and participants in other recreational activities.

The social nature of the relationships between motivations and constraints is a new finding and shows that college students are unique demographic with respect to volunteerism. These relationships should be further explored to gain a better understanding of the factors that motivate and constrain volunteerism among college students. Values and Understanding are consistently reported as being the most important volunteer motivations, but analysis has shown that the altruistic nature of these motivations may be masking other underlying motives. Further research should focus on how peer perception and other social influences affect volunteer motivation. It should consider the Altruistic Deception Construct and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB).

Overall, the Volunteer Function Inventory and Three-Dimensional Constraints model have proven to be useful tools in the examination of the motivations and constraints to volunteerism among undergraduate college students. Additional research in further understanding these constructs is recommended.

APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION AND CONSTRAINTS SURVEY (2009)

Survey #: _____ Date: _____

For the purposes of this survey, "volunteering" is defined as:

A contribution of service, time, money, or resources without the expectation of monetary reward. The contributions can be made through an organization or independent of one.

SECTION I: VOLUNTEER BACKGROUND

Please answer the following questions:

1. Have you volunteered in the past 12 months?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No (*If No*)→ Please skip ahead to Section III.

2. How many volunteer organizations or programs have you been involved with in the past 12 months? _____

3. On how many separate occasions did you volunteer in the past 12 months? _____

4. Have you spent time volunteering independently, outside of an organized group or program (e.g. assist a blind woman with her shopping, visit a retirement home, etc.)?

❑ Yes ❑ No

5. How many hours do you spend volunteering per week? _____ Per month? _____ Per year? _____

6. Since you started volunteering, during how many years did you volunteer at least once? _____

7. What year did you first start volunteering? _____

8a. Which of the following organizations and programs have you volunteered for? (*Select all that apply*)

- ❑ Political (Political campaigns, etc.)
- ❑ Environmental (Sierra Club, Friends of Florida State Parks, etc.)
- ❑ Recreational (Scouting groups, hiking clubs, boating clubs, book clubs, etc.)
- ❑ Cultural (Church groups, women's groups, etc.)
- ❑ Human Services (Habitat for Humanity, Red Cross, volunteer fire department, hospitals, etc.)
- ❑ Educational (Literacy programs, tutoring, teacher's aid programs, etc.)
- ❑ Other: _____

8b. Of all of these, which is the *most important* to you? _____

9a. In what ways do you contribute to these organizations? (*Select **all** that apply*)

- ❑ Time (Attend meetings, sit on a committee, fundraising drives, etc.)
- ❑ Money (Donations, annual dues, etc.)
- ❑ Leadership (Hold office, Chair a committee, act as a team leader on a project, etc.)
- ❑ Resources (Allow the use of your tools, vehicles, property, etc.)
- ❑ Skills (Physical labor, expertise, etc.)
- ❑ Other: _____

9b. Of all of these, what would you consider your *most significant* contribution? _____

10. Did you volunteer in High School?

❑ Yes ❑ No

11a. Did you participate in "service hours," "service learning," or any other compulsory volunteer program as a requirement for a class or graduation during high school?

❑ Yes ❑ No (*If No*)→ Skip 11b.

11b. Did you volunteer beyond what was expected and required for the class or to graduate?

❑ Yes ❑ No

12. Who introduced you to your first volunteering experience? (*Check **one** only*)

- ❑ Family member
- ❑ Friend
- ❑ Other: _____
- ❑ Teacher
- ❑ Religious Leader
- ❑ Scouting or other Organization Leader

13. Have you ever participated in volunteer programs in natural areas (litter pick-up on a beach, clear trails in a park, etc.)?

❑ Yes ❑ No

SECTION II: VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION

1. There are many reasons why people volunteer. Please indicate the importance of each of these factors in explaining why you choose to volunteer. *(Circle **one number** for each item)*

Motivational Factors	**Not at all Important**	**Very Unimportant**	**Somewhat Unimportant**	**Neutral**	Somewhat Important	**Very Important**	Extremely Important
Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My friends volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I am concerned with those less fortunate than myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People I'm close to want me to volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering makes me feel important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People I know share an interest in community service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
By volunteering I feel less lonely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering increases my self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel compassion towards people in need	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel it is important to help others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can do something for a cause that is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering makes me feel needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering experiences will look good on my résumé	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering is a way to make new friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel volunteering is a religious duty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering is a way for me to help the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore my own strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Please list any other factors that may contribute to your volunteerism.

SECTION III: VOLUNTEER CONSTRAINTS

1. There are many reasons why people *do not* volunteer at all, or more often than they do. Please indicate how much influence each constraint below has on your decision to *not* volunteer. *(Circle **one number** for each item)*

Constraints	**No Influence**	**Weak Influence**	Moderate Influence	Strong Influence	Very Strong Influence
I do not know anyone that volunteers	1	2	3	4	5
I have a limited budget	1	2	3	4	5
I am unaware of opportunities to volunteer	1	2	3	4	5
I do not have enough energy to volunteer	1	2	3	4	5

I have an injury, handicap, or ill health	1	2	3	4	5
I have too many other commitments	1	2	3	4	5
I think it will negatively affect my grades	1	2	3	4	5
No one has asked me to volunteer	1	2	3	4	5
I have no time to volunteer	1	2	3	4	5
My friends do not volunteer	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel safe at volunteer sites	1	2	3	4	5
My family does not volunteer	1	2	3	4	5
I do not have the necessary skills	1	2	3	4	5
I do not have transportation to volunteer sites	1	2	3	4	5
I have no one to volunteer with	1	2	3	4	5

2. Please list any other factors that may prevent you from volunteering or from volunteering more often.

_____

_____

SECTION IV: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Are you? ❑ Male ❑ Female **2**. What is your age? _____

3. Do you consider yourself to be?

❑ Caucasian or White
❑ African American or Black
❑ Hispanic/Latino
❑ Asian
❑ Pacific Islander
❑ Native American or American Indian
❑ Other (please specify) _____
❑ Multi-racial or Mixed race

4. What is your current class standing? (*Check **one** only*)

❑ Freshman ❑ Sophomore ❑ Junior ❑ Senior

5. What is your academic major? _____ In which Department?_____

6. What is your city of residence? _____ State? _____ Country? _____

7. How big is the town you grew up in? (*Check **one** only*)

❑ Farm, ranch, or rural
❑ Small town (fewer than 10,000 people)
❑ Large town (10,000-49,999 people)
❑ Small city (50,000-99,999 people)
❑ Large city (100,000-249,999 people)
❑ Metropolitan area (250,000+ people)

That completes our survey. Thank you very much for your assistance. For More Information, Please Contact:

Richard L. Gage III, University of Florida Department of Tourism, Recreation, and Sport Management

Phone: (607)591-5996 or rlgiii@ufl.edu

APPENDIX B
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

UF Institutional Review Board
UNIVERSITY of FLORIDA

PO Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
352-392-0433 (Phone)
352-392-9234 (Fax)
irb2@ufl.edu

DATE: December 8, 2008

TO: Richard L. Gage III
2335 SW 35th Place Apt. 13
Gainesville, FL 32608

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD, Chair
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2008-U-1077**

TITLE: Volunteer Motivations and Barriers Among Undergraduate College Students

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants, and based on 45 CFR 46.117(c), An IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it finds either: *(1) That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern; or (2) That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.*

The IRB authorizes you to administer the informed consent process as specified in the protocol. If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, ***including the need to increase the number of participants authorized***, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by **November 21, 2009**, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Richard L. Gage III was born in 1984, in Binghamton, NY. Being from a military family, he grew up and attended schools in Germany and all over the United States. In 2002, he enrolled in the Recreation, Adventure Travel, and Ecotourism program at Paul Smith's College and graduated with a bachelor's degree in 2006. While at Paul Smith's College, he studied in Costa Rica and Mexico, and wrote his Capstone project on the impacts of tourism and development on local traditional cultures.

While working on his master's degree, Rick was involved in several projects including a recreational visitor study on the Ocala National Forest and the development of an interpretive program for the City of Gainesville's Ring Park. These projects helped him to refine his research skills, network with industry professionals, and contribute to science and his community. Rick completed his master's degree in August 2009 and plans to begin a PhD program at the Pennsylvania State University in the fall.